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"INGLIZ TILI VA ADABIYOTI"

KAFEDRASI

INGLIZ TILI LEKSIKOLOGIYASI

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LECTURE 1 LEXICOLOGY AS A SCIENCE.

PLAN:

l. The subject matter of lexicology.

2. Types of lexicology.

3. The connection of lexicology with other aspects of the language.

4.The relationships existing between words.

5.Diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of the vocabulary of the language.

6.The methods of linguistic research used in lexicology.

7. Subdivisions of lexicology.

Key words:

1. General	9. Syntagmatic
2. Special	10. Paradigmatic
3. Descriptive	11. Relationship
4. Historical	12. Approach
5. Comparative	13. Diachronic
6. Connection	14. Synchronic
7. Communication	15. Subdivision.

8. Arrangement of phonemes

Lexicology is a branch of linguistics, which studies the vocabulary of a language. Its basic task is to study the origin, the different properties of the vocabulary of a language. In other words, lexicology is concerned with words and set phrases which function in speech. Lexicology also studies all kinds of semantic relations (synonyms, antonyms etc) and semantic grouping (semantic fields). Etymologically the word «lexicology» is a Greek word: «Lexic» means «word» and «logos» -learning. There are 5 types of lexicology: 1) general; 2) special; 3) descriptive; 4) historical; 5) comparative.

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

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

changes it has undergone. Ex. In descriptive lexicology the words «to take», «to adopt» are considered as being English not differing from such native words as «child», «foot», «stone» etc. But in historical lexicology they are treated as borrowed words.

Comparative lexicology deals with the properties of the vocabulary of two or more languages. In comparative lexicology the main characteristic features of the words of two or more languages are compared. Ex. Russian - English lexicology, English - French lexicology and etc. Lexicology 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 in the grammar rules of a language communication becomes possible. On the other hand grammatical form and function in the word affect its lexical meaning. For example. Then the verb «go» in the continuous tenses is follow-by «to» and an infinitive, it expresses a future action. Ex. He is not going to read this book. Participle II of the verb «go» following the link verb «be» denotes the negative meaning. Ex. The house is gone. So the lexical meanings of the words are grammatically conditioned. Lexicology is linked with phonetics because the order and the arrangement of phonemes are related to its meaning. Ex. The words «tip» and «pit» consist of the same phonemes and it is the arrangement of phonemes, alone which determines the meaning of the words. The arrangement of phonemes in the words «increase» and «increase» is the same. Only stress determines the difference in meaning.

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

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

The relationship existing between words may be either syntagmatic or paradigmatic. The syntagmatic relationship is found in the context. The context is the minimum stretch of speech, which is necessary to bring out the meaning of a word. Ex. Take tea (hoh hhmok - iihtb nan), take tram (TpaMBafi^a lopMOK - exaTB Ha TpaMBae).

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

Synchronic approaches deals with the vocabulary, as it exists at a given time, at the present time. The diachronic approach studies the changes and the development of vocabulary in the course of time. Ex. Synchronically the words «help», «accept», «work», «produce» are all of them English words.

But diachronically they came from different languages. Such word as «childhood», «kingdom», «friendship», «freedom» were at one time compound words because the suffixes-dom, -hood, - ship were independent words but synchronically they are derived words because «dom» and «hood» became suffixes.

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

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) Word formation (studies all possible ways of the formation of new words in English); 3) Etymology (studies the origin of words); 4) Phraseology (studies the set-expressions, phraseological units); 5) Lexicolography (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 word formation, the semantic structure of correlated words and their usage in speech are different in different languages. Every language has its own lexical system. Not all the meanings, which, the English word has, may be found in its corresponding word in Uzbek. For example, compare the meanings of the word «hand» and it's corresponding. Word «қул». Hand

1) кул (рука); 2) хайвонларнинг олдинги оёклари (лапа); 3)тараф (сторона, положение) 4)бошкариш (контрольвласть); 5) розилик, ваъда (согласие, обещание); 6) ёрдам (помощь); 7) бир уйинчини кулидаги карта (карты, исходящиеся на руках у одного игрока); 8) ишчи (рабочий);

1) одамнинг бармоқ, учларидан елкагача булган кисми, аъзоси (рука); 2) хайвонларнинг олдинги оёкдари (лапа); 3) бармок (палец); 4) хар кимнинг ёзув усули (почерк); 5) имзо (подпись); 6) иш усули (приём работы); 7) ихтиёр, изм (воля); 8) имконият

9) денгизчи (матрос); 10) бажарувчи шахе (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) канот (крыло); 20) боглам, даста (пучок); 21) кафт (ладонь); 22) сон гушт (окорок); 23) жилов (повод).

As can be seen from the above only some meanings may be described as identical but others are different.

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

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 lexicologies?

4) What is the difference between descriptive and historical lexicologies?

5) What is the difference between comparative and noncomparative lexicologies?

6) What is the difference between the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relationships in words?

7) What do you know about diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of the vocabulary of the language?

8) What is the method of linguistic analysis used in modern lexicology?

9) What can you say about the connection of lexicology with other aspects of the language?

10) How is lexicology connected with grammar (phonetics, stylistics and history of the language)?

Tests for self – control:

1. The subject matter of lexicology is …

A. semantic relations

B. semantic grouping

C. phrases

D. to study the origin, different properties of the vocabulary of a language.

2. There are … types lexicology

A. 3

B. 4.

C. 5.

D. 2

3. General lexicology studies …

A. development of the vocabulary

B. vocabulary of two or more languages

C. the words of a definite language.

D. general properties and specific features of words of language.

4. special lexicology deals with …

A. vocabulary of two or more languages.

B. the words of a definite language.

C. development of the vocabulary.

D. general properties and specific features.

5. Comparative lexicology studies …

A. general properties and specific features.

B. history of the language.

C. vocabulary of two or more languages.

D. the words of a definite language.

6. Lexicology is connected with grammar because …

A. phonemes are related to its meaning.

B. the word seldom occurs in isolation.

C. They study the origin of words.

D. They study the set expressions.

7. Lexicology is connected with the history of the language because.

A. in terms of its historical development we establish words origin and study its changes.

B. words of two or more languages are compared.

C. they both study the words of a definite language.

D. phonemes are relates to its meaning

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LECTURE 2 *THE ENGLISH WORD AS A STRUCTURE*

PLAN:

1. The morphemic structure of the word.

2. The difference between the morpheme, the phoneme and the word.

3. Types of morphemes.

4. The stem and types

5. Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the analysis of the stem of the word.

KEY WORDS:

1. Smallest

2. Meaningful

3. Prefix

7. Monomorphemic

8. Polymorphemic

9. Stem

4. Suffix   10. Simple

5. Free   11. Derived

6. Bound   12. Compound.

THE MORPHEMIC STRUCTURE OF THE WORD

Most of the words have a composite nature and they are up morphemes. Morpheme is the smallest indivisible, two-faced language unit.

The term morpheme is derided from Gr morphed ,,form.,,+ erne. The Greek suffix -erne has been adopted by linguists to denote the smallest unit of the minimum distinctive feature. The morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of form. A form in these cases is recurring discrete unit of speech. Morphemes are subdivided, according to their position, into prefixes, suffixes and infixes and according to their function and meaning, into derivational and functional affixes, the latter also called ending or outer formatives.

Morphemes might be divided into phonemes. But if we divide morphemes into phonemes, phonemes unlike morphemes have no meaning, (ex. T/ea/ch/er - teacher). Phonemes are used to make up morphemes. So the difference between morphemes and phonemes is that morphemes have meaning but phonemes have not. A morpheme differs from a word too. Unlike a word a morpheme does not occur separately in speech. It occurs in speech as a constituent part of word. Morphemes are divided into two: free and bound. Free morpheme is a morpheme which identical with the word form. Ex. In the word ,,denationalize,, only nation can be said as a free morpheme, as it like a word form and can be used in isolation, de-.-cjl; -ize, are found morphemes because they cannot be used separately and do not coincide with word forms.

According to the number of morphemes words are divided into monomorphimic and polymorphimic. Monomorphimic words consists of one root - morpheme. Ex.Boy, girl, dog cat. Polymorphinic words consists of more than two morphemes. Ex. Teach/or, un/reason/able. Morphemes are arranged in the word according to certain rules.

The relations within the word and the interrelations between different types and classes of words called derivational relations. The basic unit at the derivational level is the stem. The stem is a part of the word, which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm In the word forms «talk, talks, talked, talking)) we can receive the stem «talk». There are three structural types of stems: simple, derived and compound.

A stem is a part of the word, which is identical with a root morpheme and to which the grammatical elements are added. Ex. Book, tram, teach, table, girl, boy. A derived stem is such a stem, which can be divided into a root, and affix: girlish, agreement, acceptable, teacher.

But derived stems are not always polymorphimic. Compound stems, are stems which consist of two or more stems. Ex. Match-box, paint-box, play-boy, book-case, door handle etc. We must differ two approaches to the analysis of word structure: diachronic and synchronic words like «kingdom», «childhood», «friendship» are called words which have a derived stem because in modern English the elements «dom», «hood», «ship» are suffixes. However they consisted of two root morphemesin old English and they were compound words. Synchronically the word «lord» has a simple stem but diachronically it had a compound stem. (O.E halfweard). The verbs * disappoint)), «return)), *xremark)) and others have no derived stems but simple stems because as modern English these words are not divided into return, disappoint etc because there are semantic relations between ((Disappoint)) and ((appoint)), «return)), and turn)) etc

1. What is morpheme?

2. What is the difference between a morpheme and a phoneme?

A morpheme and a word.

3. What types of morphemes do you know?

4. What is the stem? What types of stems do you know?

5. What are the synchronic and diachroriic approaches to the analysis of the stem?

Tests for self – control:

1. Morpheme is …

A. largest, divisible, two- faced language unit.

B. the smallest, indivisible, two- faced language unit.

C. a part of the word

D. morpheme occurs separately in speech.

2. Morphemes are divided into …

A. 3

B. 1

C. 2

D. 4

3. According to the number of morphemes words are divided into …

A. 3

B. 4

C. 5

D. 2

RECOMMENDED LITERATURE

I.V.Arnold The English word M 1986.

