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INTRODUCTION

"The main objective of all our reforms in the field of education is individual. Therefore the task of education, the task of national renaissance will remain the prerogative of the state and constitute a majority. For this, the power of foreign languages also must work in new generation mind."[1]

Conditions of reforming of all education system the question of the world assistance to improvement of quality of scientific-theoretical aspect, educational process is especially actually put. Speaking about the 20 th anniversary of National Independence the President I.A.Karimov has declared in the program speech "Harmoniously development of generation a basis of progress of Uzbekistan":" …all of us realize, that achievement of the graet purpose put today before us, noble aspirations, it is necessary for updating a society." The effect and destiny of our reforms carried out in the name of progress and the future, results of our intentions are connected with highly skilled, conscious staff, the experts who are meeting the requirements of time.[2]

Nowadays we are trying to establish a strong democratic state, of course, with the help of the new generation. I also consider myself as one of the members of this innovative people. I dare to say, foreign languages, especially English is a good source to take the advantage.

The present Qualification Paper deals with the study of lexical meaning and connective meaning of the words in English and Uzbek causes of extending the meaning of words, which presents a certain interest both for theoretical investigation and for practical language use.

The actuality of the Qualification paper is defined by concrete results of the investigation. Special emphasis is laid on various types of rendering the structure, the semantic features, and the peculiarities of functional aspect of lexical meaning and connective meaning of words.

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[1] From the President I.A.Karimov's report at the Oliy Majlis session of the first convocation,February, 1995.
[2] И.А.Каримов. Гармонично-развитое поколение-основа прогресса Узбекистана. Ташкент. 1998. Стр 158-168

The aim of this Qualification Paper is to define the functional aspect of lexical meaning and connective meaning of the words in different languages.

The tasks of the research are the following according to the general aim:

1. to define word as a subject;

2. to describe the various types and causes of extending the meaning of words ;

3. to analyze the productive way of extending the meaning of words;

4. to study the types of functional aspect and their peculiarities;

The methods of investigation used in this Qualification Paper are as follows: semantic, lexicological, and structural.

The practical value of the research is that the material and the results of the given research can be used in theoretical courses of lexicology.

The material includes:

1. different types of dictionaries;

2. Scientific literature on lexicology;

3. The practical books of English, American, Uzbek, Russian authors.

The theoretical importance of the research is determined by the necessary of detailed and comprehensive analysis of peculiarities of functional aspect of word which form a big layer of the vocabulary.

The structure of the work - the given Qualification Paper consists of introduction, three chapters and a conclusion which are followed by the lists of literature used on the course of the research. Introduction deals with the description of the structure of a qualification paper.

Chapter I. Review of the linguistic literature on the problems of Present Fay English Lexicology

1.1. The definition of the lexical meaning in semasiology

An exact defenition of any basic term is not easy task altogether. In the case of lexical meaning it becomes especially difficult due to the complexity of the process by which language and human conscience serve to the reflect out word reality and to adopt it to human needs.

The definition of lexical meaning has been attempted more then once in accordance with the main principles of F. de Saussure consider meaning to be the relation between the object or notion named, and the name itself. Descriptive linguistics of the Bloofieldian trend defines the meaning as the situation in which the word is uttered. Both ways of approach afford no possibility of a further investigation of semantic problems in strictly linguistic terms, and therefore, if taken as a basis for general linguistic theory, give no insight into the mechanism of meaning. Some of Bloomfield's successors went so far as to exclude semasiology from linguistics on the fround that meaning could not be studied objectively, and was not part of language but an aspect of the use to which language is put. This point of view was the never generally accepted. The more general opinion is well revealed in R Jakobson's pun. He said: "Linguistics without meaning is meaningless[3]"

The definitions given by the majority of authors, however different in detail, agree in basic principle: they all point out that lexical meaning is the realization of the notion by means of a definite language system[4]. It has also been repeatedly stated that the plane of content is speech reflects the whole of human consciousness, which comprises not only mental activity but emotions as well.

The notional content of a word is expressed by the *denotative meaning* (also referential or axtensional meaning) which, as we shall see later, may be of two types, according to wheather the word's function is significative or

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[3] Note how this epigram makes use of multiple sense in the word meaning
[4] В.В.Виноградов Русский язык. Издательство «Высшая Школа» М., 1972, стр 16-17

identifying (demonstrative). To *denote,* then, is to serve as linguistic expression for a notion or as a name for an actually existing object referred to by a word. The term *denotatum om r e f e r e n t* means either a notion or an actually existing individual thing to which referens is made. The *emotional content* of the word is its capacity to evoke qr directly express emotion. It is rendered by the emotional or express emotional or expressive counterpart of meaning, also called emotive charge, international or affective *c o n n o t a t i o n s* of words.

The denotative meanings may be of two types according to whether the word function is *significative* and evokes a general idea, or *demonstrative,* i.e. identifying.

To find words in their significative meanings it is best to turn to aphorisms and other saying expressing general ideas[5]. Thus *A good laugh is sunshine in the house* or a man *A man cannot be too careful in the choice of his enemies* contain words in their significative meanings. The second type (demonstrative meaning) is revealed when it is the individual elements of reality that the word serves to name. *Some large blue china jars and parrot-tulips were ranged on the mantelshelf, and through the small leaded panes of the window streamed the apricot coloured light of a summer day in London .*

The expressive, counterpart of meaning is optional, and even when it is present, its proportion with respect to the logical counterpart may vary within wide limits. The meaning of many words is subject to complex associations originating in habitual contexts, verbal or situational, of which the speaker and the listener are aware, and which form connotational component of meaning. In some words the realisation of meaning is accompanied by additional stylistic characteristics revealing the speaker's attitude to the situation, the subject-matter, and to this interlocutor.

Within the affective connotations of a word we distinguish its capacity to evoke or directly express: a) emotion, e.g. *daddy* as compared to *father,* b) *evaluation,* e.g. *clique* as compared to *group,* c) intensity, e.g. *adore* as

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[5] Arnold V. The English Word. M.,1986, p 27-28

compared to A/7/.

The complexity of the word meaning is manifold. Apart from the lexical meaning including denotative and connotative meaning it is always combined with grammatical meaning.

It will be useful to remind the reader that the *grammatical meaning* is defined as an expression in speech relationship between words basnd on contrastive features of arrangements in which they occur. This being a book on lexicology and not on grammar, it is permissible to take this definition ready-made without explayning or analysing it, and concentrate our attention upon lexico-grammatical meaning.

More than that, every denotational meaning is itself a combination of several more elementary components. The meaning of *kill,* for instance, can be discribcd as follows: {cause [become(not+alive)]}. One futher point should be made: *cause, became, not and alive* in this analysis are not word English or any other language; they are elements of meaning, which can be combined in various ways without other such elements in the meaning of different words. In what follows they will be called *semantic components.* To illustrate this idea of componential analysis we shall consider the word *adored* in the following epigram by Oscar Wilde: *«Men can be analysed, women - merely adored ».* *Adored* has a lexical meaning and a grammatical meaning. The grammatical meaning is that of a Paticiple II of a transitive verb. The denotational counterpart of the lexical meaning realized the corresponding notion, and consists of several components, namely - feeling, attachment, intensity, respect. The connotational component is that of intensity and loftiness. The definitional component is that of intensity and loftiness. The definition of *adore* is to feel a great attechment and respect, to wordship.

One and the sajne word may have several meanings. A word that has more then one meaning is called *polysemantic.*

Polysemy is inherent in the very nature of words and notions, as they always contain a generalization of several traits of the object. Some of these

traits are common with other objects possessing common features.

Thus polysemy is characteristic of the most words in many languages, however different they may be. But it is some characteristic of the English vocabulary as compared with Uzbek and Russian, due to the monosyllabic character of English and the predominance of root words. The greater the relative frequincy of the wo:d, the greater the number of elements that constitute its semantic structure, i.t. the morepolysemantic it is. This regularity is of course a statistical, not a ragid one.

Word counts shows that the total number of meanings separately registered in NED for the first thousand of the most frequent Enqlish words is almost 25,000, i.e. the average number of meanings for each of these most frequint words is 25.

Consider some of the variants of a very frequint, and consequintly polysemantic word run. We define the main variants as 'to go by moving the legs quikly' as in Tired as I was, I begun to run frantically home. Lexical meaning does not change in the fon.is *ran or running*. The basic meaning may be extended to inanimate things: *I caught the bus that rans between C* and B; or the word *run* may be used figuratively; *It makes the blood run cold.* Both the components 'on foot' and quikly are surprised in *This self-servise shop is run by the Co-op* and *The car runs on petrol.* The idea of motion remains but it is redused to 'operate or function'. The differance of meaning is reflected in the difference of syntactic valency. It is impossible to use this variant about humans and say *We humans run on foot.* It possible to use the active-passive transformation when the meaning implies management': *The Co-op runs this self-servise shop* but not *I was run by home.* There are other variants of *run* where there is no implication of speed or **«on foot»,** or motion but the implication of direction is ratained: *On the other side of the stream the bank ran up steedly. The bank run* without the indication of direction is meaningless. The verb *run* has also several other variants, they all have something in common with some of the others. Thus, though there is no single semantic

component common to all variants, every variant has something in common with at least one of the others.

It is only recently that linguists have made any serious attempt to give a systematic, account of grammar and semantics, semantics and context. Every meaning in language and every difference in meaning is signalled either by the form of the word itself or by context.

Eg. *ship* :: *sheep, brothers* **:: brethren,** *smoke screen* **:: screen star.**

In analyzing the polysemy of a word we have to take into consideration that the meaning is the content of a two-facet linguistic sign and its distribution , i.e. its syntagmatic relations depending on the position in the spoken chain.

We have therefore to search for cases of unity for both facets of the linguistic sign - its form and its content. This unity is present in the so-called *lexico-grammatical* variants of words.

No universally accepted criteria for differentiating these variants within one polysemantic word can far be offered, although the problem has lately attracted a great deal of attention. The main points can be summed as follows: lexico-grammatical variants of a word are its variants characterized by paradigmatic or morphological peculiarities, different valency, different syntactic functions, very often they belong to different lexico-grammatical groups of the same part of speech thus *run* is intransitive in *I run home,* but transitive in *I run this office*.

All the lexical and lexico-grammatical variants of a word taken together form its semantic structure of the word *youth* three lexico-grammatical variants may be distinguished: the first is an abstract uncountable noun, as in *the friends of one's youth,* the socond is a countable personal noun man' (plural *youths)* that can be substituted by the pronoun *he* in the singular and *they* in the plural; the third is a collective noun "young men and woman" having only one form, that the singular, substituted by the pronoun *they*. Within the lexico-grammatical variant two shades of meaning can be distinguished with two referents, one denoting the state of being young, and the other the time of being

young. These shades of meaning are recognized due to lexical peculiarities of distribution and sometimes are blended together as in to ***feel that one's youth has gone,*** where both the time and the state can be meant. These variants form a structured set because they are expressed by the same sound complex and are interrelated in meaning as they all contain the semantic component 'young' and can be explained by means of one another.

The difference in syntactic context[6] and distribution is best seen in verbs. Among the many variants of the verb *carry* one can distinguish a lexico-grammatical variant with the meaning 'to support the weight of a thing, and to move it from one place to another'. In this variants there is always an object after the verb which may be followed by an adverbial or a prepositional object, as in the following formulas: N1 + carry+N2+prep+N3 *(**she was carrying the baby in her arms***).

In both cases *carry* is a transitive verb. There is also an intransitive variant in which *carry* is followed by a predicative or adverbial of distance, time, ets. And means "to ***have the power to reach': Ni+carry+prep+M*** (His voise carried across the room).

Nonce usage takes plase in cases of occassional figurative meaning. Nonce usage is also sometimes called *application* and defined as the extensional meaning of a word or term. The following example serves to illustrate nonce usage as application: *Tom possessed a formidable capacity for psychological bustling. In an easy agreeable way he bustled other people into doing thing they did not want to do.* (W.COOPER) Here the word *bustle* does not show any of its dictionary meanings. This is nonce usage which is clearly motivated and readily understood.

To sum up this discussion of the *semantic structure* of a word we return to its definition as a *structured set of interreleted lexical variants with different meanings.* These variants belong to the same set because they are expressed by the same combination of morphemes, although in different condition of

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[6] Амасова Н.Н. Английская контекстология. Л., 1968, стр 123-124

distribution. The elements are interrelated due to some common semantic component. In other words, the word's semantic structure is an organized whole comprised by reccurent meanings and shades of meaning a particular sound complex can assume in different contexts, together with emotional or stylistic colouring and other connotations, if any.

Polysemy and semantic structure exist only in language, not in speech. The sum total of many contexts in which the word may occur permits us to observe and record cases of identical meaning and cases that differ in meaning. They are registered and classified by lexicographers and found in dictionaries. For example, we read that *bother* has two variants as a verb: (1) 'to worry or to cause trouble' and (2) to take the trouble'.

It is very important to distinguish between the lexical meaning of a word in speech and its semantic structure in language. The meaning in speech is *contextual.* If one examines, for example, the word *bother* in the following: *Any woman will love any man who bothers her enough* (H. PHILIPPS) one sees it in a definite context that paticularizes it and makes possible only one meaning: *'to cause trouble'.* This notion receives the emotional colouring of irony revealing the protagonist's view of love as cynical and pessimistic. This colouring in the word **bother** is combined with a colloquial stylistic tone. Actually used it has only one meaning, it is monosemantic but it may render a complicated notion or emotion with many features.

