**ЗАТВЕРДЖЕНО**

 Науково-методичною радою

 Державного університету

 «Житомирська політехніка»

 протокол від «24» червня

 2024 року

 №3

**конспект лекцій З НАВЧАЛЬНОЇ ДИСЦИПЛІНИ**

**«Лексикологія англійської мови»**

для здобувачів вищої освіти освітнього ступеня «бакалавр»

зі спеціальності:

*014 Середня освіта*

освітньо-професійна програма 014.021 – Середня освіта

*(Англійська мова і зарубіжна література)*

факультет педагогічних технологій та освіти впродовж життя

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2024 н.р.

Конспект лекцій для здобувачів вищої освіти освітнього ступеня «бакалавр» зі спеціальності: 014 Середня освіта, освітньо-професійна програма 014.021 – Середня освіта (Англійська мова і зарубіжна література) покликані допомогти студентам в опануванні лекційним матеріалом та допоможуть при виконанні практичних завдань в межах тем, передбачених робочою програмою навчальної дисципліни. Лекційні матеріали мають на меті поглибити знання здобувачів освіти з лексикології англійської мови та сприяти формуванню лінгвістичної і соціокультурної компетентностей студентів.

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**ПОЯСНЮВАЛЬНА ЗАПИСКА**

Конспект лекцій з дисципліни «Лексикологія англійської мови» розроблено з метою надання студентам покрокових рекомендацій та алгоритмізованих дій у підготовці до процесу навчання та виконання здобувачами освіти завдань в процесі опанування матеріалів курсу.

Курс “Лексикологія англійської мови” є важливою дисципліною циклу лінгвістичних дисциплін, яка надає студентам системні знання із етимології, словотвору, семасіології, фразеології.

Навчальна дисципліна «Лексикологія англійської мови» базується на знанні таких предметів, як вступ до мовознавства, сучасна українська мова та сучасна англійська мова. Вивчення даної дисципліни важливе з точки зору більш глибокого оволодіння англійською мовою студентами освітнього ступеня «бакалавр» зі спеціальності: 014 Середня освіта, освітньо-професійна програма 014.021 – Середня освіта (Англійська мова і зарубіжна література).

Дисципліна «Лексикологія англійської мови» передбачає вивчення комплексу тем, удосконалення навиків читання та сприйняття інформації на слух, удосконалення навиків спілкування шляхом проведення обговорень, дискусій, презентацій.

**Метою навчальної дисципліни** є навчити студентів розумінню суті лексичних явищ сучасної англійської мови, усвідомленню процесів взаємодії англійської мови, усвідомленню процесів взаємодії соціальних та мовних факторів, процесів збагачення словникового складу мови, утворення нових терміносистем в зв’язку з розвитком науки та техніки. Вивчення теоретичного та практичного матеріалу курсу дозволить розрізняти та визначати слова іншомовного походження, поглибити словниковий запас синонімічними, фразеологічними тощо одиницями, застосовувати літературні та розмовні слова, розрізняти шляхи та засоби словотвору.

**Предметом** вивчення начальної дисципліни є вивчення етимології, словотвору, семасіології, фразеології англійської мови.

**Завданнями** вивчення **навчальної дисципліни «Лексикологія англійської мови»** є**:**

* ознайомити студентів з головними галузями лексикології (семасіологія, словотворення, етимологія, фразеологія, лексикографія);
* сформувати у студентів уявлення про системність лексичного складу англійської мови;
* комплексно розглянути засоби словотворення з огляду на ступень їх продуктивності;
* окреслити закономірності розвитку англійської мови та окремі механізми її трансформації;
* розглянути головні проблеми сучасної англомовної лексикографії, типи словників та історію їх укладання.

**Міждисциплінарні зв’язки:** Курс «Лексикологія англійської мови» тематично пов’язаний з дисциплінами, які вивчаються згідно з навчальним планом підготовки студентів освітнього ступеня «бакалавр» зі спеціальності: 014 Середня освіта, освітньо-професійна програма 014.021 – Середня освіта (Англійська мова і зарубіжна література).

Програма курсу «Лексикологія англійської мови» складає 64 годин, з яких 32 години лекцій та 32 години практичних занять, викладається на ІІ курсі, де студенти опановують означений курс як вибіркову дисципліну. За програмою студенти вказаної спеціальності оволодівають знаннями з 2 модулів. Викладання означеної дисципліни завершується заліком.

**Програма навчальної дисципліни**

**Тема 1. The Object and Subject of Lexicology.**

Main notions of lexicology.

Links with other branches of Linguistics

Words of Native Origin and Their Characteristics.

Foreign elements in Modern English

**Тема 2. Borrowings. Translation loans.**

The etymological peculiarities of the English vocabulary.

Etymological doublets.

International words.

Authors’ neologisms

**Тема 3. Word-formation in Modern English.**

The morphological structure of a word.

Productive and non-productive ways of word-formation.

**Тема 3.1 Affixation.**

Semantics of affixes

Boundary cases between derivation, inflection and composition

Semi-affixes

**Тема 3.2. Word composition. Classification of compound words.**

• Conversion.

• Shortening and its types.

• Non-productive means of word formation:

* blending;
* back-formation;
* onomatopoeia;
* sound and stress interchange.

**Тема 4. The Object and Subject of Semasiology.**

Referential and functional approaches to meaning

Types of word meaning: lexical, grammatical meanings.

Implicational meaning.

**Тема 5. Polysemy.**

Synchronic and diachronic approaches to polysemy.

Diachronic and synchronic change of meaning.

**Тема 6. Context.**

Types of context.

Grammatical and lexical context.

**Тема 7. Causes of development of new meanings.**

Change of meaning.

Broadening (or Generalisation) of meaning.

Narrowing (or Specialisation) of meaning.

Metaphor.

Metonomy.

**Тема 8. English vocabulary as a system**

Synonyms. Types of synonyms. Sources of synonymy.

Homonyms. Types of homonyms. Differentiation of polysemantic words and full lexical homonyms.

Antonyms. Morphological and semantic classification of antonyms.

**Тема 9. Free word groups.**

Definition.

Classifications.

Valency. Grammatical and lexical valency.

**Тема 10. Functional styles.**

Formal and Informal styles.

Colloquialisms.

Dialect words.

**Тема 11. Phraseological word combinations.**

Formal and functional classification.

Proverbs, sayings, familiar quotations, clichés and phrasal verbs.

**Тема 12. Basics of English lexicography.**

English Lexicography.

History of English Lexicography.

The main problems in lexicography.

Types of dictionaries.

**Тема 13. Varieties of language.**

Characteristics of World Englishes.

Language, dialect and accent.

British English and American English

**Тема 1. The Object and Subject of Lexicology.**

**Main notions of lexicology.**

**Links with other branches of Linguistics**

**Words of Native Origin and Their Characteristics.**

**Foreign elements in Modern English**

**Lexicology** (from Gr ***lexis*** 'word' and ***logos*** 'learning') is the part of linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of the language and the properties of words as the main units of language. So, the subject-matter of lexicology is the word, its morphemic structure, history and meaning. The term **vocabulary** is used to denote the system formed by the sum total of all the words and **word equivalents** that the language possesses. 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 general study of words and vocabulary, irrespective of the specific features of any particular language, is known as **general lexicology**. Linguistic phenomena and properties common to all languages are generally referred to as **language universals**. **Special lexicology** devotes its attention to the description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language. Every special lexicology is based on the principles of general lexicology, and the latter forms a part of **general linguistics**.

A branch of study called **contrastive lexicology** provides a theoretical basis on which the vocabularies of different languages can be compared and described.

The evolution of any vocabulary, as well as of its single elements, forms the object of **historical lexicology** or **etymology**. This branch of linguistics discusses the origin of various words, their change and development, and investigates the linguistic and extralinguistic forces modifying their structure, meaning and usage. In the past historical treatment was always combined with the **comparative method**. Historical lexicology has been criticised for its **atomistic approach**, i.e. for treating every word as an individual and isolated unit. But **historical study of words** is not necessarily atomistic. Historical lexicology cannot survey the evolution of a vocabulary as an adaptive system, showing its change and development in the course of time.

**Descriptive lexicology** deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development. It studies the functions of words and their specific structure as a characteristic inherent in the system. The descriptive lexicology of the English language deals with the English word in its morphological and semantical structures, investigating the interdependence between these two aspects. These structures are identified and distinguished by contrasting the nature and arrangement of their elements.

Lexicology also studies all kinds of semantic grouping and semantic relations: syn-onymy, antonymy, hyponymy, semantic fields, etc. Meaning relations as a whole are dealt with in **semantics** – the study of meaning which is relevant both for lexicology and grammar. The distinction between the two basically different ways in which language may be viewed, the **historical** or **diachronic** (Gr ***dia*** 'through' and ***chronos*** 'time') and the **descriptive** or **synchronic** (Gr ***syn*** 'together', with'), is a methodological distinction, a difference of approach, artificially separating for the purpose of study what in real language is inseparable, because actually every linguistic structure and system exists in a state of constant development. The distinction between a synchronic and a diachronic approach is due to the Swiss philologist Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913). Indebted as we are to him for this important dichotomy, we cannot accept either his axiom that synchronic linguistics is concerned with systems and diachronic linguistics with single units or the rigorous separation between the two. Subsequent investigations have shown the possibility and the necessity of introducing the historical point of view into systematic studies of languages.

Language is the reality of thought, and thought develops together with the development of society, therefore language and its vocabulary must be studied in the light of social history. Every new phenomenon in human society and in human activity in general, which is of any importance for communication, finds a reflection in vocabulary. A word, through its meaning rendering some notion, is a generalised reflection of reality; it is therefore impossible to understand its development if one is ignorant of the changes in social, political or everyday life, production or science, manners or culture it serves to reflect. These **extra-linguistic** **forces** influencing the development of words are considered in historical lexicology. The point may be illustrated by the following example:

***Post*** comes into English through French and Italian from Latin. Low Latin *posta – posita* fern. p.p. of Latin *ponere, posit*, v. 'place'. In the beginning of the 16th century it meant one of a number of men stationed with horses along roads at intervals, their duty being to ride forward with the King's "packet" or other letters, from stage to stage'

This meaning is now obsolete, because this type of communication is obsolete. The word, however, has become international and denotes the present-day system of carrying and delivering letters and parcels. Its synonym *mail*, mostly used in America, is an ellipsis from a mail of letters, i.e. *'a bag of letters'*. It comes from Old French *male* (modern *malle*) '*bag*' a word of Germanic origin. Thus, the etymological meaning of *mail* is 'a bag or a packet of letters or dispatches for conveyance by post'. Another synonym of *bag* is *sack* which shows a different meaning development. *Sack* is a large bag of coarse cloth, the verb *to sack* dismiss from service' comes from the expression *to get the sack*, which probably rose from the habit of craftsmen of old times, who on getting a job took their own tools to the to the works; when they left or were dismissed they were given a sack to carry away the tools.

It should be emphasised that the social nature of language and its vocabulary is not imited to the social essence of extra-linguistic factors influencing their development from without. Language being a means of **communication** the social essence is intrinsic to the language itself. Whole groups of speakers, for example, must coincide in a deviation, if it is to result in linguistic change.

The branch of linguistics, dealing with causal relations between the way the language works and develops, on the one hand, and the facts of social life, on the other, is termed **sociolinguistics.** Some scholars use this term in a narrower sense, and maintain that it is the analysis of speech behaviour in small social groups that is the focal point of sociolinguistic analysis. A. D. Schweitzer has proved that such **microsociological approach** alone cannot give a complete picture of the sociology of language. It should be combined with the study of such **macrosociological factors** as the effect of mass media, the system of education, language planning, etc. An analysis of the social stratification of languages takes into account the stratification of society as a whole.

Although the important distinction between a diachronic and a synchronic, a linguistic and an extralinguistic approach must always be borne in mind, yet in language reality all the aspects are interdependent and cannot be understood one without the other. Every linguistic investigation must strike a reasonable balance between them.

**2. WORDS OF NATIVE ORIGIN AND THEIR CHARACTERISTICS**

Etymologicaily the vocabulary of the English language is far from being homogeneous. It consists of two layers — the native stock of words and the borrowed stock of words. Native words comprise only 30% of the total number of words in the English vocabulary but the native words form the bulk of the most frequent words actually used in speech and writing. The native element in English comprises a large number of high-frequency words like the articles, prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions, auxiliaries and, also, words denoting everyday objects and ideas (e. g. house, child, water, go, come, eat, good, bad, etc.). Words belonging to the subsets of the native word-stock are for the most part characterized by a wide range of lexical and grammatical valency, high frequency value and a developed polysemy; they are often monosyllabic, show great word-building power and enter a number of set expressions. Furthermore, the grammatical structure is essentially Germanic having remained unaffected by foreign influence.

A native word is a word which belongs to the original English stock, as known from the earliest available manuscripts of the Old English period. A loan word, borrowed word or borrowing is a word taken over from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language.

The native words are further subdivided by diachronic linguistics into those of the Indo-European stock and those of Common Germanic origin i.e. of words having parallels in German, Norwegian, Dutch, Icelandic, etc., but none in Ukrainian or French.

The words having the cognates (words of the same etymological root, of common origin) in the vocabularies of different Indo-European languages form the oldest layer which readily falls into definite semantic groups:

* Family relations: *father, mother, brother, son, daughter* (cf. Ukr. мати, брат, син.).
* Parts of the human body: *foot, nose* (ef. Ukr. nic), lip, heart.
* Animals: *cow, swine, goose.*
* Plants: *tree, birch, corn.*
* Time of day: *day, night.*
* Heavenly bodies: *sun, moon, star.*
* Numerous adjectives: red (cf. Ukr. рудий), new, glad. sad.
* The numerals from one to a hundred.
* Pronouns: personal (except they which is a Scandinavian borrowing); demonstrative.
* Numerous verbs: be (cf.Ukr. бути), stand (cf. Ukr. стояти), sit (cf. Ukr. сидіти), eat, know.

Some of the most frequent verbs are also of Indo-European common stock: bear, come, sit, stand and others. The adjectives of this group denote concrete physical properties: hard, quick, slow, red, white. Most numerals also belong here. The Germanic element represents words of roots common to all or most Germanic languages. Some of the main groups of Germanic words are the same as in the Indo-European element.

* Parts of the human body: head, hand, arm, finger, bone.
* Animals: bear, fox, calf.
* Plants: oak, fir, grass.
* Natural phenomena: rain, frost.
* Seasons of the year: winter, spring, summer.
* Landscape features: sea, land.
* Human dwellings and furniture: house, room, bench.
* Sea-going vessels: boat, ship
* Adjectives: green, blue, grey, white, small, thick, high, old, good
* Verbs: see, hear, speak, tell, say, answer, make, give, drink
* Many adverbs and pronouns also belong to this layer.

It is probably of some interest to mention that at various times purists have tried to purge the English language of foreign words, replacing them with Anglo-Saxon ones. One slogan created by these linguistic nationalists was: "Avoid Latin derivatives; use brief, terse Anglo-Saxon monosyllables". The irony is that the only Anglo-Saxon word in the entire slogan is "Anglo-Saxon".

**3. FOREIGN ELEMENTS IN MODERN ENGLISH.**

The term “source of borrowing” should be distinguished from the term “origin of borrowing”. The first should be applied to the language from which the loan word was taken into English. The second, on the other hand, refers to the language to which the word may be traced. Thus, the word *paper<Fr papier<Lat papyrus<Gr papyrus*has French as its source of borrowing and Greek as its origin.

Alongside **loan words proper**, we distinguish **loan translation** аnd **semantic loans**.

**Translation loans** are words or expressions formed from the elements existing in the English language according to the patterns of the source language. They 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. It is quite obvious that it is only compound words (i. e. words of two or more stems) which can be subjected to such an operation, each stem being translated separately: *masterpiece*(from Germ. *Meisterstück), wonder child*(from Germ. *Wunderkind), first dancer*(from Ital. *prima-ballerina),* the moment of truth (from Sp. *el momento de la verdad*)*.*

During the 2nd World War the German word *Blitzkrieg*was also borrowed into English in two different forms: the translation-loan *lightning-war*and the direct borrowings *blitzkrieg*and *blitz.*

Eng. *chain-smoker ↔* Ger. *Kettenraucher;*

Eng. *wall newspaper ↔*  Ukr. настінна *газета;*

Eng. *(it) goes without saying ↔* Fr *(cela) vasans dire;*

Eng. *summit conference ↔* Ger. *Gipfet Konferenz* *↔*Fr. *conference au sommet.*

The term **semantic loan**, is used to denote the development in an English word of a new meaning due to the influence of a related word in another language.

Eng. *pioneer −*explorer; one who is among the first in new fields of activity; →

Ukr *піонер −*a member of the Young Pioneers' Organization.

Sometimes the borrowing process is **to fill a gap in vocabulary**. When the Saxons borrowed Latin words for*butter*, *plum*, *beet*, they did it because their own vocabularies lacked words for these new objects. For the same reason the words *potato*and *tomato*were borrowed by English from Spanish when these vegetables were first brought to England by the Spaniards.

But there is also a great number of words which are borrowed for other reasons. There may be a word (or even several words) which expresses some particular concept, so that there is no gap in the vocabulary and there does not seem to be any need for borrowing. Yet, one more word is borrowed which means almost the same, — almost, but not exactly. **It is borrowed because it represents the same concept in some new aspect, supplies a new shade of meaning or a different emotional colouring**. This type of borrowing enlarges groups of synonyms and greatly provides to enrich the expressive resources of the vocabulary. That is how the Latin *cordial*was added to the native *friendly,*the French *desire*to *wish,*the Latin *admire*and the French *adore*to *like*and *love.*

**Latin Loans are classified into the subgroups.**

1. Early Latin Loans. Those are the words which came into English through the language of Anglo-Saxon tribes. The tribes had been in contact with Roman civilization and had adopted several Latin words denoting objects belonging to that civilization long before the invasion of Angles, Saxons and Jutes into Britain (*cup, kitchen, mill, port, wine*).

2. Later Latin Borrowings. To this group belong the words which penetrated the English vocabulary in the sixth and seventh centuries, when the people of England were converted to Christianity (*priest, bishop, nun, candle*).

3. The third period of Latin includes words which came into English due to two historical events: the Norman conquest in 1066 and the Renaissance or the Revival of Learning. Some words came into English through French but some were taken directly from Latin (*major, minor, intelligent, permanent*).

4. The Latest Stratum of Latin Words. The words of this period are mainly abstract and scientific words (*nylon, molecular, vaccine, phenomenon, vacuum*).

Norman-French Borrowings may be subdivided into subgroups:

1. Early loans – 12th – 15th century

2. Later loans – beginning from the 16th century.

The Early French borrowings are simple short words, naturalized in accordance with the English language system (*state, power, war, pen, river*). Later French borrowings can be identified by their peculiarities of form and pronunciation (*regime, police, ballet, scene, bourgeois*) (table 1).

***Table 1***

|  |
| --- |
| **The Etymological Structure of English Vocabulary** |
| The native element | The borrowed element |
| I. Indo-European elementII. Germanic elementIII. English Proper element (no earlier than 5th c. A. D.) | I. Celtic (5th — 6th c. A. D.)II. Latin1st group: 1st с. В. С.2nd group: 7th c. A. D.3rd group: the Renaissance periodIII. Scandinavian (8th — 11th c. A. D.)IV. French1. Norman borrowings: 11th — 13th c. A. D.2. Parisian borrowings (Renaissance)V. Greek (Renaissance)VI. Italian (Renaissance and later)VII. Spanish (Renaissance and later)VIII. GermanIX. IndianX. Some other groups |

There are certain structural features which enable us to identify some words as borrowings and even to determine the source language. You can also recognise the origin of borrowings by certain suffixes, prefixes or endings which are given in Appendix 1.

**Lexical correlations are defined as lexical units from different languages which are phonetically and semantically related.** The number of Ukrainian-English lexical correlations is about 6870.

The history of the Slavonic-German ties resulted in the following correlations:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| beat − бити,call − голос,day − день, | widow − вдова,young − юний. |

Semantically Ukrainian-English lexical correlations are various. They may denote everyday objects and commonly used things:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| brutal − брутальний,cap − капелюх,cold − холодний,ground − грунт,kettle − котел,kitchen − кухня, | lily − лілія,money − монета,quart − кварта,sister − cecтpa,wolf − вовк |

Some Ukrainian - English lexical correlations have common Indo-European background:

garden − город,

murder − мордувати,

soot − сажа.

Beside Ukrainian – English lexical correlaitons the Ukrainian language contains borrowings from modern English period:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| брифіг − briefing;диск-жокей − disk-jockey;ескапізм − escapism;естеблішмент − establishment; | xiт парад − hit parade;кітч, халтура − kitch;масс-медія − mass media;cepiaл − serial. |

**REVISION QUESTIONS**

1. What is the subject-matter of lexicology?

2. What is the difference between general lexicology and special lexicology?

3. What is the role of historical lexicology or etymology in linguistics?

4. What does descriptive lexicology study?

5. What are some examples of semantic relations studied in lexicology?

6. What is the distinction made by Ferdinand de Saussure regarding the study of language?

7. What percentage of the total number of words in the English vocabulary do native words comprise?

A) 10%

B) 30%

C) 50%

D) 70%

8. Which of the following is NOT a characteristic of native words in the English language?

A) High frequency value

B) Wide range of lexical and grammatical valency

C) Monosyllabic

D) Modified in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning

9. What is the main difference between native words and loan words?

A) Native words have cognates in other Indo-European languages, while loan words do not.

B) Native words are modified in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning, while loan words are not.

C) Native words belong to the original English stock, while loan words are taken over from another language.

D) Native words form the bulk of the most frequent words used in speech and writing, while loan words do not.

10. What is the difference between the terms 'source of borrowing' and 'origin of borrowing'?

11. What are translation loans and how do they differ from other loan words?

12. Why were Latin words for butter, plum, and beet borrowed by the Saxons?

13. What is the term used to describe the development of a new meaning in an English word due to the influence of a related word in another language?

A) Translation loan

B) Source of borrowing

C) Origin of borrowing

D) Semantic loan

14. Which group of Latin loans includes words that came into English through the language of Anglo-Saxon tribes?

A) Later Latin Borrowings

B) Early Latin Loans

C) The third period of Latin

D) The Latest Stratum of Latin Words

15. What are the two historical events that led to the introduction of Latin words into the English vocabulary?

A) The conversion of the people of England to Christianity and the Renaissance

B) The Norman conquest and the conversion of the people of England to Christianity

C) The invasion of Angles, Saxons, and Jutes into Britain and the Revival of Learning

D) The Norman conquest and the Renaissance

**Тема 2. Borrowings. Translation loans.**

**The etymological peculiarities of the English vocabulary.**

**Etymological doublets.**

**International words.**

**Authors’ neologisms**

There are the following groups: phonetic borrowings, translation loans, semantic borrowings, and morphemic borrowings.

Morphemic borrowings are borrowings of affixes which occur in the language when many words with identical affixes are borrowed from one language into another, so that the morphemic structure of borrowed words becomes familiar to the people speaking the borrowing language.

Phonetic borrowings are most characteristic in all languages; they are called loan words proper. Words are borrowed with their spelling, pronunciation and meaning. Then they undergo assimilation, each sound in the borrowed word is substituted by the corresponding sound of the borrowing language.

Translation loans are word-for-word (or morpheme-for-morpheme) translations of some foreign words or expressions. In such cases the notion is borrowed from a foreign language but it is expressed by native lexical units.

A **semantic loan** is a process of borrowing semantic meaning (rather than lexical items) from another language. One example is the German semantic loan *realisieren*. The English verb "to realise" has more than one meaning: it means both "to make something happen/come true" and "to become aware of something". The German verb "realisieren" originally only meant the former: to make something real. However, German later borrowed the other meaning of "to realise" from English.

1. **Source of borrowing and the origin of borrowing**

When analyzing borrowed words one should distinguish between two terms - *source of borrowing* and *origin of borrowing*. The first term is applied to the language from which the word was immediately borrowed and the second - to the language to which the word may be ultimately traced. The closer the two interacting languages are in structure the easier it is for words of one language to penetrate into the other.

1. **Types and sources of borrowings. Etymological doublets**

**Etymological doublets -** they are two or more words which came from the same etymological source but different in phonetic form and meaning.

1. **Assimilation of borrowings. Its types and degrees.**

Assimilation – is the process of changing the adopted word.