2. R.S. Giznburg et.al. A Course in Modern English Lexicology
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LECTURE 3 WORD FORMATION

PLAN:

1. Diachronic and synchronic study of word formation.

2. Types of word formation.

3. Affixation and its subdivision.

4. The difference between suffixes and prefixes.

KEY WORDS:

1. Affixation	8. Grammatical group
2. Conversion	9. Dead affixes
3. Word composition	10. Living affixes
4. Word Derivation	11. Productive and non productive affixes.

5. Affix6. Prefix 7. Suffix

WORD FORMATION

Word formation is the creation of new words from the elements existing in the language. Every language has its own structural patterns of word formation. Words like (writer)), (worker)), ((teacher)), ((manager)) and many others follow the structural pattern of word formation (w + er)). Word formation may be studied synchronically and diachronically. Synchronically we study those of word formation which characterize the present-day English Linguistic system, while diachronically we investigate the history of word formation. The synchronic type of word formation does not always coincide with the historical system of word formation. Ex. The words ((return)) and ((turn)) historically had semantic relation and ((return)) was considered as a word derived from ((turn)). But synchronically these words have no semantic relations and we can not say that ((return)) is derived from turn.

Synchronically the most important and the most productive ways of word formation are: affixation, conversion, word composition: Beside them there are other types of word formation such as: shorten, sound interchange, blending, backformation. Two types of word formation may be distinguished: word-derivation and word-composition. Word formed by word-derivation have only one stem and one or more derivational affixes (ex. Kindness from kind). Some derived words have no affixes through conversion (ex. To paper from paper). Words formed by word composition have two or more stems (ex. Bookcase, notebook). Besides there are words created by derivation and composition.

Such words are called derivational compounds (ex. Long legged).

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

AFFIXATION

Affix is a derivational morpheme following the stem and forming a new derivate in a different part of speech or a different word class. (Ex. Hand+full).

A prefix is a derivational morpheme standing before the root and modifying meaning (Ex.Un+like). Prefixes modify the lexical meaning of the stem meaning i.e. the prefixed derivative mostly belongs to a different past of speech. Ex. Like (v)-dislike (v), kind (adj) - unkind (adj). But suffixes transfer words to a different part of speech. Ex. teach*) - teacher*).

Suffixes have been classified according to their origin, part of speech they served to form, their frequency, productivity and other characteristics.

Within the parts of speech suffixes have been classified semantically according to lexico - grammatical groups, and last but not least, according to the types of stems they are added to. Noun forming suffixes:

-age (bondage, breakage), - ance/- ency /-once (assistance experience): - ancy (vacancy, tendency), - ant/ - ent (disinfectant, student); - dom (kingdom, freedom); -ship (friendship)**and other.

Numeral suffixes:

-fold (twofold); -teen (fourteen); -th (seventh); -ty (sixty)
Adjective - forming suffixes:

- able/ -ible/ -uble (unbearable, audible, soluble); -ic (public)

- ant/ -ent (repentant, dependent);

- ary (revolutionary); -ful (delightful)

- ian (Australian) and others.

Verb - forming suffixes:

-ate (facilitate); -er (glimmer); -en (shorten); -fy/-ify (temfy, speechify, solidify);

- ize (equalize); -ish (establish).

Adverb - forming suffixes:

-ly (coldly); -ward/-wards (upward, northwards); -wise (likewise Lexicon)

Grammatical groups:

Abstract nouns are signaled by the following suffixes: - ago, - ance/ once, - ancy/ - ency, - dom, - hood, - ing, - ment, ness and others.

Personal nouns that are emotionally lieutrai occur with the following suffixes:

-an (grammarian) -ant/ -ent (servant, student) -arian (vegetarian), - ee (ea amine), - export) and a few others. Feminine suffixes maybe classed as a subgroup of personal noun suffixes. These are few and not frequent: -ess (actress), I

-ine (heroine), - rix (testatrix), -ette (suffragette) In English they're about 25 prefixes, which can transfer! words to a different payt of speech. Ex. - head (n) - behead (v); bus (n) – debus (v);

(v).

Brown (adj) - embrown (v); large (adj) - enlarge (v)

An infix is an affix placed within the word, like n-in stand. 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.

Ex. Admit (from ad + mitered): dead, seed, (flight, bright*) .-Living affixes are easily singled out from a word. Ex. Freedom, childhood, marriage.

Living affixes are traditionally in their turn divided into productive and non-productive. Productive affixes are those, which are characterized by their ability to make new words. Ex. - er (baker, lender); - ist leftist

-ism, - ish (baldish), - ing, - ness, - ation, - ee, - ry, - or, - once, - ic are productive suffixes,

-re, -un, -non, -anti -etc productive prefixes. Non-productive affixes are those which are not used to form new words in modern English:

Ex. - ard, - cy, - ive, - en, - dom, - ship, - ful, - en, - ify, etc are non productive suffixes;

In il, ir im, mis-, dis are non-productive prefixes. Some linguists distinguish between two types of prefixes:

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

2) Those, which are not correlated with any independent words (ex. Un-, dis-, re-, mis, etc

QUESTIONS:

1. What is the subject matter of word formation?

2. What can you say about the types of word formation?

3. What do you understand by affixation?

4. What is affixation subdivided into?

5.What are a prefix and a suffix?

6. What do you understand by dead and living affixes?

7. What difference can you see between productive and nonproductive affixes?

Tests for self – control:

1. Word formation is …

A. affixation.

B. conversion.

C. shorting.

D. the creation of new words from the elements in the language.

2. a prefix is …

A. a suffix

B. grammatical groups.

C. origin.

D. a derivational morpheme standing before the root and modifying meaning

3. In English there are … prefixes

A. 20.

B. 15.

C. 10

D. 25.

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Lecture 4   LANGUAGE UNITS
Plan
1. Morphemes
2. Splinters
3. Words
4. Nominative-binomials
5. Non-idiomatic and idiomatic word combinations

The main unit of the lexical system of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning is a word. This unit is used in grammatical functions characteristic of it. It is the smallest

language unit which can stand alone as a complete utterance.

A word, however, can be divided into smaller sense units - morphemes. The morpheme is the smallest meaningful language unit. The morpheme consists of a class of variants, allomorphs, which are either phonologically or morphologically conditioned, e.g. please, pleasant, pleasure.

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

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

In the second half of the twentieth century the English wordbuilding system was enriched by creating so called splinters 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 obects of smaller than normal dimensions.

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

When European economic community was organized quite a number of neologisms with the splinter Euro- (apocopy produced by clipping the word «European») were coined, such as: «Euratom» «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, e.g. the splinter «burger» appeared in English as the result of clipping the German borrowing «Hamburger» where the morphological structure was the stem «Hamburg» and the suffix -er. However in English the beginning of the word «Hamburger» was associated with the English word «ham», and the end of the word «burger» got the meaning «a bun cut into two parts». On the analogy with the word «hamburger» quite a number of new words were coined, such as: «baconburger», «beefburger», «cheeseburger», «fishburger» etc.

The splinter «cade» developed by clipping the beginning of the word «cavalcade» which is of Latin origin. In Latin the verb with the meaning «to ride a horse» is «cabalicare» and by means of the inflexion -ata the corresponding Participle is formed. So the element «cade» is a combination of the final letter of the stem and the inflexion. The splinter «cade» serves to form nouns with the meaning «connected with the procession of vehicles denoted by the first component», e.g. «aircade» - «a group of airplanes accompanying the plane of a VIP» , «autocade» - «a group of automobiles escorting the automobile of a VIP», «musicade» - «an orchestra participating in a procession».

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Splinters have only one function in English: they serve to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech, whereas prefixes and suffixes can also change the part-of-speech meaning , e.g. the prefix «en-» and its allomorph «em» can form verbs from noun and adjective stems («embody», «enable», «endanger»), «be-» can form verbs from noun and adjective stems («becloud», «benumb»), «post-» and «pre-» can form adjectives from noun stems («pre-election campaign», «post-war events»). The main function of suffixes is to form one part of speech from another part of speech, e.g. «-er», «-ing», «-ment» form nouns from verbal stems («teacher», «dancing», «movement»), «-ness», «-ity» are used to form nouns from adjective stems («clannishnes», «marginality»).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

As far as words with splinters are concerned it is difficult to distinguish between derived words and compound-shortened words. If a splinter is treated as an affix (or a semi-affix) the word can be called derived , e.g.-, «telescreen», «maxi-taxi» , «shuttlegate», «cheeseburger». But if the splinter is treated as a lexical shortening of one of the stems , the word can be called compound-shortened word formed from a word combination where one of the components was shortened, e.g. «busnapper» was formed from « bus kidnapper», «minijet» from «miniature jet».

In the English language of the second half of the twentieth century there developed so called block compounds, that is compound words which have a uniting stress but a split spelling, such as «chat show», «pinguin suit» etc. Such compound words can be easily mixed up with word-groups of the type «stone wall», so called nominative binomials. Such linguistic units serve to denote a notion which is more specific than the notion expressed by the second component and consists of two nouns, the first of which is an attribute to the second one. If we compare a nominative binomial with a compound noun with the structure N+N we shall see that a nominative binomial has no unity of stress. The change of the order of its components

will change its lexical meaning, e.g. «vid kid» is «a kid who is a video fan» while «kid vid» means «a video-film for kids» or else «lamp oil» means «oil for lamps» and «oil lamp» means «a lamp which uses oil for burning».

