Міністерство освіти і науки України

Національний університет біоресурсів і природокористування

Педагогічний факультет імені професора Віктора Сидоренка

Кафедра романо-германських мов і перекладу

КУРС ЛЕКЦІЙ З «ПОРІВНЯЛЬНОЇ ЛЕКСИКОЛОГІЇ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ ТА УКРАЇНСЬКОЇ МОВ»

Навчально-методичний посібник

Київ – 2014

Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine
National University of Life and Environmental Sciences

Faculty of Education named after Victor Sydorenko

Department of Romance and Germanic Languages and Translation

LECTURES ON COMPARATIVE LEXICOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN LANGUAGES

Textbook

Kiev - 2014

УДК 811.111:81’373

Рекомендовано до друку вченою радою природничо-гуманітарного ННІ
Протокол №11 від 26.06.2014 р.

К93
Курс лекцій Порівняльної лексикології англійської та української мов : Навчально-методичний посібник / Уклад. Жорнокуй У. В. – Київ: НУБіП, 2014 – 140 с.

Укладач: канд. філ. н., асистент Жорнокуй У. В.

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Навчально-методичний посібник розрахований для студентів ІІІ курсу філологічних відділень при підготовці до семінарських занять з «Лексикології англійської мови», а також для самостійної та індивідуальної роботи, при підготовці до семестрових та контрольних форм перевірки знань.

Вибір лекційних тем мотивований типовою програмою курсу «Лексикології англійської мови» і цілком відповідає її вимогам.

Видання здійснено за авторським редагуванням

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INTRODUCTION

The book is intended for English language students at Pedagogical Universities taking the course of English lexicology and fully meets the requirements of the programme in the subject. It may also be of interest to all readers, whose command of English is sufficient to enable them to read texts of average difficulty and who would like to gain some information about the vocabulary resources of Modern English (for example, about synonyms and antonyms), about the stylistic peculiarities of English vocabulary, about the complex nature of the word's meaning and the modern methods of its investigation, about English idioms, about those changes that English vocabulary underwent in its historical development and about some other aspects of English lexicology. One can hardly acquire a perfect command of English without having knowledge of all these things, for a perfect command of a language implies the conscious approach to the language's resources and at least a partial understanding of the “inner mechanism” which makes the huge language system work.

In this book the reader will find the fundamentals of the word theory and of the main problems associated with English vocabulary, its characteristics and subdivisions.

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

Lecture 1

(Part 1)

LEXICOLOGY AS A BRANCH OF LINGUISTICS

1. **Definition of the Term. Aims and Types of Lexicology.**
2. **The Relation of Lexicology with Other Linguistic Sciences.**
3. **Characteristic of the Word as a Basic Unit of the Language.**

The term Lexicology is composed of two Greek morphemes (from Gr. *lexis* – word and *logos* – learning). **Lexicology** is a linguistic science which studies the word, its morphemic structure, history and meaning. The word is the basic unit of a language, it is an association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment. A word, therefore, is simultaneously a semantic, grammatical and phonological unit.

For example, a group of sounds "*boy"* is associated with the meaning *"a male child to the age of 17 or 18"* (it may be associated with some other meaning, but this is the most frequent) and with the definite grammatical employment, i.e. it is a noun and has a plural form – *boys,* it has the Genitive form *"boy's" (the boy's mother)* and it may be used in certain syntactical functions (*"Oh, boy, do you remember me?").*

Lexicology as a branch of linguistics has its own **aims and methods** of scientific research, its basic tasks are to study, describe and systematize vocabulary in respect to its origin, development and current use.

So, to be more exact, lexicology studies words, word-forming morphemes and word groups, which form vocabulary of a particular language.

Vocabulary – a system, formed by all the words and word equivalents (phraseological units).

The term system as used in present-day Lexicology denotes a set of elements associated and functioning together according to certain laws. The lexical system of every speech contains productive elements typical of this particular period, others that are archaic and are dropping out of usage, and, finally, some new phenomena,

neologisms. The elements of lexical system are characterized by their combinatorial and contrastive properties determining their syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships.

Syntagmatic (combinatorial) relations define the meaning of the word when it is used in combination with other words in the flow of speech. E.g., compare the meaning of the verb *"to get"* in the sentences:

He got a letter.

He got tired.

He got to London.

He could not get the piano through the door.

Paradigmatic (contrastive) relations exist between words belonging to one subgroup of vocabulary items (e.g., verbs of motion, of sense perception, sets of synonyms, etc.) that can occur in the same context and be contrasted to one another. Paradigmatic relations are observed in the system of language.

e.g. *to go a mile*

run

walk

stroll

There are two principal approaches in linguistic science to the study of language material, namely the synchronic *(Gr.* syn – "together, with" and chronos – "time") and the diachronic *(Gr.* dia – "through") approach. The synchronic approach is concerned with the vocabulary of a language as it exists at a given time, for instance, at the present time. While the diachronic approach deals with the changes and the development of vocabulary in the course of time: the origin of English vocabulary units, their change and development, the linguistic and extralinguistic factors modifying their structure, meaning and usage within the history of the English language.

Consequently, there are two types of Lexicology – Historical and Descriptive.

Historical Lexicology discusses the origin of various words, their change and development, the linguistic and extra linguistic forces modifying their structure,

meaning and usage.

Descriptive Lexicology deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development. It studies the functions of words and their specific structure.

The general study of vocabulary, irrespective of the specific features of any particular language, is called **General Lexicology**. **Special Lexicology** devotes its attention to the description of the characteristic features of a given language. However, it goes without saying that every Special Lexicology is based on the principles of general lexicology (development of the vocabulary by way of word-building, semantic change and borrowing from other languages; categories of synonyms, antonyms, archaisms, neologisms, etc.).

Vocabulary studies include such aspects of research as etymology, semasiology and onomasiology.

Etymology is the branch of linguistics that studies the origin of the word.

Semasiology is the branch of linguistics which studies word meaning and its changes.

Onomasiology is the study of the principles and regularities of the signification of things and notions by words of a given language.

2. As a linguistic science, lexicology is inseparably interlinked with other branches of linguistics. Furthermore, as it was mentioned above, every word presents a unity of semantic, phonetic and grammatical elements, that's why it is closely connected with Phonetics, Grammar, Stylistics etc.

Lexicology and Phonetics

Words consist of phonemes which have no meaning of their own, but forming morphemes they serve to distinguish between meanings. The meaning of words is conditioned by several phonological features, such as:

1.1. qualitative and quantitative character of the phonemes:

e.g. *dog – dock, rob – robe, pot – port*

1.2. fixed sequence of phonemes:

e.g. *dog – god. pot – top, name – mane – mean, nest – sent – tens*

1.3. the position of stress:

e.g. *'object, n. – ob'ject, v.; 'present, adj. – pre'sent, v.: 'black 'board – 'blackboard.*

Lexicology and Grammar

Interaction between vocabulary and grammar is evident both in the sphere of morphology and in syntax.

Plural forms, for example, can serve to form special lexical meaning, e.g. *advice (counsel) – advices (information), damage (injury) – damages (compensation), arm (human upper limb) – arms (weapon).*

Sometimes, when two kinds of pluralisation have produced two plurals of word, different uses and meanings have resulted.

e.g. *brother – brothers, brethren; cloth – cloths, clothes; fish. – fish, fishes; penny – pennies, pence*

Lexicalisation of numeric meaning is rather common.

e.g. *ice-cream – two ice-creams, Picasso –two Picassos, two – a two*

Some prefixes make intransitive verbs transitive:

e.g. *shine – outshine*

run – outrun

little – belittle

Interactions between vocabulary and grammar have their own peculiarities in syntax. Lexical meaning of the word depends on its environment.

e.g. *He ran quickly. – He ran the factory with efficiency.*

He breathed freely. – He breathed a new life into our activities.

Instances are not few when the syntactic position of the word does not only change its function but its lexical meaning as well:

e.g. *library school – school library town market — market town*

It may happen that the same verb changes its meaning when used with persons and with names of objects:

e.g. *The new girl gave him a strange smile. (She smiled at him)*

The new teeth gave him a strange smile. (He looked strange)

Lexicology and Stylistics

Lexicology is also connected with stylistics since it deals with stylistic grouping and colouring of words (literary, colloquial, slang, etc.), which is the object of special study of stylistics.

Lexicology is closely connected with **sociolinguistics**. It is the branch of linguistics, dealing with relations between the way the language works and develops, on the one hand, and the facts of social life, on the other hand. Language is the reality of thought, and thought develops with the development of society. Every new phenomenon in human society finds a reflection in vocabulary, e.g., *computer*, *cyclotron, psycholinguistics.*

3. Words are the central elements of language system. They are the biggest units of morphology and the smallest units of syntax and at the same time it is the main object of lexicological study.

Morphemes are also meaningful units but they can not be used independently, they are always parts of words whereas words can be used as a complete utterance (e.g., *Listen*!).

The definition of a word is one of the most difficult in linguistics because the word functions on the different levels of language. That's why the word has been defined semantically, syntactically, phonologically and by combining various approaches.

L. Bloomfield defines the word as the minimal independent unit of utterance. In this way, the word is differentiated from morphemes, on one hand, and from phrases, on the other.

E. Sapir defines the word as the smallest bit of isolated meaning, into which the sentence may be split. He takes into consideration the syntactic and semantic aspects. He also underlines one more important characteristic of the word: its indivisibility.

The word is a unity of a given group of sounds (sometimes one sound, e.g. “I”). with a given meaning in a given grammatical form. Thus every word has its outer aspect (phonetic and grammatical form) and its inner semantic aspect – meaning. It is through this meaning that a word refers to a certain element of the objective reality (extra-linguistic reality) and serves as the name (sign) of that element. As a result most linguists underline the organic relationship between language and thought.

The relationship between the word, the concept and the world of things is represented in die semantic triangle worked out by C. K. Ogden and I. A. Richards in their book “The Meaning of sound-form”. Judging from this scheme we may define the word as the basic linguistic unit which refers to (denotes) an object of reality and reflects (signifies) its concept in the speaker’s and listener’s mind. It is clear that the scheme is simplified, for the word also comprises the form (phonetical and grammatical) and meaning.

Many eminent scholars of the former USSR, such as V. V. Vinogradov, A. I. Smirnitsky, O. S. Akhmanova, M. D. Stepanova, A. A. Ufimtseva, greatly contributed to creating a word theory based upon the materialistic understanding of the relationship between word and thought, on the one hand, and language and society, on the other. The main points may be summarized in the following definition.

So, a word is the smallest unit of a given language capable of functioning alone and characterized by positional mobility within a sentence, morphological indivisibility and semantic integrity. All these criteria are necessary because they create a basis for the oppositions between the word and the phrase, the word and the phoneme and the morpheme; their common feature is that they are all units of the language, their difference lies in the fact that the phoneme is not significant, and a morpheme cannot be used as a complete utterance.

Questions for Self-Control

1. What are the main characteristics of native words?

2. What is the classification of loan words according to the degree of assimilation?

3. What are translation loans? What are the main sources of translation loans?

4. What criteria of borrowings do you know?

5. What are etymological doublets?

Lecture 1

(Part 2)

ETYMOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF MODERN ENGLISH VOCABULARY

1. The Definition of Etymology. Its Fundamentals.

2. Words of Native Origin and Their Characteristics.

3. Assimilation of Borrowings.

4. Causes and Ways of Borrowings.

5. Foreign Elements in Modern English:

a) Celtic Borrowings;

b) Greek Borrowings;

c) Latin Borrowings;

d) Scandinavian Borrowings;

e) French Borrowings;

f) German Borrowings;

g) Borrowings from Other Languages.

6. Etymological Doublets and International Words.

1. The important task of lexicology is the study of the origin, of words making up the vocabulary of a language. The branch of lexicology which studies the origin of words and their genetic ties with words in the same and other languages is called **etymology**.

The vocabulary of Modern English (MnE) is extremely heterogeneous from the etymological point of view. It can be subdivided into two main parts – the native stock of words, which is the historical basis of the English vocabulary, and the borrowed strata (up to 70%).

A native word is a word which belongs to the original English stock of the old English period (up to 7th cent.). The term is often applied to words the origin of which cannot be traced to any other language.

A borrowed word (or borrowing) is a word taken from another language and modified in phonetic shape, spelling and meaning according to the standards of the English language. Not only words but also word-building affixes were borrowed into English. Loans changed in their sound form, spelling, paradigm and meaning according to the standards of English.

Translation loans or calques are words and expressions formed by the material available in the language, but under the influence of some foreign words and expressions.

e.g. *mother-tongue* (from Lat. *lingua materna*),

wall newspaper (from Russian)

by heart (from Fr. *par coeur*).

Most of the given words are international in character, e.g., *Sword of Damocles* – дамоклів меч, *Heel of Achilles* – ахіллесова п'ята.

Semantic borrowing is the appearance in an English word of a new meaning due to the influence of a related word in another language.

E.g., the word *pioneer* meant "explorer", now it means "a member of the Young Pioneers' Organization".

2. Despite the great number of borrowed words native words are still at the core of the language. The native word-stock in MnE incorporates words which were brought to Britain in the 5th century by the German tribes and it was not quite homogenous etymologically. Most native words are short, often monosyllabic. Those, which are not, for the most part have stress on the first syllable, e.g. *father, brother, winter.* It consisted of Common Indo-European (e.g. *father, mother, tree, moon, star, wind, I, who, one, two, etc.)* and Common Germanic words (e.g. *summer, winter, life, ice, house, room, etc.).*

The native element stock includes:

- everyday objects: *food, meat, milk, water;*
- natural phenomena: *land, sun, moon, summer, wind;*
- common actions: *see, go, come, sit, stand, love, hunt;*

- common qualities: *long, short, warm, hard, quick, red, white;*
- terms of kinship: *father, son, daughter, brother;*
- names of common animals and birds: *bull, cat, goose, wolf;*
- parts of the human body: *arm, ear, foot, heart;*
- modal and auxiliary verbs;
- pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions;
- numerals.

Peculiarities of the words belonging to the native elements are:

- Great stability;
- Vital importance;
- Plurality of meaning ("head");
- Great word-building power (the stem "head" can be found in the following derived and compound words: *headache, headed, header, heading, headless, headline, headquarters, headmaster, headstrong, level-headed*);
- Great combinative power in phraseology (e.g. *above someone's head, an old head on young shoulders, to talk one's head off have one's head in the clouds, bury one's head in the sand, head over heels*).
- Words of the native stock are stylistically neutral

3. Lexical borrowings, however numerous, do not radically change the structure of the borrowing language. Rather, the borrowed words, themselves change in accordance with the structural peculiarities of the language they are brought into. Thus through phonetic, spelling and morphological changes borrowed words become similar to native words, in other words are assimilated.

e.g. *portus (Lat.) – port*

exaggerare (Fr.) – exaggerate

Oral borrowings are assimilated more completely and more rapidly than literary borrowings.

Assimilation – the process of changing of the adopted word.

Phonetical assimilation includes changes in the sounds, form, stress of the loan words (*e.g. waltz (German), psychology (Greek), cafe (French)).*

Grammatical assimilation comprises the change of grammatical categories and paradigms by analogy of other English words.

e.g. *sputniks, vacuum – vacua/vacuums (Latin)*

Lexical assimilation involves the changes in the semantic structure of loan words and the formation of derivatives from loan words (e.g. *cargo – load*).

According to the degree of the assimilation loan words are divided into:

1) Completely assimilated loan words are found in all layers of old borrowings. e.g. *cheese, street, wall, husband, gate, root, call, die, ill, wrong, chair, face, animal, article, sport, act.*

The number of completely assimilated loan words is many times greater than the number of partly assimilated ones.

They follow all morphological, phonetical and orthographic standards. Being very frequent and stylistically neutral, they may occur as dominant words in synonymic groups. They are active in word-formation. Moreover, their morphological structure and motivation remain transparent, so that they are morphologically analyzable and supply the English vocabulary not only with free forms but also with bound forms, as suffixes and prefixes are easily perceived and separated in loan words that contain them. Such are, for instance, the French suffixes '-age', '-ance'.

2) Partially assimilated loan words can be subdivided into three subgroups:

- Loan words, which are partially assimilated semantically, denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from which they come. They may denote foreign clothing (e.g. *mantilla, sombrero, kimono),* foreign titles and professions (e.g. *shah, radjah, sheik),* foreign food and drink (e.g. *sherbet, kvas, vodka)*, units of foreign currency (e.g. *krone, shekel, hryvna).*
- Loan words, which are partially assimilated grammatically, usually borrowed from Latin or Greek, keep their original plural form.

e.g. *bacillus – bacilli, datum – data, criterion – criteria*

- Loan words, which are partially assimilated phonetically or graphically, preserve some phonetical or graphical peculiarities of the language from which they are borrowed.

e.g. *machine, police chemistry*

3) Unassimilated words or barbarisms (Lat. "*barbarus"* – "strange, foreign") – words from other languages used by English people in conversation or in writing but not assimilated in any way. Very often they have corresponding English equivalents.

e.g. *amour propre (self-esteem), chic (stylish), belles letters (fiction), homo sapience (the human race), terra incognita (unknown territory: an unexplored country or field of knowledge), vox populi (voice of people), vis-a-vis (literally, face to face; in relation to)*

Very often barbarisms represent the words of famous people (real and fictional) that are taken without any changes from the language of the original.

e.g. *Eureka (Greek) – I have found (an exclamation attributed to Archimedes on discovering a method for determining the purity of gold).*

Veni, vidi, vici. (Latin) – I came, I saw, I conquered (Julius Caesar's report of his victory in 47 B.C.)

4. The great number of borrowings in English is due to the linguistic and extralinguistic causes.

Extra-linguistic causes of borrowings are political, economic and cultural relationship between nations. English history contains innumerable occasions for all types of such contacts. The Roman invasion, the introduction of Christianity, the Danish and Norman conquests, the development of British colonialism and imperialism caused important changes in the vocabulary. The number and character of borrowed words tell us of the relations between the peoples, the level of their culture, etc.

Purely **linguistic** causes for borrowings are still open to investigation. Some of them are: need of new words for new phenomena, need of naming peculiar

phenomena of other countries, a tendency to accurate speech, emotional expressiveness, need of expressing some shades of meaning, etc.

Borrowings enter the language in two ways: through oral linguistic intercourse and through written speech (by indirect contact through books, etc.). As a result, Up to 70% of the English vocabulary is borrowings.

The term **"source of borrowing"** is applied to the language from which the loan word was taken. It should be distinguished from the term **"origin of borrowing"** which refers to the language to which the word may be traced. Thus, the word *pape*r < Fr. papier < Lat. papyrus < Gr. papyros has French as its source of borrowing and Greek as its origin.

5. As a matter of fact, three languages contributed a great number of words to the English word-stock, they are: Greek, Latin and French. Together they account for much greater number of borrowings than all other languages

Celtic Borrowings

When in the 5th century the Anglo-Saxon tribes came to Britain they got in contact with the native Celtic population (which for about 4 centuries had been under the Roman rule). The language of the Celts did not influence Anglo-Saxon to any serious extent. To these words belong the following: *bin* – a chest for com, *brat* – a child, *down* – a hill, *dun* – grayish-brown colour, *hog* – a domestic swine.

Some of Celtic words became international, e.g. *whisky, plaid, cian.*

Celtic geographical names are common in all parts of Britain, especially in Scotland and Ireland. The Celtic *avon* (river) appears in the names of streams not only in England, but also in France and Italy.

Greek Borrowings

Many Greek words introduced into English came in chiefly through the medium of Latin. They were spelt and pronounced not as in Greek but as the Romans spelt and pronounced them. They were further assimilated in English.

An influx of Greek words on a large scale did not begin until the time of Renaissance. These are mostly bookish borrowings which came as terms for various fields of science. It is interesting to note that modem scientific and technical terms of Greek origin are nearly all of international currency.

e.g.*antonym, dialect, etymology, homonym, synonym; poet, rhythm, tragedy; category; psychoanalysis.*

Quite a number of proper names are also Greek in origin. For example, Alexander (alexein – defender + aner – man: defender of people), Pamela (pan – everything, + meli – honey), Peter (petra – rock).

Greek possesses an unlimited power of forming compound words and it has a complete and regular system of combining forms by means of which derivatives can be produced from any verb or noun.

e.g. *autos (self) in autograph, autobiography, autocracy*

ge/geo (earth) in geography, geopolitics, geology, geomagnetic

homo (the same) in homograph, homogeneous, homosexual

tele (at a distance) in telegraph, telephone, television, telemarketing

Latin Borrowings

1) Early Latin loans.

The Germanic people, of which the Angles and Saxons formed part, had been in contact with Roman civilization and had adopted many Latin words denoting objects of this civilization long before the invasion of Angles, Saxons and Jutes into Britain.

e.g. *pound (Lat. pondo), wine (Lat. vinum), candle (Lat. candela), cup (Lat. cuppa), dish (Lat. discus), kettle (Lat. catellus), pepper (Lat. pipere).*

Most of these words were borrowed orally and that's why they were fully assimilated, functioning according to the laws of English, and without an etymological dictionary it is difficult to trace their origin.

2) Later Latin loans.

The second great stratum of Latin borrowings came into English in the 6-7

centuries when the people of England were converted to Christianity.

e.g. *to offer – to sacrifice*

rule – a set of rules for a monastery

3) Another great influx of Latin words came through French after the Norman Conquest. It is the third stratum of Latin borrowings. This period continued to the Renaissance. The loan words of this period are mainly of scientific character and were borrowed through writing. Among them there are terms of philosophy, mathematics and physics.

e.g. *diameter, radius, vacuum, equator, continental, peninsula.*

Also Latin abbreviations were borrowed during the third period. A great many of them usually suggest English equivalents. For example, *"i.e."* stands for *"id est"* which means *"simply", "that is"* or *"which is to say". "E.g."* is an abbreviation of *"exempli gratia"*, which means *"for example' or 'for instance".*

Some of these Latin borrowings were partially assimilated grammatically. They have preserved their original plural inflexion.

e.g. *phenomenon – phenomena, alumnus – alumni, bacterium – bacteria*

Other borrowings of this period have two plural forms – the native and Latin.

e.g. *antenna – antennae/antennas; aquarium – aquaria/aquariums, crematorium – crematoria/crematoriums*

Some Latin borrowings were not assimilated and function as barbarisms.

e.g. *alma mater – a school or university from which one has graduated*

alter ego – a second self/a trusted friend terra

4) The latest stratum of loans from Latin began in the 16th century and continues up till now. The borrowings of this period include abstract and scientific words.