Assimilation can be: phonetic (changing of sounds)

Grammatical

Semantic (change of meaning)

Graphic (change graphical representation)

Degrees:

**Completely** assimilated (when a word is assimilated completely into another language it means that it has adapted itself graphically, phonetically, semantically, grammatically *nation, face, pen, husband, ball, want, take, die, roof)*

**Partially** (loan words not completely assimilated **graphically** (*taxi, ballet, cafe*); loan words not completely assimilated **phonetically** *(Machine, cartoon, prestige*); loan words not completely assimilated **grammatically** (*crisis-crises; phenomenon- phenomena; formula-formulae; index-indices*);  loan words not completely assimilated **semantically** (the words denoting objects or phenomenon which is foreign to the English language and the English style life)

**Non-assimilated** (they have not been assimilated at all so foreign words haven’t enter the word-stock of English and are used for some specific purposes*addio – good-bye*, *chiao)*

1. **Greek borrowings in English. Criteria of Greek borrowings.**
2. **Latin borrowings in English. Periods of borrowings from Latin.**

Among words of Romanic origin borrowed from Latin during the period when the British Isles were a part of the Roman Empire, there are such words as: street, port, wall etc. many Latin and Greek words came into English during the Adoption of Christianity in the 6-th century. At this time the Latin alphabet was borrowed which ousted the Runic alphabet. These borrowings are usually called classical borrowings. Here belong Latin words: alter, cross, dean and Greek words: church, angel, devil, anthem. Latin and Greek borrowings appeared in English during the Middle English period due to the Great Revival of Learning. These are mostly scientific words because Latin was the language of science at the time. These words were not used as frequently as the words of the Old English period, therefore some of them were partly assimilated grammatically, e.g. formula-formulae. Here also belong such words as: memorandum, minimum, maximum, veto, etc. Classical borrowings continue to appear in Modern English as well. Mostly they are words formed with the help of Latin and Greek morphemes. There are quite a lot of them in medicine (appendicitis, aspirin), in chemistry (acid, valency, alkali), in technique (engine, antenna, biplane, airdrome), in politics (socialism, militarism), names of sciences (zoology, lexicography).

The English vocabulary falls into elements of different etymology. It has been estimated that from 60 to 79 % of the whole word-stock came from nearly all the languages of the world.

The fact of this unusually great enrichment at the expense of foreign languages is accounted for the frequent and durable contacts of the English people with other nations.

We can divide the foreign element in English into early and late loans as adopted orally and through writing.

The earlier the date of borrowing, the more complete the assimilation.

By *assimilation*we mean the adaptation of the lexical unit to the language laws of its new sphere - sound system, stress position, morphological structure, grammatical peculiarities, semantic structure, etc. Assimilation might begin with the phonetical and morphological adaptation, then extend to its word-building capacity so that the word becomes the centre of a whole nest of derivatives and set expressions resulting in a complex semantic structure typical of the language into which the word was borrowed and widely differing from the one it had in its native sphere.

Early oral borrowings are mostly monosyllabic words and their frequency value is great.

Later loans adopted mostly through writing are often polysyllabic, bookish and less frequently used. *Borrowed words*are divided into:

* *aliens*or *foreign words*that retain their foreign look, their phonetical and grammar peculiarities (e. g. *eau-de-Cologne, phenomenon/phenomena, chemise)*
* *denizens*or *borrowings,*i.e. loan words that received the right of citizenship in English (e.g. *wine, table)*and are not easily recognized as borrowings.

As to degree of assimilation, we could classify borrowings into:

1. *completely assimilated borrowings*(denizens), no longer felt as foreign in origin (e.g. *line, cheap, take, throw, call, face, husband, street, table,*etc.);
2. *partially assimilated borrowings*(aliens), which fall into four subgroups:
3. *partially assimilated semantically (units of specific national lexicon),*e.g. *Hryvna, rajah, sherbet, toreador,*etc;
4. *not assimilated grammatically,*e.g. nouns of Latin or Greek origin, which retain their original plural forms: *crisis - crises, index*- *indices, phenomenon -phenomena,*etc.;
5. *not assimilated phonetically,*e.g. *boulevard, foyer, memoir, restaurant,*etc.;
6. *not assimilated graphically,*e.g. *cliche, blitzkrieg, nazi, ragout, naive.*

In the partially assimilated borrowing, e. g. *ballet,*the stress is already shifted according to the English accentuation laws onto the first syllable but the final / is still written, though not pronounced, in the French manner, and the *e*vowel is pronounced in imitation of the French sound [ei]. These borrowings are mostly limited in their sphere of usage (e. g. *discus, sonata, bismuch);*

3) *words of local colouring*(e. g. *steppe, balalaika, gondola,*etc.);

4) *unassimilated borrowed words and phrases (barbarisms),*which preserve their original spelling and other characteristics, always have synonyms among the completely assimilated words or corresponding English equivalents (native words), and therefore, are not indispensable in English, limited to official, literary, bookish usage, e.g. *en regle, apropos, ad hoc, ciao, coup d'etat, eureka, persona grata,*etc.).

*a)The Anglo-Saxon Element in the English Vocabulary*

When in the 5 century of our era the Anglo-Saxon tribes came to Britain, they brought their dialects, which we now refer to as Old English and which formed the foundation for the ultimate development of Modern English. The Anglo-Saxon element is still at the core of the language.

Native words stand for fundamental things and generally express the most vital concepts, for example:

*-actions:*go, say, see, find, love, hunt, eat, sleep;

*-everyday objects:*food, fish, meat, milk, water,

*-names of animals and birds:*sheep, bull, ox, fowl;

*-natural phenomena:*land, sun, moon, summer, winter, sea;

*-geographical*concepts: north, east, west, northward, northwest, way;

*-names of persons:*man, woman, father, mother, son;

*-qualities:*long, short, far.

The native stock of words includes *modal*and *auxiliary verbs*(shall, will, be), *pronouns*(I, he she, you), *prepositions*(at, on, of, by), *conjunctions*(and, which, that, but), *articles*(a, an, the), most of the *numerals*(one, ten, fifty, the third).

These words are characterized by:

1. plurality of meanings;
2. great word-building power,
3. combinative power in phraseology.

But a number of Anglo-Saxon words were irrevocably lost. Many of those words denoting things no longer in use dropped out of the vocabulary, such as, for instance, names of weapons no longer used, garments no longer worn, customs no longer practised, etc.

*b)The Celtic Element*

Celtic borrowings in the English vocabulary can be considered of the least importance. For example: *adjective*dun - бурий *noun*bin - засік

*noun*cradle - колиска

*noun*bannock – хліб домашнього випікання

We can find Celtic element in *geographical names:*

Dover (Gael, dour - water)

Duncombe, Helcombe (Gael, cwm, cum - canyon)

Llandaff, Llandovery (Gael, llan - church)

Kent, Avon (Gael, amhuin - river)

The Downs (down- hill)

Loch Lomond, Loch Katrine (Loch - lake)

Some of the early Latin borrowings came into English through Celtic in the 5th century (e. g. *street, port, wall, mill, kitchen, Chester).*LONDON is of Celtic origin. The Celts called it Llyn-dun - (фортеця поблизу ріки (dun-"hill" and also "fort"). The Romans changed it for Londinium

*c)The Classical Element (Greek and Latin) LATIN*

Such words as pear, pea, pepper, cheese, plum, butter, wine, kettle, cup, dish, line, mule are referred to the early loans. A number of words pertain to trade. They are: *cheap, pound, inch, monger*(in fishmonger). We find the Latin element in geographical names: *Greenwich, Woolwich, Norwich.*In the 7th century some Latin borrowings appeared in the language of the church: *devil, bishop, priest, monk, nun, shrine, offer, candle, monster (in Westminster), sanct.*

After the Renaissance Latin words came as terms -for various fields of science, such as:

1. *philosophy, mathematics and physics -*diameter, fundamental, momentum, proposition, radius;
2. *words pertaining to law and government - alibi, affidavit, judicial, veto;*
3. *botany - mallow, petal, stamen;*
4. *medicine*- *anesthetic;*
5. *geographical names and topographical terms - equator, meridian, continental, tropical.*Some of these can be also traced to Greek roots.

There are some Latin *abbreviations*in English:

*e. g.*(exampli gratia) - for example,

*i. e.*(id est ) - that is

*a m.*(ante meridiem) -before noon

*p. m.*(post meridiem) - after noon,

*etc.*(et cetera) - and so on.

*GREEK*

The Greek words ate recognized by their specific spelling (ch, ph, ps, rh), by the suffixes *-ist, -ics, -ism, -id, -ize, -old, -osis,*and *-y*between consonants.

After the Renaissance Greek words came as terms for various fields of science, such as:

1. *literature*and *art-poet, rhythm, tragedy, comedy, drama antithesis;*
2. *lexicology-lexicology, antonym, archaism, dialect, idiom, etymology, morpheme, polysemy, synonym;*
3. *philosophy*and *mathematics -*basis, category, diagram, ethics, theory, thesis;
4. *botany-balsam, cactus, heliotrope, organism, parasite;*
5. *physics—dynamic, hydraulic, pneumatic, thermometre, thermostat;*

*f)medicine*—*diagnosis, diaphragm, homeopath, neuralgia, rheumatism.*

Some *proper names*of Greek origin got to be quite popular in English: *Catherine, George, Margaret, Theodore, Sophia, Irene, Alexander, etc.*There are also Greek *prefixes: a-, an-: aseptic, anarchy; anti-, ant-: antidote, Antarctic;*

*di-, dis-: dilemma, disyllabic,*and others.

*d)The Scandinavian Element (the 8thcentury -1042) Nouns:*anger, fellow, gate, husband, sky, window.

*Adjectives:*ill, low, odd, ugly, flat, awkward, weak.

*Verbs:*crawl, gape, gasp, get, give, lift, die, take, raise, struggle.

*Pronouns:*same, both, they.

Scandinavian settlements in England left their toponymic traces in a great number of *places:*

e. g. - *by*(from Sc. byr- "settlement, village") Derby, Rugby, Grimsby

(Sc. foss- "waterfall") Fossbury, Fossway

(Sc. thorp- "village") Althorp, Beythorp

(Sc. thvelt- "meadow") Applethwalte, Cowperthwalte.

Some English words change their meanings taking on the meanings of the corresponding Scandinavian words, e.g.:

Sc. draumr- dream (OE "joy")

Sc. brauth -bread (OE "crumb", "fragment").

*e)The Norman-French Element*

French borrowings penetrated into English in two ways: from the Norman dialect (during the first centuries after the Norman Conquest in 1066) and from the French national literary language beginning with the 15th century.

Before the Norman Conquest only a few words were borrowed (e. g.*proud, turn, false, market, chancellor).*The French words borrowed during the 13th -16th centuries are:

1. *law terms: accuse, justice, rent, prison;*
2. *military terms: army, peace, battle, soldier, officer, pursue;*
3. *religious terms: saint, chaplain, charity, pray, religion, service;*
4. *words connected with trade and everyday affairs, mostly pleasant, barber, butcher, chair, beef, veal, pleasure, leisure, comfort, delight;*
5. *terms of rank, duke, duchess, prince, peer, viscount, baron;*

*j) terms of art: art, beauty, colour, image, figure, costume, garment;*

*g) terms of architecture: arch, tower, column, castle, palace.*

Later French borrowings can be easily identified by their peculiarities of form and pronunciation (e. g. *garage, machine, fiancee, automobile, resume, role, technique).*

French *suffixes*are: *-age, -once, -ence, -ee, -ess, -ry,*etc.

*g)Various Other Elements in the English Vocabulary*

Spanish: *armada, banana, barbecue, canyon, cargo, cocoa, cigar, chocolate.*

Italian: *umbrella, soda, gondola, casino, bank traffic, violin.*

Australian: *boomerang, kangaroo.*

Japanese: *geisha, kimono, samurai, harakiri.*

African: *baobab, chimpanzee, gnu, gorilla.*

Egyptian: *pyramid, fustian.*

**Indian:***moccasin, wigwam, tomahawk*

Arabic: *algebra, elixir, azimuth, Islam, sherbet.*

Ukrainian: *borsch, varenyky, gholubtsi.*

*h) International Words*

The term "international" is applied to those words that penetrate the vocabularies of several languages, like *nylon*and to those that are found in all the languages of the world, like *sputnik.*

Though they embody the same concept in a similar sound-complex, they are spelt and pronounced differently in every language (e. g. *revolution).*

International words may refer to different fields of life and human activities but they mostly express scientific, cultural technical and political concepts, e. g.: *physics, melody, aria, arioso, opera lecture, formula, dialectics, motor, algorithm, cybernetics, telephone, entropy.*

Much of modern scientific vocabulary is international in character. Latin and Greek have given a large number of international words.

International words should not be confused with *pseudo-international words*(false cognates, "translator's false friends") that 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 the Ukrainian ліберальний, but also щедрий, великодушний, багатий, пишний, гуманітарний, вільний (нe буквальний) or complete (e.g. the English aspirant does not mean аспірант, but претендент, кандидат).

*i) Archaisms*

Archaisms are obsolete names for existing objects. They will always have a synonym, i. e. a word denoting the same concept but differing only in its stylistic sphere of usage. They are bookish words that are not used in everyday speech (e. g. *think - deem, joy - glee, man - wight, before -ere).*

Archaisms may be classified into *lexical*and *grammatical. Lexical archaisms*are words (e. g. *gyves*- *chains, woe - sorrow, nigh - near)*and *grammatical archaisms*are obsolete grammatical forms (e. g. *thou -you, thee, they, thine; brethren -*the plural form of brothers; tense forms like *builded).*

Neologisms are words and expressions used for new phenomena, objects, processes, that is, new concepts that appear in the course of language development. For example: *audiotyping, biocomputer, thoughtprocessor.*

Neologisms are new meanings of the already existing words. For instance, *big C.*

Neologisms are new names of **old**concepts: *bread - гроші, acid — наркотик ЛСД, gas – щось хвилююче і дуже приємне.*

*k) Translation-loans (calques) are borrowings (words or phrases), which do not retain their original form to a certain extent, but undergo the process of translating one part after another,*e.g. *Masterpiece <*Meisterstűk (German), *by heart<*par coeur (French).

1) *The borrowing of meaning from a foreign word is called semantic borrowing.*E.g. In Old KngHsh the word *dwellan*(ME *dwell)*meant "lead astray". The modern meaning of the word, i.e. "abide, stay", was adopted from the Scandinavian dvelja ("live").

*m) A pair of (or several) words borrowed from the same source at different times, and therefore, having different forms and meaning are called etymological doublets, e.g.*

*dais*"high table in a hall; raised platform for this". XIII. < OF. deis.< L. discuss.

*desk*"rest for a book, writing-paper, etc." XIV. < L. discus.

*dish*"broad shallow vessel". XV. < OE. disc < L.discus,

*disc*"flat surface of the sun, etc." XVII < F. discue < L. discus.

*discus*"quoit used in ancient Greek and Roman games." XVII. < L. discus < Gr. discos.

*n) Words which elements are derived from different languages are called etymologycal hybrids,*e.g. *eatable*(native stem + Roman suffix), *distrust*(native stem + Roman prefix), *beautiful*(Romanic stem + native suffix), etc.

*o) Dialecticisms and slang*

*Dialecticisms*are words used by people of a certain community living in a certain territory. In US Southern dialect one might say: *"Cousin, y 'all talk mighty fine"*which means *"Sir, you speak English well."*In ethnic- immigrant dialects the same sentence will sound as *"Paisano, you speek good the English."*or *"Landsman, your English is plenty all right already ".*

*Slang*is non-standard vocabulary understood and used by the whole nation. Slang is sometimes described as the language of sub-cultures or the language of the streets. Linguistically, slang can be viewed as a sub-dialect. It is hardly used in writing - except for stylistic effect. People resort to slang because it is more forceful, vivid and expressive than standard usage. Slangy words are rough, often scornful, estimative and humorous. They are completely devoid of intelligence, moral, virtue, hospitality, sentimentality and other human values.

Look how long, diverse and expressive the chain of slangy synonyms denoting "money" is: *cly, moo, queer, lettuce, lolly, sea-coal, green goods, hay, shoestring, bean, bread, crap, salad, soap, sugar, iron, balsam, jack, pile, dust, tin, brass, fat, rocks, chips, corn, red, sand, oil, shells,*etc.

**INTERNATIONAL WORDS**

Expanding global contacts result in the considerable growth of international vocabulary. All languages depend for their changes upon the cultural and social matrix in which they operate and various contacts between nations are part of this matrix reflected in vo-cabulary.

It is often the case that a word is borrowed by several languages, and not just by one.

Words of identical origin that occur in several languages as a result of simultaneous or successive borrowings from one ultimate source are called international words.

Such words usually convey concepts which are significant in the field of communication (cf. Eng. telephone, organization, inauguration, consilium, Ukr. телефон, організація, інаугурація, консиліум).

International words play an especially prominent part in various terminological systems including the vocabulary of science, industry and art. Many of them are of Latin and Greek origin. Most names of sciences are international, e. g. philosophy, mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, medicine, linguistics, lexicology. There are also numerous terms of art in this group: music, theatre, drama, tragedy, comedy, artist, primadonna The etymological sources of this vocabulary reflect the history of world culture. Thus, for example, the mankind's cultural debt to Italy is reflected in the great number of Italian words connected with architecture, painting and especially music that are borrowed into most European languages: allegro, andante, aria, arioso, barcarole, baritone (and other names for voices), concert, duet, opera (and other names for pieces of music), piano and many many more.

It is quite natural that political terms frequently occur in the international group of bor-rowings: politics, policy, revolution, progress, democracy, communism, anti-militarism.

20th c. scientific and technological advances brought a great number of new international words: atomic, antibiotic, radio, television, sputnik.

The rate of change in technology, political, social and artistic life has been greatly accelerated in the last decade and so has the rate of growth of international wordstock. A few examples of comparatively new words due to the progress of science will suffice to illustrate the importance of international vocabulary: algorithm, antenna, antibiotic, automation, bionics, cybernetics, entropy, gene, genetic code, graph, microelectronics, micro-miniaturisation, quant, quasars, pulsars, ribosome, etc. All these show sufficient likeness in English, French, Ukrainian and several other languages.

The international wordstock is also growing due to the influx of exotic borrowed words like anaconda, bungalow, kraal, orang-outang, sari, etc. These come from many different sources.

The English vocabulary penetrates into other languages. We find numerous English words in the field of sport: football, out, match, tennis, volleyball, baseball, hockey, cricket, rugby, tennis, golf, time, etc.

A large number of English words are to be found in the vocabulary pertaining to clothes: jersey, pullover, sweater, nylon, tweed, etc. Cinema and different forms of entertainment are also a source of many international words of English origin; film, club, cocktail, jazz.

Fruits and foodstuffs imported from exotic countries often transport their names too and, being simultancously imported to many countries, become international: coffee, cocoa, chocolate, coca-cola, banana, mango, avocado, grapefruit.

It is important to note that international words are mainly borrowings. The outward similarity of such words as the Eng. son, the Germ. Sohn and the Ukr. син should not lead one to the quite false conclusion that they are international words. They represent the Indo-European group of the native element in each respective language and are cognates, i. e. words of the same etymological root, and not borrowings.

# 3.4 Neologisms

The development of science and technology resulted in the coinage of new words and terms in every language. These new coinages are named neologisms**,** or innovations (from Greek  *neos*  «new», *logos*  «word») .

Neologisms are words and phrases coined to name some new (not known before) things and concepts. These are words and word-combinations which native speakers of a language consider new ones either in their form or meaning.

Neologisms appear in the language by means of:

- word-formative derivation (forming the new words from morphemes that already exist in the language using well-known patterns);

- semantical derivation (giving to an existing word a new second meaning, based on resemblance of a newly denoted phenomenon with some known one);

- borrowing the words from other languages, dialects, jargons, etc.

Thus, neologisms can be divided into:

- lexical (new words);

- phraseological (new set expressions);

- semantic (new lexico-semantic variety of a set expression).  Semantic neologisms are the words that have been in use in the language for a long time already but that acquire new meanings now.

“Word-formative (or derivational) innovations” must be considered a separate category that materializes in new word-formative elements (ideally, they are also represented by new word-formative patterns). The role of each productive affix must be thought to be more important in comparison with the role of a lexical or phraseological neologism because each word-formative model gives birth to numerous lexical neologisms and expands word-building possibilities (*cyber-: cybercash, cybercommuter, cyberinvesting, cybersurf; nano: nanothermometer, nanooptics, nanoanything; -ware: software, hardware, treeware (друкарські видання*).

The creation of neologisms is usually caused by the necessity of giving names to new things, phenomena, concepts which are the result of constant development of economy, science, culture; the result of an increase in the intensity of communication with other nations and states. Modern scientific and technical terminological systems are most actively enriched with new coinages:*cyberspace, dot-com-era,on-line company, blogosphere, neuroeconomics, culturnomics,* etc.These are lexical neologisms that perform a nominative function. This group also includes the words coined from lexemes that existed in the language before:*corporate – corpocracy («корпократія» - влада корпорацій у сучасному світі), Wal-Mart (мережa торгівельних підприємств) – Wal-Martian (людина, що зазвичай купує товари в такій крамниці); word burst (неологізм – різке зростання частотності вживання слова за конкретний період часу) – bursty words, word burstiness,*etc.

Besides lexical innovations used for naming things, neologisms are coined to substitute an old name for a new, more accurate, more comprehensive one, the one that to a greater extend corresponds to phonetic, lexical, word-formative and other norms of the language.

As neologisms are a historical category their belonging to the passive vocabulary is not eternal. They are accepted as new words until the things they name become widely used. Since this time they are no longer neologisms. The further use of neologisms is justified if there is a necessity of their performing either communicative, nominative or figurative functions. When there is no such a necessity, the new coinage is needless and has no prospect of coming into the active vocabulary of the language. It also happens when neologisms do not correspond to the lexical system of the language, or to its grammatical structure, or phonetic patterns.

Speaking is the sphere in which neologisms constantly appear. They are not fixed anywhere, as a rule, and are quickly substituted for new ones. Sometimes they come to the literary variety. Individually author’s neologisms are often found in the literary (belles-lettres) style, especially in poetry, more seldom – in journalistic genres which are close to literary ones. Author’s neologisms make the text emotionally expressive. Therefore, for non-literary styles author’s neologisms are not typical because expressiveness is excessive and unnecessary in this case.

Talking about author’s neologisms we can’t but mention the term “occasionalism”, the phenomenon which requires special attention. Some reseachers believe that the terms “author’s neologism” and “occasionalism” are synonyms: «Author's, individual-stylistic, occasional neologisms follow certain aims. One of their peculiarities is that the laws of certain language units formation are broken during creating them". **Individually author's neologisms** (occasionalisms) are words created by writers and poets with the aim of making the text more expressive”.

Rozental and Golub claim that «…we should distinguish author's neologisms from occasionalisms – words created «occasionally», in certain conditions of speech communication, which contradict the language standard and differ from usual ways of word formation in the language».

Thus, we admit that author's **neologism** is a word or word's meaning, created by the writer, poet, publicist for defining new or invented phenomena of reality, newly invented things or terms. The book as the source of information has less feedback with the reader in comparison with newspapers, magazines, and the Internet. Correspondingly, the author should choose the language means more thoroughly so that the reader could be able to understand the information the author is conveying to him. Using certain language means takes on special significance when the author doesn’t only use the native language vocabulary but also invents new words to denote the events created by him and stated in his work. The author’s aim is to convey the matter of the object, notion or occurrence, which is clear in his mind but not yet known to the reader, in the briefest but most valuable language form.

So, occasionalisms (from Latin *occasionalis* – “accidental”) are words that are coined according to the models existent in the language, but that are not in wide use.

Occasionalisms are of individual character, used in the definite context that gives an opportunity to reveal their meaning. As opposed to neologisms, occasionalisms are said to be of a “one-time” character.

The term «occasionality» is relative in a way. In fact, all new units start their life as “occasionalisms” as they appear in a certain act of speaking. However, a great number of lexical units that appeared “occasionally”, came into common use and got into the active vocabulary of the language. Occasional were once considered the words *cyberspace, couch potato, soap opera,* etc. Lexical units become common if they define the concepts connected with essential present-day problems. The scope of popularization through mass media and advertising helps the words to come into wide use, too.

**Authors’ neologisms**

**Here are some great examples of neologisms introduced by writers and their stories:**

**Banana republic**

This word was introduced by O. Henry in his book of collected works Cabbages and Kings. It later became a term exploited in politics and it stands for a politically unstable country dependent on a product exported (bananas, for example).

*Tropico is the excellent nation-builder game that simulates a Caribbean banana republic during the Cold War. The Daily Beast.*

**Cyberspace**

William Gibson coined this word first in his sci-fi short story. It became better known after his novel “Neuromancer” was published a few years later.

