**Лекція №4**

**Тема 3.1 Affixation.**

**3.2. Boundary cases between derivation, inflection and composition**

## 3.2.1 Semi-Affixes

There are a few roots in English which have developed great combining ability in the position of the second element of a word and a very general meaning similar to that of an affix. These are **semi-affixes.** They receive this name because semantically, functionally, structurally and statistically they behave more like affixes than like roots. Their meaning is as general. They determine the lexical and grammatical class the word belongs to. Cf. *sailor*↔ *seaman,*where *-or*is a suffix, and functionally similar, *-man*is a semi-affix (*sportsman, gentleman, nobleman, salesman, seaman, fisherman, countryman, statesman, policeman, chairman,*etc.). Semantically, the constituent *-man*in these words approaches the generalised meaning of such noun-forming suffixes as *-er, -or, -ist*(e. g. *artist), -ite*(e. g. *hypocrite).*It has moved so far in its meaning from the corresponding free form *man,*that such word-groups as *woman policeman*or Mrs. *Chairman*are quite usual. Nor does the statement *Lady, you are no gentleman*sound eccentric or illogical for the speaker uses the word *gentleman*in its general sense of a noble upright person, regardless of sex. It must be added though that this is only an occasional usage and that *gentleman*is normally applied to men.

Other examples of semi-affixes are *-land*(e. g. *Ireland, Scotland, fatherland, wonderland), -like*(e. g. *ladylike, unladylike, businesslike, starlike, flowerlike,*etc.), *-worthy*(e. g. *seaworthy, trustworthy, praiseworthy).*

Another specific group is formed by the adverb-forming suffix *-ly,*following adjective stems, and the noun-forming suffixes *-ing, -ness, -er,*and by *-ed*added to a combination of two stems: *faint-hearted, long-legged.*Almost every adjective stem can produce an adverb with the help of *-ly,*and an abstract noun by taking up the suffix *-ness.*Every verbal stem can produce the name of the doer by adding *-er,*and the name of the process or its result by adding *-ing.*A suffix approaching those in productivity is *-ish*denoting a moderate degree of the quality named in the stem.

These affixes are remarkable for their high valency also in the formation of compound derivatives corresponding to free phrases. Examples are: *every day*↔ *everydayness.*

Consider the following examples.

“... The Great Glass Elevator is shockproof, waterproof, bombproof, bulletproof, and Knidproof ...” (From *Charlie and the Great Glass Elevator*by R. Dahl)

Lady Malvern tried to freeze him with a look, but you can't do that sort of thing to Jeeves. He is look-proof. (From *Carry on, Jeeves*by P. G. Wodehouse)

Better sorts of *lip-stick*are frequently described in advertisements as *kissproof.*Some building materials may be advertised as *fireproof.*Certain technical devices are *foolproof*meaning that they are safe even in a fool's hands.

All these words, with *-proof*for the second component, stand between compounds and derived words in their characteristics. On the one hand, the second component seems to bear all the features of a stem and preserves certain semantic associations with the free form *proof.*On the other hand, the meaning of *-proof*in all the numerous words built on this pattern has become so generalised that it is certainly approaching that of a suffix. The high productivity of the pattern is proved, once more, by the possibility of coining nonce-words after this pattern: *look-proof*and *Knidproof,*the second produced from the non-existent stem *Knid.*

The component *-proof,*standing thus between a stem and an affix, is regarded by some scholars as a semi-affix.

Semi-affixes may be also used in preposition like prefixes. Thus, anything that is smaller or shorter than others of its kind may be preceded by *mini-: mini-budget, mini-bus, mini-car, mini-crisis, mini-planet, mini-skirt,*etc.

Other productive semi-affixes used in pre-position are *midi-, maxi-, self-*and others: *midi-coat, maxi-coat, self-starter, self-help.*

In Ukrainian the following semi-affixes are used:

*повно- ново- само- авто- → повноправний, новостворений, самохідний, автобіографія*

*-вод, -воз → діловод, тепловоз).*

The factors conducing to transition of free forms into semi-affixes are high semantic productivity, adaptability, combinatorial capacity (high valency), and brevity.

