CONTENT

Introduction

This course of lexicology which forms a part of the curriculum for the English sections of linguistic departments of teacher-training colleges is intended for students of the third year of the day department. It includes 15 lectures and 12 seminars which cover the main themes of Modern English lexicology: word-building, semantic changes, phraseology, borrowings, semasiology, neology, lexicography. The material for seminars includes topics to be discussed, test questions and lexical units to be analysed. Lexical units for the analysis were chosen mainly among neologisms. There is also a brief list of recommended literature.

The aim of the course is to teach students to be word-conscious, to be able to guess the meaning of words they come across from the meanings of morphemes, to be able to recognise the origin of this or that lexical unit.

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Lecture 1

THE OBJECT OF LEXICOLOGY

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1. The object of lexicology;
2. The classification of the linguistic relations between words;
3. Semasiology

Lexicology is the part of linguistics, which deals with the vocabulary of a language and the properties of words as the main units of a language. The term lexicology consists of two Greek morphemes: "Lexis" which means words and phrases, and "logos" which means sciences. So lexicology means the sciences of words. Every language consists of words. The word is the main unit of a given language having a sound form and grammatical form. All the words, which the language possesses, make its vocabulary. The main task of lexicology is to give the systematic description of the vocabulary of the particular language in respect to its origin, development and morphemes, which make up words. There are two principle approaches to the study of a language material in linguistics: synchronic and diachronic. The synchronic approach is concerned with the vocabulary of a language, as it exists of a given time. The diachronic approach deals with the changes and the development of the vocabulary in the course of time. These two approaches should not be contrasted because they are interconnected and interdependent. The synchronic state of a language is the result of a long process of historical development.

Modern English lexicology gives a systematic description of the word-stock of Modern English. It investigates the problems of word-formation in Modern English, the semantic structure of words, the main principals of classification of vocabulary units into various groups. Lexicology is inseparable from grammar, phonetics, stylistics and the history of the English language.

The course of English lexicology falls into two main parts:

l)the treatment of the English as a structure; 2) the treatment of the English vocabulary as a system.

1.2 The classification of the linguistic relations between words

Linguistic relations between words are classified into Syntagmatic and paradigmatic. Syntagmatic relations are based in the influence of context. Paradigmatic relations denote the interdependence of elements within the vocabulary. The theoretical and practical value of lexicology becomes clear if we understand that it forms the study of one of the aspects of language. Lexicology not only gives us a systematic description of the present make up of the vocabulary, but also helps to master the literary standards of word usage.

The word is studied not only in lexicology, but it is very difficult to give the definition of the word, because every word has many different aspects. It has a sound form because it is the arrangement of phonemes. It has also a morphologic structure because it consists of morphemes. Thus the word is studied in all branches of linguistics. The word has been defined syntactically, phonologically and also for some other sciences that have to deal with language and speech, such as philosophy and psychology. The weak point of all definitions is that they don't establish the relationship between language and thought. For a modern theory it is difficult to give a definition, that it is why a description seems more suitable. Thus the word is one of the fundamental units of language. It is a dialectal unity of form and content. Its content or meaning is not identical to notion but it may reflect human notions and in this sense may be considered as the form of their existence.

Almost all words are motivated. The term motivation denotes relations between morphemic and phonemic composition and the structural pattern of the word. Sometimes the structure makes the meaning clear. There are three types of motivation:

1)phonetically motivation (e.g. giggle; purr; whistle; gurgle etc.)
2)morphological motivation(e.g. vita-min-ize; prefabricate; racialist)
3)semantic motivation (the mouth of river; the foot of mountain)

1.3 Semasiology

A branch of the study of language concerned with the meaning of words and word equivalents is called semasiology. The name comes from the Greek semasia "signification" (from sema 'sign')- Words play an important part in the structure of language. So when we speak of semasiology, we refer to the study of word -meaning, although it is in fact very common to analyse the semantics of other elements, not only the words, but suffixes, prefixes, etc. The term "sema" means meaning of words. Meaning is one of the most controversial terms in the theory of language. The scientific definition of meaning has been the problem in many discussions, but still no one definition became universal. The word meaning has different connections. There are two main approaches to this problem: referential and functional. The first formulates the essence of meaning by establishing the interdependence between words and things which they denote. The second studies the functions of a word in speech. The feature of this approach is that it distinguishes between the three components closely connected with meaning: sound form, concept (notion), and reality. There is the model of this approach:

concept

sound form   > reality
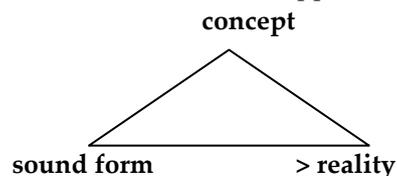
Meaning is understood in this approach as interrelation between these three components. A new and different approach to meaning appeared in linguistics and especially in structural linguistics known as functional approach. It studies the functions of the word in speech. E.g. to define and definition these two words have different meanings because they function is differently, one is a verb and the other is a noun; they belong to different classes and there meanings are different.

In most present -day methods of lexicological analysis words are studied by placing them, or rather considering them in larger units of context; a word is defined by its functioning within a phrase or a sentence. This means that the problem of autonomy of lexicology versus   syntax is now being raised and

solved by special study. This functional approach is attempted in contextual analyses semantic syntax and some other branches of linguistics.

The influence of grammar on lexical meaning is manifold and will be further discussed at some length later. At this stage it will suffice to point out that a certain basic component of the word meaning is described when one identifies the word morphologically, i.e. states to what grammatical word class it belongs.

If treated diachronically, semasiology studies the changes in meaning, which words undergo. Descriptive synchronic approaches demands a study not of individual words but of semantic structures typical of the language studied, and of its general semantic system.

The main objects of semasiological study treated in this book are as follows: semantic development of words, its causes and classification, relevant distinctive features and types of lexical meaning, polysemy and semantic structure of words, semantic grouping and connections in the vocabulary system, i.e. synonyms, antonyms, terminological systems, etc. The present chapter does not offer to cover this entire wide field. Attention will be centred upon semantic word structure and semantic analyses.

Lecture 2
2. TYPES OF MEANINGS

1. Types of meanings;
2. The change of meaning;
3. Polysemy
4. Polysemy and context;
5. Homonyms, synonyms, antonyms.

Word meaning is made up of various components. These components are usually described as types of meaning. The grammatical meaning belongs to the meaning of the word-form. E.g. goes, speaks, writes, etc: these words have one common component, the -s form; it is the meaning of the verb in the third person singular. Present Indefinite Tense. This is the grammatical meaning. Lexical meaning can be found in any form. E.g. write; wrote; written, writing: all have different grammatical meanings, but in each of these forms we find one semantic component, which denotes the process of writing. So the lexical meaning can be described as the component of the meaning proper to the word as a linguistic unit. It exists in all the forms of this word. The lexical meaning is subdivided into denotational and connotational meaning. Denotational meaning denotes a thing or a notion. It is the component, which makes communication possible. Connotational meaning is emotive charge and stylistic value. The word has to express something emotional. When analyzing the words: girl-girly, Elizabeth-Betty we see the difference in the emotive charge. Words differ in stylistic value, too. The greater part of the literary English vocabulary are words known as neutral, but we distinguish: two groups: standard colloguial words and literary -bookish words.

E.g.: father stylistically neutral word, dad (daddy) is colloquial, but parent is bookish. As a rule, stylistically coloured words possess a considerable emoted charge. E.g. mummy and daddy are more emotional than the neutral mother and father. The main types of meaning can be observed not only in words but in morphemes as well. Morphemes possess only the lexical type of meaning, e.g. womanly, womanlike, womanish. Lexical meaning in morphemes may be analyzed into denotational and connotational. E.g. the morphemes -ly, -like, -ish have the denotational meaning.

2.1 The change of meaning

The knowledge of semantic change helps us to understand the semantic structure of the words at the present stays of their development. The meaning of the word changes in the course of historical development, e.g. the word "glad" had the meaning bright, the word "husband" meant the master of the house. Discussing the causes of semantic change, we pay attention to the factors bringing about this change and try to find out why and how the word changed its meaning. There are twc factors, which bring semantic changes:

1. extralinguistic factors;
2. linguistic factors.