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

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

Lecture 5 COMPOSITION
Plan
1. The unity of stress of compound word
2. The semantic unity of a compound word
3. The unity of morphological and syntactical functioning.
4. WAYS OF FORMING COMPOUND WORDS
5. Classification of English compounds

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

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

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

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

There are two characteristic features of English compounds:
a) Both components in an English compound are free stems, that is they can be used as words with a distinctive meaning of their own. The sound pattern will be the same except for the stresses, e.g. «a green-house» and «a green house». Whereas for example in Russian compounds the stems are bound morphemes, as a rule.
b) English compounds have a two-stem pattern, with the exception of compound words which have form-word stems in their structure, e.g. middle-

of-the-road, off-the-record, up-and-doing etc. The two-stem pattern
distinguishes English compounds from German ones.

WAYS OF FORMING COMPOUND WORDS.

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

CLASSIFICATIONS OF ENGLISH COMPOUNDS

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

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

   3. According to their structure compounds are subdivided into:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

   b) coordinative compounds where both components are semantically
independent. Here belong such compounds when one person (object) has two
functions, e.g. secretary-stenographer, woman-doctor, Oxbridge etc. Such

compounds are called additive. This group includes also compounds formed by means of reduplication, e.g. fifty-fifty, no-no, and also compounds formed with the help of rhythmic stems (reduplication combined with sound interchange) e.g. criss-cross, walkie-talkie.

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

Compound words.
Characteristic features of compound words in different languages.
Characteristic features of English compounds.
Classification of compound words according to their structure.
Classification of compound words according to the joining element.
Classification of compound words according to the parts of speech.
Classification of compound words according to the semantic relations between the components.
Ways of forming compound words.

Analyze the following compound words:

note-book	speedometer	son-in-law
to job-hop	brain-gain	video-corder
fair-haired	forget-me-not	Anglo-Russian
teach-in	back-grounder	biblio-klept
theatre-goer	well-dressed	bio-engineer
to book-hunt	mini-term	to baby-sit
blood-thirsty	good-for-nothing	throw-away
do-gooder	skin-head	kleptomania
sportsman	para-trooper	airbus
bus-napper	cease-fire	three-cornered
tip-top	brain-drain	bread-and-butter

Compare the strucure of the following words:

demagougery	tablewards	heliport
tobbacoless	money-wise	non-formal
booketeria	go-go	motel
counter-clockwise	to frontpage	productivity
giver-away	newly-created	nobody

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LECTURE 6. CONVERSION
PLAN:

1. Conversion is the main way of forming verbs
2. Nouns formed by means of conversion
3. CRITERIA OF SEMANTIC DERIVATION

Conversion is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. It is also called affixless derivation or zero-suffixation. The term «conversion» first appeared in the book by Henry Sweet «New English Grammar» in 1891. Conversion is treated differently by different scientists, e.g. prof. A.I. Smirntitsky treats conversion as a morphological way of forming words when one part of speech is formed from another part of speech by changing its paradigm, e.g. to form the verb «to dial» from the noun «dial» we change the paradigm of the noun (a dial,dials) for the paradigm of a regular verb (I dial, he dials, dialed, dialing). A. Marchand in his book «The Categories and Types of Present-day English» treats conversion as a morphological-syntactical word-building because we have not only the change of the paradigm, but also the change of the syntactic function, e.g. I need some good paper for my room. (The noun «paper» is an object in the sentence). I paper my room every year. (The verb «paper» is the predicate in the sentence).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

CRITERIA OF SEMANTIC DERIVATION. In cases of conversion the problem of criteria of semantic derivation arises : which of the converted pair is primary and which is converted from it. The problem was first analized by prof. A.I. Smirnitsky. Later on P.A.Soboleva developed his idea and worked out the following criteria:
1. If the lexical meaning of the root morpheme and the lexico-grammatical meaning of the stem coincide the word is primary, e.g. in cases pen – to pen, father – to father the nouns are names of an object and a living being. Therefore in the nouns «pen» and «father» the lexical meaning of the root and the lexico-grammatical meaning of the stem coincide. The verbs «to pen» and « to father» denote an action, a process therefore the lexico-grammatical meanings of the stems do not coincide with the lexical meanings of the roots. The verbs have a complex semantic structure and they were converted from nouns.
2. If we compare a converted pair with a synonymic word pair which was formed by means of suffixation we can find out which of the pair is primary. This criterion can be applied only to nouns converted from verbs, e.g. «chat» n. and «chat» v. can be compared with «conversation» – «converse».
3. The criterion based on derivational relations is of more universal character. In this case we must take a word-cluster of relative words to which the converted pair belongs. If the root stem of the word-cluster has suffixes added to a noun stem the noun is primary in the converted pair and vica versa, e.g. in the word-cluster : hand n., hand v., handy, handful the derived words have suffixes added to a noun stem, that is why the noun is primary and the verb is converted from it. In the word-cluster: dance n., dance v., dancer, dancing we see that the primary word is a verb and the noun is converted from it

LECTURE 7
SUBSTANTIVIZATION OF ADJECTIVES
«STONE WALL» COMBINATIONS
Plan:
1. Types of partly substantivized adjectives
2. STONE WALL» COMBINATION
3. Semantic relations between the components of «stone wall» combinations.

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

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

                     «STONE WALL» COMBINATIONS.
  The problem whether adjectives can be formed by means of conversion from
nouns is the subject of many discussions. In Modern English there are a lot
of word combinations of the type , e.g. price rise, wage freeze, steel
helmet, sand castle etc.
  If the first component of such units is an adjective converted from a
noun, combinations of this type are free word-groups typical of English
(adjective + noun). This point of view is proved by O. Yespersen by the
following facts:
  1. «Stone» denotes some quality of the noun «wall».
  2. «Stone» stands before the word it modifies, as adjectives in the
function of an attribute do in English.
  3. «Stone» is used in the Singular though its meaning in most cases is
plural,and adjectives in English have no plural form.
  4. There are some cases when the first component is used in the
Comparative or the Superlative degree, e.g. the bottomest end of the scale.
  5. The first component can have an adverb which characterizes it, and
adjectives are characterized by adverbs, e.g. a purely family gathering.
  6. The first component can be used in the same syntactical function with
a proper adjective to characterize the same noun, e.g. lonely bare stone
houses.
  7. After the first component the pronoun «one» can be used instead of a
noun, e.g. I shall not put on a silk dress, I shall put on a cotton one.
  However Henry Sweet and some other scientists say that these criteria are
not characterisitc of the majority of such units.
   They consider the first component of such units to be a noun in the
function of an attribute because in Modern English almost all parts of
speech and even word-groups and sentences can be used in the function of an
attribute, e.g. the then president (an adverb), out-of-the-way vilages (a
word-group), a devil-may-care speed (a sentence).
  There are different semantic relations between the components of «stone
wall» combinations. E.I. Chapnik classified them into the following groups:
  1. time relations, e.g. evening paper,
  2. space relations, e.g. top floor,
  3. relations between the object and the material of which it is made,
e.g. steel helmet,
  4. cause relations, e.g. war orphan,
  5. relations between a part and the whole, e.g. a crew member,
  6. relations between the object and an action, e.g. arms production,
  7. relations between the agent and an action e.g. government threat,
price rise,
  8. relations between the object and its designation, e.g. reception hall,
  9. the first component denotes the head, organizer of the characterized
object, e.g. Clinton government, Forsyte family,
  10. the first component denotes the field of activity of the second
component, e.g. language teacher, psychiatry doctor,
  11. comparative relations, e.g. moon face,
  12. qualitative relations, e.g. winter apples.

LECTURE 8. ABBREVIATION
                    PLAN:
  1. types of shortenings : graphical abbreviations
  2. Initial abbreviations
  3. Abbreviations of words

  In the process of communication words and word-groups can be shortened.
The causes of shortening can be linguistic and extra-linguistic. By extra-

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

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

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

Graphical abbreviations

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

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

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

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

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

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

Initial abbreviations

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

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

UFO - НЛО, СП - JV etc.
   There are three types of initialisms in English:
  a) initialisms with alphabetical reading, such as UK, BUP, CND etc
  b) initialisms which are read as if they are words, e.g. UNESCO, UNO,
NATO etc.
  c) initialisms which coincide with English words in their sound form,
such initialisms are called acronyms, e.g. CLASS (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 wordbuilding:
  a) affixation, e.g. AWALism, ex-rafer, ex- POW, to waafize, AIDSophobia
etc.
  b) conversion, e.g. to raff, to fly IFR (Instrument Flight Rules),
  c) composition, e.g. STOLport, USAFman etc.
  d) there are also compound-shortened words where the first component is
an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical reading and the second one is
a complete word, e.g. A-bomb, U-pronunciation, V -day etc. In some cases
the first component is a complete word and the second component is an
initial abbreviation with the alphabetical pronunciation, e.g. Three -Ds
(Three dimensions) - стереофильм.

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

   Abbreviation does not change the part-of-speech meaning, as we have it
in the case of conversion or affixation, it produces words belonging to
the same part of speech as the primary word, e.g. prof is a noun and
professor is also a noun. Mostly nouns undergo abbreviation, but we can
also meet abbreviation of verbs, such as to rev from to revolve, to tab
from to tabulate etc. But mostly abbreviated forms of verbs are formed by
means of conversion from abbreviated nouns, e.g. to taxi, to vac etc.
Adjectives can be abbreviated but they are mostly used in school slang and
are combined with suffixation, e.g. comfy, dilly, mizzy etc. As a rule
pronouns, numerals, interjections. conjunctions are not abbreviated. The
exceptions are: fif (fifteen), teen-ager, in one's teens (apheresis from
numerals from 13 to 19).
   Lexical abbreviations are classified according to the part of the word
which is clipped. Mostly the end of the word is clipped, because the
beginning of the word in most cases is the root and expresses the lexical
meaning of the word. This type of abbreviation is called apocope. Here we
can mention a group of words ending in «o», such as disco (dicotheque),
expo (exposition), intro (introduction) and many others. On the analogy
with these words there developed in Modern English a number of words where
«o» is added as a kind of a suffix to the shortened form of the word, e.g.
combo (combination) - небольшой эстрадный ансамбль, Afro (African)
-прическа под африканца etc. In other cases the beginning of the word is
clipped. In such cases we have apheresis , e.g. chute (parachute), varsity
(university), copter (helicopter) , thuse (enthuse) etc. Sometimes the
middle of the word is clipped, e.g. mart (market), fanzine (fan magazine)
maths (mathematics). Such abbreviations are called syncope. Sometimes we
have a combination of apocope with apheresis,when the beginning and the end
of the word are clipped, e.g. tec (detective), van (avanguard) etc.
   Sometimes shortening influences the spelling of the word, e.g. «c» can
be substituted by «k» before «e» to preserve pronunciation, e.g. mike
(microphone), Coke (coca-cola) etc. The same rule is observed in the
following cases: fax(facsimile), teck (technical college), trank
(tranquilizer) etc. The final consonants in the shortened forms are
substituded by letters characteristic of native English words.