Polysemy does not interfere with the communicative function of the language because in every particular case the situation and context, i.e. the environment of the word, cancel all unnecessary meanings and make speech unambiguous.

1.2. On the interrelation of the lexical meaning and the notion

The term *n o t i o n* is introduced into Iiguistics from logic and psychology. It denotes the reflection in the mind of real objects and phonomena in their essential features and relations. Each notion is characterized by its scope and content. The scope of the notion is made up of all the features that distinguish it from other notions. The distinction between the scope and the content of a notion lies at the basis of such terms as the identifying (demonstrative) and signeficative functions of the wora that have been mentioned above. The identifying may be interpreted as denotes the objects covered by the scope of the notion expressed in the word, and the signeficative function of expressing the content of the respective notion. The function of expressing the content of the respective notion. The function of rendering an emotion or an attitude is termed the expressive function.

The reletionship between the linguistic lexical and the logical notion deserves special attention not only because they are apt to be confused but also because in the comparing and contrasting them it is possible to achive a better insight into the essence of both. In what follows this opposition will be treated in some detail.

I. The first essential point is that the relationship between notion and meaning varies. A word may have a notion for its referent. In the example A good laugh is sunshine in the house every word evokes a general idea, a notion without directly reffering to the any particular element of reality, the significative meaning and that of the notion coincide; on different levels they cover the same area. A word may also have an individual object for its referent.

The problem of a proper names is particularly complicated. It has been often taken for granted that they do not convey any generalized notion at all, that they only name human beings, countries, cities, animals, rivers, stars, etc. And yet, names like Tashkent, the Thames, Italy, Byron evoke notions. Moreover, the notions called forth are particular rich. The clue, as S.Ullmann convincing!} argues, lies in the spesific function of proper names which is

identification, and not signifying[7]. A Gardiner has discussed this problem in a special monograph. According to him proper names partake of the fundamental two-sidedness of words; the duality, however, is of a specific character[8].

Without going jnto detail it is clear that there is a great difference between the proper names which, like those given above, serve to denote unique objects, and those which are conventional names for different people, animal or places, like ***Bill, Ann*** or ***High*** *street.*

Pronouns possess the demonstrative function almost to a compute exclusion of the significative funstion, i.e. they only point out, they do not impart any information about the object pointed out except for its relation the speaker.

To sum up this first point: the logical notion is the referent of lexical meaning quite often but not always, because there may be other referent such as the real objects.

II. Secondly, notion 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 obgective reality but also the speaker's state of mind his attitude to what he is speaking about. The following passage yields a good example: ***"Vile bug of a coward,» said Lypiatt, «why don't you defend yourself like s man?".*** Due to the unpleasent connotation the name ***bug*** acquires a negative emotional tone. When used in emotionally coloured situation and contexts, words accumulate emotional associations that finally blur their exact denotative meaning.

The way in which the denotative meaning of the word, that serves to identify and name the notion, is combined with the feeling tone will be better understood with the **held** of **the** following example: ***The mere fact of being***

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[7] S. Vllmann, The Principles of Semantics, p. 73. See also on the point of proper names: O.Jespersen, Philosophy of Grammar, pp. 63-71; H.S.Sorensen, Word-classes in Modern English (with Specisl Reference to Proper Names), with an Introductory Theory of Grammar, Meanings and Reference, Copenhagen, 1958, p 34-36

[8] A. Gardiner, The Theory of Proper Names, London-New York-Toronto, 1954, p. 41

brought up in a town where everything was shabby, dirty, dwarfish, peiieing and generally lousy was another thing that helped to make mast of us competitive. Here each of the series of adjectives, besides naming some property, contains a clearly marked emotional tone expressing not only the property itself but the attitude of scornful disgust the speaker assumes towards all these features. This attitude is emphatically summed up in the last adjective *lousy* where we observe a complete suppression of the original concrete notional meaning by the strongly developed emotional component combined with a definitely slangy ring.

The emotional colouring of separete words may be very indefinite and may exist as a vague potentiality to become explicit only in some contexts, in combination with syntactical and intonational means. It does not remain concentrated within the word but irrediates on the sentence, and sometimes the utterance as a whole.

The content of the emotional component of meaning varies considerably. Emotionally charged words can cover the whole scale of both pothitive and negative emotions: admiration, respect, tenderness and other positive feelings on the one hand, and scome, irony, loathing, ets. On the other. Two or more words having the same denotative meaning may differ in emotional tone. In such opposition as *brat*:: *baby* and *kid*:: *child the* denotative force of the right- and left-hand terms is the samp but the left-hand terms are emotional where as those on the right are neutral.

III.   Thirdly, the absence not only of identity but even of regular one-to-one correspondence between meaning and notion is clearly seen in words belonging to some specific stylistic level. This purely linguistic factor is relevent not for the content of the message but for the personality of the speaker, his background and his relation with his audience. *"Welt!" said Kanga. "Fancy that! Fancy my making a mistake like that".* Fancy when used in exlamatory sentences not only expresses surprise but has a definite colloqual character and shows that the speaker and those who hear hpr are on familiar

terms. The stylistical colouring should not be mixed with emotional tone. A word may have a definite stylistical characteristic and be complitely devoid of any emotional colouring, two words may belong to the same style and express diametrically opposed emotions (compare, for instance, the derogatory *lousy* and the laudatory *smashing,* both belonging to slang).

Summing up the second and the third points, one may say that owing to its linguistic nature the lexical meaning of many words cannot be divorced from the typical sphere where these words are used and the typical contexts, and so bears traces of both, whereas a notion belongs to abstract logic and so has no ties with any stylistic sphere and does not contain any emotive components.

IV.   The linguistic nature of lexical meaning has very important consequences. Expressing a notion, a word does so in a way determined by the peculiarities of the lexical and grammatical system of each particular language and by the various structural ties of the word in speech. Every word may be said to have paradigmatic ties releting it to other words and forms and giving it a differential quality. These are its relations to other elements of the same themantic group, to synonymous and antonymous words, phraseological restrictions on its use and the type of words which may be derived from in. For instance: *take* **::** *receive, take* **::** *seize, take :: give, take* **::** *take in.* Also the lexical meaning of *takes* is that the shared by *take, took, taking;* while its grammatical meaning is that which is shared by *works* and *stands.* On the other hand each word has syntagmatic ties characterized the ordered linear arrengement of speech elements, and giving the meaning its structural quality.

Both factors make the lexical meaning strongly dependent upon the grammatical meaning. Consequently, the lexical meaning of every word depends upon the part of speech to which the word belongs. Every word may be used in a limited set of syntactical functions, and with a definite valency. It has a definite set of grammatical meanings, and a definite set of forms.

Every lexico-grammatical group of words or class is characterized by its own lexico-grammatical meaning forming, as it were, the common denominator

of all the meanings of the word which belong to this group. The lexico-grammatical meaning may be also regarded as the feature according to which these words are grouped together. Many recent investigations are denoted to establishing word classes on the basis of similerity of distribution.

In the lexical meaning of every separate word the lexico-grammatical meaning common to all the words of the class to which this word belongs is enriched by additional features and becomes particularized.

The meaning of a specific property in such words as ***bright, clear, good, quick, steady, thin*** is a particular realization of the lexico-grammatical meaning of qualitative adjectives. These adjectives always denote the properties of things capable of being compared and so have degrees of comparison. The scope of the notion rendered by the lexico-grammatical meaning of the class is much larger than the scope of the notion rendered by the lexical meaning of each individual word. The reverse also holds good: the content of the notion expressed by the lexico-grammatical meaning of the class is smaller, poorer in features than the content of the notion expressed by the lexical meaning of a word.

The lexico-grammatical meaning of each lexico-grammatical group is approximated in the lexical meaning of g e n e r i c terms, i.e. words that are called semantically wide. These are words expressing notions in which abstraction and generalization are so great that they can substitute any word of their class. The word *state* denotes the class of all states. Generic terms are non-specific and are applicable to a great number of individual members of big classes. For example, such words as ***thing, job, affair, business, object*** and other render the notion of thingness common to all nouns. The word ***matter*** is a generic term for material nouns, ***person*** - for personal nouns.

These generic words denote in a general way objects, actions, states, qualities or reletionships between them, that the human mind discerns in the surrounding reality and reflects in notions. The degree and quality of abstraction and generalization here are intermediate between those

characteristic of grammatical categories and those observed on the lexical level, therefore one can classify them as expressing lexico-grammatical meaning.

In summing up this fourth point, we note that the complexity of the notion is determind by the relationships of the extralinguistic reality reflected in human consciousness. The structure of every separate meaning depends on the linguistic syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships because meaning is inherent component of language. The complexity of each word meaning is due to the fact that it combines lexical meaning with structural meaning and sometimes with emotional colouring, stylistic peculiarities and common born from previous usage.

The monosemantic property of a word use in context does not exclude the complexity of each denotative meaning as it serves to signify complex notions with many features. Specie' procedures of *c o m p o n e n t i a l   a n a l y s i s* [9] have been developed to determine the components of each meaning and represent this as a combination of elementary senses. The meaning of the word *son* maybe discribed to the terms of kinship and denotes a direct male offspring of the first generation, while *grandson* is a direct male offspring of the second generation. If compared with such a word as *artist, coward, friend, lass* or *visitor* these words will reveal a common denominator in the very general meaning 'person' that constitutes the lexico-grammatical meaning of personal nouns.

V. The foregoing deals with separate meanings as realized in speech. If we turn to the meaning of words as they exist in language we shall observe that frequently used words are polysemantic.

The different meanings of a polysemantic word may come together due to the proximate of notions they express. For instance, the noun *blanket* may mean 'a woollen covering used on beds', or 'a covering for keeping a horse warm in the stable', and also 'a covering of any king', as *a blanket of snow,* or used attributively, covering all or most cases': *a blanket insurance policy* (examples

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[9] Селиверстова О.Н. Компонентный анализ многозначных слов. М, 1975, с 200

from Hornby). Another example may be offered by the verb *drive* 'to cause an animal, a person or a thing work or move in some direction by using shouts, blows or any other means'; 'to control an animal pulling a carriage'; 'to carry in a cart'; 'to compel' and many others. These different meanings may also be explained one with the help of another.

The typical patterns according to which different meanings are united in one polysemantic word often depend upon grammatical meaning and grammatical categories characteristic of the part of speech to which they belong.

Depending upon the part of speech to which the word belongs, its semantic structure comprising йП its possible variants becomes connected with a definite group of grammatical meanings, and the latter influence the semantic structure so much that every part of speech possesses semantic peculiarities of its own.

In every language this combination of variants is specific. Thus, it is characteristic of English nouns to combine individual and collective, countable and uncountable variants in one phonetic complex. In verbs we observe different variants based on the transitive and intransitive use of the same verb, as illustrated by the following table:

Verbs	Meaning of lexico - Semantic variants	
	Transitive	Intransitive
Bear Bleed Burn Hold	Carry, support, produce, Take blood from destroy by fire contain, keep fast	Move Lose blood be in flames be true

See also different meanings of the verbs *fire, fly, run, shake, turn, walk, warm, worry,* etc.

Morphological „derivation also plays a very important part in determining possible meaning combinations. Thus, for instance, nouns derived from verbs very often name not only action itself but its result as well.

Nouns	Abstract variant denoting Action	Concrete variant
Bump	a heavy blow or knock	a swelling caused by a blow or knock
Calculation	the act of working wint numbers	the result of working wint numbers
Snow	the act of snowing	an exhibition

AH this examples taken at random are sufficient to prove the fifth point, namely that the grouping of meaning is different from the grouping of notions.

VI. Last but not least, the difference between notion and is based upon the fact that notions are mostly international, especially for nations with the same level of cultural development, where as meaning may be nationally determined and limited. The grouping of meaning in the semantic structure of a word is determined by the whole system of every language, by its grammar and vocabulary, by the peculiar history both of the language in question and the people who speak it. These factors influence not only the more presence and absence of this or that meaning in the semantic system of words that may be considered equivalent in different languages, but also their respective place and importance. Equivalent words may be defined as words off two different languages, the main lexical variants of which express or name the same notions, emotion or object. Their respective semantic structures (in the case of polysemantic words) show a marked parallelism, but this similarity is not absolute. Its degree may vary.

The meaning of every word forms part of the semantic system of each particular language and thus is always determined by the peculiarities of its vocabulary, namely the existence of synonyms, or words near in meaning, by the typical usage, set expression and also by the words' grammatical characteristics depending on the grammatical system, of each language.

There is quite a number of meanings that are realized only under certain specific structural condititons, such as: ***go fishing (skating, boating, skiing, mountain-climbing); go running (flying, screaming); go limp (pate, bad, blind); be going to ...***

The number of notions does not correspond to their number of words, neither does the number of meanings. Their distribution in relation to words is peculiar in every language. The Uzbek language has two separate words for the notions *эркак* and **инсон**. In English both notions are rendered by the same word *man*. Comparing the two titles ***«Men without women»*** (A novel by M.Arlen and a collection of short stories by E.Hemingway) and ***«All Men are Enemies»*** (A novel by R.Aldington) one can clearly see that two different notions are rendered by the same English word ***man***.