By extralinguistic causes we understand various changes in the life of people, changes in economic and social structure, way of life and other spheres of human activities. E.g. the word "car" is formed from the Latin word "carrus" which meant four-wheeled transport (cart): the word "mill" had the meaning (ручная мельница), now it has the meaning (крупная индустриальная компания). Some changes of meaning may be described by linguistic causes, i.e. (that is) factors acting within the language. Some words pass from general usage into some special sphere of communication. The word "play" has different meanings when used in combinations with different nouns: play of child, football play, playwright, etc. In all these examples a word specialized its meaning and became narrower, this process is called narrowing of meaning (specialization), e.g. Old English "dior wild animal"> deer; Old English mete food> meat; Old English "toetan to show">teach; Old English "steorvan to die">starve (to die of hunger). Another process is called widening of meaning (generalization) , in that case the meaning of the word becomes wider then that of the original one, e.g.: to fly, to move with wings> any kind of movement in the air; to arrive to come by sea> any arrival; "pipe" a musical instrument> any kind of pipe: journey one day travelling> travel.

The semantic change can be based on the association between the old meaning and new meaning. There are two types of association: 1)similarity of meaning; 2)contiguity of meaning.

Similarity of meaning or metaphor is a transfer of name based on the association of similarity and has a hidden comparison, e.g. the mouth of river, the foot of the mountain, the tongues of the flame. The metaphoric change is also represented in the usage of proper names in common ones, e.g. Don Juan. The transfer may be based upon the association of contiguity, this is metonymy. It is a shift of names between things that are connected in some way in reality. E.g. the chair, the house words which denote the material from which the thing is made, the iron; the glass; the nickel; there are also many examples in political vocabulary, e.g. The White House.

2.2 Polysemy

1) Central and marginal meanings;
2) similarity of meaning and contiquity of meaning;
3) polysemy and context;
4) Two types of linguistic context: lexical   and grammatical;
5) Homonyms, synonyms, antonyms.

It is very important to distinguish between the lexical meaning of a word in a speech and its semantic structure in language. When analyzing the semantic structure of the word we observe that words have different meanings.

Monosemantic words   are comparatively few in language, they are usually terms, great number of English words that is they possess several meanings. Polisemy exists only in language, not in speech. In speech all the words are monosemantic. Thus the semantic structure is a fact of a language, not of speech. It is developed in the cause of the language's history. Polysemy may be approached diachronically and synchronically. Diachronically we understand it as the appearance of new meanings of the word. We distinguish primary and derived meanings, the word "table" had the primary meaning of a flat slab made of wood or stone, other meanings appeared later. The main source of polysemy is a change in the semantic structure of the word. Synchronically polysemy is the coexistence of various meanings of the word at a certain historical period of the development of language. Every word has a central and marginal meanings, "girl": l)a female child of any age; 2)a daughter; 3)a maid servant; 4)a woman working in a shop; 5)a sweetheart; 6)the central meanings are the first and the second, the rests are marginal.

It should be noted that the relationship between diachronic and synchronic approaches may be different in different periods of historical development of the language, e.g. "revolution" meant the revolving motion of the body, it was the first meaning and now it is the marginal meaning.

2.3 Polysemy and context

In analyzing the semantic structure of the polysemantic word we observe that some meanings are clear when the word is taken in isolation, but other meanings become clear, when the word is used in context. Context is the minimal stretch of the speech determining individual meaning of the word. That doesn't mean that polysemantic words has meaning only in the context. The semantic structure of the word has on objective existence. The context individualizes the meaning brings them out. In this sense we say that meaning is determining by context. The meanings of the polysemantic words may be analyzed from the point of linguistic and extralinguistic context. There are two types of linguistic context: lexical and grammatical.

The lexical context analyses the lexical groups combined with the polysemantic word. The word "hand" the meaning рука: but when it is combined with the word "clock" (hand of clock), it means стрелка. The word "heavy" has different meanings in such combinations as heavy rain (snow), heavy industry, heavy bag. In grammatical context it is the grammatical structure that determines various individual meanings of the polysemantic words, e.g. "make": to make a mistake, to make somebody to do something; "see": I'll see you tomorrow. I'll see you to your house (провожать). I'll see to your house (to take care присматривать) It is usual in modern linguistic to speak about actual speech situation i.e. the extralinguistic context, this table is out of place here (стол; таблица). Thus the problem of polysemy is mainly the problem of interrelation and interdependence of the various meanings of the same word. Context determines the individual meanings.

2.4 Homonymy, synononymy, antonymy

Many words are not connected with meaning by relationship between them. Two or more words identical in sound and spelling, but different in meanings, combinations and origin are called homonyms. Modern English is especially rich in homonyms in modern English can be explained by the monosyllabic structure of the commonly used English words. From the point of view of their morphological structure homonyms are mostly one - morpheme words. When analyzing different cases of homonyms we find that some words are homonymous in all their forms, i.e. observe full homonyms, e.g. "saw" пила;

поговорка; Past Indefinite от see. There is partial homonyms we observe when only some word forms are identical, e.g. " to find"-found-found находить, "to found"- founded-founded основать.

Homonyms may be classified into lexical, lexical-grammatical and grammatical. Lexical homonymy is the external identify of words belonging to one and the same part of speech, and having no connection   between their lexical meanings, e.g. "mail" post (почта), a shirt made of metal rings (кольчуга); "fair" светлый, красивый и справедливый. Lexical-grammatical homonyms belong to different parts of speech, e.g. \saw" noun nnna-"saw" verb Past Indefinite see; "fair" noun ярмарка; adjective светлый;"work noun работа, "work"verb работать. Grammatical homonyms are different word forms of one and the same word, e.g. "worked" Past Indefinite and participle II; "speaking" gerund, Participle I and verbal noun. Thus, all the homonyms may be described on the bases of the two criteria:

1)homonymy of all forms of the word or only some of the word forms;

2) the type of meaning of meaning in which homonyms differ.

The most widely accepted classification of homonyms comes from the fact that words have sound form, meaning and graphic form (spelling). Accordingly homonyms are classified into homographs, homophones and perfect

homonyms(homonyms proper). Homographs are words identical in spelling, but different in sound forms and meaning, "bow" лук[bou]-поклон[bau];"row" ряд [rou]-скандал [rau]. Homophones are words identical in sound forms but different in spelling and meaning, e.g. [ai]-"Я" я-"eye" глаз; [si:] "sea" Море-"see" видеть.

Perfect homonyms are words identical in pronunciation and spelling, but different in meaning e.g. "case" случай, падеж, чемодан.

The development of homonymy in English can be explained by several factors such as monosyllabic character of English and its analytic structure. Different causes by which homonymy may be brought about are subdivided into two main groups: 1) diverging meaning development of two or more different words. The first process can be observed when different meanings of the same word move so far from each othe_r. that they are regarded as two separate words, e.g. "flower [flauo]цветок- "flour" [лflauo]мука. Converging sound development is the most important factor in the creation of homonyms. A number of homonyms appeared as a result of converging sound development which leads to the identical words, e.g.: lufu> love (verb)-Old English lufian>love (noun). Some words were borrowed from other languages and become homonymous to English words, e.g. 0. E.ras.race гонки-F race paca. One of the most important problems in semasiology is the problem of distinguishing homonymy from polysemy, i.e. (that is) between different meanings of two homonyms. On the synchronic level when the difference in etymology is not very important the problem of distinction between different words identical in sound form and different meanings of the same word becomes hard to solve. The semantic criterion distinguishes between words that have nothing in common semantically and those that have something in common is very doubtful. The thing is there is no universal criterion between polysemy and homonymy. If homonymy is analyzed from the point of view of its etymology than all cases of sound convergence of two words may be regarded as homonymy. The cases of semantic divergence are more doubtful. It is usually taken into the consideration that if a connection between various meanings is clear then it is a case of polysemy, if not it is homonymy.

The problem of synonymy is rather complex and it is treated differently by different linguists. Traditionally synonyms are described as words different in sound form, but identical in meaning. This definition has been criticized. It seems impossible to speak of the identify or similarity of lexical meaning as a hole. It is only a denotational meaning that may be described as identical. The connotational meaning is absolutely different in synonyms and it is not usually taken into consideration, e.g. look- stare-watch-glance-observe. Dennotationaly all these words has one meaning: look, but connotationally they are different. That is why synonyms can be defined as words belonging to the same part of speech and having one or more identical denotational meaning but different in shades of meaning or connotations, e.g. leave-depart-retire-quit.