Lecture 9 SECONDARY WAYS OF WORDBUILDING
Plan
1. **Sound interchange**
2. **Stress interchange**
3. **Sound imitation**
4. **Blends**
5. **Back formation**
6. **Semantic changes**
7. **Specialization**
8. **Generalization**

SOUND INTERCHANGE
Sound interchange is the way of word-building when some sounds are changed to form a new word. It is non-productive in Modern English, it was productive in Old English and can be met in other Indo-European languages.

The causes of sound interchange can be different. It can be the result of Ancient Ablaut which cannot be explained by the phonetic laws during the period of the language development known to scientists., e.g. to strike - stroke, to sing - song etc. It can be also the result of Ancient Umlaut or vowel mutation which is the result of palatalizing the root vowel because of the front vowel in the syllable coming after the root (regressive assimilation), e.g. hot - to heat (hotian), blood - to bleed (blodian) etc.

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

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

SOUND IMITATION
It is the way of word-building when a word is formed by imitating different sounds. There are some semantic groups of words formed by means of sound imitation

a) sounds produced by human beings, such as : to whisper, to giggle, to mumble, to sneeze, to whistle etc.

b) sounds produced by animals, birds, insects, such as : to hiss, to buzz, to bark, to moo, to twitter etc.

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

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

BLENDS
Blends are words formed from a word-group or two synonyms. In blends two ways of word-building are combined : abbreviation and composition. To form

a blend we clip the end of the first component (apocope) and the beginning of the second component (apheresis) . As a result we have a compound-shortened word. One of the first blends in English was the word «smog» from two synonyms : smoke and fog which means smoke mixed with fog. From the first component the beginning is taken, from the second one the end, «o» is common for both of them.
Blends formed from two synonyms are: slanguange, to hustle, gasohol etc. Mostly blends are formed from a word-group, such as : acromania (acronym mania), cinemadict (cinema adict), chunnel (channel, canal), dramedy (drama comedy), detectifiction (detective fiction), faction (fact fiction) (fiction based on real facts), informecial (information commercial) , Medicare (medical care) , magalog (magazine catalogue) slimnastics (slimming gymnastics), sociolite (social elite), slanguist (slang linguist) etc.

BACK FORMATION

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

SEMANTIC CHANGES

   The meaning of a word can change in the course of time. Changes of lexical meanings can be proved by comparing contexts of different times. Transfer of the meaning is called lexico-semantic word-building. In such cases the outer aspect of a word does not change.
   The causes of semantic changes can be extra-linguistic and linguistic, e.g. the change of the lexical meaning of the noun «pen» was due to extra-linguistic causes. Primarily « pen» comes back to the Latin word «penna» (a feather of a bird). As people wrote with goose pens the name was transferred to steel pens which were later on used for writing. Still later any instrument for writing was called « a pen».
   On the other hand causes can be linguistic, e.g. the conflict of synonyms when a perfect synonym of a native word is borrowed from some other language one of them may specialize in its meaning, e.g. the noun «tide» in Old English was polisemantic and denoted «time», «season», «hour». When the French words «time», «season», «hour» were borrowed into English they ousted the word «tide» in these meanings. It was specialized and now means «regular rise and fall of the sea caused by attraction of the moon». The meaning of a word can also change due to ellipsis, e.g. the word-group «a train of carriages» had the meaning of «a row of carriages», later on «of carriages» was dropped and the noun «train» changed its meaning, it is used now in the function and with the meaning of the whole word-group.
   Semantic changes have been classified by different scientists. The most complete classification was suggested by a German scientist Herman Paul in his work «Prinzipien des Sprachgeschichte». It is based on the logical principle. He distiguishes two main ways where the semantic change is gradual (specialization and generalization), two momentary conscious semantic changes (metaphor and metonymy) and also secondary ways: gradual (elevation and degradation), momentary (hyperbole and litote).

SPECIALIZATION

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

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

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

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

GENERALIZATION

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

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

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

METAPHOR

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

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

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

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

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

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

similarity to a human leg in its shape, position and function.

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

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

<div align="center">METONYMY</div>

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

<div align="center">ELEVATION</div>

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

<div align="center">DEGRADATION</div>

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

<div align="center">HYPERBOLE</div>

It is a transfer of the meaning when the speaker uses exaggeration, e.g. «to hate»(doing something), (not to see somebody) «for ages».

Hyperbole is often used to form phraseological units, e.g. «to make a mountain out of a molehill», «to split hairs» etc.

<div align="center">LITOTE</div>

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

LECTURE 10   PHRASEOLOGY

<div align="center">PLAN:</div>

1. WAYS OF FORMING PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS
2. SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

3. STRUCTURAL CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS
4. SYNTACTICAL CLASSIFICATION
OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

3.

The vocabulary of a language is enriched not only by words but also by phraseological units. Phraseological units are word-groups that cannot be made in the process of speech, they exist in the language as ready-made units. They are compiled in special dictionaries. The same as words phraseological units express a single notion and are used in a sentence as one part of it. American and British lexicographers call such units «idioms». We can mention such dictionaries as: L.Smith «Words and Idioms», V.Collins «A Book of English Idioms» etc. In these dictionaries we can find words, peculiar in their semantics (idiomatic), side by side with word-groups and sentences. In these dictionaries they are arranged, as a rule, into different semantic groups.

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

WAYS OF FORMING PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

killed the cat»;

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

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

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

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

SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

   Phraseological units can be classified according to the degree of
motivation of their meaning. This classification was suggested by acad.
V.V. Vinogradov for Russian phraseological units. He pointed out three
types of phraseological units:

   a) fusions where the degree of motivation is very low, we cannot guess
the meaning of the whole from the meanings of its components, they are
highly idiomatic and cannot be translated word for word into other
languages, e.g. on Shank's mare - (on foot), at sixes and sevens - (in a
mess) etc;

   b) unities where the meaning of the whole can be guessed from the
meanings of its components, but it is transferred (metaphorical or
metonymical), e.g. to play the first fiddle (to be a leader in
something), old salt (experienced sailor) etc;

   c) collocations where words are combined in their original meaning but
their combinations are different in different languages, e.g. cash and
carry - (self-service shop), in a big way (in great degree) etc.

STRUCTURAL CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

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

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

   a) units of the type «to give up» (verb + postposition type), e.g. to
art up, to back up, to drop out, to nose out, to buy into, to sandwich
in etc.;

   b) units of the type «to be tired» . Some of these units remind the
Passive Voice in their structure but they have different prepositons with
them, while in the Passive Voice we can have only prepositions «by» or
«with», e.g. to be tired of, to be interested in, to be surprised at etc.
There are also units in this type which remind free word-groups of the type
«to be young», e.g. to be akin to, to be aware of etc. The difference
between them is that the adjective «young» can be used as an attribute and
as a predicative in a sentence, while the nominal component in such units
can act only as a predicative. In these units the verb is the grammar
centre and the second component is the semantic centre;

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

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

a) attributive-nominal such as: a month of Sundays, grey matter, a millstone round one's neck and many others. Units of this type are noun equivalents and can be partly or perfectly idiomatic. In partly idiomatic units (phrasisms) sometimes the first component is idiomatic, e.g. high road, in other cases the second component is idiomatic, e.g. first night. In many cases both components are idiomatic, e.g. red tape, blind alley, bed of nail, shot in the arm and many others.

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

Very close to such units are word-groups of the type to have a glance, to have a smoke. These units are not idiomatic and are treated in grammar as a special syntactical combination, a kind of aspect.

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

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

SYNTACTICAL CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

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

a) noun phraseologisms denoting an object, a person, a living being, e.g. bullet train, latchkey child, redbrick university, Green Berets,

b) verb phraseologisms denoting an action, a state, a feeling, e.g. to break the log-jam, to get on somebody's coattails, to be on the beam, to nose out , to make headlines,

c) adjective phraseologisms denoting a quality, e.g. loose as a goose, dull as lead ,

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

e) preposition phraseological units, e.g. in the course of, on the stroke of ,

f) interjection phraseological units, e.g. «Catch me!», «Well, I never!» etc.

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

Lecture 11   BORROWINGS
Plan:
1. CLASSIFICATION OF BORROWINGS ACCORDING   TO THE BORROWED ASPECT
2. CLASSIFICATION OF BORROWINGS ACCORDING   TO THE DEGREE OF ASSIMILATION

3. CLASSIFICATION OF BORROWINGS ACCORDING
TO THE LANGUAGE FROM WHICH THEY WERE   BORROWED

4. ETYMOLOGICAL DOUBLETS

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

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 Cristianity, Scandinavian and Norman conquests of the British Isles, the development of British colonialism and trade and cultural relations served to increase immensely the English vocabulary. The majority of these borrowings are fully assimilated in English in their pronunciation, grammar, spelling and can be hardly distinguished from native words.

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

Borrowings can be classified according to different criteria:
a) according to the aspect which is borrowed,
b) according to the degree of assimilation,
c) according to the language from which the word was borrowed.
(In this classification only the main languages from which words were borrowed into English are described, such as Latin, French, Italian. Spanish, German and Russian.)