Summing up alj the points of difference between the thing meant, the notion and the meaning, we can say that the lexical meaning of the word may be defined as the realization or naming of a notion, emotion or object by means of definite language system subject to the influence of grammar and vocabulary peculiarities of that language. Words that express notions may have some emotional or stylistic colouring or express connotations suggestive of the context in which they often appear. All the specific features that distinguish the lexical meaning from the notion are due to its linguistic nature. Expressing the notions is one of the word's functions but not the only one, as there are words that do not name any notion; their meaning is constituted by other functions. The development of the lexical meaning is influenced be the whole complicated network of ties and relations between the word in a given vocabulary and between the vocabulary and other aspects of the language.

1.3. The elements of the semantic structure and types of word meaning

Grammatical meanings are very abstract, very general. Therefore the grammatical form is not confined to an individual word, but unites a whole class of words, so that each word of the class expresses the corresponding grammatical meaning together with its individual, concrete semantics. For instance, the meaning of the substantive plural is rendered by the regular plural suffix -(e)s, and in some cases by other, more specific means, such as phonemic interchange and a few lexeme-bound suffixes. Due to the generalised character of the plural, we say that different groups of nouns "take" this form with strictly defined variations in the mode of expression, the variations being of more systemic (phonological conditioning) and less systemic (etymological conditioning) nature. Cf.: faces, branches, matches, judges; books, rockets, boats, chiefs, proofs; dogs, beads, films, stones, hens; lives, wives, thieves, leaves; girls, stars, toys, heroes, pianos, cantos; oxen, children, brethren, kine; swine, sheep, deer; cod, trout, salmon; men, women, feet, teeth, geese, mice, lice; formulae, antennae; data, errata, strata, addenda, memoranda; radii, genii, nuclei, alumni; crises, bases, analyses, axes; phenomena, criteria. As we see, the grammatical form presents a division of the word on the principle of expressing a certain grammatical meaning. The most general notions reflecting the most general properties of phenomena are referred to in logic as "categorial notions", or "categories". The most general meanings rendered by language and expressed by systemic correlations of word-forms are interpreted in linguistics as categorial grammatical meanings. The forms themselves are identified within definite paradigmatic series. The categorial meaning (e.g. the grammatical number) unites the individual meanings of the correlated paradigmatic forms (e.g. singular — plural) and is exposed through them; hence, the meaning of the grammatical category and the meaning of the grammatical form are related to each other on the principle of the logical relation between the categorial and generic notions. As for the grammatical category itself, it presents, the same as the grammatical

"form", a unity of form (i.e. material factor) and meaning (i.e. ideal factor) and constitutes a certain signemic system.

More specifically, the grammatical category is a system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms.

The ordered set of grammatical forms expressing a categorial function constitutes a paradigm.[10]

The paradigmatic correlations of grammatical forms in a category are exposed by the so-called "grammatical oppositions". The opposition (in the linguistic sense) may be defined as a generalised correlation of lingual forms by means of which a certain function is expressed. The correlated elements (members) of the opposition must possess two types of features: common features and differential features. Common features serve as the basis of contrast, while differential features immediately express the function in question.

The oppositional theory was originally formulated as a ; phonological theory. Three main qualitative types of oppositions were established in phonology: "privative", "gradual", and "equipollent". By the number of members contrasted, oppositions were divided into binary (two members) and more than binary (ternary, quaternary, etc.). The most important type of opposition is the binary privative opposition; the other types of oppositions are reducible to the binary privative opposition. The binary privative opposition is formed by a contrastive pair of members in which one member is characterised by the presence of a certain differential feature ("mark"), while the other member is characterized by the absence of this feature. The member in which the feature is present is called the "marked", or "strong", or "positive" member, and is commonly designated by the symbol + (plus); the member in which the feature is absent is called the "unmarked", or

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[10] Ginzburg . "A course in Modern Engkish lexicology." МД976 p. 278

"weak", or "negative" member, and is commonly designated by the symbol — (minus).

For instance, the voiced and devoiced consonants form a privative opposition [b, d, g —p, t, k]. The differential feature of the opposition is "voice". This feature is present in the voiced consonants, so their set forms the marked member of the opposition. The devoiced consonants, lacking the feature, form the unmarked member of the opposition. To stress the marking quality of "voice" for the opposition in question, the devoiced consonants may be referred to as «non-voiced".

The gradual opposition is formed by a contrastive group of members which are distinguished not by the presence or absence of a feature, but by the degree of it.

For instance, the front vowels [i:—i—e—ae] form a quaternary gradual opposition, since they are differentiated by the degree of their openness (their length, as is known, is' also relevant, as well as some other individualising properties, but these factors do not spoil the gradual opposition as such). The equipollent opposition is formed by a contrastive pair or group in which the members are distinguished by different positive features. For instance, the phonemes [m] and [b], both bilabial consonants, form an equipollent opposition, [m] being sonorous nazalised, [b] being plosive. We have noted above that any opposition can be reformulated in privative terms. Indeed, any positive feature distinguishing an oppositionally characterized lingual element is absent in the appositionally correlated element, so that considered from the point of view of this feature alone, the opposition, by definition, becomes privative. This reformulation is especially helpful on an advanced stage of oppositional study of a given microsystem, because it enables us to characterize the elements of the system by the corresponding strings ("bundles") of values of their oppositional featuring ("bundles of differential features"), each feature being represented by the values + or —. For instance, [p] is distinguished from [b] as voiceless (voice —), from [t] as

bilabial (labialisation +), from [m] as non-nazalised (nazalisation —), etc. The descriptive advantages of this kind of characterization are self-evident. Unlike phonemes which are monolateral lingual elements, words as units of morphology are bilateral; therefore morphological oppositions must reflect both the plane of expression (form) and the plane of content (meaning). The most important type of opposition in morphology, the same as in phonology, is the binary privative opposition. The privative morphological opposition is based on a morphological differential feature which is present in its strong parked) member and absent in its weak (unmarked) member. In another kind of wording, this differential feature may be

said to mark one of the members of the opposition positively (the strong member), and the other one negatively (the weak member). The featuring in question serves as the immediate means of expressing a grammatical meaning. For instance, the expression of the verbal present and past tenses is based on a privative opposition the differential feature of which is the dental suffix -(e)d. This suffix, rendering the meaning of the past tense, marks the past form of the verb positively (we worked), and the present form negatively (we work). The meanings differentiated by the oppositions of signemic units (signemic oppositions) are referred to as "semantic features", or "semes". For instance, the nounal form cats expresses the seme of plurality, as opposed to the form cat which expresses, by contrast, the seme of singularity. The two forms constitute a privative opposition in which the plural is the marked member. In order to stress the negative marking of the singular, it can be referred to as "non-plural".

It should be noted that the designation of the weak members of privative morphological oppositions by the "non-" terms is significant not only from the point of view of the plane of expression, but also from the point of view of the plane of content. It is connected with the fact that the meaning of the weak member of the privative opposition is more general and abstract as compared

with the meaning of the strong member, which is, respectively, more particular and concrete. Due to this difference in meaning, the weak member is used in a wider range of contexts than the strong member. For instance, the present tense form of the verb, as different from the past tense, is used to render meanings much broader than those directly implied by the corresponding time-plane as such.

Cf.: The sun rises in the East. To err is human. They don't speak French in this part of the country.

Etc.Equipollent oppositions in the system of English morphology constitute a minor type and are mostly confined to formal relations only. An example of such an opposition can be seen in the correlation of the person forms of the verb be: am — are — is.

Gradual oppositions in morphology are not generally recognised; in principle, they can be identified as a minor type on the semantic level only. An example of the gradual morphological opposition can be seen in the category of comparison: strong — stronger — strongest.

A grammatical category must be expressed by at least one opposition of forms. These forms are ordered in a paradigm in grammatical descriptions. Both equipollent and gradual oppositions in morphology, the same as in phonology, can be reduced to privative oppositions within the framework of an oppositional presentation of some categorial system as a whole. Thus, a word-form, like a phoneme, can be represented by a bundle of values of differential features, graphically exposing its categorial structure. For instance, the verb-form listens is marked negatively as the present tense (tense —), negatively as the indicative mood (mood —), negatively as the passive voice (voice—), positively as the third person (person +), etc. This principle of presentation, making a morphological description more compact, at the same time has the advantage of precision and helps penetrate deeper into the inner mechanisms of grammatical categories.[11]

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[11] Ginzburg . "A course in Modern Engkish lexicology." МД976 p. 278

In various contextual conditions, one member of an opposition can be used in the position of the other, counter-member. This phenomenon should be treated under the heading of "oppositional reduction" or "oppositional substitution". The first version of the term ("reduction") points out the fact that the opposition in this case is contracted, losing its formal distinctive force. The second version of the term ("substitution") shows the very process by which the opposition is reduced, namely, the use of one member instead of the other. By way of example, let us consider the following case of the singular noun-subject: Man conquers nature.

The noun man in the quoted sentence is used in the singular, but it is quite clear that it stands not for an individual person, but for people in general, for the idea of "mankind". In other words, the noun is used generically, it implies the class of denoted objects as a whole. Thus, in the oppositional light, here the weak member of the categorial opposition of number has replaced the strong member.

Consider another example: Tonight we start for London. The verb in this sentence takes the form of the present, while its meaning in the context is the future. It means that the opposition "present — future" has been reduced, the weak member (present) replacing the strong one (future). The oppositional reduction shown in the two cited cases is stylistically indifferent, the demonstrated use of the forms does not transgress the expressive conventions of ordinary speech. This kind of oppositional reduction is referred to as "neutralization" of oppositions. The position of neutralization is, as a rule, filled in by the weak member of the opposition due to its more general semantics.

Alongside of the neutralising reduction of oppositions there exists another kind of reduction, by which one of the members of the opposition is placed in contextual conditions uncommon for it; in other words, the said reductional use of the form is stylistically marked. E.g.: That man is constantly complaining of

something.

The form of the verbal present continuous in the cited sentence stands in sharp contradiction with its regular grammatical meaning "action in progress at the present time". The contradiction is, of course, purposeful: by exaggeration, it intensifies the implied disapproval of the man's behavior. This kind of oppositional reduction should be considered under the heading of "transposition". Transposition is based on the contrast between the members of the opposition, it may be defined as a contrastive use of the counter-member of the opposition. As a rule (but not exclusively) transpositionally employed is the strong member of the opposition, which is explained by its comparatively limited regular functions.

The means employed for building up member-forms of categorial oppositions are traditionally divided into synthetical and analytical; accordingly, the grammatical forms themselves are classed into synthetical and analytical, too.

Synthetical grammatical forms are realised by the inner morphemic composition of the word, while analytical grammatical forms are built up by a combination of at least two words, one of which is a grammatical auxiliary (word-morpheme), and the other, a word of "substantial" meaning. Synthetical grammatical forms are based on inner inflexion, outer inflexion, and suppletivity; hence, the forms are referred to as inner-inflexional, outer-inflexional, and suppletive.

Inner inflexion, or phonemic (vowel) interchange, is not productive in modern Indo-European languages, but it is peculiarly employed in some of their basic, most ancient lexemic elements. By this feature, the whole family of Indo-European languages is identified in linguistics as typologically "inflexional". Inner inflexion (grammatical "infixation", see above) is used in English in irregular verbs (the bulk of them belong to the Germanic strong verbs) for the formation of the past indefinite and past participle; besides, it is used in a few nouns for the formation of the plural. Since the corresponding oppositions of

forms are based on phonemic interchange, the initial paradigmatic form of each lexeme should also be considered as inflexional. Cf.: take — took — taken, drive — drove — driven, keep — kept — kept, etc.; man — men, brother — brethren, etc.

Suppletivity, like inner inflexion, is not productive as a purely morphological type of form. It is based on the correlation of different roots as a means of paradigmatic differentiation. In other words, it consists in the grammatical interchange of word roots, and this, as we pointed out in the foregoing chapter, unites it in principle with inner inflexion (or, rather, makes the latter into a specific variety of the former). Suppletivity is used in the forms of the verbs be and go, in the irregular forms of the degrees of comparison, in some forms of personal pronouns. Cf.: be — am — are — is — was — were; go — went; good — better; bad — worse; much — more; little — less; I — me; we — us; she — her

In a broader morphological interpretation, suppletivity can be recognised in paradigmatic correlations of some modal verbs, some indefinite pronouns, as well as certain nouns of peculiar categorial properties (lexemic suppletivity — see Ch. IV, § 8). Cf.: can — be able; must — have (to), be obliged (to); may — be allowed (to); one — some; man — people; news — items of news; information — pieces of information; etc.

The shown unproductive synthetical means of English morphology are outbalanced by the productive means of affixation (outer inflexion), which amount to grammatical suffixation (grammatical prefixation could only be observed in the Old English verbal system).[12]

In the previous chapter we enumerated the few grammatical suffixes possessed by the English language. These are used to build up the number and case forms of the noun; the Person-number, tense, participial and gerundial forms of the verb; the comparison forms of the adjective and adverb. In the

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[12] Marchand H. Studies in Syntax and Word-Formation. Munich, 1974.p.347

oppositional correlations of all these forms, the initial paradigmatic form of each opposition is distinguished by a zero suffix. Cf.: boy + ø — boys; go + ø — goes; work + ø — worked; small + ø —smaller; etc.