Other borderline cases also present considerable difficulties for classification. It is indeed not easy to draw the line between derivatives and compound words or between derivatives and root words. Such morphemes expressing relationships in space and time as *after-, in-, off-, on-, out-, over-, under-, with-*and the like which may occur as free forms have a combining power at least equal and sometimes even superior to that of the affixes. Their function and meaning as well as their position are exactly similar to those characteristic of prefixes. They modify the respective stems for time, place or manner exactly as prefixes do. They also are similar to prefixes in their statistical properties of frequency. And yet prefixes are bound forms by definition, whereas these forms are free.

The other difficulty concerns borrowed morphemes that were never active as prefixes in English but are recognised as such on the analogy with other words also borrowed from the same source. Thus, *amphi-*is even productive in terminology and is with good reason considered by dictionaries a combining form. *Ana-*in such words as *anachronism, anagram, anaphora*is easily distinguished, because the words readily lend themselves for analysis into immediate constituents. The prefix *ad-*derived from Latin differs very much from these two, being in fact quite a cluster of allomorphs assimilated with the first sound of the stem: *ad-/ac-/af-/ag-/al-/ap-/as-/at-/. E.*g. *adapt, accumulation, affirm, aggravation,*etc.

# **3.2.2. Combining forms**

There exist linguistic forms which in modern languages are used as bound forms although in Greek and Latin from which they are borrowed they functioned as independent words. They constitute a specific type of linguistic units.

**Combining forms** are particularly frequent in the specialised vocabularies of arts and sciences. They have long become familiar in the international scientific terminology. Many of them attain widespread currency in everyday language:

*astron −*star → *astronomy;*

*autos −*self → *automatic;*

*bios −*life → *biology;*

*electron −* amber → *electronics;*

*ge −*earth → *geology;*

*graph −*to write → *typography;*

*hydor −*water →*hydroelectric;*

*logos −*speech → *physiology;*

*oikos −*house, habitat → 1) *economics,*2) *ecological system;*

*philein −*love → *philology’*

*phone −*sound, voice → *telephone;*

*photos −*light → *photograph;*

*skopein −*to view → *microscope;*

*tēle −*far → *telescope.*

It is obvious from the above list that combining forms mostly occur together with other combining forms and not with native roots. Almost all of the above examples are international words, each entering a considerable word-family:

*autobiography, autodiagnosis, automobile, autonomy, autogeni, autopilot, autoloader;*

*bio-astronautics, biochemistry, bio-ecology, bionics, biophysics;*

*economics, economist, economise, eco-climate, eco-activist, eco-type, eco-catastrophe;*

*geodesy, geometry, geography;*

*hydrodynamic, hydromechanic, hydroponic, hydrotherapeutic.*

*hydrography, phonograph, photograph, telegraph.*

*lexicology, philology, phonology.*

## 4. Word - composition. Classification of compound words.

**Word - composition** is another type of word-building which is highly productive. That is when new words are produced by combining two or more stems. The bulk of compound words is motivated and the semantic relations between the two components are transparent. This type of word-building, in which new words are produced by combining two or more stems, is one of the three most productive types in Modern English, the other two are conversion and affixation. Compounds, though certainly fewer in quantity than derived or root words, still represent one of the most typical and specific features of English word-structure.