Traditionally synonyms are classified into ideographic and stylistic. If the difference in the meaning of synonyms connected with the notion or denotation they are classified as ideographic. Stylistic synonyms are differ in stylistic reference, e.g. to see -to behold (poetry), begin-commence(official

documents). The interrelation of the denotational and connotationai meaning of synonyms is rather complex: in a great number of cases the semantic difference between two or more synonyms is supported by the difference in combinability. This difference may be syntactical and lexical, e.g. bare is always used as a predicative, while its synonym naked is used predicativly and attributively; alone is always a predicative, but its synonyms solitary and lonely can be used as an attribute and predicative. Very often the difference between synonyms concernce the use of prepositions, e.g. to answer a question but to reply to a question. Some verbs have different combinations, to win-to gain, both are used in combination with the noun "victory", but only -win is used in combination with he word "war". The problem is connected with the problem of phraseological units, e.g. bear-suffer-stand (these words are synonyms only when they are used in negative form:

I can't bear /suffer,stand/ it). Foreign linguists stressed that English is especially rich in synonyms because English is full of borrowings. Quite a number of words in a synonymic group are usually of French and Latin origin. This results in stylistically conditioned groups of words . Usually there is. such a pattern: native- French-Latin, e.g. ask question-interrogate, begin-commence-initiate, end-finish-complete, rise-mount-ascend. There are some other points of interest, e.g. the existence of many groups of synonyms which appeared in the language as a result of taking these words.- from dialects and American English in particular, e.g. girl-lass (Irish dialect), liquor-whisky (Scotch dialect), charm-glamsur (American English), radio-wireless (American English), flat-apartment (American English).

The problem of antonym is very closed to the problem of synonymy. Antonyms are words of the same language rendering contrary or contradictory meanings. If we take the words clever-stupid we see that they are completely opposed to each other, but if we take clever-unclever, we have a simple negation. Antonymy has the same features as synonymy. Antonyms are usually identically used in parallel constructions in certain typical configuration (typical contexts) as may be seen from the following examples:

1) If you've obeyed all the rules good and bad, and you still come out at the dirty end... then I say the rules are no good. M. Wilson) The formula is [A and (or) B =all]

2)He was alive, not dead. (Shaw) The formula is: [not A but (no the contrary)B)]

3)You will see if you were right or wrong. Cronin) The formula is [A or B]

4) The whole was big, oneself was little. (Galsworthy) The formula is: [X is A, and Y, on the contrary B]

The second form of antonyms is known as derivational antonyms. The affixes in them serve to deny the quality stated ni the stem. The opposition known:: unknown in the opening example from Shakespeare is by no means isolated: far from it. It is not difficult to find other examples where contrast is implied in the morphological structure of the word itself. E.g. appear::disappear, happyness: unhappiness, loggical:rillogical, pleasant::unpleasent, prewar::postwar, useful::useless, etc.

There are typical affixes and typical patterns that go into play informing these derivational antonyms. It is significant that in the examples given above preffixes prevail. The regular type of derivational antonyms contains negative prefixes: dis-, il-/im-/im-/ir- and un-. Other negative prefixes occur in this function only occasionally. As to the suffixes, it should be noted that modern English gives no examples of words forming their antonyms by adding a negative suffix, such as for instance, -less. The opposition hopeless::hopeful or useless::useful is more complicated as the suffix -less is not merely added to the contrasting stem, but substituted for the suffix-ful. Key words:

1) coexist-vi. To exist together at the same time, to leave in peas with which other; 2) colloquial-adj. Relating to conversation, used in or characteristic of familiar and informal conversation; 3) denotation-noun . an act or process of denoting, a direct specific meaning as distinct from an implied or associated idea, a denoting term;

4) connotation-noun. The suggesting of a meaning by a word a part from the thing explicitly names or describes, something suggested by a word or a thing.

5) criterion-n. A standard on which a judgement or decision may be based, a characterising mark or triad.

6)contrary-n. A fact or condition incompatible with another, one of a pair of opposites.

7) rigorous-adj. Manifesting, exercising, or favouring r i ʌɡr/

8) copulative-adj. Joining together coordinate words or word groups and expressing addition of there meaning.

Key words:

1. homonym noun a word that sounds the same or is spelled the same as another word but has a different meaning: 'No' and 'know' are homonyms. 'Bow' (= bend at the waist) and 'bow' (= weapon) are also homonyms.

2. antonymous (antonym -noun) adjective SPECIALIZED 'Long' and 'short' are antonymous (words). a word which means the opposite of another word: Two antonyms of 'light' are 'dark' and 'heavy'. Compare synonym.

3. synonym noun a word or phrase which has the same or nearly the same meaning as another word or phrase in the same language: The words 'small' and 'little' are synonyms. Compare antonym.

Lecture 3
Word formation

1) The subject matter of word formation;
2) Affixation;
 3) Suffixation;
4) Diachronic and synchronic study of word formation;

Word formation is the branch of lexicology that studies the patterns on which a language builds new words. It is clear that word formation deals only with words which are analyzable both structurally and semantically. The study of the simple words has no place in it. Word formation is a process of creating new words from the material of a given language after certain structural and semantic patterns. Word formation may be studied synchronically and diachronically. While analyzing word-formation synchronically we determine the type of word-formation and the structure of morphemes. So first of all its necessary to analyse what is a morpheme.

A morpheme is used in speech only as a part of the words. The morphemes can not be divided as the minimum meaningful language unit. There are two types of morphemes; free and bound. It is free if it exists in the language as a separate word. It is bound if it doesn't exist separately; E.g. read-able; express-ive; eleg-ant.

All the morphemes is subdivided into roots and affixes. Affixes are subdivided into prefixes and suffixes. When an affix is taken away from the word the stem remains. It expresses the lexical meaning and the meaning of a part of speech. The stem may be the same as a root. Such stems are called simple stems. The stem may be derived if it contains one or more affixes, e.g. expressive-ness, dust-dust-y, dust-ier,... dustiest. A suffix is a derevational morpheme which stands after the stem and forms a new part of speech: just-just-ice- just-ify-just -ification. A prefix is a derivational morpheme standing before the root and modifying meaning, e,g, possible-im-possible, arrange-re-arrange, order-dis-order. Sometimes a prefix may serve to distinguish one part of speech from another, e.g. sleep-a-sleep, wake-a-wake. Lexicology is primary concerned with derivational affixes. There are functional affixes as well but they serve to render only the grammatical meaning. They build different, forms of one and the same word, e.g. decide-decid-ed (Past Indefinite). The system of endings is called a paradigm, e.g. boy-boy's-boy-s, small-smaller-smallest.

Derivational affixes serve to supply the stem- with components of lexical and lexical-grammatical meaning and thus, form different words. One and the same lexical -grammatical meaning of the affix is sometimes accompanied by different combination of various lexical meaning. Thus, the lexical-grammatical meaning supplied by the suffix-y consists in the ability to express the qualitative idea peculiar to adjective and create adjectives from noun stems, e.g. cloudy, dirty, bushy. Derivational affixes do not combine so freely and regularly, e.g. the suffix -en cannot be added to any metal but "gold" and "lead".

3.2   Affixation

Affixation is defined as the formation of new words by adding affixes to stems. Every word formed by means of affixation has only one root morpheme which is its semantic center and it has one or

more derivational aj-fixes. The stems may be simple , e.g. girl-ish, it may be derived, e.g. girl/ish-ness and it may be compound which consists of two stems   e.g.

Characteristics of noun and adjective formation. Prefixation is typical way of verb formation. Prefixes modify the lexical meaning of stems to which they are added, e.g. usual-un/usual. In a suffixation(suffixal derivative) the suffix does not only modify the lexical meaning of the stem, but the word itself is used in a different part of speech, e.g. work (verb) work/er (noun), care(noun) -care/less (adjective); suit (noun)-suitable (adjective).

Pxefixation is the formation of words with the help of prefixes. There are about fifty one prefixes in Modern English. Some linguists distinguish between two types of prefixes: those not correlated with prepositions and/or adverbs, e.g. out-,over-,up-. Prefixes of the second type are used in speech both as independent words as affixes, e.g. over one head, over/head. It is accepted that prefixes modify the lexical meaning of the stem, but they seldom effect its basic lexical-grammatical component, that is why the words with prefixes belong to the same part of speech as the words without prefixes. Prefixes may be classified on different principles. Diachronically distinction is made between prefixes of native and foreign origin. Synchronically prefixes are classified according to the meaning which they render. There are following groups of prefixes:

l) prefixes of negative meaning, e.g.un-(unpleasent) , dis- (dis/order), in—in/correct) ; prefix in has several variants: im-, ir--, il-;

1)   prefixes denoting reversal on repetition of action, e.g. un- (un-botton) , dis (disregard), re-(re-write);

2) prefixes denoting time and space relations, e,g, pre-(pre/historic) over (over/come), super-(super/market), post-(post/war).