Scandinavian Borrowings

The Scandinavian (Danish) invasion of England began in the 8 century when the Danes occupied the northern regions. In 878 the English King Alfred the Great was obliged to recognize Danish rule over a territory covering two-thirds of modem

England. In 1017 the whole of England was conquered and the Danes reigned over it up to 1042. The effect of the Danish conquest was a contribution of many Scandinavian words to the English vocabulary.

e.g. *crop, cake, egg, law, sky, skirt, ill, low, old, wrong, ugly, die, drown, guess, give, take, scream, want,* pronouns *they, them, both, same* and the preposition *till.*

The similarity between English and Scandinavian words was so great that many of them differed from one another only in endings.

In distinguishing Scandinavian borrowings we may sometimes apply the criterion of sound, such as [sk] sound in Scandinavian words (e.g. *skull, bask, scare, scream)* regularly changed to [S] in native English words (e.g. *shape, share, shout, shriek).*

French Borrowings

Most lexicologists distinguish two periods of French influence:

- early loans (borrowed before 1250);
- later loans (borrowed after this date).

The battle of Hastings fought on the 14th of October 1066 resulted in the defeat of the Anglo-Saxon Army and the victory of the Normans. The immediate result of the Conquest was that all the important places in the government, at court and in the church were filled by French-speaking Normans. But, however, nearly 150 years the two languages – Anglo-Saxon and Norman-French – coexisted without mingling; French was the language of the government and the aristocracy while English was reduced almost to the condition of a peasant's dialect.

e.g. *authority, crown, minister, state, duke, prince, army, battle, combat, defence, guard, peace, danger, escape, court, crime, judge, jury, abbey, altar, clergy, pray, preach, religion*

German borrowings

Most German borrowings are terms. The oldest and constant influence of

German language is in the sphere of mineralogy and geology (e.g. *bismuth, cobalt, nickel, quartz, shale, zink).*

Among German borrowings we also find words of everyday use.

e.g. *kindergarten, poodle, plunder, rucksack, swindler, schnapps, schnitzel, sauerkraut, waltz* .

Borrowings from other languages

The English vocabulary borrowed words from almost all the languages of the world.

Italian borrowings: *balcony, colonnade, cameo, granite, volcano, basso, trombone, violin, umbrella;*

Spanish*: embargo, bravado, hammock, hurricane;*

Portuguese: *banana, verandah, cobra;*

Dutch: *reef deck, skipper, yacht;*

Arabic: *algebra, albatross, elixir;*

Indian: *bungalow, jungle, shampoo*

Chinese: *tea, bonze, kaolin;*

Japanese: *geisha, kimono, mikado, samurai, bushido.*

6. Etymological doublets are two or more words of the same language which were derived from the same basic word. They differ in form, meaning and current usage.

Thus, the Latin word *"discus"'* was borrowed in the Old English period to form the Modem English word '*dish'.* It was thoroughly assimilated both morphologically, phonetically and lexically.

Later on the word was borrowed again to form the Modem English word *"disk"*. This time the assimilation was less complete. The word lost the ending *"-us"* and developed plurality of meaning. *"Disk"* may have the following meanings: a) thin circular plate (e.g. *coin),* b) round flat surface, c) round flattened part in body, plant, etc.

Finally, still later on, the word was borrowed again to form the word *"discus"* – a special term in sport (a disk that is hurled for distance as a track-and-field event). This time it attained the lowest degree of assimilation; it has a rather limited sphere of usage (a sports term).

Etymological doublets have some semantic common component due to their common etymology.

e.g. *legal – loyal* (from Lat *"lex"* – law)

thesaurus – treasure (from Gr. *'the sauro"* – treasure, collection)

cattle – chattel – capital

fancy – fantasy – phantasy

momentum – moment – movement Four variants may also occur.

ward – wary – ware – aware (from Old English "weard" – act of watching)

The main groups of etymological doublets are: Scandinavian-English, Latin-French, and native. Some etymological doublets developed from different dialects of English.

e.g. *shade — shadow*

lake – loch

Etymological doublets may be a result of shortening, e.g. *defence – fence*, *history – story*.

The following are the pairs of synonymous doublets:

balm – balsam; gaol –jail; renew – renovate; screech – scream

International words are words of identical origin occurring in several languages, which denote identical concepts and are similar in sound complex.

International words may refer to different fields of life and human activities but they mostly express scientific, cultural, technical and political concepts.

e.g. *physics, formula, dynamo, tuberculosis, logarithm, class, constitution*

The bulk of international words in English are borrowed from Latin and Greek or made up from Greek and Latin elements.

Questions for Self-Control

1. What are the main characteristics of native words?
2. What is the classification of loan words according to the degree of assimilation?
3. What are translation loans? What are the main sources of translation loans?
4. What criteria of borrowings do you know?
5. What are etymological doublets?
6. What are the international words?

Problem question: What is the stylistic function of barbarisms? What can you say about the peculiarities of this phenomenon in Ukrainian?

Practical Tasks

Exercise 1. Explain the origin of the following words: *father, brother, mother, dog, cat, sheep, wolf, house, life, earth, man, apple, live, go, give, begin, strong, long, wide, to, for, from, and, with, I, he, two, well, much, little.*

Exercise 2. Analyse the following words from the point of view of the type and degree of assimilation. State which words are: a) completely assimilated; b) partially assimilated; c) non-assimilated:

prima-donna, ox, caftan, city, school, etc., mazurka, table, street, they, century, sky, wall, stimulus, reduce, cup, present.

Exercise 3. Comment on the different formation of the doublets and on the difference in meaning, if any:

balm – balsam, suit – suite, senior – sir, legal – loyal, skirt – shirt, emerald – smaragdus, major – mayor, pauper – poor, of – off, history – story, catch – chase.

Lecture 2

WORD-FORMATION IN MODERN ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN

1. **Morpheme and Types of Morphemes.**
2. **Principles of Morphemic Analysis.**
3. **Productive Means of Word-Formation:**
    a) Affixation;
    b) Composition;
    c) Semi-Affixation;
    d) Conversion;
    e) Substantivation.
4. **Secondary Means of Word-Formation:**
    a) Shortening;
    b) Abbreviation;
    c) Back-Formation;
    d) Blending (or Telescoping);
    e) Sound interchange ;
    f) Change of stress;
    g) Sound Imitation, or Onomatopoeia;
    h) Reduplication.

1. The morphemic structure of the word undergoes various changes in the course of time. Changes m the phonetic and semantic structure and in the stress pattern may bring about a number of changes in the morphemic structure. Certain morphemes may become fused together or may be lost altogether. As a mull of this process, known as the process of simplification, radical changes in the structure of the word may take place: root-morphemes may turn into affixational or semi-affixational morphemes; polymorphic words may become monomorphic; compound words may be transformed into derived or even simple words.

We distinguish a **word** as an autonomous unit of language in which a

particular meaning is associated with a particular sound complex from the other fundamental language units, namely, the morpheme.

A morpheme is also an association of a given meaning with a given sound pattern. But unlike a word it is not autonomous. Morphemes occur in speech only as constituent parts of word, not independently, although a word may consist of a single morpheme. Morphemes are not divisible into smaller meaningful units. That is why the morpheme may be defined as the minimum meaningful language unit. The term *"morpheme"* is derived from Greek *'morphe'* – form, and *'erne'* – the smallest significant unit.

Allomorphs are positional variants of the same morpheme. For example, *'-ion/-sion/-tion/-ation'* are positional variants of the same suffix. They do not differ in meaning or function but show a slight difference in sound form depending on the final phoneme of the preceding stem. Other examples of allomorphic suffixes are *'-able/-ible', '-er/-or', '-ant/-ent', '-ence/-ance'.*

Allomorphs also occur among prefixes. Their form then depends on the initials of the stem with which they will assimilate. The prefix *'-in'* has the following allomorphs: *'-im'* before bilabials (impossible), *'-ir'* before *'r'* (irregular), *'-il'* before *'l'* (illegal). It is *'-in'* before all other consonant and vowels (insecure).

The root-morphemes may also have allomorphs.

e.g. *Duke, ducal, duchess, duchy*

pleasure, please, pleasant

Morphemes can be classified:

a) from the semantic point of view;

b) from structural point of view.

Semantically morphemes fall into two classes: root-morphemes and non-root, or affixational morphemes. Roots and affixes make two distinctive classes of morphemes due to the different role they play in word structure.

The **root-morphemes** are understood as the lexical centers of the words, as the basic constituent part of a word without which the word is inconceivable. The root-morpheme is the lexical nucleus of a word, it has an individual lexical meaning. The

root-morpheme is isolated as the morpheme common to a set of words making up a word family.

e.g. *teacher, teaching, teachable, unteachable*

Non-root morphemes include inflectional morphemes or inflections and affixational morphemes or affixes**. Inflections** carry only grammatical meaning and thus are relevant only for the formation of word-forms. **Affixes** are relevant for building various types of stems.

Affixes are classified into prefixes and suffixes, a **prefix** precedes the root-morpheme while a **suffix** follows it. Affixes, besides the meaning proper to root-morphemes, possess the part-of-speech meaning and a generalized lexical meaning.

Structurally, morphemes fall into three types: free morphemes, bound morphemes, semi-free (semi-bound) morphemes.

A free morpheme is defined as the one which coincides with a word form.

A bound morpheme occurs only as a constituent part of a word. Affixes are naturally bound morphemes, for they always make part of a word.

Semi-bound (or semi-free) morphemes are morphemes that can function in a morphemic sequence both as an affix and as a free morpheme.

e.g. *half-eaten, to outrun, overcrowded*

Affixes should not be confused with combining forms. **A combining form** is also a bound form but it can be distinguished from an affix historically by the fact that it is always borrowed from another language, mostly from Latin or Greek, in which it existed as a free form. For example, in the words '*telephone', 'telegraph', 'telescope',* the morphemes *'tele', 'graph', 'scope', 'phone'* are characterized by a definite lexical meaning and peculiar stylistic reference.

According to their morphological structure English words can be divided into the following basic types:

Simple words, or root-words are morphologically indivisible

e.g. *table, rain, to run, cold*

Derived words, which consist of one root and one or more derivational affixes

e.g. *joyful, irresistible*

Compound words, which consist of two or more stems

e.g. *blackboard, daylight*

Compound-derivatives

e.g. *honeymooner*

2. Morphemic analysis is the operation of breaking a segmentable word into the constituent morphemes. We distinguish three types of morphemic segmentability: complete, conditional and defective.

Complete segmantability is characteristic of a great many words the morphemic structure of which is transparent enough, as their individual morphemes clearly stand out. The transparency is explained by the fact that its constituent morphemes recur with the same meaning in a number of other words.

e.g. *boiling, boiler, boil*

teacher, painter, speaker

Conditional morphemic segmentability characterizes words whose segmentation into constituent morphemes is doubtful for semantic reasons.

e.g. *retain-contain-detain* or *resist-consist-desist* BUT *rewrite, reorganize; deorganise, decode etc.*

The morphemes making up words of conditional segmentability differ from morphemes making up words of complete segmantabilitry. That is why a special term is applied to them in linguistic literature such morphemes are called **pseudo-morphemes** or **quasi-morphemes**.

Defective morphemic segmentability is the property of words whose component morphemes seldom or never occur in other words. One of the component morphemes is a unique morpheme in the sense that it does not, as a rule, recur in different linguistic environment.

3. a) Affixation is generally defined as the formation of words by adding derivational affixes to stems.

Derived words may have different degree of derivation. Words are said to have

a zero degree of derivation if their stem is homonymous with a root morpheme, i.e. in simple words.

e.g. *atom, haste, devote*

Derived words that are formed by adding one derivational affix are described as having the first degree of derivation.

e.g. *atomic, hasty, devotion*

Derived words formed by adding two derivational affixes are said to have the second degree of derivation.

e.g. *atomical, hastily, devotional*

Prefixes and suffixes differ in their linguistic status.

Prefixes have a distinct meaning of their own, while suffixes as a rule only serve to modify the meaning of the word and to convert it into another part of speech. Due to this fact prefixes may be confined to one part of speech (to enslave, to encage), or may function in more than one part of speech.

e.g. *overkind, to overdo, overestimation*

Unlike prefixes, suffixes, as a rule, function in one part of speech, often forming a derived stem of a different part of speech as compared with that of the bases.

e.g. *careful – care, suitable – suit*

Suffixation is the formation of words with the help of derivational suffixes. Suffixes usually modify the lexical meaning of the base and transfer words to a different part of speech. There are suffixes, however, which do not shift words from one part of speech into another. Suffixes of this kind usually transfer a word into a different semantic group. For example, the suffixes *'-ship', '-hood'* make a concrete noun an abstract, e.g. *child – childhood, friend – friendship*.

Distinction should be made between terminal and non-terminal suffixes. Terminal suffixes take only the final position in the words: such as the nominal suffixes *'-al' (refusal, survival), '-hood' (brotherhood, neighbourhood), '-ness' (kindness, brightness), '-ship' (kinship).*

Non-terminal suffixes can be followed by other suffixes. In such cases a derivative is capable of further derivation.

e.g. *lead – leader – leadership, care – careless – carelessness*

There are some graphic and phonetic changes in suffixation.

e.g. *merry – merrily, happy – happiness; desire – desirable, dare – daring; panic – panicky, traffic – trafficker, mimic – mimicking*

Classification of Suffixes

There are different classifications of suffixes in linguistic literature. Suffixes have been classified according to parts of speech they serve to form, according to their origin, their frequency, productivity, and other characteristics.

1) The first principle of classification is the part of speech which is formed. Suffixes are usually classified into:

- noun-forming suffixes: -er/-or, -dom, -hood, -ment, -ism, -ist
- adjective-forming suffixes: -able/-ible, -ful, -ish, -less, -ous, -ly, -y, -like
- verb-forming suffixes: -en, -ize/ise, -fy
- adverb-forming suffixes: -ly, -wards

2) Suffixes may be classified into various groups according to the part of speech of the base to which the suffix is added. Proceeding from this principle we may divide suffixes into:

- deverbal suffixes (those added to the verb base): -er, -ing, -ment, -able
- denominal suffixes (those added to the noun base): -less, -ish, -fill -ist, -some
- deadjectival suffixes (those added to the adjective base): -en, -fy, -ish, -ness

3) According to their origin suffixes may be classified into native and foreign suffixes.

- Native suffixes: -dom, -hood, -ly, -ness, -ship, -ward, -ful
- Romanic suffixes: -able, -age, -ation, -ment
- Greek suffixes: -ism, -ist

4) Suffixes are also classified as to the degree of their productivity. Affixes that are no longer used in the formation of new words are called unproductive; others still active are called productive.

For example, the Germanic suffix *'-er'* denoting an agent or a doer of the action is highly productive.

e.g. *speaker, driver, reporter, old-timer baby-sitter, fortune-teller, honeymooner*

The Latin suffix *'-eer'*, which denotes one concerned with, is not very productive.

e.g. *engineer, mountaineer, cannoneer, profiteer*

Prefixation is the formation of words by adding prefixes to the stem. Prefixes only modify the lexical meaning without changing the part of speech.

e.g. *wife – ex-wife, favourable – unfavourable, inform – misinform*

There are prefixes, however, that can change the part of speech but they are few in number (e.g. *head – behead, slave – enslave*).

The prefix 'out-' makes intransitive verbs transitive (e.g. *live – outlive, shine – outshine*).

Two types of prefixes are distinguished:

- those not correlated with any independent word (un-, re-, mis-, dis-).
- those correlated with functional words (over-, out-, under-, up-, down-).

Prefixes of the second type are called semi-bound morphemes, which means that they occur in various utterances both as independent words and as derivational affixes.

Classification of Prefixes

The classification of prefixes in any language offers more difficulty than we have in classifying suffixes. The semantic motivation of many prefixes is not quite apparent. A large number of prefixes are polysemantic. There are also homonymic prefixes that originated from different etymological sources.

1) From the point of view of etymology prefixes are subdivided into native and foreign.

Native prefixes: a-, be-, over-, un-, fore-

French or Latin prefixes: in- (il-, im-, ir), post-, pre-, en- (em-), dis- (dys-)

Most living English prefixes are foreign, but they may be combined with native stems (e.g. *enwrap, post-war*).

2) Prefixes differ in valency. Some of them can combine with the stems of only one part of speech, others are more productive. The prefix ‘ex-’, for instance, is combined only with nouns (e.g. *ex-president, ex-husband*).

The prefix ‘arch- (archi-)’ can be combined with the stems of nouns and adjectives.

e.g. *archfiend, archenemy, archconservative, archiepiscopal*

Such prefixes as ‘co-’, ‘contra-’, ‘post-’, ‘sub-’, ‘trans-’, ‘over-’ are used with the stems of verbs, nouns and adjectives.

e.g. *transformation – transatlantic – transfix; subcommittee – subarctic – sublet*

3) When viewed from the angle of their stylistic reference, English prefixes fall into stylistically neutral and bookish.

Stylistically neutral: un-. re-, out-, en-, be-, under-

Bookish: pseudo-, super-, ultra-

Sometimes one comes across a pair of synonymic prefixes one of which is stylistically neutral, the other stylistically coloured. For example, the prefix ‘over-’- occurs in all functional styles, the prefix ‘super-’ is peculiar to the style of scientific prose.

e.g. *superalloy, superbomber, supercomputer, supersaturated, supersonic*

4) It is possible to group prefixes semantically according to their meaning.

priority: ex-, fore-, pre-

negation: in-, un-, non-, dis-,

acounteraction, opposition: counter-, contra-, anti-

localily: a-, en-, sub-, supra-, sur-, trans-, hypo-, circum-, under-

reversion: de-, dis-, un-

incompleteness: demi-, hemi-, semi-, half-

Valency may be defined as the combining power of affixes and stems. The possibility of a particular stem taking a particular affix depends on phono-morphological, morphological and semantic factors.

For example, adjective-forming suffixes are mostly attached to noun stems: -en (*golden*), -ful (*careful*), -less (*careless*), -ly (*soldiery*), -like (*childlike*), -y (*hearty*).

The term ‘derivation pattern’ is used to denote a meaningful combination of stems and affixes that occur regularly in the speech. It indicates the part of speech, the lexico-semantic category and semantic peculiarities common to the most words with this particular arrangement of morphemes.

For example, the suffix ‘-er’ may be added to verb stems or noun stems and form the following derivational patterns:

profession or permanent occupation (*worrier, envier, talker*)

inanimate agent, tool or instrument (*heater, paper-cutter, bottle-opener*)

persons living in some locality (*islander, Londoner, New Yorker, cottager*)

b) Composition, or compounding, is a way of forming a new word by joining two or more stems together. The components (ICs) of the compound word occur in the language as free forms.

e.g. *raincoat, key-hole, bluebell, dark-green, heart-breaking, weekend, well-wisher*

Compound words are inseparable vocabulary units. The integrity of a compound may depend on the unity of the stress, solid or hyphenated spelling, semantic unity, unity of morphological and semantic functioning, or upon the combining effect of several of these factors.

Structurally compound words are characterized by the specific order and arrangement in which bases follow one another. The order in which two bases are placed within a compound is rigidly fixed in Modem English and it is the second IC

that makes the head-member of the word, i.e. its structural and semantic centre.

e.g. *doghouse (house for a dog), state-financed (financed by the state) dancing-hall (hall for dancing)*

The types that do not conform to this principle are represented by compounds with prepositions or conjunctions or loan-compounds.

e.g. *passer-by, daughter-in-law, stick-in-the-mud, flash-in-the pan; court martial, governor general, lords spiritual*

Phonetically compounds are also marked by a specific structure of their own. No phonemic changes of bases occur in composition but the compound word acquires a new stress pattern different from the stress in the separate words. For example, 'key' and 'hole' possess their own stress, but when the stems of these words are brought together to make up a new compound 'keyhole', the latter is given a different stress pattern – a unity stress on the first component in our case.

Compound words have three stress patterns:

a) a high or unity stress on the first component;

e.g. *honeymoon, doorway, doorkey*

b) a double stress, with a primary stress on the first weaker, secondary stress on the second component;

e.g. *blood-vessel, washing-machine, snowball*

c) It is not infrequent, however, for both ICs to have a level stress especially in compound adjectives;

e.g. *arm-chair, icy-cold, grass-green.*

Graphically most compounds have two types of spelling – they are spelt either solidly or with a hyphen.

e.g. *bedroom, hairclipper, milkman, shortlist, bookcase dress maker, baby-sitter*

The two types of spelling typical of compounds, however, are not rigidly observed and there are numerous fluctuations between solid and hyphenated spelling, on the one hand, and spelling with a break between the components, on the other, especially in the nominal compounds of the noun type. The spelling of these

compounds varies from author to author and from dictionary to dictionary.

The Meaning of Compounds. Motivation

The meaning of the compound is made up of the combined lexical meaning of the bases and the structural meaning of the pattern. The semantic centre of the compound is the lexical meaning of the second component modified and restricted by the meaning of the first one. They are called ‘determinatum’ and ‘determinant’. In ‘sunlight’, the second stem ‘light’ is the basic part, determinatum. The first element ‘sun’ is determinant, it serves to differentiate it from other ‘lights’ (*moonlight, candlelight, lamplight, limelight*).

We distinguish non-idiomatic (*airmail, latecomer*) and idiomatic (*sweet-tooth, night-cap*) compounds.

Compound words may be classified according to different principles. There are four main principles of classification:

1) from the point of view of the way the components are linked in a compound;

2) from the functional point of view;

3) from the point of view of means by which the components are joined together;

4) according to the nature of the bases.

Relations between ICs of Compounds. There are two types of relationship between the ICs of compound words: the relations of coordination and subordination. Accordingly, compound words fall into two classes: coordinative compounds and subordinative.

In coordinative compounds the two ICs are semantically equally important. The constituent bases belong to the same class and most often to the same semantic group. Coordinative compounds make up a comparatively small semantic group (*dum-dum, fifty-fifty, goody-goody, hush-hush, chit-chat, flip-flop, riff-raff, shilly-shally, sing-song*).

Very often the constituent members of this subgroup are in most cases unique and do not function as independent words. They carry very vague or no lexical meaning of their own. They are mostly restricted to the colloquial layer.

In subordinate compounds the components are neither structurally nor semantically equal in importance but are based on the domination of the head-member, which is, as a rule, the second IC. It is semantically and grammatically dominant part of the word, which preconditions the part-of-speech meaning of the whole compound.

e.g. *stone-deaf* (adjective), *baby-sitter* (noun)

Subordinate compounds make the bulk of Modem English compounds: they are also most productive.

Means of Composition.

From the point of view of the means by which the components are joined together compound words may be classified into three groups:

a) Words are formed by merely placing one constituent after another in a definite order. This means of linking the components into a compound is typical of the majority of Modem English compounds. It is called juxtaposition.

e.g. *door-handle, wind-driven, gooseflesh*

b) In compound words ICs are joined together with a special linking element – the linking vowel [ou] and occasionally [j] and the linking consonant [s]. This is a morphological way of forming compounds.

e.g. *speedometer, tragicomic, statesman, electrodynamics, videophone*

c) Compound words are formed syntactically with the help of prepositions and conjunctions.

e.g. *lady-in-waiting, editor-in-chief, officer-in-charge, out-of-work, up-and-coming*

Types of bases.