*This time Kate didn’t hesitate pressing send and watched her mail vanish from the out-box into cyberspace.  Fallen Woman.*

**Freelance**

This up-to-date term appeared long ago, when Walter Scott suggested it for the first time. According to his novel Ivanhoe, ”Free Lances” were hired as militants for a fee.

*As a freelance writer, I depend for my living on easy relations withmagazines, creative-writing departments, and so on. The Daily Beast.*

**Hard-Boiled**

It means tough when speaking about personal traits of character. What’s more, thanks to this term, a hard-boiled fiction genre appeared later. It stands for a detective story in which a cool cynical detective deals with crimes.

*Because it lacks the stylish voice of a hard-boiled detective noir, it sometimes feels coldly industrious. The Daily Beast.*

**Butterfingers**

Charles Dickens introduces this term in his “The Posthumous Papers” of the Pickwick Club book in 1836 and it stands for a clumsy person.

*And, as every boy in the world knows, it is a great disgrace to be called “butterfingers.” Half-Past Seven Stories.*

**Chortle**

No surprise this term belongs to the great inventor Lewis Carroll as well as the number of other fancy words. It’s made of “chuckle” and “snort”. You can only image the sound.

*They will not actually steal, but they will cheat you every time and chortle over it. The American Egypt.*

**Doormat**

Charles Dickens again. Speaking about a person “doormat” was first used in Great Expectations.

*His rookie flailing set back the peace process (such as it was) and made him look like a doormat. The Daily Beast.*

**Factoid**

It is a doubtful fact presented in the press without any extra proofs. People usually accept it as true, but unfortunately it’s not true. It was introduced by Norman Mailer.

*McCarthy contributes the factoid, “We have four million more government jobs in America than manufacturing jobs.” The Daily Beast.*

**Feminist**

“Féministe” came from the French language thanks to Alexandre Dumas and it suited public taste.

*Marjorie Wilkes Huntley was a New Age feminist, a widow, and a librarian. The Daily Beast.*

**Gremlin**

Gremlins, small beings, which caused mechanical problems in aircraft, appeared in Roald Dahl’s story for the first time.

*Whatever the gremlin was, it wasn’t exactly an auspicious start for a fifty million-mile hop. Deepfreeze.*

**Meme**

Can you imagine that this word was not coined in the 2000s? Everybody talks about memes, everybody creates memes nowadays. However, it was a faraway 1976 when Richard Dawkins invented it.

*“He was constantly dealing with this meme of not being able to close the deal,” Jurkowitz says. The Daily Beast.*

**Nerd**

This word was presented along with some other weird creatures’ names coined by Dr Seuss: it-kutch, preep, proo, nerkle, seersucker. However, only nerd survived. The term stands for a boring person.

*She was one of the only female characters I could think of that was different and weird without being the nerd. The Daily Beast.*

**Oxbridge**

First, Oxbridge was introduced as a fictional institution in William Thackeray’s novel. And then it started to stand for a combined name of Oxford and Cambridge.

*And, without removing his hobnails, or his corduroys, he sprang lightly into the Oxbridge racing-boat. Punch, or the London Charivari.*

**Pedestrian**

There was no word to name a person walking on foot, until William Wordsworth invented it.

*The Crisis in American Walking Tom Vanderbilt, Slate How we got off the pedestrian path. The Daily Beast.*

**Scientist**

William Whewell wrote “The Philosophy of the Inductive Sciences”, in which he expressed perplexity regarding the fact there is no name for a person dealing with science. This way “scientist” was born.

*Skill as a scientist and skill as a writer rarely inhabit the same person, but when they do, the results can be incredible. The Daily Beast.*

**Workaholic**

Dr. Wayne Oates set this word, when wrote his book Confessions of a Workaholic: The Facts about Work Addiction. The suffix -holic denotes addiction, as in the word “alcoholic”. Oates viewed work as a kind of addiction as well.

*The workaholic with the love of white suits and the slogan, “Let’s KeepMoving!” The Daily Beast.*

**Twitter**

This onomatopoeic (phonetic imitation of sound – twitting in this case) word is prescribed to Geoffrey Chaucer. He seems to be a great contributor to the English language dictionaries in that he provided them with a number of original words.

*To catch the “real” tweeter, Weiner explained that he had hired an Internetsecurity firm to investigate. The Daily Beast.*

**Yahoo**

Who on earth doesn’t know this word now? However, not every person is aware of its origin. The word “Yahoo” was first presented in Jonathan Swift’s novel Gulliver Travels. Yahoos were primitive cruel creatures with materialistic attitudes.

*When will the Left learn that this is not simply a nation of dimwitted yahoos? The New York Times.*

**REVISION TASKS:**

1. Be ready to discuss the subject matter of the English vocabulary.

2. Discuss the statement that Anglo-Saxon element formed the foundation for the ultimate development of Modern English.

3. Give illustrative examples of the Celtic element of the English vocabulary.

4. Give examples to show the classical element in English.

5. Be ready to discuss the penetration of Scandinavian borrowings into English.

6. Give comment on the influence of Norman invasion, which resulted French borrowings into English.

7. Give a few examples of International words that penetrated English.

8. What can you tell about archaisms?

9. Is mere any connection between science and neologisms? What do you think of it?

10. What are semantic borrowings and translation-loans?

12. What is the difference between the etymological doublets and etymological hybrids?

**Тема 3. Word-formation in Modern English.**

**The morphological structure of a word.**

**Productive and non-productive ways of word-formation.**

**1. The morphological structure of a word.**

The word is not the smallest unit of the language. It consists of morphemes. The term morpheme is derived from Gr *morphe*‘form’ + *-eme.*The Greek suffix *-erne*has been adopted by linguists to denote the smallest significant or **distinctive unit**.The **morpheme** may be defined as the smallest meaningful unit which has a sound form and meaning and which occurs in speech only as a part of a word. In other words, a morpheme is an association of a given meaning with a given sound pattern. But unlike a word it is not autonomous. Morphemes occur in speech only as constituent parts of words, not independently, although a word may consist of a single morpheme. Nor are they divisible into smaller meaningful units. That is why the morpheme may be defined as the minimum meaningful language unit.

**Word formation** is the creation of new words from elements already existing in the language. Every language has its own structural patterns of word formation.

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

According to the role they play in constructing words, morphemes are subdivided into**roots** and **affixes**. The latter are further subdivided, according to their position, into **prefixes**, **suffixes** and **infixes**, and according to their function and meaning, into **derivational** and **functional** affixes, the latter also called **endings** or outer **formatives**.

**The root morpheme** is the lexical center of the word. It is the semantic nucleus of a word with which no grammatical properties of the word are connected. A root may be also regarded as the ultimate constituent element which remains after the removal of all functional and derivational affixes and does not admit any further analysis. It is the common element of words within **a word-family**. Thus, *-heart-*is the common root of the following series of words: *heart, hearten, dishearten, heartily, heartless, hearty, heartiness, sweetheart, heart-broken, kind-hearted, whole-heartedly,*etc. In some of these, as, for example, in *hearten,*there is only one root; in others the root *-heart*is combined with some other root, thus forming a compound like *sweetheart.*

The root word *heart*is **unsegmentable**, it is non-motivated morphologically. The morphemic structure of all the other words in this word-family is obvious — they are **segmentable**as consisting of at least two distinct morphemes. They may be further subdivided into:

1) those formed by a**ffixation**or **affixational derivatives**consisting of a root morpheme and one or more affixes: *hearten, dishearten, heartily, heartless, hearty, heartiness;*

2) **compounds**or**compound words** containing at least two root-morphemes: *warehouse, camera-man*, *sweetheart;*

3) **derivational compounds** where words of a phrase are joined together by composition and affixation: *kind-hearted*. This last process is also called **phrasal derivation** *((kind heart)+-ed)).*

**Monomorphic**are root-words consisting of only one root-morpheme i.e. simple words *(dry, grow, boss, sell).*

**Polymorphic** are words consisting of at least one root-morpheme and a number of derivational affixes, i.e. derivatives, compounds *(customer, payee, body-building, shipping).*

**Derived words** are those composed of one root-morpheme and one more derivational morphemes *(consignment, outgoing, publicity).*

**Stem** is that part of a word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm and to which grammatical inflexions and affixes are added. Thestem expresses the lexical and the part of speech meaning. For the word *hearty*and for the paradigm *heart*(sing.) — *hearts*(pl.) the stem may be represented as *heart-.* This stem is a single morpheme, it contains nothing but the root, so it is a **simple stem**. It is also a **free stem** because it is homonymous to the word *heart*.

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

Bound stems are especially characteristic of loan words. The point may be illustrated by the following French borrowings: *arrogance*, *charity*, *courage*, *coward*, *distort*, *involve*, *notion*, *legible,* *tolerable* ,etc. After the affixes of these words are taken away the remaining elements are: *arrog-*, *char-*, *cour-*, *cow-*, *-tort*, *-volve*, *not-*, *leg-*, *toler-*, which do not coincide with any semantically related independent words.

In English words stem and root often coincide.

**Affixational morphemes** include inflections and derivational affixes.

**Inflection** is **an affixal morpheme** which carries only grammatical meaning thus relevant only for the formation of word-forms *(book-s, open-ed, strong-er).*

**Derivational morpheme** is an affixal morpheme which modifies the lexical meaning of the root and forms a new word. In many cases it adds the part-of-speech meaning to the root *(manage-ment, en-courage, fruit-ful).*

Morphemes which may occur in isolation and function as independent words are called **free morphemes** *(pay, sum, form).*

Morphemes which are not found in isolation are called **bound morphemes** *(-er, un-, -less).*

The segmentation of words is generally carried out according to the method of **Immediate** and **Ultimate Constituents**. This method is based upon the binary principle, i.e. each stage of procedure involves two components the word immediately breaks into. At each stage these two components are referred to as the Immediate Constituents (IС). Each IС at the next stage of analysis is in turn broken into smaller meaningful elements. The analysis is completed when we arrive at constituents incapable of further division, i.e. morphemes. These are referred to as Ultimate Constituents (UC). The analysis of word-structure on the morphemic level must naturally proceed to the stage of UC-s.

The combining form *allo-*from Greek *allos “*other” is used in linguistic terminology to denote elements of a group whose members together constitute a structural unit of the language (allophones, allomorphs). Thus, for example, *-ion/-sion/-tion/-ation* are the positional variants of the same suffix. They do not differ in meaning or function but show a slight difference in sound form depending on the final phoneme of the preceding stem. They are considered as variants of one and the same morpheme and called its allomorphs.

**An allomorph** is defined as a positional variant of a morpheme occurring in a specific environment and so characterised by complementary distribution. **Complementary distribution** is said to take place when two linguistic variants cannot appear in the same environment. Thus, stems ending in consonants take as a rule *-ation (liberation);*stems ending in *pt,*however, take *-tion (corruption)*and the final *t*becomes fused with the suffix.

Different morphemes are characterised by **contrastive distribution**, i.e. if they occur in the same environment they signal different meanings. The suffixes *-able*and *-ed,*for instance, are different morphemes, not allomorphs, because adjectives in *-able*mean “capable of being”: *measurable*“capable of being measured”, whereas *-ed*as a suffix of adjectives has a resultant force: *measured*“marked by due proportion”, as *the measured beauty of classical Greek art;*hence also “rhythmical” and “regular in movement”, as in *the measured form of verse, the measured tread.*

In some cases the difference is not very clear-cut: *-ic*and *-ical,*for example, are two different affixes, the first a simple one, the second a group affix; they are said to be characterised by contrastive distribution. But many adjectives have both the *-ic*and *-ical*form, often without a distinction in meaning. The suffix *-ical*shows a vaguer connection with what is indicated by the stem: *a comic paper*but *a comical story.*However, the distinction between them is not very sharp.

Allomorphs will also occur among prefixes. Their form then depends on the initials of the stem with which they will assimilate. A prefix such as *im-*occurs before bilabials *(impossible),*its allomorph *ir-*before *r (irregular), il-*before *l (illegal).*It is *in-*before all other consonants and vowels *(indirect, inability).*

Two or more sound forms of a stem existing under conditions of complementary distribution may also be regarded as allomorphs, as, for instance, in *long*adj ↔ *length*n, *excite*v ↔ *excitation*n.

Allomorphs therefore are phonetically conditioned positional variants of the same derivational or functional morpheme (suffix, root or prefix) identical in meaning and function and differing in sound only insomuch, as their complementary distribution produces various phonetic assimilation effects.

2**. Productivity. Productive and non-productive ways of word-formation.**

**Productivity**is the ability to form new words after existing patterns which are readily understood by the speakers of a language. The most important and the most productive ways of word-formation are **affixation**, **conversion**, **word-composition** and **abbreviation (contraction).** In the course of time the productivity of this or that way of word-formation may change. **Sound interchange** or **gradation** *(blood − to bleed, to abide − abode, to strike − stroke)*was a productive way of word building in old English and is important for a diachronic study of the English language. It has lost its productivity in Modern English and no new word can be coined by means of sound gradation. Affixation on the contrary was productive in Old English and is still one of the most productive ways of word building in Modern English.

**3. Affixation. General characteristics of suffixes and prefixes.**

The process of **affixation**consists in coining a new word by adding an affix or several affixes to some root morpheme.

**Suffixation** is more productive than **prefixation**. In Modern English suffixation is characteristic of noun and adjective formation, while prefixation is typical of verb formation (*incoming, trainee, principal, promotion*).

From the etymological point of view affixes are classified into the same two large groups as words: **native**and**borrowed**(see Lecture 1; Table 2). It would be wrong, though, to suppose that affixes are borrowed in the same way and for the same reasons as words. The term borrowed affixes is not very exact as affixes are never borrowed as such, but only as parts of loan words. To enter the morphological system of the English language a borrowed affix has to meet certain conditions. The borrowing of the affixes is possible only if the number of words containing this affix is considerable, if its meaning and function are definite and clear enough, and also if its structural pattern corresponds to the structural patterns already existing in the language.

If these conditions are fulfilled, the foreign affix may even become productive and combine with native stems or borrowed stems within the system of English vocabulary like*-able*< Lat *-abilis*in such words as *laughable*or *unforgettable*and *unforgivable.*The English words *balustrade, brigade, cascade*are borrowed from French. On the analogy with these in the English language itself such words as *blockade*are coined.

Affixes are usually divided into **living** and **dead affixes**. Living affixes are easily separated from the stem (*care-ful*). Dead affixes have become fully merged with the stem and can be singled out by a diachronic analysis of the development of the word (*admit* − L*. ad+mittere*).

Affixes can also be classified into **productive**and **non-productive** types. By **productiveaffixes** we mean the ones, which 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**and so-called **nonce-words***,*i.e. words coined and used only for this particular occasion. The latter are usually formed on the level of living speech and reflect the most productive and progressive patterns in word-building:

*unputdownable*thrill*;*

“*I don't like Sunday evenings: I feel so Mondayish”;*

Professor Pringle was a thinnish, baldish, *dispeptic-lookingish* cove with an eye like a haddock. (From *Right-Ho, Jeeves*by P.G. Wodehouse)

In many cases the choice of the affixes is a means of differentiating meaning:

*uninterested −* *disinterested;*

*distrust − mistrust.*

One should not confuse the productivity of affixes with their frequency of occurrence. There are quite a number of high-frequency affixes which, nevertheless, are no longer used in word-derivation (e. g. the adjective-forming native suffixes *-ful, -ly;*the adjective-forming suffixes of Latin origin *-ant, -ent, -al*which are quite frequent).

Unlike roots, affixes are always bound forms. The difference between suffixes and prefixes, it will be remembered, is not confined to their respective position, suffixes being “fixed after” and prefixes “fixed before” the stem. It also concerns their function and meaning.

**A suffix** is a derivational morpheme following the stem and forming a new derivative in a different part of speech or a different word class, сf. *-en, -y, -less*in *hearten, hearty, heartless.*When both the underlying and the resultant forms belong to the same part of speech, the suffix serves to differentiate between lexico-grammatical classes by rendering some very general lexico-grammatical meaning. For instance, both *-ify*and *-er*are verb suffixes, but the first characterises causative verbs, such as *horrify, purify, rarefy, simplify,*whereas the second is mostly typical of frequentative verbs: *flicker, shimmer, twitter*and the like.

If we realise that suffixes render the most general semantic component of the word’s lexical meaning by marking the general class of phenomena to which the referent of the word belongs, the reason why suffixes are as a rule semantically fused with the stem stands explained.

**A prefix** is a derivational morpheme standing before the root and modifying meaning, cf. *hearten*— *dishearten.*It is only with verbs and statives that a prefix may serve to distinguish one part of speech from another, like in *earth*n — *unearth*v, *sleep*n — *asleep*(stative).

It is interesting that as a prefix *en-*may carry the same meaning of being or bringing into a certain state as the suffix *-en,*сf. *enable, encamp, endanger, endear, enslave*and *fasten, darken, deepen, lengthen, strengthen.*

Preceding a verb stem, some prefixes express the difference between a transitive and an intransitive verb: *stay*v and *outstay*(sb) vt. With a few exceptions prefixes modify the stem for time *(pre-, post-),*place *(in-, ad-)*or negation *(un-, dis-)*and remain semantically rather independent of the stem.

**An infix** is an affix placed within the word, like *-n-*in *stand.*The type is not productive. An affix should not be confused with **a combining form.** A combining form is also a bound form but it can be distinguished from an affix historically by the fact that it is always borrowed from another language, namely, from Latin or Greek, in which it existed as a free form, i.e. a separate word, or also as a combining form. They differ from all other borrowings in that they occur in compounds and derivatives that did not exist in their original language but were formed only in modern times in English, French, etc., сf. *polyclinic, polymer; stereophonic, stereoscopic, telemechanics, television.*Combining forms are mostly international. Descriptively a combining form differs from an affix, because it can occur as one constituent of a form whose only other constituent is an affix, as in *graphic, cyclic.*

Also affixes are characterised either by preposition with respect to the root (prefixes) or by postposition (suffixes), whereas the same combining form may occur in both positions. Cf. *phonograph, phonology*and *telephone, microphone,*etc.

**REVISION QUESTIONS:**

1.What is the definition of a morpheme?

A) A morpheme is a word that can stand alone without changing its meaning.

B) A morpheme is a combination of sounds that has a specific meaning and occurs only as part of a word.

C) A morpheme is a bound form that is always connected to another word.

D) A morpheme is a segmentable element that consists of at least two distinct morphemes.

2. What is the role of affixes in word formation?

A) Affixes modify the lexical meaning of the root and form a new word.

B) Affixes carry only grammatical meaning and are relevant for the formation of word forms.

C) Affixes create positional variants of the same morpheme.

D) Affixes are free morphemes that can function as independent words.

3. Which of the following ways of word-formation is no longer productive in Modern English?

A) Sound interchange or gradation

B) Affixation

C) Conversion

D) Word-composition

4. What is the difference between a root morpheme and a derivational affix?

A) A root morpheme forms the lexical center of a word, while a derivational affix modifies the meaning of the root and forms a new word.

B) A root morpheme carries only grammatical meaning, while a derivational affix adds the part-of-speech meaning to the root.

C) A root morpheme occurs in speech only as a part of a word, while a derivational affix may stand alone without changing its meaning.

D) A root morpheme is a positional variant of a morpheme occurring in a specific environment, while a derivational affix is a segmentable element consisting of at least two distinct morphemes.

5. What is the method used for the segmentation of words into morphemes?

A) The method of sound interchange or gradation

B) The method of affixation

C) The method of Immediate and Ultimate Constituents

D) The method of word-composition

6. Which type of affixation is more productive in Modern English?

A) Suffixation

B) Prefixation

C) Infixation

D) Combining form

7. What conditions must be fulfilled for a borrowed affix to enter the morphological system of the English language?

A) The affix must have a clear meaning and function.

B) The affix must be borrowed as a whole, not as part of a word.

C) The number of words containing the affix must be considerable.

D) All of the above

8. What is the difference between a prefix and a suffix?

A) A prefix modifies the meaning of the root, while a suffix forms a new derivative in a different part of speech.

B) A prefix is always borrowed from another language, while a suffix is native to the English language.

C) A prefix is placed before the root, while a suffix is placed after the root.

D) A prefix is used with verbs, while a suffix is used with nouns and adjectives.

9. What are the two large groups into which affixes are classified based on their etymology?

A) Native and borrowed

B) Productive and non-productive

C) Living and dead

D) Prefixes and suffixes

10. How can productive affixes be identified?

A) By looking for them among high-frequency affixes

B) By analyzing words formed on the level of living speech

C) By examining affixes that are frequently used in word-derivation

D) By studying affixes that have been borrowed from other languages

**Тема 3.1 Affixation.**

**Semantics of affixes**

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

**Semi-affixes**

# 3.1. Semantics of Affixes

Meanings of affixes are specific and considerably differ from those of root morphemes. Affixes have widely generalised meanings and refer the concept conveyed by the whole word to a certain category, which is vast and all-embracing. So, the**noun-forming suffix** *-er*could be roughly defined as designating persons from the object of their occupation or labour *(painter*— the one who paints) or from their place of origin or abode *(southerner*— the one living in the South).

Some words with this suffix have no equivalents in Ukrainian and may be rendered in descriptive way:

The sheriff might have been a slow *talker*, but he was a fast *mover* (Irish).

− Можливо, шериф і говорив повільно, та рухався він швидко.

I'm not a *talker*, boys, talking's not what I do, but I want you to know that this is not.... (King).

− Я не дуже балакучий...

Michael is a great breaker of hearts. I do hope you won't let him break yours (Howard)

− Майкл добре уміє розбивати серця...

He looked back at the whisperers as if he wanted to say something to them but thought better of it (Rowling) − Він оглянувся на тих, що шепотілися...

Other noun-forming suffixes designating the same semantic field both in English and Ukrainian are given in table 1:

***Table 1***

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **English** | **Ukrainian** |
| ***-er***teacher, banker, thinker, worker, miner, driver, dancer, reader, owner, leader, worker, robber, producer, owner, knower, observer, singer, programmer***-ar/or***liar, proprietor, vendor, ambassador, dictator***-ant/ent***participant, claimant, student***-ist***philologist, scientist *-ее*detainee, employee***-ess***(feminine) actress, proprietress***-anAian***vegeterian, politician, Mancunian***-ette***(fem) usherette, suffragette***-ite***laborite, Muscovite | ***-ар***шахтар, лікар***-ір/-ир/-ер-/ор***банкір, бригадир, офіцер, лідер, диктатор***-тель***вчитель, мислитель***-ик/-ник***робітник, виробник, радник, грабіжник, власник, передовик, відмінник***-ій*** водій, тюхтій***-ун***брехун, товстун***-ець***підприємець, митець, знавець, українець***-ач***оглядач, попихач, позивач, читач***-ак***співак, мастак***-іст***машиніст, програміст*-****ант/ент***практикант, дилетант, студент, кореспондент***-ака***писака, зівака***-ан***критикан***-ло***брехло, вайло***-нь***учень, злидень, здоровань***-ша***лівша***-ля; -еса; -ка; -иця***поетеса, актриса, праля, ткаля, практикантка, провідниця***-ин***молдаванин, грузин***-як***сибіряк, свояк***-ит***одесит, сибарит, бандит |

Ukrainian words of this type may have diminutive, caressing or coarsened variations *-ньк-, -чк-, -ець, -езн-, -ил-, etc*: *зіронька, сонечко, кияночка, шахтарочка, вітерець, малесенький, малюсінький, здоровенний, дівуля, дівчисько, дівчинонька, дівчинка, дівка, бабега, дідуган, шоферюга, волоцюга,ледацюга,).*

The correlation of the other noun-forming suffixes are given in table 2:

***Table 2***

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **English** | **Ukrainian** |
| ***-ion***explanation, probation, rotation, explosion*-****ment***unemployment, movement, appointment, enjoyment*-****ance/-ence***experience, reassurance, entrance***-ancyl-ency***valency, insolvency, pregnancy***-ness***happiness, willingness, tenderness, kindness***-ism***cynicism, criticism***-th***breadth, width***-dom***freedom, officialdom, kingdom***-ship***friendship, statesmanship***-hood***childhood, likelihood***-ing***unbuilding, painting | ***-ота***доброта, скорбота, біднота***-ина***ширина, довжина***-їсть***бідність, убогість, більшість, вагітність***-ство***товариство, малярство, правознавство, дитинство***-ання/-ення***призначення, сьогодення, світання, пояснення***-изм/ізм***шовінізм, расизм***-ція***ерудиція, апробація, агітація, симуляція***-(іт)тя***безробіття, лихоліття, майбуття, шмаття |

The **adjective-forming suffix** *-ful*has the meaning of “full of”, “characterised by” *(beautiful, careful)*whereas *-ish*may often imply insufficiency of quality *(greenish —*green, but not quite; *youngish*— not quite young but looking it):

Although Polly was *twelvish,*a year younger, she did not seem it. (Howard).