CLASSIFICATION OF BORROWINGS ACCORDING   TO THE BORROWED ASPECT

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

Phonetic borrowings are most characteristic in all languages, they are called loan words proper. Words are borrowed with their spelling, pronunciation and meaning. Then they undergo assimilation, each sound in the borrowed word is substituted by the corresponding sound of the borrowing language. In some cases the spelling is changed. The structure of the word can also be changed. The position of the stress is very often influenced by the phonetic system of the borrowing language. The paradigm of the word, and sometimes the meaning of the borrowed word are also changed. Such words as: labour, travel, table, chair, people are phonetic borrowings from French; apparatchik, nomenklatura, sputnik are phonetic borrowings from Russian; bank, soprano, duet are phonetic borrowings from Italian etc.

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

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

Semantic borrowing can appear when an English word was borrowed into some other language, developed there a new meaning and this new meaning was borrowed back into English, e.g. «brigade» was borrowed into Russian and

formed the meaning «a working collective«,»бригада». This meaning was borrowed back into English as a Russian borrowing. The same is true of the English word «pioneer».

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

CLASSIFICATION OF BORROWINGS ACCORDING TO THE DEGREE OF ASSIMILATION

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

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

Completely assimilated borrowings are not felt as foreign words in the language, cf the French word «sport» and the native word «start». Completely assimilated verbs belong to regular verbs, e.g. correct -corrected. Completely assimilated nouns form their plural by means of s-inflexion, e.g. gate- gates. In completely assimilated French words the stress has been shifted from the last syllable to the last but one.

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

Partly assimilated borrowings are subdivided into the following groups: a) borrowings non-assimilated semantically, because they denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from the language of which they were

borrowed, e.g. sari, sombrero, taiga, kvass etc.

b) borrowings non-assimilated grammatically, e.g. nouns borrowed from Latin and Greek retain their plural forms (bacillus - bacilli, phenomenon - phenomena, datum -data, genius - genii etc.

c) borrowings non-assimilated phonetically. Here belong words with the initial sounds /v/ and /z/, e.g. voice, zero. In native words these voiced consonants are used only in the intervocal position as allophones of sounds /f/ and /s/ (loss - lose, life - live). Some Scandinavian borrowings have consonants and combinations of consonants which were not palatalized, e.g. /sk/ in the words: sky, skate, ski etc (in native words we have the palatalized sounds denoted by the digraph «sh», e.g. shirt); sounds /k/ and /g/ before front vowels are not palatalized e.g. girl, get, give, kid, kill, kettle. In native words we have palatalization , e.g. German, child.

Some French borrowings have retained their stress on the last syllable, e.g. police, cartoon. Some French borrowings retain special combinations of sounds, e.g. /a:3/ in the words : camouflage, bourgeois, some of them retain the combination of sounds /wa:/ in the words: memoir, boulevard.

d) borrowings can be partly assimilated graphically, e.g. in Greak borrowings «y» can be spelled in the middle of the word (symbol, synonym), «ph» denotes the sound /f/ (phoneme, morpheme), «ch» denotes the sound /k/(chemistry, chaos),«ps» denotes the sound /s/ (psychology).

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

French borrowings which came into English after 1650 retain their spelling, e.g. consonants «p», «t», «s» are not pronounced at the end of

the word (buffet, coup, debris), Specifically French combination of letters
«eau» /ou/ can be found in the borrowings : beau, chateau, troussaeu. Some
of digraphs retain their French pronunciation: 'ch' is pronounced as /sh/,
e.g. chic, parachute, 'qu' is pronounced as /k/ e.g. bouquet, «ou» is
pronounced as /u:/, e.g. rouge; some letters retain their French
pronunciation, e.g. «i» is pronounced as /i:/, e,g, chic, machine; «g» is
pronounced as /3/, e.g. rouge.

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

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

CLASSIFICATION OF BORROWINGS ACCORDING
TO THE LANGUAGE FROM WHICH THEY WERE   BORROWED
ROMANIC BORROWINGS
Latin borrowings.

   Among words of Romanic origin borrowed from Latin during the period when
the British Isles were a part of the Roman Empire, there are such words as:
street, port, wall etc. Many Latin and Greek words came into English during
the Adoption of Christianity in the 6-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, e.g. formula
- formulae. Here also belong such words as: memorandum, minimum, maximum,
veto etc.

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

French borrowings
The influence of French on the English spelling.

  The largest 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, e.g. «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 /ch/ instead of the letter «c» / chest/
before front vowels where it had been palatalized, the digraph «sh» was
introduced instead of the combination «sc» to denote the sound /sh/ /ship/,
the digraph «th» was introduced instead of the Runic letters «0» and «   »
 /this, thing/, the letter «y» was introduced instead of the Runic letter
«3» to denote the sound /j/ /yet/, the digraph «qu» substituted the
combination «cw» to denote the combination of sounds /kw/ /queen/, the
digraph «ou» was introduced to denote the sound /u:/ /house/ (The sound
/u:/ was later on diphthongized and is pronounced /au/ in native words and

fully assimilated borrowings). As it was difficult for French scribes to copy English texts they substituted the letter «u» before «v», «m», «n» and the digraph «th» by the letter «o» to escape the combination of many vertical lines /«sunu» - «son», luvu» - «love»/.

Borrowing of French words.
There are the following semantic groups of French borrowings:
  a) words relating to government : administer, empire, state, government;
  b) words relating to military affairs: army, war, banner, soldier, battle;
  c) words relating to jury: advocate, petition, inquest, sentence, barrister;
  d) words relating to fashion: luxury, coat, collar, lace, pleat, embroidery;
  e) words relating to jewelry: topaz, emerald, ruby, pearl ;
  f) words relating to food and cooking: lunch, dinner, appetite, to roast, to stew.
  Words were borrowed from French into English after 1650, mainly through French literature, but they were not as numerous and many of them are not completely assimilated. There are the following semantic groups of these borrowings:
  a) words relating to literature and music: belle-lettres, conservatorie, brochure, nuance, piruette, vaudeville;
  b) words relating to military affairs: corps, echelon, fuselage, manouvre;
  c) words relating to buildings and furniture: entresol, chateau, bureau;
  d) words relating to food and cooking: ragout, cuisine.

Italian borrowings.
  Cultural and trade relations between Italy and England brought many Italian words into English. The earliest Italian borrowing came into English in the 14-th century, it was the word «bank» /from the Italian «banko» - «bench»/. Italian money-lenders and money-changers sat in the streets on benches. When they suffered losses they turned over their benches, it was called «banco rotta» from which the English word «bankrupt» originated. In the 17-th century some geological terms were borrowed : volcano, granite, bronze, lava. At the same time some political terms were borrowed: manifesto, bulletin.
  But mostly Italian is famous by its influence in music and in all Indo-European languages musical terms were borrowed from Italian : alto, baritone, basso, tenor, falsetto, solo, duet, trio, quartet, quintet, opera, operette, libretto, piano, violin.
  Among the 20-th century Italian borrowings we can mention : gazette, incognitto, autostrada, fiasco, fascist, diletante, grotesque, graffitto etc.

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

GERMANIC BORROWINGS

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

Scandinavian borrowings.
  By the end of the Old English period English underwent a strong influence of Scandinavian due to the Scandinavian conquest of the British Isles. Scandinavians belonged to the same group of peoples as Englishmen and their languages had much in common. As the result of this conquest there

are about 700 borrowings from Scandinavian into English.

   Scandinavians and Englishmen had the same way of life,their cultural level was the same, they had much in common in their literature therefore there were many words in these languages which were almost identical, e.g.

	ON	OE	Modern E
	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 etc, such adjectives as : flat, ill, happy, low, odd, ugly, wrong, such verbs as : call, die, guess, get, give, scream and many others.

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

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

German borrowings.

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

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

Holland borrowings.

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

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

Russian borrowings.

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

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

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

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

ETYMOLOGICAL DOUBLETS

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

                          Latino-French doublets.
   Latin   English from Latin   English from French
   uncia   inch
ounce
   moneta   mint
money
   camera   camera
chamber

                          Franco-French doublets
   doublets borrowed from different dialects of French.
                    Norman   Paris
                      canal   channel
                      captain   chieftain
                      catch   chaise

                  Scandinavian-English doublets
                    Scandinavian   English
                     skirt   shirt
                      scabby   shabby
   There are also etymological doublets which were borrowed from the same
language during different historical periods, such as French doublets:
gentil - любезный, благородный, etymological doublets are: gentle - мягкий,
вежливый and genteel - благородный. From the French word gallant
etymological doublets are : 'gallant - храбрый and ga'llant - галантный,
внимательный.
   Sometimes etymological doublets are the result of borrowing different
grammatical forms of the same word, e.g. the Comparative degree of Latin
«super» was «superior» which was borrowed into English with the meaning
«high in some quality or rank». The Superlative degree (Latin
«supremus»)in English «supreme» with the meaning «outstanding»,
«prominent». So «superior» and «supreme» are etymological doublets.

Lecture 12. SEMASIOLOGY

Plan:

1. Semasiology and its subject matter.

2. The definition of the term "meaning of the word

3. Types of meanings.

4. The Semantic Structure of Polysemantic Words.

KEY WORDS:

1. Lexical meaning	7. Denotation meaning
2. Polysemy	8. Connotation meaning
3. Semantic structure	9. Monosemantic words
4. Meaning of the word	10. Polysemantic words
5. Grammatical meaning	11. Primary meaning

SEMASIOLOGY AND ITS SUBJECT MATTER

The branch of linguistics concerned with the meaning of words and word equivalents is called semasiology. The name comes from the Greek "semasia" - signification.

The main objects of semasiological study are follows: semantic development of words, its causes and classification, relevant distinctive features and types of lexical meaning, polysemy and semantic structure of words, semantic grouping and connections on the vocabulary system, synonyms, antonyms, terminological systems.