Compounds may be also classified according to the nature of the bases. We

distinguish two groups: compounds proper and derivational compounds.

Compounds proper are formed by joining together bases of independently functioning words with or without the help of special linking elements.

e.g. *doorstep, age-long, handiwork, looking-glass*

Compounds proper constitute the bulk of English compounds in all parts of speech; they include both subordinative and coordinative classes, productive and nonproductive patterns.

Compounds proper may be subdivided into 4 groups:

a) Compounds consisting of simple stems:

e.g. *filmstar, apple-cart, oil-rich, hat bed, bloodied*

b) Compounds where at least one of the constituents is a derived stem:

e.g. *chain smoker, baby sitter, speechwriter*

c) Compounds where at least one of the constituents in a dipped stem:

e.g. *con-man, L-driver, V- Day, H-film*

d) Compounds where at least one ot the constituents is a compound:

e.g. *wastepaper-basket*

Derivational compounds (or compound derivatives) differ from compounds proper in the nature of bases, one of their ICs (usually the second) is not a free stem.

e.g. *long-legged, three-cornered, feather-brained, front-bencher*

The structural integrity of such compounds is ensured by the suffixes ‘-ed’ or ‘-er’ which refer not to the last component but to the combination as the whole.

Professor A.I. Smimitsky called them ‘grammatical compounds’ because they are formed in Modem English with a regularity of grammatical forms.

In this group we find derivational compound nouns and derivational compound adjectives (*honey-mooner, frontbencher, brain-truster, brain-stormer; long-legged, three-cornered*).

Criteria of Compounds

Separating compounds from word groups is no easy task, and scholars do not agree on the question of relevant criteria.

The first criterion is graphic. Solid and hyphenated spelling is indicative of a compound noun. It may be argued, however, that there is no consistency in English spelling in this respect. With different dictionaries and different authors, and sometimes even with the same author the spelling varies, so that the same vocabulary unit may exist in a solid spelling (headmaster, loudspeaker), with a hyphen (bead-master, loud-speaker) and with a break within the components (head master, loud speaker).

The lack of the uniformity in spelling is the chief reason why many authors consider this criterion insufficient and combine it with the phonic criterion of stress.

There is a marked tendency in English to give compounds a heavy stress or the first component, or a heavy stress on the first component and a secondary stress on the second component.

e.g. *sunrise, goldfish, teenager, prison-breaker, fine- looking*

This role, as we know, does not hold with compound adjectives which have double stress.

e.g. *Afro-American, Afro- Asiatic, Anglo-Catholic*

However, stress can be of no help in solving this problem because word-stress may depend on phrasal stress or on the position of the compound in the sentence.

Prof. Smirnitsky introduces morphological criterion of compounds. It may be applied when there are connective elements which ensure the integrity of compounds. The presence of linking elements leaves no doubt that the combination is a compound but the number of compounds containing connective elements is relatively insignificant. So the criterion of structural integrity is also insufficient.

Some scholars advocate the semantic criterion and define a compound as a combination forming a unit expressing a single idea which is not identical in meaning to the sum of the meanings of its components in a free word group. From this point of view ‘dirty work’ with its figurative meaning ‘dishounorable proceedings’ is a compound, while ‘clean work’ is a phrase.

c) Semi-Affixes

The problem of distinguishing a compound from a derivative is actually equivalent to distinguishing a stem from an affix. In most cases the task is simple enough: the immediate constituents of a compound are free forms, whereas a derivative contains bound forms as its ICs.

There are, however, some borderline cases which present difficulties. Some elements of the English vocabulary occurring as independent units (*man, berry, land, proof, wise*) have been very frequent as second elements of words. They seem to have acquired valency similar to that of affixes. They are unstressed, and the vowel sounds have been reduced, and their lexical meaning is weakened. As these elements seem to come somewhere in between the stems and affixes, the term ‘semi-affixes’ has been offered to designate them. Semi-affixes received this name because semantically, functionally, structurally and statistically they became more like affixes than roots. Their meaning is as general and that of affixes. They determine the lexico-grammatical class the word belongs to. Compare, for example, *‘sailor’* and *‘seaman’* where ‘-man’ is a semi-suffix.

‘Man’ is most frequent of semi-affixes. Its combining activity is very great.

e.g. *countryman, seaman, spaceman, clergyman, fireman, postman, freeman, iceman, superman.*

The second element ‘-man’ is considerably generalised semantically and approaches in meaning a suffix of a doer ‘-er’ or ‘-it’.

The fading of the lexical meaning is especially evident when the words containing this element are applied to women.

The great combining capacity characterizes the elements ‘-like’, ‘-proof’, and ‘worthy’ so that they may be also referred to as semi-affixes (e.g. *godlike, unladylike, damp-proof, fire-proof, bomb-proof, water-proof, shockproof, age-proof, trustworthy, creditworthy, awardworthy*).

The semi-suffix '-wise' combines with nouns to form words which describe actions or states that are similar to those of the people or things referred to (e.g. clockwise, vote-wise, calorie-wise, time-wise).

The suffix -aholic (-oholic), meaning a person obsessed with or addicted to. It

is becoming very productive. The earliest formation based on this suffix was probably workaholic, which seemed to have been coined around 1968.

Semi-affixes may be also used in preposition like prefixes: info-, eco-, narco-, Euro- techno-, mini-, maxi-, self-.

The factors conducing to transition of free forms into semi-affixes are:

- high semantic productivity
- adaptability
- combinatorial capacity (high valency)
- brevity.

d) Conversion is a way of forming a new word in a different part of speech without adding a derivational affix.

e.g. *finger,* n. – *finger* v., *brief,* adj. – *brief,* v., *hunt,* v. – *hunt,* n.

Other terms: zero derivation, root formation, transposition or functional change.

All these terms have their drawbacks.

The term ‘conversion’ is misleading as actually nothing is converted: the original form continues to exist alongside the new one.

As to ‘zero derivation’ it does not permit us to distinguish this type from sound interchange (food, n. – feed, v., blood, n. – bleed, v.) where no derivational morpheme is added either.

The term ‘root formation’ is not always suitable as the process can involve not only root words but also words containing affixes and compounds (audition, n. – audition, v., featherbed, n. – featherbed, v.).

The terms ‘junctional change’ or ‘transposition’ implies that the process in question concerns usage, not word-formation. It implies that one and the same word may belong to several parts of speech simultaneously, which contradicts the definition of a word as a system of forms.

So the term ‘conversion’ is used in preference to other terms because in spite of its deficiencies, it is more widely accepted to denote this word-forming process.

The following cases of conversion are most common:

a) formation of verbs from nouns and more rarely from other parts of speech.

e.g. *skin, n. – skin, v.*

brave, adj. – brave, v.

down, prep. – down, v.

b) formation of nouns from verbs and rarely from other parts of speech.

e.g. *cut, v. – cut, n.*

hollow, adj. – hollow, n.

up, prep. – up, n.

Conversion is an extremely productive way of forming new words in English. All form classes seem to be able to undergo conversion, and conversion seems to be able to produce words of almost any form class, mostly open form classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs).

There do not appear to be morphological restrictions on the forms that can undergo conversion (e.g. to bach from bachelor).

The only partial restriction, as indicated by R.S. Ginzburg, concerns nouns with the suffixes '-ing' and '-ation', '-ity' geographical names, names of sciences, some other terms.

Typical Semantic Relations in a Converted Pair

Verbs Converted from Nouns:

This is a largest group of words related through conversion. Semantic relations between the nouns and verbs vary greatly. The converted verb may denote:

- action characteristic of the object

e.g. *butcher, n. – butcher, v.* (kill animals for food)

dog, n. – dog, v. (follow close behind as a dog does)

- instrumental use of the object

e.g. *whip, n. – whip, v.* (strike with a whip)

knife, n. – knife, v. (kill with a knife)

- locative meaning with nouns denoting places, buildings, containers and the

like

e.g *bag, n. – bag, v.* (put in a bag)

garage, n. – garage, v. (put a car in the garage)

pocket, n. – pocket, v. (put something into a pocket)

- With nouns denoting time, weather, conditions, the converted verbs mean ‘spend the time indicated by the noun’

e.g. *winter, n. – winter, v.*

honeymoon, n. – honeymoon, v.

- acquisition or addition of the object expressed by the noun.

e.g. *fish, n. – fish, v.* (catch or try to catch fish)

coat, n. – coat, v. (put a coat of paint on something)

- deprivation of the object expressed be the noun

e.g. *dust, n. – dust, v.* (remove chat from something)

skin, n. – skin, v. (strip off the skin from something/somebody)

water, n. – water, v. (if you water plants or the ground they are growing in, you pour water on them)

It would be difficult to give a complete list of derivatives as there is an ever increasing tendency to derive verbs from nouns by conversion.

A converted verb is very often polysemantic and may denote almost any verbal action connected with the underlying noun.

e.g. ‘dust, v.’ means ‘remove dust from something’ and also the opposite ‘to cover with something’.

She dusted the furniture/She dusted the cake with sugar.

Stone somebody – throw stones at somebody, stone plums – to remove stones from plums

There are many phraseological units the centre of which is a converted verb. In most cases it has a metaphorical meaning.

e.g. *feather one’s nest – make oneself rich, especially dishonestly, through a job in which one is trusted*

fish in troubled waters – try to gain advantage out of other people s trouble

worm oneself into somebody's confidence – to gain somebody's confidence gradually and perhaps by dishonest means

crow over – take pride and gloat over the misfortune of others

Nouns Converted from Verbs

The converted noun may denote:

- instance of an action

e.g. *glance, v. – glance, n.; push, v. – push, n.; move, v. – move, n.*

- agent of an action (it may be an impersonal agent)

e.g. *draw, v. - draw, n. (attraction); sting, v. – sting, n.; scold, v. - scold, n. (a scolding woman); tease, v. – tease, n. (a person who teases); pry. v. - pry, n. (a prying person)*

- The converted noun may denote the place of the action

e.g. *fold, v. – fold, n.; bend, v. – bend, n.; dump, v. – dump, n.; drive, v. – drive, n.*

- It may denote an object or result of action.

e.g. *peel, v. – peel, n. (the outer skin of fruit or potatoes); catch, v. – catch, n. (that which is caught or taken); win, v. – win, n.*

Converted nouns become very often parts of verbal phrases. There is a kind of double process when first a noun is formed by conversion from a verbal stem, and then this noun is combined with such verbs as 'give/take/have/make' etc.

e.g. *have a bite/a smoke/a swim/a run*

take a look/a ride/a walk/a try

give a laugh/a cry/a whistle/a chuckle

make a move/a dive/a comment/a complaint/a remark

There are a lot of phraseological units with converted nouns. Sometimes the elements of these expressions have a fixed grammatical form:

- used with the indefinite article 'a' (*be in a hurry, be in a flutter, make a go of something, make a hit with somebody*)
- with the definite article (*be in the know, be on the go, be in the swim,*

give somebody the push, give somebody the go-by, keep out of the swim)

- in the plural form (*kick against the pricks, to give somebody the shivers, make two bites of a cherry*)
- without any article (*be in touch, be out of touch, keep watch*)

Verbs Converted from Adjectives

Verbs converted from adjectives show fairly regular semantic relationships with the corresponding adjectives. They denote change of stale. For example, verbs converted from the adjectives 'blind, calm, dean empty' when used intransitively mean 'become blind, calm, clean, empty'. When they are used as transitive verbs they mean 'make somebody blind calm, clean, empty'.

Sometimes it is difficult to determine which of the two words within a converted pair is the derived member. **There are several criteria to do it.**

The first criterion is based on derivational relations within the word family (cluster) of which the converted words in question are members. If the center of the cluster is a verb, all derived words of the first degree of derivation have suffixes generally added to a verb-base. If the centre of the cluster is a noun, all the first-degree derivatives have suffixes generally added to a noun-base

e.g. *hand, n – hand, v.; handful, handy, handed*

The second criterion is the criterion of semantic derivation based on semantic relations within converted pans. It is natural to conclude that the existence within a converted pair of a type of relation typical of converted verbs prove that the verb is the derived member. Likewise, a type of relations typical of converted nouns marks the noun as the derived member.

For example, the semantic relations between 'crowd, n. – crowd, v.' may be analyzed as those of an object and an action characteristic of the object. This lends to the conclusion that the verb 'crowd' is the derived member.

Of late a new criterion of semantic derivation for converted pairs has been suggested. It is bused on the frequency of occurrence in various utterances of either

of the two member words related through conversion. According to this frequency criterion a lower frequency value testifies to the derived character of the word in question. The information about the frequency value of words can be found in dictionaries of word-frequency with semantic counters.

A word formed by conversion is capable of further derivation, so that it enters into combinations not only with functional but also derivational affixes.

e.g. *view (to watch television)→viewable – viewer – viewing.*

Conversion may be combined with composition. Attributive phrases like ‘black ball’, ‘black list’ and ‘pin point’ form such firmly established verbs as ‘blackball’ ‘blacklist’ and ‘pinpoint’.

The same pattern is used in nonce-words, or occasional words.

e.g. *Don't my-dear me.*

She madamed everybody.

She blue-penciled her eyes.

We also find converted nouns among nonce-words.

e.g. *an also-run – a contestant that does not win*

a forget-me-not – a herb with bright blue or white flowers

a has-been – one that has passed the peak of effectiveness or popularity

do's and don’ts – a command or entreaty to do and not to do something

A special pattern deserving attention due to its ever-increasing productivity includes nouns converted from phrasal verbs (verb-adverb combinations). This type is different from conversion proper as the basic forms are not homonymous due to the difference in the stress pattern, although they consist of identical morphemes. Thanks to solid or hyphenated spelling and single stress the nouns obtain phonetical and graphic integrity and indivisibility absent in verb-adverb combinations.

e.g. *break down – a breakdown*

hand out – a handout

In fact, we observe here a combined effort of composition and conversion.

The type is specifically English.

Semantically these nouns keep a certain connection the prototype – phrasal

verbs. They always reflect some verbal notion in their meanings and are clearly motivated. In case of polysemy their various meanings are often derived from different meanings of the phrasal verb.

e.g. *take off (make a start in jumping) – take-off (a jump or a place at which the feet leave the ground in jumping)*

take off (about a plane – leave the ground and rise in the air) – take-off (leaving die ground)

take off (ridicule by imitating – take-off (ridicule by imitating, caricature)

e) The process when adjectives acquire the paradigm and syntactical functions of nouns is called **substantivation.**

M. Rayevskaya considers substantivation of adjectives to be a variant of conversion.

There are scholars, however, who think that substantivation is just a fact of contextual usage.

Substantivation has always been an important process in English and is active today. Some of the earlier substantivized adjectives have been so long established as nouns that English speakers no longer realize that they ever were adjectives.

e.g. *relative, male, female, captive, criminal, radical, conservative, fugitive, ritual*

In many instances, however, the substantival use of adjectives is only temporary, and as soon as the need is past, the word reverts to its usual adjectival function.

The degree of substantivation may be different. We distinguish complete substantivation and partial substantivation.

Completely substantivized words function as nouns: they may have a plural form or be used in the Possessive Case, they may be associated with determinatives.

e.g. *private – the private's uniform, a group of privates*

Other examples of completely substantivized adjectives are:

e.g. *captive, conservative, criminal, male, female, grownup, native, block,*

relative

This type seems to have become much more productive recently.

e.g. *a creative, a crary, a dabble, a nasty, a inflatable*

Partially substantivized adjectives or participles denote a group or a class of people.

e.g. *the blind, the dead, the English, the poor, the rich, the living, the unemployed*

We call these words partially substantivized, because they undergo no morphological changes, and are only used with the definite article and have a collective meaning.

Besides the substantivized adjectives denoting human beings there is a considerable group of abstract nouns, including linguistic terms.

e.g. *the impossible, the inevitable, the good, the evil, the Present, the Future, the Past, the Singular, the Plural*

Partially substantivized adjectives enter a lot of phraseological units.

e.g. *be in the dark*

out of the blue

cut somebody to the quick

answer in the negative/in the affirmative

in the dead of night/winter

4. a) Shortening, also called ‘clipping’ or ‘curtailment’, is a rather productive way of forming new words by cutting off a part of a word.

e.g. *hippo – hippopotamus, demo – demonstration, info – information, vet – veterenarium*

There might be some phonetic and graphic changes in the process of shortening.

e.g. *bike – bicycle, tely – television, frig/fridge – refrigerator*

As a type of word-building, shortening is recorded in the English language as far back as the 15 century. It has grown more and more productive ever since. This

growth becomes especially marked in many European languages in the 20 century and this development is particularly intense in English.

Generally speaking, shortened words and expressions are always especially frequent in the speech of sets of people who live or work habitually together and continually have to talk about the same things. The language of students is especially rich in these formations.

e.g. *grad – graduate, gyms – gymnastics, lab – laboratory, prep – preparation*

The correlation of a shortened word with its prototype is of great interest. Two possible developments should be noted.

1. The shortened/curtailed word may be regarded as a variant or a synonym differing from the foil form quantitatively, stylistically and sometimes emotionally: the prototype being stylistically and emotionally neutral. The missing part can be easily restored, so that the connection between the prototype and the short form is not lost.

e.g. *doc – doctor, exam – examination, prof – professor, Becky – Rebecca*

2. In the opposite extreme case the denotative and lexico-grammatical meaning of both may have changed so much that the clipping becomes a separate word. The connection between the prototype and the short form can be established only etymologically. Consequently, a pair of etymological doublets comes into being.

e.g. *chap – chapman (pedlar), fan – fanatic, miss – mistress, fancy – fantasy, fence – defence, peal – appeal, through – thorough*

Unlike conversion, shortening produces new words in the same part of speech. The bulk of shortened words are made up by nouns.

e.g. *mac – mackintosh, ref – referee, cycle – bicycle, ad – advertisement, lino – linoleum*

Verbs are hardly ever shortened in present-day English. ‘Rev’ from ‘revolve’ and ‘tab’ from ‘tabulate’ may be considered exceptions. Shortened verbs are usually formed by conversion from shortened nouns.

e.g. *taxi, n. – taxi, v., perm, n. – perm, v., phone, n. – phone, v., vac, n. – vac, v.*

Shortened adjectives are few and mostly reveal a combined effect of shortening and suffixation.

e.g. *comfy – comfortable, impos – impossible, mizzy – miserable, pi – pious*

Various classifications of shortened words are offered. The generally accepted one is based on the position of the clipped part. We distinguish 'apocope' (the final part is dropped), 'aphaeresis' (the initial part is dropped) and 'syncope' (the middle part of the word is dropped).

❖ Final clipping, 'apocope' (from the Greek word 'apokoptei' – cutoff) forms the bulk of cases. It is mostly through apocope that stylistic synonyms are formed. The shortened word is always colloquial, or even slangy.

e.g. *ad – advertisement, croc – crocodile, ed – editor, fab – fabulous, gym – gymnasium, celeb – celebrity, limo – limousine*

Proper names are also apocopated (i.e. contracted by apocope).

e.g. *Nick- Nicolas, Ed – Edward, Vic – Victoria, Chris – Christopher*

Many apocopated words have acquired general currency and replaced their longer original terms.

e.g. *brig – brigantine, chap – chapman (a peddler), mob – mobile, pub – public house, cab – cabriolet*

❖ Words with initial clipping aphaeresis are less numerous but much more firmly established as separate lexical units with a meaning very different from that of the prototype.

There are cases of aphaeresis in which the omitted segment is a single vowel.

e.g. *cute – acute, peal – appeal, mend – amend, fray – affray, live – alive, lone – alone*

In the above cases, significant semantic development followed the aphaeresis, so that the original longer form and the shortened one are etymological doublets. Occasionally, the two words exist side by side with little semantic differentiation, as for instance, 'special' and 'especial'.

Cases where the shortened words with initial clipping are stylistical synonyms or variants are not numerous.

e.g. *cello – violoncello, phone – telephone, chute – parachute, varsity – university, Bert – Albert, Bella – Isabella, Tilda – Matilda, Becky – Rebecca*

Final and initial clipping may be combined and result in curtailed words with the middle part of the prototype retained. These are few and definitely colloquial.

e.g. *flu – influenza, frig/fridge – refrigerator, tec (teck) – detective*

❖ Curtailed words with the middle part of the word dropped ('syncope') are equally few. They may be further subdivided into two groups:

a) Words that appeared due to the process of contraction.

e.g. *fancy -fantasy, curtsy - courtesy, through – thorough*

b) Words with a final-clipped stem retaining the functional morpheme.

e.g. *dorms – dormitories, cons – conveniences, mod cons – modern conveniences, pants – pantaloons, foots -footlights*

Proper names are rarely syncopized (i.e. formed by syncopy).

e.g. *Bennet – Benedict, Louie – Louise, Dirk – Derrick*

It is also possible to classify shortened words on the basis of the structure characterizing the prototype. We have two mutually exclusive cases: shortenings correlated with words and those correlated with phrases. If the prototype is a word we deal with shortening proper.

In the case when the prototype is a phrase we have a combined effort of shortening, ellipsis and substadvation.

e.g. *proms – promenade concerts, finals – final examinations, prelims – preliminary examinations*

It is clear from the above example that unlike other types of shortening, ellipsis also results in a change of lexico-grammaticai meaning, and therefore a new word belongs to a different part of speech.

b) There is a special case of shortening, generally referred to as **abbreviation,** when the initial letters stand for the words they begin.

e.g. *CIA – Central Intelligence Agency*

FBI – Federal Bureau of Investigation

RH – Royal Highness

There are two ways of reading abbreviations.

(1) The letters are read as in the alphabet. Such abbreviations are called ‘initialisms’.

e.g. *GMT – Greenwich Mean Time*

(2) The abbreviations are read as usual English words. Such words are called ‘acronyms’ .

e.g. *RAF – Royal Air Force*

OPEC – Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries

There are some modem words with acronymic origin.

e.g. *laser – light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation*

radar – radio detecting and ranging

scuba – self-contained underwater breathing apparatus

sonar – sound navigation ranging

Acronyms, as opposed to initialisms, came into English usage during the First World War (ANZAC – Australia –New Zealand Army Corps) or at beginning of 1920s (UNO – United Nations Organisation, WASP – White Anglo-Saxon Protestant).