He felt a little foolish saying such a thing - a little *auntieish*- but it was clear the guy needed reassurance(King).

Coming on the heels of what had just happened, I might have considered this *Tom Clancyish*vehicle a hallucination, except for the bumper-sticker (King)

Such examples might lead one to the somewhat hasty conclusion that the meaning of a derived word is always a sum of the meanings of its morphemes: *un/eat/able*= “not fit to eat” where *not*stands for *un-*and *fit*for *-able.*

There are numerous derived words whose meanings can really be easily deduced from the meanings of their constituent parts. Yet, such cases represent only the first and simplest stage of semantic readjustment within derived words. The constituent morphemes within derivatives do not always preserve their current meanings and are open to subtle and complicated semantic shifts.

Let us take at random some of the adjectives formed with the same productive suffix *-y,*and try to deduce the meaning of the suffix from their dictionary definitions:

*brainy*(inform.) — intelligent, intellectual, i. e. *characterised by*brains

*catty*— quietly or slyly malicious, spiteful, i. e. *characterised by features*ascribed to a cat

*chatty*— given to chat, *inclined to*chat

*dressy*(inform.) — showy in dress, i. e. *inclined to*dress well or to be overdressed

*fishy*(e. g. in *a fishy story,*inform.) — improbable, hard to believe *(like*stories told by fishermen)

*foxy*— foxlike, cunning or crafty, i. e. *characterised by features*ascribed to a fox

*stagy*— theatrical, unnatural, i. e. *inclined to*affectation, to unnatural theatrical manners

*touchy*— apt to take offence on slight provocation, i. e. *resenting*a touch or contact (not at all inclined to be touched)

The Random-House Dictionary defines the meaning of the *-y*suffix as “characterised by or inclined to the substance or action of the root to which the affix is attached”. Yet, even the few given examples show that, on the one hand, there are cases, like *touchy*or *fishy*that are not covered by the definition. On the other hand, even those cases that are roughly covered, show a wide variety of subtle shades of meaning. It is not only the suffix that adds its own meaning to the meaning of the root, but the suffix is, in its turn, affected by the root and undergoes certain semantic changes, so that the mutual influence of root and affix creates a wide range of subtle nuances.

It is sufficient to examine further examples to see that other affixes also offer an interesting variety of semantic shades. Compare, for instance, the meanings of adjective-forming suffixes in each of these groups of adjectives.

1) *eatable (fit*or *good*to eat);

*lovable (worthy of*loving);

*questionable (open to*doubt, to question);

*imaginable (capable of*being imagined);

2) *lovely*(charming, beautiful, i. e. *inspiring*love)

*lonely*(solitary, without company; lone; the meaning of the suffix does not seem to add anything to that of the root)

3)*friendly (characteristic of*or *befitting*a friend)

*heavenly (resembling*or *befitting*heaven; beautiful, splendid)

4) *childish (resembling*or *befitting*a child)

*tallish*(rather tall, but not quite, i. e. *approaching the quality of*big size)

*girlish (like*a girl, but, often, in a bad imitation of one)

*bookish*(1) *given or devoted to*reading or study; (2) more acquainted with books than with real life, i. e. *possessing the quality of*bookish learning)

The semantic distinctions of words produced from the same root by means of different affixes are also of considerable interest, both for language studies and research work. Compare:

*womanly*— *womanish,*

*flowery*— *flowered*— *flowering,*

*starry*— *starred,*

*reddened*— *reddish,*

*shortened*— *shortish.*

The semantic difference between the members of these groups is very obvious: the meanings of the suffixes are so distinct that they colour the whole words.

*Womanly*is used in a complimentary manner about girls and women, whereas *womanish*is used to indicate an effeminate man and certainly implies criticism.

*Flowery*is applied to speech or a style (cf. with the UA. барвистий ), *flowered*means ‘decorated with a pattern of flowers” (e. g. *flowered silk or chintz, cf.*with the UA. квітчастий ) and *flowering*is the same as *blossoming*(e. g. *flowering bushes or shrubs, cf.*with the UA. квітучий ).

*Starry*means “resembling stars” (e. g. *starry eyes)*and starred — “covered or decorated with stars” (e. g. *starred skies).*

*Reddened*and *shortened*both imply the result of an action or process, as in *the eyes reddened with weeping*or *a shortened version of a story*(i.e. a story that has been abridged) whereas *shortish*and *reddish*point to insufficiency of quality: *reddish*is not exactly red, but tinged with red, and a *shortish*man is probably a little taller than a man described as short.

Adjective-forming suffix both in English and Ukrainian are given in table 3:

***Table 3***

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **English** | **Ukrainian** |
| ***-able/ible***probable, vulnerable, miserable, edible, perceptible***-al***accidental, seasonal, tribal***-ic***poetic, archaic, public***-ical***rhetorical, political***-ant/ent***pleasant, constant, different, insistent***-ate/-ete***separate, appropriate, complete***-ed/d***hooked, married, bearded***-ful***shameful, beautiful, careful, thoughtful, wakeful, harmful***-ish***outlandish, English, childish***-ive***passive, destructive, corrective***-less***mericless, childless***-like***childlike, lifelike***-ly***manly, cowardly***-ous***glorious, nervous, atrocious, contiguous, garrulous, obvious***-some***quarrelsome, tiresome***-y***moody, juicy, dreamy | ***-ов-ий***випадковий, спадковий, чорновий, зимовий***-н-ий***їстівний, безпечний, сумний, хмарний, тривожний***-ич-н-ий***поетичний, епічний, політичний, проблематичний, публічний***-ат-ий/ят-ий***бородатий, рогатий, багатий***-увати/-юват-***дурнуватий, синюватий, вовчкуватий***-ив-***мінливий, щасливий***-ив/н-ий***активний, прогресивний***-уч-ий***балакучий, сипучий***-ський/-цький***панський, студентський, англійський, перекладацький, читацький |

Suffixes forming the other parts of speech are given in table 4:

***Table 4***

|  |
| --- |
| **Suffixes** |
| **Numeral-forming suffixes** | **Verb-forming suffixes** | **Adverb-forming suffixes** |
| ***-fold***twofold***-teen***fourteen***-th***seventh***-ty*** sixty | ***-ate***facilitate***-er***glimmer***-en***shorten***-fy/-ify***terrify, solidify***-ize***equalize***-ish***establish | ***-ly***coldly***-ward/-wards***upward, northwards***-wise***likewise |



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

**3.2.1 Semi-Affixes**

It will be helpful now to remember what has been said in the first chapter about the vocabulary being a constantly changing adaptive system, the subsets of which have blurred boundaries.

There are cases, indeed, where it is very difficult to draw a hard and fast line between roots and affixes on the one hand, and derivational affixes and inflectional formatives on the other. The distinction between these has caused much discussion and is no easy matter altogether.

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 treated at length in Chapter 6.1 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 lexico-grammatical class the word belongs to. Cf. *sailor*: : *seaman,*where *-or*is a suffix, and functionally similar, *-man*is a semi-affix.

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.*By their almost unlimited combining possibilities (high valency) and the almost complete fusion of lexical and lexico-grammatical meaning they resemble inflectional formatives. The derivation with these suffixes is so regular and the meaning and function of the derivatives so obvious that such derivatives are very often considered not worth an entry in the dictionary and therefore omitted as self-evident. 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. Therefore these words are explained in dictionaries by referring the reader to the underlying stem. For example, in “The Concise Oxford Dictionary” we read: “*womanliness*— the quality of being womanly; *womanised*a or past participle in senses of the verb; *womanishly*— in a womanish manner; *womanishness*— the quality or state of being womanish”.

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

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.

**REVISION QUESTIONS:**

1. What is the meaning of the adjective-forming suffix -y?

2. Give an example of an adjective formed with the suffix -ish and explain its meaning.

3. What are some examples of noun-forming suffixes mentioned in the text?

4. What is the meaning of the noun-forming suffix -er mentioned in the text?

5. Can you provide an example of a derived word with the adjective-forming suffix -y and explain its meaning?

6. What is the difference between the meanings of 'womanly' and 'womanish'?

7. How do 'flowery', 'flowered', and 'flowering' differ in their meanings?

8. What do 'starry' and 'starred' mean?

9. What are semi-affixes and why are they called so?

A) Semi-affixes are roots in English that have developed great combining ability and a general meaning similar to that of an affix.

B) Semi-affixes are affixes in English that have a general meaning similar to that of a root.

C) Semi-affixes are words in English that behave like both roots and affixes.

D) Semi-affixes are words in English that have a specific meaning and can only be used in certain contexts.

10. Which of the following is NOT an example of a semi-affix mentioned in the text?

A) -land (e.g. Ireland, Scotland, fatherland, wonderland)

B) -like (e.g. ladylike, unladylike, businesslike, starlike)

C) -worthy (e.g. seaworthy, trustworthy, praiseworthy)

D) -proof (e.g. shockproof, waterproof, bombproof)

11. What characteristics make it difficult to classify morphemes like after-, in-, off-, on-, out-, over-, under-, with- as either prefixes or free forms?

A) They have a combining power equal to that of affixes but can also occur as free forms.

B) They modify stems for time, place, or manner like prefixes but can also occur as free forms.

C) They have statistical properties of frequency like prefixes but can also occur as free forms.

D) They have a similar function and meaning as prefixes but can also occur as free forms.

12. What are some factors that contribute to the transition of free forms into semi-affixes?

A) High semantic productivity, frequency, and combinatorial capacity.

B) High valency, frequency, and brevity.

C) High semantic productivity, adaptability, combinatorial capacity, and brevity.

D) High adaptability, frequency, and combinatorial capacity.

13. How are borrowed morphemes that were never active as prefixes in English classified?

A) They are classified as compound words due to their combining power.

B) They are recognized as prefixes based on analogy with other borrowed words from the same source.

C) They are considered as free forms due to their function and meaning.

D) They are categorized as root words based on their position and statistical properties.

**Тема 3.2. Word composition. Classification of compound words.**

**Conversion.**

**Shortening and its types.**

**Non-productive means of word formation:**

**blending;**

**back-formation;**

**onomatopoeia;**

**sound and stress interchange.**

As English compounds consist of free forms, it is difficult to distinguish them from phrases. The combination *top dog*‘a person occupying foremost place’, for instance, though formally broken up, is neither more nor less analysable semantically than the combination *underdog*‘a person who has the worst of an encounter’, and yet we count the first *(top dog)*as a phrase and the second *(underdog)*as a word. How far is this justified? In reality the problem is even more complex than this isolated example suggests. Separating compounds from phrases and also from derivatives is no easy task, and scholars are not agreed upon the question of relevant criteria. The following is a brief review of various solutions and various combinations of criteria that have been offered.

The problem is naturally reducible to the problem of defining word boundaries in the language. It seems appropriate to quote E. Nida who writes that “the criteria for determining the word-units in a language are of three types: (1) phonological, (2) morphological, (3) syntactic. No one type of criteria is normally sufficient for establishing the word-unit. Rather the combination of two or three types is essential."1

E. Nida does not mention the graphic criterion of solid or hyphenated spelling. This underestimation of written language seems to be a mistake. For the present-day literary language, the written form is as important as the oral. If we accept the definition of a written word as the part of the text from blank to blank, we shall have to accept the graphic criterion as a logical consequence. It may be argued, however, that there is no consistency in English spelling in this respect. With different dictionaries and different authors and sometimes even with the same author the spelling varies, so that the same unit may exist in a solid spelling: *headmaster, loudspeaker,*with a hyphen: *head-master, loud-speaker*and with a break between the components: *head master, loud speaker.*Compare also: *airline, air-line, air line’, matchbox, matchbox, match box’, break-up, breakup.*Moreover, compounds that appear to be constructed on the same pattern and have similar semantic relations between the constituents may be spelt differently: *textbook, phrase-book*and *reference book.*Yet if we take into consideration the comparative frequency of solid or hyphenated spelling of the combinations in question, the criterion is fairly reliable. These three types of spelling need not indicate different degrees of semantic fusion. Sometimes hyphenation may serve aesthetic purposes, helping to avoid words that will look too long, or purposes of convenience, making syntactic components clearer to the eye: *peace-loving nations, old-fashioned ideas.*

This lack of uniformity in spelling is the chief reason why many authors consider this criterion insufficient. Some combine it with the phonic criterion of stress. There is a marked tendency in English to give compounds a heavy stress on the first element. Many scholars consider this unity of stress to be of primary importance. Thus L. Bloomfield writes: “Wherever we hear lesser or least stress upon a word which would always show a high stress in a phrase, we describe it as a compound member: *ice-cream*['ajs-krijm] is a compound but *ice cream*['ajs'krijm] is a phrase, although there is no denotative difference in meaning."1

It is true that all compound nouns, with very few exceptions, are stressed on this pattern. Cf. ‘*blackboard : :*‘*blackboard’,*‘*blackbird : :*‘*black'bird;*‘*bluebottle : :*‘*blue'bottle.*In all these cases the determinant has a heavy stress, the determinatum has the middle stress. The only exception as far as compound nouns are concerned is found in nouns whose first elements are *all-*and *self-,*e. g. ‘*All-'Fools-Day,*‘*self-con'trol.*These show double even stress.

The rule does not hold with adjectives. Compound adjectives are double stressed like ‘*gray-'green,*‘*easy-'going,*‘*new-'born.*Only compound adjectives expressing emphatic comparison are heavily stressed on the first element: ‘*snow-white,*‘*dog-cheap.*

Moreover, stress can be of no help in solving this problem because word-stress may depend upon phrasal stress or upon the syntactic function of the compound. Thus, *light-headed*and similar adjectives have a single stress when used attributively, in other cases the stress is even. Very often the stress is structurally determined by opposition to other combinations with an identical second element, e. g. ‘*dining table : :*‘*writing table.*The forestress here is due to an implicit contrast that aims at distinguishing the given combination from all the other similar cases in the same series, as in ‘*passenger train,*‘*freight train, ex'press train.*Notwithstanding the unity stress, these are not words but phrases.

Besides, the stress may be phonological and help to differentiate the meaning of compounds:

*'overwork*‘extra work'

*'over'work*‘hard work injuring one’s health'

*'bookcase*‘a piece of furniture with shelves for books'

*'book'case*‘a paper cover for books'

*'man'kind*‘the human race'

*'mankind*‘men’ (contrasted with women)

*'toy,factory*‘factory that produces toys'

*'toy'factory*‘factory that is a toy’.

It thus follows that phonological criterion holds for certain types of words only.2

H. Paul, O. Jespersen, E. Kruisinga1 and many others, each in his own way, advocate the semantic criterion, and define a compound as a combination forming a unit expressing a single idea which is not identical in meaning to the sum of the meanings of its components in a free phrase. From this point of view *dirty work*with the figurative meaning ‘dishonorable proceedings’ is a compound, while *clean work*or *dry work*are phrases. Сf. *fusspot, slow-coach.*The insufficiency of this criterion will be readily understood if one realises how difficult it is to decide whether the combination in question expresses a single integrated idea. Besides, between a clearly motivated compound and an idiomatic one there are a great number of intermediate cases. Finally, what is, perhaps, more important than all the rest, as the semantic features and properties of set expressions are similar to those of idiomatic compounds, we shall be forced to include all idiomatic phrases into the class of compounds. Idiomatic phrases are also susceptible to what H. Paul calls isolation, since the meaning of an idiomatic phrase cannot be inferred from the meaning of components. For instance, one must be specially explained the meaning of the expressions *(to rain) cats and dogs, to pay through the nose,*etc. It cannot be inferred from the meaning of the elements.

As to morphological criteria of compounds, they are manifold. Prof. A. I. Smirnitsky introduced the criterion of formal integrity.2He compares the compound *shipwreck*and the phrase *(the) wreck of (a) ship*comprising the same morphemes, and points out that although they do not differ either in meaning or reference, they stand in very different relation to the grammatical system of the language. It follows from his example that a word is characterised by structural integrity non-existent in a phrase. Unfortunately, however, in the English language the number of cases when this criterion is relevant is limited due to the scarcity of morphological means.

“A Grammar of Contemporary English” lists a considerable number of patterns in which plural number present in the correlated phrase is neutralised in a compound. *Taxpayer*is one who pays taxes, *cigar smoker*is one who smokes cigars, *window-cleaner*is one who cleans windows, *lip-read*is to read the lips. The plural of *still-life*(a term of painting) is *still-lifes*and not *still lives.*But such examples are few. It cannot be overemphasised that giving a mere description of some lexicological phenomenon is not enough; one must state the position of the linguistic form discussed in the system of the language, i.e. the relative importance of the type. Therefore the criterion of structural integrity is also insufficient.

The same is true as regards connective elements which ensure the integrity. The presence of such an element leaves no doubt that the combination is a compound but the number of compounds containing connective elements is relatively insignificant. These elements are few even in languages morphologically richer than English. In our case they are *-s- (craftsman),*-o- *(Anglo-Saxon), -i- (handiwork.)*

Diachronically speaking, the type *craftsman*is due either to the old Genitive *(guardsman, kinsman, kinswoman, sportsman, statesman, tradesman, tradeswoman, tradesfolk, tradespeople)*or to the plural form.

The Genitive group is kept intact in the name of the butterfly *death’s head*and also in some metaphorical plant names: *lion’s snout, bear’s ear, heart’s ease,*etc.

The plural form as the origin of the connective -*s*- is rarer: *beeswax, woodsman, salesman, saleswoman.*This type should be distinguished from *clothes-basket, goods-train*or *savings-bank,*where the singular form of the word does not occur in the same meaning.

It has already been pointed out that the additive (copulative) compounds of the type *Anglo-Saxon*are rare, except in special political or technical literature.

Sometimes it is the structural formula of the combination that shows it to be a word and not a phrase. E. g. *starlit*cannot be a phrase because its second element is the stem of a participle and a participle cannot be syntactically modified by a noun. Besides the meaning of the first element implies plurality which should have been expressed in a phrase. Thus, the word *starlit*is equivalent to the phrase *lit by stars.*

It should be noted that *lit*sounds somewhat, if a very little, obsolete: the form *lighted*is more frequent in present-day English. This survival of obsolete forms in fixed contexts or under conditions of fixed distribution occurs both in phraseology and composition.

To some authors the syntactical criterion based on comparing the compound and the phrase comprising the same morphemes seems to ,be the most promising. L. Bloomfield points out that “the word *black*in the phrase *black birds*can be modified by *very (very black birds)*but not so the compound-member *black*in *blackbirds."1*This argument, however, does not permit the distinguishing of compounds from set expressions any more than in the case of the semantic criterion: the first element of *black market*or *black list*(of persons under suspicion) cannot be modified by *very*either.2

This objection holds true for the argument of indivisibility advanced by B. Bloch and G. Trager who point out that we cannot insert any word between the elements of the compound *blackbird.3*Thesame example *black market*serves H. Marchand to prove the insufficiency of this criterion.4 *Black market*is indivisible and yet the stress pattern shows it is a phrase.

2Prof. R. Lord in his letter to the author expressed the opinion that *black market*and *black list*could be modified by *very*in order to produce an ironically humorous effect, although admittedly this kind of thing would not occur in normal speech. The effect of the deviation therefore proves the existence of the norm.

Some transformational procedures that have been offered may also prove helpful. The gist of these is as follows. A phrase like *a stone wall*can be transformed into the phrase *a wall of stone,*whereas *a toothpick*cannot be replaced by *a pick for teeth.*It is true that this impossibility of transformation proves the structural integrity of the word as compared with the phrase, yet the procedure works only for idiomatic compounds, whereas those that are distinctly motivated permit the transformation readily enough:

*a toothpick ↔ a pick for teeth tooth-powder → powder for teeth a tooth-brush → a brush for teeth*

In most cases, especially if the transformation is done within the frame of context, this test holds good and the transformation, even if it is permissible, brings about a change of meaning. For instance, *...the wall-papers and the upholstery recalled*... *the refinements of another epoch*(Huxley) cannot be transformed without ambiguity into *the papers on the wall and the upholstery recalled the refinements of another epoch.*

That is why no one type of criteria is normally sufficient for establishing whether the unit is a compound or a phrase, and for ensuring isolation of word from phrase. In the majority of cases we have to depend on the combination of two or more types of criteria (phonological, morphological, syntactic or graphical). But even then the ground is not very safe and the path of investigation inevitably leads us to the intricate labyrinth of “the *stone wall*problem” that has received so much attention in linguistic literature.

**Pseudo-compounds**

The words like *gillyflower*or *sparrow-grass*are not actually compounds at all, they are cases of false-etymology, an attempt to find motivation for a borrowed word: *gillyflower*from OFr *giroflé, crayfish*(small lobster-like fresh-water crustacean, a spiny lobster) from OFr *crevice,*and *sparrow-grass*from Latin *asparagus.*

*May-day*(sometimes capitalised *May Day)*is an international radio signal used as a call for help from a ship or plane, and it has nothing to do with the name of the month, but is a distortion of the French *m'aidez*‘help me’ and so is not a compound at all.

The other examples are:

*fifty-fifty, goody-goody, drip-drop, helter-skelter, super-dooper, fuddy-duddy, etc.*

... Jukie, the one that's got that super-dooper job at Arthur Andersen... (Fielding).

I expect you're sick tò death of us old fuddy-duddies (Fielding)

"Excuse me, does the word "queue" mean anything to you?" I said in a hoity-toity voice, turning round to look at him. (Fielding)

In Ukrainian the words of this type are not compounds at all: А очі у нього сині-сині.

**CONVERSION**

Conversion is a highly productive way of coining new words in Modem English. Conversion is sometimes referred to as an affixless way of word-building, a process of making a new word from some existing root word by changing the category of a part of speech without changing the morphemic shape of the original root-word. 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.

**Thus, conversion is an affixless derivation consistsing in making a new word from some existing word by changing the category of a part of speech, the morphemic shape of the original word remaining unchanged:**

The *telephone* rang while I was eating my scrambled egg and toast. I answered it still chewing (Barstow) - телефон зазвонив...

He would send a cable or *telephone* as soon as he knew when he would be able to return (Howard) - від надішле телеграму або зателефонує...

I've been *telephoning* Major Knighton all day to try and get hold of you, but he couldn't say for sure when you were expected back (Christie) - я цілісінький день дзвоню майору Найтону...

I have just received a bill from the *telephone* company for seven hundred and eighty four dollars (Hart) - я щойно отримала рахунок від телефонної компанії...

Conversion is not only highly productive but also a particularly English way of word-building. It is explained by the **analytical structure of Modem English and by the simplicity of paradigms of English parts of speech. A great number of one-syllable words is another factor in favour of conversion**.

Conversion is universally accepted as one of the major ways of enriching English vocabulary with new words. One of the major arguments for this approach to conversion **is the semantic change that regularly accompanies each instance of conversion.** Normally, a word changes its syntactic function without any shift in lexical meaning. E. g. both in *yellow leaves* and in *The leaves were turning yellow* the adjective denotes colour. Yet, in The *leaves yellowed* the converted unit no longer denotes colour, but the process of changing colour, so that there is an essential change in meaning.

The change of meaning is even more obvious in such pairs as:

*hand → to hand, face, → to face,*

*to go → a go, to make → a make, etc.*

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 now regularly used in all the forms of tense and it develops the forms of the participle and the gerund. The completeness of the paradigms in new conversion formations seems to be a decisive argument proving that here we are dealing with new words and not with mere functional variants. The data of the more reputable modern English dictionaries confirm this point of view: they all present converted pairs as homonyms, i. e. as two words, thus supporting the thesis that conversion is a word-building process.

The high productivity of conversion finds its reflection in speech where numerous occasional cases of conversion can be found, which are not registered by dictionaries and which occur momentarily, through the immediate need of the situation.

One should guard against thinking that every case of noun and verb (verb and adjective, adjective and noun, etc.) with the same morphemic shape results from conversion.

There are numerous pairs of words *(e. g. love, n. - to love, v.; work, n. - to work, v.; drink, n. - to drink, v., etc.)* which did, not occur due to conversion but coincided as a result of certain historical processes (dropping of endings, simplification of stems) when before that they had different forms *(e. g. O. B. lufu, n. - lufian, v.).* On the other hand, it is quite true that the first cases of conversion (which were registered in the 14th c.) imitated such pairs of words as *love, n. - to love, v.* for they were numerous in the vocabulary and were subconsciously accepted by native speakers as one of the typical language patterns.