Taking this into account, and considering also the fact that each grammatical form paradigmatically correlates with at least one other grammatical form on the basis of the category expressed (e.g. the form of the singular with the form of the plural), we come to the conclusion that the total number of synthetical forms in English morphology, though certainly not very large, at the same time is not so small as it is commonly believed. Scarce in English are not the synthetical forms as such, but the actual affixal segments on which the paradigmatic differentiation of forms is based. As for analytical forms which are so typical of modern English that they have long made this language into the "canonised" representative of lingual analytism, they deserve some special comment on their substance. The traditional view of the analytical morphological form recognises two lexemic parts in it, stating that it presents a combination of an auxiliary word with a basic word. However, there is a tendency with some linguists to recognise as analytical not all such grammatically significant combinations, but only those of them that are "grammatically idiomatic", i.e. whose relevant grammatical meaning is not immediately dependent on the meanings of their component elements taken apart. Considered in this light, the form of the verbal perfect where the auxiliary "have" has utterly lost its original meaning of possession, is interpreted as the most standard and indisputable analytical form 'in English morphology. Its opposite is seen in the analytical degrees of comparison which, according to the cited interpretation, come very near to free combinations of words by their lack of "idiomatism" in the above sense [Смирницкий, (2), 68 и сл.; Бархударов, (2), 67 и сл.].* The scientific achievement of the study of "idiomatic" analytism in different languages is essential and indisputable. On the other hand, the demand that "grammatical idiomatism" should be regarded as the basis of "grammatical

analytism" seems, logically, too strong. The analytical means underlying the forms in question consist in the discontinuity of the corresponding lexemic constituents. Proceeding from this fundamental principle, it can hardly stand to reason to exclude "unidiomatic" grammatical combinations (i.e. combinations of oppositional-categorial significance) from the system of analytical expression as such. Rather, they should be regarded as an integral part of this system, in which, the provision granted, a gradation of idiomatism is to be recognised. In this case, alongside of the classical analytical forms of verbal perfect or continuous, such analytical forms should also be discriminated as the analytical infinitive (go — to go), the analytical verbal person (verb plus personal pronoun), the analytical degrees of comparison of both positive and negative varieties (more important — less important), as well as some other, still more unconventional form-types.

Moreover, alongside of the standard analytical forms characterised by the unequal ranks of their components (auxiliary element—basic element), as a marginal analytical form-type grammatical repetition should be recognised, which is used to express specific categorial semantics of processual intensity with the verb, of indefinitely high degree of quality with the adjective and the adverb, of indefinitely large quantity with the noun. Cf.: He knocked and knocked and knocked without reply (Gr. Greene). Oh, I feel I've got such boundless, boundless love to give to somebody (K. Mansfield). Two white-haired severe women were in charge of shelves and shelves of knitting materials of every description (A. Christie). The grammatical categories which are realised by the described types of forms organised in functional paradigmatic oppositions, can either be innate for a given class of words, or only be expressed on the surface of it, serving as a sign of correlation with some other class. For instance, the category of number is organically connected with the functional nature of the noun; it directly exposes the number of the referent substance, e.g. one ship — several ships. The category of number in the verb,

however, by no means gives a natural meaningful characteristic to the denoted process: the process is devoid of numerical features such as are expressed by the grammatical number. Indeed, what is rendered by the verbal number is not a quantitative characterization of the process, but a numerical featuring of the subject-referent.

Cf.:The girl is smiling. — The girls are smiling. The ship is in the harbour. — The ships are in the harbour.

Thus, from the point of view of referent relation, grammatical categories should be divided into "immanent" categories, i.e. categories innate for a given lexemic class, and "reflective" categories, i.e. categories of a secondary, derivative semantic value. Categorial forms based on subordinative grammatical agreement (such as the verbal person, the verbal number) are reflective, while categorial forms stipulating grammatical agreement in lexemes of a contiguous word-class (such as the substantive-pronominal person, the substantive number) are immanent. Immanent are also such categories and their forms as are closed within a word-class, i.e. do not transgress its borders; to these belong the tense of the verb, the comparison of the adjective and adverb, etc.[13]

Another essential division of grammatical categories is based on the changeability factor of the exposed feature. Namely, the feature of the referent expressed by the category can be either constant (unchangeable, "derivational"), or variable (changeable, "demutative").

An example of constant feature category can be seen in the category of gender, which divides the class of English nouns into non-human names, human male names, human female names, and human common gender names. This division is represented by the system of the third person pronouns serving as gender-indices   (see   further).   Cf.:
It (non-human): mountain, city, forest, cat, bee, etc. He (male human): man, father, husband, uncle, etc. She (female human): woman, lady, mother, girl, etc.

Marchand H. Studies in Syntax and Word-Formation. Munich, 1974.p.347

He or she (common human): person, parent, child, cousin, etc. Variable feature categories can be exemplified by the substantive number (singular — plural) or the degrees of comparison (positive — comparative — superlative).

Constant feature categories reflect the static classifications of phenomena, while variable feature categories expose various connections between phenomena. Some marginal categorial forms may acquire intermediary status, being located in-between the corresponding categorial poles. For instance, the nouns singularia tantum and pluralia tantum present a case of hybrid variable-constant formations, since their variable feature of number has become "rigid",or "lexicalised". Cf.: news, advice, progress; people, police; bellows, tongs; colours, letters; etc.

In distinction to these, the gender word-building pairs should be considered as a clear example of hybrid constant-variable formations, since their constant feature of gender has acquired some changeability properties, i.e. has become to a certain extent "grammaticalised". Cf.: actor — actress, author — authoress, lion — lioness, etc.

In the light of the exposed characteristics of the categories, we may specify the status of grammatical paradigms of changeable forms. Grammatical change has been interpreted in traditional terms of declension and conjugation. By declension the nominal change is implied (first of all, the case system), while by conjugation the verbal change is implied (the verbal forms of person, number, tense, etc.). However, the division of categories into immanent and reflective invites a division of forms on a somewhat more consistent basis. Since the immanent feature is expressed by essentially independent grammatical forms, and the reflective feature, correspondingly, by essentially dependent grammatical forms, all the forms of the first order (immanent) should be classed as "declensional", while all the forms of the second order (reflective) should be classed as "conjugational".

In accord with this principle, the noun in such synthetical languages as

Russian or Latin is declined by the forms of gender, number, and case, while the adjective is conjugated by the same forms. As for the English verb, it is conjugated by the reflective forms of person and number, but declined by the immanent forms of tense, aspect, voice, and mood.

No general or complete scheme of types of lexical meaning has so far been accepted by linguists. Linguistic literature abounds in various terms reflecting various points of view. The following terms may be found with different authors: the meaning is *d i r e c t* or nominative when it nominates the object without the help of context, in isolation, i. e. in one-word sentences. A typical ca^e is the titles: *«Rain»* a short story by W.S.Maugham), *«The Egoist»* (a novel by Meredith), ets. The meaning is *fe g u r a t i v e* when the object is named and at the same time characterized through its similarity with another object. Note the word «characterized»; it is meant to point out that used figuratively a word while naming the object simultaneously describes it.

Other oppositions are *a b s t r a c t -...c o n c r e t e, main om p r i m a r y :: s e c o n d a r y, c e n t r a l :: p e r i p h e r i c, n a r r o w :e x t e n d e d, g e n e r a l :: p a r t i c u l a r* and so on. One readily sees that in each of these the basis of classification is different, although these is one point they have in common. In each case the comparison takes place within the semantic structure of one word.

Take, for example, the noun *screen*. We find its direct meaning when it names a movable piece of furniture used to hide something or protect somebody, as in the case of *firescreen* placed in front of a fireplace. The meaning is figurative when the word is appl'ed to anything which protects by hiding, as in *smoke screen.* We define this meaning as figurative comparing it to the first that we called direct. Again, when by *a screen* the speaker means a silver-coloured sheet on which pictures are shown, this meaning in comparison with the first will be secondary. When the same word is used attributively in such combinations as *screen actor, screen star, screen version,* etc., it comes to mean 'pertaining to the cinema' and is *a b s t r a c t* in comparison with the first

meaning which is *c o n c r e t e .* The *main m e a n i n g* is that which possesses the highist frequency at the present stage of development. All these terms reflect relationships existing between different meanings of a word at the same period, so the classification may be called synchronic and paradigmatic, although the terms are borrowed from historical lexicology and stylistics.

If the variants are classified not only by comparing them inside the semantic of the word but according to the style and sphere of language in which they may occur the classification is stylistic. All the word are classified into stylistically neutral and stylistically coloured. The latter may be classified into *b o o k i s h* and *c o l l o q u i a l,* bookish styles in their turn may be (a) *general,* (b) *poetical,* (c) *scientific* or *learned,* while colloquial styles subdivided into (a) *litetary colloqual,* b) *familiar colloquial,* (c) *slang.*

If we are primarily interested in the historical perspective, the meanings will be classified according to their genetic characteristic and their growing or diminishing role in the language. In this way the following terms are used; *e t y m o l o g i c a l ,* i.e. the earliest known meaning; *a r c h a i c ,* i.e. the meaning superseded at present by a newer one but still remaining in certain collocations; *present-day* meaning, which is one of the most frequent in the present-day language; and the *o r i g i n a l* meaning serving as basis of the derived ones. It is very important to pay attention to the fact that one and the same meaning can at once belong, in accordance with different points, to different groups. These features of meaning may therefore serve as *d i s t i n c t i v e   f e a t u r e s* describing each meaning in its relationship to the others.

Diachronic and synchronic ties are thus closely interconnection as the new meanings are understood thinks to their motivation by the older meanings.

Hornby's dictionary, for instance, distinguishes in the word *witness* four different meanings, which may be described as follows:

Witness 1 'evidence, testimony' - a direct, abstract, primary meaning

Witness 2 'a person who has first-hand knowledge of an event and is able

to discribe it' - a metonimical, concrete, secondary meaning

Witness 3 'a person who gives evidence under oath in a law court' - a metonymical, concrete, secondary meaning specialized from *witness2*

Witnessd 4 'a person who puts his signature to a document by the side of that of the chief person who signs it' - a metonimical, concrete, secondary meaning specialized from *witness2*

Lexicographes abstract the meaning of words from examples of usage.

Every meaning is thus characterized with reference to what it denotes in the extra-linguistic (referential meaning), and with respect other meanings with it is contrasted (differential meaning). The hierarchy of lexico-grammatical and lexical variants, shades of meaning and nonce usage characterizes the semantic distance between them as signalled by distribution. It is of great importance for applied linguistics, for lexicography in particular, as mistakes in this respect distort the lexicographical description of words and hinder the usefulness of dictionaries.

CHAPTER II. Lexical and connective meaning of the words in English and Uzbek

2.1 The referential approaches to word meaning in linguistics

By definition Lexicology deals with words, word-forming morphemes (derivational affixes) and word-groups or phrases. All these linguistic units may be said to have meaning of some kind: they are all significant and therefore must be investigated both as to form and meaning.

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

Meaning is one of the most controversial terms in the theory of language. At first sight the understanding of this term seems to present no difficulty at all — it is freely used in teaching, interpreting and translation. The scientific definition of meaning however just as the definition of some other basic linguistic terms, such as w o r d . s e n t e n c e , etc., has been the issue of interminable discussions. Since there is no universally accepted definition of meaning we shall confine ourselves to a brief survey of the problem as it is viewed in modern linguistics both in our country and elsewhere.

Referential Approach There are broadly speaking two schools to Meaning of thought in present-day linguistics representing the main lines of contemporary thinking on the problem: the referential approach, which seeks to formulate the essence of meaning by establishing the interdependence between words and the things or concepts they denote, and the functional approach, which studies the functions of a word in speech and is less concerned with what

meaning is than with how it works.

All major works on semantic theory have so far been based on referential concepts of meaning. The essential feature of this approach is that it distinguishes between the three components closely connected with meaning: the sound-form of the linguistic sign, the concept underlying this sound-form, and the actual referent, i.e. that part or that aspect of reality to which the linguistic sign refers. The best known referential model of meaning is the so-called "basic triangle" which, with some variations, underlies the semantic systems of all the adherents of this school of thought. In a simplified form the triangle may be represented as shown below:
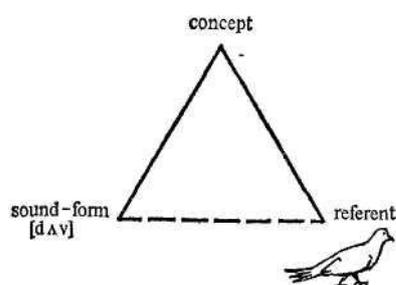
As can be seen from the diagram the sound-form of the linguistic sign, e.g. [dAv], is connected with our concept of the bird which it denotes and through it with the referent, i.e. the actual bird.[14] The common feature of any referential approach is the implication that meaning is in some form or other connected with the referent.

