

**ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ  
ВАЗИРЛИГИ**

**ЎЗБЕКИСТОН ДАВЛАТ ЖАҲОН ТИЛЛАРИ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ**

**Матякубов Жуманазар Ибрагимович**

**Лексикология**

**Маърузалар матни**

**ФИЛОЛОГИЯ - 5220100**

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## LECTURE № 1

### ETYMOLOGICAL SURVEY OF THE ENGLISH WORD-STOCK

1. Definition of terms native, borrowing, translation loan, semantic loan.
2. Words of native origin and their characteristics.
3. Foreign elements in Modern English. Scandinavian borrowings, classical elements-Latin and Greek, French borrowings, Ukrainian-English lexical correlations.
4. Assimilation of borrowings. Types and degrees of assimilation.
5. Etymological doublets, hybrids.
6. International words

#### Working Definitions of Principal Concepts

Etymologically the vocabulary of the English language is far from being homogeneous. It consists of two layers - the native stock of words and the borrowed stock of words. Numerically the borrowed stock of words is considerably larger than the native stock of words. In fact native words comprise only 30 % of the total number of words in the English vocabulary but the native words form the bulk of the most frequent words actually used in speech and writing. Besides the native words have a wider range of lexical and grammatical valency, they are highly polysemantic and productive in forming word clusters and set expressions.

Borrowed words (or loan words or borrowings) are words taken over from another language and modified according to the patterns of the receiving language.

In many cases a borrowed word especially one borrowed long ago is practically indistinguishable from a native word without a thorough etymological analysis (street, school, face). The number of borrowings in the vocabulary of a language and the role played by them is determined by the historical development of the nation speaking the language. The most effective way of borrowing is direct borrowing from another language as the result of contacts with the people of another country or with their literature. But a word may also be borrowed indirectly not from the source language but through another language, when analysing borrowed words one must distinguish between the two terms - "source of borrowing" and "origin of borrowing". The first term is applied to the language from which the word was immediately borrowed, the second - to the language to which the word may be ultimately traced e.g. table - source of borrowing - French, origin of borrowing - Latin elephant - source of borrowing - French, origin-Egypt convene - source of borrowing - French, origin-Latin. The closer the two interacting languages are in structure the easier it is for words of one language to penetrate into the other.

There are different ways of classifying the borrowed stock of words. First of all the borrowed stock of words may be classified according to the nature of the borrowing itself as borrowings proper, translation loans and semantic loans.

Translation loans are words or expressions formed from the elements existing in the English language according to the patterns of the source language (the moment of truth - sp. el momento de la verdad).

A semantic loan is the borrowing of a meaning for a word already existing in the English language (e.g. the compound word *shock brigade* which existed in the English language with the meaning "аварийна бригада" acquired a new meaning "ударная бригада" which it borrowed from the Russian language.

Latin Loans are classified into the subgroups.

1. Early Latin Loans. Those are the words which came into English through the language of Anglo-Saxon tribes. The tribes had been in contact with Roman civilisation and had adopted several Latin words denoting objects belonging to that civilisation long before the invasion of Angles, Saxons and Jutes into Britain (*cup, kitchen, mill, port, wine*).

2. Later Latin Borrowings. To this group belong the words which penetrated the English vocabulary in the sixth and seventh centuries, when the people of England were converted to Christianity (*priest, bishop, nun, candle*).

3. The third period of Latin includes words which came into English due to two historical events: the Norman conquest in 1066 and the Renaissance or the Revival of Learning. Some words came into English through French but some were taken directly from Latin (*major, minor, intelligent, permanent*).

4. The Latest Stratum of Latin Words. The words of this period are mainly abstract and scientific words (*nylon, molecular, vaccine, phenomenon, vacuum*).

Norman-French Borrowings may be subdivided into subgroups:

1. Early loans - 12<sup>th</sup> - 15<sup>th</sup> century

2. Later loans - beginning from the 16<sup>th</sup> century.

The Early French borrowings are simple short words, naturalised in accordance with the English language system (*state, power, war, pen, river*) Later French borrowings can be identified by their peculiarities of form and pronunciation (*regime, police, ballet, scene, bourgeois*).

The Etymological Structure of English Vocabulary

The native element

I. Indo-European element

II. Germanic element

III. English proper element (brought by Angles, Saxons and Jutes not earlier than 5<sup>th</sup> c. A.D.)

The borrowed element I. Celtic (5<sup>th</sup> - 6<sup>th</sup> c. A.D.)

II. Latin

1<sup>st</sup> group: 1<sup>st</sup> c. B.C.

2<sup>nd</sup> group: 7<sup>th</sup> c. A.D.

3<sup>d</sup> group: the Renaissance period

III. Scandinavian (8<sup>th</sup> -11<sup>th</sup> c. A.D.)

IV. French

1. Norman borrowings: 11<sup>th</sup> - 13<sup>th</sup> c. A.D.

2. Parisian borrowings: (Renaissance)

V. Greek (Renaissance)

VI. Italian (Renaissance and later)

VII. Spanish (Renaissance and later)

VIII. German

IX. Indian and others.

Assimilation is the process of changing the adopted word. The process of assimilation of borrowings includes changes in soundform morphological structure, grammar characteristics, meaning and usage.

Phonetic assimilation comprises changes in sound form and stress. Sounds that were alien to the English language were fitted into its scheme of sounds, e.g. In the recent French borrowings *communiqué*, *café* the long [e] and [e] are rendered with the help of [ei]. The accent is usually transferred to the first syllable in the words from foreign sources.

The degree of phonetic adaptation depends on the period of borrowing: the earlier the period is the more completed is this adaptation. While such words as "table", "plate" borrowed from French in the 8th - 11th centuries can be considered fully assimilated, later Parisian borrowings (15th c.) such as *regime*, *valise*, *café*" are still pronounced in a French manner.

Grammatical adaption is usually a less lasting process, because in order to function adequately in the recipient language a borrowing must completely change its paradigm. Though there are some well-known exceptions as plural forms of the English Renaissance borrowings - *datum* pl. *data*, *criterion* - pl. *criteria* and others.

The process of semantic assimilation has many forms: narrowing of meanings (usually polysemantic words are borrowed in one of the meanings); specialisation or generalisation of meanings, acquiring new meanings in the recipient language, shifting a primary meaning to the position of a secondary meaning.

Completely assimilated borrowings are the words, which have undergone all types of assimilation. Such words are frequently used and are stylistically neutral, they may occur as domi-

nant words in a synonymic group. They take an active part in word-formation.

Partially assimilated borrowings are the words which lack one of the types of assimilation. They are subdivided into the groups:

1) Borrowings not assimilated semantically (e.g. *shah, rajah*). Such words usually denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from which they came.

2) Loan words not assimilated grammatically, e.g. nouns borrowed from Latin or Greek which keep their original plural forms (*datum - data, phenomenon - phenomena*).

3) Loan words not completely assimilated phonetically. These words contain peculiarities in stress, combinations of sounds that are not standard for English (*machine, camouflage, tobacco*).

4) Loan words not completely assimilated graphically (e.g. *ballet, cafe, cliche*).

Barbarisms are words from other languages used by the English people in conversation or in writing but not assimilated in any way, and for which there are corresponding English equivalents e.g. *ciao* Italian - *good-bye* English,

The borrowed stock of the English vocabulary contains not only words but a great number of suffixes and prefixes. When these first appeared in the English language they were parts of words and only later began a life of their own as word-building elements of the English language (*-age, -ance, -ess, -merit*) This brought about the creation of hybrid words like *shortage, hindrance, lovable* and many others in which a borrowed suffix is joined to a native root. A reverse process is also possible.

In many cases one and the same word was borrowed twice either from the same language or from different languages. This accounts for the existence of the so called etymological doublets like *canal - channel* (Latin -French), *skirt - shirt* (Sc. - English), *balsam - halm* (Greek - French).

International words. There exist many words that were borrowed by several languages. Such words are mostly of Latin and Greek origin and convey notions which are significant in the field of communication in different countries. Here belong names of sciences (*philosophy, physics, chemistry, linguistics*), terms of art (*music, theatre, drama, artist, comedy*), political terms (*politics, policy, progress*). The English language became a source for international sports terms (*football, hockey, cricket, rugby, tennis*)

Tasks and exercises. Exercise 1.

Study the following passage, In which ways may the influence of a foreign language be exerted?

The influence of a foreign language may be exerted in two ways, through the spoken word, by personal contact between the two peoples, or through the written word, by indirect con-

tact, not between the peoples themselves but through their literatures. The former way was more productive in the earlier stages, but the latter has become increasingly important in more recent times. Direct contact may take place naturally in border regions, or by the transference of considerable number of people from one area to another, either by peaceful immigration, settlement or colonisation, or through invasion and conquest. It may also take place, though to a more limited extent, through travel to foreign countries and through residence abroad, for trade or other purposes, of relatively small numbers of people.

The type of words borrowed by personal contact would undoubtedly at first be names of objects unfamiliar to the borrowers, or products and commodities exchanged by way of trade. If the contacts were maintained over a long period then ideas concerned with government, law, religion, and customs might be absorbed, and perhaps the names of these would be adopted. Only in the case of nations in relatively advanced stages of civilisation would there be much influence exerted through the written word; concrete objects would come first, then abstract ideas learnt from what might actually be seen from their effects in everyday life and abstract ideas through the indirect contact achieved by books would come much later (J.A.Sheard. The words we use).

#### **Recommended Literature**

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## LECTURE № 2

### WORD-FORMATION IN MODERN ENGLISH

- 1 . The morphological structure of a word. The morpheme. The principles of morphemic analysis, Types of morphemes. Structural types of words: simple, derived, compound words.
- 2 . Productivity. Productive and non-productive ways of word-formation.
- 3 . Affixation. General characteristics of suffixes and prefixes. Classification of prefixes according to: a) their correlation with independent words; b) meaning; c) origin. Classification of suffixes according to: a) the part of speech formed; b) the criterion of sense; c) stylistic reference; d) origin. Productive and non-productive affixes, dead and living affix.
- 4 . Word-composition. Classification of compound words: a) from the functional point of view; b) from the point of view of the way the components of the compound are linked together; c) from the point of view of different ways of composition, Coordinative and subordinative compound words and their types.

#### Working Definitions of Principal Concepts

The word is not the smallest unit of the language. It consists of morphemes. The morpheme may be defined as the smallest meaningful unit which has a sound form and meaning and which occurs in speech only as a part of a word.

Word formation is the creation of new words from elements already existing in the language. Every language has its own structural patterns of word formation.

Morphemes are subdivided into root - morphemes and affixational morphemes.

The root morpheme is the lexical center of the word. It is the semantic nucleus of a word with which no grammatical properties of the word are connected, Affixational morphemes include inflections and derivational affixes.

Inflection is an affixal morpheme which carries only grammatical meaning thus relevant only for the formation of word-forms (*books, opened, strong-er*).

Derivational morpheme is an affixal morpheme which modifies the lexical meaning of the root and forms a new word. In many cases it adds the part-of-speech meaning to the root (*manage-ment, en-courage, fruit-ful*)

Morphemes which may occur in isolation and function as independent words are called free morphemes (*pay, sum, form*).

Morphemes which are not found in isolation are called bound morphemes (*-er, un-, -less*)

#### Morphemic analysis.

The segmentation of words is generally carried out according to the method of Immediate and Ultimate Constituents. This method is based upon the binary principle, i.e. each stage of procedure involves two components the word immediately breaks into. At each stage these two components are referred to as the Immediate Constituents (IC). Each IC at the next stage of analysis is in turn broken into smaller meaningful elements. The analysis is completed when we arrive at constituents incapable of further division, i.e. morphemes. These are referred to as Ultimate Constituents (UC). The analysis of word-structure on the morphemic level must naturally proceed to the stage of UC-s.

Allomorphes are the phonemic variants of the given morpheme e.g. *il-, im-, ir-*, are the allomorphes of the prefix *in-* (*illiterate, important, irregular, inconstant*).

Monomorphic are root-words consisting of only one root-morpheme i.e. simple words (*dry, grow, boss, sell*).