The 2 categories of parts of speech especially affected by conversion are **nouns and verbs(+2 more)**

1.*Verbs made from nouns*are the most numerous amongst the words produced by conversion: e. g. *to hand, to*

*hack, to face, to eye, to mouth, to nose, to dog, to wolf, to monkey, to can, to coal, to stage, to screen, to* *room, to floor, to* *blackmail, to blacklist, to* *honeymoon,*and very many others.

2*Nouns are frequently* *made from verbs: do*(e. g. *This is the queerest do I've* *ever come across. Do*-event, incident), *go*(e. g. *He has still plenty of go at his age. Go*— energy), *make, run, find, catch,* *cut, walk, worry, show,* *move,*etc

3.*Verbs can also be made* *from adjectives: to pale, to* *yellow, to cool, to grey, to* *rough*(e, g. *We decided to* *rough it in the tents as the* *weather was warm),*etc.

4. *Other parts of speech are not entirely unsusceptible to conversion as the following examples show: to down, to* *out*(as in a newspaper heading *Diplomatist Gated* *from Budapest), the tips and* *downs, the ins and outs,* *like,*n, (as in *(he like of me* *and the like of you).*

As one of the two words within a conversion pair is semanticaliy derived from the other, it is of great theoretical and practical importance to determine **the semantic relations**between words related through conversion.

*Verbs converted from nouns (denominal verbs)*

This is the largest group of words related through conversion. The semantic relations between the nouns and verbs vary greatly. If the noun refers to some object of reality (both animate and inanimate) the converted verb may denote:

1) action characteristic of the object, e.g. ape *n -*ape v-'imitate in a foolish way’; butcher *n*- butcher v - 'kill animals for food, cut up a killed animal';

2) instrumental use of the object, e.g. screw *n*- screw v-'fasten with a screw'; whip *n*- whip v - 'strike with a whip":

3) acquisition or addition of the object, e.g. fish *n —*fish v - 'catch or try to catch fish': coat *n*- 'covering of paint' -coat *v*'put a coat of paint on';

4) deprivation of the object, e.g. dust *n -*dust v -'remove dust from something'; skin *n*- skin v - 'strip off the skin from"; etc.

*Nouns converted from verbs (deverbal substantives)*

The verb generally referring to an action, the converted noun may denote:

1)instance of the action, e.g. jump v - jump *n -*'sudden spring from the ground'; move v - move *n -*'a change of position';

2)Agent of the action, e.g. help v - help *n - 'a*person who helps'; it is of interest to mention that the deverbal personal nouns denoting the doer are mostly derogatory, e.g. bore *v -*bore *n*- 'a person that bores': cheat v- cheat *n-*'a person who cheats';

3)place of the action, e.g. drive v - drive *n - 'a*path or road along which one drives'; walk *v*- walk *n -*'a place for walking';

4)object or result of the action, e.g. peel v - peel *n —*'the outer skin of fruit or potatoes taken off; find *v -*find h - 'something found," esp. something valuable or pleasant'; etc.

**From adjective to noun and to verb**: *to pale, to yellow, to cool, to grey, to rough, etc.*

We decided to rough it in the tents as the weather was warm;

"I don't need them at once", I said, furious to have brought the Principal's wrath down on me again for nothing (Binchy))

Someone - possibly two or three someones, but more likely a single person - was breaking into the crypts and mausoleums of small-town cemeteries with the efficiency of a good burglar breaking into a house or store. (King), etc.

Less frequent but also quite possible is conversion **from form words to nouns:**

"If she remarries in two years, the pinch should be bearable"

"With three young children that's quite an if' (Updike).

He liked to know the ins and outs.

I shan't go into the whys and wherefores.

He was familiar with ups and downs of life.

Use is even made of **affixes.** Thus, ism is a separate word nowadays meaning "a set of ideas or principles" e. g. Freudism, existentialism and all the other isms.

**Other parts of speech** are not entirely unsusceptible to conversion as the following examples show:

The crowd oooohed and aaaaahed, as though at a fireworks display (Rowling) -натовп охав та ахав...

A word made by conversion has a different meaning from that of the word from which it was made though the two meanings can be associated. There are certain regularities in these associations which can be roughly classified. For instance, in the group of **verbs** made from nouns (denominal verbs) some of the regular semantic associations are as indicated in the following list:

1. The noun is the name of a tool or implement, the verb denotes an action performed by the tool: *to hammer, to nail, to pin, to brush, to comb, to pencil.*

2. The noun is the name of an animal, the verb denotes an action or aspect of behaviour considered typical of this animal: *to dog, to wolf, to monkey, to ape, to fox, to rat.* Yet, to fish does not mean "to behave like a fish" but "to try to catch fish". The same meaning of hunting activities is conveyed by the verb to whale and one of the meanings of to rat; the other is "to turn in former, squeal" (sl.).

3. The name of a part of the human body – an action performed by it: *to hand, to leg (sl.), to eye, to elbow, to shoulder, to nose, to mouth.* However, to face does not imply doing something by or even with one's face but turning it in a certain direction. To back means either "to move backwards" or, in the figurative sense, "to support somebody or something"

4. The name of a profession or occupation – an activity typical of it: *to nurse, to cook, to maid, to groom.*

5. The name of a place – the process of occupying the place or of putting smth./smb. in it: *to room, to house, to place, to table, to cage.*

6. The name of a container – the act of putting smth. within the container: *to can, to bottle, to pocker.*

7. The name of a meal – the process of taking it *to lunch, to supper.*

8. Acquisition or addition of the object – *to fish*;

**Nouns converted from verbs (deverbal nouns) denote:**

* *instance of the action: to jump (v) - jump (n); to move (v) - move (n);*
* *agent of the action: to help (v) - help (n); to switch (v) - switch (n);*
* *place of action: to drive (v) - drive (n); to walk (v) - walk(n);*
* *object or result of the action: to peel (v) - peel (n); to find (v) - find (n).*

The suggested groups do not include all the great variety of verbs made from nouns and nouns made from verbs by conversion. They just represent the most obvious cases and illustrate, convincingly enough, the great variety of semantic interrelations within so-called converted pairs and the complex nature of the logical associations, which specify them.

In actual fact, these associations are not only complex but sometimes perplexing. It would seem that if you know that the verb formed from the name of an animal denotes behaviour typical of the animal, it would be easy for you to guess the meaning of such a verb provided that you know the meaning of the noun. Yet, it is not always easy. Of course, the meaning of *to fox* is rather obvious being derived from the associated reputation of that animal for cunning: to fox means "to act cunningly or craftily". But what about *to wolf?*

How is one to know which of the characteristics of the animal was picked by the speaker's subconscious when this verb was produced? Ferocity? Loud and unpleasant howling? The inclination to live in packs? Yet, as the following example shows, to wolf means "to eat greedily, voraciously": Charlie went on wolfing the chocolate. (R. Dahl)

In the same way, from numerous characteristics of the dog, only one was chosen for the verb *to dog* "to follow or track like a dog, especially with hostile intent" which is well illustrated by the following example:

And what of Charles? I pity any detective who would hat to dog him through those twenty months. (From The French Lieutenant's Woman by J. Fowles)

The two verbs to ape and to monkey, which might be expected to mean more or less the same, have shared between themselves certain typical features of the same animal: *to ape - to imitate, mimic:*

He had always aped the gentleman in his clothes and man-ners. (J. Fowles).

The flexibility of the English vocabulary system makes a word formed by conversion capable of further derivation, so that it enters into combinations not only with functional but also with derivational affixes characteristic of a verbal stem, and becomes distributionally equivalent to it. For example, view - to watch television, gives viewable, viewer, viewing.

Conversion may be combined with other word-building processes, such as composi-tion. Attributive phrases like black ball, black list, pin point, stone wall form the basis of such firmly established verbs as blackball, blacklist, pinpoint, stonewall. The same pattern is much used in nonce-words such as to my-dear, to my-love, to blue-pencil.

This type should be distinguished from cases when composition and conversion are not simultaneous, that is when, for instance, a compound noun gives rise to a verb:

*corkscrew n → corkscrew v; streamline n → streamline v.*

A special pattern deserving attention because of its ever increasing productivity results as a combined effect of composition and conversion forming nouns out of verb-adverb com-binations. This type is different from conversion proper as the basic forms are not homonymous due to the difference in the stress pattern, although they consist of identical morphemes.

Thanks to solid or hyphenated spelling and single stress the noun stem obtains phonetical and graphical integrity and indivisibility absent in the *verb-group, cf. to'draw 'back → a'drawback.* Further examples are: *'blackout n ›'black'out v; 'breakdown n -'break' down v; 'come-back, 'drawback, 'fall-out, 'hand-out, 'hangover, 'knockout, 'link-up, 'lookout, lock-out, 'makeup, 'pull-over, 'runaway, 'run-off, 'set-back, 'take-off, takeover, 'teach-in.*

A noun may also be due to more complicated process, i.e. composition, conversion and ellipsis: to drive in → a drive-in theatre → a drive-in.

**Shortening. Lexical abbreviations. Acronyms. Clipping.**

**The shortening of words** involves the shortening of both words and word-groups. Distinction should he made between shortening of a word in written speech (**graphical abbreviation**) and in the sphere of oral intercourse (**lexical abbreviation**). Lexical abbreviations may be used both in written and in oral speech. Lexical abbreviation is the process of forming a word out of the initial elements (letters, morphemes) of a word combination by f simultaneous operation of shortening and compounding.

This comparatively new way of word-building has achieved a high degree of productivity nowadays, especially in American English.

**Shortenings**(or **contracted/curtailed words/clipping**) **are produced in two different ways.** **The first** is to make a new word from a syllable (rarer, two) of the original word. The latter may lose its beginning (as in *phone*made from *telephone, fence*from *defence),*its ending (as in *hols*from *holidays, vac*from *vacation, props*from *properties, ad*from *advertisement)*or both the beginning and ending (as in *flu*from *influenza, fridge*from *refrigerator)*:

It was remarkable that the prisoners were so brain-dulled by their conditions that the onset *of flu*symptoms caused no special reaction at first. (Clancy).

Words that have been shortened at the end are called **apocope***(vet (veterinary); doc*(doctor); *prof*(professor); *prep*(preparatory); *mayo*(mayonnaise); *polio*(poliomyelitis); *pro*(professional); *hi-fi*(high fidelity); *hi-tech*(high technology); *sci-fi*(of or pertaining to science fiction); UA. *міськрада,*(міська рада) мінекономіки (міністерство економіки), генпрокуратура (генеральна прокуратура), *aдмінресурс*(адміністративний ресурс); *Мін 'юст (Міністерство юстиції); Мінфін (Мініcmерcmво фінансів); держдеп (державний департамент США); універмаг (універсальний магазин); нардеп (народний депутат); комп*(комп'ютер); *клава*(клавіатура); *універ*(університет); *лаби*(лабораторні роботи)):

Next he opened the jar of mayonnaise, and using his finger as a knife, began to slather the slices of bread with *mayo*.(King).

“It was a bomb, essentially, a Molotov cocktail, gas and motor oil” the fire marshal said. “Not *a pro*job, but *a pro*couldn't have done it any better” (Sandford).

There must have been thousands of people with *minicams*(minicamera) at the scene (Clancy).

It had taken him just five years to turn *Tech-Electric,*a failing electronics firm that he'd bought for a song in 1979, into a leading manufacturer of business and personal computer products (Clancy).

Тоді можуть бути закриті або обмежені *коррохунки*українців в іноземних банках (*кореспондентський рахунок).*

Відмова від *євроінтеграції,*навіть як від стратегічної, бодай і віддаленої мети...(європейська *інтеграція).*

Words that have been shortened at the beginning are called **aphaeresis***(phone (telephone);bus*(omnibus); *copter*(helicopter); *cute*(acute):

One by one the other *copters*rogered. Only Kurtz did not, but he also stayed put (King).

And at the radio station, the DJ picked up a *phone,*said “OK”, looked through the glass of the broadcast booth at the engineer and the general manager behind him and nodded (Sandford).

There's a little girl out there, about four years old, *cute*as devil (King).

Words in which some syllables or sounds have been omitted from the middle are called **syncope** *(ma 'm*- *madam, specs*- *spectacles).*Sometimes a combination of these types is observed *(tec − detective, frig − refrigerator).*

**The second way of shortening** is to make a new word from the initial letters of a word group (UNO ['ju:neu] from *the United Nations Organisation*)*.*This type is called initial shortenings. They are found not only among formal words, but also among colloquialisms and slang. So, *g. f.*is a shortened word made from the compound *girl-friend.*

It is commonly believed that the preference for shortenings can be explained by their brevity and is due to the ever-increasing tempo of modern life. Confusion and ambiguousness are quite natural consequences of the modern overabundance of shortened words, and initial shortenings are often especially enigmatic and misleading as the following conversation between two undergraduates clearly shows:

* Who's the letter from?
* My g. f.
* Didn't know you had girl-friends. A nice girl?
* Idiot! It's from my grandfather!

Here are some more examples of informal shortenings:

*moving-picture → movie*

*gentleman → gent*

*spectacles → specs*

*circumstances → circs*

a written acknowledgement of debt, made from *I* *owe you → I. O. Y.*

*liberty → lib*

*certainty → cert*

*metropoly → metrop*

*exhibition → exhibish*

Undergraduates' informal speech abounds in words of the type: *exam, lab, prof, vac, hol, co-ed*(a girl student at a coeducational school or college).

The term **abbreviation** may be also used for a shortened form of a written word or phrase used in a text in place of the whole for economy of space and effort. Abbreviation is achieved by omission of letters from one or more parts of the whole:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| *abbreviation → abbr**building → bld**government → govt**word → wd* | *dozen → doz/dz**limited → ltd**Bachelor of Arts → BA*New York State → N.Y. |

Sometimes the part or parts retained show some alteration, thus, *oz*denotes *ounce*and *Xmas*denotes *Christmas.*Doubling of initial letters shows plural forms as for instance *pp*for *pages, ll*for *lines*or *cc*for *chapters.*These are in fact not separate words but only graphic signs or symbols representing them.

Abbreviations are often used in Internet communication:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| AFAIK − As far as I know;BTW − By the way;DH − Dear husband;DIY − Do it yourself;FYI − For your information;HTH − Hope this helps; | ICBW − I could be wrong;(sometimes it could be worse);ISWYM − I see what you mean;SCNR − Sorry, could not resist;TIA − Thanks in advance;TTFN − Та ta for now;TWIMC − To whom it may concern; |

A specific type of abbreviations having no parallel in Ukrainian is represented by Latin abbreviations which sometimes are not read as Latin words but substituted by their English equivalents:

*ad lib*(Lat *ad libitum)*— *at pleasure;*

*a.m.*(Lat *ante meridiem)*— *in the morning*

*cf.*(Lat *conferre)*— *compare;*

*cp.*(Lat *comparare)*— *compare;*

*e.g.*(Lat *exempli gratia)* —*for example;*

*ib(id)*(Lat *ibidem)*— *in the same place;*

*i.e.*(Lat *id est)*— *that is;*

*loc.cit.*(Lat *locus citato)*— *in the passage cited;*

*ob.*(Lat *obiit)*— *he (she) died;*

*q.v.*(Lat *quod vide)*— *which see;*

*p.m.*(Lat *post meridiem)*— *in the afternoon;*

*viz*(Lat *videlicet)*— *namely.*

An interesting feature of present-day English is the use of initial abbreviations for famous persons’ names and surnames. Thus, George Bernard Shaw is often alluded to as *G.B.S.*['dзi:'bi:'es], Herbert George Wells as *H.G.*The usage is clear from the following example: “*Oh*, *yes*... *where was* *I?*” “*With H.G.’s Martians,” I told him*(Wyndham).

UA. ЛМ − Леонід Макарович);

Російські політтехнологи радять своєму президенту розбавляти офіціоз гумором і сатирою, тож *ВВП*іпожартував... (Україна молода № 2067 29.01.2003)

Journalistic abbreviations are often occasioned by a desire to economise head-line space:

the Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament → CND.

the NATO multilateral nuclear force → MLF

*CND Calls Lobby to Stop MLF* (Daily Worker).

The Americans claim that, so long as legislation elsewhere falls sport of their own Foreign Corrupt Practices Act *(FCPA)*of 1977, they are at a disadvantage in bidding for international contracts. The *FCPA*outlaws the payment of bribes by American firms to foreign officials, political parties, party officials and candidates.(The Economist Feb 28th 2002)

UA. ПІК “Політика і культура”;

СІЧ “Слово і Час”;

УМ “Україна молода”;

It must be emphasised that initial abbreviation, no less than other types of shortening, retains the valency, i.e. the combining possibilities of the prototypes. The difference in distribution is conditioned only by a change of meaning (lexical or more rarely lexico-grammatical). Abbreviations receive the plural and Possessive case inflections: *G.I.’s, M.P.’s, P.O.W.’s*(from *prisoner of war),*also the verb paradigm: *okays, okayed, okaying.*E. g. *A hotel’s no life for you... Why don’t you come and P.G. with me?*(A. Wilson) Here *P.G.*is an abbreviation for *paying guest.*Like all nouns they can be used attributively: *BBC television, TV program, UN vote.*

A specifically English word pattern almost absent in the Ukrainian language must be described in connection with initial abbreviations in which the first element is a letter and the second a complete word:

*A-bomb −*atomic bomb;

*H-bomb −*hydrogen bomb;

*x-ray −*translation of German *X-Strahl*the name orig. given to the rays by Roentgen, *x*signifying their unknown nature;

*H-hour −*the time, usually unspecified, set for the beginning of a planned attack; H (for hour)+hour);

*D-day −*D (for day) + day);

UA. Час Х;

час Ч.

There is no uniformity in semantic relationships between the elements: *Z-bar*is a metallic bar with a cross section shaped like the letter Z, while *Z-hour*is an abbreviation of *zero-hour*meaning “the time set for the beginning of the attack”, *U*is standing for upper classes in such combinations as *U-pronunciation, U-language.*Cf.: *U-boat “*a submarine”. *Non-U*is its opposite. So *Non-U speakers*are those whose speech habits show that they do not belong to the upper classes.

If the abbreviated written form lends itself to be read as though it were an ordinary English word and sounds like an English word, it will be read like one. The words thus formed are called **acronyms**(from Gr *across −*“end'”+*onym “*name”). This way of forming new words is becoming more and more popular in almost all fields of human activity, and especially in political and technical vocabulary:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **English** | **Ukrainian** |
| UN − United Nations ;USA − United States of America;NATO − North Atlantic Treaty Organization;UNICEF − United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund;UNESCO − United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization;OPEC − Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries;BBC − British Broadcasting Corporation;M.P. − Member of Parliament;VIP − very important person;SOS − save our souls;GI − government issue (американський солдат);POW − prisoner of war;AIDS − acquired immune deficiency syndrome;HIV − human immunodeficiency virus. | ООН − Організація Об'єднаних Націй;США Сполучені Штати АмерикиНАТО;ЮНІСЕФ;ЮНЕСКО;ОПЕК;ОБСЄ − Організація з безпеки та співробітництва в Європі;УНР − Українська народна республіка;СБУ − Служба безпеки України;УРП − Українська республіканська партія;СДПУ − соціал-демократична партія України; СНД − союз незалежних держав;ДПА − державна податкова адміністрація;ЧАЕС − Чорнобильська атомна електростанція;ЗМІ − засоби масової інформації. |

Borrowed acronyms are not deciphered in both in English and Ukrainian though they may have dictionary entries:

G.P. (for General Purpose Vehicle) →*jeep* (UA. *джип*)

**l**ightwave **a**mplification by **s**timulated **e**mission of **r**adiation → *laser*(UA. *лазер, лазерний*)

**m**icrowave **a**mplification by **s**timulated **e**mission of **r**adiation→ maser (UA. *Мазер*)

**y**oung**u**rban **p**rofessional + -**ie** – *yuppy* (UA. *япі*)*.*

Acronyms present a special interest because they exemplify the working of the lexical adaptive system. In meeting the needs of communication and fulfilling the laws of information theory requiring a maximum signal in the minimum time the lexical system undergoes modification in its basic structure: namely it forms new elements not by combining existing morphemes and proceeding from sound forms to their graphic representation but the other way round — coining new words from the initial letters of phrasal terms originating in texts.

**Non-productive means of word formation.**

# Blending.

**Blendings** (**blends**,**fusions** or **portmanteau words**) may be defined as formation that combine two words and include the letters or sounds they have in common as a connecting element:

bio (logical) + (electro)nic →*bionic*

wash + (caf)eteria →*washeteria*

sk(ateboard) + (s)urfing →*skurflng*

slim+gymnastics → slimnastics;

miserable+flimsy → mimsy;

gallop+triumph → galumph;

new+utopia → neutopia

UA. *банківський*+ автомат → банкомат

The process of formation is also called **telescoping**. The analysis into immediate constituents ishelpful in so far as it permits the definition of a blend as a word with the first constituent represented by a stem whose final part may be missing, and the second constituent by a stem of which the initial part is missing. The second constituent when used in a series of similar blends may turn into a suffix. A new suffix *-on*is, for instance, well under way in such terms as *nylon, rayon,*formed from the final element of *cotton.*

Depending upon the prototype phrases with which they can be correlated two types of blends can be distinguished. One may be termed **additive**, the second **restrictive**. Both involve the sliding together not only of sound but of meaning as well. Yet the semantic relations which are at work are different.

**The additive type**, is transformable into a phrase consisting of the respective complete stems combined by the conjunction *and:*

*smoke*and *fog → smog −*a mixture of smoke and fog.

The elements may be synonymous, belong to the same semantic field or at least be members of the same lexico-grammatical class of words:

*French+English → Frenglish;*

*smoke+haze → smaze;*

*Panjab+Afghania+Kashmir+Singh+Baluchistan → Pakistan;*

*breakfast*and *lunch → brunch*

*transmitter*and *receiver → transceiver*

**The restrictive type** is transformable into an attributive phrase where the first element serves as modifier of the second:

*cine(matographic pano) rama → cinerama.*

*medical care → medicare*

*positive electron → positron*

*television broadcast → telecast*

An interesting variation of the same type is presented by cases of **superposition**, formed by pairs of words having similar clusters of sounds which seem to provoke blending:

*motorists’ hotel →motel;*

*sham bamboo*(imitation bamboo) *→ shamboo*;

*slang*+*language → slanguage;*

*spiced ham → spam.*

Blends, although not very numerous altogether, seem to be on the rise, especially in terminology and also in trade advertisements: *Reaganomics» Irangate, blackspiloitation, workaholic, foodoholic, scanorama etc..*

## **Back-formation.**

**Back-formation** (also called **reversion**) is a term borrowed from diachronic linguistics. It denotes the derivation of new words by subtracting a real or supposed affix from existing words through misinterpretation of their structure.

The earliest examples of this type of word-building are the verb *to beg*that was made from the French borrowing *beggar, 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 subconscious of English-speaking people at the time when these formations appeared, 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, to cobble*the process was reversed: instead of a noun made from a verb by affixation (as *in painter*from *to paint),*a verb was produced from a noun by subtraction. That is why this type of word-building received the name of back-formationor reversion.

Later examples of back-formation are to *butle*from *butler, to baby-sit*from *baby-sitter, to force-land*from *forced landing, to blood-transfuse*from *blood-transfu*ing.

Back formation is mostly active in compound verbs, and is combined with word-composition. The basis of this type of word-building are compound words and word-combinations having verbal nouns, gerunds, participles or other derivative nouns as their second component (*rush-development, finger-printing, well-wisher*). These compounds and word-combinations are wrongly considered to be formed from compound verbs which are nonexistent in reality. This gives a rise to such verbs as; *to rush-develop, to finger-print, to well-wish*.

Structural changes taking place in back-formation became possible because of semantic changes that preceded them. The change of meaning resulted in demotivation, and this paved the way for phonic changes, i.e. assimilation, loss of sound and the like, which in their turn led to morphemic alternations that became meaningful. Semantic changes often influence the morphological structure by modifying the relations between stems and derivational affixes. Structural changes, in their turn, depend on the combined effect of demotivation and analogy conditioned by a higher frequency of occurrence of the pattern that serves as model. Provided all other conditions are equal, words following less frequent structural patterns are readily subjected to changes on the analogy of more frequent patterns.

The very high frequency of the pattern **verb***stem+-er*(or its equivalents) is a matter of common knowledge.

Back-formation may be also based on the analogy of inflectional forms as testified by the singular nouns *pea*and *cherry. Pea*(the plural of which is *peas*and also *pease)*is from ME *pese<OE pise, peose<Lat pisa,*pl. of *pesum.*The ending *-s*being the most frequent mark of the plural in English, English speakers thought that *sweet peas(e)*was a plural and turned the combination *peas(e) soup*into *pea soup. Cherry*is from OFr *cerise,*and the *-se*was dropped for exactly the same reason.