We find homonyms among abbreviations.

e.g. *MP – Member of Parliament or Military Police*

pc – personal computer or police constable,

PC – Peace Corps or Politically Correct

The term ‘abbreviation’ may be also used for a shortened form of a written word or phrase used in a text in place of the whole, for economy of space and effort. They are usually called ‘graphical abbreviations’ which, in fact, are signs representing words and word groups of high frequency of occurrence in various spheres of human activity.

e.g. *Dr – Doctor, RD – Road, St – Street, Oct. – October, Av – Avenue*

Like other European languages English has many abbreviations borrowed from Latin and French.

e.g. *op cit (Lat. opere citato) – in the work cited*

i.e. (Lat. id est) – that is

ib (ibid) – (Lat. ibidem) – in the same place

iq – (Lot. idem quod) – the same as

Proper names may be also abbreviated, usually the names of famous writers, political leaders etc.(*G.B.S. – George Bernard Shaw, W.S.M. – William Somerset Maugham*)

There are also abbreviations in which the first component abbreviated to the initial letter, and the second is included without any changes.

e.g. *E-boat – enemy boat*

U-boat – underwater boat

Z-hour – (zero hour) the time set for the beginning of the attack

E-mail – electronic mail

ABC Armies – American, British and Canadian Armies

ID card – identity card

c) Back-formation (also called back-derivation or reversion) is a way of forming new words by dropping a real or supposed suffix.

e.g. *edit, v. – editor*

butle, v. – butler

burgle – burglar

sculpt, v. – sculptor

An interesting case of back-formation is the verb accreditate from accreditation, ousting the expected accredit; the same process gives, for instance, administrate (instead of administer) from administration or administrator.

The most productive way of back-formation in present English is derivation of verbs from compound nouns ending in -er or -ing.

e.g. *thought-read, v. – thought-reading, n.*

house-clean, v. – house-cleaning, n.

air-condition, v. – air-conditioning, n.

arm-twist, v. – arm-twisting, n.

There may be cases of homonymy in the group. For example, house-break as a verb derived by back formation from house-breaker (burglar) or house breaking (burglary). The verb house-break may be also a case of back-formation from house-broken (to accustom an animal or a baby to indoor habits and civilized behaviour).

At the present time back-formation is very active in the formation of verbs from compound nouns or attributive word groups mostly of a terminological character.

e.g. *blood-transfuse – blood transfusion*

rush-develop – rush development

finger-print – finger-printing

d) Blending (or telescoping) is a special type of compounding by uniting parts of words into one new word.

e.g. *brunch – breakfast + lunch*

drunch – drink + lunch

slanguage – slang + language

transciver – transmitter + receiver

As a result of blending we have blends. Several different terms are used for the result of this word-forming process: blendings, fusions, telescoping or portmanteau words. The last term is due to Lewis Carroll, who coined such blends as *chortle, v. (chuckle + short), mimsy, adj. (miserable + flimsy), galumph, v. (gallop + triumph), slithy, adj. (slimy + lithe).* L. V. Arnold calls the process of word-formation 'telescoping' because words seem to slide into one another like sections of a telescope. According to R. S. Ginsburg, the term 'blending' is used to designate the method of merging parts of words (not morphemes) into one new word. Laurie Bauer defines a blend as a new lexeme formed from parts of two (or possibly more) other words in such a way that there is no transparent analysis into morphemes. It is not quite true, since in many cases some kind of analysis can be made: for example, in some instances at least one of the elements is transparently recoverable *(ballute*

(balloon + parachute), dawk (dove + hawk), shoat (sheep + goat). N. M. Rayevskaya classifies blends according to the part of speech. Telescopy involves different lexico-grammatical categories: nouns, adjectives, adverbs and verbs.

e.g. *macon (mutton + bacon), n.; swellegant (swell + elegant), adj.; glaze (glare + gaze), v.; posilutely (positively + absolutely), adv.*

Depending on the prototype phrases two types of blends can be distinguished: additive and restrictive. The semantic relations within the phrases are different.

In additive blends their elements belong to the same lexico-grammatical class, sometimes to the same semantic field; their stems may be combined by the conjunction 'and'.

e.g. *mimsy – miserable and flimsy*

galump – gallop and triumph

Frenglish – French and English

The restrictive type may be transformed into attributive phrases where the first element serves as modifier of the second, the second being the semantic and structural nucleus.

e.g. *positron – positive electron*

Amdoc – American doctor

sitcom – situational comedy

An interesting variation of the same type is presented by cases of superposition when two words have similar clusters of sounds.

e.g. *atomaniac – atom maniac*

proverbingp – proverb bingo (a kind of game)

speedry – speed

Structurally there are three types of blends.

1) If a new word is coined by combining the initial element of one word and the final clement of another.

e.g. *cremains – cremated+ remains*

splatter – splash + spatter

skort – skirt + short

2) A new word is formed by combining one notional word and the final element of another word.

e.g. *glassphait – glass + asphalt*

radiotrician – radio + electrician

drugoia – drug payola (a bribe given to the police for the permission to sell drugs)

3) A word is formed by the combination of the initial element of one word with a notional word.

e.g. *mobus – motor + bus*

legislady – legislative+ lady

petrodollar – petrols dollar

animule – animal+ mule

Blends are used in different fields of the language. Though many of them are short-lived, many of them have become established in the vocabulary. Blends seem to be on the rise especially in terminology (*tranciever – transmitter + receiver; seacopter – sea + helicopter; avionics – aviation + electronics*) and in trade advertisements (*bookvertising – book + advertising; laundromat – laundry + automat; fanzine – fantasy + magazine*).

Among blends there are many place-names. Towns near the borders of two states are given names which are made of parts of the names of the states or nations.

e.g. *Calexico – California + Mexico;*

Nosodak – North Dakota + South Dakota

Amerindian – American Indian;

Amerasian – American Asian

Telescopic words are often formed to achieve humorous effect and have a stylistic status. They can convey various shades of emotional colouring (irony or mockery). Very often they refer to the political slang:

e.g. *dopelomat – dope + diplomat*

Yanigan – Yankee + hooligan

pollutician – pollute + politician (engaged in dirty politics)

paytriotism – pay + patriotism (false patriotism)

nixonomics – Nixon + economics

e) Sound interchange may be defined as an apposition in which words forms are differentiated due to the changes in the phonemic composition of the root.

e.g. *food – feed; blood – bleed; bath – bathe; strong – strength; speak – speech; grief – grieve; lose – loss; cloth – clothe; choose – choice*

Some causative verbs are formed in this way (*lie – lay, rise – raise, fall – fell, sit – set*).

The process is not active in the language at present, and synchronically sound interchange could not be considered as a way of word building.

f) Change of stress or semantic stress is mostly observed in verb-noun pairs.

e.g. *transport, n. – transport. v., export, n. – export, v., object, n. – object, v.*

The change of stress in verb-adjective pairs is less common.

e.g. *frequent, adj. – frequent, v.*

abstract, adj. – abstract, v.

This stress distinction is, however, neither productive nor regular. There are a lot of cases when both verbs and nouns have the same stress.

e.g. *comment, n. – comment, v.*

triumph, n. – triumph, v.

preface, n. – preface, v.

g) Sound imitation, or onomatopoeia (from the Greek word ‘onoma’ – ‘name’ and ‘poiein’ – ‘to make’), is naming the action or object by more or less exact reproduction of a sound associated with it.

e.g. *babble, blob, bubble, croak, drip, flush, gurgle, gush, ribbit spatter, splash, splatter, swash*

Onomatopoeic words do not reflect the real sounds directly, irrespective of the

laws of the language, they only imitate them. The phonetic structure of the word proves to be important for the creation of imitative words.

Semantically, onomatopoeic words fell into three groups.

1) They denote sounds produced by human beings in the process of communication or in expressing their feelings. Such words are highly emotional and stylistically coloured.

e.g. *giggle, grumble, grunt, hiccup, murmur, mutter, whisper*

The verb ‘talk has a number of variants:

babble – say something quickly and foolishly or in a way that is hard to understand

chatter – talk quickly continuously and for a long time, usually about smth unimportant

croak – to make a deep low sound like the sound a frog makes

chitchat – lead an informal light conversation

gabble – say quickly that cannot be heard clearly

jabber – talk or say quickly and not clearly

mutter – say something indistinctly in a way that is hard to understand

splutter – talk or say quickly as if confused

2) Another big group includes words denoting sounds produced by the animals, birds and insects.

e.g. *bleat, buzz, cackle, croak, crow, hiss, honk, howl, mew, moo neigh, purr, roar*

Some birds are named after the sounds they make (crow, cuckoo, whippoor).

3) Onomatopoeic words denote sounds produced by water, natural phenomena (wind, thunder), metallic and heavy things, they may imitate forceful motions.

e.g. *bang, chink, clink, clonk, dingle, flop, flutter, rap, rustle, slosh, tap, thud, thump, tinkle*

h) Reduplication (complete or partial) is common in this process though onomatopoeic repetition is not very extensive.

e.g. *pooh-pooh, hush-hush, tom-tom, tat-tat-tat; bibble-babble, bow-wow, chit-chat, ding-dong, flip-flop, ping-pong rat-a-tat, ding-dong, tittle-tattle*

In some reduplicative compounds the constituents are pseudomorphemes which do not occur in isolation.

e.g. *blah-blah, helter-skelter, hugger-mugger*

Once being coined, onomatopoeic words may undergo further derivation and semantic development. Onomatopoeic words are dynamic and rhythmic, they are used in rhymes and verses, making a context vivid, emotive and expressive.

Questions for Self-Control

1. What is the morpheme? What are other language units studied by lexicology?
2. What principles of classifying morphemes do you know?
3. What types of words can be distinguished according to their morphological structure?
4. What is affixation?
5. What classifications of suffixes do you know? What are the principles of their classification?
6. What classifications of prefixes do you know? What are the principles of their classification?
7. How would you define composition as a way of forming new words?
8. What are graphic and stress peculiarities of compounds in Modern English and Ukrainian?
9. What classifications of compounds do you know? What are the principles of classification?
10. What are the criteria of compounds? How reliable are they?
11. What is definition of conversion as a way of word formation?
12. What are the common cases of conversion in Modern English?
13. What are the typical semantic relations in converted pairs?
14. What are the basic criteria of semantic derivation?

15.What is substantivation? What types of substantivation are the most productive in the Ukrainian language?

16.How would you define shortening as a way of word formation? *What might be the* result of the process of shortening? What classifications *of shortenings do* you know?

17.How would you define back formation?

18.How would you define blending?

19.How would you define onomatopoeia? What groups of onomatopoeic words do you know?

Practical tasks

Exercise 1. Using a dictionary, complete the table below.

Criminal	Crime	Verb
a burglar	burglary	to burgle
a thief	theft	---
---	---	to mug
---	rape	---
---	---	to rob
---	arson	---
shoplifter	---	to shoplift (rare)
---	pickpocketing	---
Kidnapper	---	---

Exercise 2. Read the following "potential" words – words which do not exist but which could conceivably become part of the language. Decide what you think they would mean.

A readeress, lunocracy, a gaolee, a toolery, a doglet, woolette.

Exercise 3. Look at the following pair of words and decide which of the female "items" are:

a) no longer in use;

b) still in use but probably diappearing;

c) showing no sign of disappearing.

actor	Actress	host	hostess
author	Authoress	manager	manageress
clerk	Clerkess	poet	poetess
governor	Governess	prince	princess

Exercise 4. Determine what part of speech the italicized converted nouns are derived from.

1.He felt a *touch of* panic. 2. I couldn't understand her instant *dislike of the* man. 3. He lay back, eyes wide and staring right in the *dark.* 3. He pulled a *five and a one* from his wallet. 4. The *whys and hows* were someone else's *job. 5. The girl* is a *knockout! 6.* Susan is a *twelve-year-old* and she has a crush on her geography teacher. 7. One should remember that life consists of *ups* and *downs.* 8. They marched in *twos. 9.*1 don't want to be a bad *third.* 10. A newspaper article the end of which is printed on another page is called a *run-over.*

Exercise 5. Read the poem and find out the examples of onomatopoeia.

When Carly Eats Spaghetti

When Carly eats spaghetti,

She chomps and gobbles and ***slurps,***

The spaghetti disappears ***with*** a ***whoosh,***

Source slapping and smacking

Round her chops.

She scrapes the toast round the ***plate***

Crunching, grinding every mouthful.

She burps, gurgles and leaves the table!

Exercise 6. *Read* the poem, translate the onomatopoeic words into Ukrainian,

make up two more lines of the poem.

MY SPORTS ONOMATOPOEIA

My aluminum bat goes PING,

My tennis racket goes TWANG,

My golf club goes WHUMP,

My basketball goes CLANK, sometimes WHOOSH,

My horseshoe goes THUD, sometimes CLANK,

My football goes SLAP,

My bowling bowl goes RUMBLE, sometimes CRASH,

My swimming body goes SPLASH,

My marble goes CLACK.

Exercise 7. Read the following words *(n.* + v. *pair) paying* attention the stress shift in them.

Ally, n. – ally, v.;

conduct, n. – conduct, v.;

conflict, n. – conflict, v.;

conscript, n. – conscript, v.;

contract, n. – contract, v.;

convict – convict, v.;

desert, n. – desert, v.;

discard, n. – discard, v.;

discount, n. – discount, v.;

increase, n. – increase, v.;

insert, n. – insert, v.;

pervert, n. – pervert, v.;

project, n. – project, v.;

record, n. – record, v.;

relay, n. – relay, v.;

subject, n. – subject, v.;

survey, n. – survey, v.

Exercise 8. Match the sentences in A to the onomatopeic words that describe them.

A	B
1. A plate being dropped on the floor.	a) TINKLE
2. A balloon being burst.	b) BANG
3. A gun being shot.	c) SMASH
4. Someone eating crisps.	d) GROWL
5. Light being switched on.	e) POP
6. A fierce dog	f) CRUNCH
7. A small bell being rung	g) CLICK

Exercise 9. Match the words with their definitions.

Con-man, footman, layman, sandman, milkman, walkman, weatherman, sandwichman.

a) a person without expert knowledge

b) a person who walks about the streets with I advertising boards hanging from his shoulders

c) a small portable radio or cassette player listened to 1 by means of earphones

d) a mythical person who makes children sleepy

e) a male servant who attends the door, the carriage, the table, etc.

f) a person who reports and forecasts the weather

g) a person who persuades foolish people to entrust their valuables to him

h) a person who sells or delivers milk and milk products

Lecture 3

SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH WORD

1. **Semasiology. The meaning of the word.**
2. **Meaning and context.**
3. **Changes of the meaning of the word (extention, narrowing, elevation, degradation, metaphor, metonymy).**

1. Semasiology (semantics) is a branch of linguistics dealing with the meaning of the word. The name comes from the Greek *semasia* 'signification' (from *sema* 'sign', *semantikos* 'significant' and *logos* 'learning').

According to the native linguists **the meaning** of the word is the expression of concepts of things fixed in sounds. There are 2 types of the meaning of the word: the lexical meaning and the grammatical meaning.

The lexical meaning of the word is the realization of the concept or emotion by means of a definite language system.

The grammatical meaning of the word is the expression in speech relationship between words based on contrastive features of arrangements, in which they are used, e.g. grammatical meaning of case, gender, etc. The lexical meaning is identical in all grammatical forms. It is the same throughout its paradygm. The grammatical meaning differs from one form to another: moves, moved, moving... The grammatical meaning is more abstract and more generalized than the lexical meaning, it unites words into big groups such as parts of speech or **lexico-grammatical classes**. It is recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words. E. g. *students, lessons, pens,* whose common element is the grammatical meaning of plurality.

The lexical meaning has two **components:** denotative (denotational) and connotative (connotational). The **denotative component** serves to identify and name concepts. It is directed towards things and phenomena of objective reality. It makes the communication possible. The **connotative component** serves to evoke or directly

express emotions and to refer words to different styles of speech in accordance with different social occasions and situations (to denote = to indicate; to connote = to include in the meaning, to imply).

Types of lexical meaning. First of all linguists distinguish between direct or nominative meanings when words name objects taken in isolation not in a given context, and figurative meanings when objects are named and at the same time characterised by the speaker through its similarity and contiguity (proximity) with other object. The classification given by ac. V. Vinogradov is based on the Russian language but can be applied to the study of other languages.

- **The direct nominative lexical meaning.** It is called direct because it is direct to say towards things, phenomena, processes, qualities, including the inner life man: a picture, chair, etc.

- **The phraseologically bound lexical meanings.** They are observed in phraseological units and are determined by the inner laws of a given lexical system. They exist only in some phraseological units historically conditioned, like *black market, black Friday.*

- **The syntactically conditioned lexical meaning** which is realized in the word o when it is used in a definite syntactical function of a sentence.

e.g. *the girl is ill; ill tongues.*

- **The structurally conditioned lexical meaning** of the word by the stable structure of the semantic groups with which the word is combined.

e.g. *to make progress to make a good teacher; to make smb. happy.*

Within the semantic structure of the word linguists distinguish the following lexical meanings:

1. abstract and concrete;

2. primary (main) and secondary;

3. central and peripheral;

4. narrow and extended;

5. main and derived

6. general and particular.

These terms reflect relationship between different meanings of the word at the same time. Besides, lexical meanings may be classified into stylistically neutral and stylistically coloured.

2. Polysemy in English. Words that have more than one meaning are called polysemantic (polysemic); one meaning – monosemantic.

E.g. *Face* – the front part of the head;

the front part of the building;

the front part of the watch; etc (figurative meaning).

Heart – the central organ of body that sends blood through it;

the central part of a forest;

the centre of emotion, of mental and moral qualities, etc.

The commoner a word is the more meanings it has. Polysemy is characteristic for all developed languages. But it is especially characteristic in English due to it: analytical structure and its phonemic shapes of words (one stressed-syllable words are commonly used in English: do, bring, make).

Polysemy exists only in language, not in speech. In our speech a polysemantic word has only one of its meanings. Other meanings of it we shall find in other contexts. We say that it is the context that gives a word its actual meaning. The term **'context'** denotes the minimal stretch of speech that determines each individual meaning of the word.

Two main ways of the development of meaning of a polysemantic word are radiation and concatenation.

Radiation is a semantic process in which the primary meaning is in the centre and the secondary meanings developed from it in every direction like rays.

Concatenation (Lat.): con (together) + catena (chain) – is a semantic process in which the primary meaning gives rise only to the first secondary meaning. The first secondary meaning gives rise to the second secondary meaning and so on.

e.g. **style** – a pointed instrument used for various purposes;

a tool for writing;

a mode of writing;

manner in general.

Radiation and concatenation are closely connected. Radiation usually proceeds concatenation. In many cases the connection between the primary and the last secondary meaning is not felt. Concatenation and radiation are different stages of the same process. In order to study this process one must know the etymology of polysemantic word. The development and change of the semantic structure of a word is a source of a qualitative and quantitative growth of the vocabulary. There are **3 ways** of the enrichment of the vocabulary:

- the formation of new words (due to word-building process);
- the development of the meanings of already existed words;
- borrowings from other languages.

The more meanings a word acquires, the more developed is its semantic structure and the semantic system of the language. The more developed is the semantic system of the language the richer is its vocabulary.

3. Word meaning is able to change in the course of the historical development of the language. The factors accounting for semantic changes maybe subdivided into 2 groups: extralinguistic and linguistic causes.

By extralinguistic causes we mean various changes in the life of the community. Changes in economic ideas, way of life are reflected in the word meaning. New meanings can also be developed due to linguistic factors, e.g. the development of new meanings and also a complete change of meaning may be caused through the influence of other word: the old E. word ‘deer’ had a general meaning denoting any beast. In that meaning it collided with a borrowed word ‘animal’ and changed its meaning to the modem one – a certain kind of beast.

Extention of meaning (or generalization) is a semantic process when the word range is extended. Most words begin as specific names for things. Often this precise denotation is quickly lost and the word’s meaning is extended and generalized. It is often due to contiguity of form, position, colour and to the similarity of function. It

includes not only the change from concrete to abstract but also from specific to general.

e.g. salary (Lat.) – originally meant ‘salt’ (sal), then – a sum of money given to a soldier to buy some salt with, then – a wage;

season (Lat.) – meant time for sowing seeds, then – a period of the year;

country – a small village, then – a state;

to fly – to move through the air with wings – any kind of movement in the air or outer space or any very quick movement.

The scope of new notion is wider than that of the original one. A good example is the word *manuscript*, a word that now refers to any author’s copy whether written by hand or typed, but originally meant only *something handwritten.*

Many of our words were derived from proper names by the process known as **antonomasia.**

e.g. **Adonis** (*гр. міф.* Адоніс) – надзвичайно вродливий юнак, денді, красень;

Aesculapius *(рим. міф.* Эскулап) – жарт, лікар, медик;

Amor *(гр. міф.* Амур) – мист. амур, купідон.

Antonomasia is treated as ‘1) using common name instead of proper and vice versa; 2) figurative definition of a person’.

Narrowing of meaning (or specialization) is a semantic process in which the word of wider meaning acquires a narrower, specialized sense in which it is appliable only to some of the objects it had previously denoted or a word of wider usage is restricted in its application and is used only in special sense.

e.g. hound – a dog in general – a dog used for hunting and racing;

meat – food – flesh of animals and birds;

girl – child of any sex – a female child;

wife – a woman – a married woman;

voyage – a trip in general – a journey by sea.

Words used in specialized trades and occupations often lose their general

meaning and take only specialized. Slang and technical terms are well usually good illustrations of the process.

Elevation of meaning (or amelioration) is a semantic process in which a word denotes position of greater importance. It is due to the social attitude of the speaker towards objects, persons, phenomena. Elevated words acquire more positive, better meanings.

e.g. lord – loaf-ward – master – a person belonging to nobility;

marshal – horse servant – master of the horse – officer of the highest rank;

queen – a woman – the wife of a king;

minister – a servant – a member of the cabinet.

Some words have elevated their meanings through the association with aristocratic or town life.

e.g. **knight** – a boy, **a servant** – man of nobility.

Degradation of meaning (or pejoration) is a semantic process by which a word denotes positions of less importance.

e.g. knave – a boy, a servant – a dishonest man;

villain – a farm servant – a wicked man;

boor – a peasant, tiler of the soil – a rough, ill mannered person.

Metaphor (Gr.) – is the transference of meaning based on similarity. Cases of metaphor:

a. metaphor based on the similarity of function or use: e.g. *hands of clock; arms of a chair; book-warm;*

b. based on the similarity of movement: *caterpillar tractor; foxtrot;*

c. based on similarity of temperature: *cool-head; warm greeting; cold reason;*

d. of position: *foot of a mountain; top of a page; head of procession;*

e. of appearance, form: *head of a cabbage; needle's eye; the nose of a plane or ship;*

f. of sound: *barking* (=cough).

Zoosemy is the type of metaphor; it's a semantic process by which names of animals are used to denote human qualities.

e.g. fox – a sly and cunning person;

tiger – a cruel person;

ass – a stupid and obstinate;

lion – a brave.

Phraseological units: wolf in sheep's clothing;

to make mountain out of a molehill;

as the crow flies;

rains cats and dogs.

The metaphotical use of denominative verbs:

to fox – to trick;

to ape – to imitate;

to dog – to follow;

to wolf – to eat greedely.