Polymorphic are words consisting of at least one root-morpheme and a number of derivational affixes, i.e. derivatives, compounds (*customer, payee, body-building, shipping*).

Derived words are those composed of one root-morpheme and one more derivational morphemes (*consignment, outgoing, publicity*).

Derived words are those composed of one root-morpheme and one or more. Compound words contain at least two root-morphemes (*warehouse, camera-man*),

Productivity is the ability to form new words after existing patterns which are readily understood by the speakers of a language. Synchronically the most important and the most productive ways of word-formation are affixation, conversion, word-composition and abbreviation (contraction). In the course of time the productivity of this or that way of word-formation may change. Sound interchange or gradation (*blood - to bleed, to abide - abode, to strike - stroke*) was a productive way of word building in old English and is important for a diachronic study of the English language. It has lost its productivity in Modern English and no new word can be coined by means of sound gradation. Affixation on the contrary was productive in Old English and is still one of the most productive ways of word building in Modern English.

Affixation is the formation of new words with the help of derivational affixes. Suffixation is more productive than prefixation. In Modern English suffixation is characteristic of noun and adjective formation, while prefixation is typical of verb formation (*incoming, trainee, principal, promotion*).

Affixes are usually divided into living and dead affixes. Living affixes are easily separated from the stem (care-ful). Dead affixes have become fully merged with the stem and can be singled out by a diachronic analysis of the development of the word (admit - L.- ad + mittere). Living affixes are in their turn divided into productive and non-productive affixes. In many cases the choice of the affixes is a means of differentiating meaning:

*uninterested - disinterested distrust - mistrust*

Word-composition is another type of word-building which is highly productive. That is when new words are produced by combining two or more stems.

Stem is that part of a word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm and to which grammatical inflexions and affixes are added. The bulk of compound words is motivated and the semantic relations between the two components are transparent.

Compound words proper are formed by joining together stems of words already available in the language. Compound proper is a word, the two Immediate Constituents of which are stems of notional words, e.g. *ice-cold* (*N + A*), *ill-luck*(*A+N*).

Derivational compound is a word formed by a simultaneous process of composition and derivation. Derivational compound is formed by composing a new stem that does not exist outside this pattern and to which suffix is added. Derivational compound is a word consisting of two Immediate Constituents, only one of which is a compound stem of notional words, the other being a derivational affix, e.g. *blue-eyed* - (*A+N*) + *ed* In coordinative compounds neither of the components dominates the other, both are structurally and semantically independent and constitute two structural and semantic centres, e.g. *breath-taking*, *self-discipline*, *word-formation*.

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## LECTURE № 3

### WORD-FORMATION IN MODERN ENGLISH (CONTINUED).

1. Conversion, its definition. The word-building means in conversion. Different view-points on conversion. Typical semantic relations within a converted pair (verbs converted from nouns, nouns converted from verbs).
2. Shortening. Lexical abbreviations. Acronyms. Clipping. Types of clipping: apocope, aphaeresis, syncope.
3. Non-productive means of word formation. Blending. Back-formation. Onomatopoeia. Sentence - condensation. Sound and stress interchange.

#### Working Definitions of Principal Concepts

Conversion is a highly productive way of coining new words in Modern English. Conversion is sometimes referred to as an affixless way of word-building, a process of making a new word from some existing root word by changing the category of a part of speech without changing the morphemic shape of the original root-word. The transposition of word from one part of speech into another brings about changes of the paradigm.

Conversion is not only highly productive but also a particularly English way of word-building. It is explained by the analytical structure of Modern English and by the simplicity of paradigms of English parts of speech. A great number of one-syllable words is another factor that facilitates conversion.

#### Typical semantic relations within a converted pair

I. Verbs converted from noun (denominal verbs) denote:

1. action characteristic of the object *ape (n) - to ape (v)*

*butcher (n) - to butcher (v)*

2. instrumental use of the object *screw (n) - to screw (v) whip (n) - to whip (v)*

3. acquisition or addition of the object *fish (n) - to fish (v)*

II. Nouns converted from verbs (deverbal nouns) denote: 1. instance of the action

*to jump (v) - jump (n)*

*to move (v) - move (n)* 2. agent of the action

*to help (v) - help (n)*

*to switch (v) - switch (n)*

3. place of action

*to drive (v) - drive (n)*

*to walk (v) - walk (n)* 4. object or result of the action

*to peel (v) - peel (n)*

*to find (v) - find (n)*

The shortening of words involves the shortening of both words and word-groups. Distinction should be made between shortening of a word in written speech (graphical abbreviation) and in the sphere of oral intercourse (lexical abbreviation). Lexical abbreviations may be used both in written and in oral speech. Lexical abbreviation is the process of forming a word out of the initial elements (letters, morphemes) of a word combination by a simultaneous operation of shortening and compounding.

Clipping consists in cutting off two or more syllables of a word. Words that have been shortened at the end are called apocope (*doc-doctor, mit-mitten, vet-veterinary*). Words that have been shortened at the beginning are called aphaeresis (*phone-telephone*). Words in which some syllables or sounds have been omitted from the middle are called syncope (*ma'm - madam, specs - spectacles*). Sometimes a combination of these types is observed (*tec-detective, frig-refrigerator*).

Blendings (blends, fusions or portmanteau words) may be defined as formation that combine two words that include the letters or sounds they have in common as a connecting element (slimnastics < slim+gymnastics; mimsy < miserable+flimsy; galumph < gallop+triumph; neuto-pia < new+utopia). The process of formation is also called telescoping. The analysis into immediate constituents is helpful in so far as it permits the definition of a blend as a word with the first constituent represented by a stem whose final part may be missing, and the second constituent by a stem of which the initial part is missing. The second constituent when used in a series of similar blends may turn into a suffix. A new suffix *-on*; is, for instance, well under way in such terms as *nylon, rayon, silon*, formed from the final element of *cotton*. This process seems to be very active in present-day English word-formation numerous new words have been coined recently: *Reaganomics, Irangate, blacksploitation, workaholic, foodoholic, scanorama etc.*

Back formation is a semi-productive type of word-building. It is mostly active in compound verbs, and is combined with word-composition. The basis of this type of word-building are compound words and word-combinations having verbal nouns, gerunds, participles or other derivative nouns as their second component (rush-development, finger-printing, well-wisher). These compounds and word-combinations are wrongly considered to be formed from compound verbs which are nonexistent in reality. This gives a rise to such verbs as: to rush-develop, to finger-print, to well-wish.

Onomatopoeia (sound-imitation, echoism) is the naming of an action or thing by a more or less exact reproduction of a natural sound associated with it (*babble, crow, twitter*). Semantically, according to the source of sound onomatopoeic words fall into a few very definite groups. Many verbs denote sounds produced by human beings in the process of communication or in expressing their feelings (*babble, chatter, giggle, grumble, murmur, mutter, titter, whisper*). There

are sounds produced by animals, birds and insects (*buzz, cackle, croak, crow, hiss, howl, moo, mew, roar*). Besides the verbs imitating the sound of water (*bubble, splash*), there are others imitating the noise of metallic things (*clink, tinkle*) or forceful motion (*clash, crash, whack, whip, whisk*).

Sentence - condensation is the formation of new words by substantivising the whole locutions (*forget-me-not, merry-go-round*).

Sound and stress interchange (distinctive stress, the shift of stress). The essence of it is that to form a new word the stress of the word is shifted to a new syllable. It mostly occurs in nouns and verbs. Some phonetic changes may accompany the shift of the stress (*export - to export, increase - to increase, break - breach, long -length*).

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## LECTURE № 4

### Semasiology

1. Semasiology as the branch of linguistics which studies the meaning of linguistic units. Referential and functional approaches to meaning. Definition of meaning.
2. Meaning and concept (notion).
3. Types of word meaning: lexical, grammatical meanings. Denotational and connotational components of lexical meaning. Implicational meaning.
4. Polysemy. The semantic structure of a polysemantic word.
5. Context. Types of context.
6. Change of meaning. Extension, narrowing, elevation, degradation of meaning of a word, metaphor, metonymy.

#### Working Definitions of Principal Concepts

Semasiology is a branch of linguistics concerned with the meaning of words and word equivalents. The main objects of semasiological study are as follows: types of lexical meaning, polysemy and semantic structure of words, semantic development of words, the main tendencies of the change of word-meanings, semantic grouping in the vocabulary system, i.e. synonyms, antonyms, semantic fields, thematic groups, etc.

Referential approach to meaning. The common feature of any referential approach is that meaning is in some form or other connected with the referent (object of reality denoted by the word). The meaning is formulated by establishing the interdependence between words and objects of reality they denote. So, meaning is often understood as an object or phenomenon in the outside world that is referred to by a word.

Functional approach to meaning. In most present-day methods of lexicological analysis words are studied in context; a word is defined by its functioning within a phrase or a sentence. This functional approach is attempted in contextual analysis, semantic syntax and some other branches of linguistics. The meaning of linguistic unit is studied only through its relation to other linguistic units. So meaning is viewed as the function of a word in speech.

Meaning and concept (notion). When examining a word one can see that its meaning though closely connected with the underlying concept is not identical with it.

To begin with, concept is a category of human cognition. Concept is the thought of the object that singles out the most typical, the most essential features of the object.

So all concepts are almost the same for the whole of humanity in one and the same period of its historical development. The meanings of words, however, are different in different languages. That is to say, words expressing identical concept may have different semantic structures in different languages. E.g. the concept of "a building for human habitation" is expressed in Eng-

lish by the word "house", in Ukrainian - "дім", but their meanings are not identical as *house* does not possess the meaning of "fixed residence of family or household" (домівка) which is part of the meaning of the Ukrainian word *дім*; it is expressed by another English word *home*.

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

Concepts are always emotionally neutral as they are a category of thought. Language, however, expresses all possible aspects of human consciousness. Therefore the meaning of many words not only conveys some reflection of objective reality but also the speaker's attitude to what he is speaking about, his state of mind. Thus, though the synonyms *big, large, tremendous* denote the same concept of size, the emotive charge of the word *tremendous* is much heavier than that of the other word.

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

Grammatical meaning is defined as the expression in Speech of relationships between words. The grammatical meaning is more abstract and more generalised than the lexical meaning. It is recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words as the meaning of plurality in the following words *students, boob, windows, compositions*.

Lexical meaning. The definitions of lexical meaning given by various authors, though different in detail, agree in the basic principle: they all point out that lexical meaning is the realisation of concept or emotion by means of a definite language system.

1) The component of meaning proper to the word as a linguistic unit, i.e. recurrent in all the forms of this word and in all possible distributions of these forms. / Ginzburg R.S., Rayevskaya N.N. and others.

2) The semantic invariant of the grammatical variation of a word / Nikitin M.V./.

3) The material meaning of a word, i.e. the meaning of the main material part of the word which reflects the concept the given word expresses and the basic properties of the thing (phenomenon, quality, state, etc.) the word denotes. /Mednikova E.M./.

Denotation. The conceptual content of a word is expressed in its denotative meaning. To denote is to serve as a linguistic expression for a concept or as a name for an individual object. It is the denotational meaning that makes communication possible.

Connotation is the pragmatic communicative value the word receives depending on where, when, how, by whom, for what purpose and in what contexts it may be used. There are

four main types of connotations stylistic, emotional, evaluative and expressive or intensifying.

Stylistic connotations is what the word conveys about the speaker's attitude to the social circumstances and the appropriate functional style (*slay vs kill*), evaluative connotation may show his approval or disapproval of the object spoken of (*clique vs group*), emotional connotation conveys the speaker's emotions (*mummy vs mother*), the degree of intensity (*adore vs love*) is conveyed by expressive or intensifying connotation.

The interdependence of connotations with denotative meaning is also different for different types of connotations. Thus, for instance, emotional connotation comes into being on the basis of denotative meaning but in the course of time may substitute it by other types of connotation with general emphasis, evaluation and colloquial stylistic overtone. E.g. *terrific* which originally meant 'frightening' is now a colloquialism meaning 'very, very good' or 'very great': *terrific beauty, terrific pleasure*.

