Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine
Sumy State University

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LEXICOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

LECTURE NOTES

Sumy
Sumy State University
2020

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LEXICOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Lecture notes
for students of speciality 035 *"Philology"*

Approved at the meeting of
the Department
of Germanic Philology.
Minutes № 3 of 01.10.2019.

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Lexicology of the English Language : lecture notes / compilers G. V. Chulanova. – Sumy : Sumy State University, 2020. – 74 p.

Germanic Philology Department of the Sumy State University Section of Germanic Philology

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of lexicology studies is to aid the teaching process by which a student becomes aware of English Lexicology. The course is intended to acquaint students with the main topics treated and analyzed at seminars in Modern Lexicology (etymology, neology, borrowings, word-formation, semasiology, semantic changes, phraseology, etc.) and meets the requirements of the programme in this subject. 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.

The practical questions are preceded by theoretical notes which contain working definitions of principal concepts.

LECTURE I
THE OBJECT OF LEXICOLOGY

Lexicology

Lexicology is a branch of linguistics; it's the study of words. The term Lexicology is composed of two Greek morphemes: **lexis** meaning 'word, phrase' and **logos** which denotes 'learning'. Thus, the literal meaning of the term Lexicology is 'the science of the word'.

About the word we know the following: The word is a unit of speech, which serves the purposes of human communication. So, the word can be defined as a unit of communication. The word can be described as the total of the sounds, which comprise it. The term word denotes the basic unit of a given language resulting from the 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.

The modern approach to word studies is based on distinguishing between the external and the internal structures of the word. By external structure we mean the morphological structure of the word. The following morphemes can be distinguished here: the prefixes, the suffixes, the root. The internal structure of the word, or its meaning, is referred to as the word's semantic structure. It's the word's main aspect. The word possesses both external (or formal) unity and semantic one.

So, **the word** is a speech unit, used for the purposes of human communication, materially representing a group of sounds, possessing a meaning, susceptible to grammatical employment and characterized by formal and semantic unity.

Exercise: What is the external structure of the word post-impressionists? The prefixes*: post-, im-; the root: press;* the noun-forming suffixes: *-ion, -ist* and the grammatical suffix of plurality: *-s.*

Morphemes

If viewed structurally, words are divisable into smaller units which are called morphemes. Morphemes do not occur as free forms but only as constituents of words. Yet they possess meanings of their own. For example, the suffix -ful, means "full of smth".

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Morphemes can be subdivided according to semantic and structural points.

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                    ┌─────────────────────┐
                    │     Morphemes       │
                    └─────────────────────┘
              ┌──────────────┴──────────────┐
   ┌────────────────────┐        ┌────────────────────┐
   │  Semantic point    │        │  Structural point  │
   └────────────────────┘        └────────────────────┘
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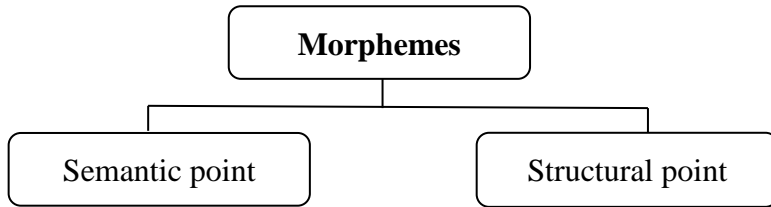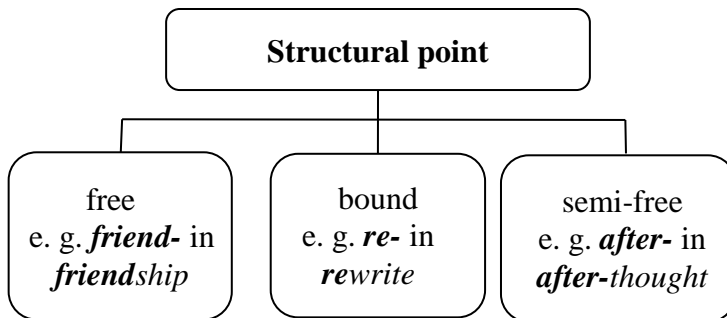
From the semantic point of view, all morphemes are subdivided into 2 large classes: roots (or radicals) and non-root morphemes or affixes.

Root is the lexical nucleus of a word. It's common to a set of words that make up a lexical word-cluster, e. g. act in act, active, inactive, actor, action. The affixes fall into prefixes preceding the root (*rewrite, **un**happy*) and suffixes which follow the root (*work**er**, peace**ful***). The part of a word, which remains unchanged in all the forms of its paradigm is called a stem: *darken* in <u>*darkens, darkened, darkening*</u>.

Stems that coincide with roots are known as simple stems, e. g. **tree**s, **read**s, *etc.*

Stems that contain one or more affixes are called derived stems, e. g. **government**s, **teacher's,** *etc.* Binary stems comprising 2 simple or derived stems are called compound stems, e. g. *ex-**filmstar***, **schoolboy,** etc.

From the structural point of view morphemes fall into 3 types: free morphemes, bound morphemes, semi-bound morphemes.

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                 ┌──────────────────────────┐
                 │    Structural point      │
                 └──────────────────────────┘
       ┌──────────────────┼──────────────────┐
┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐
│    free      │   │    bound     │   │   semi-free  │
│ e. g. friend-│   │ e. g. re- in │   │ e. g. after- │
│ in friendship│   │   rewrite    │   │ in after-    │
│              │   │              │   │   thought    │
└──────────────┘   └──────────────┘   └──────────────┘
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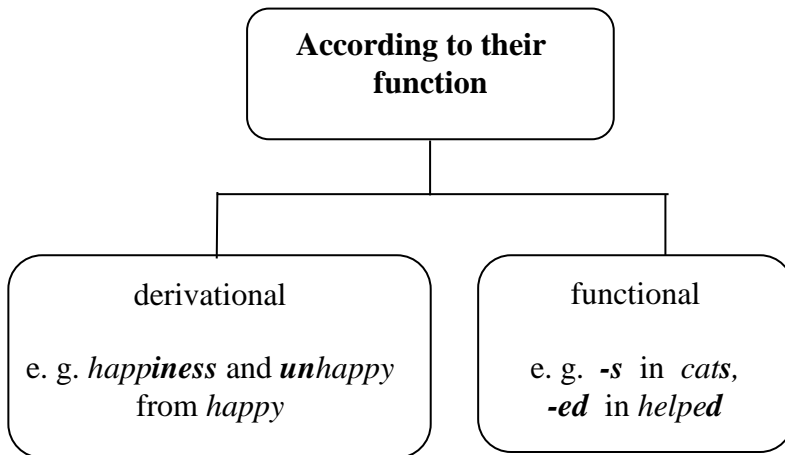
Free morphemes can stand alone as a word, they are root morphemes only, e. g. *friend* in *friendly, friendship.*

Bound morphemes are only constituent parts of words, they are prefixes or suffixes and can't stand alone as separate words, e. g. *depart, misprint, receive.*

Semi-bound morphemes can function both as affixes (i. e., they are prefixes or suffixes) and as free morphemes (they can stand alone as a word): *Chairman, well-known, after-thought.*

Positional variants of morphemes are known as allomorphs. Thus, the prefix in- (*involuntary*) can be represented by allomorph il- (*illegal*), im- (*impossible*), ir- (irregular).

According to the function morphemes can be subdivided into derivational and functional.

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        ┌──────────────────────┐
        │   According to their  │
        │       function        │
        └──────────────────────┘
          ┌───────────┴───────────┐
┌─────────────────────┐  ┌─────────────────────┐
│     derivational     │  │      functional      │
│                      │  │                      │
│ e. g. happiness and  │  │  e. g. -s in cats,   │
│ unhappy from happy   │  │    -ed in helped     │
└─────────────────────┘  └─────────────────────┘
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Words
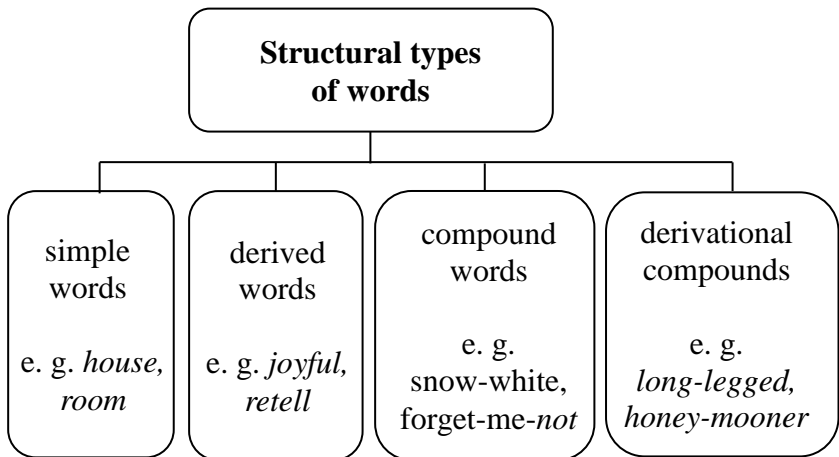
English words fall into 4 main structural types:

– Simple words (or root words) have only a root morpheme in their structure. This type is widely represented by a great number of words belonging to the original English stock or to earlier borrowings (*house, room, book, street, etc.)* and in Modern English has been greatly enlarged by conversion (e. g. *hand – to hand, pale – to pale*, etc.). There are also some shortenings or contractions, which are produced by shortening (contraction), e. g. *ad, lab, flu, M.P.,* etc.

– Derivatives or derived words consist of a root and one or more affixes. They are produced by the word-building process known as affixation or derivation, e. g. *joyful, retell, enlarge,* etc. Derived words are extremely numerous in the English vocabulary.

– Compounds – in which two or more stems are combined into a lexical unit, e. g. *classroom, snow-white, forget-me-not.*

– Derivational compounds – in which phrase components are joined together by means of compounding + affixation, e. g. *black-eyed, bald-headed, strong-willed.*

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                    ┌─────────────────┐
                    │ Structural types│
                    │    of words     │
                    └─────────────────┘
        ┌──────────────┬──────────┴──────┬──────────────┐
 ┌──────────┐  ┌──────────┐  ┌──────────────┐  ┌──────────────┐
 │  simple  │  │ derived  │  │  compound    │  │ derivational │
 │  words   │  │  words   │  │   words      │  │  compounds   │
 │          │  │          │  │              │  │              │
 │ e. g.    │  │ e. g.    │  │   e. g.      │  │    e. g.     │
 │ house,   │  │ joyful,  │  │  snow-white, │  │ long-legged, │
 │  room    │  │  retell  │  │ forget-me-not│  │honey-mooner  │
 └──────────┘  └──────────┘  └──────────────┘  └──────────────┘
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There exists a more complicated classification of the structural types of words. It takes into account the varieties of root morphemes, the positions of affixes as regards the root.

I   Simple words.
   1. R – *stop, now, desk;*
   2. Rfr (root fragment) – *lab* (laboratory), *pop* (popular);
II Derived words.
   3. R + S (root + suffix) – *realize, dancer*;
   4. Rfr + S – *combo* (combination);
   5. P + R (prefix + root) – *depart, subdivision*;
   6. P + R + S – *misinterpretation, disagreeable*;
III Compound words.
   7. R + R – *timetable, schoolgirl*;

8. Rfr + Rfr – *smog* (smoke + fog), *brunch* (breakfast + lunch);
9. R + I + R (root + interfix + root) – *gasometer, statesman*;
10. (R + S) + R – *writing – table, safety-belt*;
11. R + (R + S) – *pen-holder, sky-jumping;*
12. R + F + R (root + function word + root) – *stay-at-home, true-to-life;*
IV Derivational compounds.
13. (R + R) + S – *snub-nosed, long-legged*.

The four types (root words, derived words, compounds and derivational compounds) represent the main structural types of Modern English words, and, conversion, derivation and composition are the most productive ways of word-building process. By word-building we understand processes of producing new words from the resources of the language. Various types of word formation in modern English possess different degrees of productivity, some of them are highly productive such as affixation, compounding, shortening, conversion, forming phrasal words others are semi-productive, such as back formation, reduplication, blending, sound imitation and non-productive – sound interchange and change of stress.

Questions:
1. What is the literal meaning of the term "lexicology?"
2. What is the modern approach to word studies based on?
3. Define the term "word".
4. From a semantic point of view, what classes are all morphemes subdivided into?
5. What are the three types of morphemes from a structural point of view?
6. Explain the difference between bound and semi-bound morphemes.
7. What are the four main structural types of English words?
8. Give the examples of derivatives.
9. What is the difference between compounds and derivational compounds?
10. What are the most productive ways of word-building process?

11. What do you understand by word-building processes?
12. What are the semi-productive ways of word-building process?
13. What are the non-productive ways of word-building process?

LECTURE II
WORD-FORMATION

Affixation

Affixation is a word formative process in which words are created by adding word-building affixes to roots. It includes:
- Preffixation (+ prefix),
- Suffixation (+ suffix).

From the etymological point of view, affixes are classified according to their origin into two large groups:
- Native (-ing, -er, -un, -mis),
- Borrowed (-tion, -ment, -anti).

Affixes can also be classified into productive (-er, -mis, -re, -able) and non-productive (-ous, -en; -hood).

Suffixes derive a new part of a speech, so we must distinguish: noun-forming suffixes, adjective-forming suffixes, verb-forming and adverb-forming suffixes.

Some Native suffixes:

1) noun – forming: -er (*worker, teacher*); -ness (*coldness, loneliness*); -ing (*meaning, singing*); -dom (*freedom, wisdom*); -hood (*motherhood, childhood*); -ship (*friendship, mastership*); -th (*lenth, truth*);

2) adjective-forming: -ful (*careful, skilful*); -less (*careless, sleepless*); -y (*cosy, snowy*); -ish (*English, childish*); -ly (*ugly, lovely*); -en (*wooden, woolen*); -some (*handsome, tiresome*);

3) verb-forming: -en (*widen, darken*);

4) adverb-forming: -ly (*warmly, simply*).

Borrowed affixes, especially of Romance origin are numerous in the English vocabulary. Latin affixes:

1) noun-forming: -ion (*opinion, union*); -tion (*revolution, starvation*);

2) verb-forming: -ate (*create, appreciate*); -ute (*distribute, contribute*). The prefix dis- (*disable, disagree*);

3) adjective-forming: -able (*curable, detestable*); -ate (*accurate, graduate*); -ant (*constant, important*); -ent (*absent, convenient*).

French Affixes:

1) noun-forming: -ance (*arrogance*, *endurance*); -ence (*consequence*, *patience*); -ment (*development*, *experiment*);

2) verb: the prefix en- (*enable*, *endear*).

Affixes can also be classified into productive and non-productive types. Productive affixes take part in deriving new words in this particular period of language development. The best way to identify productive affixes is to look for them among neologisms.

Semantic of affixes. Affix, which is a type of morpheme, is defined as the smallest indivisible component of the word possessing a meaning of its own. Affixes have widely generalized meanings and refer the whole word to a certain category, e. g. the adjective-forming suffix -ful has the meaning "full of smth": *beautiful, careful*.

Conversion

Conversion is one of the most productive ways of modern English word-building. Conversion is sometimes referred to as an affixless way of word-building or even affixless derivation. It consists in making a new word from an existing word by changing the category of a part of speech. The new word has a meaning which differs from that of the original one though it can more or less be easily associated with it. It has also a new paradigm peculiar to its new category as a part of speech. Let's analyse the paradigm of the noun *nurse* and the verb *to nurse*.

Nurse, n	Nurse, v
-s, plural	-s, 3rd person singular
-'s, possessive case	-ed, past simple, past participle
-s', possessive case, plural	-ing, present participle, gerund

Nowadays conversion is accepted as one of the major ways of enriching English vocabulary with new words. Normally, a word changes its syntactic function without any shift in lexical meaning. For example both in *yellow leaves* and *the leaves were turning yellow* the adjective denotes colour. Yet, in the sentence *The leaves yellowed* the converted unit no longer denotes colour, but the process of changing colour.