Simile (comparison) – is very close to metaphor. It is a semantic process in which two usually quite different objects are compared. Cases of simile are introduced with the help of the conjunctions***: than, like, as, though, as if.***

e.g. *In the battle he was as brave as a lion.*

In metaphor no conjunctions are observed.

e.g. *In battle he was a lion.*

Metaphor can be extended to simile.

Metonymy (Gr.) is transference of meaning based on contiguity (nearness, proximity) of concepts of things and phenomena. Cases:

a. The name of an instrument is used for an agent (doer). *E.g. The pen is stronger than the sword. The best pens of the day.*

b. The sign is used for the thing meant. *E.g. From the cradle to the grave. Grey hair.*

c. The name of the container for the thing contained. *E.g. to drink a cup of coffee; the kettle is boiling.*

d. The abstract is substituted for the concrete. *E.g. He was summoned by the authorities.*

e. The material for the thing made of it. *E.g. A glass of water. Silver. Boards (=the stage).*

f. The names of organs: *She has a good ear for music; to loose one's head.*

g. The geographical names are used to denote things produced in these countries for the first time: *Manchester (cotton textile); Boston (wool); Champagne.*

h. Names of places meaning people acting at the places: *The table kept laughing. She was the talk of the village.*

i. Names of persons to denote the things invented by them: *makintosh, sandwich, nicotine (Jean Nicot).*

j. In the political sphere when the place of some establishment is used not only for the establishment or its staff but also for its policy: *the White House; the Downing Street 10; the Pentagon.*

Synecdoche (Gr.) – is the semantic process in which the part is used for the whole or the whole for the part.

e.g. *foot (=infantry); to earn one's bread.*

It is the simplest case of metonymy.

Hyperbole (Gr.) – the semantic process when a word expresses exageration.

e.g. *Haven't seen you for ages.*

I beg a thousand pardons.

Millions of reasons.

The whole town was here.

Questions for Self-Control

1. What are the causes of semantic change?

2. What are the results of semantic change in the denotative and connotative meanings?

3. What are the sources of polysemy in Modern English and Ukrainian?

4. What are the types of connection between the primary and secondary meanings of polysemic words?

5. How would you define the metaphor? What types of similarity can be observed in the metaphor?

6. How would you define the metonymy? What types of association can you observe in the metonymy?

Practical Tasks

Exersise 1. Complete the following examples of polysemy in English. Note the degree to which they correspond with your own language.

Leg of a person/chair…

Mouth of a person/river…

Branch of a tree/science…

Top

Tail

Exersise 2. Differentiate between cases of polysemy and homonymy in the following sentences.

a) The *sole* survivor of the shipwreck managed to stay alive by dinging to a Jife-raft. b) His shoes were old and when it started to rain the water began to seep through the left *sole*. c) I enjoy eating fish, and one of my favourites is Dover *sole*.

a) He's too *mean* to lend you money. b) What do you *mean* by implying I'm a liar? c) The *mean* annual rainfall in Britain is higher than that in Egypt. d) All possible *means* have been tried.

a)This meat is deliciously *tender*. It just melts in the mouth. b) I am ready to *tender* my resignation. c) They received a *tender* for a building contract. d) When

he was a child of *tender* years he used to spend a lot of time fishing with his father. e) She bruised her arm badly. It still felt very *tender* a week later.

a) She *bore* her husband four children. b) The man is such a *bore.* No wonder his wife divorced him. c) This new machine can *bore* a tunnel at a rate of three metres an hour. d) He *bore* pain without complaining. a) I saw Jimmy *bore* his way through the dense crowd.

Lecture 4

ENGLISH VOCABULARY AS A SYSTEM

1. **Definition of homonyms, their sources and classification. Paronyms.**
2. **Hyponymy. Synonyms and synonymic group. Their criteria, types and sources.**
3. **Antonyms, morphological and semantic classification.**

1. Homonyms (Gr. *homos* – the same; *onyma* – name) are words which are identical in sound and spelling or in one of these aspects, but different in their meaning, distribution and in many case origin.

e.g. *bank – a shore; an institution of receiving, exchanging and saving money;*

ball – a sphere; a large dancing party;

hare – hair (spelt differently, pronounced alike);

tear – tear (spelt alike, pronounced differently)

English vocabulary is rich in such pairs and groups of homonyms. In the list of 2540 homonyms given in Oxford dictionary only 1-2 % are of 2 syllables, most are monosyllabic.

In the English language exist 3 main sources of homonyms:

a) phonetic changes;

b) borrowings;

c) a result of split polysemy.

a) Words undergo phonetical changes in the course of their historical development. As a result of such changes 2 or more words which were formally pronounced differently, may develop identical sound forms and thus become homonyms: e.g. ‘night’ and ‘knight’ were not homonyms in Old English as an initial ‘k’ was pronounced and not dropped as it is in modern sound form.

b) Homonyms that appear in English due to borrowing are called etymological homonyms. A borrowed word may in the final stage of its phonetic adaptation duplicate in form either native word or another borrowing.

e.g. *match (native) – a game;*

match (Fr.) – a slender short piece of wood used to produce fire;

arm (En.) – to arm (F-L).

Word-building also contributes significantly to the growth of homonymy and the most important type in this respect is undoubtedly conversion, e.g. *comb – to comb; to drink; to walk; to mother; to pale.*

Homonyms of this type which are the same in sound and spelling but refer to different categories of parts of speech are called lexico-grammatical homonyms. Shortenings: *ad-add; doc-dock.*

c) Two or more homonyms can originate from different meanings of the same word when, for some reason , the semantic structure of a word breaks into several parts. This type of formation of homonyms is called split polysemy. It is the case when a secondary meaning of polysemantic words looses its connection with primary meaning.

e.g. *board – a long and thin piece of timber;*

board – daily meals ('room and board');

board – an official group of persons who direct or supervise some activity ('a board of directors').

It is clear that the meanings of these 3 words are in no way associated with one another. The semantic structure of the word 'board' was split into 3 units. It should be stressed that split polysemy as a source of homonyms is not accepted by all scholars, some of them are of the opinion that we are dealing with different meanings of the same word. The data of different dictionaries often contradict each other on this very issue.

The subdivision of homonyms into:

a) homonyms proper (complete, perfect, absolute) – pronounced and spelt alike (*ball-ball*);

b) homophones – pronounced alike, spelt differently (*site – sight; son – sun; see – sea*);

c) homographs – identical in spelling but different both in sound form and

meaning:

bow – a piece of wood, curved by a string and used for shooting arrows;

bow – the bending of the head and body.

Such subdivision is certainly not precise enough and doesn't reflect certain important features of these words and their status of parts of speech. Consequently Prof. Smimitskiy classified homonyms into 2 large classes:

1) full homonyms; 2) partial homonyms.

Full lexical homonyms are words which represent the same category of parts of speech and have the same paradygm*: match – match*.

Partial homonyms are subdivided into 3 subgroups:

a) simple lexico-grammatical partial homonyms are words that belong to the same category of parts of speech. Their paradygms have one identical form, but it is never the same form:

found (Present Indefinite) – found (Past Indefinite of find);

b) complex lexical-grammatical partial homonyms are words of different categories of parts of speech which have one identical form in their paradygm:

rose, n - a flower;

rose, v – Past Indefinite to rise;

made, v – Past Indefinite to make; maid, n – a servant;

one – numeral; won – Past Indefinite to win.

c) partial lexical homonyms are words of the same category of parts of speech which are identical only in their corresponding forms:

to lie (lay-lain) – to occupy a horizontal position;

to lie (lied-lied) – to utter falsehood;

to can (canned-canned);

can (could).

Somewhat related to homonyms are paronyms, i.e. words which are alike in form, but different in meaning. Paronymy is universal, not specifically English.

For example, the words *capitol* and *capital* seem to be very similar, but they are from different Latin roots.

The word *'capital'* has various senses, meaning punishable by death, principal, a scat of government, and wealth used in an investment. This word derives from the Latin *'caput'*, meaning *head'*. It made its way into English from Old French via the Normans.

The more limited term, '*capitol'*, refers to the building where the U.S. Congress meets in Washington, DC *"Capitol"* is a direct import from Latin into American English. It derives from the Capttoline Hill, one of the seven hills of ancient Rome, where the temple to Jupiter once stood. The architecture of Washington, DC was deliberately designed to evoke images of the Roman Republic, and in this case the word chosen for the halls of Congress does also.

We may distinguish three groups of paronyms.

1) Words having the same root but different derivational prefixes.

e.g. *precede – proceed, preposition – proposition, abnormal – subnormal*

2) Words having the same root but different derivational suffixes.

e.g. *popular – populous, carefree – careless, elementary – elemental, contemptible – contemptuous*

3) Word which originated from different sources and the likeness may be accidental.

e.g. *absolute – obsolete, adopt – adapt, grisly – grizzly, affect – effect*

Paronyms may occur among phrases. These are word groups consisting of identical lexical units but differing in some morphological and syntactical forms and, consequently, in meaning.

e.g. *fall somebody names (speak of somebody offensively) – call somebody's name (utter this person's name); lose one's heart (fall in love) – lose heart (get scared).*

2. Modern English has a very extensive vocabulary. It may be classified in various ways. Closely connected sectors of vocabulary characterized by a common concept are termed semantic fields.

e.g. *the semantic field of colour (blue, black, red, etc.)*

terms of kinship (mother, father, brother, etc.).

The basis of grouping is not only linguistic, but also extra-linguistic: the words are associated because the things they name are closely connected in reality. Words making up semantic fields are not synonyms, they may belong to different parts of speech, but all of them are joined together by some common semantic component. E.g., in the semantic field of space there are nouns – surface, expanse; verbs – extend, spread; adj. – spacious, vast, etc.

Lexical groups of words belonging to the same part of speech and linked by a common concept are termed lexico–semantic group (LSG). E.g. *bread, cheese, milk, meat* make up LSG with the concept of food.

Another approach to the classification of vocabulary items into lexico-semantic groups is the study of hyponymic relations between words. By hyponymy we mean a semantic relationship of inclusion. Thus, for example, "vehicle" includes 'car, bus, taxi, cart, etc.'; 'tree' includes 'oak, pine, birch, etc'. Thus, the hyponimic relationship may be viewed as the hierarchical relationship between the meaning of the general and the individual terms.

The general term (vehicle/tree) is sometimes referred to as the hyperonym (or classifier). The more specific term is called the hyponym of the more general.

It should be noted that in such hierarchical structures certain words may be both classifiers and members of the group.

e.g. *animal – dog – bulldog*

The hyponimic structure may be open, for example, flowers: *lily, daffodil, pansy, daisy*, etc.

Some of them are closed systems, i.e. have a strictly limited number (for example, 7 days of the week, 9 planets of the solar system, 9 Muses, 7 deadly sins, etc.).

Synonyms (Gr.: syn. – together, onyma – name): are traditionally defined as words different in their sound-form but similar or identical in meaning. The definition is problematic. Now they are defined as words different in their sound-form but similar in their denotational component and different in their connotational

component and interchangeable at least in some contexts.

English is very rich in synonyms. You can find more than 8.000 synonyms in dictionaries. Synonyms are one of the language's most expressive means.

Synonyms are grouped according to their common features (e.g. part of speech, meaning, etc.). Each group possesses the synonymic dominant.

The synonymic dominant is the most general word of a group of synonyms that possesses the specific features characteristic of a given group of synonyms. One should not confuse the synonymic dominant with the generic term. A generic term is the name for the concept of the genus: animal.

Characteristic features of synonymic dominant:

1) high frequency of usage;
2) broad combinability; ability to be used in combination with other words;
3) broad general meaning;
4) lack of connotation.

e.g. *to look, to stare, to glare, to gaze, to glance, to peer, to peep.*

The division of synonyms into groups is debatable. But it is generally accepted the classification by V.Vinogradov according to which main groups of synonyms are: ideographic, stylistic and absolute.

Ideographic – are those which differ in their shades of meaning.

e.g. *cold – cool – chilly – frosty – frigid ;*

cold – the absence of heat (hand, day);

cool – moderate coldness (drink, breeze);

chilly – coldness that makes one shiver (room, morning);

frosty – extreme coldness (day);

frigid – the intensity of coldness (climate, weather).

In this case we have connotations of the degree or intensity.

Ideographic synonyms are nearly identical in one or more denotational meanings and interchangeable at least in some contexts.

Stylistic synonyms are used in different styles, they differ in connotational component of the meaning: *shore (coll.) – strand (bookish); die (neutral) – to kick*

the bucket (slang); child (neutral) – infant (elevated) – kid (coll.).

Besides, we can distinguish 7 subgroups of synonyms:

1) those who are very close in meaning: *horrible – terrible; to answer – to reply;*

2) those which differ in meaning considerably: *interpreter – translator;*

3) those which differ in the manner of the action, expressed by the verb: *to look, to glance, to gaze, to stare, to eye, to peep, to regard;*

4) differ in the degree of a given quality in the intensity of the action performed or the intensity of emotion: *to want, to desire, to long for;*

5) which denote the same thing but differ in emotional colouring: *great man, big man;*

6) differ in the volume of the concept they express: *happy – lucky; illness – disease;*

7) pairs of synonyms when one expresses a continuous action and the other a momentary action: *to speak – to say.*

Besides, there are absolute and phraseological synonyms. Absolute synonyms (which coincide in all shades of meaning) are rare. They either become different in their shades of meaning or one of them disappears: *sky – heaven; fatherland – motherland*. Phraseological synonyms are synonymous in certain combinations: The English language – the English tongue, but the mother tongue (not language); to lay (to spread) the table (only); wild – savage: wild animals or berries (but not savage).

Euphemisms (Gr.eu – well; phemi – speak) – are pleasant and (or) harmless words substituted for disagreeable, ruff ones: *to die – to pass away; drunk – intoxicated, merry; mad – queer, insane; to kill – to finish, to remove; foolish – unwise.*

Sources of synonyms:

a) borrowing:

freedom (E.) – liberty (Fr.);

heaven (E.) – sky (Sc.);

ask (E.) – question (L – Fr.);

answer (E.) – reply (L – Fr.).

Native words are stylistically neutral (*loan – bookish*).

b) dialects and variants of the Eglish language: *charm* (Midland) – *glamour* (Scottish);

c) word-building processes productive at a given stage contribute to the formation of synonyms too. Words formed by means of affixation, composition, conversion, shortening become synonyms of already existing :

doc – doctor; star – gazer – dreamer;

d) already existing words develop new meanings:

to walk – to stroll; walk of life (occupation).

Synonyms often belong to several groups. Due to polysemy one and the same word may enter different groups of synonyms:

Ill – 1) sick; 2) mean, foul;

Close – 1) shut; 2) end.

The skill to choose the most suitable word in every context and every situation is an essential part of the language learning process.

3. Antonymy.

Semantic similarity or polarity of words may be observed in their denotational or connotational meanings. Similarity or polarity of meanings is to be found in lexical groups of synonyms and antonyms. Similarity and polarity of denotative components serve as the basis for stylistic stratification of vocabulary units. Both problems atr much the same and are approached in similar ways.

Antonyms (Gr. anti – against, onyma – name) – are words which are different in sound form and characterized by semantic polarity of their denotative meanings. Antonymy shares many features typical of synonymy. Like synonyms, perfect and complete antonyms are rare; interchangeability is typical to antonyms as well. In contrast with synonymy antonymy is a binary relationship between 2 words. In most cases antonyms go in pairs: day – night; present – absent; early – late. Groups of 3 or more words brought together as opposites are commonly reduced to binary

opposition: *difficult, hard – easy*; *broad, wide – narrow; rapid, fast – slow.*

According to morphological classification antonyms may be absolute (root) and derivational.

Absolute antonyms are diametrically opposite in meaning and remain antonyms in many word combinations: *love – hate; light – dark; white – black.*

Derivational antonyms are formed with the help of the negative affixes:

a) prefixes: un- (the most productive): *known - unknown;*

in- (with its allomorphs *il-, or-, im-): irregular, incomplete;*

dis-: *to disarrange, to disfigure, to dishonour;*

mis-: *misfortune, mislead, misproportion, to mistrust;*

non-: non-human, non-abolity, non-acceptance, non-aggressive.

b) suffixes: -less (often instead of -ful): *careful* – careless; *shameful – shameless; painful – painless.*

Mixed affixes: both absolute and derivational: *correct – incorrect, wrong; expensive – unexpensive, cheep; normal – abnormal, queer; temporary – untemporary, interminable.*

According to the semantic classification antonyms may be: proper, complementary, conversive.

The semantic polarity in antonyms proper is relative. It may embrace several elements characterized by differenet degrees of the same property. They always imply comparison: *large – little, small; strong – weak.* They denote polar degrees of the same notion – size. Such antonyms are called gradable, they indicate dimensions on the scale.

Complementary antonyms (complimentaries) are words characterized by a binary (double) opposition which may have only 2 members. The denial of one member implies the assertion of the other: *male – female; alive - dead.* They are absolute or non-gradable and indicate sharp boundaries in the semantic spectrum.

Conversives denote one and the same referent as viewed from different point of view (e.g. that of the subject and that of the object, etc.): *he gave her flowers and she took them.* Conversive pairs denote relations between objects and people: *lend and*

borrow; above and below; buy and sell. They bear symmetrical relations to each other.

Antonyms are common in proverbs.

e.g. *A good beginning makes a good ending.*

Better a witty fool than a foolish wit.

Drunkeness reveals what soberness conceals.

Questions for Self-Control

1. How would you define homonyms?

2. What classifications of homonyms do you know?

3. What are paronyms? Give examples.

4. What is meant by the term 'semantic field'?

5. How would you define hyponymy?

6. How would you define synonyms?

7. What are euphemisms? What notions usually attract euphemistic signification?

8. How would you define antonyms?

Practical Tasks

Exorcise 1. For each of words below, think of a context in which the items are interchangeable and a context in which only one of the words can be used.

e.g. refuse/reject

I'm *afraid they refused/rejected the offer.*

We reject goods that do not meet the required standard.

target/goal; shallow/superficial; fetch/bring; to rush/to hurry; think/believe.

Exercise 2. What are the complementaries of the following?

a) dead, b) true, c) same, d) animate, e) imperfect.

Exercise 3. To each of the following gradable antonyms add the rest of the scale.

e.g. *huge/big/medium-sized/small/tiny*

a) hot-cold (water)

b) love-hate

c) interesting-boring (film)

d) good-bad (book)

Exercise 4. Continue with the examples of "open" hyponimic systems.

Vehicle: car, bus, lorry...

Flower: lily, daffodil, geranium...

Tool: screwdriver, saw, chisel...

Dog: boxer, fox terrier, poodle ...

Exercise 5. For each word in Column A find its politically correct synonym from Column B.

Column A	**Column B**
1. blind, adj.	a) charm-free
2. bald, adj.	b)aurally inconvenienced
3. boring, adj.	c) hair-disadvantaged
4. deaf, adj.	d)ethically disorientated
5. dishonest, adj.	e)involuntary leisured
6. homeless, adj.	f)non-traditional shopper
7. shoplifter, n.	g)optically inconvenienced
8. short, adj.	h) negative saver
9. spendthrift, n.	i) underhosed
10. unemployed, adj.	j)vertically chalenged

Lecture 5

FREE WORD-GROUPS

1. **Definition of the Term.**
2. **Lexical and Grammatical Valency.**
3. **Classifications of the Word-Groups.**
4. **Meaning of the Word-Groups. Interdependence of Meaning and Structure in Word-Groups.**
5. **Motivation in Word-Groups.**

1. It will be recalled that lexicology deals with words, word-forming morphemes and word-groups. The largest two-facet lexical unit comprising more than one word is the word-group observed on the syntagmatic level of analysis.

The degree of structural and semantic cohesion of word-groups may vary. Some word-groups, e.g. at least, point of view, by means of, take place, seem to be functionally and semantically inseparable. Such word groups are usually described as set-phrases, word-equivalents or phraseological units and are traditionally regarded as the subject matter of the branch of lexicological science that studies phraseology. The component members in other word-groups, e.g. *a week ago, man of wisdom, take lessons, kind to people*, seem to possess greater semantic and structural independence. Word-groups of this type are defined as free or variable word-groups or phrases and are habitually studied in syntax. Word-groups are viewed as self-contained lexical units irrespective of the degree of structural and semantic cohesion of the component words.

2. The two main linguistic factors to be considered in uniting words into word-groups **are the lexical and the grammatical valency** of words.

It is an indisputable fact that words are used in certain lexical contexts, i.e. in combination with other words. The noun *question,* e.g., is often combined with such adjectives as *vital, pressing, urgent, disputable, delicate, etc*. This noun is a

component of a number of other word-groups, e.g. *to raise a question, a question of great importance, a question of the agenda, of the day,* and many others. The aptness of a word to appear in various combinations is described as its **lexical valency or collocability.**

The range of the lexical valency of words is linguistically restricted by the inner structure of the English word-stock. This can be easily observed in the selection of synonyms found in different word-groups.

Words habitually collocated in speech tend to constitute a cliché. We observe, for example, that the verb *put forward* and the noun *question* are habitually collocated.

e.g. *to win (or gain) a victory, keen sight (or hearing).*

The lexical valency of correlated words in different languages is not identical. Both the English word flower and its Russian counterpart — *квітка,* for example, may be combined with a number of other words all of which denote the place where the flowers are grown, e.g. garden flowers, hot-house flowers, etc. (cf. the Ukrainian *садові квіти, оранжерейні* etc.). The English word, however, cannot enter into combination with the word room to denote flowers growing in the rooms (cf. pot flowers — *кімнатні квіти).*

From this point of view word-groups may be regarded as the characteristic minimal lexical sets that operate as distinguishing clues for each of the multiple meanings of the word.

Words are used also in grammatical contexts. The minimal grammatical context in which words are used when brought together to form word-groups is usually described **as the pattern of the word-group.** For instance, the adjective heavy discussed above can be followed by a noun (e.g. heavy storm or by the infinitive of a verb (e.g. heavy to lift), etc. The aptness of a word to appear in specific grammatical (or rather syntactic) structures is termed **grammatical valency**.

The grammatical valency of words may be different. To begin with, the range of grammatical valency is delimited by the part of speech the word belongs to.

This is not to imply that grammatical valency of words belonging to the same

part of speech is necessarily identical. This can be best illustrated by comparing the grammatical valency of any two words belonging to the same part of speech, e.g. *verbs suggest and propose.* Both verbs can be followed by a noun *(to propose or suggest a plan, a resolution).* It is only propose, however, that can be followed by the infinitive of a verb (to propose to do something).

The adjectives *clever* and *intelligent* are seen to possess different grammatical valency as clever can be used in word-groups having the pattern: *Adjective-Preposition at+Noun* (clever at mathematics), whereas intelligent can never be found in exactly the same word-group pattern.