The orientation toward the subject-matter, characteristic of the denotative meaning, is substituted here by pragmatic orientation toward speaker and listener; it is not so much what is spoken about as the attitude to it that matters.

Fulfilling the significative and the communicative functions of the word the denotative meaning is present in every word and may be regarded as the central factor in the functioning of language.

The expressive function of the language (the speaker's feelings) and the pragmatic function (the effect of words upon listeners) are rendered in connotations. Unlike the denotative meaning, connotations are optional.

Connotation differs from the implicational meaning of the word. Implicational meaning is the implied information associated with the word, with what the speakers know about the referent. A wolf is known to be greedy and cruel (implicational meaning) but the denotative meaning of this word does not include these features. The denotative or the intentional meaning of the word *wolf* is "a wild animal resembling a dog that kills sheep and sometimes even attacks men". Its figurative meaning is derived from implied information, from what we know about wolves - "a cruel greedy person", also the adjective *wolfish* means "greedy".

Polysemy is very characteristic of the English vocabulary due to the monosyllabic character of English words and the predominance of root words. The greater the frequency of the word, the greater the number of meanings that constitute its semantic structure. Frequency - combinability - polysemy are closely connected. A special formula known as "Zipf's law" has been worked out to express the correlation between frequency, word length and polysemy: the shorter the word, the higher its frequency of use; the higher the frequency, the wider its combinability, i.e. the more word combinations it enters; the wider its combinability, the more meanings are re-

alised in these contexts.

The word in one of its meanings is termed a lexico-semantic variant of this word. For example the word *table* has at least 9 lexico-semantic variants:

- 1 A piece of furniture
2. The persons seated at table
3. The food put on a table
4. A thin flat piece of stone, metal, wood
5. A slab of stone
6. Plateau, extensive area of high land
7. An orderly arrangement of facts, etc.

The problem in polysemy is that of interrelation of different lexico-semantic variants. There may be no single semantic component common to all lexico-semantic variants but every variant has something in common with at least one of the others.

All the lexico-semantic variants of a word taken together form its semantic structure or semantic paradigm.

The word *face*, for example, according to the dictionary data has the following semantic structure:

1. The front part of the head: *He fell on his face*,
2. Look, expression: *a sad face, smiling faces, she is a good judge of faces*.
3. Surface, facade: *face of a clock, face of a building, He laid his cards face down*.
4. Fig. Impudence, boldness, courage; *put a good/brave/ boldface on smth, put a new face on smth, the face of it, have the face to do, save one's face*.
5. Style of typecast for printing: *bold-face type*.

In polysemy we are faced with the problem of interrelation and interdependence of various meanings in the semantic structure of one and the same word.

No general or complete scheme of types of lexical meanings as elements of a word's semantic structure has so far been accepted by linguists. There are various points of view. The following terms may be found with different authors: direct / figurative, other oppositions are: main / derived; primary / secondary; concrete/ abstract; central/ peripheral; general/ special; narrow / extended and so on.

Meaning is direct when it nominates the referent without the help of a context, in isolation; meaning is figurative when the referent is named and at the same time characterised through its similarity with other objects, e.g. *tough meat* - direct meaning, *tough politician* - figurative meaning. Similar examples are: *head - head of a cabbage, foot -foot of a mountain, face - put a new face on smth*.

Differentiation between the terms primary / secondary main / derived meanings is connected with two approaches to polysemy: diachronic and synchronic.

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

The meaning the word *table* had in Old English is the meaning "a flat slab of stone or wood". It was its primary meaning, others were secondary and appeared later. They had been derived from the primary meaning.

Synchronically polysemy is understood as the coexistence of various meanings of the same word at a certain historical period of the development of the English language. In that case the problem of interrelation and interdependence of individual meanings making up the semantic structure of the word must be investigated from different points of view, that of main/ derived, central /peripheric meanings.

An objective criterion of determining the main or central meaning is the frequency of its occurrence in speech. Thus, the main meaning of the word *table* in Modern English is "a piece of furniture".

Polysemy is a phenomenon of language, not of speech. But the question arises: wouldn't it interfere with the communicative process?

As a rule the contextual meaning represents only one of the possible lexico-semantic variants of the word. So polysemy does not interfere with the communicative function of the language because the situation and the context cancel all the unwanted meanings, as in the following sentences: *The steak is tough This is a tough problem Prof. Holborn is a tough examiner.*

By the term "context" we understand the minimal stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word. The context individualises the meanings, brings them out. The two main types of linguistic contexts which serve to determine individual meanings of words are the lexical context and the grammatical context. These types are differentiated depending on whether the lexical or the grammatical aspect is predominant in determining the meaning.

In lexical context of primary importance are lexical groups combined with the polysemantic words under consideration.

The adjective *heavy* in isolation possesses the meaning "of great weight, weighty". When combined with the lexical group of words denoting natural phenomena as *wind, storm*, etc. it means "striking, following with force, abundant", e.g. *heavy rain, wind, storm*, etc. In combination with the words *industry, arms, artillery* and the like, *heavy* has the meaning "the larger kind of something as *heavy industry, artillery*"

In grammatical context it is the grammatical (mainly the syntactic) structure of the context that serves to determine various individual meanings of a polysemantic word. Consider the fol-

lowing examples: 1) *I made Peter study He made her laugh*

*They made him work (sing, dance, write...) 2) My friend made a good teacher He made a good husband*

In the pattern "to make + N(Pr)+ V inf" the word *make* has the meaning "to force", and in the pattern "to make + A + N" it has the meaning "to turn out to be". Here the grammatical context helps to determine the meaning of the word "to make".

So, linguistic (verbal) contexts comprise lexical and grammatical contexts. They are opposed to extra linguistic contexts (non-verbal). In extra- linguistic contexts the meaning of the word is determined not only by linguistic factors but also by the actual situation in which the word is used. Change of word meaning.

Extension (widening of meaning). The extension of semantic capacity of a word, i.e. the expansion of polysemy in the course of its historical development, e.g. *manuscript* originally "smth hand-written".

Narrowing of meaning. The restriction of the semantic capacity of a word in the historical development, e.g. *meat* in OE meant "food and drink".

Elevation (or amelioration). The semantic change in the word which rises it from humble beginning to a position of greater importance, e.g. *minister* in earlier times meant merely "a servant".

Degradation (or degeri.eration). The semantic change, by which, for one reason or another, a word falls into disrepute, or acquires some derogatory emotive charge, e.g. *silly* originally meant "happy".

The change in the denotational component brings about the extension or the restriction of meaning. The change in the connotational component may result in the degradation - pejorative or ameliorative development of meaning.

Metaphor. The transfer of name based on the association of similarity. It is the application of a name or a descriptive term to an object to which it is not literally applicable, e.g. *head of an army, eye of a needle*.

Metonymy. The transfer of name based on the association of contiguity. It is a universal device in which the name of one thing is changed for that of another, to which it is related by association of ideas, as having close relationship to one another, e.g. *the chair* may mean "the chairman", *the bar* - "the lawyers".

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## LECTURE № 5

### ENGLISH VOCABULARY AS A SYSTEM

1. Definition of the term "synonyms". A synonymic group and its dominant member.
2. Problem of classification of synonyms:
  - a) different principles of classification: according to difference in denotational component of meaning or in connotational component (ideographic or stylistic synonyms);
  - b) according to the criterion of interchangeability in linguistic context (relative, total and contextual synonyms).
3. Characteristic pattern of English synonyms.
4. The sources of synonymy.
5. Homonyms. Classification. Origin of homonyms.

#### Working Definitions of Principal Concepts

Synonymy is the coincidence in the essential meaning of words which usually preserve their differences in connotations and stylistic characteristics.

Synonyms are two or more words belonging to the same part of speech and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical denotational meanings, interchangeable in some contexts. These words are distinguished by different shades of meaning, connotations and stylistic features.

The synonymic dominant is the most general term potentially containing the specific features rendered by all the other members of the group. The words *face*, *visage*, *countenance* have a common denotational meaning "the front of the head" which makes them close synonyms. *Face* is the dominant, the most general word; *countenance* is the same part of the head with the reference to the expression it bears; *visage* is a formal word, chiefly literary, for *face* or *countenance*. In the series *leave*, *depart*, *quit*, *retire*, *clear out* the verb *leave*, being general and most neutral term can stand for each of the other four terms.

One must bear in mind that the majority of frequent words are polysemantic and it is precisely the frequent words that have many synonyms. The result is that a polysemantic word may belong in its various meanings to several different synonymic groups. Kharitonchic Z. gives the example of 9 synonymic groups the word *part* enters as the result of a very wide polysemy:

1) piece, parcel, section, segment, fragment, etc; 2) member, organ, constituent, element, component, etc; 3) share, portion, lot; 4) concern, interest, participation; 5) allotment, lot, dividend, apportionment; 6) business, charge, duty, office, function, work; 7) side, party, interest, concern, faction; 8) character, role, cue, lines; 9) portion, passage, clause, paragraph.

The semantic structures of two polysemantic words sometimes coincide in more than one meaning, but never completely. L. Bloomfield and E. Nida suppose even that there are no actual

synonyms, i.e. forms which have identical meanings.

In a great number of cases the semantic difference between two or more synonyms is supported by the difference in valency. An example of this is offered by the verbs *win* and *gain*. Both may be used in combination with the noun *victory*: to win a victory, to gain a victory. But with the word *war* only *win* is possible: to win a war.

Criteria of synonymy is interchangeability. It should be pointed out that neither the traditional definition of synonyms nor the new version provide for any objective criterion of similarity of meaning. It is solely based on the linguistic intuition of the analyst.

Recently there has been introduced into the definition of synonymy the criterion of interchangeability in linguistic contexts that is synonyms are supposed to be words which can replace each other in a given context without the slightest alteration either in the denotational or connotational meaning.

But this is possible only in some contexts, in others their meanings may not coincide, e.g. the comparison of the sentences "the rainfall in April was abnormal" and "the rainfall in April was exceptional" may give us grounds for assuming that *exceptional* and *abnormal* are synonyms. The same adjectives in a different context are by no means synonymous, as we may see by comparing "my son is exceptional" and "my son is abnormal" (B. Quirk, *The Use of English*, London 1962, p. 129)

*Peace* and *tranquillity* are ordinarily listed as synonyms, but they are far from being identical in meaning. One may speak of a *peace conference*, but not *tranquillity conference*. (E.Nida, *The Descriptive analysis of words*).

### **Classification of Synonyms**

According to whether the difference is in denotational or connotational component synonyms are classified into ideographic and stylistic. Ideographic synonyms denote different shades of meaning or different degrees of a given quality. They are nearly identical in one or more denotational meanings and interchangeable at least in some contexts, e.g. *beautiful - fine - handsome - pretty*. *Beautiful* conveys, for instance, the strongest meaning; it marks the possession of that quality in its fullest extent, while the other terms denote the possession of it in part only. Fineness, handsomeness and prettiness are to beauty as parts to a whole.

In the synonymic group *choose, select, opt, elect, pick* the word *choose* has the most general meaning, the others are characterised by differences clearly statable: *select* implies a wide choice of possibilities (*select* a Christmas present for a child), *opt* implies an alternative (either this, or that as in Fewer students are *opting* for science courses nowadays); *pick* often implies collecting and keeping for future use (*pick* new words), *elect* implies choosing by vote (*elect* a president; *elect* smb (to be) chairman).

Stylistic synonyms differ not so much in denotational as in emotive value or stylistic sphere of application.

Pictorial language often uses poetic words, archaisms as stylistic alternatives of neutral words, e.g. *maid* for *girl*, *bliss* for *happiness*, *steed* for *horse*, *quit* for *leave*.

*Calling* and *vocation* in the synonymic group *occupation*, *calling*, *vocation*, *business* are high-flown as compared to *occupation* and *business*.

In many cases a stylistic synonym has an element of elevation in its meaning, e.g. *face* - *visage*, *girl* - *maiden*.