The great variety of compound types brings about a great variety of classifications. Compound words may be classified according to **the type of composition**and**the linking element**; according to **the part of speech** to which the compound belongs; and within each part of speech according to **the structural pattern**. It is also possible to subdivide compounds according to other characteristics, i.e. **semantically**, into **motivated**and **idiomatic compounds** (in the motivated ones the meaning of the constituents can be either **direct** or **figurative**). Structurally, compounds are distinguished as **endocentric (**Eng.*beetroot,* *ice-cold, knee-deep, babysit,* *whitewash*. UA.*землеустрій, сівозміна, літакобудування)* and **exocentric**(Eng.*scarecrow*- something that scares crows, UA. *гуртожиток, склоріз, самопал*) with the subgroup of **bahuvrihi** (Eng. *lazy-bones, fathead, bonehead, readcoat UA.* *шибайголова, одчайдух, жовтобрюх*)and **syntactic**and **asyntactic** combinations (Which of those fellows do you like to command a *search-and-destroy* mission? (King); “Now come along, Bridget. I don’t want any silliness”, she said in her *Genghis-Khan-at-height-of-evil* voice (Fielding); Kurtz caught sight of Permutter’s sunken, *I-fooled-you* grin in the wide rearview mirror (King)). A classification according to **the type of the syntactic phrase** with which the compound is correlated has also been suggested. Even so there remain some miscellaneous types that defy classification, such as **phrase compounds**, **reduplicative compounds**, **pseudo-compounds** and **quotation compounds**.

**The classification according to the type of composition** establishes the following groups:

1) The predominant type is a mere juxtaposition without connecting elements: *heartache*n, *heart-beat*n, *heart-break*n, *heart-breaking*adj, *heart-broken*adj, *heart-felt*adj.

2) Composition with a vowel or a consonant as a linking element. The examples are very few: *electromotive*adj, *speedometer*n, *Afro-Asian*adj, *handicraft*n, *statesman*n.

3) Compounds with linking elements represented by preposition or conjunction stems: *down-and-out*n, *matter-of-fact*adj, *son-in-law*n, *pepper-and-salt*adj, *wall-to-wall*adj, *up-to-date*adj, *on the up-and-up*adv (continually improving), *up-and-coming,*as in the following example: *No doubt he’d had the pick of some up-and-coming*jazzmen in Paris (Wain). There are also a few other lexicalised phrases like *devil-may-care*adj, *forget-me-not*n, *pick-me-up*n, *stick-in-the-mud*n, *what’s-her name*n.

**The classification of compounds according to the structure of immediate constituents** distinguishes:

1) compounds consisting of simple stems: *film-star.*Compounds formed by joining together stems of words already available in the language and the two ICs of which are stems of notional words are also called **compounds proper:** *ice-cold (N+A)*, *ill-luck (A+N);*(UA. *диван-ліжко,*матч-реванш, лікар-терапевт)

2) compounds where at least one of the constituents is a derived stem: *chain-smoker;*

3) compounds where at least one of the constituents is a clipped stem: *maths-mistress*(in British English) and *math-mistress*(in American English). The subgroup will contain abbreviations like *H-bag (handbag)*or *Xmas (Christmas), whodunit n*(for mystery novels) considered substandard;

4) compounds where at least one of the constituents is a compound stem: *wastepaper-basket.*

In **coordinative compounds** neither of the components dominates the other, both are structurally and semantically independent and constitute two structural and semantic centres, e.g. *breath-taking, self-discipline, word-for ma it on.*

Compounds are not homogeneous in structure. Traditionally three types are distinguished:**neutral**,**morphological** and **syntactic**.

In **neutral compounds** the process of compounding is realised without any linking elements, by a mere juxtaposition of two stems, as in *blackbird, shop-window, sunflower, bedroom, tallboy,*etc. There are three subtypes of neutral compounds depending on the structure of the constituent stems.

The examples above represent the subtype which may be described as **simple neutral compounds**: they consist of simple affixless stems.

Compounds which have affixes in their structure are called **derived**or **derivational compounds (compound-derivatives)**. E. g. *absent-mindedness, blue-eyed, golden-haired, broad-shouldered, lady-killer, film-goer, music-lover, honey-mooner, first-nighter, late-comer, newcomer, early-riser, evildoer.*

The productivity of this type is confirmed by a considerable number of comparatively recent formations, such as *teenager, babysitter, strap-hanger, fourseater*(car or boat with four seats), *doubledecker*(a ship or bus with two decks). Numerous nonce-words are coined on this pattern which is another proof of its high productivity: e. g. *luncher-out*(a person who habitually takes his lunch in restaurants and not at home), *goose-flesher*(murder story).