Suffixation is the formation of words with the help of suffixes. Suffixes usually modify the lexical meaning of stems and change the part of speech of the word. Depending on the purpose various classifications of suffixes have been used. Within the part of speech classification suffixes fall into several groups:

l) noun forming suffixes; e.g. -er(or), -dom, -age, -ince/-ence,-ee, -hood, -ation,

-ism, -ness, -ship;

2) adjective forming suffixes, e.g. able, -al, ic/ical, -ful, -ish, -ive, -less, -ly, -ous, -some, -ant/-ent;

3) verb forming suffixes, e.g. -ern, -fy, -ize,-ate;

4) adverb forming suffixes e.g.-wise, -ly, -ward. Suffixes may be classified into various groups according to their lexical grammatical character of the stem to which the suffix is added. From this point of view suffixes may be divided into:

1) those added to verbal stems, e.g. -er; -ing; ment; -able;

2) those added to noun stems, e.g. -less; -ish; full; -ist, -some;

3) those added to adjective stems, e.g.-en, -ly, ish, -ness. In the system of suffixal formation we can classify the following groups of suffixes:

a) suffixes forming profession and persons, e.g. en; -ist; -ee;   -ess;- eer; -ster; -ese;

b) suffixes of feminine gender, e.g. -ine, -ete, - ess;

c) suffixes which form abstract nouns, e.g. -ism, -ing, -ness, -hood, -ship, -ment, -ssion, -age;

d) suffixes having diminutive meaning, -ling, -y, -lette, -ie, -kin(lamb/kin), -et (-eagl/et);

e) suffixes which have negative meaning, e.g. -eer, -ster, -ard. It is interesting to know the polysemantic character of some affixes, e.g. suffix-y has 3 meanings;

1) composed of full of (stony) .

2) characterized by (rainy,cloudy)

3) having the character of resembling what the stem denotes (inky,bushy etc.)

Thus, affixes have different characteristic features. The Comparative analyses of the English language with other language with other languages showed that English is not so rich in suffixes as, for example, the Uzbek language. The total number of suffixes is 67 in English but the Uzbek suffixes are 171 and, vice versa, prefixation is more typical of the English language than Uzbek. In Uzbek there are following prefixes: бе-,но-,6а-,бо-,ним-.

By origin the Uzbek affixes like English ones are divided into native and borrowed. The suffixes :-чи,-гар,-зор,-ли,-лик, are native suffixes butr-изм,-ация,бо-,но-,намо-,-ки are of borrowed origin.The

suffixes may be divided into different semantic groups.These semantic groups of affixes may be different in different languages. E.g., diminutive affixes in Uzbek are more than in English (see the table).

3.5 Productivity of affixes

The word forming activity of the affixes may change in the course of time. Some affixes remain living, others are dead. Dead affixes are no longer used in Modern English for the formation of words, and they are not analyzed as morphemes, e.g. flight, hatred, bundle. Only living affixes may be easily singled out from a word, e.g. child/ hood, friend-ship. Not all affixes are able to form new words. They are different from the point of view of their productivity. There are two groups of word forming affixes: productive and non-productive. Productive affixes should not be mixed with the frequency of occurrence in speech. Frequency is characterized by the fact that a great number of words containing a given affix are often used in speech in particular in various texts. Productivity is characterized by the ability of an affix to make a new word. Some linguists disagree as to what is meant by productivity. They characterize productive affixes as those which participate in the formation of new words which everybody understands easily. Non-productive affixes are not used any more for the formation of new words, e.g. th(fifteen/th), fore (fore/head, fore/finger), ous (courag/ous, fam/ous).

Three degrees of productivity are distinguished for affixes:

l) highly productive affixes, e.g. -er, -ist, -ish; 2)semiproductive affixes, e.g.-eer, -ese, -ette, -ward;

3) non-productive affixes, e.g. -ard, -cy, -ive, en. Productivity of affixes is relative in many respects. Some conditions favour the degree of productivity and some affixes which were productive in certain period of the history of the language loose productivity, e.g. in old English there were seven verb forming suffixes, but all of them except one (-en) disappeared. An affix may loose its productivity and then begin a new life because more than two hundred words appeared in English formed with the help- of this suffix (e.g. slave/dom, bore/dom). A similar thing happened to the suffix -ship. Key words:

1) correlated- either of two things so related that one directly implies or is complementary to the other.

2) dimunitative- indicating small size and sometimes the state or quality of being familiarly, lovable, pitiable, or contemptible- used of affixes -as-ette, -kin, -ling) and of words formed with them. 3. distribution noun

We must find a way of achieving a more equitable distribution (= sharing) of resources/wealth. Has the Channel Tunnel improved the distribution (= supplying for sale) of goods between the British Isles and mainland Europe? an unfair distribution of wealth distribution costs 4. supply noun

1. an amount of something that is available for use: Whenever she goes out with her baby, she always takes a large supply of baby food with her. In London, demand for cheap housing far outstrips supply (= what is provided).

2. the gas/electricity, etc. supply the system used for supplying gas/electricity, etc. to people: Someone has turned off the electricity supply.

3.in short supply when there is little of something available: Strawberries are in short supply at the moment.

Lecture 4
PRINCIPLE WAYS OF WORD FORMATION

1. Word composition;
2. Shortening;
3. Word groups;
4. Conversion.

Ways of Word formation

4.1 Word Composition

Word compounding is one of the productive types of word formation in Modern English. Compound words are words consisting of two stems. They usually function in a sentence as a separate lexical unit. The semantic integrity of compounding proofs that you can't put any words between its components. Compound words may consist of a simple and derived stems e.g. loud-speak/er of the structure is not difficult of English compounds, and it is more frequent for both components to be either

simple or derived. Compound words are structurally and semantically based on the relationship between their components. A compound word may possess a single semantic structure. The meaning of the compound is first of all derived from the combined lexical meanings of the second component, which is restricted, by the lexical meaning of the first. We can say that the combination of the stems helps us to understand the meaning of the whole. The lexical meanings of the components don't make the meaning of the whole. The meaning of the compound is derived not only from the combined lexical meanings of its components but also from the meaning of the patter and order an arrangement of the stems, e.g. fruit-market, market-fruit. Thus, the structural pattern in compound words carries a certain meaning which is independent of the lexical meaning of the components. Compound are motivated through individual lexical meanings of the components and the meaning of the structure. There are three degrees of motivation:

1) completely motivated words, i.e. you can easily understand the meaning of the whole, e.g. door-handle, loud-speaker, bed-room;

2) partially motivated words in which one component is not used in its direct meaning (e.g. flowerbed) ;

3) non-motivated words, i.e/ we cannot guess the meaning of the whole from the meaning of its components. This problem is very closed to the problem of phraseological units, e.g. night cap- a drink taken before going to bed; dog days- the hottest days of July and August.

According to the structural meaning or the type of semantic relations between the components compound words may be classified into various groups as words based on the relations:

1) agent and action, e.g. earth- quake;

2) object and action(e.g. hand-shake);

3) the part and the whole, s e.g. shirt-collar;

4) the place and the action, e.g. garden -party;

5) the time and the action, e.g. night-school, etc.

Semantically the relations between the components of a compound discover the semantic relations between the words in free word-groups, e.g. bottle-opener, book-writer. According to the type of correlation all productive types of compound words may classified into four classes;

I)   adj.-nominal compounds:

1)noun + adjective , e.g. snow-white; 2)noun +verb +e d e.g. duty-bound; 3)numeral + noun, e.g. five year plan; 4)adjective + noun +ed, e.g. blue-eyed, cross-legged; verbal-nominal compounds belongs to compound nouns, there is one general model: noun + noun, e.g. baby-sitter, office-management; verb +verb compounds, e.g. break-down; nominal compounds, e.g. pencil-case, horserace. Graphically compound words have different spelling. Some of them are written together, e.g. homeland, sunshine, afternoon. Some have a connecting vowel or a consonant, e.g. Anglo-American, tradesman. There are some compound nouns which have f preposition or conjunction in the middle, e.g. man-of-war, hook-and-ledder, bred-and-butter.