Along with elevation of meaning there is the reverse process of degradation: *to begin* - *to fire away*, *to eat* - *to devour*, *to steal* - *to pinch*, *face* - *muzzle*. According to the criterion of interchangeability in context synonyms are classified into total, relative and contextual.

Total synonyms are those members of a synonymic group which can replace each other in any given context, without the slightest alteration in denotative meaning or emotional meaning and connotations. They are very rare. Examples can be found mostly in special literature among technical terms and others, e.g. *fatherland* - *motherland*, *suslik* - *gopher*, *noun* - *substantive*, *functional affix* - *flection*, *inflection*, *scarlet fever* - *scarlatina* Relative Synonyms

Some authors class groups like *ask* - *beg* - *implore*, or *like* - *love* - *adore*, *gift* - *talent* - *genius*, *famous* - *celebrated* - *eminent* as relative synonyms, as they denote different degree of the same notion or different shades of meanings and can be substituted only in some contexts.

Contextual or context - dependent synonyms are similar in meaning only under some specific distributional conditions. It may happen that the difference between the meanings of two words is contextually neutralised, E.g. *buy* and *get* would not generally be taken as synonymous, but they are synonyms in the following examples: I'll go to the shop and *buy* some bread. I'll go to the shop and *get* some bread.

The verbs *bear*, *suffer*, *stand* are semantically different and not interchangeable except when used in the negative form: I can't *stand* it, I can't *bear* it.

One of the sources of synonymy is borrowing. Synonymy has its characteristic patterns in each language. Its peculiar feature in English is the contrast between simple *native* words stylistically neutral, *literary* words borrowed from French and *learned* words of Greco-Latin origin.

#### Native English

to ask to end to rise teaching belly

#### French Borrowings

to question to finish to mount guidance stomach

#### Latin borrowings

to interrogate to complete to ascend instruction abdomen

There are also words that came from dialects, in the last hundred years, from American English, in particular, e.g. *long distance call* AE - *trunk call* BE, *radio* AE - *wireless* BE.

Synonyms are also created by means of all word - forming processes productive in the language.

#### Synonymic differentiation

It must be noted that synonyms may influence each other semantically in two diametrically opposite ways: one of them is dissimilation or differentiation, the other - the reverse process, i.e. assimilation.

Many words now marked in the dictionaries as "archaic" or "obsolete" have dropped out of the language in the competition of synonyms, others survived with a meaning more or less different from the original one. This process is called synonymic differentiation and is so current that it is regarded as an inherent law of language development.

The development of the synonymic group *land* has been studied by A.A. Ufimtseva. When in the 13 century *soil* was borrowed from French into English its meaning was "a strip of land".

OE synonyms *eorpe*, *land*, *folde* meant "the upper layer of earth in which plants grow".

Now, if two words coincide in meaning and use, the tendency is for one of them to drop out of the language.

*Folde* became identical to *eorpe* and in the fight for survival the latter won. The polysemantic word *land* underwent an intense semantic development in a different direction and so dropped out of this synonymic series.

It was natural for *soil* to fill this lexical gap and become the main name for the notion "the mould in which plants grow". The noun *earth* retained this meaning throughout its history whereas the word *ground*, in which this meaning was formerly absent, developed it. As a result this synonymic group comprises at present *soil*, *earth*, *ground*.

The assimilation of synonyms consists in parallel development. This law was discovered and described by G. Stern, H.A. Treble and G.H. Vallins in their book "An ABC of English Usage", Oxford, 1957, p. 173 give as examples the pejorative meanings acquired by the nouns *wench*, *knave* and *churl* which originally meant "girl", "boy", and "labourer" respectively, and point out that this loss of old dignity became linguistically possible because there were so many synonymous words of similar meaning. As the result all the three words underwent degradation in their meanings:

*Wench* - indecent girl *knave* - rascal *churl* - country man. **Homonymy**

The problem of polysemy is closely connected with the problem of homonymy. Homonyms are words which have the same form but are different in meaning. "The same form" implies

identity in sound form or spelling, i.e. all the three aspects are taken into account: sound-form, graphic form and meaning.

Both meanings of the form "liver" are, for instance, intentionally present in the following play upon words; "*Is life worth living? - It depends upon the liver*",

The most widely accepted classification of homonyms is that recognising homonyms proper, homophones and homographs.

Homonyms proper (or perfect, absolute) are words identical in pronunciation and spelling but different in meaning, like *back* n. "part of the body" - *back* adv. "away from the front" - *back* v. "go back"; *bear* n. "animal" - *bear* v. "carry, tolerate".

Homophones are words of the same sound but of different spelling and meaning: *air* - *heir*, *buy* - *by*, *him* - *hymn*, *steel* - *steal*, *storey* - *story*.

Homographs are words different in sound and in meaning but accidentally identical in spelling: *bow* [bou] - *bow* [bau], *lead* [li:d] - *lead* [led].

Homofoms - words identical in some of their grammatical forms. *To bound* (jump, spring) - *bound* (past participle of the verb *bind*); *found* (establish) - *found* (past participle of the verb *find*).

Paronyms are words that are alike in form, but different in meaning and usage. They are liable to be mixed and sometimes mistakenly interchanged.

The term paronym comes from the Greek *para* "beside" and *onoma* "name". Examples are: *precede* - *proceed*, *preposition* - *proposition*, *popular* - *populous*.

Homonyms in English are very numerous. Oxford English Dictionary registers 2540 homonyms, of which 89% are monosyllabic words and 9,1% are two-syllable words. So, most homonyms are monosyllabic words. The trend towards monosyllabism, greatly increased by the loss of inflections and shortening, must have contributed much toward increasing the number of homonyms in English.

Among the other ways of creating homonyms the following processes must be mentioned:

Conversion which serves the creating of grammatical homonyms, e.g. *iron* -*to iron*, *work* - *to work*, etc.

Polysemy - as soon as a derived meaning is no longer felt to be connected with the primary meaning at all (as in *bar* - балка; *bar* - бар; *bar* - адвокатура) polysemy breaks up and separate words come into existence, quite different in meaning from the basic word but identical in spelling.

From the viewpoint of their origin homonyms are sometimes divided into historical and etymological.

Historical homonyms are those which result from the breaking up of polysemy; then one polysemantic word will split up into two or more separate words, e.g. to bear /терпіти/ - to bear /народити/ pupil /учень/ - pupil /зіниця/ plant /рослина/ - plant /завод/

Etymological homonyms are words of different origin which come to be alike in sound or in spelling (and may be both written and pronounced alike).

Borrowed and native words can coincide in form, thus producing homonyms (as in the above given examples).

In other cases homonyms are a result of borrowing when several different words become identical in sound or spelling. E.g. the Latin *vitim* - "wrong", "an immoral habit" has given the English *vice* - вада "evil conduct"; the Latin *vitis* - "spiral" has given the English "vice" - тиски "apparatus with strong jaws in which things can be hold tightly"; the Latin *vice* - "instead of", "in place of" will be found in *vice - president*.

It should be noted that the most debatable problem in homonymy is the demarcation line between homonymy and polysemy, i.e. between different meanings of one word and the meanings of two or more homonymous words.

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## LECTURE № 6

### THE VOCABULARY OF A LANGUAGE AS A SYSTEM (CONTINUED)

1. The English vocabulary as an adaptive system. Neologisms.
2. Traditional lexicological grouping. Lexico-grammatical groups. Word-families.
3. The concept of polarity of meaning. Antonyms. Morphological classification of antonyms: absolute or root antonyms and derivational antonyms. Semantic classification of antonyms: antonyms proper, complementaries, conversives.
4. The theory of the semantic field. Common semantic denominator.
5. Thematic or ideographic groups. Common contextual associations,
6. Hyponymy, paradigmatic relation of inclusion. Hyponyms, hyperonyms, equonyms.

#### Working Definitions of Principal Concepts

Being an adaptive system the vocabulary is constantly adjusting itself to the changing requirements and conditions of human communication and cultural and other needs. This process of self-regulation of the lexical system is a result of overcoming contradictions between the state of the system and the demands it has to meet. The speaker chooses from the existing stock of words such words that in his opinion can adequately express his thought and feeling. Failing to find the expression he needs, he coins a new one. It is important to stress that the development is not confined to coining new words on the existing patterns but in adapting the very structure of the system to its changing functions.

The concept of adaptive system permits us to study language as a constantly developing but systematic whole, The adaptive system approach gives a more adequate account of the systematic phenomena of a vocabulary by explaining more facts about the functioning of words and providing more relevant generalisations, because we can take into account the influence of extralinguistic reality. The study of the vocabulary as an adaptive system reveals the pragmatic essence of the communication process, i.e. the way language is used to influence the addressee.

The adaptive system approach to vocabulary is still in its infancy, but it is already possible to give an interim estimate of its significance. The process may be observed by its results, that is by studying new words or neologisms. New notions constantly come into being, requiring new words to name them. New words and expressions or neologisms are created for new things irrespective of their scale of importance. They may be all important and concern some social relationships such as a new form of state (People's Republic), or the thing may be quite insignificant and shortlived, like fashions in dancing, clothing, hairdo or footwear (rollneck). In every case either the old words are appropriately changed in meaning or new words are borrowed, or more often coined out of the existing language material either according to the patterns and ways already productive in the language at a given stage of its development or creating new ones.

Thus, a neologism is a newly coined word or phrase or a new meaning for an existing word, or a word borrowed from another language.

The intense development of science and industry has called forth the invention and introduction of an immense number of new words and changed the meaning of old ones, e.g. aerobics, black hole, computer, hardware, software, isotope, feedback, penicillin, pulsar, super-market and so on.

For a reliable mass of evidence on the new English vocabulary the reader is referred to lexicographic sources. New additions to the English vocabulary are collected in addenda to explanatory dictionaries and in special dictionaries of new words.

One should consult the supplementary volume of the English-Russian Dictionary edited by I.R.Galperin, the three supplementary volumes of The Oxford English Dictionary, The Longman Dictionary of New Words and the dictionaries of New English which are usually referred to as Barnhart Dictionaries. The first volume covers words and word equivalents that have come into the vocabulary of the English-speaking world during the period 1963-1972 and the second those of the 70s.

There is a considerable difference of opinion as to the type of system involved, although the majority of linguists nowadays agree that the vocabulary should be studied as a system. Our present state of knowledge is however, insufficient to present the whole of the vocabulary as one articulated system, so we deal with it as if it were a set of interrelated systems.

By a lexico-grammatical group we understand a class of words which have a common lexico-grammatical meaning, common paradigm, the same substituting elements and possible characteristic set of suffixes rendering the lexico-grammatical meaning. These groups are subsets of the parts of speech, several lexico-grammatical groups constitute one part of speech. Thus English nouns are subdivided approximately into the following lexico-grammatical groups: personal names, animal names, collective names (for people), collective names (for animals), abstract nouns, material nouns, object nouns, proper names for people, toponymic names.

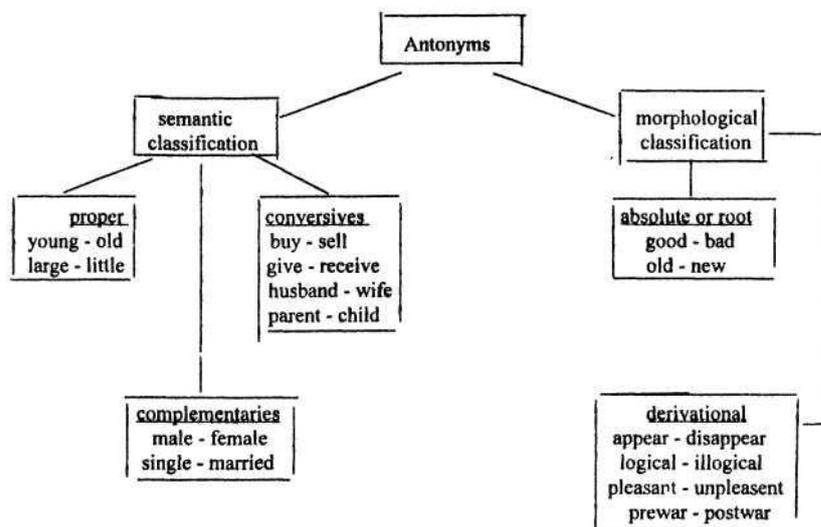
Another traditional lexicological grouping is known as word-families in which the words are grouped according to the root-morpheme, for example: *dog, doggish, doglike, dogg, to dog, dogged, doggedly, doggedness, dog-days, dog-biscuit, dogcart, etc.*

Antonyms are words belonging to the same part of speech different in sound, and characterised by semantic polarity of their denotational meaning. According to the character of semantic opposition antonyms are subdivided into antonyms proper, complet and conversives. The semantic polarity in antonyms proper is relative, the opposition is gradual, it may embrace several elements characterised by different degrees of the same property. They always imply comparison. *Large* and *little* or *small* denote polar degrees of the same notion, i.e. size.