In the coining of the derivational compounds two types of word-formation are at work. The essence of the derivational compounds will be clear if we compare them with derivatives and compounds proper that possess a similar structure. Take, for example, *brainstraster, honeymooner*and *mill-owner.*The ultimate constituents of all three are: **noun stem**+ **noun**stem+*-er*. Analysing into immediate constituents, we see that the immediate constituents (IC’s) of the compound *mill-owner*are two noun stems, the first simple, the second derived: *mill+owner,*of which the last, the determinatum, as well as the whole compound, names a person. For the word *honeymooner*no such division is possible, since *mooner*does not exist as a free stem. The IC’s are *honeymoon+-er,*and the suffix *-er*signals that the whole denotes a person: the structure is *(honey+moon)+-er.*

The process of word-building in these seemingly similar words is different: *mill-owner*is coined by composition, *honeymooner*— by derivation from the compound *honeymoon. Honeymoon*being a compound, *honeymooner*is a derivative. Now *brains trust “*a group of experts” is a phrase, so *brainstruster*is formed by two simultaneous processes — by composition and by derivation and may be called a derivational compound. Its IC’s are *(brains+ trust)+-еr.*

The suffix *-er*is one of the productive suffixes in forming derivational compounds. Other examples of the same pattern are:

*backbencher −*an M.P. occupying the back bench,

*do-gooder −*(ironically used in AmE),

*eye-opener −*enlightening circumstance,

*first-nighter −*habitual frequenter of the first performance of plays,

*go-getter −*(colloq.) a pushing person,

*late-comer,*

*left-hander −*left-handed person or blow.

Another frequent type of derivational compounds are the possessive compounds of the type *kind-hearted:***adjective stem+noun stem+***-ed.*Its IC’s are a noun phrase *kind heart*and the suffix *-ed*that unites the elements of the phrase and turns them into the elements of a compound adjective. Similar examples are extremely numerous. Compounds of this type can be coined very freely to meet the requirements of different situations.

Very few go back to Old English, such as *one-eyed*and *three-headed,*most of the cases are coined in Modern English. Examples are practically unlimited, especially in words describing personal appearance or character:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| *absent-minded,**bare-legged,**black-haired,**blue-eyed,**cruel-hearted,* | *light-minded,**ill-mannered,**many-sided,**narrow-minded,**shortsighted,*etc. |

The first element may also be a noun stem: *bow-legged, heart-shaped*and very often a numeral: *three-coloured.*

The derivational compounds often become the basis of further derivation. Cf.

*war-minded*→ *war-mindedness;*

*whole-hearted*→ *whole-heartedness*→ *whole-heartedly,*

*schoolboyish*→ *schoolboyishness; do-it-yourselfer*→ *do-it-yourselfism.*

The process is also called **phrasal derivation**:

*mini-skirt*→ *mini-skirted,*

*nothing but*→ *nothingbutism,*

*dress up*→ *dressuppable,*

*Romeo-and-Julietishness,*

or **quotation derivation** as when an unwillingness to do anything is characterised as *let-George-do-it-ity.*All these are nonce-words, with some ironic or jocular connotation.

The third subtype of neutral compounds is called **contracted compounds***.*These words have a shortened (contracted) stem in their structure: *TV-set (-program, -show, -canal,*etc.), *V-day (Victory day), G-man (Government man “*FBI agent”), *H-bag (handbag), T-shirt,*etc.

**Morphological compounds** are few in number. This type is non-productive. It is represented by words in which two compounding stems are combined by a linking vowel or consonant, e. g. *Anglo-Saxon, Franko-Prussian, handiwork, handicraft, craftsmanship, spokesman, statesman*.