Specific linguistic restrictions in the range of grammatical valency of individual words imposed on the lexical units by the inner structure of the language are also observed by comparing the grammatical valency of correlated words in different languages. The English verb influence, for example, can be followed only by a noun *(to* influence a person, a decision, choice, etc.). The grammatical valency of its Ukrainian counterpart *впливати* is different. The Ukrainian verb can be combined only with a prepositional group (*впливати на дітей, вибір* etc.).

From this point of view word-groups may be regarded as minimal syntactic (or syntagmatic) structures that operate as distinguishing clues for different meanings of a polysemantic word.

3. Structurally word-groups may be approached in various ways. We know that word-groups may be described through the order and arrangement of the component members (a verbal — nominal group, verbal — prepositional — nominal, etc.)

All word-groups may be also analysed by the criterion of distribution into two big classes. If the word-group has the same linguistic distribution as one of its members, it is described **as endocentric**, i.e. having one central member functionally equivalent to the whole word-group.

e.g. *red flower, bravery of all kinds (cf., e.g., I saw a red flower — I saw a flower).*

If the distribution of the word-group is different from either of its members, it

is regarded as **exocentric**, i.e. as having no such central member, *for instance/side by side* or grow smaller and others where the component words are not syntactically substitutable for the whole word-group.

In endocentric word-groups the central component that has the same distribution as the whole group is clearly **the dominant member or the head** to which all other members of the group are subordinated.

e.g. *the head in red flower is the noun flower and in the word-group kind to people the head is the adjective kind, etc.*

It follows that word-groups may be classified according to their headwords into **nominal groups or phrases** (e.g. red flower), **adjectival groups** (e.g. kind to people), **verbal groups** (e.g. to speak well), etc.

Word-groups are also classified according to their syntactic pattern into **predicative and non-predicative groups.** Such word-groups as, e.g., *John works, he went* that have a syntactic structure similar to that of a sentence, are classified as predicative, and all others as non-predicative.

Non-predicative word-groups may be subdivided according to the type of syntactic relations between the components into **subordinative** (e.g**.** the words *red* and *of wisdom* are subordinated *to flower* and *man and* function as their attributes) and **coordinative *(****women and children, day and night, do or die).*

4. As with word-meaning, the meaning of word-groups may be analysed into **lexical and grammatical components.**

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

e.g. *blind man (cat, horse)*, BUT *blind type (print, handwriting) is different.*

As can be seen from the above examples, polysemantic words are used in word-groups only in one of their meanings. These meanings of the component words in such word-groups are mutually interdependent and inseparable.

Such word-groups as *school grammar* and *grammar school* are semantically different because of the difference in the pattern of arrangement of the component words.

The lexical and structural components of meaning in word-groups are interdependent and inseparable. The inseparability of these two semantic components in word-groups can, perhaps, be best illustrated by the semantic analysis of individual word-groups. Comparing two nominal phrases a factory hand — 'a factory worker' and a hand bag — 'a bag carried in the hand' we see that though the word hand makes part of both its lexical meaning and the role it plays in the structure of word-groups is different which accounts for the difference in the lexical and structural meaning of the word-groups under discussion.

We know that word-groups may be generally described through the pattern of arrangement of the constituent members. The term **syntactic (syntagmatic) structure (formula)** implies the description of the order and arrangement of member-words as parts of speech. These formulas can be used to describe all the possible structures of English word-groups. We can say, e.g., that the verbal groups comprise the following structural formulas: *V+N* (to build houses), *V+prp+N* (to rely on somebody), *V+N+prp+N* (to hold something against somebody), *V+N+V(inf.)* (to make somebody work), *V+ V(inf.)* (to get to know), and so on.

The structure of word-groups may be also described in relation to the head-word, e.g. the structure of the same verbal groups (to build houses, to rely on somebody) is represented as to build + *N*, to rely + on + *N*. In this case it is usual to speak of the patterns of word-groups but not of formulas.

e.g. Three patterns with the verb get as the head-word represents three different meanings of this verb, e.g. get+N *(get a letter, information, money, etc*.), get +to +N *(get to Moscow, to the Institute, etc.),* get+N+V(inf.) *(get somebody to come, to do the work, etc.).*

Broadly speaking we may conclude that as a rule the difference in the meaning of the head-word is conditioned by a difference in the pattern of the word-group in which this word is used.

Structurally simple patterns are as a rule polysemantic, i.e. representative of several meanings of a polysemantic head-word, whereas structurally complex patterns are monosemantic and condition just one meaning of the head-member

e.g. take+N*: take tea, coffee; take the bus, the tram, take measures, precautions, etc*,

e.g. take+to+N is monosemantic *(take to sports, to somebody).*

5. Word-groups like words may also be analysed from the point of view of their motivation. Word-groups may be described as **lexically motivated** if the combined lexical meaning of the groups is deducible from the meaning of their components.

E.g. red flower, heavy weight and take lessons, are from this point of view motivated, whereas structurally identical word-groups *red tape* – 'official bureaucratic methods', *heavy father* – 'serious or solemn part in a theatrical play', and *take place* – 'occur' are **lexically non-motivated**. In these groups the constituents do not possess any individual lexical meaning of their own.

Word-groups are said to be **structurally motivated** if the meaning of the pattern is deducible from the order and arrangement of the member-words of the group (e.g. *blind man*). The seemingly identical pattern *red tape* cannot be interpreted.

The degree of motivation may be different. Between the extremes of complete motivation and lack of motivation there are innumerable intermediate cases. For example, the degree of lexical motivation in the nominal group black market is higher than in black death, but lower than in black dress, though none of the groups can be considered as completely non-motivated.

It should also be noted that seemingly identical word-groups are sometimes found to be motivated or non-motivated depending on their semantic interpretation.

Thus apple sauce, e.g., is lexically and structurally motivated when it means ‘a sauce made of apples’ but when used to denote ‘nonsense’ it is clearly non-motivated. In this case we speak of homonymy.

Non-motivated word-groups are described as **phraseological units or idioms.**

So, words put together to form lexical units make up phrases or word-groups. The main factors active in bringing words together are lexical and grammatical valency of the components of word-groups.

Lexical valency is the aptness of a word to appear in various collocations. All the words of the language possess a certain norm of lexical valency. Restrictions of lexical valency are to be accounted for by the inner structure of the vocabulary of the English language.

Lexical valency of polysemantic words is observed in various collocations in which these words are used. Different meanings of a polysemantic word may be described through its lexical valency.

Grammatical valency is the aptness of a word to appear in various grammatical structures. All words possess a certain norm of grammatical valency. Restrictions of grammatical valency are to be accounted for by the grammatical structure of the language. The range of grammatical valency of each individual word is essentially delimited by the part of speech the word belongs to and also by the specific norm of grammatical valency peculiar to individual words of Modern English.

The grammatical valency of a polysemantic word may be observed in the different structures in which the word is used. Individual meanings of a polysemantic word may be described through its grammatical valency.

Structurally, word-groups may be classified by the criterion of distribution into endocentric and exocentric. Endocentric word-groups can be classified according to the head-word into nominal, adjectival, verbal and adverbial groups or phrases.

Semantically all word-groups may be classified into motivated and non-motivated. Non-motivated word-groups are usually described as phraseological nits.

Questions for Self-Control

1. What are the main factors that are active in uniting words into word groups?
2. What is lexical valency?
3. What is grammatical valency?
4. What classifications of word groups do you know?
5. How would you define the meaning of word groups?

Practical Tasks

Exercise 1. a) Say which of the following adjectives can be collocated with the nouns in the second line.

Light, heavy, mild, strong, weak

A dish, cheese, beer, cigarettes, coffee

b) Work in pairs and ask each other what kind of cigarettes, beer, cheese and coffee they prefer.

Exercise 2. Determine the meaning of the following word-groups.

Family doctor – doctor family, business district – district business, boat deck – deck boat, laboratory research – research laboratory, flower garden – garden flower, horse race – race horse, life boat – boat life, pet shop – shop pet.

Exercise 3. Determine the meaning of the following word-groups as motivated and non-motivated units.

Best man, break the ice, bum one's fingers, give somebody a ring, show somebody the door, throw down the glove, touch bottom.

Lecture 6

PHRASEOLOGY

1. Phraseological Units, Their Essential Features. Differences in Terminology.

2. Classifications of Phraseological Units:

a) Semantic Classification**;**

b) Contextual Classification;

c) Structural Clasification;

d) Etymological Classification.

3. Synonymous Phraseological Units.

1. In linguistic literature the term is used for the expressions where the meaning of one element is dependent on the other, irrespective of the structure and properties of the unit (V. V. Vinogradov); with other authors it denotes only such set expressions which do not possess expressiveness or emotional colouring (A. I. Smirnitsky), and also vice versa: only those that are imaginative, expressive and emotional (I. V. Arnold). N. N. Amosova calls such expressions fixed context units, i.e. units in which it is impossible to substitute any of the components without changing the meaning not only of the whole unit but also of the elements that remain intact. O. S. Ahmanova insists on the semantic integrity of such phrases prevailing over the structural separateness of their elements. A. V. Koonin lays stress on the structural separateness of the elements in a phraseological unit, on the change of meaning in the whole as compared with its elements taken separately and on a certain minimum stability.

So, **phraseological units** are habitually defined as non-motivated word-groups that cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready-made units. This definition proceeds from the assumption that the essential features of phraseological units are stability of the lexical components and lack of motivation.

The essential features of phraseological units are:

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

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

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

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

Difference in terminology (‘set-phrases’, ‘idioms’, ‘word-equivalents’) reflects certain differences in the main criteria used to distinguish types of phraseological units and free word-groups.

The term ‘**set phrase’** implies that the basic criterion of differentiation is stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure of word-groups.

The term ‘**idiom**’ generally implies that the essential feature of the linguistic units is idiomaticity or lack of motivation.

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

2. Classifications of Phraseological Units

a) Semantic Classification

The first classification is based on the semantic criterion. Taking into account the degree of idiomaticity phraseological units may be classified into three big groups: phraseological fusions, phraseological unities, and phraseological combinations/collocations. This classification was suggested by Academician V. V. Vinogradov concerning Russian and it may be transferred to English and any other language too.

Phraseological fusions are completely non-motivated word-groups, such as:

red tape

heavy father

kick the bucket etc.

The meaning of the components has no connection whatsoever, at least synchronically, with the meaning of the whole group. Idiomaticity is, as a rule, combined with the complete stability of the lexical components and the grammatical structure of the fusion.

Phraseological unities are partially non-motivated as their meaning can usually be perceived through the metaphoric meaning of the whole phraseological unit.

e.g. *show one's teeth*

wash one's dirty linen in public

bring one's pigs to the wrong market

Phraseological unities are, as a rule, marked by a comparatively high degree of stability of the lexical components.

Still the meaning of a phraseological unity is not entirely unmotivated; it is figurative and is related to the direct meaning of the word combination (free word group) as a figurative meaning of a word to its direct meaning.

e.g. *play the first fiddle*

take the bull by the horns

Phraseological collocations are motivated but they are made up of words possessing specific lexical valency which account for a certain degree of stability in such word-groups. In phraseological collocations variability of member-words is strictly limited. For instance, we may say *'bear a grudge', 'bear malice'* – but we cannot say *'bear a fancy'*.

Phaseological collocations differ from free word groups in the fact that one component of it is limited in its combinative power.

Phraseological collocations may express the following relations:

- attributive relations: *deep gratitude, close friend*
- object relations: *take measures. cast a glance*

- subject-predicate relations: *Time flies.*
- adverbial relations: *snow heavily, try hard*

Academician Vinogradov's conception of phraseology was a considerable contribution to the study of phraseology. However, his classification does not exhaust the variety of English phraseology. Beside it lacks uniform and objective criteria: phraseological unities and fusions are distinguished from each other by the degree of idiomaticity, which is not determined objectively and which is a different criterion from that distinguishing phraseological combinations.

This approach is criticized because the semantic criterion of idiomaticity is found to be an inadequate guide in singling out phraseological units from other word-groups. Borderline cases are so numerous and confusing that that the final decision seems to depend largely on one's 'feeling of the language'. The same word-groups are treated by some linguists as idiomatic phrases and by others as free word- groups.

b) Contextual Classification

A different semantic classification of phraseological units is suggested by N. N. Amosova who uses the contextual approach. Free word-groups make up variable contexts whereas the essential feature of phraseological units is a non-variable or fixed context.

In variable contexts word substitution of one of the components is possible within the limits of the lexical valency of this word.

For example, in the word-group '*small town*' the second component may be replaced by the nouns *room, audience, house, place, lake, etc* and the first component by the adjectives *large, big, spacious, etc.*

In the word-group '*small hours'* (the early hours of the morning from 12 a.m. to 4 a.m.) no substitution is possible. The constituent '*small'* in this word-group has a specific meaning '*early.* It has this meaning only in collocation with *hours.*

Phraseological units may be subdivided into phrasemes and idioms.

Phrasemes are, as a rule, two member word groups in which one of the members has specialized meaning dependent on the second component.

e.g. *blank verse (unrhymed verse)*

white Christmas

Idioms are distinguished from phrasemes by the idiomaticity of the whole word-group and the impossibility of attaching meaning to the members of the group taken in isolation. Idioms are semantically and grammatically inseparable units. They may comprise unusual combinations of words which are normally not used together (e.g. *mare's nest*) or usual combinations which are homonymous with free word-groups (e.g. *let the cat out of the bag*).

An idiom may also be characterized by the presence of a dead element (a word not used outside this idiom).

e.g. *in the nick of time*

So in the contextual approach two criteria of phraseological units are taken into account: specialized meaning of the components and non-variability of context.

c) Structural Classification

Professor Koonin's classification is based on the functions the unit perform in speech. They may be:

- nominating (e.g. *a bull in a china shop*),
- interjectional (e.g. *a pretty kettle of fish*),
- communicative (e.g. *Familiarity breeds contempt*)
- nominating-communicative (e.g. *pull somebody's leg – somebody's leg is pulled*).

There is a very detailed classification into subclasses within each group.

d) Etymological Classification

Phraseological units originate in different spheres of human activities and come into vocabulary from different sources:

- Phraseological units originated from ancient mythology.

e.g. *the sword of Damocles, Pandora's box*

- Phaseological units originated from the Bible.

e.g. *Judas's kiss, doubting Thomas*

- Phraseological units originated from literary sources or folklore.

e.g. *fight the windmills, peeping Tom*

- Phraseological units may be associated with some obsolete customs or forgotten historical facts.

e.g. *baker's dozen, bury the hatchet, white elephant*

3. Synonymous Phraseological Units

Phraseological units, like words, can be synonymous to one another. There are two main types of synonyms in English phraseology.

(1) Those identical in structure and lexical composition except for one variable component.

e.g. *draw to an end – d raw to a close,*

have an eye on - keep an eye on

They may be treated as variants of the same phraseological unit.

(2) Those based on different images and different in lexical composition.

e.g. *put on airs – ride the high horse*

a pretty kettle of fish – a nice pair of shoes

Questions for Self-Control

1. What is Phraseology?
2. What is the definition of phraseological units?
3. What are the essential features of Phraseological units?
4. What is the difference between 'set phrase' and 'idiom'?
5. What classifications of phraseological units do you know?
6. What do we mean by the term 'fixed context'?
7. What is proverb?
8. What is quotation?
9. What is saying?

Practical Tasks

Exercise 1. Determine the meaning of the following phraseological units in which one element has a specific meaning.

Straight play, big shot, green winter, blank cartridge, blank verse, soft job, vicious circle, small potato, thin excuse.

Exercise 2. Complete the following table.

Pharaseological unit	Kind (according Vinofradov's classification)	Source	Meaning
Thirty pieces of silver			
Solomon's judgement			
good Samaritan			
shed crocodile tears			
Midas touch			
Quixotic behaviour			
Hobson's choice			
Indian giver			
Last of the Mohicans			
Hercules labour			
fifth column			

Exercise 3.

Find phraseological units in the sentences given below. Translate phraseological units. Compare them with the relevant word-groups. Comment upon difference between free word-group and phraseological unit. Answer the questions following.

1. I've let the cat out of the bag already, Mr. Corthall, and I might as well tell the whole thing now. 2. Suddenly Sugar screwed up his face in pain and grabbing one foot in his hands hopped around like a cat on hot bricks. "Can't we get a tram, Jack?

My feet is giving me hell in these nov (new) shoes". 3. No doubt a life devoted to pleasure must sometimes show the reverse side of the medal. 4. The day's news has knocked the bottom out of my life. 5. Cowperwood had decided that he didn't care to sail under any false colours so far as Addison was concerned. 6. Falstaff... I was beaten myself into all the colours of the rainbow. 7. About three weeks after the elephant's disappearance I was about to say one morning, that I should have to strike my colours and retire, when the great detective arrested the thought by proposing one more superb and masterly move. 8. We lived among bankers and city big wigs.

1. What do we mean by the term 'fixed context'? Do phraseological units given above belong to 'phrasemes' or 'idioms'?

2. To which group do these phraseological units belong if we follow V.V.Vinogradov's classification?

Exercise 4.

In the following sentences, there is an idiom in bold. Decide on the key word, then look in your dictionary to see if you are right. Suggest a non-idiomatic variant.

1.Don't believe what he said about Trish. He was talking through his hat. He doesn't even know her.

2.Come here! I've got a bone to pick with you! Why did you tell Anne about ken and me splitting up? I told you not to tell anyone.

3. I don't think correct spelling is terribly important, but my teacher has a bee in his bonnet about it. If I ever make a spelling mistake, he makes us write it out twenty times.

4. Ford Motors have a new saloon car in the pipeline, and it will be revealed for the first time at next year's Motor Show.

5. You have to be careful with sales people. They have the gift of the gab. Suddenly you can find you've bought something that you really didn't want.

6. The company has put forward many reasons why it can't offer a substantial pay rise. The reason, in a nutshell, is that the company is very nearly bankrupt.

7.- I met a man called Anthony Trollope.

- Mmm. The name rings a bell, but I can't put a face to it.

8. - Come on, John! Who is right, me or Peter?

- Don't ask me to decide. I'm sitting on the fence.

Exercise 5.

Determine which of the underlined word-combinations are phraseological units.

1. Where do you think you lost your purse?
2. When losing the game one shouldn't lose one's temper.
3. Have a look at the reverse side of the coat.
4. The reverse side of the medal is that we'll have to do it ourselves.
5. Keep the butter in the refrigerator.
6. Keep an eye on the child.
7. He threw some cold water upon her. Wake up.
8. I didn't expect that he would throw cold water upon our project.
9. The tourists left the beaten track and saw a lot of interesting places.
10. The author leaves the beaten track and offers a new treatment of the subject.
11. I don't want to have a bushman's holiday.
12. Let's stretch a point for him.
13. The weak go to the wall.
14. She looks as if butter wouldn't melt in her mouth.

Exercise 6.

The following expressions can help you to describe people. Think literally and figuratively of people who

have head for heights

have got light fingers

are feeling under the weather

spend money like water

have got ants in their pants

have good ear for music

are in the red

have recently been given the brush off by somebody

easily fly off the handle

Exercise 7.

Study the following expressions. What classification would you apply to them?

Dutch feast

Dutch courage

Dutch wife

Dutch bargain

French window

French disease

Lecture 7

STYLISTIC PECULIARITIES OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

1. Historical development of the English and Ukrainian Vocabularies: Archaisms/Historisms. Neologisms.

2. Stylistically neutral words.

3. Literary-bookish words:

a) terms

b) barbarisms

c) poetic words

d) archaisms

e)literary neologisms

5. Colloquial words

a) literary colloquial

b) non-literary: jargonisms, professionalisms, vulgarisms.

1. The vocabulary of a language never remains stable. In the process of time some words disappear and new words appear with the development of human knowledge, with changes in the social system, with the growth and development of culture. Words which disappear from the language are called obsolete. They may remain in use for special purposes as archaisms.

It is necessary to distinguish between ‘historisms’ and ‘archaisms’. Historisms are words and phrases that have become obsolete because the things they denote are outdated and do not exist any longer. Historisms are numerous as names for social relations, institutions and objects of material culture of the past. The names of the ancient transport means, such as types of boats and carriages, ancient clothes, weapons, musical instruments, trades and professions can offer many examples. No modem synonym can be found for historical words.

We find historical words in the names of trades and professions which do not exist today.

e.g. *fletcher – one who made arrows*

chandler – one who made candles

gleeman – one who played the harp

Many names of horse-drawn carriages have also become obsolete and can be found only in fiction.

e.g. *brougham – a light closed carriage with the driver outside the front*

gig – a light two-wheeled one-horse carriage

phaeton – a light four-wheeled horse-drawn vehicle

We find historical words with the names of sailing ships (*caravel, galleon, corvette*), names of old musical instruments (*lyre, theorba, ciihara*), names of various types of weapon used by knights in the Middle Ages (*sword, crossbar, halberd*) and different elements of knight armour (*shield, breastplate, vizor, gauntlet*).

Many of them remain in the language in some figurative meaning as part of a phraseological unit.

e.g. *double-edged sword – something that can have both favourable and unfavourable consequences*

throw down the gauntlet – make an open challenge to a combat

Archaisms are obsolete names for existing objects. They always have a synonym, a word denoting the same concept but differing in its stylistical sphere of usage.

Lexical archaisms are bookish words which are not used in everyday speech. Their frequency value is very low. They may be found in historical novels where they are used to create the atmosphere of ancient times. Archaisms are also used in poetry in elevated speech. They are still used in some kinds of official documents, in books on religious subjects, sermons, prayers, etc.

e.g. *deem – think, damsel – girl, yonder – there, woe – grief, ere – before, forebears – ancestors, steed – horse, slay – kill, welkin – sky*

In some cases the archaic meaning survives in a number of set expressions. Thus, the adjective ‘quick’ retains its archaic meaning of ‘living’ in expressions like ‘the quick and the dead’, ‘touch somebody to the quick’.

The verb ‘tell’ retains its archaic meaning of ‘count’ in phrases ‘tell noses’, ‘all told’ and ‘money-teller’.

In the proverb ‘Many a little makes a mickle’ the word ‘mickle’ retains its archaic meaning ‘great, much’.

Archaisms may be classified into lexical and grammatical. Lexical archaisms are words; grammatical archaisms are obsolete grammatical forms.

In Old English the personal pronoun thou (with the corresponding verb ending in ‘-est’) was always used in addressing a single person. Now it is used only in poetry; the poetical possessive pronouns thy and thine never occur in everyday speech.

‘Wilt’, second person singular of ‘will’ is common in poetry.

e.g. *Do what thou wilt.*

Among other archaic grammatical forms we find the inflection -est for the second person singular, -th for the third person singular.

e.g. *Man goth.*

Thou knowest.

Archaic adverb and conjunctions are often used in legal documents.

e.g. *hereafter – after this time,*

thence – from that time as a result,

wherein – in which.

The use of archaisms is often a stylistic device making lively and creating various images. It often helps the writer living picture of the time of which he writes.