Complementaries are words characterised only by a binary opposition which may have only two members; the denial of one member of the opposition implies the assertion of the other e.g. *not male means female*.

Conversives are words which denote one and the same referent as viewed from different points of view, that of the subject and that of the object, e.g. buy-sell, give-receive.

Morphologically antonyms are subdivided into root (absolute) antonyms (good - bad) and derivational antonyms (appear - disappear).



Semantic field is a closely knit sector of vocabulary characterised by a common concept (e.g. in the semantic field of space we find nouns (expanse, extent, surface); verbs (extend, spread, span); adjectives (spacious, roomy, vast, broad)). The members of the semantic fields are not synonymous but all of them are joined together by some common semantic component. This semantic component common to all the members of the field is sometimes described as the common denominator of meaning, like the concept of kinship, concept of colour, parts of the human body and so on. The basis of grouping in this case is not only linguistic but also extra-linguistic: the words are associated, because the things they name occur together and are closely connected in reality.

Thematic (or ideographic) groups are groups of words joined together by common contextual associations within the framework of the sentence and reflect the interlinking of things and events in objective reality. Contextual associations are formed as a result of regular co-occurrence of words in similar repeatedly used contexts.

Thematic or ideographic groups are independent of classification into parts of speech. Words and expression are here classed not according to their lexico-grammatical meaning but strictly according to their signification, i.e. to the system of logical notions (e.g. tree - -grow - green; journey - train, taxi, bass - ticket; sunshine -brightly - blue - sky).

Hyponomy is the semantic relationship of inclusion existing between elements of various levels. Thus, e.g. *vehicle* includes *car, bus, taxi*; *oak* implies *tree*, *horse* implies *animal*; *table* implies *furniture*. The hyponymic relationship is the relationship between the meaning of the general and the individual terms.

A hyperonym is a generic term which serves as the name of the general as distinguished from the names of the species-hyponyms. In other words the more specific term is called the hyponym. For instance, *animal* is a generic term as compared to the specific names *wolf, dog* or *mouse* (these are called equonyms) *Dog*, in its turn, may serve as a generic term for different breeds such as *bull-dog, collie, poodle*, etc.

#### **Recommended Literature:**

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## LECTURE № 7

### FREE WORD-GROUPS

1. The problem of definition of free word-groups. Various approaches to the definition of the term "word-group". Difference between a word-group and a set phrase.
2. Structure of free word-groups: syntactic connection as the criterion of classification (subordinative, coordinative, predicative), classification of subordinative free word-groups according to their head-words (nominal, adjectival, verbal etc.).
3. Meaning of free word-groups: lexical meaning, structural meaning, Interrelation of structural and lexical meanings in word-groups. Motivation in word-groups.
4. Lexical and grammatical valency.

#### Working Definitions of Principal Concepts

Every utterance is a patterned, rhythmized and segmented sequence of signals. On the lexical level these signals building up the utterance are not exclusively words. Alongside with separate words speakers use larger blocks consisting of more than one word.

Words combined to express ideas and thoughts make up word-groups.

The degree of structural and semantic cohesion of words within word-groups may vary. Some word-groups are functionally and semantically inseparable, e.g. *rough diamond, cooked goose, to stew in one's own juice*. Such word-groups are traditionally described as set-phrases or phraseological units. Characteristic features of phraseological units are non-motivation for idiomatization and stability of context. They cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready-made units.

The component members in other word-groups possess greater semantic and structural independence, e.g. *to cause misunderstanding, to shine brightly, linguistic phenomenon, red rose*. Word-groups of this type are defined as free word-groups for free phrases. They are freely made up in speech by the speakers according to the needs of communication.

Set expressions are contrasted to free phrases and semi-fixed combinations. All these are but different stages of restrictions imposed upon co-occurrence of words, upon the lexical filling of structural patterns which are specific for every language. The restriction may be independent of the ties existing in extra-linguistic reality between the object spoken of and be conditioned by purely linguistic factors, or have extralinguistic causes in the history of the people. In free word-combination the linguistic factors are chiefly connected with grammatical properties of words.

Free word-groups of syntactically connected notional words within a sentence, which by itself is not a sentence. This definition is recognised more or less universally in this country and abroad. Though other linguistics define the term word-group differently - as any group of words connected semantically and grammatically which does not make up a sentence by itself.

From this point of view words-components of a word-group may belong to any part of speech, therefore such groups as *m the morning*, *the window*, and *Bill* are also considered to be word-groups (though they comprise only one notional word and one form-word).

Structurally word-groups may be approached in various ways.

All word-groups may be analysed by the criterion of distribution into two big classes. Distribution is understood as the whole complex of contexts in which the given lexical unit can be used. If the word-group has the same linguistic distribution as one of its members, It is described as endocentric, i.e. having one central member functionally equivalent to the whole word-group. The word-groups, e.g. *red flower*, *bravery of all kinds*, are distributionally identical with their central components *flower* and *bravery*: I saw a red flower - I saw a flower. I appreciate bravery of all kinds - I appreciate bravery.

If the distribution of the word-group is different from either of its members, it is regarded as exocentric, i.e. as having no such central member, for instance *side by side* or *grow smaller* and others where the component words are not syntactically substitutable for the whole word-group.

In endocentric word-groups the central component that has the same distribution as the whole group is clearly the dominant member or the head to which all other members of the group are subordinated. In the word-group *red flower* the head is the noun *flower* and in the word-group *kind of people* the head is the adjective *kind*

Word-groups are also classified according to their syntactic pattern into predicative and non-predicative groups. Such word-groups, e.g. *John works*, *he went* that have a syntactic structure similar to that of a sentence, are classified as predicative, and all others as non-predicative. Non-predicative word-groups may be subdivided according to the type of syntactic relation between the components into subordinative and coordinative. Such word-groups as *red flower*, *a man of wisdom and the like* are termed subordinative in which *flower* and *man* are head-words and *red*, *of wisdom* are subordinated to them respectively and function as their attributes. Such phrases as *woman and child*, *day and night*, *do or die* are classified as coordinative. Both members in these word-groups are functionally and semantically equal.

Subordinative word-groups may be classified according to their head-words into nominal groups (*red flower*), adjectival groups (*kind to people*), verbal groups (*to speak well*), pronominal (*all of them*), stative (*fast asleep*). The head is not necessarily the component that occurs first in the word-group. In such nominal word-groups as, e.g. *very great bravery*, *bravery in the struggle* the noun *bravery* is the head whether followed or preceded by other words.

The meaning of word-groups may be defined as the combined lexical meaning of the components.

The lexical meaning of the word-group may be defined as the combined lexical meaning of the component words. Thus the lexical meaning of the word-group *red flower* may be described denotatively as the combined meaning of the words *red* and *flower*. It should be pointed out, however, that the term combined lexical meaning is not to imply that the meaning of the word-group is a mere additive result of all the lexical meaning of the component members. As a rule, the meaning of the component words are mutually dependant and the meaning of the word-group naturally predominates over the lexical meanings of its constituents.

Word-groups possess not only the lexical meaning, but also the meaning conveyed by the pattern of arrangement of their constituents. Such word-groups as *school grammar* and *grammar school* are semantically different because of the difference in the pattern of arrangement of the component words. It is assumed that the structural pattern of word-group is the carrier of a certain semantic component which does not necessarily depend on the actual lexical meaning of its members. In the example discussed above *school grammar* the structural meaning of the word-group may be abstracted from the group and described as "quality-substance" meaning. This is the meaning expressed by the pattern of the word-group but not by either the word *school* or the word *grammar*. It follows that we have to distinguish between the structural meaning of a given type of word-group as such and the lexical meaning of its constituents.

The lexical and structural components of meaning in word-groups are interdependent and inseparable. The inseparability of these two semantic components in word-groups can be illustrated by the semantic analysis of individual word-groups in which the norms of conventional collocability of words seem to be deliberately overstepped. For instance, in the word-group *all the sun long* we observe a departure from the norm of lexical valency represented by such word-groups as *all the day long*, *all the night long*, *all the week long*, and a few others. The structural pattern of these word-groups in ordinary usage and the word-group *all the sun long* is identical. The generalised meaning of the pattern may be described as "a unit of time". Replacing *day*, *night*, *week* by another noun the *sun* we do not find any change in the structural meaning of the pattern. The group *all the sun long* functions semantically as a unit of time. The noun *sun*, however, included in the group continues to carry its own lexical meaning (not "a unit of time") which violates the norms of collocability in this word-group. It follows that the meaning of the word-group is derived from the combined lexical meanings of its constituents and is inseparable from the meaning of the pattern of their arrangement.

Two basic linguistic factors which unite words into word-groups and which largely account for their combinability are lexical valency or collocability and grammatical valency.

Words are known to be used in lexical context, i.e. in combination with other words. The aptness of a word to appear in various combinations, with other words is qualified as its lexical

### collocability or valency.

The range of a potential lexical collocability of words is restricted by the inner structure of the language wordstock. This can be easily observed in the examples as follows: though the words *bend*, *curl* are registered by the dictionaries as synonyms their collocability is different, for they tend to combine with different words: e.g. *to bend a bar/ wire/pipe/ bow/ stick/ head/ knees to curl hair/ moustache/ a hat brim/waves/ lips*

There can be cases of synonymic groups where one synonym would have the widest possible range of collocability (like *shake* which enters combinations with an immense number of words including *earth, air, mountains, convictions, beliefs, spears, walls, souls, tablecloths, bosoms, carpets etc.*) while another will have the limitation inherent in its semantic structure (like *wag* which means < to shake a thing by one end >, and confined to rigid group of nouns - *tail, finger, head, tongue, beard, chin*).

There is certain norm of lexical valency for each word and any intentional departure from this norm is qualified as a stylistic device, e.g.: *tons of words, a life ago, years of dust*.

Words traditionally collocated in speech tend to make up so called cliches or traditional word combinations. In traditional combinations words retain their full semantic independence although they are limited in their combinative power (e.g.: *to wage a war, to render a service, to make friends*). Words in traditional combinations are combined according to the patterns of grammatical structure of the given language. Traditional combinations fall into structural types as:

1. V+N combinations. E.G.: *deal a blow, bear a grudge, take a fancy etc*
2. V+ preposition +N: *fall into disgrace, go into details, go into particular, take into account, come into being etc.*
3. V + Adj.: *work hard, rain heavily etc.*
4. V + Adj.: *set free, make sure, put right etc.*
5. Adj. + N.: *maiden voyage, ready money, dead silence, feline eyes, aquiline nose, auspicious circumstances etc.*
6. N + V: *time passes / flies / elapses, options differ, tastes vary etc.*
7. N + preposition + N: *breach of promise, flow of words, flash of hope, flood of tears etc.*

Grammatical combinability also tells upon the freedom of bringing words together. The aptness of a word to appear in specific grammatical (syntactic) structures is termed grammatical valency.

The grammatical valency of words may be different. The range of it is delimited by the part of speech the word belongs to. This statement, though, does not entitle to say that grammatical valency of words belonging to the same part of speech is identical.

E.g.: the two synonyms *clever* and *intelligent* are said to possess different grammatical valency as the word *clever* can fit the syntactic pattern of Adj. + preposition at + N *clever at physics, clever at social sciences*, whereas **the word** *intelligent* can never be found in exactly the same syntactic pattern.