Let us now examine the place of meaning in this model. It is easily observed that the sound-form of the word is not identical with its meaning, e.g. [dAv] is the sound-form used to denote a peal-grey bird. There is no inherent connection, however, between this particular sound-cluster and the meaning of the word **dove.** The connection is conventional and arbitrary. This can be easily proved by comparing the sound-forms of different languages conveying one

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[14] As terminological confusion has caused much misunderstanding and often makes it difficult to grasp the semantic concept of different linguists we find it necessary to mention the most widespread terms used in modern linguistics to denote the three components described above:

sound-form — concept — referent

symbol — thought or reference — referent

sign — meaning — thing meant

sign — designatum — denotatum

and the same meaning, e.g. English [dAv], Russian [golub'], German [taube] and so on. It can also be proved by comparing almost identical sound-forms that possess different meaning in different languages. The sound-cluster [kot], e.g. in the English language means 'a small, usually swinging bed for a child', but in the Russian language essentially the same sound-cluster possesses the meaning 'male cat'.

For more convincing evidence of the conventional and arbitrary nature of the connection between sound-form and meaning all we have to do is to point to the homonyms. The word **seal** [si:l], e.g., means 'a piece of wax, lead', etc. stamped with a design; its homonym **seal** [si:l] possessing the same sound-form denotes 'a sea animal'.

Besides, if meaning were inherently connected with the sound-form of a linguistic unit, it would follow that a change in sound-form would necessitate a change of meaning. We know, however, that even considerable changes in the sound-form of a word in the course of its historical development do not necessarily affect its meaning. The sound-form of the *OE.* word **lufian [**luvian] has undergone great changes, and has been transformed into **love** [lAv], yet the meaning 'hold dear, bear love', etc. has remained essentially unchanged.

When we examine a word we see that its meaning though closely connected with the underlying concept or concepts is not identical with them. To begin with, concept is a category of human cognition. Concept is the thought of the object that singles out its essential features. Our concepts abstract and reflect the most common and typical features of the different objects and phenomena of the world. Being the result of abstraction and generalisation all "concepts are thus intrinsically 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 concepts may have different meanings and different semantic structures in different languages. The concept of 'a building for human habitation' is expressed in English by the word **house,** in Russian by the word

дом, but the meaning of the English word is not identical with that of the Russian as **house** does not possess the meaning of 'fixed residence of family or household' which is one of the meanings of the Russian word *дом*; it is expressed by another English polysemantic word, namely **home** which possesses a number of other meanings not to be found in the Russian word *дом.*

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

The precise definition of the content of a concept comes within the sphere of logic but it can be easily observed that the word-meaning is not identical with it. For instance, the content of the concept **six** can be expressed by 'three plus three', 'five plus one', or 'ten minus four', etc. Obviously, the meaning of the word **six** cannot be identified with the meaning of these word-groups.

To distinguish meaning from the referent, i.e. from the thing denoted by the linguistic sign is of the utmost importance, and at first sight does not seem to present difficulties. To begin with, meaning is linguistic whereas the denoted object or the referent is beyond the scope of language. We can denote one and the same object by more than one word of a different meaning. For instance, in a speech situation an apple can be denoted **by the** words **apple, fruit, something, this,** etc. as all of these words may have the same referent. Meaning cannot be equated with the actual properties of the referent, e.g. the meaning of the word **water** cannot be regarded as identical with its chemical formula H_2O as **water** means essentially the same to all English speakers including those who have no idea of its chemical composition. Last but not least there are words that have distinct meaning but do not refer to any existing thing, e.g. **angel** or **phoenix.** Such words have meaning which is understood by the speaker-hearer, but the objects they denote do not exist.

Thus, meaning is not to be identified with any of the three points

of the triangle.

It should be pointed out that among the adherents of the referential approach there are some who hold that the meaning of a linguistic sign is the concept underlying it, and consequently they substitute meaning for concept in the basic triangle. Others identify meaning with the referent. They argue that unless we have a scientifically accurate knowledge of the referent we cannot give a scientifically accurate definition of the meaning of a word. According to them the English word **salt,** e.g., means 'sodium chloride *(NaCl)'*. But how are we to define precisely the meanings of such words as **love** or **hate,** etc.? We must admit that the actual extent of human knowledge makes it impossible to define word-meanings accurately.[1] It logically follows that any study of meanings in linguistics along these lines must be given up as impossible.

Here we have sought to show that meaning is closely connected but not identical with sound-form, concept or referent. Yet even those who accept this view disagree as to the nature of meaning. Some linguists regard meaning as the interrelation of the three points of the triangle within the framework of the given language, i.e. as the interrelation of the sound-form, concept and referent, but not as an objectively existing part of the linguistic sign. Others and among them some outstanding Soviet linguists, proceed from the basic assumption of the objectivity of language and meaning and understand the linguistic sign as a two-facet unit. They view meaning as "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." [15] The outer facet of the linguistic sign is indispensable to meaning and intercommunication. Meaning is to be found in all linguistic units and together with their sound-form constitutes the linguistic signs studied by linguistic science.

The criticism of the referential theories of meaning may be briefly summarised as follows:

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[1] See, e. g., *L. Bloomfield.* Language. N. Y., 1933, p. 139.

1. Meaning, as understood in the referential approach, comprises the interrelation of linguistic signs with categories and phenomena outside the scope of language. As neither referents (i.e. actual things, phenomena, etc.) nor concepts belong to language, the analysis of meaning is confined either to the study of the interrelation of the linguistic sign and referent or that of the linguistic sign and concept, all of which, properly speaking, is not the object of linguistic study.

2. The great stumbling block in referential theories of meaning has always been that they operate with subjective and intangible mental processes. The results of semantic investigation therefore depend to a certain extent on "the feel of the language" and cannot be verified by another investigator analysing the same linguistic data. It follows that semasiology has to rely too much on linguistic intuition and unlike other fields of linguistic inquiry (e.g. phonetics, history of language) does not possess objective methods of investigation. Consequently it is argued, linguists should either give up the study of meaning and the attempts to define meaning altogether, or confine their efforts to the investigation of the function of linguistic signs in speech.

In recent years a new and entirely different approach to meaning known as the functional approach has begun to take shape in linguistics and especially in structural linguistics. The functional approach maintains that the meaning of a linguistic unit may be studied only through its relation to other linguistic-units and not through its relation to either concept or referent. In a very simplified form this view may be illustrated by the following: we know, for instance, that the meaning of the two words **move** and **movement** is different because they function in speech differently. Comparing the contexts in which we find these words we cannot fail to observe that they occupy different positions in relation to other words. **(To) move,** e.g., can be followed by a noun **(move** the chair), preceded by a pronoun (we **move),** etc. The position occupied by the word **movement** is different: it may be followed by a preposition **(movement** of **smth),** preceded by an adjective (slow **movement),** and so on. As the

distribution of the two words is different, we are entitled to the conclusion that not only do they belong to different classes of words, but that their meanings are different too.

The same is true of the different meanings of one and the same word. Analysing the function of a word in linguistic contexts and comparing these contexts, we conclude that; meanings are different (or the same) and this fact can be proved by an objective investigation of linguistic data. For example we can observe the difference of the meanings of the word **take** if we examine its functions in different linguistic contexts, **take the tram (the taxi, the cab,,** etc.) as opposed to **to take to somebody.**

It follows that in the functional approach (1) semantic investigation is confined to the analysis of the difference or sameness of meaning; (2) meaning is understood essentially as the function of the use of linguistic units. As a matter of fact, this line of semantic investigation is the primary concern, implied or expressed, of all structural linguists.

When comparing the two approaches described above in terms of methods of linguistic analysis we see that the functional approach should not be considered an alternative, but rather a valuable complement to the referential theory. It is only natural that linguistic investigation must start by collecting an adequate number of samples of contexts.[16] On examination the meaning or meanings of linguistic units will emerge from the contexts themselves. Once this phase had been completed it seems but logical to pass on to the referential phase and try to formulate the meaning thus identified. There is absolutely no need to set the two approaches against each other; each handles its own side of the problem and neither is complete without the other.

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[16] It is of interest to note that the functional approach is sometimes described as contextual, as it is based on the analysis of various contexts. See, e. g., *St. Ullmann.* Semantics. Oxford, 1962, pp. 64-67.

2.2 Types of word meaning in the languages of different system

It is more or less universally recognised that word-meaning is not homogeneous but is made up of various components the combination and the interrelation of which determine to a great extent the inner facet of the word. These components are usually described as types of meaning. The two main types of meaning that are readily observed are the grammatical and the lexical meanings to be found in words and word-forms.

We notice, e.g., that word-forms, such as **girls, winters, joys, tables,** etc. though denoting widely different objects of reality have something in common. This common element is the grammatical meaning of plurality which can be found in all of them.

Ex: A few sharp words would send the man packing.
Thus grammatical meaning may be defined ,as the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words, as, e.g., the tense meaning in the word-forms of verbs **(asked, thought, walked,** etc.) or the case meaning in the word-forms of various nouns **(girl's, boy's, night's,** etc.).

Ex: Rick's blood froze when the intruder raised the latch of the kitchen door, opened it, and went inside.

In a broad sense it may be argued that linguists who make a distinction between lexical and grammatical meaning are, in fact, making a distinction between the functional (linguistic) meaning which operates at various levels as the interrelation of various linguistic units and referential (conceptual) meaning as the interrelation of linguistic units and referents (or concepts).

In modern linguistic science it is commonly held that some elements of grammatical meaning can be identified by the position of the linguistic unit in relation to other linguistic units, i.e. by its distribution. Word-forms **speaks, reads, writes** have one and the same grammatical meaning as they can all be found in identical distribution, e.g. only after the pronouns **he, she, it** and before adverbs like **well, badly, to-day,** etc.

Ex: A badly frightened Elizabeth, her coal-black hair tumbling down her back,

had been driven into a corner of the kitchen by the intruder who brandished a short, double-edged knife.

It follows that a certain component of the meaning of a word is described when you identify it as a part of speech, since different parts of speech are distributionally different (cf. my work and I work).[17]

Comparing word-forms of one and the same word we observe that besides grammatical meaning, there is another component of meaning to be found in them. Unlike the grammatical meaning this component is identical in all the forms of the word. Thus, e.g. the word-forms **go, goes, went, going, gone** possess different grammatical meanings of tense, person and so on, but in each of these forms we find one and the same semantic component denoting the process of movement. This is the lexical meaning of the word which may be described as the component of meaning proper to the word as a linguistic unit, i.e. recurrent in all the forms of this word.

The difference between the lexical and the grammatical components of meaning is not to be sought in the difference of the concepts underlying the two types of meaning, but rather in the way they are conveyed. The concept of plurality, e.g., may be expressed by the lexical meaning of the world **plurality;** it may also be expressed in the forms of various words irrespective of their lexical meaning, e.g. **boys, girls, joys,** etc. The concept of relation may be expressed by the lexical meaning of the word **relation** and also by any of the prepositions, e.g. **in, on, behind,** etc. **(cf. the book is** in/on, behind **the table). "**It follows that by lexical meaning we designate the meaning proper to the given linguistic unit in all its forms and distributions, while by grammatical meaning we designate the meaning proper to sets of word-forms common to all words of a certain class. Both the lexical and the grammatical meaning make up the word-meaning as neither can exist without the other. That can be also observed in the semantic analysis of

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[17] ¹ For a more detailed discussion of the interrelation of the lexical and grammatical meaning in words see § 7 and also *А. И. Смирницкий. Лексикология английского языка. М., 1956, с. 21 — 26.*

correlated words in different languages. E.g. the Russian word *сведения* is not semantically identical with the English equivalent **information** because unlike the Russian *сведения* the English word does not possess the grammatical meaning of plurality which is part of the semantic structure of the Russian word.

It is usual to classify lexical items into major word-classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) and minor word-classes (articles, prepositions, conjunctions, etc.).

All members of a major word-class share a distinguishing semantic component which though very abstract may be viewed as the lexical component of part-of-speech meaning. For example, the meaning of 'thingness' or substantiality may be found in all the nouns e.g. **table, love, sugar,** though they possess different grammatical meanings of number, case, etc. It should be noted, however, that the grammatical aspect of the part-of-speech meanings is conveyed as a rule by a set of forms. If we describe the word as a noun we mean to say that it is bound to possess a set of forms expressing the grammatical meaning of number (cf. **table — tables),** case (cf. **boy, boy's)** and so on. A verb is understood to possess sets of forms expressing, e.g., tense meaning **(worked — works),** mood meaning **(work! — (I) work),** etc.

Ex: The company commander called an order, and the soldiers changed their formation.

The part-of-speech meaning of the words that possess only one form, e.g. prepositions, some adverbs, etc., is observed only in their distribution (cf. **to come in (here, there)** and **in (on, under)** the table).

One of the levels at which grammatical meaning operates is that of minor word classes like articles, pronouns, etc.

Members of these word classes are generally listed in dictionaries just as other vocabulary items, that belong to major word-classes of lexical items proper (e.g. nouns, verbs, etc.).

One criterion for distinguishing these grammatical items from lexical items is in terms of closed and open sets. Grammatical items form closed sets of units usually

of small membership (e.g. the set of modern English pronouns, articles, etc.). New items are practically never added.

Lexical items proper belong to open sets which have indeterminately large membership; new lexical items which are constantly coined to fulfil the needs of the speech community are added to these open sets.

The interrelation of the lexical and the grammatical meaning and the role played by each varies in different word-classes and even in different groups of words within one and the same class. In some parts of speech the prevailing component is the grammatical type of meaning. The lexical meaning of prepositions for example is, as a rule, relatively vague **(independent of smb, one of the students, the roof of the house).** The lexical meaning of some prepositions, however, may be comparatively distinct (cf. **in/on, under the table).** In verbs the lexical meaning usually comes to the fore although in some of them, the verb **to be,** e.g., the grammatical meaning of a linking element prevails (cf. **he works as a teacher** and **he is a teacher).**

Ex: The company commander called an order, and the soldiers changed their formation.