THE DEFINITION AND ITS TERM "MEANING OF THE WORD"

The definition of lexical meaning has been attempted more than once in accordance with the main principles of different linguistic schools. The disciples of F. De Saussure consider meaning to be the relation between the object and notion named, and the name itself. Descriptive linguistics of the Bloomfield Ian trend defines the meaning as the situation in which the word is uttered. Both ways of approach afford no possibility of a further investigation of semantic problems in strictly linguistic terms, and therefore, if taken as a basis for general linguistic theory, give no insight into the mechanism of meaning. Some of L. Bloomfield's successors went so far as to exclude semasiology from linguistics on the ground that meaning could not be studied "objectively", and was not view was never generally accepted. The more general opinion is well revealed in R. Jacobson's pun. He said: "Linguistics without meaning is meaningless". This crisis of semasiology has been over for some twenty years now, and the problem of meaning has provided material for a great number of books, articles and dissertations.

In our country the definitions of meaning given by various authors, though different in detail, agree in the basic principle; they all point out that lexical meaning is the realization of concept or emotion by means of a definite language system. The definition stresses that semantics studies only such meanings that can be expressed, that is concepts bound by signs.

TYPES OF MEANINGS

1) There are two main types of meaning:

2) The grammatical meaning,

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. The verbs have tense, voice, mood, person etc.

nouns have the categories of case, number etc.

Ex. The words "asked", "thought", "talked", "took", "ran" - have the grammatical meaning of tense.

The grammatical meaning units words into big groups such as parts of speech. The lexical meaning is the material meaning of a word. This is a meaning, which gives the concept of a word. By the lexical meaning the word expresses the basic properties of the thing the word denotes. The lexical meaning of a word falls into two:

The denotation meaning:

The connotational meaning.

Denotational meaning makes communication possible because words denote things, concepts, they name them.

Ex. The denotational meaning of the word "table" is a piece of furniture consisting of a flat top with four supports.

Connotational meaning is a meaning, which has a stylistic shade; 1 serve to express all sorts of emotions expressiveness. Connotation may be shortly defined as emotional and evaluative component of the lexical meaning. Comparing the meanings of English words "well-known", "famous", "notorious" we see that all these words express the denotational meaning "widely known". But the word "famous" has a positive evaluative meaning and "notorious" differ in their emotional coloring and evaluation.

THE SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF POLYSEMANTIC WORDS

Polysemy is the existence within one word of several connected meanings. These meanings appeared as a result of the development and changes of its original meaning.

Words are divided into two: Polysemantic and monosemantic words.

Monosemantic words have only one meaning. Monosemantic words are mostly scientific terms:

Ex. Hydrogen, laser.

Polisemantic words are words, which have more than two meaning.

Ex. The word "man" has eleven meanings in modern English.

MAN - 1) одам 2) адвокат 3) эркак 4) куркмас Одам 5) одамийлик 6) хизматкор 7) шучи 8) эр 9) денгизчилар 10) вассал 11) пешка пиеда (шахмат да).

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

Ex. "father" - the primary meaning is ота.

Secondary is - ёши улуг аъзо, к,абила бошлиги, рухоний.

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

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

WORD - MEANING

Every word has two aspects: the outer aspect (its sound form) and the inner aspect (its meaning) . Sound and meaning do not always constitute a constant unit even in the same language. E.g. the word «temple» may denote «a part of a human head» and «a large church» In such cases we have homonyms. One and the same word in different syntactical relations can develop different meanings, e.g. the verb «treat» in sentences:
  a) He treated my words as a joke.
  b) The book treats of poetry.
  c) They treated me to sweets.
  d) He treats his son cruelly.
  In all these sentences the verb «treat» has different meanings and we can speak about polysemy.
  On the other hand, one and the same meaning can be expressed by different sound forms, e.g. «pilot» , and «airman», «horror» and «terror». In such cases we have synonyms.
  Both the meaning and the sound can develop in the course of time independently. E.g. the Old English /luvian/ is pronounced /l^v / in Modern English. On the other hand, «board» primariliy means « a piece of wood sawn thin» It has developed the meanings: a table, a board of a ship, a stage, a council etc.

LEXICAL MEANING - NOTION

The lexical meaning of a word is the realization of a notion by means of a definite language system. A word is a language unit, while a notion is a unit of thinking. A notion cannot exict without a word expressing it in the language, but there are words which do not express any notion but have a lexical meaning. Interjections express emotions but not notions, but they have lexical meanings, e.g. Alas! /disappointment/, Oh,my buttons! /surprise/ etc. There are also words which express both, notions and emotions, e.g. girlie, a pig /when used metaphorically/.
  The term «notion» was introduced into lexicology from logics. A notion denotes the reflection in the mind of real objects and phenomena in their relations. Notions, as a rule, are international, especially with the nations of the same cultural level. While meanings can be nationally limited. Grouping of meanings in the semantic structure of a word is determined by the whole system of every language. E.g. the English verb «go» and its Russian equivalent «идти» have some meanings which coincide: to move from place to place, to extend /the road goes to London/, to work /Is your watch going?/. On the other hand, they have different meanings: in Russian we say :»Вот он идет» , in English we use the verb «come» in this case. In English we use the verb «go» in the combinations: «to go by bus», «to go by train» etc. In Russian in these cases we use the verb «ехать».
  The number of meanings does not correspond to the number of words, neither does the number of notions. Their distribution in relation to words is peculiar in every language. The Russian has two words for the English «man»: « мужчина» and «человек». In English, however, «man» cannot be applied to a female person. We say in Russian: «Она хороший человек». In English we use the word «person»/ She is a good person»/
  Development of lexical meanings in any language is influenced by the whole network of ties and relations between words and other aspects of the language.

POLYSEMY

The word «polysemy» means «plurality of meanings» it exists only in the

language, not in speech. A word which has more than one meaning is called polysemantic.

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

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

There are two processes of the semantic development of a word: radiation and concatination. 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 primmary meaning. E.g. in the word «face» the primary meaning denotes «the front part of the human head» Connected with the front position the meanings: the front 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 concatination secondary meanings of a word develop like a chain. In such cases it is difficult to trace some meanings to the primary one. E.g. in the word «crust» the primary meaning «hard outer part of bread» developed a secondary meaning «hard part of anything /a pie, a cake/», then the meaning »harder layer over soft snow» was developed, then «a sullen gloomy person», then «impudence» were developed. Here the last meanings have nothing to do with the primary ones. In such cases homonyms appear in the language. It is called the split of polysemy.

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

QUESTIONS

1. What does semasiology study?

2. What is the definition of the term "meaning of word"?

3. What is the difference between the grammatical
 meaning and the lexical meaning?

4.What types of the lexical meaning do you know?

5. What is understood by the term "polysemy"?

6. What is the difference between Polysemantic and monosemantic words

Tests for self – control:

1. There are … main types of meaning.

A. 1.

B. 3.

C. 2.

D. 4.

2. The lexical meaning of a word divided into

A. 2.

B. 1.

C. 4.

D. 3.

3. Words are divided into …

A. Polysemantic.

B. monosemantic

C. Polysemantic and monosemantic.

D. secondary.

LECTURE 6 ENGLISH VOCABULARY AS SYSTEM:

HOMONYMS, SYNONYMS, ANTONYMS.

PLAN:

1. Homonyms and their classification.

2. The sources of homonyms.

3. Polysemy and homonymy.

4. Synonyms and their classification.

5. The sources of synonyms.

6. Antonyms and their classification

HOMONYMS

  Homonyms are words different in meaning but identical in sound or spelling, or both in sound and spelling.
  Homonyms can appear in the language not only as the result of the split of polysemy, but also as the result of levelling of grammar inflexions, when different parts of speech become identical in their outer aspect, e.g. «care» from «caru» and «care» from «carian». They can be also formed by means of conversion, e.g. «to slim» from «slim», «to water» from «water». They can be formed with the help of the same suffix from the same stem, e.g. «reader»/ a person who reads and a book for reading/.
  Homonyms can also appear in the language accidentally, when two words coincide in their development, e.g. two native words can coincide in their outer aspects: «to bear» from «beran»/to carry/ and «bear» from «bera»/an animal/. A native word and a borrowing can coincide in their outer aspects, e.g. «fair» from Latin «feria» and «fair « from native «fager» /blond/. Two borrowings can coincide e.g. «base» from the French «base» /Latin basis/ and «base» /low/ from the Latin «bas» /Italian «basso»/.
  Homonyms can develop through shortening of different words, e.g. «cab» from «cabriolet», «cabbage», «cabin».

Classifications of homonyms.
  Walter Skeat classified homonyms according to their spelling and sound forms and he pointed out three groups: perfect homonyms that is words identical in sound and spelling, such as : «school» - «косяк рыбы» and «школа» ; homographs, that is words with the same spelling but pronounced

differently, e.g. «bow» -/bau/ - «поклон» and /bou/ - «лук»; homophones that is words pronounced identically but spelled differently, e.g. «night» - «ночь» and «knight» - «рыцарь».

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

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

According to these criteria I.V. Arnold pointed out the following groups: a) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings, basic forms and paradigms and different in their lexical meanings, e.g. «board» in the meanings «a council» and « a piece of wood sawn thin»; b) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings and basic forms, different in their lexical meanings and paradigms, e.g. to lie - lied - lied, and to lie - lay - lain; c) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, paradigms, but coinciding in their basic forms, e.g. «light» / «lights»/, «light» / «lighter», «lightest»/; d) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, in their basic forms and paradigms, but coinciding in one of the forms of their paradigms, e.g. «a bit» and «bit»   (from « to bite»).

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

SYNONYMS

Synonyms are words different in their outer aspects, but identical or similar in their inner aspects. In English there are a lot of synonyms, because there are many borrowings, e.g.   hearty / native/ - cordial/ borrowing/. After a word is borrowed it undergoes desynonymization, because absolute synonyms are unnecessary for a language. However, there are some absolute synonyms in the language, which have exactly the same meaning and belong to the same style, e.g. to moan, to groan; homeland, motherland etc.
 In cases of desynonymization one of the absolute synonyms can specialize in its meaning and we get semantic synonyms, e.g. «city» /borrowed/, «town» /native/. The French borrowing «city» is specialized. In other cases native words can be specialized in their meanings, e.g. «stool» /native/, «chair» /French/.