4.2 Shortening

Shortening (abbreviation) Shortening is represented as significant substitute in which part of the original word is taken away. Destination should be made between shortening of words in written and in oral speech This phenomena has been recovered in the 15th century and since it has grown more productive .This century the development of shortening is particularly intense in English e.g fridge>refrigiator,vac>vacuum-cleaner , mike >microphone .Shortening of spoken
Words request in the reduction of a word in one of its own. This part doesn't
change   phonetically,but   spelling   changes   to   some   content,   e.g   dul   >double   The shortest its meaning and can form a new word by means of affixation or word composition e.g fantasy< fancy-fancier, fanciful, fanciful ,fancifulness ,fancy ball, fancy dress .Two possible development of shortening should be noted

l) the shortened form may be regardedas a variant or a synchronic which differs from the vaginal word stylistically, emotionally and quantitatively e.g exam >examination,doc >doctor Japs-the Japanese 2)the connection between the fulland the short for can be established only etymologically   e.g:
fantasy<fanatic, fancy, miss>mistress. It both types the shortened words? in the language together .The difference is that in the first case words can be replaced by their full forms, in the second case or group

You cant do it . Shortening produces new words in the same part of the speech.Verbs are very seldom shortened in Modern English e.g phone, taxi, perm. Adjectives are also few e.g comely impose. Various classification of shortened words have been offered .Three groups are suggested, final initial and medial shortening .Final shortening in which the beginning of the words is retained is practically the well forms and forms a great number of words ,e.g. ad., advert, advertisment, gym. gymnastic, lab. Laboratory, veg >vegetables initially shortened ways retaining the final part of the word are less numerous but most of them exist s separate lexical units with a meaning very different from the meaning of the full form e.g/ history<story. Final and initial shortenings may be combined and result in words with the middle part retained e.g detective <det, Influenza <flue. The third group is a group of shortened words with the middle part left out. They are few and may be subdivided into two groups; 1) words with final shortened stem retaining the functional morphemes e.g math's>mathematics, specs>spectacles

2) constructions due to a gradual process of   the influence   of rhythms and context fancy >fantasy, ma,am>Madame. Shortened words from compounds are very few e.g sub chaser>submarine chaser, teen-ager > thirteen ,nineteen,. Among shortening distinction should be made between lexical abbreviation. Lexical abbreviations are formed by means of shortening and compounding. They are made up of the initial sounds or syllables of the components of the words e. g. BBC, NATO. Clipping consists in the cutting off the one or several syllables.

4.3 Word groups

A word group consists of two-word .The degree of structural and semantic integrity of word groups may be different. The components of word groups are functionally and semantically inseparable suit word groups are called phrase logical units .The component -members in other word groups have structural and semantic interdependence and lexical and grammatical valiancy The ability of a word to appear in a various combinations is described as its lexical valiancy. There is a certain norm of lexical valiancy of each word e.g. the adjective "heavy "is combined with such words .as food meals, supper dinner etc. but all the words entering this group cannot be combined with the adjective "heavy" (e.g.) cheese sausage) There is grammatical valiancy as well. The ability of a word to appear in specific grammatical structures is called grammatical valiancy. Grammatical valiancy may be different it is usually limited by the part of speech to which the word belongs e.g. the English adjective can never be following by a finite form of a word: two adjectives "clever" and "intelligent " which have the meaning "умный" posses different grammatical valiancy "clever "can be used in prepositional pattern (clever at literature) , but intelligent can never be found in the same word group pattern .Thus the lexical and the grammatical valiancy of word groups are the primary linguistic factors in uniting words into word groups .Word groups may be classified into following groups:

nominal groups ,e.g. good luck,

adjectival groups e.g. good to people

verbal groups e.g. to do well.

The meaning of word groups usually consists of the meanings of the component words. As a rule the meanings of the component words are dependent and one word defines the meaning of the other. Such word groups as school doctors and doctors school are semaritically different because of difference in the order of arrangements It follows that we have to distinguish between the structural meaning of a ? type of a word group and the lexical meaning of its components The lexical and structural components of meaning in word groups are interdependent and inseparable .Word groups , like words may be analyzed from the point of view of their motivation They may be described as lexically motivated if we can understand the meaning of the whole from the meanings of its components e.g. blue sky They may be described as partially motivated when one component is used in its direct meaning, the other is used figuratively e.g. to take examinations. Some word groups are non motivated, so we cant understand the meaning from the meaning from the components at all e.g. fiddle-sticks. It is of interest to note that completely motivated word groups are correlated with structural types of compound words e.g. to read book-book reader, to love music -music lover. Some identical word groups are found to be motivated or non -motivated depending in their semantic interpretation, e.g. apple sauce» is lexically and structurally

motivated when it means "a sauce made of apples' ' when it denotes "nonsense " it is non motivated. on motivated units are usually described its phraseological units are Idioms.

4.4 Conversion

Conversion is one of the principle ways of forming words in Modern English. It is highly productive type. The term "conversion" refers to numerous cases of phonetic identify of verbs and nouns, e.g. love noun-[to] love verb, paper noun- [to] paper verb, work noun-[to] work verb; the word paper exists in Modern English as a noun and a verb, but has no any additional endings or affixes. The difference between the two words is morphological, syntactic and semantic. The two words are grammatically different and they have different functions in the sentence. Conversion exists in many languages. It is very freguent in English and English is very rich in such words. The study of conversation in Present -day English is of great theoretical importance because in this type of word formation the interdependence of vocabulary and grammar is very clearly dislayed. The main reason for the widespread development for conversion in Present-day English is the paradigm, which is the only word building, means of conversions i.e. the absence of morphological elements making the part of speech to which the word belongs. Paradigm is a morphological category. So conver s10 n can be described as a morphological way of word formation. There are two types of conversion:
1)formation of verbs from nouns;
2)formation of nouns from verbs.

There is one more type, e.g. stone is formed from the noun "stone" only functions as an adjective. The English linguist Henry Sweet, was the first -who used the term conversion as a morphological way of word formation was suggested by professor Perlinskiy. The linguists in USA regarded conversion in Modern English as a kind of functional change. They define conversion as a shift from one part of speech at the same time. If we accept this point of view, we should arrive at the conclusion that in Modern English '"here are no parts of speech because one and the same word cannot belong to different parts of speech. Conversion may be studied diachronically. The cases that made conversion so widely spread are diachronic. Nouns and verbs have become identical in form firstly as a result of the loss of endings, e.g. drink(en) . drink noun-drunken, drink verb.

Synchronically we deal with pairs of words related through conversion that coexist in Modern English. Conversion pairs are distinguished by structural identify of the root and the stem reveals that in one of the two words in conversion pair is semantically derived from the other, so it is great importance determine the semantic relations are distinguished:
1) verbs converted from nouns, this is the largest group of words related through conversion. If the noun refers to some object of reality the verb may denote:
a) action characteristics of the object e.g. butcher noun and verb
b) instrumental use of the object e.g. whip
c) acquisition or addition of the object e.g.. fish noun and verb
d) deprivation of the object e.g. dust noun and verb e.g. skin noun and verb
2) nouns converted from verbs. If the verb refers to an action the converted noun may denote: instant of the action e.g. jump noun and verb; e.g. move noun and verb; agent of the action: e.g. help noun and verb;
c)   place of the action e.g. drive noun and verb; d)object or result of the action e.g. find noun and verb. It is necessary to know the polysemantic character of some words, which can be member of a conversion pair, a verb or a noun, which belongs to several of the mentioned groups. As a matter of fact words formed by con version rarely adopt themselves to various semantic development and on the other hand there are many cases of repeated formation from the same polysemantic word e.g. the word bank was used as a basis for conversion several times; to bank means to preserve money. The investigations proved that the complicity of word-structure does not favour conversion. In modern English there are no verbs converted from nouns with suffixes -ing or -ation. Suffix -age also does not form conversion.
Conversion is typical of verb formation e.g. motor, star, and park some compound nouns also form conversion e.g. weekend verb honeymoon verb. Adjectives also form verbs e.g. cool verbs; thin verb; yellow verb. Thus it seems possible to regard conversion as a highly productive way of word formation in modern English. The English word «stock: contains many words formed by means of conversion in

different periods of its history. There are cases of traditional and occasional conversion. Traditional conversion refers to the words, which are registered in the dictionary. Occasional conversion is also very frequent, but they are not recodict in the dictionary and exist for a short period of time, sometimes they are typical of some writers.

Key words:
occurrence- something that occurs the action or instance of occurring. (the repeated- of petty theft in the locker room)
shortening - abbreviation noun
'ITV is the abbreviation for 'Independent Television'. conversion noun
1) when someone or something is converted: Her conversion to Buddhism/Islam was a very gradual process. He used to be very right-wing, but he's undergone something of a conversion recently. Solar power is the conversion of the sun's energy into heat and electricity.
2) a place for living in that has been changed from its previous use: a barn/factory conversion xistence noun
1) when something or someone exists: Many people question the existence of God.
Modern cosmology believes the Universe to have come into existence about fifteen billion years ago. The theatre company that they started is still in existence today.
2) a particular way of life:
She has a miserable existence living with him.