New notions constantly come into being, requiring new words to name them. New words and expressions or neologisms are created for new things irrespective of their scale of importance. They may be all important and concern some social relationships such as a new form of state (People's Republic), or the thing may be quite insignificant and shortlived, like fashions in dancing, clothing, hairdo or footwear (rollneck). In every case either the old words are appropriately changed in meaning or new words are borrowed, or more often coined out of the existing

language material either according to the patterns and ways already productive in the language at a given stage of its development or creating new ones.

Thus, a neologism is a newly coined word or phrase or a new meaning for an existing word, or a word borrowed from another language. The intense development of science and industry has called forth the invention and introduction of an immense number of new words and changed the meaning of old ones, e.g. *aerobics, black hole, computer, hardware, software, isotope, feedback, penicillin, pulsar, super-market* and so on.

According to Peter Newmark in his book "A Textbook of Translation" distinguishes twelve types of neologisms. They are:

- Old words with new sense. For instance a word revoulement means 'return of refugee'; it can be also used for 'refusal of entry' and 'deportation'. In psychology this word denotes 'repression'. Therefore, it is a loose term, the understanding of which depends on its context.
- Collocations with new meanings (E.g., 'tug-of-love').
- Abbreviation – common type of pseudo-neologisms. Examples: CD (compact disc or certificate of deposit), ER (emergency room), and PC (personal computer or politically correct).
- Eponyms – any words that were gained from proper names and also brand names (if they were derived from objects) that can be translated only when they are accepted and familiar to the people.
- Transferred words – words with the meaning that are to a lesser degree dependent on their contexts. Examples: newly imported foodstuffs, various brands of clothes ('Cagoule', 'Adidas,' 'Sari', 'Nike').
- Acronyms. Example: the word radar (radio detecting and ranging) is an acronym, due to the fact, that each of the letters of the word stands for a particular word. Once the original form of the acronym is forgotten by people it becomes new independent word in the language system (ibid.).
- New coinages – mainly brand or trade names. For example: 'Bistro', 'Bacardi' 'Schweppes', 'Revlon'.

- Derived words – new words that are coined by adding one or more affixes to the stem.
- Collocations – words grouping together? They are widespread especially in the social sciences and in computer fields, e.g. ‘lead time’, 'domino effect', 'acid rain'.
- Phrasal words. e.g. 'work-out,' 'trade-off,' 'check-out,' 'thermal cut-out,' 'knock-on (domino) effect,' 'laid-back,' 'sit-in')”.
- Pseudo-neologisms – a generic word that stands in for a specific word, e.g. longitudinaux – longitudinal springs; humerale – humeral artery.
- Internationalisms – borrowed by several languages words that convey concepts which play crucial role in our communication.

Furthermore, neologisms are classified by their stability:

Unstable – extremely new word that are known and used only by a particular subculture. Protologism (neologism) is a new word created by Mikhail Epstein.

Diffused – words that reached a high level of spreading and already known to many people, but they are not still accepted (e.g., jargon or lingo).

Stable – words that are recognised, known and accepted by people for a long period of time. (e.g., words which have recently been added to print dictionaries, including popular slang dictionaries).

Neologisms are mainly coined according to the productive models for word-building in the given languages. Most of the literary coinages are built by means of affixation and word compounding. Also it is said that affixation and compounding are the most productive and dominant ways of coining new words. Most of the literary-bookish coinages are built by means of affixation and word compounding that is still predominant in coining new words.

Russian lexicologist G. B. Antrushina distinguishes three most productive means of word-building. They are:

- derivation (e.g. *escapism, glider, televiewer, antihero, indoctrinate, disposables, educatee, throwaway*). Semi-affixes are also very productive, e.g. *workaholic, footballerholic, chairperson, policeperson*.
- composition (e.g. *baby-boomer, black-marketeer, folk-rocker, graverobber,*

ladyprose, question-master, space-rocke)t.

- conversion (e.g. *to clock, to flame, to gender, to skyjack, to chain-chew, to* eyewitness, to kick-start).

The other word-formation processes are:

- shortening (ICU – intensive care unit; RIF – reduction in force);
- blending (e.g. *slimnastics – slim and gymnastics; docudrama – documentary drama; blaxploltation – black exploitation* (exploitive treatment of black people in films or publications, by emphasizing stereotypical characteristics calculated to bring commercial success);
- reduplication (e.g. *super-duper, fuddy-duddy, ha-ha, tick-tack-toe*);
- sound-imitation, clipping, alphabetism, acronyms, back-formation.

Word groups comprise a considerable part of vocabulary extension. The bulk of them belong to the attributive/nominal type or nominal/nominal type.

e.g. *genetic mother, machine language, cable television, banana republic, group therapy, conservation area, forest therapy*

Borrowing. Another way of vocabulary extension is borrowing. There are several cases:

Words are borrowed without any considerable change in either form or meaning: *sputnik, camouflage, blitzkrieg, boutique, karate, fromage frais.*

Translation-loans: *collective farm, surplus value.*

Words created from the classical elements (Latin or Greek): *cyberpunk, phonograph, photosynthesis*.

Combinations of etymologically and structurally heterogeneous elements: *Geiger counter, Rhesus factor, satellite-town, greedocracy.*

From neologisms we must distinguish occasional words, or nonce words. They are built on the basis of the existing productive types of word building, they are easy to understand, but they struck as unusual. Occasionalisms are words coined for one occasion at the moment of speech. They are only meant to serve the occasion, e.g. go-aheadism all-at-once-ness do-it-yourselfer stick-to-itive foolosopher alcoholiday

2. Stylistically Neutral Words

The neutral layer includes die most vital part of the vocabulary. Etymologically, they are mostly native, and if of foreign origin borrowed long ago and assimilated. As to the morphological structure, they are often root-words. Since they are devoid of emotive colouring their frequency value is very high and they are often polysemantic, with a great combinative power.

They can enter several groups of synonyms because they are often polysemantic and because their meaning is more general.

e.g. *to ask – to inquire – to interrogate*

to ask – to beg – to entreat – to implore – to beseech

3. Literary/Bookish Words

They are mostly borrowed words, chiefly of Romanic origin. They are mostly polymorphemic and polysyllabic, their range of application is rather narrow and consequently their frequency is low. They are mostly monosemantic though sometimes have figurative meaning.

e.g. *intoxicated with success*

Terms

Terms are special words which express with utmost precision certain concepts of science, engineering, politics, diplomacy, philosophy, linguistics and etc. Here we find names of special objects, tools, different phenomena, processes, qualities peculiar to a certain branch of technology, science, art, etc.

Terms have some peculiarities which distinguish them from ordinary words:

As a rule, terms have no emotional, expressive colouring.

They are never used in figurative, transferred meaning (though they themselves often owe their origin to a transferred usage of some common word).

In the same branch of science, engineering, etc. a term must be monosemantic.

We distinguish three groups of terms:

- terms which exist as terms only and function within the limits of one terminology only.

e.g. *diphtong, palatalization, pronoun*

- terms which may be used in several systems of terms with different specialized meaning.

e.g. *progressive, regressive, assimilation*

- words which may function as terms and ordinary words and have homonyms in different systems of terms.

e.g. *nut, head, knee-joint*

to dress a wound – to dress a salad - to dress iron

Barbarisms

Barbarisms are words borrowed almost without any change in form. They mostly have native counterparts but are preferred for certain stylistic purposes in formal style. Etymologically they are often Latin, Greek and French.

e.g. *wunderkind (German) – prodigy child*

4. Colloquial words are closer to neutral words, both etymologically and structurally, than to bookish words. Colloquial words are subdivided into literary colloquial and low colloquial.

Literary colloquial is used to denote the vocabulary used by educated people in the course of ordinary conversation or when writing letters to intimate friends.

Colloquial words are marked by their special emotional colouring.

e.g. *father – daddy girl-lass*

Affixation predominates there, especially suffixadon forming diminutives like '-ie' (auntie, birdie), '-y' (granny, Kitty), 'ette' (kitchenette, dinet), '-ish' (latish, piggish), adjective-forming suffix '-y'(touchy, dafiy, cranky, uppity).

Substantivized adjectives are very frequent in colloquial speech, e.g. daily – a woman who comes daily to help with household chores greens -green leaf vegetables woolies – woolen clothes Quite common are new formations supplied by a process combining composition and conversion from phrasal verbs, e.g. *carry-on* – way *of behaving.*

Non-literary colloquial layer falls into slang, jargonisms, professionalisms and

vulgarisms.

Slang includes words and phrases which occur in actual speech as colloquial neologisms and readily pass to the layer of widely used literary- colloquial lexical units. A new slang term is usually widely used in a subculture before it appears in die dominant culture. Slang sometimes stems from within the group satirizing its own values, behaviour, and attitudes.

e.g. *shotgun wedding – a marriage forced or required because of pregnancy*

greasy spoon – a dingy small cheap restaurant

eathead – an idiot

Slang is produced largely by social forces rather than by an individual speaker or writer who, single-handed (like Horace Walpole, who coined serendipity more than 200 years ago), creates and establishes a word in the language. This is one reason why it is difficult to determine the origin of slang terms.

Slang words and phrases are as a rule emotionally coloured, often figurative.

e.g. *money – beans, brass, dibs, dough, chick, wads*

head – attic, brain-pan, hat, peg, upper-storey

drunk – boozy, cock-eyed, soaked, tight

prison – can, cooler, jug pen, pokey

Slang is an extremely changeable part of the vocabulary. Some slangy words like boss, boost have been adopted by the language and are registered in dictionaries; others may be used only in a certain style of speech.

The processes by which words become slang are the same as those by which other words in the language change their form or meaning or both. Some of these are the employment of metaphor, simile, folk etymology, distortion of sounds in words, generalization, specialization, clipping, the use of acronyms, elevation and degeneration, metonymy, synecdoche, hyperbole, borrowings from foreign languages, and the play of euphemism against taboo. The English word trip is an example of a term that has undergone both specialization and generalization. It first became specialized to mean a psychedelic experience resulting from the drug LSD. Subsequently, it generalized again to mean any experience on any drug, and beyond

that to any type of ‘kicks’ from anything. Clipping is exemplified by the use of ‘grass’ from ‘laughing grass’ a term for marijuana.

Some slang becomes respectable when it loses its edge; spunk, fizzle, hit the spot, jazz, funky, and others, once thought to be too indecent for feminine ears, are now family words.

Slang is used for many purposes, but generally it expresses a certain emotional attitude. Many slang terms are primarily derogatory, though they may also be ambivalent when used in intimacy or affection. Some crystallize or bolster the self-image or promote identification with a class or a group. Others flatter objects, institutions, or persons but may be used by different people for the opposite effect Slang sometimes insults or shocks when used directly, some terms euphonize a sensitive concept though obvious or excessive euphemism may break the taboo more effectively than a less decorous term. Some slang words are essential because there are no words in the standard language expressing exactly the same meaning.

e.g. *freak-out. n – a gathering of hippies*

barnstorm, v. *– to tour through rural districts staging usually theatrical performances*

rubberneck, n – an overly inquisitive person

creep, n. – an unpleasant or obnoxious person

After a slang word has been used in speech for a certain period of time people get used to it and it ceases to produce that shocking effect for the sake of which it has been originally coined. Such words as *bet, bore, chap, donke, humbug, mob, odd. pinch, shabby, sham, snob, trip, teenager, blurb* have become part of literary vocabulary. But they are rather an exception. The bulk of slang is formed by short-lived words.

We distinguish schoolboys’ slang, schoolgirls’ slang, students’ slang, artists’ slang, etc. which is a step on its way to jargonisms.

Jargonisms are words and expressions created by various social groups and classes, a sort of secret code made up of ordinary words used in a different meaning.

Professionalisms are words connected with productive activities of people

united by a common occupation or profession. They represent a specialized part of non-literary colloquial vocabulary.

Vulgarisms are rough, swear words, oaths and curses. Some of them are very stable, established by long use.

e.g. *the devil, the hell, Goddam, bloody, blooming*

Questions for Self-Control

1. What are archaisms? Give examples of lexical and grammatical archaisms? In what genres can you find archaisms?

2. How do archaisms differ from historical words?

3. What are neologisms? How are neologisms formed?

4. What are occasional or nonce words? What is the accepted classification of words according to their stylistic colouring?

5. What are the main characteristics of stylistically neutral words?

6. What are the subclasses of literary words?

7. What are the main characteristics of terms?

8. What are the subclasses of colloquial words?

Practical Tasks

Exercise 1.

Analyse the way of word formation of the following neologisms.

hoolivan, n. – a van specially adopted to carry video cameras, for use by police in crowd control, especially at football matches;

horse pill, n. – (humorous) a large medicinal pill;

humanware, n. – people, considered as part of a system analogous to a computer;

jokestress, n. – a female comedian;

maxi-series, n. – a television drama presented in a large number of sequential episodes;

mechatronics, n. – the application of electronic engineering, especially computers, to the design and operation of machine;

microwaveable, adj. – suitable for cooking in a microwave oven;

nic, n. – newly-industrializing country;

pêcher, n. – a peach-flavoured alcoholic drink, especially sparkling wine;

physically different, adj. – physiologically or anatomically atypical or damaged, for example, in lacking a limb: physically handicapped;

preschooler, n. – a child who has not yet started to attend school;

pryzhok, n. – a crossing from one to another, leap;

refusenik, n. – (informal) a person who refuses to cooperate;

SAD, n. – seasonal affective depression or disorder;

sexaholism, n. – a condition describing someone who is addicted to sex and alcohol;

snail mail, n. – the standard system of mail delivery;

street-fighter, n. – (informal) a tough combative person;

telecomms, n. – (informal) telecommunications;

3D job – a job that is dirty, dangerous and demanding. It is particularly used with reference to jobs not popular with white male workers, so often taken by women and immigrants.

Lecture 8

TERRITORIAL DIFFERENTIATION OF THE ENGLISH AND UKRAINIAN LANGUAGES

1. **Territorial variants of the English language.**
2. **Local dialects in the British Isles, in the USA and in Ukraine.**

Standard English is the official language of Great Britain taught at schools and universities, used by the press, the radio and the television and spoken by educated people; it is commonly defined as that form of English which is literary, uniform and recognized as acceptable wherever English is spoken or understood.

Every language allows different kinds of variations: geographical or territorial, stylistic, the difference between the written and the spoken form and others. We shall be concerned here with the territorial variations, the others being the domain of stylistics.

For historical and economic reasons the English language has spread over vast territories. It is the national language of England proper, the USA, Australia, New Zealand and some provinces of Canada. It is the official language in Wales, Scotland, in Gibraltar and on the Island of Malta. The English language was also at different times enforced as an official language on the peoples of Asia, Africa, Central and South America who fell under British rule. It is natural that the English language is not used with uniformity in the British Isles and in Australia, in the USA and in New Zealand, etc. The English language also has some peculiarities in Wales, Scotland, in other parts of the British Isles and America.

Modern linguistics distinguishes territorial variants of a national language and local dialects.

Variants of a language are regional varieties of a standard literary language characterized by some minor peculiarities in the sound system, vocabulary and grammar and by their own literary norms.

We speak of the 5 variants of the English national language: British, American,

Australian, Canadian, and Indian.

The differences between American English (AE), British English (BE), Australian English (AuE), Canadian English (CnE) are immediately noticeable in the field of phonetics, i.e. articulatory – acoustic characteristics of some phonemes, the differences in the rhythm and intonation of speech. The dissimilarities in grammar are scarce.

For the most part these dissimilarities consist in the preference of this or that grammatical category. E.g., the preference of Past Indefinite to Present Perfect in AE, the formation of the Future Tense with 'will' for all the persons, etc. The Present Continuous form in the meaning of Future is used twice as frequently in BE as in AE, CnE, AuE.

The variations in vocabulary are not very numerous. The vocabulary of all the variants is characterized by a high percentage of borrowings from the language of the people who inhabited the land before the English colonizers came. Many of them denote some specific realia of the new country: local animals, plants or weather conditions, new social relations, new trades and conditions of labour.

In every variant there are locally marked lexical units specific to the present-day usage in one of the variants and not found in the others, i.e. Briticism, Americanisms, Australianisms, Canadianisms. They may be full and partial.

Full locally-marked lexical units are those specific to the British, American, etc. variant in all their meanings. E.g. *fortnight*, *pillar-box* are full Briticisms, *campus*, *mailboy*, *drive-in* are full Americanisms.

These may be subdivided into lexical units denoting some realia having no counterparts in other English-speaking countries, such as

a) the names of local animals and plants

AuE *kangaroo, kaola, dingo, gum-tree*

AE *bullfrog* (a large frog), *moose* (the American elk), *opossum, raccoon* (an American animal related to the bears), *corn, hickory* (for plants)

b) names of schools of learning

AE *junior high school, senior high school*

CnE *composite high school*

c) names of things of everyday life, often connected with peculiar national conditions, traditions and customs

AuE *boomerang,* AE *drugstore,* CnE *float-house*

AE *lightning rod, super-market, baby-sitter*

CnE *body-check, red-line, puck-carrier* (hockey terms)

Partial locally-marked lexical units are typical of this or that variant only in one or some of their meanings. In the semantic structure of such words there are meanings belonging to general English. E.g. the word *pavement* has four meanings:

1) street or road covered with stone, asphalt, concrete (AE)
2) paved path for pedestrians at the side of the road (BE) (in America they use the word *sidewalk*)
3) the covering of the floor made of flat blocks of wood, stone, etc. (general English)
4) soil (geol) – general English

The next case of lexical differences is the case when different variants of English use different words for the same objects. E.g.

BE	AE	BE	AE
Flat	Apartment	Lorry	truck
Post	Mail	Tin	can
Sweets	Candy	pillar-box	mail-box
Braces	Suspenders	Beer	ale
Underground	Subway	Wireless	radio
Railway	Railroad	Luggage	baggage

In the course of time due to the growth of cultural and economic ties between nations and development of modern means of communication lexical distinctions between the variants show a tendency to decrease. Locally marked lexical units penetrate into Standard English, e.g., a large number of **americanisms** are widely used in BE, some of them are not recognized as aliens – *reliable*, *lengthy*, *talented*,

belittle. Others have a limited sphere of application – *fan* ‘a person enthusiastic about a specific sport’, *to iron out* ‘smooth out, eliminate’, *gimmick* ‘deceptive or secret device’, *to root* ‘support or encourage a team by applauding or cheering’.

At the same time a number of ***briticisms*** came into the language of the USA, e.g., *smog, to brief* ‘to give instructions. Sometimes the Briticisms in AE compete with the corresponding American expressions, the result being the differentiation in meaning or spheres of application. E.g. AE *store* – BE *shop*, but in AE its use is limited, it is applied to small specialized establishments, like *gift shop, hat shop, candy shop*. British *luggage* used alongside American *baggage* in America differs from its rival in collocability – *luggage compartment, luggage rack, but baggage car, baggage check, baggage room*. In the pair *autumn – fall* the difference in AE is of another nature: the former is bookish, while the latter colloquial.

Regional variants of the English language have the same grammar system, phonetic system and vocabulary, so they cannot be regarded as different languages. Nor can they be referred to local dialects, because they serve all spheres of verbal communication in society, they have dialectal differences of their own, besides they have their own literary forms.

2. Local dialects are varieties of a language used as a means of oral communication in small localities, they are set off more or less sharply from other varieties by some distinctive features of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary; they are peculiar to some districts and have no normalized literary form.

In Great Britain there are five groups of dialects:

1) Northern (between the rivers Tweed and Humber);
2) Western;
3) Eastern (between the river Humber and the Thames);
4) Southern (south of the Thames);
5) Midland.

Every group contains several dialects, up to ten.

The dialect vocabulary is remarkable for its conservatism; it is characterized by

the abundance of archaic words: many words that have become obsolete in Standard English are still kept in dialects.

Local lexical peculiarities are most noticeable in specifically dialectal words pertaining to local customs, social life and natural conditions, e.g., *laird* 'landed proprietor in Scotland', *burgh* 'Scotland charted town', *kirk* 'church'. There are many names of objects and processes connected with farming, such as the names of agricultural processes, tools, domestic animals, etc., e.g., *galloway* 'horse of small strong breed from Galloway, Scotland', *kyloe* 'one of small breed of long-horned Scotch cattle'.

There are a considerable number of emotionally coloured dialectal words, e.g., *bonny* (Scot.) 'beautiful, healthy-looking', *braw* (Scot.) 'fine, excellent', *daffy* (Scot.) 'crazy, silly', *cuddy* 'fool, ass', *loon* 'clumsy, stupid person'.

Words may have different meanings in the national language and in the local dialects, e.g., in the Scottish dialect the word *to call* is used in the meaning of 'to drive', *to set* – 'to suit', *short* – 'rude', *silly* – 'weak'.

Dialectal lexical differences also embrace word-building patterns. E.g., some Irish words contain the diminutive suffixes –AN, –EEN, –CAN, as in *bohaun* 'cabin', *bohereen* 'narrow road'. Some of these suffixes may be added to English bases, as in *girleen, dogeen, squireen* (squirrel), etc.

One of the best known Southern dialects is **Cockney**, the regional dialect of London. The word 'cockney' had the meaning of a 'plucky chap', a fine fellow with plenty of assurance; this name was applied by country people to those who dwelt in cities. Even today there is a marked difference between the inhabitants of a large town and people living in country places. But as the population gradually increased and means of communication became more favourable, this distinction became less acute. In the 17th century the word 'cockney was applied exclusively to the inhabitants of London.

According to E. Partridge and H. C. Wilde this dialect exists at two levels:

1) the variety of Standard English spoken by educated lower middle class people; it is marked by some deviations in pronunciation but few in vocabulary and syntax;
2) the variety of Standard English spoken also in London but by uneducated, semi-literate and quite illiterate people; it is characterized by peculiarities in pronunciation, vocabulary, morphology and syntax. (B. Shaw's play "Pygmalion").

Cockney is lively and witty; its vocabulary is imaginative and colourful. Its specific feature which does not occur anywhere else is the so-called rhyming slang, in which some words are substituted by other words rhyming with them. E.g. *boots* are called 'daisy roots', *head* – 'a loaf of bread', *hat* – 'tit for tat', *wife* – 'trouble and strife'.

The local dialects in Britain are sharply declining in importance at the present time. Their boundaries have become less stable than they used to be; the distinctive features are tending to disappear with the shifting of population due to the migration of the working-class families in search of employment and the growing influence of urban life over the countryside. Dialects undergo rapid changes under the pressure of Standard English taught at schools and the speech habits cultivated by radio, TV and cinema.

On the other hand, dialectal words penetrate into the national literary language. Many frequent words of common use are dialectal in origin, such as *girl, one, rapid, glamour*, etc. the Irish English gave *blarney* 'flattery', *bog* 'a spongy, usually peaty ground of marsh'. From Scottish English came *bairn* 'child', *billy* 'chum', *bonny* 'handsome', *brogue* 'a stout shoe', *glamour* 'charm', etc.