The other argument is the regularity and completeness with

which converted units develop a paradigm of their new category of part of speech. As soon as it has crossed the category borderline, the new word automatically acquires all the properties of the new category, so that if it has entered the verb category, it is used in all tense forms, it also develops the forms of the participle and the gerund. Modern English dictionaries present converted pairs as homonyms, as two words.

The high productivity of conversion finds its reflexion in speech. But these new words are not registered by dictionaries e. g.: the annoyed Hero of a story by O'Henry when a shop assistant offers him oranges for the tenth time in one night, instead of peaches, for which he is looking, says: *"if anybody oranges me again tonight, I'll knock his face off"*. One is not likely to find the word *to orange* in any dictionary, but in this situation the usage of this word answers the need of brevity, expressiveness and humour.

Not every case of noun and verb (or verb and adjective, or adjective and noun) is the result of conversion. There are numerous pairs of words, as drink – to drink, love – to love, work – to work which do not occur to conversion but coincide as a result of certain historical processes (dropping of ending, simplification of stems, etc.). The first cases of conversion, which were registered in the 14th c., imitated such pairs as love-to love, for they were numerous in the vocabulary and were subconsciously accepted by native speakers as one of the typical language patterns.

The two categories of parts of speech affected by conversion are nouns and verbs: A hand – to hand, a face – to face. Nouns are frequently made of verbs, e. g. *He has still plenty of go at his age (go-energy).* Verbs can also be made from adjectives: *to yellow, to green, to pale, to cool...*

The meanings of the converted word and of the word from which it was made can be associated. These associations can be classified:

1) the noun is the name of a tool, the verb denotes an action performed by this tool. *To nail, to hammer, to pin, to comb, to pencil, to brush;*

2) the noun is the name of an animal, the verb denotes an action

or aspect of behavior, considered typical of this animal. *To dog, to rat, to wolf, to monkey;*

3) the noun – the name of a part of the human body, the verb – an action performed by it: *to shoulder, to leg, to elbow, to hand;*

4) the noun denotes the name of a profession or occupation, the verb – activity typical of it: *to nurse, to cook, to maid;*

5) the noun – the name of a place and the verb – the process of occupying the place or putting smth. or smb. in it: *to room, to place, to cage;*
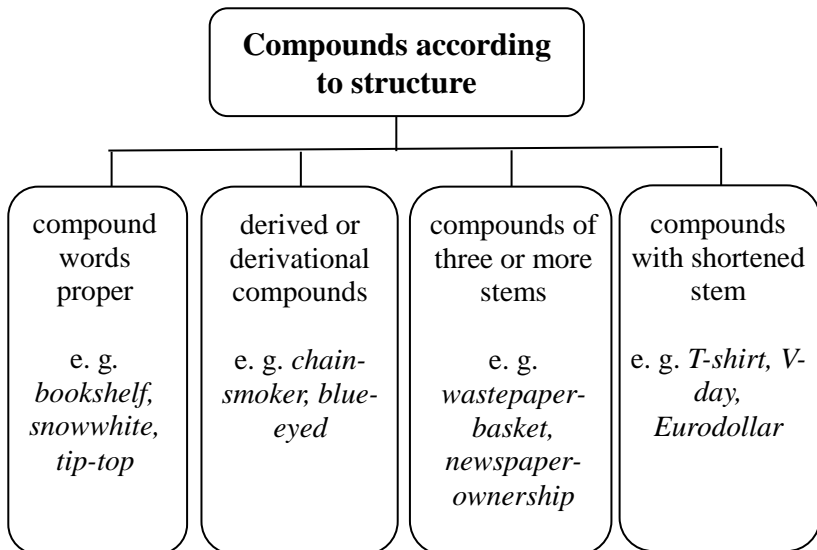
6) the noun – the name of a container, verb –act of putting smth. within the container. *To pocket, to can, to bottle;*

7) the noun – the name of a meal, verb – the process of taking it. *To lunch, to supper.*

The suggested groups do not include all the great variety of verbs made from nouns by conversion.

Composition

Composition is the type of word building in which new words are produced by combining two or more stems. There are at least 3 aspects of composition that present special interest. The first is the structural aspect. 4 types of compounds are distinguished here:

Compounds according to structure			
compound words proper e. g. *bookshelf, snowwhite, tip-top*	derived or derivational compounds e. g. *chain-smoker, blue-eyed*	compounds of three or more stems e. g. *wastepaper-basket, newspaper-ownership*	compounds with shortened stem e. g. *T-shirt, V-day, Eurodollar*

1) compounds consisting of simple stems: *bookshelf, snowwhite;*
2) compounds where at least one of the components is a derived stem: *shoe-maker, chain-smoker;*
3) compounds where at least one of the components is a clipped stem: *T-shirt, TV-set;*
4) compounds where at least one of the components is a compound stem: *wastepaper-basket, newspaper-ownership.*

The classification of compounds according to the means of joining the components together distinguishes between neutral, morphological and syntactic structural types:

Compounds according to the ways components are joined together

- neutral compounds

  e. g. *blackboard, sunflower, bedroom*

- morphological compounds

  e. g. *Anglo-Saxon, statesman*

- syntactic compounds

  e. g. *good-for-nothing, mother-in-law*

- simple neutral compounds

  e. g. *classroom, schoolboy*

- derivational or derived compounds
  e. g. *music-lover, dark-eyed*

- contracted compounds

  e. g. *TV-set, H-bag*

1. In neutral (or juxtapositional) compounds the process of compounding is realized without any linking elements, by a mere juxtaposition of two stems, as in *blackboard, sunflower, bedroom, shopwindow*.

There are three subtypes of neutral compounds, depending on the structure of the constituent stems:

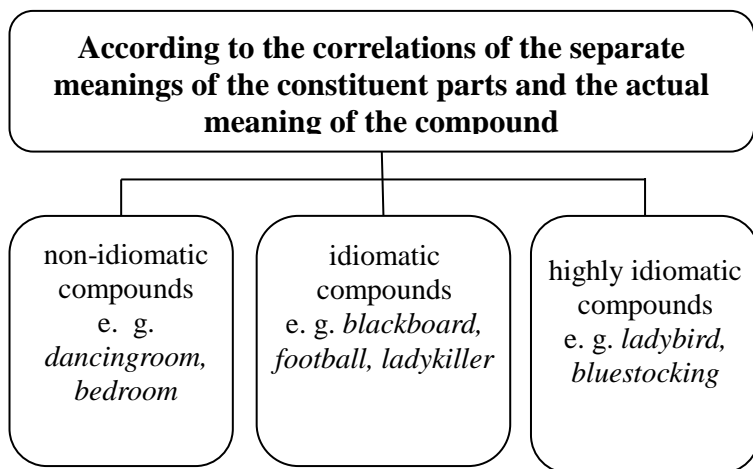a) Simple neutral compounds consist of simple affixless stems. *classroom, schollboy.*

b) Derivational or derived compounds have affixes in their structure: *music-lover, blue-eyed, filmgoer.*

c) Contracted compounds have a contracted or shortened stem in their structure: *TV-set, V-day, H-bag (hand-bag).*

2. Morphological compounds are few in number. This type is non-productive. Here two compounding stems are combined by a linking vowel or consonant: *Anglo-Saxon, statesman, craftsman, handiwork.*

3. In syntactic compounds we see segments of speech such as articles, prepositions adverbs: *good-for-nothing, mother-in-law, sitathome.*

Another interesting question is of correlations of the separate meanings of the constituent parts and the actual meaning of the compound. Here we distinguish three groups:

According to the correlations of the separate meanings of the constituent parts and the actual meaning of the compound

non-idiomatic compounds e. g. *dancingroom, bedroom*	idiomatic compounds e. g. *blackboard, football, ladykiller*	highly idiomatic compounds e. g. *ladybird, bluestocking*

1. Non-idiomatic compounds. Here the meaning can be described as the sum of their constituent parts: *dancingroom, bedroom, classroom.*

2. Idiomatic compounds. Here one of the components or both has changed its meaning: *a blackboard is not necessarily black, football is not a ball but a game, a chatterbox is not a box but a person, and a ladykiller kills no one but is a man who fascinates women.*

3. Highly idiomatic compounds whose meaning do not correspond to the separate meanings of their parts. Here the process of deducing the meaning is impossible, we must know the translation of the word: *ladybird is not a bird, but an insect, a tallboy is not a boy but a piece of furniture, a bluestocking is a person.*

Shortening

Shortenings are produced in two different ways: contraction (clipping) and abbreviation (initial shortening).

The first way is to make a new word from a syllable of the original word. One should distinguish between 4 types of contraction:

1. Final clipping (apocope). The omitting of the final part of the word: *doc (doctor), mag (magazine), Nick (Nickolas).*

2. Initial clipping (apheresis). The omitting of the fore part of the word: *plane (airplane), van (caravan), phone (telephone).*

3. Medial clipping (syncope). The omitting of the middle part of the word: *fancy (fantasy), specs (spectacles), maths (mathematics).*

4. Mixed clipping, where the fore and the final parts of the words are clipped: *flu (influenza), tec (detective), fridge (refrigerator).*

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                    │     Shortening      │
                    └─────────────────────┘

  ┌──────────────────────┐        ┌──────────────────────┐
  │     contraction      │        │     abbreviation     │
  │      (clipping)      │        │  (initial shortening)│
  └──────────────────────┘        └──────────────────────┘

  ┌──────────────────────┐        ┌──────────────────────┐
  │   final clipping     │        │      acronyms:       │
  │     (apocope):       │        │ e. g. NATO (North Atlantic│
  │ e. g. doc (doctor),  │        │  Treaty Organization),│
  │   mag (magazine)     │        │  UNO (United Nations │
  └──────────────────────┘        │    Organization)     │
                                  └──────────────────────┘

  ┌──────────────────────┐        ┌──────────────────────┐
  │   initial clipping   │        │alphabetic abbreviations:│
  │     (apheresis):     │        │  e. g. USA, G.B.S.   │
  │ e. g. plane (airplane),│      │ (George Bernard Shaw)│
  │  phone (telephone)   │        └──────────────────────┘
  └──────────────────────┘

  ┌──────────────────────┐        ┌──────────────────────┐
  │   medial clipping    │        │compound abbreviations:│
  │     (syncope):       │        │   e. g. A-bomb       │
  │ e. g. fancy (fantasy),│       │   (atomic-bomb),     │
  │  specs (spectacles)  │        │ L-driver (learner - driver)│
  └──────────────────────┘        └──────────────────────┘

  ┌──────────────────────┐        ┌──────────────────────┐
  │   mixed clipping:    │        │  latin abbreviations:│
  │ e. g. flu (influenza),│       │  e. g. cf. (compare),│
  │   tec (detective)    │        │    i. e. (that is),  │
  └──────────────────────┘        │  e. g. (for example) │
                                  └──────────────────────┘

                                  ┌──────────────────────┐
                                  │ graphic abbreviations:│
                                  │ e. g. Mr., ltd (limited)│
                                  └──────────────────────┘
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The second way of shortenings is to make a new word from the initial letters of a word group. Abbreviations are subdivided into five groups.

1. Acronyms which are read in accordance within the reading rules as though they were ordinary words: *NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), UNO (United Nations Organization).*

2. Alphabetic abbreviations in which letters get their full alphabetic pronunciation and a full stress: *USA, BBC, MP.* Alphabetic abbreviation are sometimes used for famous people names: *G. B. S. (George Bernard Shaw), B. B. (Brigitte Bardot).*

3. Compound abbreviations in which the first constituent is a letter and the second part is a complete word: *A-bomb (atomicbomb), L-driver (learner-driver).* In compound abbreviation also may be clipped one or both constituents: *Interpol (international police).*

4. Graphic abbreviations which are used in texts for economy of space. They are pronounced as the corresponding unabbreviated words: *Mr., Mrs., m (mile), ltd (limited).*

5. Latin abbreviations can be read as separate letters or be substituted by the English equivalents: *e. g. (for example), cf. (compare), i. e. (that is).*
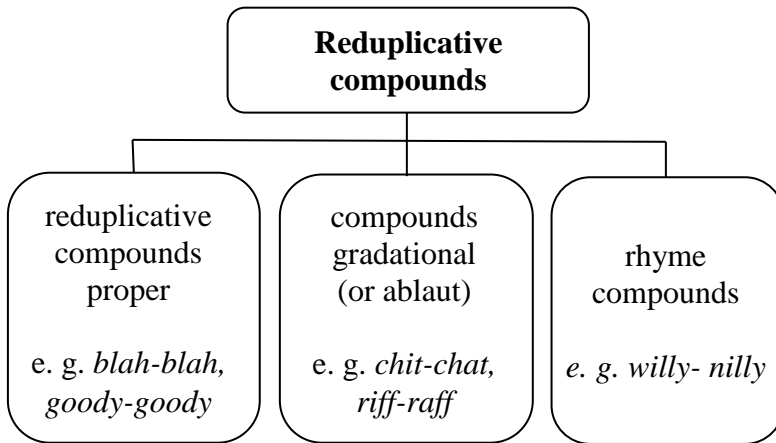
Sound imitation (onomatopoeia)

Words are made by imitating different kinds of sounds that may be produced by animals, birds, insects and other human beings. It's interesting that sounds produced by the same kind of animal are frequently represented by quite different sound groups in different languages.

For instance, English dogs bark: bow-wow; English cocks cry cock-a-doodle-doo; ducks quack and frogs croak. It is only English and Russian cats seem capable to mutual understanding when they meet.

Reduplication

In reduplication new words are made by doubling a stem, either without any phonetic changes as in *bye-bye* or with a variation of the root vowel or consonant as in *ping-pong.* The first group of reduplicative compounds are called reduplicative compounds proper.

Their constituents are identical in their form: *blah-blah, goody-goody*. The second type is called gradational (or ablaut) reduplication. This type of word building is greatly facilitated in modern English by the vast number of monosyllables: *chit-chat, riff-raff, etc.* Also we distinguish rhyme compounds: here the constituents are joined to rhyme: *willy-nilly, helter-skelter.* Stylistically speaking, most words made by reduplication represent informal groups such as slang and colloquialisms: *walkie-talkie, shi-shi.*