**Syntactic compounds** (the term is arbitrary) are formed from segments of speech, preserving in their structure numerous traces of syntagmatic relations typical of speech: articles, prepositions, adverbs, as in the nouns *lily-of-the-valley, Jack-of-all-trades, good-for-nothing, mother-in-law, sit-at-home.*Syntactical relations and grammatical patterns current in present-day English can be clearly traced in the structures of such compound nouns as *pick-me-up, know-all, know-nothing, go-between, get-together, whodunit.*The last word (meaning “a detective story”) was obviously coined from the ungrammatical variant of the word-group *who (has) done it.*

In **reduplication**new words are made by doubling a stem, either without any phonetic changes as in *bye-bye*(coll, for *good-bye)*or with a variation of the root-vowel or consonant as *in ping-pong, chit-chat*(this second type is called **gradational reduplication**)*.*

This type of word-building is greatly facilitated in Modern English by the vast number of monosyllables. Stylistically speaking, most words made by reduplication represent informal groups: colloquialisms and slang:

*walkie-talkie −*a portable radio;

*riff-raff −*the worthless or disreputable element of society;

*chi-chi − sl.* for *chic*as in a *chi-chi girl.*

In a modern novel an angry father accuses his teenager son of *doing nothing but dilly-dallying all over the town*. (*dilly-dallying*— wasting time, doing nothing, loitering)

Another example of a word made by reduplication may be found in the following quotation from *The Importance of Being Earnest*by O. Wilde:

*Lady Bracknell.* I think it is high time that Mr. Bunbury made up his mind whether he was going to live or to die. This shilly-shallying with the question is absurd. (*shilly-shallying*— irresolution, indecision)

The structure of most compounds is transparent, as it were, and clearly betrays the origin of these words from word-combinations: *leg-pulling,* *what-iffing,* *what-iffers,* *up-to-no-gooders,* *breakfast-in-the-bedder*(“a person who prefers to have his breakfast in bed”), etc.

There are **two important peculiarities distinguishing compounding in English from compounding in other languages.** Firstly, both immediate constituents of an English compound are free forms, i.e. they can be used as independent words with a distinct meaning of their own. The conditions of distribution will be different but the sound pattern the same, except for the stress. The point may be illustrated by a brief list of the most frequently used compounds studied in every elementary course of English: *afternoon, anyway, anybody, anything, birthday, day-off, downstairs, everybody, fountain-pen, grown-up, ice-cream, large-scale, looking-glass, mankind, mother-in-law, motherland, nevertheless, notebook, nowhere, post-card, railway, schoolboy, skating-rink, somebody, staircase, Sunday.*

The combining elements in Russian and Ukrainian are as a rule bound forms *руководство, жовто-блакитний, соціально-політичний, землекористування, харчоблок,*but in English combinations like *Anglo-Saxon, Anglo-Soviet, Indo-European socio-political*or *politico-economical or medicochirurgical*where the first elements are bound forms, occur very rarely and seem to be avoided. They are coined on the neo-Latin pattern.

In Ukrainian compound adjectives of the type*соціально-політичний, історико-філологічний, народно-демократичний*, are very productive, have no equivalent compound adjectives in English and are rendered by two adjectives:

*газонафтова компанія - gas and oil company*

*фінансово-політична група - financial political group*

*військово-промисловий комплекс*- *military industrial complex*

**The second feature** that should attract attention is that the regular pattern for the English language is a two-stem compound, as is clearly testified by all the preceding examples. An exception to this rule is observed when the combining element is represented by a form-word stem, as in *mother-in-law, bread-and-butter, whisky-and-soda, deaf-and-dumb, good-for-nothing, man-of-war, mother-of-pearl, stick-in-the-mud.*

If, however, the number of stems is more than two, so that one of the immediate constituents is itself a compound, it will be more often the determinant than the determinatum. Thus *aircraft-carrier, waste-paper-basket*are words, but *baby outfit, village schoolmaster, night watchman*and similar combinations are syntactic groups with two stresses, or even phrases with the conjunction *and*:*book-keeper and typist.*

The predominance of two-stem structures in English compounding distinguishes it from the German language which can coin monstrosities like the anecdotal *Vierwaldstatterseeschraubendampfschiffgesellschaft*or *Feuer- and Unfallversicherungsgesellschaft.*

**One more specific feature** of English compounding is the important role the attributive syntactic function can play in providing a phrase with structural cohesion and turning it into a compound. Compare:

... *we’ve done last-minute changes before*...( Priestley)

*we changed it at the last minute more than once.*

*four-year course, pass-fail basis*(a student passes or fails but is not graded).