Unlike frequent departures from the norms of lexical valency, departures from the grammatical valency norms are not admissible unless a speaker purposefully wants to make the word group unintelligible to native speakers.

Thus, the main approaches towards word - groups classification are as follows: 1. According to the criterion of distribution word-groups are classified into:

endocentric, e.g. having one central member functionally equivalent to the whole word group.      exocentric, e.g. having the distribution different from that of either of its members.

Here component words are not syntactically substitutable for the whole word group.

E.g.: *red flower* - the word group whose distribution does not differ from the distribution of its head word, the noun *flower*. As in *I gave her a red flower. I gave her a flower*

E.g.: *Side by side, by leaps and bounds*

2. According to the syntactic pattern word-groups are classified into:

predicative *They knew Children believe Weather permitting*

coordinative *say or die come and go*

subordinative *a man of property domesticated animals*

3. According to the part of speech the head word belongs to subordinative free word groups may fall into:

nominal *stone wall wild life*

adjectival *necessary to know kind to people*

verbal *work hard go smoothly*

adverbial *very fluently, rather sharply very well so quickly*

numerical *five of them hundreds of refugees*

pronominal *some of them all of us nothing to do*

statal *fast asleep full aware*

Word-groups may be also analyzed from the point of view of their motivation. Word groups may be described as lexically motivated if the combined lexical meaning of the group is deducible from the meaning of its components. The degrees of motivation may be different and range from complete motivation to lack of it. Free word - groups, however, are characterised by complete motivation, as their components carry their individual lexical meanings.

Phraseological units are described as non-motivated and are characterised by different degree of idiomaticity.

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1. Antrushina G.B. and others. English lexicology. - M., 1985. - p. 173-180.
2. Arnold I.V. The English Word. - M., 1986.- p. 165 - 169.
3. Ginsburg R.S. and others. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. - M., 1979. - p. 86-99.
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5. Readings in Modern English Lexicology. - L., 1969. - p.63-73.

**LECTURE № 8**  
**PHRASEOLOGY TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION**

1. Free word combination and phraseological word combination. The problem of definition of phraseological word combination. The essential features of phraseological units: lack of semantic motivation (idiomaticity) and lexical and grammatical stability. The concept of reproducibility.
2. Different approaches to the classification of phraseological units: semantic, functional (according to their grammatical structure), contextual.
3. Academician V.V. Vinogradov's classification of phraseological units. The degree of idiomaticity as an essential requirement for the classification:
  - a) phraseological combinations;
  - b) phraseological unities;
  - c) phraseological fusions.
4. Stylistic aspect of phraseology. Polysemy and Synonymy of Phraseological Units.

**Definitions of Principal Concepts.**

Phraseological unit is a non-motivated word-group that cannot be freely made up in speech but is reproduced as a ready made unit.

Reproducibility is regular use of phraseological units in speech as single unchangeable collocations.

Idiomaticity is the quality of phraseological unit, when the meaning of the whole is not deducible from the sum of the meanings of the parts.

Stability of a phraseological unit implies that it exists as a ready-made linguistic unit which does not allow of any variability of its lexical components of grammatical structure.

1. In lexicology there is great ambiguity of the terms phraseology and idioms. Opinions differ as to how phraseology should be defined, classified, described and analysed. The word "phraseology has very different meanings in this country and in Great Britain or the United States, In linguistic literature the term is used for the expressions where the meaning of one element is dependent on the other, irrespective of the structure and properties of the unit (V.V. Vinogradov); with other authors it denotes only such set expressions which do not possess expressiveness or emotional colouring (A.I. Smirnitsky), and also vice versa: only those that are imaginative, expressive and emotional (I.V. Arnold). N.N. Amosova calls such expressions fixed context units, i.e. units in which it is impossible to substitute any of the components without changing the meaning not only of the whole unit but also of the elements that remain intact. O.S. Ahmanova insists on the semantic integrity of such phrases prevailing over the structural separateness of their elements. A.V. Koonin lays stress on the structural separateness of the elements

in a phraseological unit, on the change of meaning in the whole as compared with its elements taken separately and on a certain minimum stability.

In English and American linguistics no special branch of study exists, and the term "phraseology" has a stylistic meaning, according to Webster's dictionary 'mode of expression, peculiarities of diction, i.e. choice and arrangement of words and phrases characteristic of some author or some literary work'.

Difference in terminology ("set-phrases", "idioms", "word-equivalents") reflects certain differences in the main criteria used to distinguish types of phraseological units and free word-groups. The term "set phrase" implies that the basic criterion of differentiation is stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure of word-groups.

The term "idiom" generally implies that the essential feature of the linguistic units is idiomacity or lack of motivation.

The term "word-equivalent" stresses not only semantic but also functional inseparability of certain word groups, their aptness to function in speech as single words.

The essential features of phraseological units are: a) lack of semantic motivation; b) lexical and grammatical stability.

As far as semantic motivation is concerned phraseological units are extremely varied from motivated (by simple addition of denotational meaning) like a *sight for sore eyes* and *to know the ropes*, to partially motivated (when one of the words is used in a not direct meaning) or to demotivated (completely non-motivated) like *tit for tat*, *red-tape*.

Lexical and grammatical stability of phraseological units is displayed in the fact that no substitution of any elements whatever is possible in the following stereotyped (unchangeable) set expressions, which differ in many other respects; *all the world and his wife*, *red tape*, *calf love*, *heads or tails*, *first night*, *to gild the pill*, *to hope for the best*, *busy as a bee*, *fair and square*, *stuff and nonsense* *time and again*, *to and fro*.

In a free phrase the semantic correlative ties are fundamentally different. The information is additive and each element has a much greater semantic independence. Each component may be substituted without affecting the meaning of the other: *cut bread*, *cut cheese*, *eat bread*. Information is additive in the sense that the amount of information we had on receiving the first signal, i.e. having heard or read the word *cut*, is increased, the listener obtains further details and learns what is cut. The reference of *cut* is unchanged. Every notional word can form additional syntactic ties with other words outside the expression. In a set expression information furnished by each element is not additive: actually it does not exist before we get the whole. No substitution for either *cut* or *figure* can be made without completely ruining the following:

*I had an uneasy fear that he might cut a poor figure beside all these clever Russian officers*

(Shaw). *He was not managing to cut much of a figure* (Murdoch)

The only substitution admissible for the expression *cut a poor figure* concerns the adjective.

2. Semantic approach stresses the importance of idiomaticity, functional - syntactic inseparability, contextual - stability of context combined with idiomaticity.

3. In his classification of V.V. Vinogradov developed some points first advanced by the Swiss linguist Charles Bally. The classification is based upon the motivation of the unit, i.e. the relationship existing between the meaning of the whole and the meaning of its component parts. The degree of motivation is correlated with the rigidity, indivisibility and semantic unity of the expression, i.e. with the possibility of changing the form or the order of components, and of substituting the whole by a single word. According to the type of motivation three types of phraseological units are suggested, phraseological combinations, phraseological unities, and phraseological fusions.

The Phraseological Collocations (Combinations), are partially motivated, they contain one component used in its direct meaning while the other is used figuratively: *meet the demand, meet the necessity, meet the requirements*.

Phraseological unities are much more numerous. They are clearly motivated. The emotional quality is based upon the image created by the whole as in *to stick (to stand) to one's guns*, i.e. 'refuse to change one's statements or opinions in the face of opposition', implying courage and integrity. The example reveals another characteristic of the type, the possibility of synonymic substitution, which can be only very limited, e. g. *to know the way the wind is blowing*.

Phraseological fusions, completely non-motivated word-groups, (e.g. *tit for tat*), represent as their name suggests the highest stage of blending together. The meaning of components is completely absorbed by the meaning of the whole, by its expressiveness and emotional properties. Phraseological fusions are specific for every language and do not lend themselves to literal translation into other languages.

4. Semantic stylistic features contracting set expressions into units of fixed context are simile, contrast, metaphor and synonymy. For example: *as like as two peas, as old as the hills and older than the hills* (simile); *from beginning to end, for love or money, more or less, sooner or later* (contrast); *a lame duck, a pack of lies, arms race, to swallow the pill, in a nutshell* (metaphor); *by leaps and bounds, proud and haughty* (synonymy). A few more combinations of different features in the same phrase are: *as good as gold, as pleased as Punch, as fit as a fiddle* (alliteration, simile); *now or never, to kill or cure* (alliteration and contrast). More rarely there is an intentional pun: *as cross as two sticks* means 'very angry'. This play upon words makes the phrase jocular. The comic effect is created by the absurdity of the combination making use of two

different meanings of the word *cross* a and n.

There are, of course, other cases when set expressions lose their metaphorical picturesqueness, having preserved some fossilised words and phrases, the meaning of which is no longer correctly understood. For instance, the expression *buy a pig in a poke* may be still used, although *poke* 'bag' (cf. *pouch*, *pocket*) does not occur in other contexts. Expressions taken from obsolete sports and occupations may survive in their new figurative meaning. In these cases the euphonic qualities of the expression are even more important. A muscular and irreducible phrase is also memorable. The muscular feeling is of special importance in slogans and battle cries. *Saint George and the Dragon for Merrie England*, the medieval battle cry, was a rhythmic unit to which a man on a horse could swing his sword. The modern *Scholarships not battleships!* can be conveniently scanned by a marching crowd.

### **Recommended Literature**

1. Rayevska N.N. English Lexicology. - K., 1979. - P.265-282
2. Ginzburg R.S. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. - M., 1966. P. 87-119
3. Arnold I.V. The English Word. - M., 1986. - P.165-174 .

**LECTURE № 9**  
**PHRASEOLOGY (CONTINUED)**

1. N.N.Amosova's concept of contextual analysis. Definition of fixed context. Two types of units of fixed context: a) phrasemes, b) idioms. Two types of idioms.
2. A.V.Koonin's concept of phraseological units. Functional and semantic classification of phraseological units.
3. Formal and functional classification.
4. Phraseological stability.
5. Proverbs, sayings, familiar quotations and cliches.

1. N.N. Amosova's approach is contextological. She defines phraseological units as units of fixed context. Fixed context is defined as a context characterised by a specific and unchanging sequence of definite lexical components, and a peculiar semantic relationship between them. Units of fixed context are subdivided into phrasemes and idioms. Phrasemes are always binary: one component has a phraseologically bound meaning, the other serves as the determining context (*small talk, small hours, small change*). In idioms the new meaning is created by the whole, though every element may have its original meaning weakened or even completely lost: *in the nick of time* 'at the exact moment'. Idioms may be motivated or demotivated. A motivated idiom is homonymous to a free phrase, but this phrase is used figuratively: *take the bull by the horns* 'to face dangers without fear\*'. *In the nick of time* is demotivated, because the word *nick* is obsolete. Both phrasemes and idioms may be movable (changeable) or immovable.

2. A.V. Koonin's classification is based on the functions the units fulfil in speech. They may be nominating (*a bull in a china shop*), interjectinal (*a pretty kettle of fish*), communicative (*familiarity breeds contempt*), or nominating-communicative (*pull somebody's leg*). Further classification into subclasses depends on whether the units are changeable or unchangeable, whether the meaning of the one element remains free, and, more generally, on the interdependence between the meaning of the elements and the meaning of the set expression.

3. Formal classification distinguishes set expressions that are nominal phrases: *the root of the trouble*; verbal phrases: *put one's best foot forward*; adjectival phrases: *as good as gold*; *red as a cherry*; adverbial phrases: *from head to foot*; prepositional phrases: *in the course of*; conjunctive phrases: *as long as, on the other hand*, interjective phrases: *Well, I never!*

A stereotyped sentence also introduced into speech as a ready-made formula may be illustrated by *Never say die!* 'never give up hope', *take your time* 'do not hurry'.