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                    ┌─────────────────────┐
                    │    Reduplicative    │
                    │     compounds       │
                    └─────────────────────┘
        ┌──────────────────┬──────────────────┐
┌───────────────┐  ┌───────────────┐  ┌───────────────┐
│ reduplicative │  │  compounds    │  │    rhyme      │
│  compounds    │  │  gradational  │  │  compounds    │
│   proper      │  │  (or ablaut)  │  │               │
│               │  │               │  │               │
│ e. g. blah-blah, │ e. g. chit-chat, │ e. g. willy- nilly │
│  goody-goody  │  │   riff-raff   │  │               │
└───────────────┘  └───────────────┘  └───────────────┘
```

Back formation (reversion)

Back formation is the derivation of new words by means of subtracting a suffix: *e. g. greed from greedy, lase from laser, etc.* The earliest examples of this type of word building are the verbs *to beg* that was made from the French borrowing *beggar* and *to burgle* from *burglar*; *to cobble* from *cobbler*. In all these cases the verb was made from the noun by subtracting what was mistakenly associated with the English suffix -er.

The pattern of the type *to work – worker* was firmly established in the English language and it was taken for granted that any noun denoting profession or occupation is certain to have a corresponding verb of the same root. So, in the case of the verbs *to beg, to burgle* the process was reversed. Instead of a noun made from a verb by

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affixation, a verb was produced from a noun by subtraction.

Later examples of back-formation are: *to butle* from *butler*, *to babysist* from *babysiter*, *to fingerprint* from *finger printings*, *to straphang* from *straphanger*.

Blending

Blending is the formation of new lexical units by means of merging fragment of words into one new word, or combining the elements of one word with another: *drunch = drinks+lunch, cinemagnate = cinema+magnate, etc.*

Questions:

1. Explain the meaning of the term "affixation". What groups it includes? Give some examples.
2. What is the main point of the term "conversion?"
3. How the associations of the converted word may be classified? Give some examples.
4. Give the meaning to the term "composition".
5. Name types of compounds according to their structure. Give some examples.
6. What types of compounds according to the correlations of the separate meanings of the constituent parts and the actual meaning do you know? Give some examples.
7. In what ways are shortenings produced? Describe each one.
8. What is the difference between initial and final clipping?
9. How are the sounds produced by animals represented in different languages?
10. What are the three types of reduplicative compounds? Give examples.
11. What is back formation? What are the earliest examples of this type of word building?
12. How are the new lexical units formed?

LECTURE III
ETYMOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF
MODERN ENGLISH VOCABULARY

Borrowings

Up to 70% of the English vocabulary are borrowings from various foreign languages. Partially the words are borrowed because of the historical circumstances which stimulate the borrowing process. Each time two nations come into close contact, certain borrowings are a natural consequence. The nature of the contact may be different. It may be wars, invasions or trade and international cultural and sports relations.

Sometimes it is done to fill a gap in vocabulary. For example, the words *potato* and *tomato* were borrowed by English from Spanish when these vegetables were first brought to England.

But sometimes the borrowed words express nearly the same, but not exactly the same. A word is borrowed because it represents the same concept in some new aspect. It supplies a new shade of meaning. This type of borrowing enlarges groups of synonyms. That's it how the French *desire* was added to *wish,* the Latin *admire* and the French *adore* to *like* and *love*.

Assimilation of the borrowed words

Most of the borrowed words adjust themselves to their new environment and get adapted to the norms of the recipient language. They undergo certain changes which gradually erase their proper features and finally they are assimilated. Borrowed words are adjusted in three main areas of the new language system: the phonetic, the grammatical and the semantic.

The nature of **phonetic adaptation** is best shown by comparing Norman French borrowings. The Norman borrowings have for a long time been fully adapted to the phonetic system of the English language. Such words as *table, plate, courage* bear no phonetic traces of their French origin. Some of the later borrowings sound surprisingly French: *matinee, ballet, cafe*. In these cases, phonetic adaptation is not completed.

Grammatical adaptation consists in a complete change of the former paradigm of the borrowed word. Yet, this is also a lasting process. For example, words *phenomenon (pl. phenomena), criterion (pl. criteria)* are not fully adopted.

By **semantic adaptation** is meant adjustment to the system of meanings of the vocabulary. For instance, the adjective *large* was borrowed from French in the meaning of "wide". It was not actually wanted because it fully coincided with the English adjective *wide*. This could have led to its rejection. Yet, *large* managed to establish itself very firmly in the English vocabulary by semantic adjustment. It entered another synonymic group with the general meaning of "big in size".

According to the degree of assimilation, borrowings can be classified into three groups:

1) completely assimilated borrowings (denizens) that follow English phonetical, grammatical and graphic standards and do not seem foreign in origin, e. g. *husband, table, street, take.*

2) partially assimilated borrowings (aliens). They fall into four subgroups:

a) not assimilated semantically: *sherbet, toreador*;

b) not assimilated grammatically, e. g. nouns of Latin and Greek origin which retain their original plural form: *crisis – crises, phenomenon – phenomena*;

c) borrowings which aren't assimilated phonetically: *boulevard, foyer*;

d) not assimilated graphically: *Cliché, naïve.*

3) unassimilated borrowed words (barbarisms). They preserve their original spelling and other characteristics, always have corresponding English equivalents, e. g. *coup d'etat, eureka, persona grata,* etc.

Classification of borrowings according to the degree of assimilation

completely assimilated (denizens)

e. g. *husband, table*

partially assimilated (aliens)

unassimilated words (barbarisms)

e. g. *coup d'etat, eureka*

not assimilated phonetically

e. g. *boulevard, bourgeois*

not assimilated graphically

e. g. *cliché, naïve*

not assimilated grammatically

e. g. *crisis – crises, genius – genii*

not assimilated semantically

e. g. *sherbet, toreador*
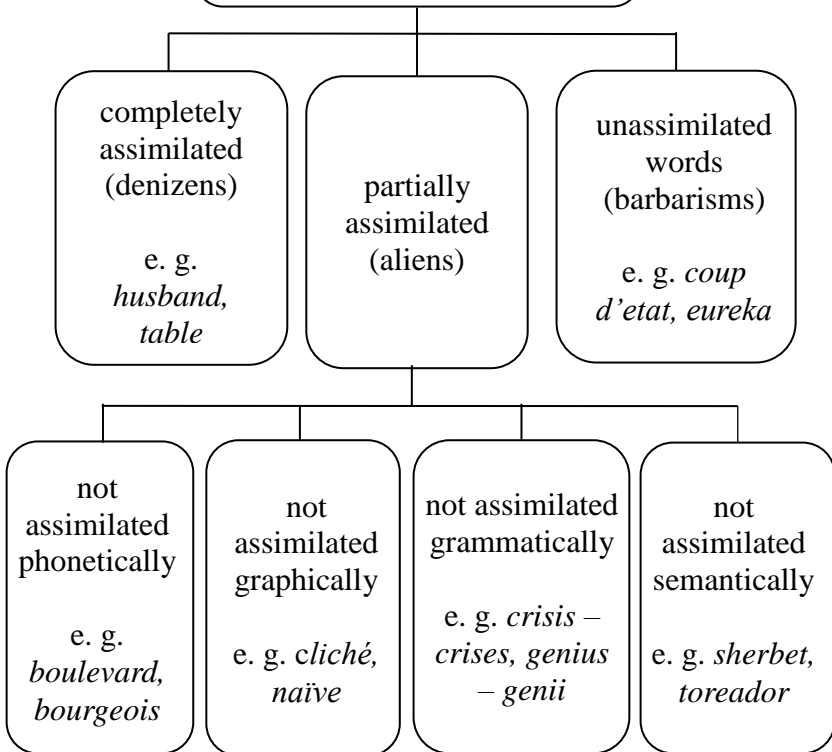
Translation – loans

The term "loan word" is equivalent to borrowing. By translation – loans we indicate borrowings which are not taken into the vocabulary of another language more or less in the same phonemic shape in which they have been functioning in their own language, but undergo the process of translation. They are only compound words, because they can be subjected to such an operation when each stem is being translated separately: *e. g. 5 year-plan (from Russian пятилетка), first dancer (from Italian prima-ballerina), collective farm (from Russian колхоз), wonder child (from German wunderkind), etc.*

Borrowings can be classified according to the language from which they were borrowed

Classification of borrowings according to the language from which they were borrowed

Romanic borrowings:
street, port, wall, etc.
Latin words: *alter, cross, dean.*
Greek words: *church, angel, devil, anthem*

Italian borrowings:
volcano, granite, bronze, lava. baritone, basso, tenor, falsetto, solo, duet, trio, quartet, quintet, opera, operette, libretto

German borrowings:
cobalt, bismuth, zink, quarts, gneiss, wolfram. iceberg, lobby, rucksack, Kindergarten, etc.
In the period of the Second World War and after it: *Luftwaffe, SS-man, Bundeswehr, gestapo, gas chamber Berufsverbot, Volkswagen,* etc.

Holland borrowings:
freight, skipper, pump, keel, dock, reef, deck, leak and many others

French borrowings:
a) government: *administer, empire, state*, *government;*
b) military affairs: *army, war, banner, soldier, battle*;
c) jury: *advocate, petition, inquest, sentence*, *barrister*;
d) fashion: *luxury, coat, collar, lace, pleat, embroidery;*
e) jewelry: *topaz, emerald, pearl;*
f) food and cooking: *lunch, dinner, appetite, to roast, to stew, cuisine.*
g) literature and music: *belle-lettres, conservatorie, brochure,*

Spanish borrowings:
a) trade terms: *cargo, embargo*;
b) names of dances and musical instruments: *tango, rumba, habanera,*
c) names of vegetables and fruit: *tomato, potato, cocoa, banana, ananas, apricot,* etc.

Germanic borrowings: nouns: *bull, cake, egg, kid, knife, window, etc.*, adjectives: *flat, ill, happy, low, odd, ugly, wrong,* etc.,
verbs: *call, die, guess, get, give, scream.* pronouns and connective words: *same, both, till, fro, though,* pronominal forms with «th»: *they, them, their*

International words

It often happens that a word is borrowed by several languages and not just by one. Such words usually convey concepts which are significant in the field of communication. Many of them are of Latin and Greek origin. Most names of sciences are international, e. g. *philosophy, mathematics, physics, chemistry*. There are numerous terms of art in this group, e. g. *music, drama, comedy, theatre, primadonna.*

It's natural that political terms frequently occur in the international group of borrowings: *progress, democracy, antimilitarism, policy*.

In the 20^{th} century scientific and technological advances brought a great number of new international words: *television, atomic, radio sputnik (is a Russian borrowing, meaning a man-made sattelite).*

The English language also contributed a considerable number of international words to world languages, especially sports terms: *volleyball, hockey, cricket, football.*

Fruits and foodstuffs imported from exotic countries often transport their names too and, being simultaneously imported to many countries, become international: *chocolate, banana, coffee, mango, grapefruit.*
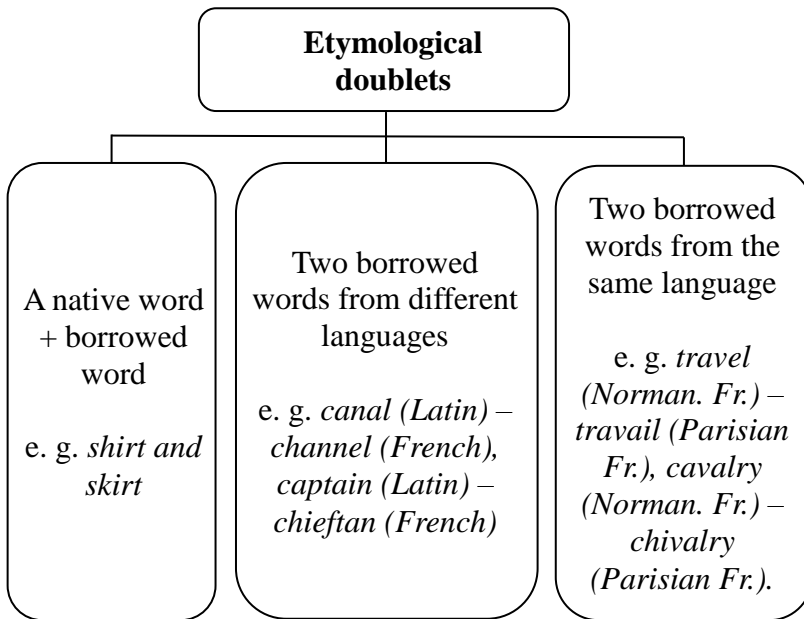
International words shouldn't be confused with pseudo-international words (translator's false friends) which have the same origin but different semantic structures. The divergence in meaning can be partial (e. g. the English adjective *liberal* corresponds not only to Russian *либеральный,* but also to *богатый, великодушный, щедрый* and others) or complete (e. g. the English *aspirant* doesn't mean *аспирант*, but *претендент, кандидат*).

Etymological doublets

The words *shirt* and *skirt* are of the same root. *Shirt* is a native word, and *skirt* is a Scandinavian borrowing. Their phonemic shape is different and yet there is a certain resemblance which reflects their common origin. Their meanings are also different but easily associated. They both denote articles of clothing.

Such words as these two originating from the same etymological source, but differing in phonetic shape and meaning are called etymological doublets.

They may enter the vocabulary by different roots. Some of these pairs (like *shirt* and *skirt*) consist of a native word and a borrowed one. Others are represented by two borrowings from different languages which are historically originated from the same root: *canal (Latin) – channel (French), captain (Latin) – chieftan (French).*

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┌─────────────────────────┐
│      Etymological        │
│        doublets          │
└─────────────────────────┘
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A native word + borrowed word e. g. *shirt and skirt*	Two borrowed words from different languages e. g. *canal (Latin) – channel (French), captain (Latin) – chieftan (French)*	Two borrowed words from the same language e. g. *travel (Norman. Fr.) – travail (Parisian Fr.), cavalry (Norman. Fr.) – chivalry (Parisian Fr.).*

Still others were borrowed from the same language twice in different periods of time: *travel (Norman. Fr.) – travail (Parisian Fr.), cavalry (Norman. Fr.) – chivalry (Parisian Fr.).*

A doublet may also consist of a shortened word and the one from which it was derived: *history – story, fanatic – fan, shadow – shade.*