Questions for Self-Control

1. What do you know about the main characteristics of World Englishes?
2. What is language? Explain the meaning of the terms 'standart English', 'dialect' and 'accent'? What are the main differences between them?
3. Are boundaries between dialects stable?

4. What is Cockney?

5. On how many levels does Cockney exist according to E. Partridge and H. C. Wilde? Give the full characteristics of both of them.

6. What is geographical dialect continua?

7. What is social dialect continua?

8. What do you know about the varieties of language? Can you name all the variants of the English language?

9. What are the differencies between British English and American English? Include all the levels of the language.

10. What are the differencies between British English and Australian English? Include all the levels of the language.

11. What are the differencies between British English and Canadian English? Include all the levels of the language.

12. What are the differencies between British English and Indian English? Include all the levels of the language.

Lecture 9

LEXICOGRAPHY: ITS BASIS NOTIONS AND FUNCTIONS

1. Current Views on Lexicography. Definition of the Term.

2. The Origin and Concepts of Lexicology and Lexicography: Common Features and Differences. Some Approaches to the Problem.

3. Aims and Functions of Lexicography.

4. Periods of Practical Lexicography.

1. The aim of the lecture is to study thoroughly essence, aims and functions of lexicography. To begin with we ought to answer some questions:

Where did the term "lexicography" come from and what does it mean?

What is the subject matter of lexicography and lexicology?

What do they have in common?

When attempting to define a widely-used concept like lexicography it is important to take into consideration some other existing definitions in order to detect some of the mutual strong and weak points.

The authors of the New Oxford Dictionary of English define it as the practice of compiling dictionaries. This is an extremely unsatisfactory definition that makes no provision for the theoretical component and gives no details regarding the compilation process.

The authors of one of the online encyclopedias consider lexicography to be the applied study of the meaning, evolution, and function of the vocabulary units of a language for the purpose of compilation in book form – in short, the process of dictionary making. Although better than the first definition this definition also ignores reference to a theoretical component. Too strong a focus is placed on meaning – not all dictionaries include items giving the meaning of words.

Perhaps the simplest explanation of lexicography is that it is a scholarly discipline that involves compiling, writing, or editing dictionaries. Lexicography is widely considered an independent scholarly discipline, though it is a subfield within

linguistics. Many consider lexicography to be divided into two related areas. The act of writing, or editing dictionaries is known as Practical Lexicography. The analysis or description of the vocabulary of a particular language, and the meaning that links certain words to others in a dictionary, is known as Theoretical Lexicography.

Theoretical Lexicography is particularly concerned with developing theories regarding the structural and semantic relationships among words in the dictionary. Since it involves theoretical analysis of the lexicon, Theoretical Lexicography is also known as Metalexicography. A positive aspect of this definition is the distinction it makes between practical and theoretical lexicography. A negative aspect is that it regards lexicography as a subfield within linguistics.

No definition makes a reference to the fact that dictionaries, as products of the lexicographic practice, cover both language for general purposes and language for special purposes. The fact that dictionary typology makes provision for encyclopedic dictionaries, i.e. dictionaries that do not focus on the linguistic but rather the extra-linguistic features, does not come to the fore in any of the definitions.

2. The word, ‘lexicography’ is derived from the Greek origin:λεξίκός (lexicos) ‘belonging to word’ and γραφω (grafo) I write, if we translate it into English it means “I write words”. So, **lexicography** is the theory and practice of compiling or editing dictionaries. It’s an important part of applied linguistics. The word ‘lexicology’, as it was told before, is of the Greek origin as well as lexicography. λεξίκός (lexicos) ‘belonging to word’ and λόγοξ (logos) means ‘learning’, if we translate it into English it means ‘learning of words’.

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Lexicography is also known as Metalexicography.

Lexicography is widely considered an independent scholarly discipline, though it is closely connected with linguistics, lexicology in particular.

The essential difference between lexicography and lexicology lies in the degree of systematization and completeness. Lexicography aims at systematization revealing characteristic features of words. The field of lexicography is the semantic, formal, and functional description of all individual words. Dictionaries aim at a more or less complete description. Lexicology shows that the vocabulary of every particular language is not a chaos of diversified phenomena but a homogeneous whole, a system constituted by independent elements related in certain specific ways. It goes without saying that neither of these branches of linguistics could develop successfully without the other.

3. Lexicography, this section of linguistics, concerns practice of theory of compiling dictionaries. Every theory is a result of practical needs. Practical lexicography and theoretical one are closely connected carrying out different socially important functions.

Functions of practical lexicography are as follows:

1. **educational** function presupposes teaching language both native and foreign; This function is major in English lexicography, as English language is the most popular language in the world and lots of people want to learn it.

2. **legislative** function relates to the problems of description and normalization of language; it relates with describing standardizing native language forming a certain language norm.

Lexicographers apply two basic philosophies to the defining of words: prescriptive or descriptive. All the first dictionaries were prescriptive as the selection of words and verbal illustrations were chosen by the lexicographer himself and the aim of the dictionary was to fix the norm of the language;

3. **communicative** function deals with realizing intercultural communications;

4. **scientific** function fulfills studying vocabulary of a language periods of

practical lexicography. One important goal of lexicography is to keep the lexicographic information costs incurred by dictionary users as low as possible. In other words it's extremely important to learn and satisfy users' needs and demands.

Theoretical lexicography (or metalexicography) concerns the development of principles that can improve the quality of future dictionaries, for instance in terms of access to data and lexicographic information. Several perspectives or branches of such academic dictionary research have been distinguished:

- "dictionary criticism" (or evaluating the quality of one or more dictionaries), e.g. by means of reviews;
- "dictionary history" (or tracing the traditions of a type of dictionary or of lexicography in a particular country or language);
- "dictionary typology" (or classifying the various genres of reference works, such as dictionary versus encyclopedia, monolingual versus bilingual dictionary, general versus technical or pedagogical dictionary);
- "dictionary structure" (or formatting the various ways in which the information is presented in a dictionary);
- "dictionary use" (or observing the reference acts and skills of dictionary users);
- "dictionary IT" (or applying computer aids to the process of dictionary compilation).

4. In the long perspective of human evolutionary development, dictionaries have been known through only a slight fraction of language history. As far as practical lexicography is concerned it has nearly one and the same history that is divided into **3 periods**:

1. **pre-dictionary period;**

2. period of early dictionaries;

3. period of developed lexicography.

Now let's dwell upon it in detail. The main function of pre-dictionary period is to explain words which are difficult to understand. People at first simply talked

without having authoritative backing from reference books. The first glosses appeared in Sumerain in the 25th c. B.C. The term ‘gloss’ is of Greek origin and first it means ‘tongue’, ‘language’. Glosses mean series of verbal interpretations of a text. Then glosses appeared in Western European the 8th c. A.D., and in Russia they occurred in the 11th c. A. D.

Glossaries, collections of glosses pertained to one book or author, e.g. Veda dated to the 1st millennium B.C. in India, Homer, his glossaries dated to the 5th c. B.C. in Greece .Collections of words for educational purposes are called vocabularies, e.g. Hittite-Akkadian-Sumerian plates, tablets dated to 14-13c.c. B.C. Thematic group of words pertained to the 2nd millennium B.C. They were found in 1750 B.C. in Egypt.

The 2nd period is the period of early dictionaries, its function is to study literary languages which differ even now with many peoples from spoken speech: Sanskrit lexicons pertained to the 8-6th c.c. B.C., ancient Greek lexicons dates to10 c. B.C.A short Akkadian wordlist from central Mesopotamia has survived from the 7thc. B.C. The Western tradition of dictionary making began among the Greeks, although not until the language had changed so much that explanations and commentaries were needed. After a 1st c. A.D. lexicon was compiled in Greek, the mostimportant being those of the Atticists (a concise and elegant expression for Athenians) in the 2nd c. that of Photius and the Suda (is a massive 10th century Byzantine encyclopedia of the ancient Mediterranean world, encyclopedic lexicon, written in Greek) in the Middle Ages.

Later on passive translated vocabularies appeared in which foreign vocabulary is explained with the help of a language of a people, e.g. Arabic-Persian – 11 c. A.D., Latin-English – 15 c. A.D., Church-Slavonic-Russian – 16 c. A.D. Then the reverse process took place: translated dictionaries of active type arose, where the initial language was existing, living language (e.g. English-Latin, French-Latin 16 c., Russian-Latin-Greek – 18 c.) and besides bilingual dictionaries of the living languages appeared.

Explanatory dictionaries arose in countries with hieroglyphic orthography, e.g.

in China – in the 3 c. B.C., in Japan in the 8th c. B.C. Chaotic lexicography becomes regularly developed when national literary languages appeared, so the third period – period of developed lexicography took its place. The main function of which is describing and normalizing. It enhanced social linguistic culture. Philological societies and academies were founded which created explanatory, encyclopaedic dictionaries. As far as special dictionaries are concerned they were also published such as dictionary of grammar, phraseology; dialectal, orthographic, orthoepic, terminological dictionaries and others. It should be bear in mind that dictionaries and its compiling were closely connected with the period of their creation, leading philosophic schools. In the 17-18th c.c. Enlightenment epoch and ideas of famous philosophers such as Fransis Bacon and Rene Dekartes were reflected in vocabularies. Evolution theories and comparative linguistics brought out one of the problem, the problem of solving etymological questions in lexicography, strengthening the role of history from 18th c.

In the20th c. lexicography acquired industrial character: we can see that appeared dictionaries of related languages, reverse dictionaries, dictionaries of frequent words, concordances, dictionaries of the writers' languages appeared. Computer and computerised techniques in lexicography are being applied from 1950. The whole institutes and centres of lexicography were created.

Questions for Self-Control

1. What is the origin of the terms 'lexicography'?
2. What does it mean?
3. What are the drawbacks of the existing definitions of the term 'lexicography'?
4. What do lexicography and lexicology have in common? Enumerate their differences.
5. What are the main functions of practical lexicography?
6. What periods is practical lexicography divided into?

7. How are the dictionary entries (for the word under analysis) built in the dictionaries? What information is contained in the dictionary entry?

8. How many meanings constitute the semantic structure of the word? How are they explained?

9. What meaning comes first in different dictionaries? Explain the difference, if any.

10.What shapes of meanings are registered by the dictionary (main/derived, primary/secondary, direct/figurative, general/special)?

Practical Tasks

Exercise 1.

1. Analyse V. Muller's Anglo-Russian Dictionary, state what type it belongs to; comment on the principles of selection of words, structure of dictionary entry, what information about a word can be deduced from the dictionary entry.

2. Analyse I.R.Galperin's Big Anglo-Russian Dictionary, state what type it belongs to; comment on the principles of selection of words, structure of dictionary entry; what information about a word can be deduced from the dictionary entry.

3. According to the above suggested pattern (see the table) analyse the dictionaries: The Concise Oxford Dictionary, Webster's New World Dictionary.

Exercise 2.

Choose one word out of the following list: *head, hand, arm, body, thing, to go, to take, to be* and analyse its dictionary entry and its semantic structure as presented in the following dictionaries:

1. V.Muller's Anglo-Russian Dictionary;
2. The Concise Oxford English Dictionary;
3. The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary on Historical Principles
4. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English by L.S.Hornby

KEYWORDS AND MAIN THESES

A borrowed word (or borrowing) is a word taken from another language and modified in phonetic shape, spelling and meaning according to the standards of the English language.

A native word is a word which belongs to the original English stock of the old English period (up to 7th cent.).

Abbreviation – is a special case of shortening, when the initial letters stand for the words they begin.

Absolute antonyms are diametrically opposite in meaning and remain antonyms in many word combinations: love – hate; light – dark; white – black. Absolute synonyms coincide in all shades of meaning.

Affixation is generally defined as the formation of words by adding derivational affixes to stems.

Affixes are classified into prefixes and suffixes, a prefix precedes the root-morpheme while a suffix follows it.

Antonomasia – the process when words are derived from proper names.

Antonyms (Gr. anti – against, onyma – name) – are words which are different in sound form and characterized by semantic polarity of their denotative meanings.

Aphaeresis – shortened word when the initial part is dropped.

Apocope – shortened word when the final part of it is dropped.

Archaisms are obsolete names for existing objects. They always have a synonym, a word denoting the same concept but differing in its stylistical sphere of usage.

Assimilation – the process of changing of the adopted word.

Back-formation (also called back-derivation or reversion) is a way of forming new words by dropping a real or supposed suffix.

Barbarisms (Lat. ‘barbarus’ — ‘strange, foreign’) – words from other languages used by English people in conversation or in writing but not assimilated in any way. Barbarisms are words borrowed almost without any change in form.

Blending (or telescoping) is a special type of compounding by uniting parts of words into one new word.

Change of stress or semantic stress is mostly observed in verb-noun pairs.

Colloquial words are closer to neutral words, both etymologically and structurally, than to bookish words. Colloquial words are subdivided into literary colloquial and low colloquial. Colloquial words are marked by their special emotional colouring.

Complete segmantability is characteristic of words the morphemic structure of which is transparent enough, as their individual morphemes clearly stand out.

Composition, or compounding, is a way of forming a new word by joining two or more stems together. The components (ICs) of the compound word occur in the language as free forms.There are two types of relationship between the ICs of compound words: the relations of coordination and subordination.

Concatenation – is a semantic process in which the primary meaning gives rise only to the first secondary meaning. The first secondary meaning gives rise to the second secondary meaning and so on.

Conditional morphemic segmentability characterizes words whose segmentation into constituent morphemes is doubtful for semantic reasons.

Conversion is a way of forming a new word in a different part of speech without adding a derivational affix. Other terms: zero derivation, root formation, transposition or functional change.

Defective morphemic segmentability is the property of words whose component morphemes seldom or never occur in other words.

Degradation of meaning (or pejoration) is a semantic process by which a word denotes positions of less importance.

Derivational antonyms are formed with the help of the negative affixes.

Descriptive Lexicology deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development. It studies the functions of words and their specific structure.

Elevation of meaning (or amelioration) is a semantic process in which a word

denotes position of greater importance.

Endocentric word-group is the word-group that has the same linguistic distribution as one of its members.

Etymological Doublets – two or more words of the same language which were derived from the same basic word. They differ in form, meaning and current usage.

Etymology – the branch of lexicology which studies the origin of words and their genetic ties with words in the same and other languages.

Euphemisms (Gr.eu – well; phemi – speak) – are pleasant and (or) harmless words substituted for disagreeable, rude ones.

Exocentric word-group is the word-group in which the distribution of the word-group is different from either of its members.

Extention of meaning (or generalization) is a semantic process when the word range is extended.

General lexicology – the general study of vocabulary, irrespective of the specific features of any particular language.

Grammatical assimilation comprises the change of grammatical categories and paradigms by analogy of other English words.

Grammatical valency – is the aptness of a word to appear in specific grammatical (or rather syntactic) structures.

Historical Lexicology discusses the origin of various words, their change and development, the linguistic and extra linguistic forces modifying their structure, meaning and usage.

Historisms are words and phrases that have become obsolete because the things they denote are outdated and do not exist any longer. No modem synonym can be found for historical words.

Homographs – identical in spelling but different both in sound form and meaning: bow – a piece of wood, curved by a string and used for shooting arrows; bow – the bending of the head and body.

Homonyms (Gr. homos – the same; onyma – name) are words which are

identical in sound and spelling or in one of these aspects, but different in their meaning, distribution and in many case origin.

Homonyms proper (complete, perfect, absolute) – pronounced and spelt alike (ball-ball).

Homophones – pronounced alike, spelt differently (site – sight; son – sun; see – sea).

Hyperbole (Gr.) – the semantic process when a word expresses exageration.

Hyponymy – a semantic relationship of inclusion. The hyponimic structure may be open or closed.

Ideographic – are those which differ in their shades of meaning.

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

International words – words of identical origin occurring in several languages, which denote identical concepts and are similar in sound complex.

Jargonisms are words and expressions created by various social groups and classes, a sort of secret code made up of ordinary words used in a different meaning.

Lexical assimilation involves the changes in the semantic structure of loan words and the formation of derivatives from loan words.

Lexical valency or collocability is the aptness of a word to appear in various combinations (collocations). From this point of view word-groups may be regarded as the characteristic minimal lexical sets that operate as distinguishing clues for each of the multiple meanings of the word.

Lexicology – a linguistic science which studies the word, its morphemic structure, history and meaning.

Literary/bookish words are mostly borrowed words, chiefly of Romanic origin. They are mostly polymorphemic and polysyllabic, their range of application is rather narrow and consequently their frequency is low. They are mostly monosemantic though sometimes have figurative meaning.

Metaphor (Gr.) – is the transference of meaning based on similarity.

Metonymy (Gr.) is transference of meaning based on contiguity (nearness, proximity) of concepts of things and phenomena.

Monosemantic words are words that have one meaning.

Morpheme – the smallest meaningful unit which has a sound form and meaning and which occurs in speech only as a part of a word.

Narrowing of meaning (or specialization) is a semantic process in which the word of wider meaning acquires a narrower, specialized sense in which it is appliable only to some of the objects it had previously denoted or a word of wider usage is restricted in its application and is used only in special sense.

Neologism is a newly coined word or phrase or a new meaning for an existing word, or a word borrowed from another language. The intense development of science and industry has called forth the invention and introduction of an immense number of new words and changed the meaning of old ones.

Non-literary colloquial layer falls into slang, jargonisms, professionalisms and vulgarisms.

Non-root morphemes include inflectional morphemes or inflections and affixational morphemes or affixes. Inflections carry only grammatical meaning and thus are relevant only for the formation of word-forms. Affixes are relevant for building various types of stems.

Non-terminal suffixes can be followed by other suffixes.

Occasionalisms are words coined for one occasion at the moment of speech. They are only meant to serve the occasion.

Onomasiology is the study of the principles and regularities of the signification of things and notions by words of a given language.

Origin of borrowing – the language to which the word may be traced.

Paradigmatic (contrastive) relations exist between words belonging to one subgroup of vocabulary items that can occur in the same context and be contrasted to one another.

Paronyms – words which are alike in form, but different in meaning.

Phonetical assimilation includes changes in the sounds, form, stress of the

loan words.

Phraseological units are habitually defined as non-motivated word-groups that cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready-made units.

Polysemantic (polysemic) words are words that have more than one meaning.

Prefixation is the formation of words by adding prefixes to the stem. Prefixes only modify the lexical meaning without changing the part of speech.

Professionalisms are words connected with productive activities of people united by a common occupation or profession.

Radiation is a semantic process in which the primary meaning is in the centre and the secondary meanings developed from it in every direction like rays.

Reduplication (complete or partial) is common in this process though onomatopoeic repetition is not very extensive.

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

Semantic borrowing is the appearance in an English word of a new meaning due to the influence of a related word in another language.

Semasiology (semantics) – a branch of linguistics dealing with the meaning of the word. The word comes from the Greek semasia ‘signification’.

Semasiology is the branch of linguistics which studies word meaning and its changes.

Shortening, also called ‘clipping’ or ‘curtailment’, is a rather productive way of forming new words by cutting off a part of a word.

Simile (comparison) – is very close to metaphor. It is a semantic process in which two usually quite different objects are compared. Cases of simile are introduced with the help of the conjunctions: than, like, as, though, as if.

Slang includes words and phrases which occur in actual speech as colloquial neologisms and readily pass to the layer of widely used literary-colloquial lexical units. Slang words and phrases are as a rule emotionally coloured, often figurative.

Sound imitation, or onomatopoeia – naming the action or object by more or

less exact reproduction of a sound associated with it.

Sound interchange may be defined as an apposition in which words forms are differentiated due to the changes in the phonemic composition of the root.

Source of borrowing – the language from which the loan word was taken.

Special lexicology devotes its attention to the description of the characteristic features of a given language.

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

Stylistic synonyms are used in different styles, they differ in connotational component of the meaning.

Stylistically neutral words are devoid of emotive colouring; their frequency value is very high and they are often polysemantic, with a great combinative power.

Substantivation is the process when adjectives acquire the paradigm and syntactical functions of nouns.The degree of substantivation may be different. We distinguish complete substantivation and partial substantivation.

Suffixation is the formation of words with the help of derivational suffixes.

Syncope – shortened word when the middle part of the word is dropped.

Synecdoche (Gr.) – is the semantic process in which the part is used for the whole or the whole for the part.

Synonyms (Gr.: syn. – together, onyma – name) are traditionally defined as words different in their sound-form but similar or identical in meaning.

Syntagmatic (combinatorial) relations define the meaning of the word when it is used in combination with other words in the flow of speech.

Terminal suffixes take only the final position in the words.

Terms are special words which express with utmost precision certain concepts of science, engineering, politics, diplomacy, philosophy, linguistics and etc.

The connotative component serves to evoke or directly express emotions and to refer words to different styles of speech in accordance with different social occasions and situations.

The denotative component serves to identify and name concepts.

The diachronic approach deals with the changes and the development of vocabulary in the course of time.

The meaning of the word is the expression of concepts of things fixed in sounds. There are 2 types of the meaning of the word: the lexical meaning and the grammatical meaning. The lexical meaning has two components: denotative (denotational) and connotative (connotational).

The pattern of the word-group – the minimal grammatical context in which words are used when brought together to form word-groups.

The root-morphemes are understood as the lexical centers of the words, as the basic constituent part of a word without which the word is inconceivable.

The synchronic approach is concerned with the vocabulary of a language as it exists at a given time, for instance, at the present time.

The synonymic dominant is the most general word of a group of synonyms that possesses the specific features characteristic of a given group of synonyms.

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

The term 'set phrase' implies that the basic criterion of differentiation is stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure of word-groups.

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

Translation loans or calques are words and expressions formed by the material available in the language, but under the influence of some foreign words and expressions.

Valency may be defined as the combining power of affixes and stems.

Vocabulary – a system, formed by all the words and word equivalents (phraseological units).

Vulgarisms are rough, swear words, oaths and curses. Some of them are very stable, established by long use.

Word – the smallest unit of a given language capable of functioning alone and characterized by positional mobility within a sentence, morphological indivisibility and semantic integrity. A word, therefore, is simultaneously a semantic, grammatical and phonological unit.

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

Word-group – the largest two-facet unit comprising more than one word and is studied on the syntagmatic level of analysis.

Word-groups are also classified according to their syntactic pattern into predicative and non-predicative groups. Non-predicative word-groups may be subdivided according to the type of syntactic relations between the components into subordinative and coordinative.

Zoosemy is the type of metaphor; it's a semantic process by which names of animals are used to denote human qualities.

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КУРС ЛЕКЦІЙ З «ПОРІВНЯЛЬНОЇ ЛЕКСИКОЛОГІЇ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ ТА УКРАЇНСЬКОЇ МОВ»

Навчально-методичний посібник