Proceeding with the semantic analysis we observe that lexical meaning is not homogenous either and may be analysed as including denotational and connotational components.

As was mentioned above one of the functions of words is to denote things, concepts and so on. Users of a language cannot have any knowledge or thought of the objects or phenomena of the real world around them unless this knowledge is ultimately embodied in words which have essentially the same meaning for all speakers of that language. This is the d e n o t a t i o n a l m e a n i n g, i.e. that component of the lexical meaning which makes communication possible. There is no doubt that **a** physicist knows more about the atom than a singer does, or that an arctic explorer possesses a much deeper knowledge of what arctic ice is like than a man who has never been in the North. Nevertheless they use the words **atom, Arctic,** etc. and understand each other.

The second component of the lexical meaning is the c o n n o t a t i o n a l
c o m p o n e n t , i.e. the emotive charge and the stylistic value of the word.
Words contain an element of emotive evaluation as part of the connotational
meaning; e.g. **a hovel** denotes 'a small house or cottage' and besides implies that it
is a miserable dwelling place, dirty, in bad repair and in general unpleasant to live
in. When examining synonyms **large, big, tremendous** and **like, love, worship** or
words such as **girl, girlie; dear, dearie** we cannot fail to observe the difference in
the emotive charge of the members of these sets. The emotive charge of the words
tremendous, worship and **girlie** is heavier than that of the words **large, like** and
girl. This does not depend on the "feeling" of the individual speaker but is true for
all speakers of English. The emotive charge varies in different word-classes. In
some of them, in interjections, e.g., the emotive element prevails, whereas in
conjunctions the emotive charge is as a rule practically non-existent.

Ex: At the approach of the troops, the few pedestrians who were on the
street scattered.

The e m o t i v e c h a r g e is one of the objective semantic features proper to
words as linguistic units and forms part of the connotational component of
meaning. It should not be confused with e m o t i v e i m p l i c a t i o n s that
the words may acquire in speech. The emotive implication of the word is to a great
extent subjective as it greatly depends of the personal experience of the speaker,
the mental imagery the word evokes in him. Words seemingly devoid of any
emotional element may possess in the case of individual speakers strong emotive
implications as may be illustrated, e.g. by the word **hospital.** What is thought and
felt when the word **hospital** is used will be different in the case of an a r c h i t e c t
w h o b u i l t i t , t h e i n v a l i d s t a y i n g t h e r e a f t e r a n o p e r a t i o n , or the man
living across the road. Words differ not only in their emotive charge but also in
their stylistic reference. Stylistically words can be roughly subdivided into literary,
neutral and colloquial layers.[18]

The greater part of the l i t e r a r y l a y e r of Modern English vocabulary are

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[1] See the stylistic classification of the English vocabulary in*: I. R. Galperin. Stylistics. M., 1971, pp. 62-118.*

words of general use, possessing no specific stylistic reference and known as n e u t r a l   w o r d s . Against the background of neutral words we can distinguish two major subgroups — s t a n d a r d   c o l l o q u i a l words and l i t e r a r y or b o o k i s h words. This may be best illustrated by comparing words almost identical in their denotational meaning, e. g., '**parent — father — dad'.** In comparison with the word **father** which is stylistically neutral, **dad** stands out as colloquial and **parent** is felt as bookish. The stylistic reference of standard colloquial words is clearly observed when we compare them with their neutral synonyms, e.g. **chum — friend, rot — nonsense,** etc. This is also true of literary or bookish words, such as, e.g., **to presume (cf. to suppose), to anticipate (cf. to expect)** and others.

Literary (bookish) words are not stylistically homogeneous. Besides general-literary (bookish) words, e.g. **harmony, calamity, alacrity,** etc., we may single out various specific subgroups, namely: 1) terms **or** scientific words such as, e g., **renaissance, genocide, teletype,** etc.; 2) poetic words and archaisms such as, e.g., **whilome** — 'formerly', **aught** — 'anything', **ere** — 'before', **albeit** — 'although', **fare** — 'walk', etc., **tarry** — 'remain', **nay** — 'no'; 3) barbarisms and foreign words, such as, e.g., **bon mot** — 'a clever or witty saying', **apropos, faux pas, bouquet,** etc. The colloquial words may be subdivided into:

1) Common colloquial words.

2) Slang, i.e. words which are often regarded as a violation of the norms of Standard English, e.g. **governor** for 'father', **missus** for 'wife', a **gag** for 'a joke', **dotty** for 'insane'.

3) Professionalisms, i.e. words used in narrow groups bound by the same occupation, such as, e.g., **lab** for 'laboratory', **hypo** for 'hypodermic syringe', **a buster** for 'a bomb', etc.

4) Jargonisms, i.e. words marked by their use within a particular social group and bearing a secret and cryptic character, e.g. **a sucker** — 'a person who is easily deceived', **a squiffer** — 'a concertina'.

5) Vulgarisms, i.e. coarse words that are not generally used in public, e.g.

bloody, hell, damn, shut up, etc.

6) Dialectical words, e.g. **lass, kirk,** etc.

7) Colloquial coinages, e.g. **newspaperdom, allrightnik,** etc.

Stylistic reference and emotive charge of words are closely connected and to a certain degree interdependent.[19] As a rule stylistically coloured words, i.e. words belonging to all stylistic layers except the neutral style are observed to possess a considerable emotive charge. That can be proved by comparing stylistically labelled words with their neutral synonyms. The colloquial words **daddy, mammy** are more emotional than the neutral **father, mother;** the slang words **mum, bob** are undoubtedly more expressive than their neutral counterparts **silent, shilling,** the poetic **yon** and **steed** carry a noticeably heavier emotive charge than their neutral synonyms **there** and **horse.** Words of neutral style, however, may also differ in the degree of emotive charge. We see, e.g., that the words **large, big, tremendous,** though equally neutral as to their stylistic reference are not identical as far as their emotive charge is concerned.

1. In the present book word-meaning is viewed as closely connected but not identical with either the sound-form of the word or with its referent.

Proceeding from the basic assumption of the objectivity of language and from the understanding of linguistic units as two-facet entities we regard meaning as the inner facet of the word, inseparable from its outer facet which is indispensable to the existence of meaning and to intercommunication.

2. The two main types of word-meaning are the grammatical and the lexical meanings found in all words. The interrelation of these two types of meaning may be different in different groups of words.

3. Lexical meaning is viewed as possessing denotational and connotational components.

The denotational component is actually what makes communication

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[1] It should be pointed out that the interdependence and interrelation of the emotive and stylistic component of meaning is one of the debatable problems in semasiology. Some linguists go so far as to claim that the stylistic reference of the word lies outside the scope of its meaning. (See, e. g., *В. А. Звягинцев.* Семасиология. М, 1957, с. 167 — 185).

possible. The connotational component comprises the stylistic reference and the emotive charge proper to the word as a linguistic unit in the given language system. The subjective emotive implications acquired by words in speech lie outside the semantic structure of words as they may vary from speaker to speaker but are not proper to words as units of language.

2.3 Word-meaning and meaning in morphemes in English

In modern linguistics it is more or less universally recognised that the smallest two-facet language unit possessing both sound-form and meaning is the morpheme. Yet, whereas the phono-morphological structure of language has been subjected to a thorough linguistic analysis, the problem of types of meaning and semantic peculiarities of morphemes has not been properly investigated. A few points of interest, however, may be mentioned in connection with some recent observations in "this field.

It is generally assumed that one of the semantic features of some morphemes which distinguishes them from words is that they do not possess grammatical meaning. Comparing the word man, e.g., and the morpheme man-(in manful, manly, etc.) we see that we cannot find in this morpheme the grammatical meaning of case and number observed in the word **man.** Morphemes are consequently regarded as devoid of grammatical meaning.

Many English words consist of a single root-morpheme, so when we say that most morphemes possess lexical meaning we imply mainly the root-morphemes in such words. It may be easily observed that the lexical meaning of the word boy and the lexical meaning of the root-morpheme boy — in such words as **boyhood**, **boyish** and others is very much the same.

Just as in words lexical meaning in morphemes may also be analysed into denotational and connotational components. The connotational component of meaning may be found not only in root-morphemes but in affixational morphemes as well. Endearing and diminutive suffixes, e.g. **-ette (kitchenette), -ie(y) (dearie, girlie), -ling (duckling),** clearly bear a heavy emotive charge. Comparing the

derivational morphemes with the same denotational meaning we see that they sometimes differ in connotation only. The morphemes, e.g. **-ly, -like, -ish,** have the denotational meaning of similarity in the words **womanly, womanlike, womanish**, the connotational component, however, differs and ranges from the positive evaluation in **-ly (womanly)** to the derogatory in **-ish (womanish):**[1] Stylistic reference may also be found in morphemes of differ-ent types. **The** stylistic value of such derivational morphemes as, **e.g. -ine (chlorine), -oid (rhomboid), -escence (effervescence)** is clearly perceived to be bookish or scientific.

Ex: The schooner's unruly passengers had moved inland about a block from the docks by the time the troops arrived, and they were being held at bay by a handful of constables, whose only weapons were long staves.

The lexical meaning of the affixal morphemes is, as a rule, of a more generalising character. The suffix **-er**, e.g. carries the meaning 'the agent, the doer of the action', the suffix **-less** denotes lack or absence of something. It should also be noted that the root-morphemes do not "possess the part-of-speech meaning (cf. *manly, manliness,* to **man); in** derivational morphemes the lexical and the part-of-speech meaning may be so blended as to be almost inseparable. In the derivational morphemes **-er** and **-less** discussed above the lexical meaning is just as clearly perceived as their part-of-speech meaning. In some morphemes, however, for instance **-ment or -ous (as** in **movement or laborious),** it is the part-of-speech meaning that prevails, the lexical meaning is but vaguely felt.

In some cases the functional meaning predominates. The morpheme **-ice** in the word **justice,** e.g., seems to serve principally to transfer the part-of-speech meaning of the morpheme **just** — into another class and namely that of noun. It follows that some morphemes possess only the functional meaning, i.e. they are the carriers of part-of-speech meaning.

Besides the types of meaning proper both to words and morphemes the latter may possess specific meanings of their own, namely the differential and the distributional meanings. D i f f e r e n t i a l   m e a n i n g   is the semantic component that serves to distinguish one word from all others containing identical

morphemes. In words consisting of two or more morphemes, one of the constituent morphemes always has differential meaning. In such words as, e. g., **bookshelf,** the morpheme **-shelf** serves to distinguish the word from other words containing the morpheme **book-,** e.g. from **bookcase, book-counter** and so on. In other compound words, e.g. **notebook,** the morpheme **note-** will be seen to possess the differential meaning which distinguishes **notebook** from **exercisebook, copybook,** etc. It should be clearly understood that denotational and differential meanings are not mutually exclusive. Naturally the morpheme **-shelf** in **bookshelf** possesses denotational meaning which is the dominant component of meaning. There are cases, however, when it is difficult or even impossible to assign any denotational meaning to the morpheme, e.g. **cran-** in **cranberry,** yet it clearly bears a relationship to the meaning of the word as a whole through the differential component (cf. **cranberry** and **blackberry, gooseberry**) which in this particular case comes to the fore. One of the disputable points of morphological analysis is whether such words as **deceive, receive, perceive** consist of two component morphemes.[20] If we assume, however, that the morpheme **-ceive** may be singled out it follows that the meaning of the morphemes **re-, per, de-** is exclusively differential, as, at least synchronically, there is no denotational meaning proper to them.

Ex: Good Lord, right now you are the only <u>permanent</u> law <u>enforcement</u> officer in the entire Sacramento Valley.

Distributional meaning is the meaning **of** the order and arrangement of morphemes making up the word. It is found in all words containing more than one morpheme. The word **singer,** e.g., is composed of two morphemes **sing-** and **-er** both of which possess the denotational meaning and namely 'to make musical sounds' **(sing-)** and 'the doer of the action' **(-er)**. There is one more element of meaning, however, that enables us to understand the word and that is the pattern of arrangement of the component morphemes. A different arrangement of the same

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[1] See 'Word-Structure', § 2, p. 90. 24

morphemes, e.g. ***ersing,** would make the word meaningless. Compare also **boyishness** and ***nessishboy** in which a different pattern of arrangement of the three morphemes **boy-ish-ness** turns it into a meaningless string of sound.

Ex: <u>The schooner's</u> unruly passengers had moved inland about a block from the docks by the time the troops arrived, and they were being held at bay by a handful of constables, whose only weapons were long staves.

Let us examine the interrelation between:

1-Meaning and sound form

The sound-form of the word is not identical with, its meaning namely [kot] is the sound form, used to denote a bed for a child There are inherent connections between this sound form, used to denote a bed for a child. There are inherent connections between this sound form and the meaning of the word "cot", but they are conventional and arbitrary. We may prove it by comparing the sound-forms of different languages, conveying one and the same meaning, cf. English [kot] and Russian [krovatka]. On the contrary, the sound-cluster [kot] in the English language is almost identical to the sound form in Russian language possessing the meaning "male-cat".