Etymological hybrids are words whose elements are derived

from different languages, e. g. *eatable* (native root + Romanic suffix), *distrust* (native root + Romanic prefix), *beautiful* (Romanic root + native suffix), etc.

Etymological triplets are groups of three words of common origin: *hospital (lat) – hostel (Norm. Fr.) – hotel (Par. Fr.), to capture (Lat.) – to catch (Norm. Fr.) – to chase (Par. Fr.).*
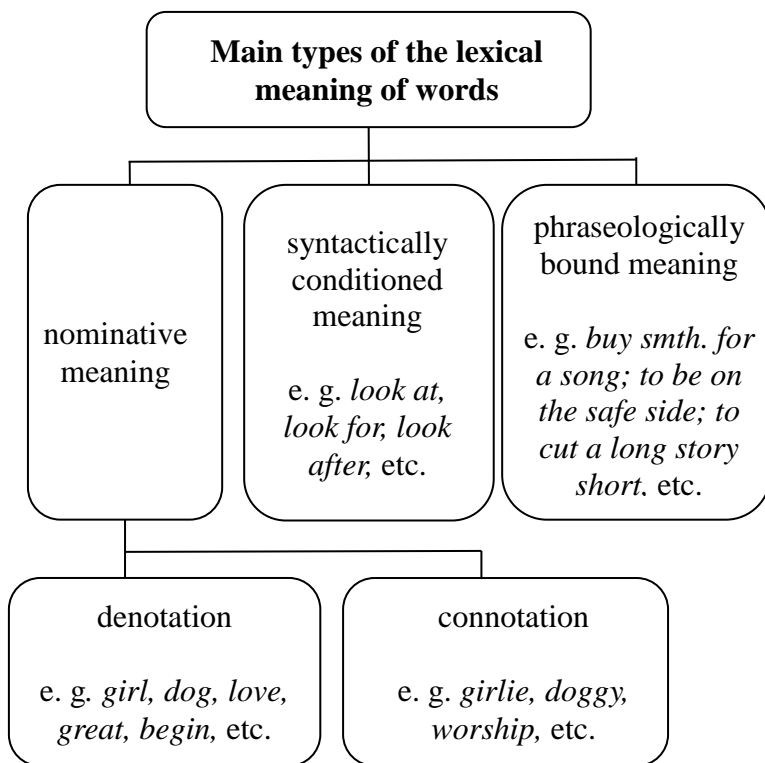
Questions
1. What are the main causes of the borrowed words?
2. How many words of the English vocabulary are borrowed?
3. How many groups of the borrowed words can be distinguished according to the degree of assimilation,?
4. What is the term for partially assimilated borrowings?
5. What are the four groups of partially assimilated borrowings?
6. What distinguishes unassimilated borrowed words or barbarisms? Give the examples of such words.
7. Can we claim that the word *gestapo* is borrowed from German? Why?
8. What are the international words?
9. What is the difference between international words and pseudo-international words?
10. How do we identify translation – loans? Give the examples of translation – loans.

LECTURE IV
LEXICAL MEANING

Meaning can be described as a component of the word through which a concept is communicated. It is only when we hear a spoken word or read a printed word the corresponding concept springs into mind. It enables the word to denote real objects, qualities, actions and abstract notions.

One should distinguish three main types of the lexical meaning of words:

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Main types of the lexical
meaning of words
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nominative meaning

syntactically conditioned meaning

e. g. *look at, look for, look after,* etc.

phraseologically bound meaning

e. g. *buy smth. for a song; to be on the safe side; to cut a long story short,* etc.

denotation

e. g. *girl, dog, love, great, begin,* etc.

**connotation**

e. g. *girlie, doggy, worship,* etc.

1) nominative meaning which is the direct meaning of the word, immediately referring to objects in extralinguistic reality. The nominative meaning includes denotational and connotational components. Denotation is the expression of the direct meaning of the

word without any emotive evaluation or stylistic colouring, e. g. *friend, dog, love, great, begin, etc.* Connotation is the supplementary expressive meaning presented either by emotive charge, e. g. *girlie, doggy, worship, etc.,* or by stylistic reference, e. g. *father (neutr.) :: parent (book.) :: dad (col.) :: governor (slang); great (neutr.) :: terrific (col.).*

2) syntactically conditioned meaning manifesting itself in colligations. Cf. *look at :: look for :: look after,* etc.

3) phraseologically bound meaning which is idiomatic and manifests itself only in certain phraseological units, e. g. *buy smth. for a song; to be on the safe side; to cut a long story short,* etc.

The branch of linguistics which studies the meaning of words is called semasiology or semantics. The modern approach to semantics is based on the assumption that the inner form of the word (its meaning) presents a structure which is called the semantic structure of the word. There are three main semantic structures of words: monosemy, semantic diffusion and polysemy.
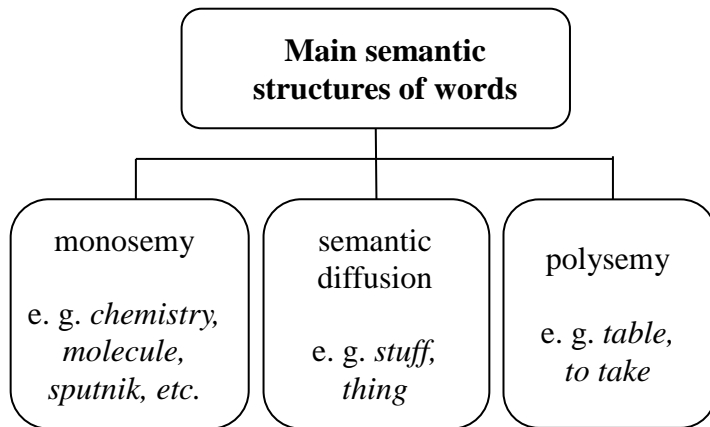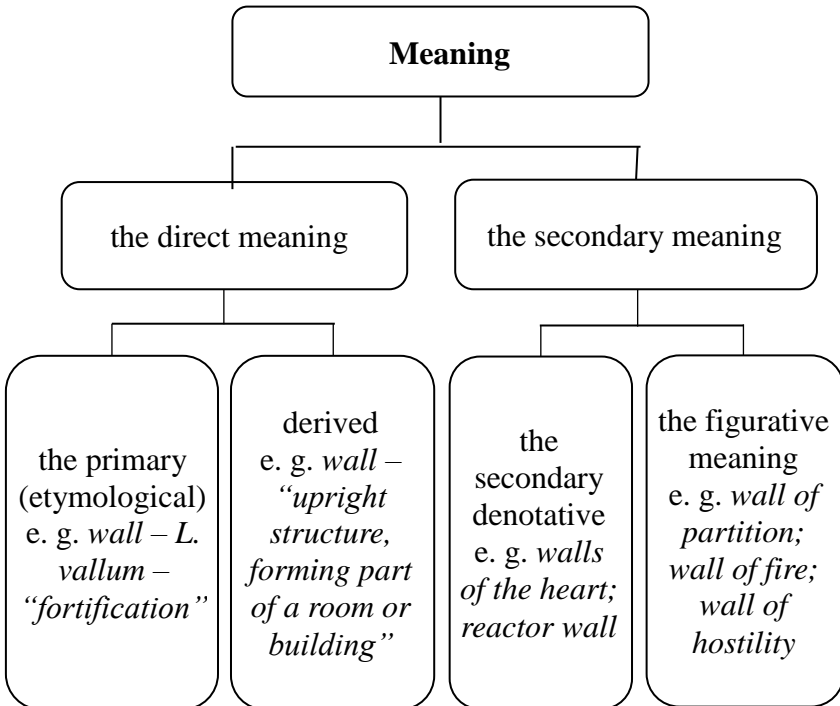

1. Monosemy is the existence within one word of only one meaning. Monosemantic words are comparatively few in number. They are mainly scientific terms, e. g. *chemistry, molecule, sputnic,* etc.

2. Semantic diffusion is observed in words with a very wide conceptual volume. Such words can name an indefinitely large

number of objects. For instance, the word *thing* denotes "any object of our thought". It can name various objects, living beings, facts, problems, pieces of writing, possessions, etc.

3. Polysemy is the existence within one word of several meanings. A word having several meanings is called polysemantic.

Most English words are polysemantic. If each word is capable of conveying at least two concepts instead of one, then the expressive potential of the whole vocabulary increases twofold. Thus, a well-developed polysemy is not a drawback but a great advantage in a language. The process of enriching the vocabulary doesn't consist merely in adding new words to it, but, also, in the constant development of polysemy.

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                        ┌──────────────┐
                        │   Meaning    │
                        └──────────────┘
              ┌──────────────────┴──────────────────┐
    ┌─────────────────────┐          ┌─────────────────────────┐
    │ the direct meaning  │          │ the secondary meaning   │
    └─────────────────────┘          └─────────────────────────┘
       ┌──────────┴──────────┐          ┌──────────┴──────────┐
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the primary (etymological) e. g. *wall – L. vallum – "fortification"*	derived e. g. *wall – "upright structure, forming part of a room or building"*	the secondary denotative e. g. *walls of the heart; reactor wall*	the figurative meaning e. g. *wall of partition; wall of fire; wall of hostility*

The system of meanings of any polysemantic word develops gradually, mostly over the centuries, as more and more new meanings are either added to old ones, or lost. So the complicated processes of
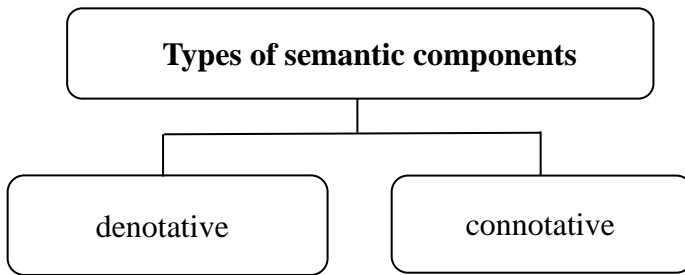
polysemy development involve both the appearance of new meanings and the loss of old ones. The general tendency with English vocabulary at the modern stage is to increase the total number of its meanings and in this way to provide for a quantitative and qualitative growth of the languages expressive resources.

Also we can divide meaning into direct and secondary ones.

Types of Semantic Components

There are two types of semantic components: denotative and connotative.

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        ┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
        │    Types of semantic components     │
        └─────────────────────────────────────┘
                          │
          ┌───────────────┴───────────────┐
    ┌──────────────┐              ┌──────────────┐
    │  denotative  │              │  connotative │
    └──────────────┘              └──────────────┘
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The leading semantic component in the semantic structure of a word is usually termed *denotative* (or sometimes referential) *component*. The denotative component expresses the conceptual content of a word.

The following list presents denotative components of some English verbs:

to glare → to look
to glance → to look
to shiver → to tremble
to shudder → to tremble.

The definitions given in the right column only partially describe the meaning of their corresponding words. To give more or less full picture of the meaning of a word, it is necessary to include in the scheme of analysis additional semantic components which are termed *connotations or connotative components*.

Let us give connotative components to our verbs.

to glare → to look
- steadily
- lastingly   } 1. Connotation of duration
- in anger
- rage, etc.   } 2. Emotive connotation

to glance → to look + briefly
           passingly   ] 1. Connotation of duration

to shiver → to tremble [lastingly   1. Connotation of duration
                        [with the cold 2. Connotation of cause

to shudder → to tremble [briefly   1. Connotation of duration
                        [with horror,   2. Connotation of cause
                        [disgust, etc. 3. Emotive connotation

One can get a sufficiently clear picture of what the word really means by singling out denotative components. A meaning can have two or more connotative components.

The process of development a new meaning (or a change of meaning) is termed transference.

Transference based on resemblance (similarity).
This type of transference is also referred to as linguistic metaphor. A new meaning appears as a result of associating two objects (phenomena, qualities…) due to their outward similarity.
Ex.: "The noun *eye* has for one of its meaning 'hole in the end of a needle' which developed through transference based on resemblance. Metaphors may be based on various types of similarity, for example, similarity of shape, position, colour, function, etc. E. g. *the neck of a bottle, the teeth of a saw, to catch an idea*, etc.
The noun *drop* has, in addition to its main meaning, '*a small particle of water or other liquid*', the meanings: *'ear-rings shaped as drops of water'* (e. g. diamond drops), and *'candy of the same shape'* (e. g. mint drops) both these meanings are also based on resemblance.

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Words denoting animals and their actions may be used metaphorically to denote human qualities. Such cases belong to zoosemy, e. g. *a fox* ("a crafty person"), *an ass* ("a stupid person"), *to wolf* ("to eat greedily"), etc.

Metaphoric epithets, denoting human qualities, are often applied to inanimate objects: *cruel heat, a sullen sky,* etc.

Transference based on contiguity.

It is also called *linguistic metonymy*. The association is based upon subtle psychological links between different objects and phenomena, sometimes traced and identified with much difficulty. The two objects may be associated together because they often appear in common situations, and so the image of one is easily accompanied by the image of the other.

The simplest case of metonymy is synecdoche. Here the name of a part is applied to the whole or vice versa, e. g. *to earn one's bread*; *I don't want to provoke the police* (a single policeman is meant), etc. In metonymic epithets certain properties of the whole are ascribed to the part, e. g. *threatening eyes* (it is the person who is threatening), etc.

Linguistic metonymy

⬇

Synecdoche
the name of a part is applied to the whole or vice versa

⬇

Methonymic epithets
certain properties of the whole are ascribed to the part
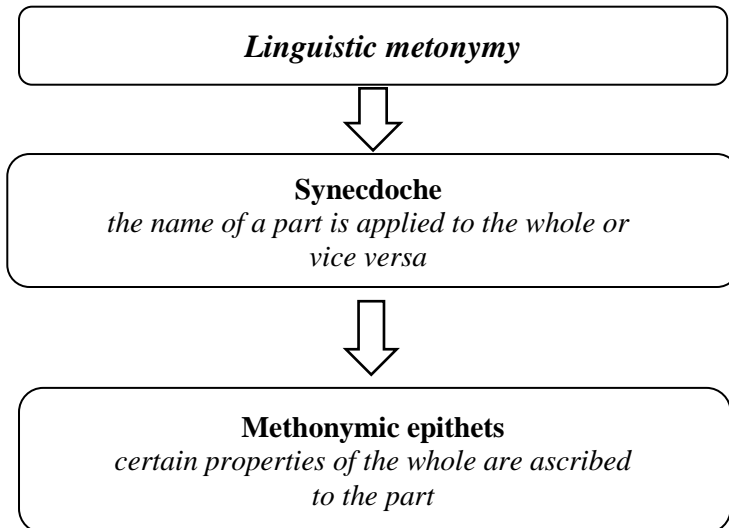
Other examples of metonymy include:

The foot of a bed is the place where the feet rest when one lies in the bed, but *the foot of a mountain* got its name by another association: the foot of a mountain is its lowest part, so that the association here is founded on common position.

By *the arms of an arm-chair* we mean the place where the arms lie, so that the type of association here is same as in the foot of the bed. *The leg of a bed* (table…) is a part which serves as a support, the original meaning 'the leg of a man or animal'.

The meaning of the adj. *sad* in Old English was 'satisfied with food (укр. ситый). Later this meaning developed a connotation of a greater intensity of quality and came to mean 'oversatisfied with food', having eaten too much. Thus, the meaning of the adj. *sad* developed a negative evaluative connotation and now described the physical unease and discomfort of a person who has had too much to eat. The next shift of meaning as to transform the description of physical discomfort into one of spiritual discontent because these two states often go together. So the modern meaning of the word '*sad*' → '*melancholy*', '*sorrowful*' was developed.
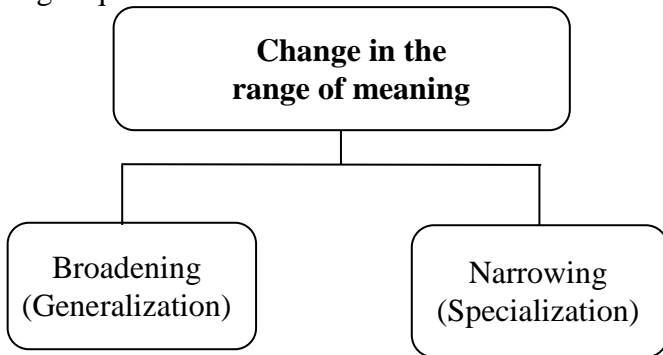
Broadening (or Generalization) of meaning.
Narrowing (or Specialization) of meaning.

Sometimes, the process of transference may result in a considerable change in the range of meaning. For instance, the verb *to arrive* (French borrowing) began its life in English in the narrow meaning *'to come to shore, to land'*. In modern English it has greatly widened and developed the general meaning *'to come'*.

The meaning developed through transference based on contiguity, but the range of the second meaning is much broader.

It is interesting to trace the history of the word *girl*. In the Middle English it had the next meaning of *'a small child of either sex'*. Then the word underwent the process of transference based on contiguity and developed the meaning of *'a small child of the female sex'*, so that the range of meaning was narrowed. In its further semantic development the word gradually broadened its range of meaning. At first it came to denote not only a female child but, also, a

young unmarried woman, later, only young woman, so that its range of meaning is quite broad.

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┌─────────────────────────┐