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

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

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

There are also phraseological synonyms, these words are identical in
their meanings and styles but different in their combining with other words
in the sentence, e.g. «to be late for a lecture»
but «to miss the train»,
«to visit museums» but «to attend lectures» etc.
   In each group of synonyms there is a word with the most general meaning,
which can substitute any word in the group, e.g. «piece» is the synonymic
dominant in the group «slice», «lump», «morsel». The verb « to look at» is
the synonymic dominant in the group «to stare», «to glance», «to peep». The
adjective «red' is the synonymic dominant in the group «purple», «scarlet»,
«crimson».
   When speaking about the sources of synonyms, besides desynonymization and
abbreviation, we can also mention the formation of phrasal verbs, e.g. «to
give up» - «to abandon», «to cut down» - «to diminish».

ANTONYMS

   Antonyms are words belonging to the same part of speech, identical in
style, expressing contrary or contradictory notions.
   V.N. Comissarov in his dictionary of antonyms classified them into two
groups : absolute or root antonyms /»late» - «early»/ and derivational
antonyms / «to please' - «to displease»/ . Absolute antonyms have
different roots and derivational antonyms have the same roots but
different affixes. In most cases negative prefixes form antonyms / un-, dis-
, non-/. Sometimes they are formed by means of suffixes -ful and -less.
   The number of antonyms with the suffixes ful- and -less is not very
large, and sometimes even if we have a word with one of these suffixes its
antonym is formed not by substituting -ful by less-, e.g. «successful»
-»unsuccessful», «selfless» - «selfish». The same is true about antonyms
with negative prefixes, e.g. «to man» is not an antonym of the word «to
unman», «to disappoint» is not an antonym of the word «to appoint».
   The difference between derivational and root antonyms is not only in
their structure, but in semantics as well. Derivational antonyms express
contradictory notions, one of them excludes the other, e.g. «active»-
«inactive». Absolute antonyms express contrary notions. If some notions
can be arranged in a group of more than two members, the most distant
members of the group will be absolute antonyms, e.g. «ugly» , «plain»,
«good-looking», «pretty», «beautiful», the antonyms are «ugly» and
«beautiful».
   Leonard Lipka in the book «Outline of English Lexicology» describes
different types of oppositeness, and subdivides them into three types:
   a) complementary, e.g. male -female, married -single,
   b) antonyms, e.g. good -bad,
   c) converseness, e.g. to buy - to sell.
   In his classification he describes 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.
   Antonymy is the second class of oppositeness. It is distinguished from
complimentarity by being based on different logical relationships. For
pairs of antonyms like good/bad, big/small only the second one of the above
mentioned relations of implication holds. The assertion containing one
member implies the negation of the other, but not vice versa. «John is
good» implies that «John is not bad», but «John is not good» does not imply
that «John is bad». The negation of one term does not necessarily implies
the assertion of the other.
   An important linguistic difference from complementaries is that antonyms
are always fully gradable, e.g. hot, warm, tepid, cold.
   Converseness is mirror-image relations or functions, e.g. husband/wife,
pupil/teacher, preceed/follow, above/below, before/after etc.
   «John bought the car from Bill» implies that «Bill sold the car to John».
Mirror-image sentences are in many ways similar to the relations between
active and passive sentences. Also in the comparative form: »Y is smaller

than X, then X is larger than Y».

L. Lipka also gives the type which he calls directional opposition up/down, 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 etc./ There are gradable examination marks / excellent, good, average, fair, poor/. In such sets of words we can have outer and inner pairs of antonyms. He also points out cycles, such as units of time /spring, summer, autumn, winter/ . In this case there are no «outermost» members.

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

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

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

QUESTIONS:

1. What is understood by the term "synonym"? Are there complete synonyms in English?

2. What is the dominant of a synonymic group?

3. What is the difference between ideographic synonyms and stylistic ones?

4. What is the collocabality of synonyms?

5. What are the main sources of synonyms?

6. What is a homonym?

7. What is the classification of homonyms?

8. What is a homophone? Homograph?

9. What principle of classification of homonyms did Smirnitsky give?

10.What are the main sources of homonyms?

11 .What is the difference between homonymy and polysemy?

12.What is understood by the term "antonyms"?

13. What is the classification of antonyms?

14. What is the interchangeability of antonyms in contex

Tests forself – control:

1. Homonyms are classified into …

A. Homonyms proper.

B. Homonyms.

C. Homographs

D. Homonyms proper, Homophones, Homographs.

2. Synonyms may be divided into …

A. Synonyms proper

B. ideographic synonyms

C. ideographic synonyms and stylistic synonyms

D. stylistic.

3. … are words, which belonging to the same part of speech and have contrary meaning.

A. Synonyms

B. Antonyms

C. Homophones

D. Homonyms.

4. … are words belonging to the same part of speech, different in morphemic composition and phonetic shape but identical or similar in meaning.

A. Synonyms.

B. antonyms

C. Homonyms

D. Homographs

RECOMMENDED LITERATURE:

1. I.C. Arnold. "The English word", M., 1986.

2. Э.М. Медникова. "Значение слова и методы его описания"

3. R.S.Giznburg et. al. "A course in modern English lexicology", M., 1979

   4. I.Buranov, A. Muminov. "A practical course in English lexicology", T., 1990

Lecture 14. ARCHAISMS. NEOLOGISMS

Plan :

1. Archaisms

2. NEOLOGISMS

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

Most of these words are lexical archaisms and they are stylistic synonyms
of words which ousted them from the neutral style. Some of them are: steed
/horse/, slay /kill/, behold /see/, perchance /perhaps/, woe /sorrow/ etc.
   Sometimes a lexical archaism begins a new life, getting a new meaning,
then the old meaning becomes a semantic archaism, e.g. «fair» in the
meaning «beautiful» is a semantic archaism, but in the meaning «blond» it
belongs to the neutral style.
   Sometimes the root of the word remains and the affix is changed, then
the old affix is considered to be a morphemic archaism, e.g. «beautious»
/»ous» was substituted by «ful»/, «bepaint» / «be» was dropped/, «darksome»
/»some» was dropped/, «oft» / «en» was added/. etc.

NEOLOGISMS

   At the present moment English is developing very swiftly and there is so
called «neology blowup». R. Berchfield who worked at compiling a four-
volume supplement to NED says that averagely 800 neologisms appear every
year in Modern English. It has also become a language-giver recently,
especially with the development of computerization.
   New words, as a rule, appear in speech of an individual person who wants
to express his idea in some original way. This person is called
«originater». New lexical units are primarily used by university teachers,
newspaper reporters, by those who are connected with mass media.
   Neologisms can develop in three main ways: a lexical unit existing in the
language can change its meaning to denote a new object or phenomenon. In
such cases we have semantic neologisms, e.g. the word «umbrella» developed
the meanings: «авиационное прикрытие», »политическое прикрытие». A new
lexical unit can develop in the language to denote an object or phenomenon
which already has some lexical unit to denote it. In such cases we have
transnomination, e.g. the word «slum» was first substituted by the word
«ghetto» then by the word-group «inner town». A new lexical unit can be
introduced to denote a new object or phenomenon. In this case we have «a
proper neologism», many of them are cases of new terminology.
   Here we can point out several semantic groups when we analize the group
of neologisms connected with computerization, and here we can mention words
used:
   a) to denote different types of computers, e.g. PC, super-computer, multi-
user, neurocomputer / analogue of a human brain/;
   b) to denote parts of computers, e.g. hardware, software, monitor,
screen, data, vapourware / experimental samples of computers for
exhibition, not for production/;
   c) to denote computer languages, e.g. BASIC, Algol FORTRAN etc;
   d) to denote notions connected with work on computers, e.g. computerman,
computerization, computerize, to troubleshoot, to blitz out / to ruin
data in a computer's memory/.
   There are also different types of activities performed with the help of
computers, many of them are formed with the help of the morpheme «tele»,
e.g. to telework, to telecommute / to work at home having a computer which
is connected with the enterprise for which one works/. There are also such
words as telebanking, telemarketing, teleshopping / when you can perform
different operations with the help of your computer without leaving your
home, all operations are registered by the computer at your bank/,
videobank /computerized telephone which registers all information which is
received in your absence/.
   In the sphere of lingusitics we have such neologisms as: machine
translation, interlingual / an artificial language for machine translation
into several languages / and many others.
   In the sphere of biometrics we have computerized machines which can
recognize characteristic features of people seeking entrance : finger-print
scanner / finger prints/, biometric eye-scanner / blood-vessel arrangements
in eyes/, voice verification /voice patterns/. These are types of
biometric locks. Here we can also mention computerized cards with the help
of which we can open the door without a key.
   In the sphere of medicine computors are also used and we have the

following neologisms: telemonitory unit / a telemonitory system for treating patience at a distance/.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

  Phonological neologisms are formed by combining unique combinations of sounds, they are called artificial, e.g. rah-rah /a short skirt which is worn by girls during parades/, «yeck» /»yuck» which are interjections to

express repulsion produced the adjective yucky/ yecky. These are strong neologisms.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Changes in pronunciation.

In Modern British English there is a tendency to change pronunciation of some sounds and combinations of sounds due to the influence of American English and some other factors. These changes are most noticeable in the speech of teachers and students of the universities in the Southern part of England /Oxford, Cambridge, London/.

There are the following changes in pronouncing vowels:

a) shortening of long vowels, especially at the end of the word and before voiceless consonants, e.g. see, keep;

b) lengthening of short vowels before voiced consonants, e.g. big, good, come, jam etc. In such adjectives which end in /d/ lengthening of the vowel is observed all over England, e.g. bad, sad, glad, mad etc.

c) drawling of stressed syllables and clipping of unstressed syllables.

d) In unstressed syllables / / is pronounced instead of / i /, e.g. /b `ko:z/, /`evid ns/ etc.

e) In the words consisting of three or more syllables there is a tendency to have two main stresses,e.g. /`nes  `s ri/, /`int   `restin/.

f) The diphthong /ou/ is pronounced / u/,e.g. home /h um/, go /g u/.

g) the diphthong / u / is pronounced /o:/, e.g. sure /sho:/.