**The most productive type of back-formation**in present-day English is**derivation of** **verbs**from compounds that have either *-er*or *-ing*as their last element:

*thought-reading*n → *thought-reader n* → *thought-read v;*

*air-conditioning*n → *air-conditioner*n → *air-condition v;*

*turbo-supercharger*n. → *turbo-supercharge*v

Other examples of back-formations from compounds are the verbs *baby-sit, beachcomb, house-break, house-clean, house-keep, red-bait, tape-record*etc.

The semantic relationship between the prototype and the derivative is regular. *Baby-sit,*for example, means to act or become employed as a baby-sitter, that is to take care of children for short periods of time while the parents are away from home.

# Onomatopoeia

**Onomatopoeia** (**sound-imitation**, **echoism**) is the naming of an action or thing by a more or less exact reproduction of a natural sound associated with it *(babble, crow, twitter).*

Words coined by this interesting type of word-building are made by imitating different kinds of sounds that may be produced by animals, birds, insects, human beings and inanimate objects.

It is of some interest 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*(cf.UA.*гавкати*)or *howl*(cf. UA. *вити*)*.*The English cock cries *cock-a-doodle-doo*(cf.UA. *ку-ка-рі-ку*).In England ducks  *quack*and frogs *croak*(cf. UA.*крякати*said about ducks and UA.*квакати,*said about frogs). It is only English and Ukrainian cats who seem capable of mutual understanding when they meet, for English cats *mew*or *miaow (meow).*The same can be said about cows: they *moo*(but also *low).*

Some names of animals and especially of birds and insects are also produced by sound-imitation:

*crow, cuckoo, humming-bird, whip-poor-will, cricket.*

The following desperate letter contains a great number of sound-imitation words reproducing sounds made by modern machinery:

The Baltimore & Ohio R. R. Co.,

Pittsburg, Pa.

Gentlemen:

Why is it that your switch engine has to ding and fizz and spit and pant and grate and grind and puff and bump and chug and hoot and toot and whistle and wheeze and howl and clang and growl and thump and clash and boom and jolt and screech and snarl and snort and slam and throb and soar and rattle and hiss and yell and smoke and shriek all night long when I come home from a hard day at the boiler works and have to keep the dog quiet and the baby quiet so my wife can squawk at me for snoring in my sleep?

Yours

(From *Language and Humour*by G. G. Pocheptsov.)

The great majority of motivated words in present-day language are motivated by reference to other words in the language, to the morphemes that go to compose them and to their arrangement. Therefore, even if one hears the noun *wage-earner*for the first time, one understands it, knowing the meaning of the words *wage*and *earn*and the structural pattern **noun stem + verbal stem+ -*er***as in *bread-winner, skyscraper, strike-breaker.*Sound imitating or onomatopoeic words are on the contrary motivated with reference to extra-linguistic reality, they are echoes of natural sounds (e. g. *lullaby, twang, whiz.)***Sound imitation** (**onomatopoeia** or **echoism**) is consequently the naming of an action or thing by a more or less exact reproduction of a sound associated with it. For instance words naming sounds and movement of water: *babble, blob, bubble, flush, gurgle, gush, splash,*etc.

The term onomatopoeia is from Greek *onoma*‘name, word’ and *poiein*‘to make → ‘the making of words (in imitation of sounds)’.

It would, however, be wrong to think that onomatopoeic words reflect the real sounds directly, irrespective of the laws of the language, because the same sounds are represented differently in different languages. Onomatopoeic words adopt the phonetic features of English and fall into the combinations peculiar to it. This becomes obvious when one compares onomatopoeic words *crow*and *twitter*and the words *flow*and *glitter*with which they are rhymed in the following poem:

*The cock is crowing,*

*The stream is flowing.*

*The small birds twitter,*

*The lake does glitter,*

*The green fields sleep in the sun*(Wordsworth).

The majority of onomatopoeic words used to name sounds or movements are verbs easily turned into nouns: *bang, boom, bump, hum, rustle, smack, thud,*etc.

They are very expressive and sometimes it is difficult to tell a noun from an interjection. Consider the following:

*Thum*— *crash!*“Six o'clock, Nurse,” — *crash!*as the door shut again. Whoever it was had given me the shock of my life (M. Dickens).

Sound-imitative words form a considerable part of interjections: *bang! hush! pooh!*

Semantically, according to the source of sound, onomatopoeic words fall into a few very definite groups. Many verbs denote sounds produced by human beings in the process of communication or in expressing their feelings:

*babble, chatter, giggle, grunt, grumble, murmur, mutter, titter, whine, whisper*, etc.

Then there are sounds produced by animals, birds and insects:

*buzz, cackle, croak, crow, hiss, honk, howl, moo, mew, neigh, purr, roar*etc.

Some birds are named after the sound they make, these are *the crow, the cuckoo, the whippoor-will*and a few others. Besides the verbs imitating the sound of water such as *bubble*or *splash,*there are others imitating the noise of metallic things: *clink, tinkle,*or forceful motion: *clash, crash, whack, whip, whisk,*etc.

The combining possibilities of onomatopoeic words are limited by usage. Thus, a contented cat *purrs,*while a similarly sounding verb *whirr*is used about wings. A gun *bangs*and a bow *twangs.*

R. Southey’s poem “How Does the Water Come Down at Lodore” is a classical example of the stylistic possibilities offered by onomatopoeia: the words in it sound an echo of what the poet sees and describes.

*Here it comes sparkling,*

*And there it flies darkling*...

*Eddying and whisking,*

*Spouting and frisking,*...

*And whizzing and hissing,*...

*And rattling and battling,*...

*And guggling and struggling,*...

*And bubbling and troubling and doubling,*

*And rushing and flushing and brushing and gushing,*

*And flapping and rapping and clapping and slapping*...

*And thumping and pumping and bumping and jumping,*

*And dashing and flashing and splashing and clashing*...

*And at once and all o'er, with a mighty uproar,*

*And this way the water comes down at Lodore.*

Once being coined, onomatopoeic words lend themselves easily to further word-building and to semantic development. They readily develop figurative meanings. *Croak,*for instance, means “to make a deep harsh sound”. In its direct meaning the verb is used about frogs or ravens. Metaphorically it may be used about a hoarse human voice. A further transfer makes the verb synonymous to such expressions as “to protest dismally”, “to grumble dourly”, “to predict evil”.

There is a hypothesis that sound-imitation as a way of word-formation should be viewed as something much wider than just the production of words by the imitation of purely acoustic phenomena. Some scholars suggest that words may imitate through their sound form certain unacoustic features and qualities of inanimate objects, actions and processes or that the meaning of the word can be regarded as the immediate relation of the sound group to the object. If a young chicken or kitten is described as *fluffy*there seems to be something in the sound of the adjective that conveys the softness and the downy quality of its plumage or its fur. Such verbs as *to glance, to glide, to slide, to slip*are supposed to convey by their very sound the nature of the smooth, easy movement over a slippery surface. The sound form of the words *shimmer, glimmer, glitter*seems to reproduce the wavering, tremulous nature of the faint light. The sound of the verbs *to rush, to dash, to flash*may be said to reflect the brevity, swiftness and energetic nature of their corresponding actions. The word *thrill*has something in the quality of its sound that very aptly conveys the tremulous, tingling sensation it expresses.

Some scholars have given serious consideration to this theory. However, it has not yet been properly developed.

# Sound and stress interchange

**Sound interchange** may be defined as an opposition in which words or word forms are differentiated due to an alternation in the phonemic composition of the root. The change may affect the root vowel, as in *food*n → *feed*v; or root consonant as in *speak*v → *speech*n; or both, as in *life*n → *live*v. It may also be combined with affixation: *strong*a → *strength*n; or with affixation and shift of stress as in *'democrat*→ *de'mocracy.*

The process is not active in the language at present, and oppositions like those listed above survive in the vocabulary only as remnants of previous stages. Synchronically sound interchange should not be considered as a method of word-building at all, but rather as a basis for contrasting words belonging to the same word-family and different parts of speech or different lexico-grammatical groups.

The causes of sound interchange are twofold and one should learn to differentiate them from the historical point of view. Some of them are due to **ablaut** or **vowel gradation** characteristic of Indo-European languages and consisting in a change from one to another vowel accompanying a change of stress. The phenomenon is best known as a series of relations between vowels by which the stems of strong verbs are differentiated in grammar *(drink*→ *drank*→ *drunk*and the like). However, it is also of great importance in lexicology, because ablaut furnishes distinctive features for differentiating words: *abide*v → *abode*n; *bear*v → *burden*n; *bite*v → *bit*n; *ride*v → *road*n; *strike*v → *stroke*n.

The other group of cases is due to an assimilation process conditioned by the phonemic environment. One of these is **vowel mutation**, otherwise called **umlaut**, a feature characteristic of Germanic languages, and consisting in a partial assimilation to a succeeding sound, as for example the fronting or raising of a back vowel or a low vowel caused by an [i] or [j] originally standing in the following syllable but now either altered or lost:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| *full*a ↔ *fill*v;*whole*a ↔ *heal*v; | *knot*n ↔ *knit*v;*tale*n ↔ *tell*v. |

**The consonant interchange was also caused by phonetic surroundings.** Thus, the oppositions *speak*v ↔ *speech*n; *bake*v ↔ *batch*n; or *wake*v ↔ *watch*n are due to the fact that the palatal OE [k] very early became [tS] but was retained in verbs because of the position before the consonants [s] and [θ] in the second and third persons singular.

A voiced consonant in verbs contrasting with an unvoiced one in nouns results from the fact that in ME verbs this final of the stem occurred in intervocalic positions which made it voiced, whereas in nouns it ended the word or was followed by a consonant ending. After the loss of endings the voicedness was retained and grew into a **distinctive feature**:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| *advise*v ↔ *advice*n;*bathe*v ↔ *bath*n;*believe*v ↔ *belief*n;*clothe*v ↔ *cloth*n;*glaze*v ↔ *glass*n;*halve*v ↔ *half*n; | *live*v ↔ *life*n;*loathe*v ↔ *loath*n;*lose*v ↔ *loss*n, *loose*a;*prove*v ↔ *proof*nand a;*serve*v ↔ *serf*n; *shelve*v ↔ *shelf*n;*wreathe*v ↔ *wreath*n. |

As to the difference in the root vowels of these verbs and nouns, it is caused by the fact that the root syllable in verbs was open, whereas in nouns it was closed. Observe the analogy between plurals in [-vz] correlated with singulars in [-f] and verbs in [-v] correlated with nouns in [-f ]: *shelf*n sing. — *shelves*n pl. — *shelve*v. It will be recalled in this connection that the systematic character of the language may manifest itself in the analogy between word-building processes and word inflection. It is worthy of note that not only are these processes similar, but they also develop simultaneously. Thus, if some method is no longer productive in expressing grammatical categories, we shall also observe a parallel loss of productivity in expressing lexical meaning. This is precisely the case with root inflection:

*goose*→ *geese; foot*→ *feet;*

*tooth*→ *teeth; sing*→ *sang*→ *sung;*

*drive*→ *drove*→ *driven, tear*→ *tore*→ *torn.*

The same may be said about word-building by sound interchange. The type is not productive. No new words are formed in this way, yet sound interchange still stays in the language serving to distinguish one long-established word from another.

Synchronically, it **differentiated parts of speech**: *full*a ↔ *fill*v; *food*n ↔ *feed*v; or to different lexico-grammatical sets within the same part of speech: *fall*intransitive v ↔ *fell*causative v; *lie ↔ lay, sit*↔ *set, rise*↔ *raise.*

Derivation often involves **phonological changes of vowel or consonant**: *strong*a↔ *strength*n; *heal*v ↔ *health*n; *steal*v ↔ *stealth*n; *long*a ↔ *length*n; *deep*a ↔ *depth*n.

Some long vowels are retained in quality and quantity; others are shortened, and there seems to be no fixed rule: [a:] tends to be retained: *artist*n ↔ *artistic*а; [э:] is regularly shortened: *'permit*n ↔ *per'mit*v.

Some otherwise homographic, mostly disyllabic nouns and verbs of Romanic origin have a distinctive stress pattern. Thus, '*conduct*n “behaviour” is forestressed, whereas *con'duct*v “to lead or guide (in a formal way)” has a stress on the second syllable. Other examples are:

*accent, affix, asphalt, compact, impact, compound, compress, impress, conflict, contest, contract, extract, contrast, convict, digest, essay, export, import, transport, increase, insult, object, subject, project, perfume, permit, present, produce, progress, protest, rebel, record, survey, torment, transfer.*

Examples of words of more than two syllables are very few: *'attribute*n ↔ *a'ttribute*v. Historically this is probably explained by the fact that these words were borrowed from French where the original stress was on the last syllable. Thus, *ac'cent*comes through French from Latin *ac'centus.*Verbs retained this stress all the more easily as many native disyllabic verbs were also stressed in this way: *be come, be'lieve, for'bid, for'get, for'give.*The native nouns, however, were forestressed, and in the process of assimilation many loan nouns came to be stressed on the first syllable.

A similar phenomenon is observed in some homographic pairs of adjectives and verbs:

*'absent*a ↔ *ab'sent*v; *'frequent*a ↔ *fre'quent*v;

*'perfect*a ↔ *per'fect*v; *'abstract*a ↔ *ab'stract*v.

This stress distinction is, however, neither productive nor regular. There are many denominal verbs that are forestressed and thus homonymous with the corresponding nouns. For example, both the noun and the verb *comment*are forestressed, and so are the following words: *exile, figure, preface, quarrel, focus, process, program, triumph, rivet*and others.

There is a large group of disyllabic loan words that retain the stress on the second syllable both in verbs and nouns: *accord, account, advance, amount, approach, attack, attempt, concern, defeat, distress, escape, exclaim, research,*etc.

It is worth noting that stress alone, unaccompanied by any other differentiating factor, does not seem to provide a very effective means of distinguishing words. And this is, probably, the reason why oppositions of this kind are neither regular nor productive.

**REVISION QUESTIONS:**

1. What is the classification of compound words?

2. Can you explain what conversion is in word formation?

3. What are the types of shortening mentioned in the text?

4. What are some non-productive means of word formation discussed?

5. How does blending contribute to word formation?

6. What is back-formation and how does it work?

7. Can you elaborate on the concept of onomatopoeia as a non-productive means of word formation?

**Тема 4. The Object and Subject of Semasiology.**

**Referential and functional approaches to meaning**

**Types of word meaning: lexical, grammatical meanings.**

**Implicational meaning.**

The branch of lexicology that is devoted to the study of meaning is known as semasiology.

The school is called “academic semantics” or “pure semantics” and is a branch of symbolic or mathematical logic, originated by R. Carnap. It aims at the building of an abstract theory of relationships between signs and their referents (things meant). It is a part of semiotics – the study of signs and languages in general, including all sorts of codes, such as military signals, traffic signals, etc. Unlike linguistic semantics which deals with real languages, pure semantics has as its subject formalized language.

Thus, it has been made clear, that semantics is an inappropriate term, because having several different referents, it creates confusion. That is why the term ‘semasiology’ should be used to designate the science of meaning.

The problem of meaning is considered to be the most controversial one in the linguistic theory. There are two schools of thought in present –day linguistics representing contemporary thinking on the problem:

**1. referential approach** (founded by Ferdinand de Saussure) distinguishes between the three components connected with meaning: the sound form of the linguistic sign, the concept underlying this sound form and the actual referent, the aspect of reality to which the linguistic sign refers.

Establishing this relationship our approach to the problem of meaning is referential because we refer to the sound form, to the concept and to the referent and discuss their relationship.

This referential approach is criticized because the scholars in their theory use extra-linguistic terms such as concept, referent. Besides, approaching the problem of meaning the linguistic elements (words) are discussed in isolation from each other (from other words). So referential approach is paradigmatic. We discuss the meanings of words in a certain system. But in speech we use words in their environment and not in isolation. In this environment we define the meaning of words.

**2.** **functional approach**(L. Bloomfield) maintains that the meaning of a word may be studied only through its relation to other words.

These two approaches should not be set against each other. They should be used in peaceful combination. The examination of meaning must start by collecting an adequate number of samples of contexts. On examination of the samples the meaning will emerge from the contexts. Then it is logical to pass to the referential phase and try to formulate the meaning thus identified.

**Component elements of word meaning.**

The analysis of meaning shows that it is not homogeneous. It is made up of grammatical and lexical types of meaning.

Grammatical type of meaning is typical of word-forms and it expresses the relationship of words in speech, that is their position in the utterance, relationship with other words, their belonging to a definite part of speech. Grammatical meaning is the component of meaning recurrent in identical word-forms, common to all words of a certain class.

Comparing word-forms of one and the same word, for example: *go, goes, went*, *going, gone* we see that they possess different grammatical meanings of tense, person and so on, but in each of these forms we find one and the same semantic component denoting the process of movement. This is the lexical type of meaning of the word that is the component of meaning proper to the word, recurrent in all the forms of this word and in all the possible distributions of these forms.

Both the **lexical and the grammatical meaning** make up the word meaning as neither can exist without the other. The difference between the lexical and the grammatical components of meaning is in the way they convey the meaning.

In the semantic structure of the lexical meaning two components are singled out: 1) denotational (denotative, referential, extensional) and 2) connotational (connotative).

Denotational component expresses the conceptual content of a word. It denotes an object of the reality to which the sound form refers. It makes communication possible. People use different words and understand each other.

The connotational component comprises the emotive charge and the stylistic reference proper to the word. If we compare the following synonyms: *to look, to* *glance, to glare, to stare* we will discover that the verb *to look* is common semantic denominator. It expresses denotative meaning. And this type of meaning is felt in all other synonyms, but each of the synonyms possesses connotational type of meaning which describes the way we look at other people and by this look we express our attitude to people.

Connotational component may have an element of emotive evaluation. For example, in the words *tremendous, worship*, and *girlie* it is heavier than that of the words *large, like* and *girl*. And this does not depend on the “feeling” of the individual speaker but it is true for all speakers of English.

Connotational component may have also stylistic reference.

Thus, connotations may be expressive, emotive, evaluatory and stylistic.

**The expressive function of the language** (the speaker's feelings) and the pragmatic function (the effect of words upon listeners) are rendered in connotations. Unlike the de-notative meaning, connotations are optional.

Connotation differs from the implicational meaning of the word. **Implicational meaning** is the implied information associated with the word, with what the speakers know about the referent. A wolf is known to be greedy and cruel (implicational meaning) but the denota-tive meaning of this word does not include these features. The denotative or the intentional meaning of the word wolf is "a wild animal resembling a dog that kills sheep and sometimes even attacks men". Its figurative meaning is derived from implied information, from what we know about wolves - "a cruel greedy person", also the adjective wolfish means "greedy".

**REVISION QUESTIONS:**

1. What is the branch of lexicology that focuses on the study of meaning called?

2. How does pure semantics differ from linguistic semantics?

3. What are the two schools of thought in present-day linguistics regarding the problem of meaning?

4. Why is the referential approach criticized in linguistic theory?

5. According to the functional approach, how should the meaning of a word be studied?

6. What are the component elements of word meaning discussed in the text?

**Тема 5. Polysemy.**

**Synchronic and diachronic approaches to polysemy.**

**Diachronic and synchronic change of meaning.**

A word having several meanings is called **polysemantic**.The ability of words to have more than one meaning is **polysemy**. Most English words are polysemantic.

The wealth of expressive resources of a language largely depends on the degree to which polysemy has developed in the language. The process of enriching the vocabulary does not consist merely in adding new words to it, but, also, in the constant development of polysemy.

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 oust some of them. So the complicated processes of polysemy development involve both the appearance of new meanings and the loss of old ones.

When analyzing the semantic structure of a polysemantic word, it is necessary to distinguish between two levels of analysis. On the first level, the semantic structure of a word is treated as a system of meanings.

E. g. In the system of meanings of the adjective *dull*it ishard to find a **generalized** meaning covering and holding together the rest of the semantic structure.

* ***Dull, adj.***
* 1. Uninteresting, monotonous, boring; e. g. *a dull book, a dull film.*
* 2. Slow in understanding, stupid; e. g. *a dull pupil*
* 3. Not clear or bright; e. g. *dull weather, a dull day,a dull colour.*
* 4. Not loud or distinct; e. g. *a dull sound.*
* 5. Not sharp, e. g. *a dull knife.*
* 6. Not active, e. g. *Trade is dull.*
* *7.* Seeing badly, e. g. *dull eyes*(arch.).
* 8. Hearing badly, e. g. *dull ears*(arch.).

These seemingly miscellaneous meanings have something in common. It is the implication of deficiency, be it of colour (meaning 3), wits (meaning 2), interest (meaning 1), sharpness (meaning 5), etc. The implication of insufficient quality, of something lacking, can be clearly distinguished in each separate meaning. The centre holding together the complex semantic structure of this word is not one of the meanings but a certain componentthat can be easily singled out within each separate meaning. Each separate meaning is subject to structural analysis in which it may be represented as **sets of semantic components.**

The meaning of a word is defined as a set of elements of meaning which are not part of the vocabulary of the language itself, but rather theoretical elements, used to describe the semantic relations between the lexical elements of a given language.

The scheme of the semantic structure of the adjective *dull*shows that the semantic structure of a word is not a mere system of meanings, but each separate meaning is subject to further subdivision and possesses an inner structure of its own. Therefore, the semantic structure of a word should be investigated at both levels:

* a) of different meanings,
* b) of semantic components within each separate meaning.

The leading semantic component in the semantic structure of a word is called denotative component / referential component.The denotative component expresses the conceptual content of a word.

One of the most important "drawbacks" of polysemantic words is that there is sometimes a chance of misunderstanding when a word is used in a certain meaning but accepted by a listener or reader in another.

* *E.g. C u s t o m e r . I would like a book, please.*
* *B o o k s e l l e r . Something light?*
* *C u s t o m e r . That doesn't matter. I have my car with me.*

**Context** is a powerful preventative against any misunderstanding of meanings. For instance, the adjective *dull,*if used out of context, would mean different things to different people or nothing at all. It is only in combination with other words that it reveals its actual meaning:

* e.g.*a dull pupil, a dull play, a dull razor-blade, dull weather,*etc.
* One of the methods of studying the semantic structure of a word is by examining the word's linear relationships with other words in typical contexts, i.e. its **combinability**.

**Synchronic and diachronic approach to polysemy**

Semantic structure of a word is not stable and may be different at different periods of language development. That’s why a word’s semantic structure is studied either synchronically, at a certain period of time, or diachronically, in the process of its historical development.

**Synchronic approach**

**The synchronic approach**to a word’s semantic structure aims to register various meanings of polysemantic words, their value and character of their relations.

The meaning that first comes to our mind or is understood without special context , the one that can be representative of the whole semantic structure of a word, is called the **basic, central or major**meaning; it is placed first in the synchronical dictionaries. Other meanings are called **peripheral**or **minor.**

**Diachronic approach**

If semantic structure is viewed **diachronically,**then its historical development, change of meaning becomes central.

The meaning first registered in the language is called **primary** and is placed first in the historical dictionaries. Other meanings are **secondary, derived**and are placed after the primary one.

Due to historical changeability of semantic structure, the primary meaning of a word may disappear in the course of time or may not be the most representative for the whole structure or one of the secondary meanings may become major\ central. For example, the primary meaning of the adjective **sweet**was “pleasant to the taste” and the meaning “one of the four basic sensations, like that of sugar” was its derivative, while in modern English the latter has become central and now is placed first in dictionaries

With regard to Special lexicology the synchronic approach is concerned with the vocabulary of a language as it exists at a given time. It's Special Descriptive lexicology that deals with the vocabulary & vocabulary units of a particular language at a certain time.

The diachronic approach in terms of Special lexicology deals with the changes in the development of vocabulary in the coarse of time. It is Special Historical lexicology that deals with the evaluation of the vocabulary units of a language as the time goes by.

The two approaches shouldn't be set one against the other. In fact, they are interconnected & interrelated because every linguistic structure & system exists in a state of constant development so that the synchronic state of a language system is a result of a long process of linguistic evaluation, of its historical development.

Closely connected with the Historical lexicology is Contrastive & Comparative lexicology whose aims are to study the correlation between the vocabularies of two or more languages & find out the correspondences between the vocabulary units of the languages under comparison. Lexicology studies various lexical units. They are: morphemes, words, variable word-groups & phraseological units. We proceed from the assumption that theword is the basic unit of the language system, the largest on morphological & the smallest on syntactic plane of linguistic analyses. The word is a structural & semantic entity within the language system. The word as well as any linguistic sign is a two-faced unit possessing both form & content or, to be more exact, sound-form & meaning.