This classification takes into consideration not only the type of component parts but also

the functioning of the whole, thus, *tooth and nail* is not a nominal but an adverbial unit, because it serves to modify a verb (e. g. *fight tooth and nail*)

Within each of these classes a further subdivision is as follows:

a) Set expressions functioning like nouns:

N+N: *maiden name* 'the surname of a woman before she was married'; *brains trust* 'a committee of experts'

N's+N: *cat's paw* 'one who is used for the convenience of a cleverer and stronger person' (the expression comes from a fable in which a monkey wanting to eat some chestnuts that were on a hot stove, but not wishing to burn himself while getting them, seized a cat and holding its paw in his own used it to knock the chestnuts to the ground)

Ns'+N: *ladies' man* 'one who makes special effort to charm or please women'.

N+prp+N: *the arm of the law, skeleton in the cupboard*. N+A: *blight errant* (the phrase is today applied to any chivalrous man ready to help and protect oppressed and helpless people).

N+and+N: *lord and master* 'husband'; *all the world and his wife*. A+N: *high tea* 'an evening meal which combines meat or some similar extra dish with the usual tea'. N+ subordinate clause: *ships that pass in the night* 'chance acquaintances'.

b) Set expressions functioning like verbs: V+N: *take advantage*

V+and+V: *pick and choose*

V+(one's)+N+(prp): *snap one's fingers at*

V+one+N: *give one the bird* 'to fire sb'

V+subordinate clause: *see how the land lies* 'to discover the state of affairs'.

c) Set expressions functioning like adjectives: A+and+A: *high and mighty*

(as)+A+as+N: *as old as the hills, as mad as a hatter*

d) Set expressions functioning like adverbs: N+N: *tooth and nail*

prp+N: *by heart, of course* adv+prp+N: *once in a blue moon* prp+N+or+N: *by hook or by crook*

cj+clause: *before one can say Jack Robinson*

e) Set expressions functioning like prepositions: prp+N+prp: *in consequence of*

f) Set expressions functioning like interjections:

These are often structured as imperative sentences: *Bless (one's) soul! God bless me! Hang it (all)!*

4. Phraseological stability is based upon:

a) the stability of use;

b) the stability of meaning;

c) lexical stability;

d) syntactic stability;

e) rhythmic characteristics, rhyme and imagery.

5. Proverbs, sayings, familiar quotations and cliches.

The place of proverbs, sayings and familiar quotations with respect to set expressions is a controversial issue. A proverb is a short familiar epigrammatic saying expressing popular wisdom, a truth or a moral lesson in a concise and imaginative way. Proverbs have much in common with set expressions, because their lexical components are also constant, their meaning is traditional and mostly figurative, and they are introduced into speech ready-made. Another reason why proverbs must be taken into consideration together with set expressions is that they often form the basis of set expressions. E. g. *the last straw breaks the camel's back*: :*the last . straw*; *a drowning man will clutch at a straw*::*clutch at a straw*; *it is useless, to lock the stable door when the steed is stolen*: :*lock the stable door*.

As to familiar quotations, they are different from proverbs in their origin. They come from literature but by and by they become part of the language, so that many people using them do not even know that they are quoting, and very few could accurately name the play or passage on which they are drawing even when they are aware of using a quotation from W. Shakespeare. The Shakespearian quotations have become and remain extremely numerous — they have contributed enormously to the store of the language. Very many come from "Hamlet", for example: *Something is rotten in the state of Denmark*; *Brevity is the soul of wit*; *The rest is silence*; *Thus conscience does make cowards of us all*; *There are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio*.

Some quotations are so often used that they come to be considered cliches. The term is used to denote such phrases as have become hackneyed and stale. Being constantly and mechanically repeated they have lost their original expressiveness. The following are perhaps the most generally recognised: *the acid test*, *ample opportunities*, *astronomical figures*, *the arms of Morpheus*, *to break the ice*, *the irony of fate*, etc.

### **Recommended Literature**

1. Arnold I.V. The English Word. - M., 1986. - P. 174 -181
2. Ginzburg R.S. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. - M., 1979 p. 100-193.
3. Rayevska N N. English Lexicology. - K., 1979. - P.265-283.

## LECTURE № 10

### FUNDAMENTALS OF ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY

1. History of Lexicography: a) the history of British Lexicography; b) the history of American Lexicography.
2. The main problems in lexicography.
3. Types of dictionaries.

#### HISTORY OF LEXICOGRAPHY

##### The History of British Lexicography

Lexicography is an important branch of linguistics which covers the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries.

The history of lexicography of the English language goes as far back as the Old English period where its first traces are found in the form of glosses of religious books with interlinear translation from Latin. Regular bilingual English-Latin dictionaries already existed in the 15th century.

The First unilingual English dictionary, explaining words appeared in 1604. Its aim was to explain difficult words. Its title was "A Table Alphabetical, containing and teaching the true writing and understanding of hard usual English words borrowed from the Hebrew, Greece, Latin or French". The volume of 120 pages explaining about 3000 words was compiled by Robert Cawdrey, a schoolmaster.

The first attempt at a bigger dictionary including all the words of the language, not only the difficult ones, was made by Nathaniel Bailey. He published the first edition of Universal Etymological English Dictionary in 1721. It was the first to include pronunciation and etymology.

The first big explanatory dictionary "A Dictionary of the English Language in Which the Words are Deduced from Their Originals and Illustrated in Their General Significations by Examples from the Best Writers: In 2 vols." was compiled by Dr Samuel Johnson and published in 1755. The most important innovation of S. Johnson's Dictionary was the introduction of illustrations of the meanings of the words by examples from the best writers.

Pronunciation was not marked, because S. Johnson was very touch sure of the wide variety of the English pronunciation and thought it impossible to set up a standard there; he paid attention only to those aspects of vocabulary where he believed he could improve linguistic usage. S. Johnson's influence was tremendous. He remained the unquestionable authority for more than 75 years.

As to pronunciation, the first pronouncing dictionary was published in 1780 by Thomas Sheridan, grandfather of the great dramatist. In 1791 appeared The Critical Pronouncing Dictionary and Expositor of the English Language by John Walker, an actor. The vogue of this second

dictionary was very great, and in later publications Walker's pronunciations were inserted into S. Johnson's text - a further step to a unilingual dictionary in its present-day form.

The Golden Age of English lexicography began in the last quarter of the 19th century when the English Philological Society started work on compiling The Oxford English Dictionary (OED), which was originally named. New English Dictionary on Historical Principles (NED). It is still referred to as either OED or NED.

The objective of this colossal work was and still is to trace the development of English words from their form in Old English. Where they were not found in Old English, it was shown when they were introduced into the language. The development of each meaning and its historical relation to other meanings of the same word is as well displayed. For words and meanings which have ' become obsolete the date of the latest occurrence is provided. All this is done by means of dated quotations ranging from the oldest to recent appearances of the words in question. The English of G. Chaucer, of the "Bible" and of W. Shakespeare is given as much attention as that of the most modern authors. The dictionary includes spellings, pronunciations and detailed etymologies. The completion of the work required more than 75 years. The result is a kind of encyclopaedia of language used not only for reference purposes but also as a basis for lexicological research.

The First part of the Dictionary appeared in 1884 and the last in 1928. Later it was issued in twelve volumes and in order to hold new words a three volume Supplement was issued in 1933. These volumes were revised in the seventies. Nearly all the material of the original Supplement was retained and a large body of the most recent accessions to the English language added.

The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English was first published in 1911, i.e. before the work on the main version was completed. It is not a historical dictionary but one of current usage. A still shorter form is The Pocket Oxford Dictionary. The latest edition of OED was undertaken in 1905. The new enlarged version was issued in 22 volumes 1994. Two Russian borrowings glasnost and perestroika were included in it. This publication was followed by a two volume Supplement to hold new words.

Another big dictionary, also created by joined effort of enthusiasts, is Joseph Wright's "English Dialect Dictionary". Before this dictionary could be started upon, a thorough study of English dialects had to be completed. With this target in view W.W. Skeat, famous for his "Etymological English Dictionary" founded the English Dialect Society in 1873. Dialects are of great importance for the historical study of the language. In the 19th century they were very pronounced though now they are almost disappearing. The Society existed till 1896 and issued 80 publications.

## **The History of American Lexicography**

Curiously enough, the first American dictionary of the English language was compiled by a man whose name was also Samuel Johnson. Samuel Johnson Jr., a Connecticut schoolmaster, published in 1798 a small book entitled "A School Dictionary". This book was followed in 1800 by another dictionary by the same author, which showed already some signs of Americanisation. It was Noah Webster, universally considered to be the father of American lexicography, who emphatically broke away from English tradition and embodied in his book the specifically American usage of his time. His great work, *The American Dictionary of the English Language*, appeared in two volumes in 1828 and later sustained numerous revised and enlarged editions. In many respects N. Webster follows the lead of Dr S. Johnson (the British lexicographer). But he has also improved and corrected many of S. Johnson's etymologies and his definitions are often more exact. N. Webster attempted to simplify the spelling and pronunciation that were current in the USA of the period. He devoted many years to the collection of words and the preparation of more accurate definitions.

N. Webster realised the importance of language for the development of a nation, and devoted his energy to giving the American English the status of an independent language, distinct from British English. At that time the idea was progressive as it helped the unification of separate states into one federation. In the latest edition of Webster's *International Dictionary of the English Language* not Americanisms (words not used in America) but so called Britishisms were marked off.

N. Webster's dictionary enjoyed great popularity from its first editions. This popularity was due not only to the accuracy and clarity of definitions but also to the richness of additional information of encyclopaedic character, which had become a tradition in American lexicography. Soon after N. Webster's death two publishers and booksellers of Massachusetts, George and Charles Merriam, acquired the rights of his dictionary from his family and started the publication of revised single volume editions under the name Merriam-Webster (1864, 1890, 1909, 1934, 1961). The staff working for the modern editions is a big institution numbering hundreds of specialists in different branches of human activity.

The other great American dictionaries are the *Century Dictionary* first completed in 1891; *Funk and Wagnalls New Standard Dictionary* first completed in 1895, the *Random House Dictionary of the English Language*, completed in 1967; *The Heritage Illustrated Dictionary of the English Language* first published in 1969, and C.L. Barnhart's *The World Book Dictionary* presenting a synchronic review of the language in the 20th century.

## **The main problems in lexicography**

The problems of lexicography are connected with the selection of headwords, the number, the structure and contents of the vocabulary entry (in different types of dictionaries).

The starting group of lexicographical problems deals with *selection*:

1) In the first place it is the problem of whether a general descriptive dictionary, whether unilingual or bilingual, should give the historical information about a word.

2) For the purpose of a dictionary, which must not be too massive, selection between scientific and technical terms is also a very important task.

3) It is a debatable point whether a unilingual explanatory dictionary should try to cover all the words of the language, including neologisms, nonce-word\*, slang, etc. and note with impartial accuracy all the words actually used by English people; or whether, as the great English lexicographer of the 18th century Samuel Johnson used to think, it should be preceptive, and (viewed from the other side) prohibitive. Dictionary-makers should attempt to improve and stabilise the English vocabulary according to the best classical samples and advise the readers on preferable usage. A distinctly modern criterion in selection of entries is the frequency of the words to be included. This is especially important for certain lines of practical work in preparing graded elementary textbooks.

The other problem which of the selected units have the right to a separate entry and which are to be included under one common head-word. These are, *in other words*, the issues of *separateness* and *sameness* of words. The first deals with syntagmatic boundaries of word-units and has to solve such questions as whether *each other* is a group of two separate words to be treated separately under the head-words *each* and *other*, or whether *each other* is a unit deserving a special entry (compare also: *one another*).

As to the *sameness*, this deals with paradigmatic boundaries. How many entries are justified for *hound*? Concise Oxford Dictionary has two one *tot* the noun, and the other for the verb: to chase (as) with hounds'; the verb and the noun are thus treated as homonyms. Chambers's Twentieth Century Dictionary combines them under one head-word, i.e. it takes them as variants of the same word (hence the term "sameness"). The problem is even more complicated with variants belonging to the same part of speech, This involves differentiation between polysemy and homonymy.

The second group of problems deals with the structure and content of a dictionary entry in different types of dictionaries.