Lecture 5
Phraseology

1) The term of phraseology
2) Phraseological units
3) Classification of phraseological units

The term phraseology or idioms is accepted in our linguistics. There are different points of view as to know this part of vocabulary should be defined, classified and analysed. Phraseology deals with word groups of two or more words which combination is integrated as a unit with a specialised meaning of the whole. The word "Phraseology" has different "meanings abroad and in our linguistics .We use this term for the whole group of expressions in which the meaning of one element is dependent on the other irrespective of the structure and properties of the units .There are famous linguists who made phraseology as a branch of linguistics and full fledged linguistic discipline. The best known names are professors Amosova and Kunin. They made the special phraseological school, which is known all over the world. Many various approaches have been used to classify and analyse phraseological units. English and American most essential is theoretical problems remain unsolved, except some notes on general linguistics. American and English dictionaries contain proverbs, sayings, various lexical units of all kinds, but as a rule they have no reliable criteria to distinguish between free words groups and phraseological units . Phraseological units are numerous .The degree of motivation may be different ,according to the type of motivation three types of phraseological units are suggested :1)phraseological fusions: 2) phraseological units,3) phraseological combinations .Phraseological fusions represent the highest stage of integrity .The meaning of the components is completely absolved by the meaning of the whole by its expressiveness and emotional properties e. g .to kick the bucket = to die ,bakers dozen (чертова дюжина),spick and span (с иголочки),fishy story (выдумка).Phraseological units are numerous They are very motivated .Metaphor plays a significant role in such units ,e. g. to show ones teeth =to smile, to know the way the wind blows (знать откуда ветер дует), to skate on thin ice =to be in danger .Phraseological combinations are not only motivated , but contain one component used in the direct meaning while the other is used metaphorically, e .g to make money, to take exams.
This classification was made by academic Vinogradov on the basis of the Russian phraseology, but it doesn't fit English Phraseology. So professor Kunin suggested his own theory of phraseological units.

Phraseological units are defined as non motivated word groups this definition proves, that the essential feature of phraseological units is stability. You can never change any of the components of phraseological units. Grammatical structure is also stable .Most of phraseological units are very

emotional .Every language possesses phraseological units and then can be classified according to the part of the speech to which they, belong:1)substantial phraseological units e. g. a skeleton in the cupboard (тайна скрываемая от других)a pretty heel of fish неприятное положение) 2) verbal phraseological units e. g .to learn by heart выучить наизусть), to take the bull by the horns (брать быка за рога), to have smth at ones finger tips (знать как свои пять пальцев) 3) adjectival phraseologicalunits e.g.as cool as cucumber (хладнокровный) as good as gold (золотой) 4) adverbial phraseological unit e.g from head to heel (с головы до пяток)once in a blue moon (очень редко)by hook or by crook (любым путем)5) interjectional phrasiological units my eye and Betty Martin (вот это да) .

Phraseological units appeared from free combinations of words some of them contain words which are not used in the language any more. The image in many cases is preserved and the speaker feels it. Some phraseological units have different origin and they are used at first in special spheres of life and then are used by every body: Engineering ,e.g to blow of steam (дать выход своим чувствам), to step on the gas (увеличить скорость=поднажать) agriculture ,e.g to put the plough before the oxen(начинать не стого конца)

3) sea phraseological units e.g to be at sea (быть в недоумение) , to run into difficult waters (быть в затруднении)

4) trade e.g to talk shop (говорить о профессиональных делах),best seller (хорошо продаваемая книга) 5) sport and hunting e.g . that cock wont fight (этот номер не пройдет) , to back the wrong horse (сделать неправильный выбор)

Some expressions appeared from works of famous writers e.g. so said so done (сказано сделано), what's in a name (W. Shakespear «Romeo and Juliet»

Key words:
1) Phraseological-expressed in formal often-sententious phrases.
Integrate - to form co-ordinate or blend into a functioning or unified whole.
motivation noun
1. enthusiasm for doing something: He's a bright enough student - he just lacks motivation. There seems to be a lack of motivation among the staff.
2. the need or reason for doing something: What was the motivation for the attack? The motivation behind the decision is the desire to improve our service to our customers. fusion (noun) when two or more things join or are combined: nuclear fusion

Their music is described as 'an explosive fusion of Latin American and modern jazz rhythms', metaphor (noun) an expression which describes a person or object in a literary way by referring to something that is considered to possess similar characteristics to the person or object you are trying to describe: 'The mind is an ocean' and 'the city is a jungle' are both metaphors. Metaphor and simile are the most commonly* used figures of speech in everyday language.

Lecture 6
ETYMOLOGICAL VIEW OF ENGLISH
l) The typical feature of the English Language.
2) Native elements of the word stock of the language.
3) Borrowed elements of the word stock of the language.
6.1 The typical feature of the English Language
The vocabulary of every language is systematic because it is considered as a structural set of independent and interrelated words .The typical feature of the English language is its mixed character .Foreign influence especially of French , is the most important factor in the history of English .But this fact is supported only by the evidence of lexical units .Grammar and phonetic system of English are very stable and not easily influenced by other languages .
The word stock of the language may be subdivided into two main groups.
1) Native elements and2) borrowed elements. The term native is used to denote words of Anglo-Saxon origin brought to the British Isles in V- th century AD by the Germanic tribes the Angles, the Saxons ,the Jews. Practically the term "native "is often applied to words whose origin cannot be traced to any other language. The term borrowing is used to denote award taken over from the other language and modified

according to the standards of the English Language .Borrowings mean the process of adopting words from languages and also the result of the process .Distinction should be made between true borrowings and words made up of morphemes borrowed from Latin and Greek. The term "borrowings "belongs to the diachronic description of the word stock.

One should not mix the terms" source of borrowings" and origin of borrowing. It may be seen in contradictory marking of one and the same word in dictionaries. It is suggested that the term "source of borrowings "should be applied to the language from, which this particular word was taken into English .So when describing words as Latin, French or Scandinavian we must there source but not there origin. The term origin of the word should be applied to the language the word may be traced to e. g "table "is Latin by origin but French by source: school is Greek by origin but it came into English through Latin. Some word not traced to any language and there origin is not established yet, e . g "ink" The source of borrowing is if great importance as it reveals the extralinguistic factors responsible for the act of borrowing, because all borrowed words possess all the characters of the language from which they were borrowed.

6.2 Native Vocabulary

Words of native origin are subdivided diachronically into words of the Indo European stock and words of the common Germanic stock .The older layer of words are words of Indo -European origin. A great number of the Old English word stock has been preserved also some words disappeared .Native vocabulary makes only 25-30 percent of the whole English vocabulary:70-75% are borrowed .

Almost all the words of Anglo Saxon origin belong to very important semantic groups among we find auxiliary and modal verbs pronouns except those containing "th" prepositions, numerals , (except million, milliard,)conjunctions .National words of Anglo Saxon origin include such groups as 1) words denoting parts of the body, 2) terms of kinship 3)natural phenomena and planets, 4) animals 5) quantities and properties 6) common actions. Most of the native words have undergone transformations in semantic structure and they are highly polysemantic now e.g. finger. New words have been formed from Anglo-Saxon roots mainly by means of affixation ,word composition and conversion .Such affixes of native origin as -er, -ness, ish, -ed : un-; mis- have been widely used to build numerous new words throughout the history of English , Though some of them have changed their meaning e.g. -er in Old English was added to noun stems, now it is added only to verb stems Thus the words of native origin have been playing a significant role in the English language.

Lecture 7
BORROWINGS

1) The role of borrowings
2) French loans
3) German loans

7.1 The role of borrowings in the formation and development of the English vocabulary is analyzed in the history of the language. Lexicology is mainly concerned with the material and the result of assimilation .The English language happen to come in long and closed contact with other languages mainly Latin ,French , old North languages .Due to the great influence of the Roman civilization Latin was* for a long time used in England as the Language of learning and religion .Old North and French were the languages of the conquers who bought with them a lot of new nations .French was the language of upper classes , of official documents and learning from the XI- th to the XlV-th century. In the study of the borrowed elements in English the main attention is attracted to the middle English period .If we go through the list of borrowings in English and arrange them in groups according to their meaning ,we shall get information about English contact with many nations , but some borrowings cannot be explained e. g such words as air ,brave ,place , are French .The number and character of borrowings do not only depend on the historical conditions , but also on the degree of generic and structural proximity of the languages The closer are the languages the deeper are the influence. Thus under the influence of the Scandinavian languages which were closely related to old English some classes of words were borrowed that could not have been adopted from non related or distantly related languages. A number of

Scandinavian borrowings were taken, they are very closed to native ords e.g. Eng. Drop =Sc. drip, Eng. true- Sc. trust Borrowings enter the language in two ways 1) orally, i.e. by immediate contact between the peoples 2)through written speech.