When used in actual speech the word undergoes certain modification & functions in one of its forms. The system showing a word in all its word-forms is called a paradigm. The lexical meaning of a word is the same throughout the paradigm. The grammatical meaning varies from one form to another. Therefore when we speak on any word as used in actual speech we use the term “word" conventionally because what is manifested in the utterances is not a word as a whole but one of its forms which is identified as belonging to the definite paradigm. Words as a whole are to be found in the dictionary (showing the paradigm n - noun, v - verb, etc). There are two approaches to the paradigm: as a system of forms of one word revealing the differences & the relationships between them. There are also phonetic & morphological variants.

e. g. “often” can be pronounced in two ways, though the sound-form is slightly changed, the meaning remains unchangeable. We can build the forms of the word “to dream" in different ways:

*to dream - dreamt – dreamt* forms variants of words are identified in the process of communication as making up one & the same word.

**REVISION QUESTIONS:**

1. What is polysemy?

2. How does the development of polysemy contribute to the richness of a language?

3. How do new meanings develop in the system of meanings for a polysemantic word?

4. Why is it necessary to distinguish between two levels of analysis when examining the semantic structure of a polysemantic word?

5. What is the denotative component in the semantic structure of a word?

6. How can context prevent misunderstandings when using polysemantic words?

7. What are the differences between synchronic and diachronic approaches to studying polysemy?

**Тема 6. Context.**

**Types of context.**

**Grammatical and lexical context.**

**Meaning and Context**

(In the beginning) One of the most important “drawbacks” of polysemantic words is that there is sometimes a chance of misunderstanding when a word is used in a certain meaning but accepted by a listener or reader in another. It is only natural that such cases provide stuff of which jokes are made, such as the ones that follow.

*Customer.* I would like a book, please.

*Bookseller.* Something light?

*Customer.* That doesn’t matter. I have my car with me.

In the conversation the customer is honestly misled by the polysemy of the adjective light taking it in the literal sense whereas the bookseller uses the word in its figurative meaning “not serious”, “entertaining”.

Generally speaking , it is common knowledge that context is a powerful preventative against any misunderstanding of meanings. For instance, the adjective dull, if used out of context, would mean different things to different people or nothing at all. It is only in combination with other words that it reveals its actual meaning: *a dull pupil, a dull play, a dull razor blade, dull weather, etc.*Sometimes, however, such a minimum context fails to reveal the meaning of the word, and it may be correctly interpreted only through a second degree context, as in the following example: *The man was large, but his wife was even fatter.*The word *fatter*here serves as a kind of indicator pointing that *large*describes a stout man and not a big one.

Semantic structure of a word depends upon the word’s relationships with other words in typical contexts.

Current research in semantics is largely based on the assumption that one of the more promising methods of investigating the semantic structure of a word is by studying the word's linear relationships with other words in typical contexts, i.e. its combinability or collocability.

Scholars have established that the semantics of words characterised by common occurrences (i.e. words which regularly appear in common contexts) are correlated and, there-fore, one of the words within such a pair can be studied through the other.

Thus, if one intends to investigate the semantic structure of an adjective, one would best consider the adjective in its most typical syntactical pattern A+N. For instance, a study of typical contexts of the adjective bright in the pattern will give us the following sets:

* *bright colour (flower, dress, silk, etc.).*
* *bright metal (gold, jewels, armour, etc.),*
* *bright student (pupil, boy, fellow, etc.),*
* *bright face (smile, eyes, etc.) and some others.*

These sets will lead us to singling out the meanings of the adjective related to each set of combinations:

* *intensive in colour,*
* *shining,*
* *capable,*
* *gay, etc.*

The task of distinguishing between the different meanings of a word and the different variations of combinability (or, in a traditional terminology, different usages of the word) is actually a question of singling out the different denotations within the semantic structure of the word. Cf.:

*a sad woman,*

*a sad voice,*

*a sad story,*

*a sad scoundrel (= an incorrigible scoundrel)*

*a sad night (= a dark, black night, arch, poet.)*

By the term context we understand the minimal stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word. The context individualises the meanings, brings them out.

The two main types of linguistic contexts which serve to determine individual meanings of words are the lexical context and the grammatical context. These types are differentiated depending on whether the lexical or the grammatical aspect is predominant in determining the meaning.



*1) I made Peter study;*

*He made her laugh;*

*They made him work (sing, dance, write...)*

*2) My friend made a goodteacher. He made a good husband*

In the pattern to make + N(r) + V inf the word make has the meaning "to force", and o in the pattern to make + A +N it has the meaning "to turn out to be". Here the grammatical context helps to determine the meaning of the word "to make".

So, linguistic (verbal) contexts comprise lexical and grammatical contexts. They are opposed to extra linguistic contexts (non-verbal). In extra-linguistic contexts the meaning of the word is determined not only by linguistic factors but also by the actual situation in which the word is used.

Most scholars distinguish between the terms **development of meaning**(when a new meaning and the one on the basis of which it is formed coexist in the semantic structure of the word, as in *mill, carriage,*etc.) and **change of meaning**(when the old meaning is completely replaced by the new one, as in the noun *meat*which in Old English had the general meaning of “food” but in Modern English is no longer used in that sense and has instead developed the meaning “flesh of animals used as a food product”).

The first group of causes of development of new meanings is traditionally termed **historical**or **extra-linguistic.**

Different kinds of changes in a nation's social life, in its culture, knowledge, technology, arts lead to gaps appearing in the vocabulary which beg to be filled. Newly created objects, new concepts and phenomena must be named. Languages are powerfully affected by social, political, economic, cultural and technical change. The influence of those factors upon linguistic phenomena is studied by sociolinguistics. It shows that social factors can influence even structural features of linguistic units: terms of science, for instance, have a number of specific features as compared to words used in other spheres of human activity.

We already know of two ways for providing new names for newly created concepts: making new words (word-building) and borrowing foreign ones. **One more way of filling such vocabulary gaps is by applying some old word to a new object or notion.**

The word being a linguistic realisation of notion, it changes with the progress of human consciousness. This process is reflected in the development of lexical meaning. As the human mind achieves an ever more exact understanding of the world of reality and the objective relationships that characterise it, the notions become more and more exact reflections of real things. The history of the social, economic and political life of the people, the progress of culture and science bring about changes in notions and things influencing the semantic aspect of language. For instance, The word *space*meant “extent of time or distance” or “intervening distance”. Alongside this meaning a new meaning developed “the limitless and indefinitely great expanse in which all material objects are located”. The phrase *outer space*was quickly ellipted into *space.*Cf. *spacecraft, space-suit, space travel,*etc.

The extra-linguistic motivation is sometimes obvious, but some cases are not as straightforward as they may look. The word *bikini*may be taken as an example. Bikini, a very scanty two-piece bathing suit worn by women, is named after Bikini atoll in the Western Pacific but not because it was first introduced on some fashionable beach there. Bikini appeared at the time when the atomic bomb tests by the US in the Bikini atoll were fresh in everybody’s memory. The associative field is emotional referring to the “atomic” shock the first bikinis produced.

The tendency to use technical imagery is increasing in every language, thus the expression *to spark off in chain reaction*is almost international. *Live wire*“one carrying electric current” used figuratively about a person of intense energy seems purely English, though.

Other international expressions are *black box*and *feed-back. Black box*formerly a term of aviation and electrical engineering is now used figuratively to denote any mechanism performing intricate functions or any unit of which we know the effect but not the components or principles of action.

*Feed-back*a cybernetic term meaning “the return of a sample of the output of a system or process to the input, especially with the purpose of automatic adjustment and control” is now widely used figuratively meaning “response”.

When the first textile factories appeared in England, the old word *mill*was applied to these early industrial enterprises. In this way, *mill*(a Latin borrowing of the first century В. С.) added a new meaning to its former meaning “a building in which corn is ground into flour”. The new meaning was “textile factory”.

A similar case is the word *carriage*which had (and still has) the meaning “a vehicle drawn by horses”, but, with the first appearance of railways in England, it received a new meaning, that of “a railway car”.

The history of English nouns describing different parts of a theatre may also serve as a good illustration of how well-established words can be used to denote newly-created objects and phenomena. The words *stalls, box, pit, circle*had existed for a long time before the first theatres appeared in England. With their appearance, the gaps in the vocabulary were easily filled by these widely used words which, as a result, developed new meanings. It is of some interest to note that the Ukrainian language found a different way of filling the same gap: in Ukrainian, all the parts of the theatre are named by borrowed words: *партер, ложа, амфітеатр, бельєтаж.*

The changes of notions and things named go hand in hand. They are conditioned by changes in the economic, social, political and cultural history of the people, so that the extralinguistic causes of semantic change might be conveniently subdivided in accordance with these. Social relationships are at work in the cases of elevation and pejoration of meaning where the attitude of the upper classes to their social inferiors determined the strengthening of emotional tone among the semantic components of the word.

Sociolinguistics also teaches that power relationships are reflected in vocabulary changes. In all the cases of pejoration such as *boor, churl, villain,*etc., it was the ruling class that imposed evaluation. The opposite is rarely the case. One example deserves attention though: *sir +* *-ly*used to mean “masterful” and now *sirly*means “rude in a bad-tempered way”.

**New meanings can also be developed due to linguistic factors (the second group of causes).**

Linguistically speaking, the development of new meanings, and also a complete change of meaning, may be caused through the influence of other words, mostly of synonyms.

**steorfan***Old Eng*. ― to perish ↔ **to die** *Scandinavian borrowing*

**to starve** → to die (or suffer) from hunger.

**deor***Old Eng.* ― any beast ↔ animal *borrowed word*

**deer** → a certain kind of beast (UA. *олень*)*.*

The noun *knave*(О. Е. *knafa)*suffered an even more striking change of meaning as a result of collision with its synonym *boy.*Now it has a pronounced negative evaluative connotation and means “swindler, scoundrel”.

Why was it that the word *mill*— and not some other word — was selected to denote the first textile factories? There must have been some connection between the former sense of *mill*and the new phenomenon to which it was applied. And there *was*apparently such a connection. Mills which produced flour, were mainly driven by water. The textile factories also firstly used water power. So, in general terms, the meanings of *mill,*both the old and the new one, could be defined as “an establishment using water power to produce certain goods”. Thus, the first textile factories were easily associated with mills producing flour, and the new meaning of *mill*appeared due to this association. In actual fact, all cases of development or change of meaning are based on some association. In the history of the word *carriage,*the new travelling conveyance was also naturally associated in people's minds with the old one: horse-drawn vehicle → part of a railway train. Both these objects were related to the idea of travelling. The job of both, the horse-drawn carriage and the railway carriage, is the same: to carry passengers on a journey. So the association was logically well-founded.

*Stalls*and *box*formed their meanings in which they denoted parts of the theatre on the basis of a different type of association. The meaning of the word *box*"a small separate enclosure forming a part of the theatre" developed on the basis of its former meaning "a rectangular container used for packing or storing things". The two objects became associated in the speakers' minds because boxes in the earliest English theatres really resembled packing cases. They were enclosed on all sides and heavily curtained even on the side facing the audience so as to conceal the privileged spectators occupying them from curious or insolent stares.

The association on which the theatrical meaning of *stalls*was based is even more curious. The original meaning was “compartments in stables or sheds for the accommodation of animals (e. g. *cows, horses,*etc.)”. There does not seem to be much in common between the privileged and expensive part of a theatre and stables intended for cows and horses, unless we take into consideration the fact that theatres in olden times greatly differed from what they are now. What is now known as the *stalls*was, at that time, standing space divided by barriers into sections so as to prevent the enthusiastic crowd from knocking one other down and hurting themselves. So, there must have been a certain outward resemblance between theatre stalls and cattle stalls. It is also possible that the word was first used humorously or satirically in this new sense.

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

Some scholars mistakenly use the term **transference of meaning**which is a serious mistake. It is very important to note that in any case of semantic change it is not the meaning but the word that is being transferred from one referent onto another (e. g. from a horse-drawn vehicle onto a railway car). The result of such a transference is the appearance of a new meaning.

**REVISION QUESTIONS:**

1. How can polysemantic words lead to misunderstandings in communication?

2. Why is context considered a powerful tool to prevent misunderstandings of word meanings?

3. What method do scholars use to investigate the semantic structure of a word?

4. How does studying typical contexts of an adjective help in understanding its meaning?

5. What is the difference between development of meaning and change of meaning in semantics?

6. How do linguistic (verbal) contexts differ from extra-linguistic contexts in determining word meanings?

7. What factors contribute to the development of new meanings in language according to the text?

8. What is the cybernetic term "feedback" used to describe?

9. How did the word "mill" acquire a new meaning in relation to textile factories?

10. In what way did the word "carriage" change its meaning with the advent of railways?

12. How were English nouns related to parts of a theater repurposed for newly-created objects and phenomena?

13. What extralinguistic causes can lead to semantic changes in words?

14. How do social relationships influence the elevation or pejoration of word meanings?

15. Why was the word "mill" chosen to denote the first textile factories?

**Тема 7. Causes of development of new meanings.**

**Change of meaning.**

**Broadening (or Generalisation) of meaning.**

**Narrowing (or Specialisation) of meaning.**

**Metaphor.**

**Metonomy.**



Sometimes, the process of transference may result in a considerable change in 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 its combinability and developed the general meaning “to come” (e.g. *to arrive in a village, town, city, country, at a hotel, hostel, college, theatre, place,*etc.). The meaning developed through transference based on contiguity (the concept of coming somewhere is the same for both meanings), but the range of the second meaning is much broader.

**Extension (widening of meaning)**is the extension of semantic capacity of a word, i.e. the expansion of polysemy in the course of its historical development, e.g. *manuscript*originally “smth hand-written”.

Another example of the broadening of meaning is *pipe.*Its earliest recorded meaning was “a musical wind instrument”. Nowadays it can denote any hollow oblong cylindrical body (e. g. *water pipes).*This meaning developed through transference based on the similarity of shape (pipe as a musical instrument is also a hollow oblong cylindrical object) which finally led to a considerable broadening of the range of meaning.

The word *bird*changed its meaning from “the young of a bird’ to its modern meaning through transference based on contiguity (the association is obvious). The second meaning is broader and more general.

It is interesting to trace the history of the word *girl*as an example of the changes in the range of meaning in the course of the semantic development of a word.

In Middle English it had the 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 somewhat 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, any young woman, and in modern colloquial English it is practically synonymous to the noun *woman*(e.g. *The old girl must be at least seventy),*so that its range of meaning is quite broad. Cf. UA *стріла*n.*→ стріляти v*originally meant *пускати стрілу з лука,* theword gradually broadened its range of meaning to *стріляти* *із будь-якої зброї, що вражає на відстані (з гвинтівки, пістолета чи пушки).*

**Narrowing of meaning**is the restriction of the semantic capacity of a word in the historical development, e.g. in Old English the word (ОЕ hlǽfdize) denoted the mistress of the house, i. e. any married woman. Later, a new meaning developed which was much narrower in range: “the wife or daughter of a baronet” (aristocratic title). In Modern English the word *lady*can be applied to any woman, so that its range of meaning is even broader than that of the OE hlǽfdize. In Modern English the difference between *girl*and *lady*in the meaning of *woman*is that the first is used in colloquial style and sounds familiar whereas the second is more formal and polite.

Here are some more examples of narrowing of meaning:

*Deer:*any beast → a certain kind of beast

*Meat:*any food → a certain food product

*Boy:* any young person of the male sex → servant of the male sex

It should be pointed out once more that in all these words the second meaning developed through transference based on contiguity, and that when we speak of them as examples of narrowing of meaning we simply imply that the range of the second meaning is more narrow than that of the original meaning.

**Metaphor**is the transfer of name based on the association of similarity. It is the application of a name or a descriptive term to an object to which it is not literally applicable, e.g. *head of an army, eye of a needle.*

This type of transference is also referred to as **linguistic metaphor.**A new meaning appears as a result of associating two objects (phenomena, qualities, etc.) due to their outward similarity. *Box*and *stall* are examples of this type of transference.

Other examples can be given in which transference is also based on the association of two physical objects. The noun *eye,*for instance, has for one of its meanings “hole in the end of a needle” (cf. with the U.вушко голки*),*which also developed through transference based on resemblance. A similar case is represented by *the neck of a bottle.*

The noun *drop*(mostly in the plural form) 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).*It is quite obvious that both these meanings are also based on resemblance. In the compound word *snowdrop*the meaning of the second constituent underwent the same shift of meaning (also, in *bluebell).*In general, metaphorical change of meaning is often observed in idiomatic compounds.

The main meaning of the noun *branch*is “limb or subdivision of a tree or bush”. On the basis of this meaning it developed several more. One of them is “a special field of science or art” (as in *a branch of linguistics).*This meaning brings us into the sphere of the abstract, and shows that **in transference based on resemblance an association may be built not only between two physical objects, but also between a concrete object and an abstract concept.**

The noun *bar*from the original meaning *barrier*developed a figurative meaning realised in such contexts as *social bars, colour bar, racial bar.*Here, again, as in the abstract meaning of *branch,*a concrete object is associated with an abstract concept.

The noun *star*on the basis of the meaning “heavenly body” developed the meaning “famous actor or actress”. Nowadays the meaning has considerably widened its range, and the word is applied not only to screen idols (as it was at first), but, also, to popular sportsmen (e. g. *football, stars),*pop-singers, etc. Of course, the first use of the word *star*to denote a popular actor must have been humorous or ironical: the mental picture created by the use of the word in this new meaning was a kind of semi-god surrounded by the bright rays of his glory. Yet, very soon the ironical colouring was lost, and, furthermore the association with the original meaning considerably weakened and is gradually erased.

The meanings formed through this type of transference are frequently found in the informal strata of the vocabulary, especially in slang. A red-headed boy is almost certain to be nicknamed *carrot*or *ginger*byhis schoolmates, and the one who is given to spying and sneaking gets the derogatory nickname of *rat.*Both these meanings are metaphorical, though, of course, the children using them are quite unconscious of this fact.

The slang meanings of words such as nut, onion (= head), saucers (= eyes), hoofs (= feet) and very many others were all formed by transference based on resemblance.

The transfer of name based on the association of similarity are often similar in Ukrainian and in English. Cf. *head; cold*:

Do you see the picture behind me on the wall above my *head*? (Burgess).

He spoke many languages, and was a personal friend of many *heads*of state (Vonnegut).

The window was open an inch or two, so she could get the fresh *cold* air (Sandford)

His tone was unmistakably *cold* and sarcastic (Fowles).

“Now I go to my other wife, the *cold*, heartless one that owns my soul.” Ramius paused. The smile vanished. “My only wife, now.” (Clancy).

UA. голова людини → голова зборів, голова правління;

холодний чай → холодний погляд;

The transfer of name based on the association of similarity of nouns has the pattern animal → human being:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **English** | **Ukrainian** |
| **fox**- a cunning or crafty person.**sheep** - a meek, unimaginative, or easily led person.**dog**- an ugly, boring, or crude person. | **лис**- хитрун, лукавець.**вівця**- покірна, ляклива людина.**пес**- погана, негідна людина, посіпака, вислуга. |

Verbs denoting animal cries are used metaphorically with reference to human beings:

**bark *−***(of a dog or other animal) 1. to utter an abrupt, explosive cry

2. to speak or cry out sharply or gruffly: *a man who barks at his children*(UA *гавкати*)

He reached for the ignition, then stopped and issued several hard *barks*of laughter: “Ha! Ha! Ha! Ha!” (King).

***cackle***- 1. to utter a shrill, broken sound or cry, as of a hen.

2. to chatter noisily; prattle, (UA *кудкудакати*)

He would *cackle*with laughter and caper, if any jest was made, or even if Frodo spoke kindly to him, and weep if Frodo rebuked him. (Tolkien).

**Metonymy**is the transfer of name based on the association of contiguity. It is a universal device in which the name of one thing is changed for that of another, to which it isrelated by association of ideas, as having close relationship to one another, e.g. *the chair*may mean “the chairman”, *the bar − “*the lawyers”.

Another term for this type of transference is **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; or they may be associated on the principle of cause and effect, of common function, of some material and an object which is made of it, etc.

Let us consider some cases of transference based on contiguity. The Old English adjective *glad*meant “bright, shining” (it was applied to the sun, to gold and precious stones, to shining armour, etc.). The later (and more modern) meaning “joyful” developed on the basis of the usual association (which is reflected in most languages) of light with joy*.*

The meaning of the adjective *sad*in Old English was “satisfied with food” (cf. with the UA. *ситий)*which is a word of the same Indo-European root). 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 adjective *sad*developed a negative evaluative connotation and now describes not a happy state of satisfaction but, on the contrary, the physical unease and discomfort of a person who has had too much to eat. The next shift of meaning was to transform the description of physical discomfort into one of spiritual discontent because these two states often go together. It was from this prosaic source that the modern meaning of *sad “*melancholy”, “sorrowful” developed, and the adjective describes now a purely emotional state. The two previous meanings (“satisfied with food” and “having eaten too much”) were ousted from the semantic structure of the word long ago.

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 when one is setting in the chair, so that the type of association here is the same as in *the foot of a bed.*The *leg*of a bed (table, chair, etc.), though, is the part which serves as a support, the original meaning being “the leg of a man or animal”. The association that lies behind this development of meaning is the common function: a piece of furniture is supported by its legs just as living beings are supported by theirs.

The meaning of the noun *hand*realised in the context *hand of a clock (watch)*originates from the main meaning of this noun “part of human body”. It also developed due to the association of the common function: the hand of a clock points to the figures on the face of the clock, and one of the functions of human hand is also that of pointing to things.

Another meaning of *hand*realised in such contexts as *factory hands, farm hands*is based on another kind of association: strong, skilful hands are the most important feature that is required of a person engaged in physical labour (cf. with theUA. *роботящі/працьовиті руки).*

The adjective *dull*developed its meaning “not clear or bright” (as in *a dull green colour; dull light; dull shapes)*on the basis of the former meaning “deficient in eyesight”, and its meaning “not loud or distinct” (as in *dull sounds)*on the basis of the older meaning “deficient in hearing”. The association here was obviously that of cause and effect: to a person with weak eyesight all colours appear pale, and all shapes blurred; to a person with deficient hearing all sounds are indistinct.

The main (and oldest registered) meaning of the noun *board*was “a flat and thin piece of wood; a wooden plank”. On the basis of this meaning developed the meaning “table” which is now archaic. The association which underlay this semantic shift was that of the material and the object made from it: a wooden plank (or several planks) is an essential part of any table. This type of association is often found with nouns denoting clothes: e. g. a *taffeta*(“dress made of taffeta”); *a mink*(“mink coat”), a *jersy*(“knitted shirt or sweater”).

Meanings produced through transference based on contiguity sometimes originate from geographical or proper names. *China*in the sense of “dishes made of porcelain” originated from the name of the country which was believed to be the birthplace of porcelain.

*Tweed −*a coarse wool cloth got its name from the river Tweed and *cheviot*(another kind of wool cloth) from the Cheviot hills in England.

The name of a painter is frequently transferred onto one of his pictures: *a Matisse — a painting by Matisse.*

Consider the following examples:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **English** | **Ukrainian** |
| From her *cradle*she was self-willed; the very circumstances of her life had developed that self-will in her (Christie)*Hospitals*robbed everyone of dignity, but life was more important than dignity, wasn't it? (Clancy).“Hey, the *White House says*it's okay, that means that it's really okay.”(Clancy). | До цього ж закликав *Дитячий фонд*ООН (ЮНІСЕФ) (ПІК № 12 2003)*Банкова*тим часом різко понизила прем'єрські шанси стати головним претендентом на перемогу на виборах-2004 (ПІК №16-17 2003).вона вся *в золоті.**міліція*шукає злочинця |

**REVISION QUESTIONS:**

1. How has the meaning of the verb "to arrive" changed over time in English?

2. What is extension (widening of meaning) in terms of semantic development of a word?

3. Can you provide an example of broadening of meaning through transference based on similarity?

4. Explain how the word "bird" underwent a change in its meaning from its original definition.

5. Describe the historical development of the word "girl" and how its range of meaning evolved.

6. Provide an example of narrowing of meaning in the semantic development of a word.

7. What is metaphor in terms of transference of name, and can you give an example?

8. What is metonymy?

10. How does linguistic metonymy work?

11. How did the meaning of the adjective "glad" change over time?

12. Explain how the meaning of the adjective "sad" evolved.

13. Describe the association behind the development of the term "foot of a mountain."

14. What type of association led to the development of the term "leg of a bed"?

15. Provide an example of a meaning produced through transference based on geographical names.

**Тема 8. English vocabulary as a system**

**Synonyms. Types of synonyms. Sources of synonymy.**

**Homonyms. Types of homonyms. Differentiation of polysemantic words and full lexical homonyms.**

**Antonyms. Morphological and semantic classification of antonyms.**

Synonyms can be defined as two or more words of the same language, belonging to the same part of speech and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical denotational meanings, interchangeable, at least in some contexts, without any considerable alternation in denotational meaning, but different in morphemic composition, phonemic shape, shades of meaning, connotations, affective value, style, emotional coloring and valency.