It often happens that elements of a phrase united by their attributive function become further united phonemically by stress and graphically by a hyphen, or even solid spelling. Cf.

*common sense →* *common-sense advice;*

*old age →* *old-age pensioner;*

*the records are out of date →* *out-of-date records;*

*the let-sleeping-dogs-lie approach*(Priestley). *→* *Let sleeping dogs lie*(a proverb).

This last type is also called **quotation compound** or **holophrasis**. The speaker/or writer creates those combinations freely as the need for them arises: they are originally nonce-compounds. In the course of time they may become firmly established in the language:

*the ban-the-bomb voice,*

*round-the-clock duty.*

Other syntactical functions unusual for the combination can also provide structural cohesion:

*working class →* *He wasn’t working-class enough.*

The function of hyphenated spelling in these cases is not quite clear. It may be argued that it serves to indicate syntactical relationships and not structural cohesion, e. g. *keep-your-distance chilliness.*It is then not a word-formative but a phrase-formative device.

4.1. The semantic aspect of compound words

Let us consider the question of correlations of the separate meanings of the constituent parts and the actual meaning of the compound.

(1) *Classroom, bedroom, working-man, evening-gown, dining-room, sleeping-car, reading-room, dancing-hall.*

This group seems to represent compounds whose meanings can really be described as the sum of their constituent meanings. Yet, in the last four words we can distinctly detect a slight shift of meaning. The first component in these words, if taken as a free form, denotes an action or state of whatever or whoever is characterised by the word. Yet, a sleeping-car is not a car that sleeps (cf. a *sleeping child),*nor is a dancing-hall actually dancing (cf. *dancing pairs).*

The shift of meaning becomes much more pronounced in the second group of examples.

(2) *Blackboard, blackbird, football, lady-killer, pick pocket, good-for-nothing, lazybones, chatterbox.*

In these compounds one of the components (or both) has changed its meaning: a *blackboard*is neither a board nor necessarily black, football is not a ball but a game, a chatterbox not a box but a person, and a lady-killer kills no one but is merely a man who fascinates women. It is clear that in all these compounds the meaning of the whole word cannot be defined as the sum of the constituent meanings. The process of change of meaning in some such words has gone so far that the meaning of one or both constituents is no longer in the least associated with the current meaning of the corresponding free form, and yet the speech community quite calmly accepts such seemingly illogical word groups as *a white blackbird, pink bluebells*or an entirely confusing statement like: *Blackberries are red when they are green.*

Yet, despite a certain readjustment in the semantic structure of the word, the meanings of the constituents of the compounds of this second group are still transparent: you can see through them the meaning of the whole complex. Knowing the meanings of the constituents a student of English can get a fairly clear idea of what the whole word means even if he comes across it for the first time. At least, it is clear that a *blackbird*is some kind of bird and that a *good-for-nothing*is not meant as a compliment.

(3) In the third group of compounds the process of deducing the meaning of the whole from those of the constituents is impossible. The key to meaning seems to have been irretrievably lost: *ladybird*is not a bird, but an insect, *tallboy*not a boy but a piece of furniture, *bluestocking,*on the contrary, is a person, whereas *bluebottle*may denote both a flower and an insect but never a bottle.