│      Change in the      │
│    range of meaning     │
└─────────────────────────┘
        │           │
┌────────────────┐  ┌────────────────┐
│   Broadening   │  │    Narrowing   │
│(Generalization)│  │(Specialization)│
└────────────────┘  └────────────────┘
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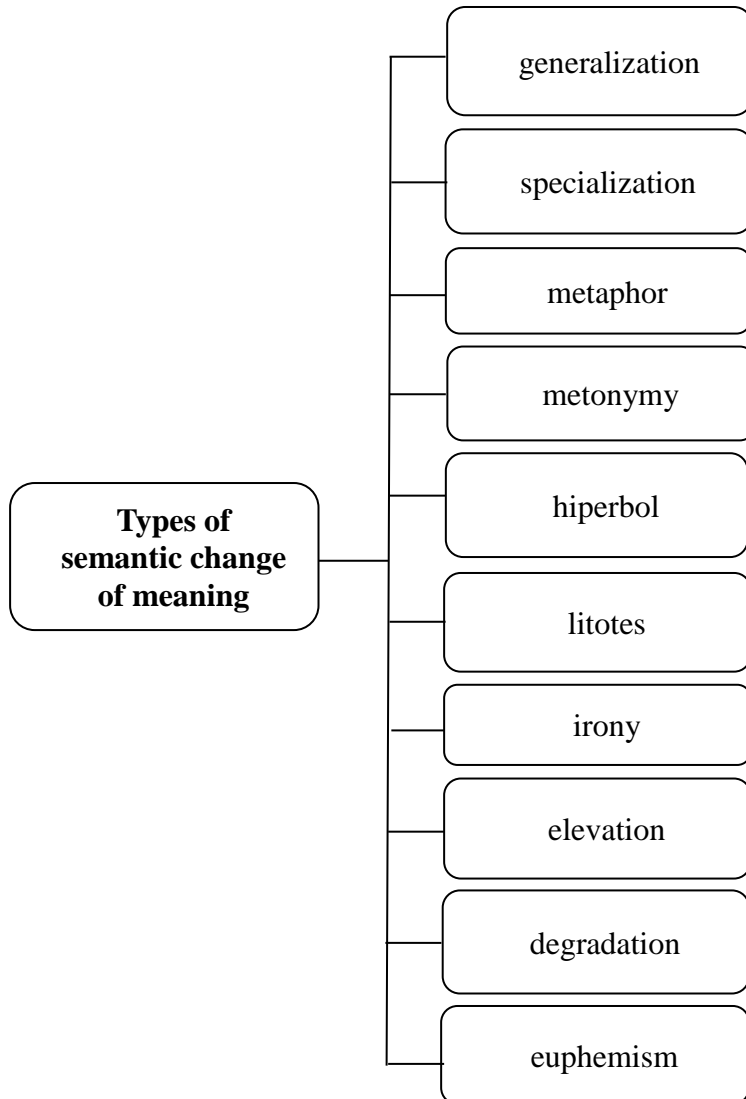
Some more examples:
deer → any beast → a certain kind of beast;
meat → any food → a certain food product;
voyage → any trip or journey → a journey by sea or water.

In all these words the second meaning developed through transference based on contiguity, and when we speak of them as examples of narrowing of meaning we imply that the range of the second meaning is more narrow than that of the original meaning.

Narrowing (or specialization) of meaning is a process contrary to broadening. It is a gradual process when a word passes from a general sphere to some special sphere of communication, e. g. *case* has a general meaning "circumstances in which a person or a thing is". It is specialized in its meaning when used in law (a law suit), in grammar (a form in the paradigm of a noun), in medicine (a patient, an illness). The difference between these meanings can be revealed from the context. The meaning of a word can specialize when it remains in the general usage. It occurs in the case of the conflict between two absolute synonyms when one of them specializes in its meaning to remain in the language, e. g. the English verb *starve* was specialized in its meaning after the Scandinavian verb *die* was borrowed into English. *Die* became the general verb with this meaning because in English there were the noun *death* and the adjective *dead*. The meaning of *starve* was "to die of hunger".

The Process of Development and Change of Meaning

	generalization
	specialization
	metaphor
	metonymy
Types of semantic change of meaning	hiperbol
	litotes
	irony
	elevation
	degradation
	euphemism

Questions:

1. What are the main types of the lexical meaning of words?
2. Explain the difference between denotative and connotative semantic components.
3. What is meant by the term "transference?"
4. What type of transference is referred to as linguistic metaphor?
5. What is called zoosemy? Give some examples.
6. Give the definition of the term "broadening".
7. Give an examples of narrowing.
8. What is linguistic metonymy based on?
9. Give an examples of metonymic epithets.
10. What is "synecdoche?"

LECTURE V
SEMASIOLOGY

Homonyms: Words of the Same Form.

Homonyms are words which are identical in sound and spelling, or, at least, in one of these aspects, but different in their meaning.

E. g.
{ *bank*, n. – a shore
bank, n. – an institution for receiving, lending, exchanging the money.

{ *ball*, n. – a sphere; any spherical receiving,
ball, n. – a large dancing party.

English vocabulary is rich in such pairs and even groups of words. Their identical forms are mostly accidental: the majority of homonyms coincided due to phonetic changes which they underwent during their development. Homonyms are accidental creations, and therefore purposeless.

In the process of communication they lead to confusion and misunderstanding. But it takes them one of the most important sources of popular humour.

The pun is a joke based upon the play upon words of similar form but different meaning (i.e. on homonyms).

Ex. *'A tailor guarantees to give each of his customers the perfect fit'* (the joke is based on the homonyms: I. *fit,* n. – perfectly fitting clothes; II. *fit*, n. – a nervous spasm).

Homonyms which are the same in sound and spelling are traditionally termed **homonyms proper**.

Another joke is based on a pun which makes use of another type of homonyms:

'Waiter".
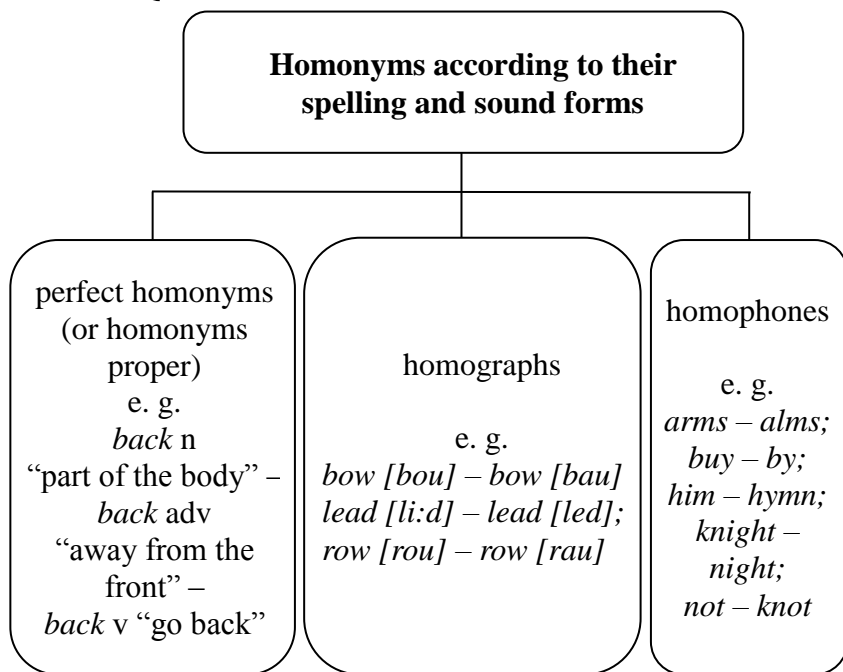*'Yes, sir".*
'What is this?'
'It's bean soup, sir'.
'Never mind what it has been. I want to know what it is now'.

Bean, n. and *been*, Past Part. are **homophones**. They are the same in sound but different in spelling.
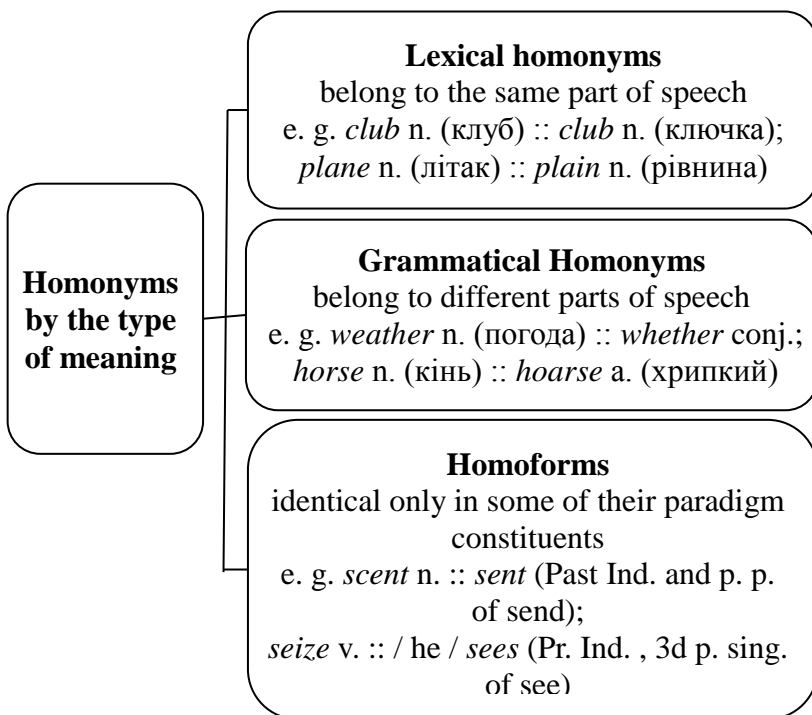
39

The third type of homonyms is called **homographs**. These are words which are the same in spelling but different in sound.

E. g. *to bow* [bau], v. – to incline the head or body in salutation.
bow [bou], n. – a flexible strip of wood for propelling arrows.

to tear [teə], v. – to pull apart or in pieces by force.
tear [tiə], n. – a drop from an eye.

Homonyms according to their spelling and sound forms

perfect homonyms (or homonyms proper) e. g. *back* n "part of the body" – *back* adv "away from the front" – *back* v "go back"	homographs e. g. *bow [bou] – bow [bau] lead [li:d] – lead [led]; row [rou] – row [rau]*	homophones e. g. *arms – alms; buy – by; him – hymn; knight – night; not – knot*

Homonyms may be classified by the type of their meaning. In this case one should distinguish between:
a) lexical homonyms which belong to the same part of speech;
b) grammatical homonyms which belong to different parts of speech;
c) homoforms which are identical only in some paradigm constituents.

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                    ┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
                    │        Lexical homonyms             │
                    │   belong to the same part of speech │
                    │ e. g. club n. (клуб) :: club n. (ключка); │
                    │   plane n. (літак) :: plain n. (рівнина) │
                    └─────────────────────────────────────┘
┌──────────┐        ┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Homonyms │        │      Grammatical Homonyms           │
│by the type│       │   belong to different parts of speech │
│of meaning│        │ e. g. weather n. (погода) :: whether conj.; │
└──────────┘        │  horse n. (кінь) :: hoarse a. (хрипкий) │
                    └─────────────────────────────────────┘
                    ┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
                    │            Homoforms                │
                    │ identical only in some of their paradigm │
                    │             constituents            │
                    │ e. g. scent n. :: sent (Past Ind. and p. p. │
                    │             of send);               │
                    │ seize v. :: / he / sees (Pr. Ind. , 3d p. sing. │
                    │             of see)                 │
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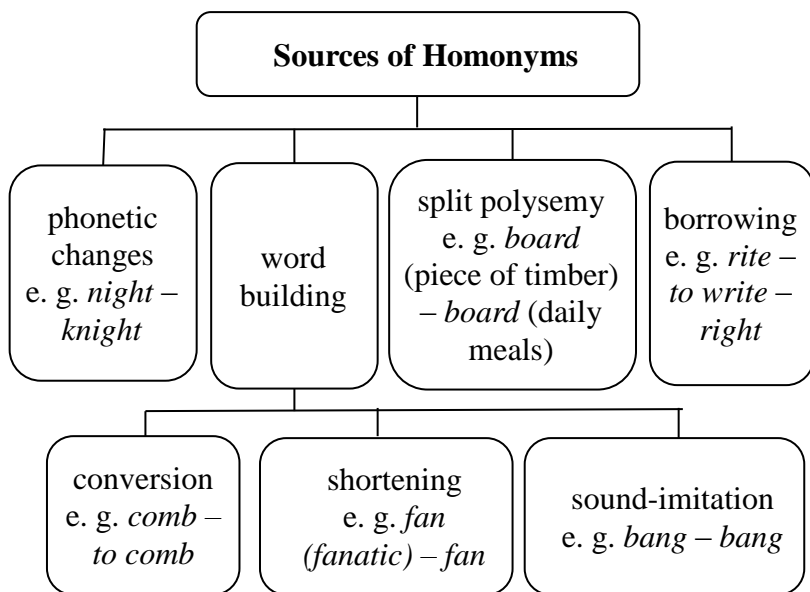
Sources of Homonyms

1. Phonetic changes which words undergo in the course of historical development. Two or more words which were formerly pronounced differently may develop identical sound forms.

2. Night and knight were not homonyms in Old English as the initial k was pronounced. In Old English the verb to write had the form writan, and the adjective right had the form reht, riht.

3. Borrowing is another source of homonyms. A borrowed word may, in the final stage of its phonetic adaptation, duplicate in form either a native word or another borrowing. So, in the group of homonyms rite, n. − to write, v. − right, adj. the second and the third words are of native origin whereas rite is a Latin borrowing. Match, n. (a game) is a native, and match, n. (a slender short piece of wood used for producing fire) is French borrowing.

4. Word building also contributes significantly the growth of homonymy, and the most important in this respect is conversion. Such

pairs of words as *comb – to comb, pale – to pale* are numerous in the vocabulary. Homonyms of this type, which are the same in the sound and spelling but refer to different categories of parts of speech, are called *lexico-grammatical homonyms*. Shortening is a further type of the word-building increases the number of homonyms: *fan* (shortened from fanatic) and *fan* (веер, опахало, вентилятор). Words made by sound-imitation can also form pairs of homonyms with other words: *bang* (a loud, sudden noise) – *bang*.

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                    ┌─────────────────────────┐
                    │   Sources of Homonyms   │
                    └─────────────────────────┘
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| phonetic changes e. g. *night – knight* | word building | split polysemy e. g. *board* (piece of timber) – *board* (daily meals) | borrowing e. g. *rite – to write – right* |

| conversion e. g. *comb – to comb* | shortening e. g. *fan (fanatic) – fan* | sound-imitation e. g. *bang – bang* |

In all the mentioned cases the homonyms developed from two or more different words, and their similarity is purely accidental.

Another source: two or more homonyms can originate from different meanings of the same word when, for some reason, the semantic structure of the word breaks into several parts. This type of formation is called *split polysemy*. Let us consider the history of three homonyms:

board, n. – a long and thin piece of timber

board, n. – daily meals, esp. as provided for pay, e.g. room and board

board, n. – an official group of persons who direct some activity, e. g. a board of directors.

These three words are in no way associated with one another. Yet *board* has a meaning '*table*'. It developed from the meaning '*a piece of timber*' by transference based on contiguity (association of an object and the material from which it is made). The meanings '*meals*' and '*an official group of persons*' develop from the meaning '*table*' also by transference based on contiguity. It was meaning 'table' which served as a link to hold together all the parts.

Classification of homonyms.

Professor Smirnitsky classified homonyms into two large classes: full homonyms and partial homonyms.

Full lexical homonyms are words which represent the same category of parts of speech and have the same paradigm.

E. g. *match, n.* (a contest in which people or teams compete against each other in a particular sport). = *match, n.* (a thin piece of wood);
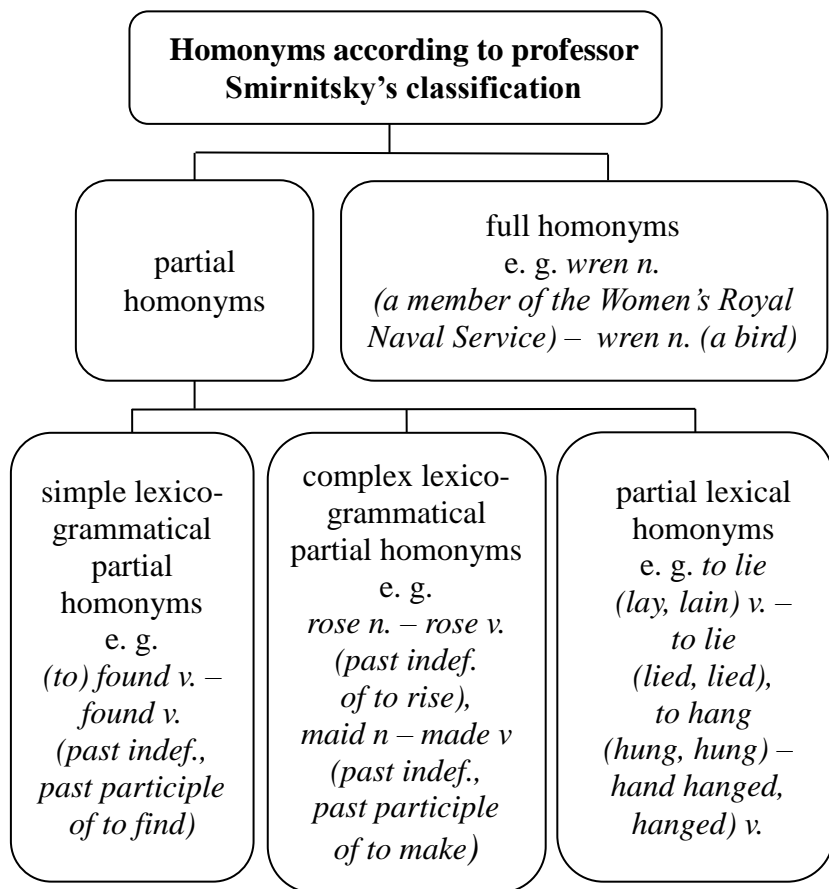
wren n. (a member of the Women's Royal Naval Service) = *wren* n. (a bird).

Partial homonyms are subdivided into three subgroups.

1. **Simple lexico-grammatical partial homonyms** are words which belong to the same category of parts of speech. Their paradigms have one identical form, but it is never the same form, as will be seen from the examples.

E. g. ⎰ *to found*, v.
    ⎱ *found*, v. (Past Indefinite, Past Participle of to find).

E. g. ⎰ *to lay*, v.
    ⎱ *lay*, v. (Past Indefinite of to lie).

Homonyms according to professor Smirnitsky's classification

partial homonyms

full homonyms
e. g. *wren n.*
(a member of the Women's Royal Naval Service) – wren n. (a bird)

simple lexico-grammatical partial homonyms
e. g.
(to) found v. – found v.
(past indef., past participle of to find)

complex lexico-grammatical partial homonyms
e. g.
rose n. – rose v.
(past indef. of to rise),
maid n – made v
(past indef., past participle of to make)

partial lexical homonyms
e. g. *to lie*
(lay, lain) v. – to lie
(lied, lied),
to hang
(hung, hung) – hand hanged, hanged) v.

2. **Complex lexico-grammatical partial homonyms** are words of different categories of parts of speech which have one identical form in their paradigms.

E. g. { *rose*, n.
      rose, v. (Past Indefinite of to rise).

E. g. { *left*, adj.
      left, v. (Past Indefinite, Past Participle of to leave).

3. **Partial lexical homonyms** are words of the same category of parts of speech which are identical only in their corresponding forms.

E. g. $\begin{cases} \text{\textit{to lie}} \text{ (lay, lain), v.} \\ \text{\textit{to lie}} \text{ (lied, lied), v.} \end{cases}$

E. g. $\begin{cases} \text{\textit{to can}} \text{ (canned, canned), v.} \\ \text{\textit{can}} \text{ (could).} \end{cases}$
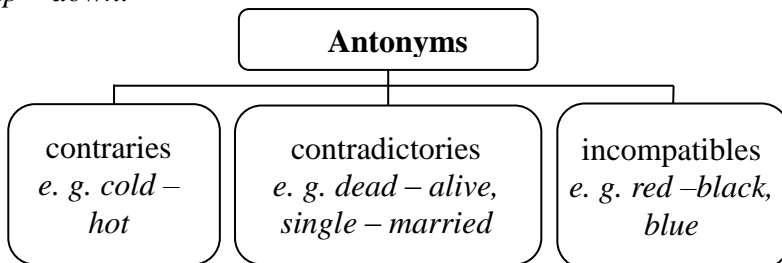
Euphemisms.

There are words in every language which people try to avoid because they are considered indecent, rude, too direct or impolite. These words are often described in a round – about way, by using substitutes called euphemisms. So, euphemisms are more "decent" synonymic substitutes used instead of indecent, impolite or too direct words.

The word *lavatory* has many euphemisms: *powder room, washroom, restroom, ladies' (room), gentlemen's (room), water-closet, W.C., public conveniences and even windsor castle.*
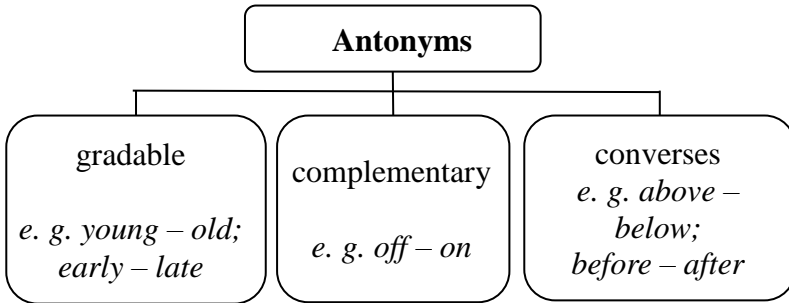
Antonyms

Antonyms are words of the same category of parts of speech which have contrasting meanings, such as *hot – cold; light – dark; up – down.*

Antonyms		