Vowels can also change under the influence of consonants:

a) after fricatives and consonants /n/ and /m/ /ju:/ is pronounced as /u:/, e.g. resume, music, news, enthusiasm.

b) before fricatives and combinations of fricatives with consonants «a« is pronounced as / /, e.g. dance, answer, class, fast.

The pronunciation of some consonants is also changed :

a) after a vowel /r/ is pronounced ,e.g. /ka:r/ , /ha:rt/.

b)There appears an intrusive /r/ in the combinations where after the final vowel / / there is a vowel at the beginning of the next word, e.g. the idea of, Asia and Europe/ on the analogy with word combinations there

is, there are/.
  c) /p/ and /t/ are glotalized in the middle of the word,e.g. matter is pronounced as /`m ?   /, happy as /`h ? i/.
  d) /s/ is used instead of /sh/ before /i/ in the structure of suffixes, e.g. social /`sousi  l/, negotiate / ni`gousi,eit/;
  e) /l/ is vocalized at the end of the word, e.g. full/ ful/(close to /v/ in sound).
  f) /sh/ is voiced in the intervocal position in some geographical names, e.g . «Asia», «Persia»;
  g) combinations of sounds /dj/, /tj/ , /sj/ in such words as duke, tube, issue have two variants of pronunciation: /d3u:k/ and /dju:k/, /chu:b/ and /tju:b/, /`ishu:/ and /`isju:/;
   g) pronunciation approaching spelling is being developed, e.g. often /`oftn/, forehead / fo:`hed/ etc;
  h) /t/ and/d/ at the end of words are not pronounced, e.g. «half past five' /`ha:f `pa:s`faiv/, «old man»  /`oul `m n/.

LECTURE 15 LEXICOGRAPHY

Plan fof the lecture

1.The origin of the lexicography

2.The connection of lexicography with the problems of lexicology

3.Synchronic and diyachronic approaches to the study of lexicography

4.Different types of lexicography

5.Other types of specialized dictionaries

6.Difference between Lingual and bilingual dictionaries

7. The definition of the meaning of words in dictionaries

8. The most important problem of lexicographer

  The theory and practice of compiling dictionaries is called lexicography. The history of compiling dictionaries for English comes as far back as the Old English period, where we can find glosses of religious books / interlinear translations from Latin into English/. Regular bilingual dictionaries began to appear in
  the 15-th century /Anglo-Latin, Anglo-French , Anglo-German/.
  The first unilingual dictionary explaining difficult words appeared in 1604, the author was Robert Cawdry, a schoolmaster. He compiled his dictionary for schoolchildren. In 1721 an English scientist and writer Nathan Bailey published the first etymological dictionary which explained the origin of English words. It was the first scientific dictionary, it was compiled for philologists.
  In 1775 an English scientist compiled a famous explanatory dictionary. Its author was Samuel Johnson. Every word in his dictionary was illustrated by examples from English literature, the meanings of words were clear from the contexts in which they were used.. The dictionary was a great success and it influenced the development of lexicography in all countries. The dictionary influenced normalization of the English   vocabulary. But at the same time it helped to preserve the English spelling in its conservative form.
  In 1858 one of the members of the English philological society Dr. Trench raised the question of compiling a dictionary including   all   the

words existing in the language. The philological society adopted the decision to compile the dictionary and the work started. More than a thousand people took part in collecting examples, and 26 years later in 1884 the first volume was published. It contained words beginning with «A» and «B». The last volume was published in 1928 that is 70 years after the decision to compile it was adopted. The dictionary was called NED and contained 12 volumes.

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

The American lexicography began to develop much later, at the end of the 18-th century. The most famous American English dictionary was compiled by Noah Webster. He was an active stateman and public man and he published his first dictionary in 1806. He went on with his work on the dictionary and in 1828 he published a two-volume dictionary. He tried to simplify the English spelling and transcription. He introduced the alphabetical system of transcription where he used letters and combinations of letters instead of transcription signs. He denoted vowels in closed syllables by the corresponding vowels, e.g. / a/, /e/, / i/, / o/, /u/. He denoted vowels in the open syllable by the same letters, but with a dash above them, e.g. / a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/. He denoted vowels in the position before /r/ as the same letters with two dots above them, e.g. / a/, /o/ and by the l etter «e» with two dots above it for the combinations «er», «ir», «ur» because they are pronounced identically. The same tendency is preserved for other sounds : /u:/ is denoted by /oo/, /y/ is used for the sound /j/ etc

Classification of dictionaries

All dictionaries are divided into linguistic and encyclopedic dictionaries. Encyclopedic dictionaries describe different objects, phenomena, people and give some data about them. Linguistic dictionaries describe vocabulary units, their semantic structure, their origin, their usage. Words are usually given in the alphabetical order.

Linguistic dictionaries are divided into general and specialized . To general dictionries two most widely used dictionaries belong: explanatory and translation dictionaries. Specialized dictionaries include dictionaries of synonyms, antonyms, collocations, word-frequency, neologisms, slang, pronouncing, etymological, phraseological and others.

All types of dictionaries can be unilingual (excepting translation ones) if the explanation is given in the same language, bilingual if the explanation is given in another language and also they can be polilingual.

There are a lot of explanatory dictionaries (NED, SOD, COD, NID, N.G. Wyld's «Universal Dictionary» and others). In explanatory dictionaries the entry consists of the spelling, transcription, grammatical forms, meanings, examples, phraseology. Pronunciation is given either by means of the International Transcription System or in British Phonetic Notation which is different in each large dictionary, e.g. /o:/ can be indicated as / aw/, /or/, /oh/, /o/. etc.

Translation dictionaries give words and their equivalents in the other language. There are English-Russian dictionaries by I.R. Galperin, by Y.Apresyan and others. Among general dictionaries we can also mention Learner's dictionaries. They began to appear in the second half of the 20-th century. The most famous is «The Advanced Learner's Dictionary» by A.S. Hornby. It is a unilingual dictionary based on COD, for advanced foreign learners and language teachers. It gives data about grammatical and lexical valency of words. Specialized dictionaries of synonyms are also widely used, one of them is «A Dictionary of English Synonyms and Synonymous Expressions» by R.Soule. Another famous one is «Webster's Dictionary of Synonyms». These are unilingual dictionaries. The best known bilingual

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dictionary of synonyms is «English Synonyms» compiled by Y. Apresyan.
  In 1981 «The Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English» was compiled, where
words are given in 14 semantic groups of everyday nature. Each word is
defined in detail, its usage is explained and illustrated, synonyms,
antonyms are presented also. It describes 15000 items, and can be referred
to dictionaries of synonyms and to explanatory dictionaries.
  Phraseological dictionaries describe idioms and colloquial phrases,
proverbs. Some of them have examples from literature. Some lexicographers
include not only word-groups but also anomalies among words. In «The Oxford
Dicionary of English Proverbs» each proverb is illustrated by a lot of
examples, there are stylistic references as well.  The dictionary by
Vizetelli gives definitions and illustrations, but different meanings of
polisemantic units are not given. The most famous bilingual dictionary of
phraseology was compiled by A.V. Koonin. It is one of the best
phraseological dictionaries.
  Etymological dictionaries trace present-day words to the oldest forms of
these words and forms of these words in other languages. One of the best
etymological dictionaries was compiled by W. Skeat.
  Pronouncing dictionaries record only pronunciation. The most famous is D.
Jones' s «Pronouncing Dictionary».
  Dictionaries of neologisms are : a four-volume «Supplement to NED» by
Burchfield, «The Longman Register of New Words»/1990/, «Bloomsury
Dictionary of New Words» /1996/.
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Lexicography is a science of dictionary-compiling. Modern English lexicography appeared in the 15 th century. In this period English-Latin dictionaries were in existence. The first dictionary of the English language was published in 1755 by Samuel Johnson, in which he gave the origin of words and examples from the works of the best writers.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Most of these dictionaries present the spelling, usage, pronounciation and meaning of words, grammatical information, origan of words, derivatives, phraseology, etymology, synonyms and antonyms. Pronounciation is shown either by means of the International phonetic transcription or in British phonetic notation which is somewhat different in each of the larger reference books. *Ex.* [o:] is given as oh, aw, 6, or, etc.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Selection and the arrangement of meanings of words in different dictionaries are different. They depend on the aim of the compilers. Diachronic dictionaries list more meanings than synchronic dictionaries of current English as they give not only the meanings in present-day use but also those which have already become archaic or gone out of use. *Ex.* SOD gives 8 meanings of the verb «arrive» while. COD lists only five. The meanings of words in dictionaries may bet 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 pronounciation, the list of abbriviations. Dictionaries have some supplementary material. It may include addenda and various word-lists: geographical names, foreign words, tables of weights and measures.

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

 Key words

 1.The origin of the lexicography

 2.The connection of lexicography with the problems of lexicology

 3.Synchronic and diyachronic approaches to the study of lexicography

 4.Different types of lexicography

 5.Other types of specialized dictionaries

 6.Difference between Lingual and bilingual dictionaries

 7. The definition of the meaning of words in dictionaries

 8. The most important problem of lexicographer

 9. The structure of the dictionary

 10. The difference between diachronic and synchronic dictionaris

           Answer the questions

 1.What is the task of lexicography?

   2.What kind of types of dictionaries do you know?3. What kind of types of dictionaries presents spelling of the words?   4. What kind of types of dictionaries presents Etymology of the words? 5.What kind of types of dictionaries presents Pronounciation of the words? 6. What kind of types of dictionaries presents meaning of words? 7.What kind of types of dictionaries presents grammatical ininformation? 8.What kind of dictionary is translation dictionary?

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