A historical dictionary (the Oxford Dictionary, for instance) is primarily concerned with the development of the English vocabulary. It arranges various senses chronologically, first comes the etymology, then the earliest meanings marked by the label *obs.* - *obsolete* The etymologies are either comparative or confined to a single language. The development is illustrated by

quotations, ranging from the oldest to recent usages of the word in question.

A descriptive dictionary dealing with current usage has to face its own specific problems. It has to give precedence to the most important meanings. But how is the most important meaning determined upon? So far each compiler was guided by his own personal opinion. An objective criterion would be statistical counts. But counting the frequency of different meanings of the same word is far more difficult than counting the frequency of its forms. It is therefore not by chance that up to now many counts have been undertaken only for word forms, irrespective of meaning. Also, the interdependence of meanings and their relative importance within the semantic structure of the word do not remain the same. They change almost incessantly, so that establishing their frequency would have to be repeated very often. The constant revisions necessary would make the publication of dictionaries very expensive. It may also be argued that an arrangement of meanings according to frequency would sometimes conceal the ties and relationship between various elements of the semantic structure.

A synchronic dictionary should also show the distribution of every word. It has been traditionally done by labelling words as belonging to a certain part of speech, and by noting some special cases of grammatically or lexically bound meanings. Thus, the word *spin* is labelled in The Concise Oxford Dictionary as v.t. & i, which gives a general idea of its distribution; its various senses are shown in connection with words that may serve as subject or object, e. g.: 2. (of spider, silkworm, etc.) *make* (web, gossamer, cocoon, or abs.) by extrusion of fine viscous thread... 10. *spun glass* (spun when heated into filaments that remain pliant when cold); *spun gold, silver* (gold, silver thread prepared for weaving...) This technique is gradually being improved upon, and compilers strive to provide more detailed information on these points. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary ... by A.S. Hornby, E.V. Gatenby and H. Wakefield supplies information on the syntactical distribution of each verb. In their Notes on Syntax the compilers state that one who is learning English as a foreign language is apt to form sentences by analogy, which at times *may* lead him into error. For instance, the student must be warned against taking the use of the verb *tell* in the sentence *Please tell me the meaning* as a model for the word *explain*, because *\*Please, explain me the meaning* would be ungrammatical. For this purpose they provide a table of 25 verb patterns and supply the numerical indications in each verb entry. This gives the student the necessary guidance. Indications are also supplied as to which nouns and which semantic varieties of nouns may be used in the plural. This helps the student to avoid mistakes like *\*interesting informations*.

The third group of lexicographic problems is the problem of definitions in a unilingual dictionary. The explanation of meaning may be achieved by a group of synonyms which together give a fairly general idea; but one synonym is never sufficient for the purpose, because no abso-

lute synonyms exist. Besides, if synonyms are the only type of explanation used, the reader will be placed in a vicious circle of synonymic references, with not a single word actually explained. Definitions serve the purpose much better. These are of two main types. If they are only concerned with words as speech material, the definition is called *linguistic*. If they are concerned with things for which the words are names, they are termed *encyclopaedic*. American dictionaries are for the most part traditionally *encyclopaedic*, which accounts for so much attention paid to graphic illustration. They furnish their readers with far more information about facts and things than their British counterparts, which are more linguistic and more fundamentally occupied with purely lexical data (as contrasted to *realia*), with the grammatical properties of words, their components, their stylistic features, etc. Opinions differ upon the optimum proportion of linguistic and *encyclopaedic* material.

#### Types of dictionaries

The term dictionary is used to denote a book listing words of a language with their meanings and often with data regarding pronunciation, usage and/or origin. There are also dictionaries that concentrate their attention upon only one of these aspects: pronouncing (phonetical) dictionaries (by Daniel Jones) and etymological dictionaries (by Walter Skeat, by Erik Partridge, The Oxford English Dictionary).

For dictionaries in which the words and their definitions belong to the same language the term unilingual or explanatory is used, whereas bilingual or translation dictionaries are those that explain words by giving their equivalents in another language.

Unilingual dictionaries are further subdivided with regard to the time. Diachronic dictionaries, of which The Oxford English Dictionary is the main example, reflect the development of the English vocabulary by recording the history of form and meaning for every word registered. They may be contrasted to synchronic or descriptive dictionaries of current English concerned with present-day meaning and usage of words.

Both bilingual and unilingual dictionaries can be *general* and *special*. General dictionaries represent the vocabulary as a whole. The group includes the thirteen volumes of The Oxford English Dictionary alongside with any miniature pocket dictionary. Some general dictionaries may have very specific aims and still be considered general due to their coverage. They include, for instance, frequency dictionaries, i.e. lists of words, each of which is followed by a record of its frequency of occurrence in one or several sets of reading matter. A rhyming dictionary is also a general dictionary, though arranged in inverse order, and so is a thesaurus in spite of its unusual arrangement. General dictionaries are contrasted to special dictionaries whose stated aim is to cover only a certain specific part of the vocabulary.

Special dictionaries may be further subdivided depending on whether the words are cho-

sen according to the sphere of human activity in which they are used (technical dictionaries), the type of the units themselves (e. g. phraseological dictionaries) or the relationships existing between them (e.g. dictionaries of synonyms).

The first subgroup embraces specialised dictionaries which register and explain technical terms for various branches of knowledge, art and trade: linguistic, medical, technical, economical terms, etc. Unilingual books of this type giving definitions of terms are called glossaries.

The second subgroup deals with specific language units, i.e. with phraseology, abbreviations, neologisms, borrowings, surnames, toponyms, proverbs and sayings, etc.

The third subgroup contains synonymic dictionaries. Dictionaries recording the complete vocabulary of some author are called concordances. they should be distinguished from those that deal only with difficult words, i.e. glossaries. To this group are also referred dialect dictionaries and dictionaries of Americanisms. The main types of dictionaries are represented in the following table.

### Types of Dictionaries

Unilingual general	Unilingual	Bi/Multilingual general	Bi/Multilingual
	Special		1 special
Explanatory dictionaries (The Oxford English Dictionary on historical principles). Random Hoi Dictionary. Webster's Th 1 New International Dictionary of the English Language, Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English).	Glossaries of scientific and other special terms; concordances (Schmidt, Alex. Shakespeare Lexicon).	Translation Dictionaries. English - Russian, Russian -English etc. and Multilingual dictionaries. (Большой англо-русский словарь И.Р.Гальперина, Мюллер В.Н. Англо-русский словарь, Смирницкий А.М.	Dictionaries of scientific and other special terms. (О.С. Ахманова Словарь лингвистических терминов.)
Dictionaries	concentrated on	linguistic	criteria
Etymological (W. Skeat Etymological English Dictionary) Frequency (Thorndike E.L. and Loi! The Teacher's Word-book of 30.000 Words). Collins Cobuild English Dictionary) Phonetical (ones English Pronouncing Dictionary) thesaurus ty Roget's Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases).	Dictionaries of abbreviations, synonyms, antonyms, borrowings, new words, proverbs, surnames, toponyms (Webster's Dictionary of Synonyms, R.Soule A dictionary of English Synonyms and Synonymic Expressions, Oxford Dictionary of English Proverbs, Y.Collins The Book of English Idioms)	Basic Thematic Word List for English Language Students. Ed. Аникеевко Л. Соловей М. Kyiv, 1998	Dictionaries of abbreviations, Phraseology, proverbs, synonyms, etc, (Buck, Carl Darling. A Dictionary of Selected Synonyms in the Principal Indo-European Languages).

Dictionaries	concentrated	on regional, social and	historical criteria
	American English Dictionaries. Dialect and slang dictionaries. (H.W.Hornvill. A Dictionary of Modern American Usage, E. Partridge. A Pictionary of Slang and Unconventional English).		Dictionaries of Old English and Middle English with explanations in Modern English (Bosworth J. and Toller T. An Anglo-Saxon Dictionary, Kurath, Hans and Kuhn. Sherman M. Middle English Dictionary).

### **Recommended Literature**

1. Arnold I.V. The English Word. - M., 1986. - P.272-284.
2. Ginsburg R.S. and others. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. - M., **1966.** p. 249-269.
3. Rayevska N.M. English Lexicology. - **K., 1979. - P.291-296.**

### **THE SUGGESTED SCHEME OF LEXICOLOGICAL ANALYSIS**

- I. Etymology of the words. Identify native and foreign words in the text (of Greek, Latin, French, Italian, Spanish, Russian etc, origin). Determine the type of assimilation (phonetic, grammatical, lexical), the degree of assimilation (complete, partial, lack of assimilation).
- II. Word-formation. Find productive and non-productive ways of word-formation in the text. Find derived and compound words in the text determine the type of word-derivation (affixation or conversion). State morphemic structure of the derived words, types of morphemes determine the type of compound words (compound proper, derivational compounds, words of secondary derivation). Find other cases of word formation in the text.
- III. Free-word groups. Pick out from the text some free word-groups; determine their type ac-

according to the syntactic connection between the components. Classify the selected free word-groups according to the part of speech the head-word belongs to. Define the context (grammatical, lexical) for the headword in the selected word-groups.

IV. Phraseological Units. Find the phraseological units in the text. Making use of semantic, contextual and functional classifications of phraseological units define their types.

V. Semantics. Define the meanings of words in free word-groups which you selected for the analysis. Using the dictionary state whether the words are used in their main or derived meanings. Determine the context (lexical or grammatical) which helps to actualise the meaning of the polysemantic words

### Recommended literatures

- 1 . Амосова Н.Н. Основы английской этимологии. Л., 1963.
- 2 . Апресян Ю.Д. Лексическая семантика. - М., 1974.
- 3 . Беляева Т.М. Английский язык за пределами Англии. - Л , 1961.
- 4 . Арнольд И.В. Аспекты семантических исследований. - М., 1980.
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- 6 . Ахманова О.С. Очерки по общей и русской лексикологии. - М.-Л., 1957
- 7 . Вард Д. А. К вопросу об ассимиляции заимствованных слов в английском языке. - Ученые зап. МГПИ им. В.И.Потемкина, т.XXX, вып 3, 1958
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9. Вилюман В.Г. Английская синонимика. - М., 1980
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11. Звезгинцев В.А. Семасиология. - М., 1957
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14. Карашук П.М. Реконверсия и ее роль в развитии семантических структур, соотносящихся по конверсии слов / Словообразование и его место в курсе обучения иностранного языка. Владивосток, 1973
15. Караулов Ю.Н. Лингвистическое конструирование и тезаурус литературного языка. - М., 1981
16. Кубрякова Е.С. Что такое словообразование? - М., 1965
17. Кунин А.В. Фразеология современного английского языка. - М., 1970
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## **TOPICS FOR SELF STUDY**

1. A Word as the Unit of Language and as the Unit of Speech
2. Concept and Meaning.
3. Synchronic and Diachronic Approaches to the Study of Language.
4. Word of Native Origin and their Characteristics.
5. Foreign Elements in Modern English.
6. Etymological Doublets. Hybrids.
7. Assimilation of Borrowings.
8. Morphological Structure of a Word.
9. Structural Types of Words.
10. Productive Ways of Word-Formation.
11. Non-productive ways of Word-formation.
12. New Tendencies in Present-Day English Word-Formation.
13. Referential and Functional Approaches to the study of Word meaning.
14. Types of Word Meaning.
15. Main tendencies of the Change of meaning.
16. Polysemy. Synchronic and Diachronic Approaches to Polysemy.
17. The Semantic Structure of a Polysemantic Word.
18. Context. Linguistic and Non-linguistic Contexts.
19. Free Word-groups and Phraseological Units.
20. Classification of Free Word-groups.
21. Classification of Phraseological Units.
22. Homonyms.
23. Synonyms. Paronyms.
24. Antonyms.
25. Hyponymy.
26. Semantic grouping of the English Vocabulary.
27. Vocabulary as an adaptive System.
28. Lexico-semantic Groups. Semantic Fields.
29. Some of the Main Problems of Lexicography.
30. Main Types of English Dictionaries.
31. Historical Development of British and American Lexicography.
32. Variants and Dialects of the English language.
33. Regional and Social Varieties of English.
34. The Theoretical and Practical Value of English Lexicology and its connection with other

Branches of Linguistics.