contraries *e. g. cold – hot*	contradictories *e. g. dead – alive, single – married*	incompatibles *e. g. red –black, blue*

Polysemantic word may have an antonym (or several antonyms) for each its meanings. So the adjective *dull* has the antonyms *interesting, amusing, clever, bright, active.*

Most antonyms are adjectives which is only natural because qualitative characteristics are easily compared and contrasted: *high – low; strong –weak.*

Antonyms

gradable	complementary	converses
e. g. young – old; early – late	e. g. off – on	e. g. above – below; before – after

Verbs take the second place, so far as antonymy is concerned: *to lose – to find, to open – to close; to live – to die.*

Antonimic adverbs can be subdivided into two large groups:

a) adverbs derived from adjectives: *warmly – coldly; loudly – softly;*

b) Adverbs proper: *now – then, here – there, ever – never, in – out.*

Nouns are not rich in antonyms: *friend – enemy, love – hatred.*

Antonyms fall into two main groups:

1. Root antonyms (those which are of different roots), e. g. *long – short, love – hatred, to start – to finish,* etc.

2. Affixal antonyms (in which special affixes or their absence express semantic opposition), e. g. *hope<u>ful</u> – hope<u>less</u>, happy – <u>un</u>happy, appear – <u>dis</u>appear, faul<u>ty</u> – fault<u>less</u>,* etc.

Together with synonyms, antonyms represent the language's important expressive means.

Antonyms

absolute or root e. g. *long – short; up – down*	derivational (affixal) e. g. *hope**ful** – hope**less**; happy – **un**happy*
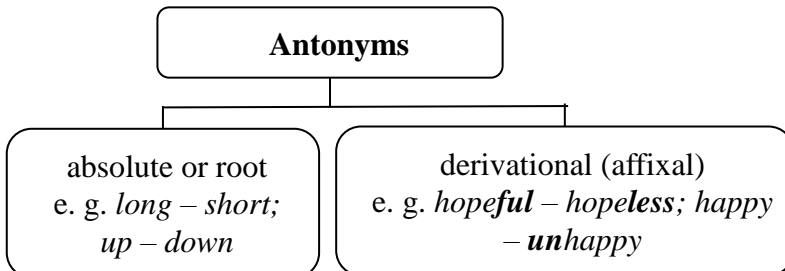
Paronyms

Paronyms are words resembling each other in form, but different in meaning and usage, e. g. *ingenious ("clever") – ingenuous ("frank"); effect – affect; personal – personnel.*

The likeness may be accidental as in the verbs *affect* and *effect*. The similarity may be also due to a common source. It is etymologically justified as in *alternate* and *alternative*.

Synonyms

Synonyms are one of the language's most important expressive means. The principal function of synonyms is to represent the same phenomenon in different aspects, shades and variants.

Traditional linguistic defines synonyms as words of the same category of parts of speech conveying the same concept, but differing either in shade of meaning or in stylistic characteristics.

In contemporary research synonyms may be defined as words with the same denotation, or the same denotative component, but differing in connotations, or connotative components.

A group of synonyms may be studied with the help of their dictionary definitions (definitional analysis). In this process the data from various dictionaries is analyzed comparatively. After that the definitions are subjected to transformational operations (transformational analysis). In this way, the semantic components of each analyzed word are signed out.

Here are the results of the definitional and transformational analysis of some synonyms for the verb *to look*.

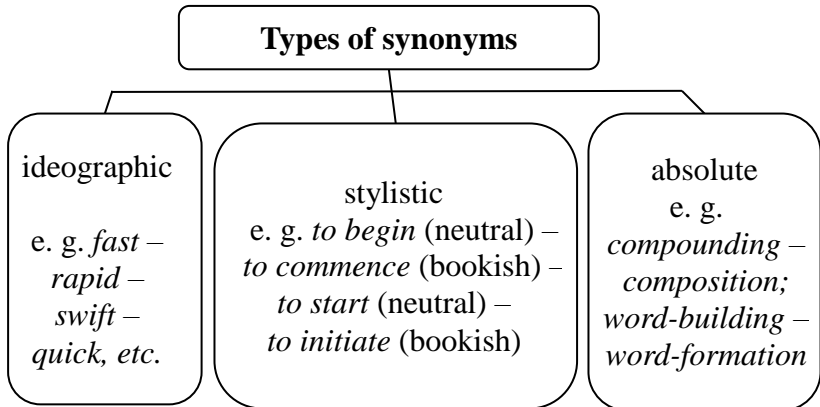|	Denotation	Connotation
1. To stare:	to look	+ steadily, lastingly + in surprise, curiosity, etc.
2. To glare:	to look	+ steadily, lastingly + in anger, rage.
3. To gaze:	to look	+ steadily, lastingly + in admiration.
4. To glance:	to look	+ briefly, in passing.
5. To peep:	to look	+ steadily, lastingly + by stealth, through an opening or from a conceded location.

The common denotation shows that the words are synonyms. The connotative component highlights their differentiations

In modern research **the criterion of interchangeability** is applied. According to it, synonyms are defined as words which are interchangeable at least in some contexts without considerable alteration in denotational meaning. But this theory has been much criticized. Synonyms are not, cannot and should not be interchangeable, or they would simply become useless ballast in the vocabulary.

Types of synonyms

The only existing classification system for synonyms was established by Academician Vinogradov.
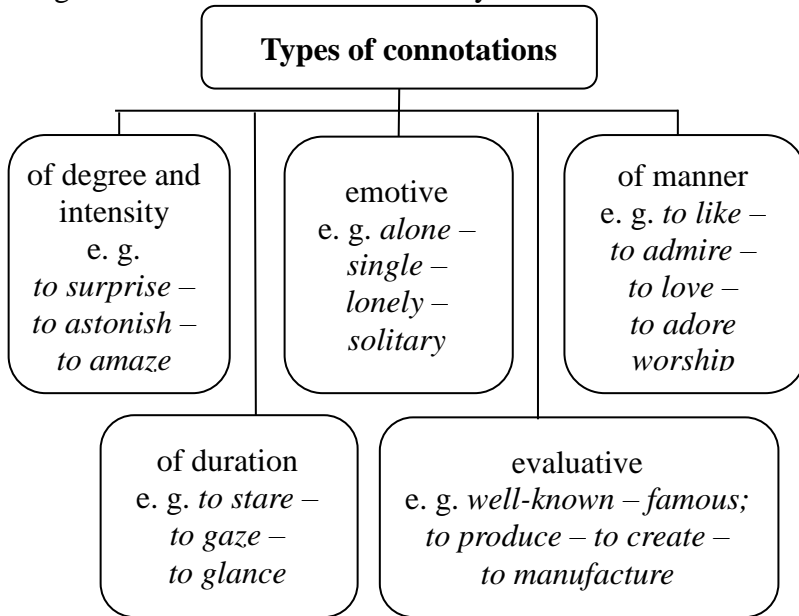
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                    ┌─────────────────────┐
                    │  Types of synonyms  │
                    └─────────────────────┘
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ideographic	stylistic	absolute
e. g. *fast – rapid – swift – quick, etc.*	e. g. *to begin* (neutral) – *to commence* (bookish) – *to start* (neutral) – *to initiate* (bookish)	e. g. *compounding – composition; word-building – word-formation*

1) **ideographic** synonyms are words conveying the same concept but differing in shades of meaning, e. g. *fast – rapid – swift – quick,* etc.;

2) **stylistic** synonyms differ in stylistic characteristics, e. g. *to begin (neutral) – to commence (bookish) – to start (neutral) – to initiate (bookish)*;

3) **absolute** synonyms coincide in all their shades of meaning and in all their stylistic characteristics and, therefore, are interchangeable in all contexts, e. g. *compounding – composition; word-building – word-formation.*

Absolute stylistic synonyms are rare in the vocabulary. The vocabulary system tends to abolish it either by rejecting one of the absolute synonyms or by developing differentiation characteristics in one or both of them.

A more modern approach describes synonyms as words differing in connotations. We can classify these connotations.

Types of connotations

of degree and intensity
e. g.
to surprise –
to astonish –
to amaze

emotive
e. g. *alone –*
single –
lonely –
solitary

of manner
e. g. *to like –*
to admire –
to love –
to adore
worship

of duration
e. g. *to stare –*
to gaze –
to glance

evaluative
e. g. *well-known – famous;*
to produce – to create –
to manufacture

The dominant synonym

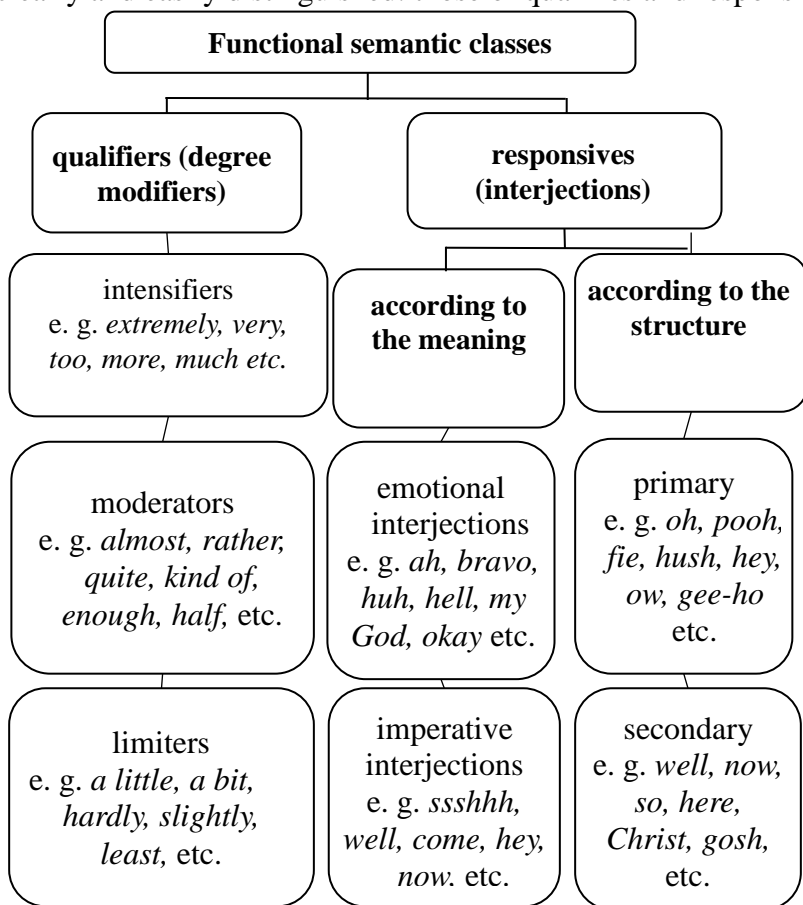In every synonymic group there is a word called the dominant synonym.

Ex: *to shine – to gleam - to sparkle – to glitter – to glimmer – to shimmer – to flash – to blaze; fear – terror – horror.*

The dominant synonym expresses the notion common to all synonyms of the group in the most general way, without contributing any additional information as to the manner, intensity, duration, etc. Its meaning which is broad and generalized, covers the meaning of the rest of the synonyms. Here, the idea of interchangeability comes into its own. But such substitution would mean a loss of the additional information.

Functional semantic classes

Side by side with classifying words into lexico-grammatical classes known as parts of speech, modern scholars make attempts to work out the classification of words into functional semantic classes: substantives, predicatives, determiners, etc. The origin of words fulfilling the same function and constituting a certain functional semantic field can be traced back to different parts of speech. Very often such words change their primary direct meaning.

The classification of words into functional semantic classes is at the initial stage of elaboration. Therefore, two functional classes can be clearly and easily distinguished: those of qualifies and responsives.

Functional semantic classes		
qualifiers (degree modifiers)	**responsives (interjections)**	
intensifiers e. g. *extremely, very, too, more, much etc.*	**according to the meaning**	**according to the structure**
moderators e. g. *almost, rather, quite, kind of, enough, half,* etc.	emotional interjections e. g. *ah, bravo, huh, hell, my God, okay* etc.	primary e. g. *oh, pooh, fie, hush, hey, ow, gee-ho* etc.
limiters e. g. *a little, a bit, hardly, slightly, least,* etc.	imperative interjections e. g. *ssshhh, well, come, hey, now.* etc.	secondary e. g. *well, now, so, here, Christ, gosh,* etc.

Qualifiers

The functional semantic class of qualifiers comprises words with the function of qualifying properties, states and actions as to the degree of their manifestation.

Qualifiers fall into 3 subclasses: **intensifies** (denoting high degree, e. g. *very, too, highly, extremely,* etc.); **moderators** (denoting moderate degree, e. g. *almost, rather, enough, kind of,* etc.); **limiters** (denoting low degree, e. g. *a little, a bit, faintly, hardly,* etc.).

Responsives

The categorical features of responsives are as follows: their non-nominating character, the communicative function of response to the interlocutor's utterance or a certain situation, invariability and semantic intonational arrangement.

The bulk of the functional semantic class of responsives is constituted by interjections (*ah!, oh!, alas!,* etc.). However, this class includes a lot of words which descended from other parts of speech (*my!, boy!, hell!, swell!, come!,rubbish!* etc.).

Questions:

1. What are the three types of homonyms according to their spelling and sound forms?
2. Which changes did the words undergo in the course of history?
3. What are the other sources of homonymy?
4. How many classes of homonyms are distinguished by Smirnitsky? What are the sub-classes?
5. What is the criterion of interchangeability? Why is it criticized?
6. How antonyms can be classified? Give some examples.
7. What groups of antonimic adverbs do you know?
8. What are paronyms?
9. Give your own examples to such subclasses as intensifies, moderators, limiters.
10. Who established the classification of synonyms?

11. How many types of synonyms exist according to it?

12. What is a dominant synonym?

13. What types of connotation do you know?

14. What is the difference between denotative and connotative components?

15. What sources of synonyms do you know?

16. What are the categorical features of responsives?

LECTURE VI
PHRASEOLOGY

Phraseological units or idioms, as they are called by most western scholars, represent the most picturesque, colourful, and expressive part of the languages vocabulary.

In phraseology are collected vivid and amusing sketches of the nations customs, traditions and prejudices.

Phraseological units are stable word-groups characterized by a completely or partially transferred meaning. Phraseological units are characterized by a double sense: the current meanings of constituent words build up a certain picture, but the actual meaning of the whole unit has little or nothing to do with that picture, in itself creating an entirely new image. So, *a dark horse* is not a horse but a person about whom no one knows anything definite. *The green-eyed monster* is jealousy. Idioms are ready-made speech units, but we must use them with care.

In modern linguistics there is considerable confusion about the terminology associated with these word-groups, we can name them: phraseological units, idioms, set-expressions, set-phrases, fixed word-groups, collocations.

Professor Koonin says: "A phraseological unit is a stable word-group characterized by a completely or partially transferred meaning. The semantic change may affect either the whole word-group or only one of its components.

I *To skate on thin ice* = to put oneself in a dangerous position.

A wolf in a sheep's clothing = a dangerous enemy who poses as a friend.

II The second type is represented by phraseological units in which one of the components preserves its current meaning and the other is used in a transferred meaning: *to lose one's temper, to fall in love, to arrive at a conclusion*.

The term "idiom" is mostly applied to phraseological units with completely transferred meanings. Structural invariability is an essential feature of phraseological units. We also can't introduce any additional components into the structure of a phraseological unit.

Proverbs

A proverb is a simple and concrete saying, popularly known and repeated, that expresses a truth based on common sense or the practical experience of humanity.

Ex.: *Those who live in glass houses shouldn't throw stones. We never know the value of water till the well is dry.*

Even these examples show that proverbs are different from phraseological units. Phraseological units are a kind of ready-made blocks which fit into the structure of a sentence performing a certain syntactical function.

Ex.: *George liked her for she never put on air. (predicate).*

Proverbs are sentences and so cannot be used in the way in which phraseological units are used.

If we compare proverbs and phraseological units in the semantic aspect, the difference becomes more obvious. Proverbs could be compared with fables (байка, фабула) for they sum up the collective experience of the community. They moralize, give advice, give warning *(if you sing before breakfast, you will cry before night)*.
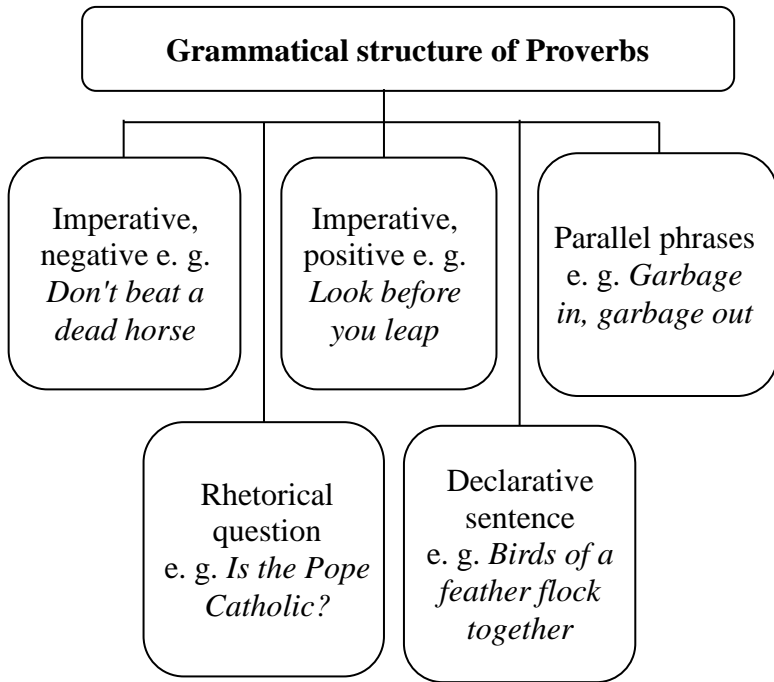