Similar enigmas are encoded in such words as *man-of-war*(warship), *merry-to-round*(carousel), *mother-of-pearl*(irridescent substance forming the inner layer of certain shells), *horse-marine*(a person who is unsuitable for his job or position), *butter-fingers*(clumsy person; one who is apt to drop things), *wall-flower*(a girl who is not invited to dance at a party), *whodunit*(detective story), *straphanger*(1. a passenger who stands in a crowded bus or underground train and holds onto a strap or other support suspended from above; 2. a book of light genre, trash; the kind of book one is likely to read when travelling in buses or trains).

The compounds whose meanings do not correspond to the separate meanings of their constituent parts (2nd and 3rd group listed above) are called **idiomatic compounds***,*in contrast to the first group known as *non-idiomatic compounds.*

The suggested subdivision into three groups is based on the degree of semantic cohesion of the constituent parts, the third group representing the extreme case of cohesion where the constituent meanings blend to produce an entirely new meaning.

The pattern of such compounds as *camp-in, ride-in, teach-in, work-in*and the like is structurally similar to an older type of compounds, such as *breakdown, feedback*or *lockout*but differs from them semantically including as its semantic invariant the meaning of public protest.

Somewhat later the word *teach-in*appeared. The name was used for long meetings, seminars or sessions held at universities for the purpose of expressing criticism on important political issues and discussing them. Then any form of seminar patterned on the university *teach-ins*was also called by this term. And similar terms were coined for other cases of staging public protest. E. g. *lie-in*and *die-in*when blocking traffic.

The third stage in the development of this pattern proved to be an extension to any kind of gathering of hippies, flower children and other groups of young people: *laugh-ins, love-ins, sing-ins.*A still further generalisation of meaning may be observed in the compound *call-in*and its American version *phone-in −*period of time on radio or television programme during which questions, statements, etc. from the public are broadcast.

The group of **bahuvrihi** compound nouns is not very numerous. The term bahuvrihi is borrowed from the grammarians of ancient India. Its literal meaning is ‘much-riced’. It is used to designate possessive exocentric formations in which a person, animal or thing are metonymically named after some striking feature they possess, chiefly a striking feature in their appearance. This feature is in its turn expressed by the sum of the meanings of the compound’s immediate constituents. The formula of the bahuvrihi compound nouns is **adjective stem +noun stem.**The following extract will illustrate the way bahuvrihi compounds may be coined*:*

I got discouraged with sitting all day in the backroom of a police station with six assorted women and a man with a wooden leg. At the end of a week, we all knew each other’s life histories, including that of *the woodenleg’s uncle*, who lived at Selsey and had to be careful of his diet (M. Dickens).

Semantically the bahuvrihi are almost invariably characterised by a deprecative ironical emotional tone. Cf. *bigwig*‘a person of importance’, *black-shirt*‘an Italian fascist’ (also, by analogy, any fascist), *fathead*‘a dull, stupid person’, *greenhorn*‘an ignoramus’, *highbrow*‘a person who claims to be superior in intellect and culture’, *lazy-bones*‘a lazy person’.

The structural type of compound words and the word-building type of composition have certain advantages for communication purposes.

Composition is not quite so flexible a way of coining new words as conversion but flexible enough as is convincingly shown by the examples of nonce-words given above. Among compounds are found numerous expressive and colourful words. They are also comparatively laconic, absorbing into one word an idea that otherwise would have required a whole phrase (cf. The hotel was full of*week-enders*and The hotel was full of*people spending the week-end there).*

Both the laconic and the expressive value of compounds can be well illustrated by English compound adjectives denoting colours (cf. *snow-white*— as *white as snow).*

Sometimes it is pointed out, as a disadvantage, that the English language has only one word *blue*for two different colours denoted in Russian by синий and голубой.

But this seeming inadequacy is compensated by a large number of adjectives coined on the pattern of comparison such as *navy blue, cornflower blue, peacock blue, chicory blue, sapphire blue, china blue, sky-blue, turquoise blue, forget-me-not blue, heliotrope blue, powder-blue.*This list can be supplemented by compound adjectives which also denote different shades of blue, but are not built on comparison: *dark blue, light blue, pale blue, electric blue, Oxford blue, Cambridge blue.*

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