7.2 French loans

There are thousands of words that have a French origin, and many of them came into the English language before the Norman Conquest of England. The more recent influences on American English have sprung from south western Louisiana. Displaced French settlers, called Acadians, settled down to live on this area in 1755 after being expelled by the British. The deportation of the Acadians resulted from their unwillingness to pledge allegiance to Britain. Of all the languages with which the English were to come into contact, only French had generally-acknowledged prestige value. In the old country it had once been the language of the upper class and there already were words borrowed from French to English. Louisiana language consists of two French dialects, Cajun and Creole. Both dialects got a large amount of their words from the local Indian languages. Cajun, named after the Acadians, retains French forms and a number of French words. Here are a couple of examples of the French words used: mais

grand (tall)

demoiselle m'sieu (mister) comment? (how?)

pirogue (boat)

cherie   bien

banguette (sidewalk)

armoire (wardrobe with drawers)

However, the Cajun dialect also includes words from English, Spanish, German, Indian and Black English expressions. Among the French-derived words there ra.re also borrowings from Canadian French. In his book, Hendrickson gives a list of Canadian French words that have entered American English. The following are some examples of these:

Portage

Prairie

rapids

sashay

chowder

The name Creole has its origins in French, where it stands for "a native". It is spoken in the state of Louisiana, "the Creole State". Black English and Amerindian languages have influenced Creole a lot less than they have influenced Cajun. The Creoles, who are descendants of the French population that first settled New Orleans, only established a contact with black slaves at the end of the 18th century, but since then Creole has been spoken by blacks as well.

French loans contrast sharply with the Dutch and later German contributions. Although they also gave English ordinary household words such as chowder, pumpkin, sashay, shanty, and shivaree, the enterprising French illustrate their experience in a distinctive set of loans. Explorers, missionaries, and frontier warriors made American words of bateau, crevasse, levee, portage, prairie, and voyageur. As the English, Dutch, and Swedes struggled to control the seaboard, the French ranged across the interior and left their mark with the names of places at Bienville, Cape Girardeau, Prairie du Chien, and Sault Sainte Marie. Like Indian loans many French borrowings have disappeared from the spoken English language or are known only along the Canadian border or in Cajun territory.

The French borrowings can be roughly divided into two categories, words pertaining to exploration and travel, or descriptive of features of the landscape. The three monetary terms cent, dime and mill should also be mentioned, although they were borrowed from the continental rather than colonial French. When borrowed the French words were not as violently distorted in form and pronunciation than the Amerindian loans, but the spelling may have been considerably altered at times.

7.3 German loans

The influence of the German language was the first influence to come from an immigrant people, rather than a conquered colonial rival. Sizable group of immigrants from Germany began to arrive in the English colonies of North America in the late 17th century. There are a lot of words in American English that have some aspects of German influence and less words that are clearly of German origin. Such words

as these are still widely used in American English delicatessen, hamburger, lager beer, thick milk, Kris Kringle, semester, 'ouch' and Christmas tree. Words borrowed from German consist largely of words to do with food, and drink, that gives us quite a clear idea of the type of cultural contact between the German immigrants and their English-speaking hosts.

Traces of German are clearly noticeable in the pronunciation and vocabulary of, say, people living in Grundy County, Illinois, because the early population in the area consisted mainly of German immigrants. Germans also densely settled Pennsylvania, Wisconsin and a large part of the Midwest. That is why the variation of American English spoken in Wisconsin contains words that are peculiar to just that region; a bag, for instance, could be called 'a toot' (Shuy, p.53) .

German borrowings into American English have only been extensive since the 1850's. "It may seem strange, perhaps, that a Germanic language should later be influenced by German — but such is the fate of a borrowing tongue" (Shuy, p.53). There are many terms of German origin in the everyday language of Americans. In addition to the most evident cases, like:
hausfrau
schnapps
hoodlum noodle
wunderkind
gesundheit spiel
sauerbrauten
zweiback
schnitzel
delicatessen
There are words and phrases that are virtually impossible to recognize as being derived from German (at least impossible for an average student):
cookbook
slim chance
ecology
rifle
bake oven
standpoint
seminar
hold on
check(restaurant tab).

Early German loans on the frontier are difficult to ascertain. Like the Scandinavians and Anglo-Saxons in England, the Germans and English spoke languages with a common word stock that still endures in the basic vocabularies of both cultures. For the same reason it is impossible to determine with certainty whether schlemiel is of Yiddish or German origin and whether spook is of Dutch or German origin. Only when the Germans established discrete territories, as the Dutch had in New York, did the loans begin to appear in significant numbers from Pennsylvania, Cincinnati, Chicago, Milwaukee, St. Louis, and east-central Texas. From early Pennsylvania, American English probably received smearcase (cottage cheese), panhas (scrapple, from German dialectal pann, pan + has, hare), rainworm (earthworm), and possibly George Washington's most familiar title, The Father of His Country, which first appeared as Der Landes Vater on a Nord Amerikanische Kalender for 1779.

Key words:
1)evidence- something that furnishes proof. 2) borrow verb
1) to get or receive something from someone with the intention of giving it back after a period of time:
Could I borrow your bike from (NOT STANDARD off) you until next week?
She used to borrow money and not bother to pay it back. He borrowed a novel from the library.
2)   to take money from a bank or financial organization and pay it back over a period of time:
Like so many companies at that time, we had to borrow heavily to survive.
3)   to take and use a word or idea from another language or piece of work:
English has borrowed many words from French. 4)concern verb

1) FORMAL If a story, film or article concerns a particular subject, person, etc., it is about that person or subject:

The film concerns a woman who goes to China as a missionary.

Lecture 8
LEXICOGRAPHY

l) The object of lexicography.
2) Types of dictionaries.

Lexicography is the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries It is close by connected with lexicology as it has a common object of study It is vocabulary of a language. Lexicology is a systematic description of characteristic features of the word, but it cannot give the complete idea of the units themselves, because the number of this units is great, lexicography gives the semantic functional and formal description of all individual words, but both these brunches cant develop successfully without each other. This lexicography deals with dictionaries.

The term dictionary is used to denote a back listing words of a language with their meanings, pronunciation, usage and origin. Different dictionaries register different number of words. The most comprehensive dictionary contains from 500000 to 600000 words. The best-known dictionary is Oxford English Dictionary. It contains 13 volumes, but for the las years, some other volumes have been published.

There are three terms for the word «словарь» 1 dictionary is the most complete collection of the word of the language, it contains all kinds of informatio about the word2) vocabulary contains less words tha dictionary it gives the meanings of the words, but it contains only words in one brunch: at the end of our books the writers gives give vocabulary of this or that author 30glossarry is a list explanations of some special words and expressions which we come across in some books.

There are different types of dictionary the dictionary in which the words and their definition belong to the same language are called unilingual or explanatory. Bilingual or translation dictionaries are those that explain words by giving their equivalents in another language. Unilingual dictionaries are subdivided into dichromatic and synchronistic. Diachronistic dictionaries reflect the development of the English vocabulary by recording the history of form and meaning for every word registered synchronistic dictionaries are concerned with present day meaning and usage of word. Both bilingual and unilingual dictionaries can be general or special. General dictionary represents the vocabulary as a whole. Some dictionaries may have very specific aims and general dictionaries are contrasted to special dictionaries Finally dictionary may be subdivided into linguistic and non -linguistic, they give much information about history of words, their origin and some facts of life. British dictionaries are more linguistic they give much information about language data ,grammatical properties of words ,their stylistic features and so on.

English lexicography is probably the richest in the world with respect to variety of dictionaries published. This information which is given about the word is called entry The entries of a dictionary are usually arranged in alphabetical order ,but derivatives and compounds are given under the same word.

8.2 Types of dictionaries

Dictionary, alphabetical compilation of the words of a language, giving their meanings, spellings, etymology, pronunciation, and syllabication. In a more general sense, the term dictionary is also applied to any alphabetically arranged compendium of special aspects of a language such as abbreviations, slang, or etymology, or in which the special terms of a subject are defined. Thus, in recent times, dictionaries have been devoted to science, biography, geography, mathematics, history (see History and Historiography), and philosophy (see Philosophy, Western).

Encyclopedic dictionaries

Among dictionaries defined as encyclopedic (see Encyclopedia), because they not only define words but also explain things, is the great French 19th-

century dictionary-encyclopedia the Grand dictionnaire universel (17 volumes, 1865-1890), compiled by Pierre Athanase Larousse. The greatest such American work is the Century Dictionary and Encyclopedia (revised edition, 12 volumes,1911), edited by the American linguist William Dwight Whitney. It defines general terms as well as biographical and geographical names.