No phraseological unit ever does any of these things. They do not stand for whole statements as proverbs do but for a single concept. Their function in speech is purely nominative (they denote an object, an act, etc.). The function of proverbs in speech is communicative (they impart certain information).

The question of whether or not proverbs should be regarded as a subtype of phraseological units is controversial one.

Professor Koonin labels them communicative phraseological units.

There doesn't seem to exist any permanent border-line between proverbs and phraseological units as the latter frequently originate from the former: Ex.: *birds of a feather* originated from *Birds of a feather flock together.*

There is a wide variety of grammatical structures of Proverbs. In English we find the following structures:

Grammatical structure of Proverbs

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│         Grammatical structure of Proverbs        │
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Imperative, negative e. g. *Don't beat a dead horse*

Imperative, positive e. g. *Look before you leap*

Parallel phrases e. g. *Garbage in, garbage out*

Rhetorical question e. g. *Is the Pope Catholic?*

Declarative sentence e. g. *Birds of a feather flock together*

Classification of phraseological units

There exist several different classification of phraseological units based of different principles.

According to the classification based on the semantic principle phraseological units fall into the following classes:

1. **Fusions** – completely non-motivated idiomatic word-groups, e. g. *to show the white feather* ("to betray one's cowardice"), *to pull smb.'s leg* ("to deceive smb."), *to bell the cat* ("to take a risk for the good of others"), *red tape* ("bureaucratic delays"), *a white elephant* ("a present one can't get rid of"); *half seas over* ("drunk"), *once in a blue moon* ("hardly at all" or "hardly ever"), etc.

2. **Half-fusions** – stable word-groups in which the leading component is literal, while the rest of the group is idiomatically fused, e. g. *to rain cats and dogs* ("to rain heavily"), *to talk through one's*

hat ("to talk foolishly"), *to work double tides* ("to work very hard"), *to buy smth for a song* ("to buy smth very cheaply"), *to pay through the nose* ("to pay unreasonably much"), etc.

3. **Unities** – metaphorically motivated idioms, e. g. *to make a mountain out of a molehill* ("to become excited about trifles"), *to play second fiddle* ("to have a lower or less important position"), *to wash one's dirty linen in public* ("to tell people about one's hidden sins and faults"), *a snake in the grass* ("a person with harmful intentions"; "a hidden enemy"), etc.

4. **Half-unities** – binary word-groups in which one of the components is literal, while the another is phrase logically bound (the so-termed phrases), e. g. *black frost* ("frost without ice or snow"), *small talk* ("polite talk about important things"), *a tall story* ("a lie"), *Dutch courage* ("courage of a drunk"), *husband's tea* ("very weak tea"), *to talk turkey* ("to talk plainly and honestly about practical matters"), etc.

5. **Phraseological collocations** (standardized phrases) – word-groups with the components whose combinative power (valency) is strictly limited, e. g. *to make friends* (but not 'to do friend' or 'to make comrades'), *to bear a grudge, to break silence, to make sure, to take into account, unconditional surrender, ways and means,* etc.

6. **Phraseological expressions** – proverbs, sayings and aphoristic familiar quotations, e. g. *Birds of a feather flock together* (= Рибак рибака пізнає здалека); *Still water runs deep*(= Тиха вода греблю рве); *No pains no gains* (= Без труда нема плода); *Something is rotten in the state of Denmark* (= Не все гаразд у Датському королівстві); *Brevity is the soul of wit* (= Стислість – основа дотепності) (W. Shakespeare); *Fools rush in where angels fear to tread* (= дурням закон не писаний) (A. Pope), etc.

Semantic classification of phraseological units

Phraseological units

fusions e. g. *once in a blue moon, a white elephant*

half – fusions e. g. *to buy smth for a song*, *to talk through one's hat*

unities e. g. *to play second fiddle*, *a snake in the grass*

half-unities e. g. *black frost*, *small talk*

phraseological collocations e. g. *to make friends*, *to bear a grudge*

phraseological expressions e. g. *Birds of a feather flock together*; *Still water runs deep*
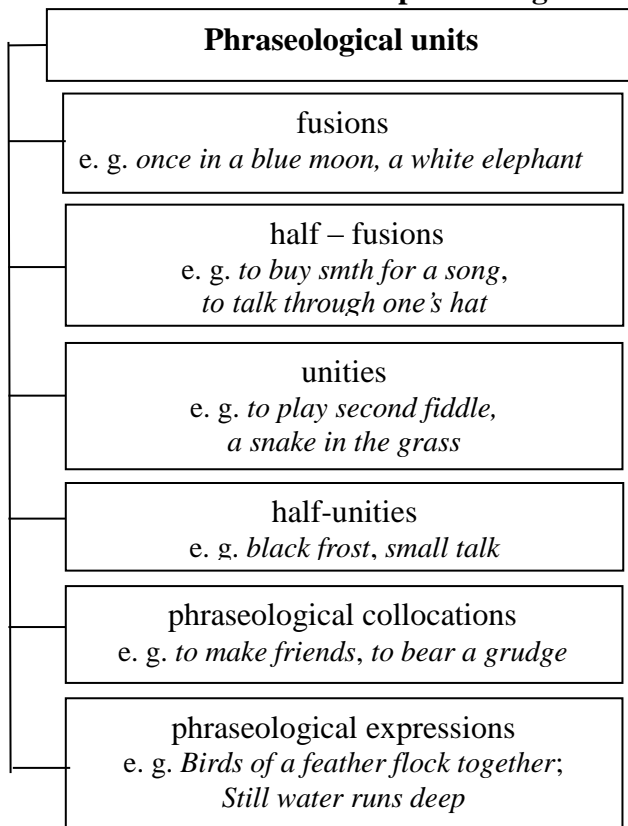
The syntactical principle of classifying phraseological units is based on their ability to perform the same syntactical functions as parts of speech. Here we can distinguish the following classes:
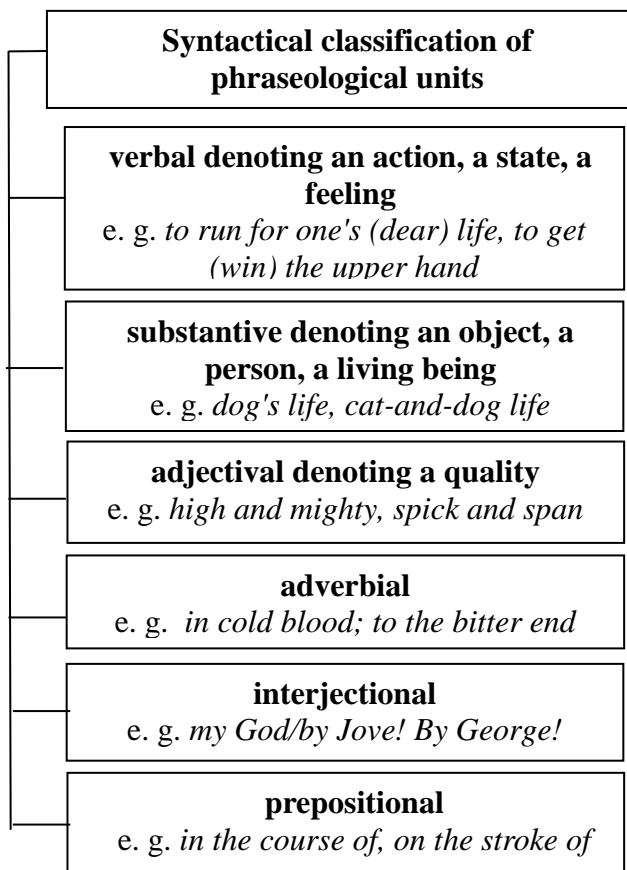
1) **verbal**, e. g. *to talk through one's hat; to lose one's head, to take the bull by the horns;*

2) **substantive**, e. g. *a drop in the bucket; dog's life; birds of a feather;*

3) **adjectival**, e. g. *safe and sound; as pretty as a picture, as cool as a cucumber;*

4) **adverbial**, e. g. *high and low; for love or money; between the devil and the deep sea;*

5) **interjectional**, e. g. *my God!; Good heavens!; Sakes alive!*
6) **prepositional,** e. g. *in the course of, on the stroke of.*

Syntactical classification of phraseological units
verbal denoting an action, a state, a feeling e. g. *to run for one's (dear) life, to get (win) the upper hand*
substantive denoting an object, a person, a living being e. g. *dog's life, cat-and-dog life*
adjectival denoting a quality e. g. *high and mighty, spick and span*
adverbial e. g. *in cold blood; to the bitter end*
interjectional e. g. *my God/by Jove! By George!*
prepositional e. g. *in the course of, on the stroke of*

Like words phraseological units can be related as synonyms, e. g. *to back the wrong house – to hunt the wrong hare – to get the boot on the wrong foot; before the ink is dry – in a twinkle of an eye – before one can say Jack Robinson; like a shot – in half a trice*, etc. Phraseological synonyms often belong to different stylistic layers.

Phraseological synonyms should not be mixed up with variants of a phraseological unit, e. g. *to add fuel to the fire – to add fuel to fire – to add oil to fire – to add fuel to the flame*, etc.; *God knows – goodness knows – Heaven knows – the Lord knows*, etc.; *not worth a*

bean – not worth a brass farthing – not worth a button – not worth a pin – not worth a rap – not worth a straw, etc.

Occasional phraseological variants may be formed due to authors' actualizing the potential (literary) meanings of their components. Cf. *A skeleton in the family cupboard :: We were peeping into the family cupboard and having a look at the good old skeleton* (P.G. Wodehouse).
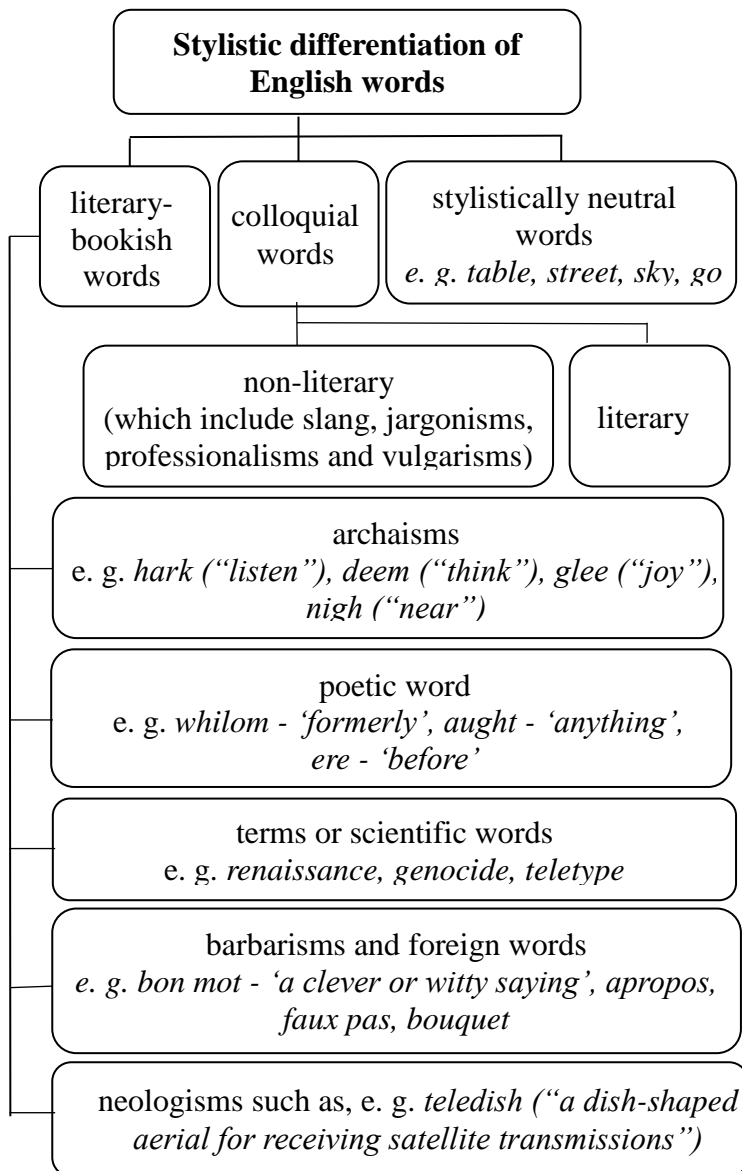
Phraseological antonyms are of two main types: they may either differ in a single component (*to do one's best – to do one's worst; up to date – out of date; to look black – to look bright*, etc.) or have different sets of components (*to draw the first breath – to breathe one's last; to take a circuit – to make a bee-line; to talk to the dozen – to keep mum*, etc.).

Questions:
1. Give the meaning to the term "phraseological unit" (and give some examples).
2. How do the proverbs differ from phraseological units?
3. What is a speech function of a phraseological unit?
4. What is the speech function of a proverb?
5. Name semantic classes of phraseological units and give their meaning.
6. What is a syntactical classification of phraseological units based on?
7. Give examples of phraseological synonyms.
8. Which two main types do phraseological antonyms have?
9. Give examples of phraseological antonyms.

LECTURE VII
STYLISTIC DIFFERENTIATION OF ENGLISH WORDS

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┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│   Stylistic differentiation of  │
│         English words           │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
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┌──────────────┐ ┌────────────┐ ┌──────────────────────────┐
│  literary-   │ │ colloquial │ │  stylistically neutral   │
│   bookish    │ │   words    │ │          words           │
│    words     │ │            │ │ e. g. table, street, sky, go │
└──────────────┘ └────────────┘ └──────────────────────────┘
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┌─────────────────────────────────────┐ ┌──────────┐
│            non-literary             │ │ literary │
│ (which include slang, jargonisms,   │ │          │
│ professionalisms and vulgarisms)    │ │          │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘ └──────────┘
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┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                   archaisms                        │
│ e. g. hark ("listen"), deem ("think"), glee ("joy"),│
│               nigh ("near")                        │
└──────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│                  poetic word                       │
│ e. g. whilom - 'formerly', aught - 'anything',     │
│               ere - 'before'                       │
└──────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│            terms or scientific words               │
│ e. g. renaissance, genocide, teletype              │
└──────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│         barbarisms and foreign words               │
│ e. g. bon mot - 'a clever or witty saying', apropos,│
│            faux pas, bouquet                       │
└──────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ neologisms such as, e. g. teledish ("a dish-shaped │
│  aerial for receiving satellite transmissions")    │
└──────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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Literary-bookish words

Literary-bookish words belong to the formal style. The so-termed learned words are used in descriptive passages of fiction, scientific texts, radio and television announcements, official talks and documents, business correspondence, etc. as a rule. These words are mostly of foreign origin and consist of two or more morphemes, e. g. *solitude, fascination, cordial, paternal, divergent, commence, assist, comprise, endeavor, exclude, heterogeneous, miscellaneous, hereby, thereby, herewith, wherein*, etc. Bookish words are mostly loan-words, Latin and Greek. They are either high-flown synonyms of neutral words, or popular terms of science.

Terms are words or nominal groups which convey specialized concepts used in science, technology, art, etc., e. g. *gerontology, phoneme, radar, kneejoint, common denominator, periodic table, still life, choreography*, etc. They may be subdivided into:
– Popular terms of some special spheres of human knowledge known to the public at large (*typhoid, pneumonia*);
– Terms used exclusively within a profession (*phoneme, micro-linguistics*).

Barbarisms are words or expressions borrowed without (or almost without) any change in form and not accepted by native speakers as current in the language. Most of them have corresponding English synonyms:
e. g.: chic = stylish
en passant = in passing
ad infinitum = to infinity

Poetic words with elevated, "lofty" colouring are traditionally used only in poetry. Most of them are archaic and have stylistically neutral synonyms, e. g. *lone ("lonely"), brow ("forehead"), gore ("blood"), woe ("sorrow"), array ("clothes"), hearken ("hear"), behold ("see"), oft ("often"), ere ("before"),* etc.

Archaisms are obsolete names for existing things, actions, phenomena, etc. Archaisms are most commonly found in older literary works such as the sonnets and plays of Shakespeare or nursery rhymes, in the law, in religious terms and geographical names. Archaisms are interesting examples of the constant evolution of the English language, as well as a window on the past. All of them can be replaced by neutral synonyms, e.g. *hark ("listen"), deem ("think"), glee ("joy"), aught ("anything"), nigh ("near")*. Grammatical archaisms represent obsolete grammatical forms: *thou, three, thy, thine; ye; he goeth, thou knowest*, etc. Among archaic words one should distinguish historical words that denote no-longer existing objects, e. g. *yeoman, fletcher, gleeman, galleon, visor, arbalernt*, etc. Historical words have no neutral synonyms in Modern English.