2-Meaning and concept

When we examine a word, we see that its meaning, though 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 its essential features. Our concepts abstracts and reflect the most common andtypical features of the different objects and phenomena of the world. Being the result of abstraction the concepts are thus almost the same for the whole of humanity.

The difference between meaning and concept can also be observed by comparing synonymous words and word-groups expressing the same concepts, but possessing linguistic meaning, which is felt as different in each of the units under considerations:

Big - large;

To die - to pass away - kick the bucket - join the majority;

Child - baby-babe-infant;

Daddy - father - governor - etc.

3-Meaning and referent

To distinguish meaning from the referent, i.e. from the thing denoted by the linguistic sign is of the utmost importance. To begin with, meaning is a linguistic phenomenon whereas the denoted object or the referent is beyond the scope of language. We can denote one and the same object by more than one word of a different meaning. For example, an apple can be denoted by the words apple, fruit, smth, this, etc. So far as all these words have the same referent.

A form is said to be free if it may stand alone without changing its meaning; if not, it is a bound form, because it always bound to something else: for example, if we compare the words sportive and elegant and their parts, we see that sport, sportive, elegant may occur alone as utterances, whereas eleg- -ive, -ant are bound forms because they never occur alone. A word is, by Bloomfield's definition, a minimum free form a morpheme is said to be either bound or free. This statement should be taken with caution. It means that some morphemes are capable of forming words without adding other morphemes: that is, thy are homonymous to free forms.

According tothe role they play in constructing words morphemes are subdivided into: ROOTS and AFFIXES. The latter are further subdivided, according to their position, into prefixes, suffixes and infixes, according to their function and meaning, into derivational and functional affixes, the latter are also called ending or outer formatives (словообразующий).

When a derivational or functional affix is stripped from the word, what remains is a stem base. The stem expresses the lexical and the part-of-speech meaning. For the word hearty and for the paradigm heart-hearts (pl.) the stem may be represented heart. This stem is a single morpheme, it contains nothing but the root, so it a simple stem. It is also a free stem because it is homonymous to the word heart.

A stem may also be defined as the part of the word that remains unchanged

throughout its paradigm. The stem of the paradigm hearty - heartier - (the) heartiest is hearty. It is a free stem, but as it consists of a root morpheme and an affix, it is not simple but derived. Thus, a stem containing one or more affixes is a derived stem. If after deriving the affix the remaining stem is not homonymous to a separate word of the same root, we call it a bound stem. Thus, in the word cordial (proceeding as if from the heart); the adjective-forming suffix can be separated on the analogy with such words as bronchial [bronkial] radial, social. The remaining stem, however cannot form a separate word by itself: it is bound. In cordial-ly and cordial-ity, on the one hand, the stems are free.

Bound stems are especially characteristic of loan words. The point may be illustrated by the following French borrowings: arrogance, charity, courage , coward, distort, involve; notion; legible and tolerable, to give but a few. After the suffixes of these words are taken away the remaining elements are: arrog-; char-; cour-, cow-, tort-, volve-, nat-, leg-, toler-, which don't ??????? with any semantically related independent words (p. 31 Arnold).

Roots are main morphemic vehicles of a given idea in a given language at a given stage of its development. A root may be also regarded as the ultimate constituent element which remains after removal of all functional and derivational affixes and don't admit any further analysis. It i the common element of words within a word - family. Thus heart- is the common root of the following series of words; heart, hearten, dishearten, heartily, heartless, hearty, heartiness, sweetheart, heart-broken, kind-hearted, wholeheartedly, etc. In some of this, as, for example, in hearten, there is only one root; in others the word the root -heart- is combined with some other root, thus forming a compound like sweetheart.

The root in English is very often homonymous with the word, which is one of the most specific features of the English language arising from its general grammatical system on the one hand, and from its phonetic system on the other. The influence of the analytical structure of the language is obvious. The second point, however, calls for some explanation. Actually the usual phonetic shape is one single stressed syllable: bear, find, jump, land, man, sing, etc. This doesn't give

much space for a second morpheme to add classifying lexico-grammatical meaning to the lexical meaning already present in root stem, so the lexico-grammatical meaning must be signalled bydistribution.

In the phrases a morning 's drive, a morning 's ride, a morning 's walk the words drive, ride, walk receive the lexico-grammatical meaning of a noun not due to the structure of their stem, but because they are preceded by a noun in the Possessive case.

An English word does not necessarily contain formulates indicating to what part of speech it belongs. This holds true even with respect to inflectable parts of speech, i.e. nouns, verbs, adjective.

Not all roots are free forms, but productive roots (roots capable of the producing new words) usually are.

The semantic realization of an English, word is therefore very specific. Its dependence on distribution is further enhanced by the widespread occurrence of homonymy both among root morphemes ad affixes. Note how many words in this sentence might be ambiguous if taken in isolation: "A change of work is as good as a rest".

Unlike roots, affixes are always bound forms. The difference between affixes and prefixes is not confined to their respective position, suffixes being "fixed after" and

prefixes "fixed before" the stem. It also concerns their function and meaning. A suffix is a derivational morpheme following the stem and forming a new derivative.

A prefix is a derivational morpheme standing before the root and modifying meaning: if to hearten - to dishearten. It is only the verbs and statives that a prefix may serve to distinguish one part of speech from another, like in earth n - unearth v, sleep n -asleep (Stative). Preceding a verb stem, some prefixes express the difference between a transitive and an intransitive verbs: stay v. and outstay (smb.) v. with a few exceptions prefixes modify the stem for time (pre-, post-) for example, pre-war, post-war, or express negation (un-, dis-) i.e. undress, disarm,

etc. and remain rather independent of the stem.

An infix is an affix placed within the world, like -n- stand. The type isn't productive. An affix should not be confused with a combining form which can be distinguish from the affix historically; it is always borrowed from Latin or Greek in which it existed as a free form i.e. a separate word, or also as a combining form. Thus, cyclo- or its variant cyd- are derived from Greek word kuklos "circle" giving the English word cyclic.

Chapter III. Problems of teaching vocabulary in English classes

3.1. The ways of teaching vocabulary

The process of learning a word means to the pupil: (1) identification of concepts, i. e., learning what the word means;

(2) pupil's activity for the purpose of retaining the word;

(3) pupil's activity in using this word in the process of communication in different situations.

Accordingly, the teacher's role in this process is:

(1) to furnish explanation, i. e., to present the word, to get his pupils to identify the concept correctly;

(2) to get them to recall or recognize the word by means of different exercises;

(3) To stimulate pupils to use the words In speech[21]. "The true art of teaching is not the application of the 'best' system, but the ability to stimulate pupils to worth while activity."

(4) Teaching and learning words are carried on through methods you are familiar while teacher organizes learning and pupils are involved in the very process of learning, i. e. in the acquisition of information about a new word, its form, meaning and usage; in drill and transformation to form lexical habits; in making use of the lexical habits in hearing, speaking and reading, or in the language skills. Various techniques are used to attain the the goal –to fix the words in pupils' memory ready to be used whenever they need them.

P r e s e n t a t i o n of new w o r d s . Since every word has its form, meaning, and usage to present a word means to introduce to pupils its forms (phonetic, graphic, structural, and grammatical) and to explain its meaning, and usage.

The techniques of teaching pupils the pronunciation and spelling of a word are as follows: (1) pure or conscious imitation; (2) analogy; (3) transcription; (4) rules of reading.

Since a word consists of sounds if heard or spoken and letters if read or written the teacher shows the pupils how to pronounce, to read, and write it.

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[21] Morris T.A Teaching of English as a Second Language NY 1994., p 48

However the approach may vary depending on the task set (the latter depends on the age of pupils, their progress in the language, the type of words, etc.), For example, if the teacher wants his pupils to learn the word orally first, he instructs them to recognize it when hearing and to articulate the word as an isolated element *(a book)* and in a sentence pattern or sentence patterns alongside with other words. *(This is a book. Give me the book. Take the book. Put the book on the table,* etc.)

As far as the form is concerned the pupils have but two difficulties to overcome: to learn how to pronounce the word both separately and in speech; and to recognize it in sentence patterns pronounced by the teacher, by his classmates, or by a speaker in case the tape-recorder is used.

If the teacher wants his pupils to learn the word during the same lesson not only for hearing and speaking but for reading and writing as well, he shows them how to write and read it after they perform oral exercises and can recognize and pronounce the word. The teacher writes down the word on the blackboard (lei it be *spoon)* and invites some pupils to read it (they already know all the letters and the rule of reading oo). The pupils read the word and put it down in their notebooks. In this case the pupils have two more difficulties to overcome: to learn how to write and how to read the word;   the latter is connected with their ability to associate letters with sounds in a proper way[22].

Later when pupils have learned the English alphabet and acquired some skills in spelling and reading they may be told to copy the new words into their exercise-boob and read and write them independently; this work being done mainly as homework. The teacher then has his pupils perform various oral exercises during the lesson, he makes every pupil pronounce the new words in sentence patterns and use them in speech. Since this is the most difficult part of work in vocabulary assimilation it can and must be done during the lesson and under the teacher's supervision.

There are two ways of conveying the meaning of words: direct way and translation. The direct way of presenting the words of a foreign language brings the

[22] Балабайко М.С. Закрепление грамматического материала а помощью устных ситуативных упражнений. – «Иностранные языки в школе», М., 1966, ст 346

learner into direct contact with them, the mother tongue does not come in between, it establishes links between a foreign word and the thing or the concept directly. The direct way of conveying the meaning of foreign words is usually used when the words denote things, objects, their qualities, sometimes gestures and movements, which can be shown to and seen by pupils, for example: *a book, a table, red, big, take, stand up,* etc. The teacher should connect the English word he presents with the object, the notion it denotes directly, without the use of pupils' mother tongue.

The teacher uses various techniques for the purpose.

It is possible to group them into (1) visual and (2) verbal. The first group involves the use of visual aids to convey the meaning of unfamiliar words. These may be: objects, or pictures»showing objects or situations; besides, the teacher may use movements and gestures. E. g., the teacher uses objects. He takes a pencil and looking at it says: *a pencil. This* is *a pencil. What is this? It is a pencil. Is it a pencil? Yes, it is. Is it a pen?* (The word is familiar to the pupils.) *No, it is not. Is It a pen or a pencil? It Is a pencil.* The pupils do not only grasp the meaning of the word *pencil,* but they observe the use of the word in familiar sentence patterns.

One more example. The teacher uses pictures for presenting the words *small* and *big.* He says: *In this picture you can see two balls.* (The balls should differ only in size.) *This Is a small ball, and that is a big ball. This ball is small, and that ball is big. Now, Sasha, come up to the picture and point to the small ball (the big ball).*

Then the teacher shows another picture with two houses in it — a small house and a bid house, and he asks another pupil to point to the small house to the big house, and so on. The teacher may use gestures; for example, for conveying the meaning of stand up, sit down. Lena, stands up.

He shows with his hands what she must do. Lena, stands up. *Now, sit down.* Again with the movement of his hands he shows the girl what she has to do/ The other pupils .listen to the teacher and watch what Lena is doing. Then many pupils are invited to perform the actions.

The second group of techniques involves the utilization of verbal means for

conveying the meaning of unfamiliar words. These may be: context, synonyms, antonyms, definitions, word-building elements, etc. The context may serve as a key to convey the meaning of a new word.

T e a c h e r : It was hot. We had nothing to drink. We were *thirsty.* Do people need water or bread when they are thirsty?

Pupil (1):   They need water.

T e a c h e r : What do people need when they are thirsty?

Pupil (2):   They need water (or something to drink).

T e a c h e r : It was hot. We had nothing to drink. We were thirsty. Were we thirsty?

Pupil (3):   Yes, you were.

T e a c h e r :   Were we thirsty or hungry? (The pupils are familiar with the word *hungry.)*

Pupil (4): You were thirsty

T e a c h e r :   Why were we thirsty?

Pupil (5): You were thirsty because it was hot.

T e a c h e r :   Are you thirsty, Pete?

Pete: No, I am not.

T e a c her: Who is thirsty?

Ann: I am.

T e a c h e r :   What did she say, Mike?

Mike: She said she was thirsty.

There is no need to turn to the mother tongue as students can grasp the meaning of the word thirsty from the context. Besides, white presenting the new word a conversation takes place between the teacher and the class, so they have. practice in listening comprehension and speaking. The teacher may use a definition.

T e a c h e r :   The new word is *blind.* A blind person is one who cannot see. Can a blind person see?

Pupil (1): No, he can't.

Teacher: What can't a blind person do –see or hear?

Pupil (2): He can't see.

Teacher: He can't see because he is blind. Why can't he see?

Pupil (3): Because he blind.

Thus, through a definition students get acquainted with the word *blind* and have an opportunity to observe its usage: *a blind person, be blind.* The mother tongue has not been used.

Now some examples of the use of the word-building elements for conveying the meaning of words.

Teacher: You know the words: *worker, teacher* …. Now guess the meaning of the word *writer*. Write –writer. Name a writer you like, children.

Pupil (1): Tolstoy.

Pupil (2): Chekhov.

Pupil (3): Gorky.

Teacher: That's right. Is Sholokhov a writer?

Pupil (4): Yes, he is.

Teacher: Is Repin a writer?

Pupil (5): No, he is not.

Teacher: is Kataev a writer or a teacher?

Pupil (6): He is a writer.