The earliest known dictionaries were found in the library of the Assyrian king Ashurbanipal at Nineveh. These clay tablets inscribed in columns of cuneiform writing date from the 7th century BC and remain the key to knowledge of Mesopotamian culture {see Mesopotamia). Later dictionaries, most written after the 5th century AD, include Sanskrit dictionaries of botany, medicine, and astronomy {see Sanskrit Language), and polyglot lexicons in Sanskrit, Tibetan, Mongolian, and Chinese. The first attempt to gather the entire Arabic vocabulary into one work was probably made by Khalil ibn Ahmad of Oman, who adopted an arrangement based on certain phonetic and philological principles. Originating from, and stimulated by, the study of Arabic, the compilation of Hebrew dictionaries began about the 10th century (although some scholars place the beginnings of Hebrew lexicography between the 6th and 8th centuries). The Greeks and Romans did not conceive of a work containing all the words of their own or any foreign language; their early dictionaries were merely glossaries of unusual words or phrases. The first Greek lexicon, a collection of terms used by Homer, was compiled by the philosopher Apollonius during the 1st century BC. One of the earliest works in Latin lexicography, by Verrius Flaccus, is De Verborum Significatu (The Meaning of Words, compiled during the 1st century AD) . This work, in which the words are arranged alphabetically, has furnished a great deal of information on antiquities and grammar. The earliest polyglot dictionary (1502) was the work of the Italian monk Ambrogio Calepino. Originally compiled^ as a Latin-Greek lexicon, it was extended to include Italian, French, and Spanish; the 1590 Basel edition included 11 languages.

Standard European Dictionaries

The 2-volume Dictionnaire de 1'Acadumie-Fran3aise (8th edition, 1931-1935) is an important dictionary of literary French. Works containing more recent vocabulary are the Dictionnaire de la langue fran3aise (7 volumes, 1956-1958), a reprint of the work of the scholar Maximilien Paul Plmile Littru; and the Grand Larousse de la langue fran3aise (7 volumes, 1971-1978). The standard modern Italian dictionary is the Grande dizionario della lingua italiana (1961-), and that of the Spanish language is Diccionario de la

lengua espacola (19th edition, 1970). The great standard wordbook for German is the Deutsches Wu,rterbuch (16 volumes, 1854-1960; revised edition begun 1965), commenced by the philologists Jacob and Wilhelm Grimm (see Grimm Brothers). Two Russian dictionaries are indispensable for that language: the 4-volume Slovar' russkogo iazyka (1957-1961) for current, more popular usage, and the 17-volume Slovar' sovremennogo russkogo literaturnogo iazyka (1950-1965) for the more literary language.

Beyond these scholarly works, compiled on historical principles, are the numerous bilingual dictionaries, which are of varying degrees of reliability. They are designed for the person learning a language and are thus generally limited to word equivalents, not derivations or pronunciation

English Dictionaries

The Promptorium Parvulorum Sive Clericorum (Storehouse for Children or Clerics) was compiled in 1440 by the Dominican monk Galfridus Grammaticus, also known as Geoffrey the Grammarian, in Norfolk, England. It was printed in 1449 by Wynkyn de Worde and may be regarded as the first English dictionary. It consisted of Latin equivalents of 10,000 English words and remained a leading wordbook for several generations. It was followed by the Bibliotheca (1538) of Sir Thomas Elyot, another English-Latin dictionary. Robert Cawdry, in A Table Alphabeticall . . . of Hard Usuall Wordes (1604), produced the first dictionary giving definitions in English of English words. The word dictionary was first used by Henry Cockeram in The English Dictionarie (1623) . In 1656 Thomas Blount issued his Glossographia, also entirely in English with "... hard words together with Divinity Terms, Law, Physick, Mathematicks and other Arts and Sciences explicated." These early works characteristically confined themselves to "hard words" and phrases not generally understood, because the daily vocabulary of the language was not expected to require elucidation.

The New English Dictionary (1702) by John Kersey was a departure from the hard-word tradition; it included ordinary English words as well as unfamiliar terms.

Another early attempt at a comprehensive inventory of the English language was the Universal Etymological English Dictionary (1721) by Nathan Bailey, reissued in 1730 as the Dictionarium Brittanicum: A More Compleat Universal Etymological Dictionary Than Any Extant. This work used quotations from established literary works to confirm and supplement definitions. The 2-volume lexicon A Dictionary of the English Language (1755), by the lexicographer, essayist, and literary critic Samuel Johnson, further extended the use of quotations. Johnson's dictionary remained the model of English lexicography for more than a century.

Dictionaries with guides to pronunciation were compiled by the British publisher David Buchanan. The actor Thomas Sheridan later compiled a General Dictionary of the English Language (1780) with the object of establishing a permanent standard of pronunciation. The most influential of the dictionaries concerned with pronunciation was the Critical Pronouncing Dictionary and Expositor of the English Language (1791) by another actor, John Walker.

The most comprehensive lexicographic work in th English language, A New English Dictionary o Historical Principles {NED), popularly known as Th Oxford English Dictionary {OED), was begun under th auspices of the English Philological Society in 1857. The Scottish lexicographer Sir James Augustus Henr Murray became editor in 1879; the first 10 volumes were published between 1884 and 1928, and the last 3 volumes were added in 1933. A 4-volume supplement was issued between 1972 and 1986. A 20-volume second edition was published in 1989. The Compact Edition of the Oxford English Dictionary, a 2-volume micrographically reduced version of the 13-volume set, was published in 1971. The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary, a 2-volume abridgement with some revisions in pronunciation, was issued in 1933. It was revised twice, and a reset edition was published in 1973. In 1981 The Oxford English Dictionary on CD-ROM was published (see CD-ROM) . The second edition of the CD-ROM version was issued in 1992. The Scottish lexicographer Sir William A. Craigie, who had collaborated on the editing of the first edition of the OED, began a companion work in 1936: A Dictionary of American English on Historical Principles was completed in 4 volumes in 1944.

American Dictionaries

The first historically important contribution to American lexicography was The American Spelling Book (1783) . This work was issued by the educator and lexicographer Noah Webster as the first part of his Grammatical Institute of the English Language (1783-1785) . Although not a true dictionary, The American Spelling Book, because of its American origin and emphasis and its simplification of English, became a household reference wordbook throughout the United States. Its success led Webster to compile his first American lexicon, A Compendious Dictionary of the English Language (1806). His major contribution to lexicography, An American Dictionary of the English Language, begun in 1807 and published in .1828, included typically American usage as distinguished from the British idiom, as well as 12, 000 more words and 40, 000 more definitions than had ever appeared in any dictionary of the English language.

This work was never popular, however. It was soon followed by the Comprehensive Pronouncing and Explanatory Dictionary of the English Language (1830) by the American lexicographer Joseph Emerson Worcester. Worcester's dictionary, technically superior to Webster's, paved the way for modern collegiate dictionaries. Webster brought out a revised edition of his dictionary in 1841. The first Merriam-Webster dictionary, edited by Chauncey A. Goodrich, was published in 1847; in 1864 another edition with revised etymologies by a German philologist, edited by Noah Porter, continued the line of publications. Webster's International Dictionary appeared in 1890; Webster's New International Dictionary appeared in 1909. The second edition of Webster's New International Dictionary, referred to as Webster's Second, was published in 1934. Meanwhile, Worcester published A Universal and Critical Dictionary of the English Language in 1846 and A Dictionary of the English Language in I860, which included illustrations and synonyms.

In 1894 another line of dictionaries began with A Standard Dictionary of the English Language, edited by Isaac Kauffman Funk. Funk introduced a new format for definitions, beginning with the current meaning for the word and ending with the older meanings in reverse historical order, followed by the etymology. Previously, dictionaries had traced the historical uses of a word in chronological order; etymology was placed at the beginning of the definition. Both formats are used in current dictionaries.

Listing the most accepted meaning first is recommended for children's dictionaries by teachers who feel that the child needs the reinforcement of recognition when attempting to master the use of a dictionary.

Funk & Wagnalls continued the Standard line with a revised edition called The New Standard Dictionary of the English Language in 1913 and the Funk & Wagnalls Standard Dictionary of the English Language (International Edition) in 1958. Funk & Wagnalls Standard Desk Dictionary and Funk & Wagnalls Standard Collegiate Dictionary are editions designed for household and school use.

With the publication of Webster's Third New-International Dictionary of the English Language in 1961, American lexicographers increasingly attempted to reflect contemporary usage. Many slang words and technical terms were included, and pronunciation schemes were adjusted to indicate regional speech patterns. Newer comprehensive dictionaries along these lines include The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language (3rd edition, 1992) and The Random House Dictionary of the English Language: 2nd Edition-Unabridged (1987). Specialized dictionaries include the Dictionary of Slang and Unconventional English (1937; 8th edition, 1985), originally edited by Eric Partridge, and the comprehensive Dictionary of American Regional English (Volume 1, 1985; Volume 2, 1991) .

Revisions have continued to be made on most major dictionaries. In addition, abridged versions of most of these are available and are also frequently revised. Shorter dictionaries currently in use include Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary (tenth edition), Webster's New World Dictionary of the English Language (third college edition), The Random House College Dictionary (revised edition), and the third college edition of The American Heritage Dictionary. Children's dictionaries have been produced by several publishers; notable among them is the Thorndike-Barnhart series (now the Scott, Foresman series).1

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