Neologisms are words and word-groups that denote new concepts, e. g. *teledish n. ("a dish-shaped aerial for receiving satellite television transmissions"); roam-a-phone n. ("a portable telephone"), graviphoton n. ("a hypothetical particle"); Geiger counter n. ("a device for detecting radioactivity"); magalog n. ("a large magazine-format catalogue advertising mailorder goods"); NIC n. ("newly-industrializing country"),* etc.

Among neologisms one can find the so-termed occasional words (or nonce-words) created in speech directly for particular situation or context and aimed at a certain stylistic effect, e. g. *"A what?" "Moneyholic. A word I've just made up to describe someone with an uncontrollable addiction to money"* (D. Francis).

Several **occasional words** are coined by famous English authors have penetrated to the Standard English vocabulary and are registered in dictionaries, e. g. *snob* (W.M. Thackeray), *to chortle* (хихикать, сдавленно смеяться) (L. Carrol).

One shouldn't confuse occasional words with **potential words** based on productive word-formation patterns and devoid of any stylistic colouring. Typical cases of potential word-formation are

composite numerals (*thirty-two, five hundred and twelve*), numerous adjectives with semi-suffix – *like* (*soldier-like, moth-like*) and some other widely-distributed patters. Being easily coined and understood, potential words are not registered in dictionaries.

Colloquial words

Colloquial words are characteristic of the informal style of spoken English. Many colloquialisms are not literal usages of words, but instead idiomatic or metaphorical sayings. One should distinguish between literary (standard) colloquial words as units of Standard English and non-literary colloquialisms that belong to sub-standard English vocabulary.

Literary colloquial words are used in everyday conversations both by educated and uneducated people and are also met in written literary texts. As for their etymology and structure literary colloquial words are closer to neutral words than to literary-bookish units, but, as a rule, have stronger emotional colouring. They are formed on standard word-formative patterns (for instance, contraction, phrasal verbs and nouns, etc,). Some of them are particularly frequent: *granny, birdie, touchy, make-up, put up, etc.*

Non-literary colloquial words include slang, jargonisms, professionalisms and vulgarisms. Slang comprises highly informal words not accepted for dignified use. Such words are expressive sub-standard substitutes for current words of standard vocabulary. As a rule, their meanings are based on metaphor and have ironic colouring, e. g. *attic* ("head"), *beans* ("money"), *saucers* ("eyes"), etc. Such words are easily understood by all native speakers, because they are not specific for any social or professional group.

Informal words peculiar for a certain social or professional group should be considered as jargonisms. Such words are usually motivated and, like slang words, have metaphoric character, e. g. *bird* ("spacecraft") / astronauts' jargon/; *to grab* ("to make an impression on smb.") / newspaper jargon/; *grass, tea, weed* (бур'ян) ("narcotic")

/ drug addicts' jargon/, etc.

Among social jargons cant or argot (thieves jargon) stands somewhat apart. Cant words are non-motivated and have special "agreed-upon", secretive meanings, e. g. *book* ("life sentence"), *splosh* ("money"), to *rap* ("to kill"), etc.

Professionalisms are sub-standard colloquial words used by people of a definite trade or profession. Such words are informal substitutes for corresponding terms, e. g. *Hi-Fi* ("high fidelity"), *smash-up* ("accident"), *anchor* ("brakes"), etc.

Vulgarisms include: a) expletives (бранные слова) and swear words of abusive character, like *damn, bloody*, etc.; b) obscene (or taboo, four-letter) words which are highly indecent.

Questions:
1. What is the difference between borrowed words and barbarisms?
2. What are the archaisms?
3. Where are the occasional words used?
4. What style of spoken English do the colloquial words belong to?
5. Give some examples of literary colloquial words.
6. What is the purpose of poetic words?
7. How one can differ archaisms from historical words?
8. What are typical cases of potential word-formation?
9. Name four subdivisions of non-literary colloquial words?
10. Can we consider the word "phoneme" as a term? Why?

LECTURE VIII
DICTIONARY COMPILING

The theory and practice of compiling dictionaries is called lexicography. The history of compiling dictionaries comes as far back as the Old English period, where we can find glosses of religious books / interlinear translations from Latin into English/. Regular bilingual dictionaries began to appear in the 15-th century: Anglo-Latin, Anglo-French, Anglo-German. The first unilingual dictionary explaining difficult words appeared in 1604, the author was Robert Cawdry, a schoolmaster, who compiled his dictionary for schoolchildren. In 1721 an English scientist and writer Nathan Bailey published the first etymological dictionary which explained the origin of English words. It was the first scientific dictionary compiled for philologists. In 1775 an explanatory dictionary was compiled. Its author was Samuel Johnson.

Every word in his dictionary was illustrated by examples from English literature, the meanings of words were clear from the contexts in which they were used. The dictionary was a great success and it influenced the development of lexicography in all countries. The dictionary influenced normalization of the English vocabulary. But at the same time it helped to preserve the English spelling in its conservative form. In 1858 one of the members of the English philological society Dr. Trench raised the question of compiling a dictionary including all the words existing in the language. More than a thousand people took part in collecting examples, and 26 years later in 1884 the first volume was published. It contained words beginning with "A" and "B". The last volume was published in 1928 that is 70 years after the decision was adopted. The dictionary was called NED and contained 12 volumes. In 1933 the dictionary was republished under the title "The Oxford English Dictionary', because the work on the dictionary was conducted in Oxford. This dictionary contained 13 volumes. As the dictionary was very large scientists continued their work and compiled shorter editions of the dictionary: "A Shorter Oxford Dictionary" consisting of two volumes. It had the same number of entries, but far less examples from literature. They also

compiled "A Concise Oxford Dictionary" consisting of one volume and including only modern words and no examples from literature.

The work at a dictionary consists of the following main stages: the collection of material, the selection of entries and their arrangement, the setting of each entry. At different stages of his work the lexicographer is confronted with different problems. Some of these refer to any type of dictionary; others are specific of only some or even one type. The most important of the former are: 1) the selection of lexical units for inclusion; 2) their arrangement; 3) the setting of the entries; 4) the selection and arrangement (grouping) of word-meanings; 5) the definition of meanings; 6) illustrative material; 7) supplementary material. The order of arrangement of the entries is different in different dictionaries. In most dictionaries of various types entries are given in a single alphabetical listing. In others the units are arranged in nests, based on this or that principle.

In some explanatory and translation dictionaries, for example, entries are grouped in families of words of the same root. In this case the basic units are given as main entries that appear in alphabetical order while the derivatives and the phrases are given either as subentries or in the same entry, as run-ons that are also alphabetised.

In synonym-books words are arranged in synonymic sets and its dominant member serves as the head-word of the entry. In some phraseological dictionaries, e. g. in prof. Koonin's dictionary, the phrases are arranged in accordance with their pivotal words which are defined as constant non-interchangeable elements of phrases.

A variation of the cluster-type arrangement is found in the few frequency dictionaries in which the items included are not arranged alphabetically. In such dictionaries the entries follow each other in the descending order of their frequency, items of the same frequency value grouped together.

Each of the two modes of presentation, the alphabetical and the cluster-type, has its own advantages. The former provides for an easy finding of any word and establishing its meaning, frequency value, etc. The latter requires less space and presents a clearer picture of the relations of each unit under consideration with some other units in the language system, since words of the same root, the same denotational

meaning or close in their frequency value are grouped together.

Practically most dictionaries are a combination of the two orders of arrangement. In most explanatory and translation dictionaries the main entries, both simple words and derivatives, appear in alphabetical order, with this or that measure of run-ons, thrown out of alphabetical order. The number of meanings a word is given and their choice depend on two factors: 1) on what aim the compilers set themselves and 2) what decisions they make concerning the extent to which obsolete, archaic, dialectal or highly specialised meanings should be recorded, how the problem of polysemy and homonymy is solved, how cases of conversion are treated, etc.

British English vs American English

Spelling	
British English	**American English**
aeroplane	airplane
centimetre	centimeter
centre	center
cheque (n)	check (n)
colour	color
dialogue	dialog
favour	favor
favourite	favorite
grey	gray
humour	humor
kilometre	kilometer
jewellery	jewelry
litre	liter
metre	meter
neighbour	neighbor
organise	organize
practise (n)	practice (v)
programme	program
theatre	theater
travelled	traveled
travelling	traveling

Grammar and Usage	
British English	**American English**
28 February 28th February	February 28 February 28th
at the weekend in exams	on the weekend on exams
quarter past two	a quarter after two
Have you got? I've got / I have got I haven't got	Do you have? I have I don't have
learnt smelt	learned smelled
be in hospital go to hospital	be in the hospital go to the hospital
book a room / table lay the table sit for exam have a shower go to university	make a reservation set the table take an exam take a shower go to college
Words and phrases	
British English	**American English**
anorak	parka
autumn	fall
bill (at a restaurant)	check
bookshop	bookstore
brackets	parentheses
car park	parking lot
cashpoint	ATM
chemist's	pharmacy
chips	(french) fries

cinema (the building)	movie theater
city centre	downtown
cooker	stove / cooker
crisps	potato chips
curriculum vitae (CV)	resumé
driving licence	driver's license
do the washing-up	do / wash the dishes
fancy dress	costume
film	movie (also film)
flat	apartment
flatmate	roommate
football	soccer
footballer	soccer player
fridge	refrigerator
garden	yard
go to the cinema	go to the movies
ground floor	first floor
handbag	purse
head teacher	principal
holiday	vacation
ill	sick
jumper	sweater
leisure centre	sports / recreation center
lift (n)	elevator
lorry	truck
mark	grade
match	game
maths	math
Ministry of Education	Department of Education
mobile phone	cell phone
motorway	highway
mum / mummy	mom / mommy
opposite	across from
pavement	sidewalk
petrol	gas
petrol station	gas station

phone (v)	call (v)
plaster	Band-Aid
public telephone	pay phone
queue	line
railway station	train station
rubbish	garbage / trash
secondary school	high school
shop	store
shop assistant	salesperson
shopping centre	shopping mall
speciality	specialty
surname	last name
sweets	candy
table tennis	ping pong
takeaway	takeout
tick	check
train (v)	practice (v)
trainers	sneakers
trousers	pants
TV / radio programme	TV / radio show
underground (railway)	subway

Questions:

1. When did the first unilingual dictionary explaining difficult words appear?

2. Who was the author of an explanatory dictionary?

3. Who raised the question of compiling a dictionary including all the words existing in the language?

4. What does the work at a dictionary consists of?

5. What do the number of meanings a word is given and their choice depend on?

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Навчальне видання

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ЛЕКСИКОЛОГІЯ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ

Конспект лекцій
для студентів спеціальності 035 *«Філологія»*
денної форми навчання

(Англійською мовою)