The students are familiar with the word *teacher.* The new word is *teach.*

The teacher asks the students to form a verb by dropping the ending *-er;* this work may be done on the blackboard.

teacher — teach

 Teacher: Who teaches you English?

Pupil: You do.

T e a c h e r :   Who teaches you geography?

Pupil (2): Maria Ivanova does.

Teacher: Does M.V. teach you English or Russian?

Pupil (3): She teaches us Russian.

The teacher may also use synonyms to convey the meaning of a new word. For example, the word *town* may be presented through the familiar word *city, receive – get, reply –answer*, etc.

Teacher: You know the word city. Moscow is a city. What is Kiev or Minsk?

Pupil (1): Kiev is a city.

Pupil (2): Minsk is a city.

That's right. The new word is *town.* It is a synonym of city. Moscow is a city. Norilsk is not a city. Norilsk is a *town.* So a town is smaller than a city. Name a town you like.

Pupil (1): Zagorsk.

Pupil (2): Noginsk.

Teacher: That's right.

The pupils' answers to the teacher's questions testify to their comprehension of the word.

So there is no need to turn to the pupils' mother tongue.

3.2. Techniques of presenting the vocabulary items in English classes

It is difficult to cover all the techniques the teacher may have at his disposal to convey the meaning of new words directly without the help of the mother tongue. There are teachers, however, who' do not admit that pupils can understand what a new word means without translating it into the native tongue, and though they use some techniques of the direct method for conveying the meaning of new words, they immediately ask their pupils to say *what is the Russian for...?* Here are a few examples. Teacher N. presented the word *ball in* the fifth form. She had brought a ball. She showed the ball to the pupils and said: *This is a ball ... a ball. The ball* is *red and blue. What is the Russian for 'a ball', children? Who, can guess?* Of course everyone could. They cried: мячик. What is the use of bringing the ball if the teacher turns to the mother tongue? So instead of developing pupils' abilities and skills in establishing associations between the English word and the object it denotes, she emphasized the necessity for the use of the mother tongue in learning the word. Then she presented the word *football.* She used a picture in which i some boys were playing football. She said: *Look at the picture, children. You can see some boys in the picture. They are ' playing football. What is the Russian for 'football'? Who can guess?* The pupils were not enthusiastic to answer this question because they probably found it silly. (It does not mean, of course, that the teacher cannot turn to the mother tongue to check pupils' comprehension when he uses the direct method of conveying the meaning of some difficult words not like those mentioned above—when he is not sure that everyone has understood them properly.) Consequently, the direct method works well provided that the teacher is good at applying visual aids and using verbal means when he explains new words to the pupils. Moreover, he must do it vividly to arouse his pupils' interest in the work performed, and thus to provide optimum conditions for understanding the meaning of the words and their assimilation through the foreign language. Besides various accessories (objects, pictures, movements, gestures, facial expressions, etc.) should be widely used. If the teacher cannot work with visual aids and is not an actor to a certain extent (after all, every teacher ought to be something of an

actor), it is he, but not the method, who fails in conveying the meaning of new words[23].

The use of the direct way, however, is restricted. Whenever the teacher is to present words denoting abstract notions he must resort to the mother tongue, i. e. to translation.

The t r a n s l a t i o n may be applied in its two variants:

1.   Common (proper) translation:

to sleep — спать, flower —цветок, joy —радость

2.   Translation —interpretation:

to go —ехать, идти, лететь (движение от говорящего) to come —ехать, идти, лететь (движение к говорящему)

to drive — вести (что?) машину, поезд, автобус, трамвай

Education —воспитание, образование afternoon —время с 12 ч. дня до 6 ч. вечера in the afternoon —днем

The translation is efficient for presenting new words: it is economical from the point of view of time; it ensures the exact comprehension of the meaning of the words presented. As far as the stages of instruction are concerned, the ways of conveying the meaning of unfamiliar words should be used as follows:

visual presentation prevails In Junior forms;

verbal means prevail in intermediate and senior forms;

translation in all the forms; especially in senior forms.

From psychology it is known that the process of perception is a complicated one; it includes various sensations and, at the same time, is closely connected with thinking and speech, with pupils* attention, their will, memory, and emotions. The more active the pupils are during the explanation of new words the better the results that can be achieved.

The choice of ways and techniques is a very important factor as it influences pupils' assimilation of words.

And, finally, pupils are recommended to get to know new words

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[23] Балабайко М.С. Закрепление грамматического материала а помощью устных ситуативных упражнений. – «Иностранные языки в школе», М., 1966, ст 352

independently; they look them up in the word list or the dictionary. The teacher shows them how to consult first the vocabulary list at the end of the book, then the dictionary.

Once dictionaries have been brought into use the teacher should seldom explain a word, he should merely give examples of its use or use it (as if the class already knew it) in various speech patterns. This is the case at the senior level,

The choice of the way for conveying the meaning of a word depends on the following factors.

1. Psychological factors:

(1) pupils' age: the younger the pupils are the better is ' the chance for the use of the direct way;

(2) pupils' intelligence: the brighter the child   the more ' direct the way;

2. Pedagogical factors:

(1) the stage of teaching (junior, intermediate, senior);

(2) the size of the class; in overcrowded classes the translation is preferable because it is economical from the standpoint of time required for presentation, so more time is left for pupils to do exercises in using the word;

(3) the time allotted to learning the new words; when the teacher is pressed for time he turns to the translation;

(4) the qualifications of the teacher: the use of the direct way requires much skill on the part of the teacher.

The direct way is usually a success provided the teacher can skillfully apply audio-visual aids and verbal means.

3. Linguistic factors:

(1) abstract or concrete notions; for conveying the mean-ing, of abstract notions the translation is preferable;

(2) extent (range) of meaning in comparison with that of the Russian language; in cases where range of meaning of a word does not coincide in the mother tongue and in the target language, the translation-Interpret at ion should be used (e. g., education).

Whatever way of presenting a new word is used pupils should be able to pronounce the word correctly, listen to sentences with the word, and repeat the word after the teacher individually and in unison both as a single unit and in sentences. However this is only the first step in approaching the word. The assimilation Is gained through performing various exercises which allow the pupils to acquire lexical habits.

R e t e n t i o n o f w o r d s . To attain the desired end pupils must first of all perform various exercises to fix the words in their memory.

Constant use of a new word is the best way of learning it. For this purpose it is necessary to organize pupils' work in a way permitting them to approach the new words from many different sides, in many different ways, by means of many different forms of work. The teacher can ensure lasting retention of words for his pupils provided he relies upon pupils' sensory perception and thinking, upon their auditory, visual, and kinesthetic analysers so that pupils can easily recognize the words while hearing or reading, and use them while speaking or writing whenever they need. To use a word the pupil should, first, search for it in his memory, choose the very word he needs, and then insert the word in a sentence, i. e,, use It properly to express his thought. Thus correct usage of words means the correct choice and insertion of the words in speech[24].

For this reason two groups of exercises may be recommended for vocabulary assimilation:

Group I. Exercises designed for developing pupils' skills in choosing the proper word.

Group II. Exercises designed to form pupils' skills in using the word in sentences.

G r o u p I may include:

1.   Exercises in finding the necessary words among those suggested. For example:

—   Pick out the words (a) which denote school objects: (1) *a pen,* (2) *a*

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[24] *Жинкин НИ.* Механизмы речи. М., 1958, гл. VI., ст 142

cup, (3) *a blackboard,* (4) *a desk,* (5) *abed,* (6) *a picture,* (7) *a car* (pupil are expected to take (1), (3), (4), (6)) or (b) which denote size:

(1) *red, (2) big, (3) good, (4)small, (5) great,* (6) *green* (pupils should take (2), (4), (5)).

— Choose the right word:

The horse is a *(wild, domestic)* animal. They *(ate, drank)* some water. The *(sheep, fly)* is an insect. The *(rode, road)* leads to Minsk.

— Arrange the words in pairs of the same root: *usual, danger, development, usually, dangerous, develop* (pupils are expected to arrange the words *usual — usually, danger — dangerous...).*

2. Exercises in finding the necessary words among those stored up in the pupils' memory, For example:

—Name the object the teacher shows (the teacher shows pupils a book, they say *a book).*

—Give it a name: (1) we use it when it rains; (2) it makes our tea sweet; (3) we sleep in it (pupils are expected to say *an umbrella, sugar, a bed).*

—Fill in the blanks: *They saw a little ---- in the forest.*

The hut was ----.

—Say (or write) those words which (a) you need to speak about winter, (b) refer to sports and games.

—Say (or write) the opposites of: *remember, hot, day, get up, answer, fall, thick.*

—Name the words with a similar meaning to: *city, go, cold, reply* (pupils should name *town, walk, cool, answer).*

—Make a list of objects one can see in   the classroom.

—Say as many words as you can which denote size (colour or quality).

—Play a guessing game. The teacher, or one of the pupils, thinks of a word. Pupils try to guess the word by asking various questions: *Is it a ...? Is it big or small? Can we see it in the classroom?*

Conclusion

Having analysed the problems "Lexical meaning and connective meaning of the words in English and Uzbek" we have come to the following conclusion.

a). The definition of any basic term is not an easy task, the lexical meaning is very difficult due to the complexity of the process. Many scientists argued about this problem, one of them is F de Saussure. He considered that the meaning is the relation between the object or notion named, and the name itself. Descriptive linguistics of Bloofieldien trend defines the meaning as the situation which the word is uttered. Some of Bloomfield's successors wanted to exclude semasiology from linguistics on the ground that the meaning could not be studied objectively, was not part of language, but an aspect of the use to which language is put.

The main content of a word is expressed by the denotative meaning. It may be of two types: significative and identifying (demonstrative). We must always remember that the grammatical meaning is defined as an expression in speech relationship between words based on contrastive features of arrangements in which they occur.

The meaning of every word forms part of the semantic system of each particular language and thus is always determined by the peculiarites of its vocabulary, namely the existence of synonyms or words near in meaning, by the typical usage.

b) There some types of lexical meanings. They are concret and abstract, primary and secondary, general and particular meanings of a word.

For example, if we take the noun *screen* we can speak about its direct meaning when it names a movable, piece of furniture used to hide something or protect somebody as in the case of firescreen placed in front of a fireplace. The meaning is figurative when the word is applied to anything which protacts by hiding, as in *«smoke screen».* We define this meaning as figurative comparing it to the first that we called direct.

Again, why by *«a screen»* the speaker means a silvercoloured sheet on which pictures are shown, this meaning in comparison with the first one will be

secondary. When the same word is used attributively in such combinations as *«screen actor», «screen star», «screen version»,* it comes to mean *«pertaining to the cinema»,* and is abstract in comparison with the first meaning which is concrete. The main meaning is that which possesses the highest frequency at the present stage of development.

c) The development and change of the semantic structure of a word is always a sourse of qualitative and quantitative development of the vocabulary.

The difference in the meanings of this word is revealed in the different contexts in which the word realizes its different meanings.

The process reverse to specialization is termed generalization or widening of meaning. In that case the scope of the new notion is wider than of the original one, where as the content of the notion is poorer. In most cases generalization is combined with a higher order of abstraction than in the notion expressedby the earlier meaning. The transition from a concrete to an abstract one is the most frequest in the semantic history of a words.

This process went very far in the word *«thing»,* its original meaning *«cause»,* «object», *«decision», «meeting»* and *«the decision of the meeting», «That which was decided upon».* At present as a result of this process of generalization, the word can substitude nearly any noun and receive an almost pronominal force.

When we examine a word we see that its meaning though closely connected with the underlying concept or concepts is not identical with them. To begin with, concept is a category of human cognition. Concept is the thought of the object that singles out its essential features. Our concepts abstract and reflect the most common and typical features of the different objects and phenomena of the world. Being the result of abstraction and generalisation all "concepts are thus intrinsically 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 concepts may have different meanings and different semantic structures in different languages. The concept of 'a building for human habitation' is expressed in English by the word **house,** in Russian by the word *дом,* but the meaning of the English word is not

identical with that of the Russian as **house** does not possess the meaning of 'fixed residence of family or household' which is one of the meanings of the Russian word *дом*; it is expressed by another English polysemantic word, namely **home** which possesses a number of other meanings not to be found in the Russian word *дом*.

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

The precise definition of the content of a concept comes within the sphere of logic but it can be easily observed that the word-meaning is not identical with it. For instance, the content of the concept **six** can be expressed by 'three plus three', 'five plus one', or 'ten minus four', etc. Obviously, the meaning of the word **six** cannot be identified with the meaning of these word-groups.

To distinguish meaning from the referent, i.e. from the thing denoted by the linguistic sign is of the utmost importance, and at first sight does not seem to present difficulties. To begin with, meaning is linguistic whereas the denoted object or the referent is beyond the scope of language. We can denote one and the same object by more than one word of a different meaning. For instance, in a speech situation an apple can be denoted **by the** words **apple, fruit, something, this,** etc. as all of these words may have the same referent. Meaning cannot be equated with the actual properties of the referent, e.g. the meaning of the word **water** cannot be regarded as identical with its chemical formula H_2O as **water** means essentially the same to all English speakers including those who have no idea of its chemical composition. Last but not least there are words that have distinct meaning but do not refer to any existing thing, e.g. **angel** or **phoenix.** Such words have meaning which is understood by the speaker-hearer, but the objects they denote do not exist.

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