This definition describes the notion **"synonymy"**, gives some criteria of synonymy (identity of meaning, interchangeability), shows some difference in connotation, emotive coloring, style, etc. But this descriptive definition as well as many others has the main drawbacks - there are no objective criteria of "identity" or "similarity" or sameness of meaning. They all are based on the linguistic intuitions of the scholars.

Let’s take the following group of words: hope, expectation, anticipation. They are synonyms because they all three mean “having something in mind which is likely to happen”. But they have different shades of meaning. The stylistic difference is also quite marked. Moreover, they differ in idiomatic usage.

Each synonymic group comprises a dominant element. The synonymic dominant is the most general term containing the specific features rendered by all other members of the group. In a great number of cases the semantic difference between two or more synonyms is supported by the difference in valency.

Classification of Synonyms

Philologist A.I. Smirnitsky suggested the classification of synonyms into 3 types:

1. Ideographic synonyms - words conveying the same notion but differing in shades of meaning: to understand - to realize

2. Stylistic - words differing only in stylistic characteristics: enemy - opponent - foe - adversary

3. Absolute - words coinciding in all their shades of meaning and in all their stylistic characteristics: pilot - airman — flyer – flyingman; screenwriter - scriptwriter – scripter, semasiology – semantics.

Sources of synonymy

Borrowing. Synonymy has its characteristic patterns in each language. Its peculiar feature in English is the contrast between simple native words stylistically neutral, literary words borrowed from French and learned words of Greco-Latin origin (to ask - to question - to interrogate)

The second source that has made increasing contributions to the stock of English synonyms is dialects (radio (Am) – wireless (Br), gimmick (Am) – trick (Br), dues (Am) – subscription (Br).

Synonyms are also created by means of all word-forming processes productive in the language at a given by time of its history. New words may be formed by affixation or loss of affixes, conversation, compounding, shortening and so on. For example, effectivity – effectiveness (affixation), amongst – among, await – wait (loss of affixes), commandment – command (conversation), stewardess – airman (compounding), memorandum – memo, microphone – mike, popular (song) – pop (song) (shortening).

Another source of synonymy is euphemism, in which a word of more or less pleasant connotation substitutes one that is harsh or indelicate, e.g. drunkenness – intoxication, sweat – perspiration, poor – underprivileged, naked – in one’s birthday suit, pregnant – in the family way.

**Cases of confusion with synonymy.**

The first of confusion is hyponymy, or inclusion. The synonymic dominant should not be confused with a generic term or a hyperonym. A generic term is relative. It serves as the name for the notion of the genus as distinguished from the names of the species — hyponyms. For instance, animal is a generic term as compared to the specific names wolf, dog, or mouse (which are called equonyms). Dog, in its turn, may serve a s a generic term for different breeds such as bull-dog, collie, poodle, etc. This type of paradigmatic relation is called hyponymy, or inclusion. Synonymy differs from hyponymy in being a symmetrical relation: if A is a synonym of B, then B is a synonym of A. Hyponymy is asymmetrical: if A is a hyponym of B, then B is the hyperonym of A.

Another case of confusion is lexical variation. Lexical variants, for instance, are examples of free variation in language, in so far as they are not conditioned by contextual environment but are optional with the individual speaker. E. g. northward / norward; whoever / whosoever. The variation can concern morphological or phonological features, or it may be limited to spelling. Compare weazen/weazened ‘shrivelled and dried in appearance’, an adjective used about a person’s face and looks; directly which may be pronounced [di'rektli] or [dai'rektli] and whisky with its spelling variant whiskey. Lexical variants are different from synonyms, because they are characterized by similarity in phonetical or spelling form and identity of both meaning and distribution.

Paronyms may also be confused with synonyms. Paronyms are words with similar pronunciations but different spellings and meanings. For example: accept – verb – ‘to take or receive that which is offered’ - except – preposition – ‘excluding’.

And one more case of confusion with synonymy is malapropism, or the use of an incorrect word in place of a word with a similar sound, resulting in a nonsensical, often humorous utterance.

*Example: Unfortunately, my affluence over my niece is very small. (‘affluence’ instead of ‘influence’).*

## **Definition of homonyms. Classification of homonyms.**

Homonyms are words identical in sound and spelling or at least in one of these aspects, but different in their meaning and distribution. The term is derived from Greek (homos – the same, onoma – name, i.e. the same name combined with the difference of meaning.

E.g. bank: 1) a shore, a river bank; 2) a financial institution;

Ball: 1) any spherical body; 2) a large dancing party.

Homonyms exist in many languages but in English this language phenomenon is especially frequent, mostly in monosyllabic words (nearly 90 % of homonyms).

Homonyms are divided into homonyms proper (identical in both sound and spelling), e.g. ball, bank; homophones (identical in sound but different in spelling), e.g. piece-peace, knight-night, scent-sent-cent; homographs (the same in spelling but different in sound), e.g. to bow – bow, lead – to lead.

Another classification is based on the part of speech homonyms belong to. If both homonyms belong to the same part of speech, they are lexical, e.g. to read – read, knight –night, to lie – to lie. Homonyms belonging to different parts of speech are called lexico-grammatical, e.g. left – left, eye –I, knows – nose.

The third classification is based on the similarity of the paradigms (grammatical forms each homonym possesses). E.g. match-matches: match – matches, such homonyms are called full. Homonyms that coincide in one or two members (not in all members) of their paradigms are called partial. E.g. to lie- lying-lied – lied : to lie-lying- lay-lain ; left : to leave-leaving-left-left.

## **Sources of homonymy.**

There are several sources of homonymy.

1. Phonetic changes. In the course of the language development two or more words that were pronounced differently may develop identical sound form, e.g. knight-night, sea-see, write-right.
2. Borrowing. A borrowed word may duplicate in form a native word or another borrowing, e.g. write (native) – rite(Latin ritus), fair (adj, native) – fair (noun, French),bank (shore, native)-bank (institution, Italian).
3. Wordbuilding:
	1. conversion, e.g. pale-to pale, water –to water, comb-to comb;
	2. shortening, e.g. fan – fan (from fanatic), van – from vanguard and from caravan;
	3. sound imitation, e.g. bang – to bang; mew –mew- mew.
4. Splitting polysemy, e.g. board.

It is difficult to establish exact criteria by which disintegration of polysemy could be detected. The knowledge of etymology and other languages will help to supply the missing links. The imprecision of the criteria is recorded in the data of different dictionaries which often contradict each other. E.g. board is represented as two homonyms in Muller’s dictionary, as three homonyms in Arakin’s dictionary and as one polysemantic word in Hornby’s dictionary.

**Antonyms and their classification.**

Antonyms may be defined as two or more words of the same language belonging to the same part of speech and to the same semantic field, identical in style and nearly identical in distribution, associated and often used together so that their denotative meanings render contradictory or contrary notions.

Contradictory notions are mutually opposed and deny each other, e.g. alive – not dead, illiterate – not literate. Contrary notions are also mutually opposed but they are gradable, e.g. old and young are the most distant poles on the scale: young – middle-aged- elderly-old or hot-warm-cool-cold.

Classification of antonyms is based on the way they are built. Root words form absolute antonyms (having different roots), e.g. right-wrong, derivational antonyms are created by negative affixes added to the same root, e.g. happy-unhappy, helpful-helpless.

In derivational antonyms morphological motivation is clear, there is no necessity in contexts containing both members to prove the existence of derivational antonyms. The word *unsuccessful* presupposes the existence of the word *successful*. But the patterns, though typical are not universal. Morphologically similar formations may show different semantic relationships.

E.g. disappoint is not the antonym to appoint, to unman (to deprive of human qualities) is not the antonym of man (to furnish with personnel).

Another type of antonyms is contextual antonyms, i.e. words, which are contrasted in actual speech and are not opposed outside certain contexts, e.g. Some people have much to live on but little to live for. On and for are antonyms in this context.

Almost every word can have one or more synonyms. Comparatively few have antonyms.

This type of opposition is characteristic of:

1. qualitative adjectives, e.g. old – new, pretty-ugly;
2. words derived from qualitative adjectives, e.g. gladly-sadly, gladness-sadness;
3. words denoting feelings or states, e.g. triumph-disaster, hope-despair, love-hatred;
4. words denoting direction, e.g. to and from, hither and thither;
5. words denoting position in space and time, e.g. far-near, over-under, late-early, day-night.

Polysemantic words may have different antonyms when used in different meanings, e.g.

short –long (a long story, a short story), short- tall (a short man, a tall man), short- civil (to be short with somebody, to be civil with somebody).

Polysemantic words may have antonyms in some of their meanings and no antonyms in the others, e.g. criticism (blame) – praise, criticism (literary critical essay) – (no antonym).

One more type of semantic opposition is conversives. They denote one and the same referent or situation as viewed from different sides, with a reversed order of participants and their roles, e.g. buy-sell, give-receive, parent-child. Conversive relations are possible within one word, e.g. to sell: He sells books. This book sells well. The same pair of words may function as antonyms or as conversives, e.g. fathers and sons.

**REVISION QUESTIONS:**

1. What are the main drawbacks of descriptive definitions of synonyms?

2. How did Philologist A.I. Smirnitsky classify synonyms?

3. What are the sources of synonymy in English?

4. How does hyponymy differ from synonymy?

5. What is lexical variation and how does it differ from synonyms?

6. What is the definition of homonyms and how are they classified?

7. How are antonyms defined and what is their classification?

**Тема 9. Free word groups.**

**Definition.**

**Classifications.**

**Valency. Grammatical and lexical valency.**

## **Free word-groups. Definition. Classifications.**

A word-group is a combination of at least two meaningful words joined together according to the rules of a particular language.

Words in word-groups are not “free” because their syntagmatic relationships are governed, restricted and regulated, on the one hand, by requirements of logic and common sense and, on the other, by the rules of grammar and combinability.

Distribution is the range of positions in which a linguistic unit can occur, e.g. the noun *issue* can appear in various combinations:

Adj. + *issue*: *burning, central, critical, crucial, key, vital; controversial, difficult, thorny; economic, moral, political, social, technical, theoretical*;

V. + *issue*: *raise; debate, discuss; decide, settle; address, consider, deal with, examine; clarify; focus on; highlight; avoid, evade*.

Semantic combinability of words is based on the meanings of words. It is conditioned by the nature of the denotata of words, i.e. it reflects the connections, relations and associations between objects, properties or events in reality. Semantic links between the combining words serve as a basis for free word-groups.

Semantic agreement is the presence of common semantic features (semes) and the absence of contradictory semantic features in the combining words; it is the basic law of semantic combinability. Consider the example below:

*\*The yellow idea cut the tree.*

*\*Colourless green ideas sleep furiously.*

The appearance of words in a certain syntagmatic succession with particular logical, semantic, morphological and syntactic relations is called collocability or valency.

Valency is viewed as an aptness or potential of a word to have relations with other words in language. Valency can be grammatical and lexical.

Collocability is an actual use of words in particular word-groups in communication.

**Grammatical and lexical valency. Grammatical and lexical context.**

Lexical valency is the aptness of a word to appear in various collocations, i.e. in combinations with other words. The lexical valency of correlated words in different languages is not identical. Both the E. *plant* and Ukr. *рослина*may be combined with a number of words denoting the place where the flowers are grown, e.g. *garden plants*, *hot-house flowers*, etc. (cf. Ukr. *садові рослини, оранжерейні рослини,*etc.). The English word, however, cannot enter into combination with the word *room* to denote plants growing in the rooms (cf. *pot plants* — *кімнатні рослини).*

The interrelation of lexical valency and polysemy:

the restrictions of lexical valency of words may manifest themselves in the lexical meanings of the polysemantic members of word-groups, e.g. *heavy*, adj. in the meaning ‘rich and difficult to digest’ is combined with the words *food, meals, supper*, etc., but one cannot say \**heavy cheese* or \**heavy sausage*;

different meanings of a word may be described through its lexical valency, e.g. the different meanings of *heavy*, adj. may be described through the word-groups *heavy weight* / *book* / *table*; *heavy snow* / *storm*/*rain*; *heavy drinker* / eater; *heavy sleep* / *disappointment*/ *sorrow*; *heavy industry* / *tanks*, and so on.

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

Grammatical valency is the aptness of a word to appear in specific grammatical (or rather syntactic) structures. Its range is delimited by the part of speech the word belongs to. This is not to imply that grammatical valency of words belonging to the same part of speech is necessarily identical, e.g.

the verbs *suggest* and *propose* can be followed by a noun (*to propose* or *suggest a plan*/ *a resolution*); however, it is only *propose* that can be followed by the infinitive of a verb (*to propose to do smth*.);

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

The individual meanings of a polysemantic word may be described through its grammatical valency, e.g.

*keen*+ Nas in*keen sight*‘sharp’;*keen*+ on + Nas in*keen on sports* ‘fond of’;*keen*+ V(inf)as in*keen to know*‘eager’.

**Discrepancies between free word-groups and phraseological units.**

a word-group is a combination of at least two meaningful words joined together according to the rules of a particular language

a phraseological unit is a non-motivated word-group that cannot be freely made up in speech but is reproduced as a ready-made unit

Semantic:the semantic change affects the whole word-group, e.g. *a wolf in a sheep’s clothing, to have one’s heart in one’s mouth;* the semantic change affects one of the components, e.g. *to fall ill, to lose one’s temper;*

Structural: restriction in substitution; restriction in introducing additional components; grammatical invariability.

-the contextualapproach proceeds from the assumption that individual meanings of polysemantic words can be observed in certain contexts and may be viewed as dependent on these contexts;

*-a phraseological unit* is a unit of fixed context characterised by specific and unchanging sequence of definite lexical components and a peculiar semantic relationship between them;

-the two criteria of PhU – specialised meaning of the components and non-variability of context – display unilateral dependence.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| *constructed in speech* wg | *ready-made* pu |
| *substitution is possible* | *as a rule, no substitution* |
| *individual meanings of the components (motivated)* | *meaning is non-motivated (idiomatic)* |
| *each notional word functions as a separate syntactic unit* | *the whole expression functions as a single syntactic unit* |
| *unpredictable* | *predictable* |

**Phraseological units: a variety of terms and the problem of definition.** **Characteristic features of phraseological units.**

Main Features of Phraseological Units: idiomaticity reproducibility stability predictability inseparability

Terminological Vagueness:a phraseological unit (V. V. Vinogradov)

an idiom

a set-phrase

a word-equivalent

a collocation

a phraseme (N. M. Amosova)

a quasi-idiom (I. Melchook).

**Classifications of phraseological units.**

Phraseological combinations (collocations): clearly motivated; made up of words possessing specific lexical valency which accounts for a certain degree of stability in such word-groups; variability of member-words is strictly limited, e.g. *to meet the demand*, *to make a mistake*, *to bear a grudge*, *to pay a compliment, to give a speech etc.*

Phraseological unities:partially non-motivated, i.e. their meaning can usually be perceived through the metaphoric meaning of the whole unit, e.g.*to lose one’s head, a fish out of water, to show one’s teeth, to wash one’s dirty linen in public,*

Phraseological fusions: completely non-motivated, i.e. the meaning of the components has no connection, at least synchronically, with the meaning of the whole group; characterised by complete stability of the lexical components and the grammatical structure of the whole unit, e.g. *once in a blue moon*, *to be on the carpet*, *under the rose etc.*

Polysemy, synonymy and stylistic features of phraseological units.

Absolute synonyms (identical in meaning and stylistic connotations):

*break one’s word = depart from one’s word; bring (drive) to the bay = drive (force) to the wall; like lightning = with lightning speed = like a streak of lightning;*

Ideographic synonyms denote different shades of common meaning, e.g. *to come to / arrive at / jump at / leap at a conclusion.*In other cases, they differ in intensity of a given meaning:

*to have two minds – to be in twenty minds; to be in one’s cups* ‘tipsy’ – *to be drunk as a skunk* ‘drunk and incapable’;

Stylistic synonyms (appropriate only to definite contexts):

*What on earth is this? – What the hell is this?*

*on the Greek calends – When pigs fly.*

Polysemy of phraseological units:

*to be on the go* – 1) be energetic; 2) keep doing smth; 3) be in a hurry; 4) be drunk.

Stylistic Aspect of Phraseology Not all phraseological units bear imagery: clichés / stock phrases (*see you later, take it easy, joking apart*etc*.*); some proverbs (*better late than never*); some euphonic units: rhyme (*out and about*); alliteration (*forgive and forget, now or never, safe and sound*); repetition (*little by little*,*inch by inch*); with archaic words (*to buy a pig in a poke*).

**REVISION QUESTIONS:**

1. What is a word-group and how is it defined?

2. How are the syntagmatic relationships of words in word-groups governed?

3. What is distribution in linguistics, and how does it relate to word-groups?

4. What is semantic combinability based on, and what does it reflect?

5. What is valency in relation to word-groups, and how is it classified?

6. How do lexical valency and polysemy interrelate within word-groups?

7. How do free word-groups differ from phraseological units?

8. What is the contextual approach to understanding individual meanings of polysemantic words?

9. How are phraseological units characterized in terms of lexical components and semantic relationships?

10. What are the two criteria of Phraseological Units (PhU) that display unilateral dependence?

11. How do phraseological combinations differ from phraseological fusions?

12. Can phraseological unities be partially non-motivated? If so, how can their meaning be perceived?

**Тема 10. Functional styles.**

**Formal and Informal styles.**

**Colloquialisms.**

**Dialect words.**

**The notion of functional style. Formal and informal styles. Basic vocabulary.**

Just as there is formal and informal dress, so there is formal and informal speech. The social context in which the communication is taking place determines both the mode (way - спосіб) of dress and the modes of speech. When placed in different situations, people instinctively choose different kinds of words and structures to express their thoughts. The suitability or unsuitability of a word for each particular situation depends on its stylistic characteristics or, on other words, on the functional style it represents.

The term functional style is generally accepted in modern linguistics. *Functional style* is a system of expressive means peculiar to a specific sphere of communication.

The sphere of communication is circumstances attending the process of speech in each particular case: professional communication, a lecture, a formal letter etc.

All these circumstances or situations can be classified into two types: formal (a lecture, professional communication) and informal (an informal talk).

Accordingly, functional styles are classified into two groups, with further subdivisions depending on different situations.

**Informal style**

*Informal style* is used in one’s immediate (close/nearest) circle: family, relatives or friends. But it should be pointed out that the informal talk of well-educated people considerably differs from that of the illiterate (who cannot read or write) or semi-educated. The choice of words is determined in each particular case not only by an informal (or formal) situation, but also by the speaker’s educational and cultural background, age group, and his occupational and regional characteristics.

Informal words and word-groups are traditionally divided into three groups: *colloquial*, *slang* and *dialect words* and *word-groups*.

**Colloquial words**

Colloquial words are used by everybody, and their sphere of communication is comparatively wide, at least of literary colloquial words. These are informal words that are used in everyday conversational speech both by cultivated (who has been educated) and uneducated people of all age groups. The sphere of communication of literary colloquial words also includes the printed page. They are widely used in modern fiction to create warm, informal atmosphere.

**Slang**

*Slang*is colloquial words and phrases typically more colourful, metaphorical, vulgar used by certain groups of people in popular speech, they are not used in correct or written language. All or most slang words are current words whose meanings have been metaphorically shifted. (For example, “Look at the copper …” Copper – a policeman. “Oh, he’s a slow, greedy “mick”!” Mick – an Irishman.

People use slang to be picturesque, striking and different from others, to sound modern and up-to-date, independent and daring. The circle of users of slang is more narrow than that of colloquialisms. It is mainly used by the young and uneducated.

**Dialect words**

Dialect is a variety of a language which prevails in a district, with local peculiarities [picjuliaeriti] of vocabulary, pronunciation and phrase. England is a small country, yet it has many dialects which have their own distinctive features. So dialects are regional forms of English. Standard English is defined as the English language as it is written and spoken by literate people in both formal and informal usage and that is universally current while incorporating regional differences (For example, to lake – to play, summat – something – Yorkshire [jo:kςe] dialect).

**Read the following jokes. Write out the informal words and word-groups and say whether they are colloquial, slang or dialect.**

1) A Yankee passenger in an English train was beguiling his fellow passengers with tall stories (stories that are hard to believe) and remarked: “We can start with twenty-story apartment house this month, and have it finished by next.”

This was too much for the burly Yorkshireman, who sat next to him. “Man, that’s nowt,” he said. “I’ve seen ‘em in Yorkshire when I’ve been going to work just laying the foundation stone and when I’ve been coming home at neet they’ve been putting the folk out for back rent.”

2) A driver and his family had gathered bluebells, primrose roots, budding twigs and so on from a country lane. Just before they piled into the car to move off Father approached a farmer who was standing nearby and asked: “Can we take this road to Sheffield?” The farmer eyed the car and its contents sourly, then: “Aye, you mun as well, you’ve taken nigh everything else around here.”

**Formal style**

Formal style is restricted to formal situations. Formal words fall into two main groups: words associated with professional communication and a less exclusive group of so-called learned words.

**Learned words**

These words are mainly associated with the printed page. We find here numerous words that are used in scientific prose. To this group also belongs so-called «officialese». These are the words of the official, bureaucratic language.

The most interesting subdivision of learned words is represented by the words found in descriptive passages of fiction (Ex.: fascination, delusion, cordial.

There is one further subdivision of learned words: modes of poetic diction. These stand closely to the previous group many words from which, in fact, belong to both these categories.

Any educated English-speaking individual is sure to use many learned words not only in his formal letters and professional communication but also in his everyday speech.

**Archaic and obsolete words**

These words stand close to the learned words, particularly to the modes of poetic diction. Learned words and archaisms are both associated with the printed page. Mane learned words may be used in conversational situations. This cannot happen with archaisms, which are invariably restricted to the printed page. These words are already partly or fully out of circulation, rejected by the living language. They can be met in historical novels (whose authors use them to create a particular period atmosphere) and in poetry which is rather conservative in its choice of words. Thy (yes) and nay (no) are certainly archaic, they were rejected by common usage, yet poets use them even today. Ex.: morn – morning, eve – evening, moon – month.

There is a further term for words which are no longer in use: historisms. By this we mean words denoting objects and phenomena which are things of the past and no longer exist.

**Professional terminology**

Many words belong to special scientific, professional or trade terminological systems and are not used or even understood by people outside the particular speciality. Every field of modern activity has its specialized vocabulary. There is a special medical vocabulary, and similarly special terminology for linguistics, music, teaching methods and many others.

Term is a word or a word-group which is specially employed by a particular branch of science, technology, trade to convey/to carry a notion peculiar to this peculiar activity.

**Basic vocabulary**

These words are stylistically neutral, and opposed to formal and informal words described above. Their stylistic neutrality makes it possible to use them in all kinds of situations, both formal and informal, in verbal and written communication. Certain of the stylistically marked vocabulary strata are, in a way, exclusive: professional terminology is mostly used by representatives of the professions; dialects are regional; slang is favoured by the young and the uneducated. Not so basic vocabulary. These words are used every day, everywhere and by everybody, regardless of profession, occupation, educational level, age group or geographical location. These are words without which no human communication would be possible as they denote objects and phenomena of everyday importance (house, summer, winter, child, mother, to stand etc.).

The basic vocabulary is the central group of vocabulary, its historical foundation and living core.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Basic vocabulary | Informal | Formal |
| begin | start, get started | commence |

**REVISION QUESTIONS:**

1. What determines the mode of speech in different social contexts?

2. How is functional style defined in modern linguistics?

3. What are the two types of circumstances that functional styles can be classified into?

4. How does informal talk differ between well-educated people and illiterate or semi-educated individuals?

5. What are colloquial words and who typically uses them?

6. Describe slang and its characteristics.

7. What are dialect words and how do they differ from standard English?

8. What are learned words and where are they commonly found?

9. How do archaic and obsolete words differ from learned words?

10. What distinguishes basic vocabulary from other types of vocabulary mentioned in the text?

11. Give an example of a word that falls under the basic vocabulary category.

**Тема 11. Phraseological word combinations.**

**Formal and functional classification.**

**Proverbs, sayings, familiar quotations, clichés and phrasal verbs.**

**FORMAL AND FUNCTIONAL CLASSIFICATION**

Formal classification distinguishes the following set expressions:

1. **nominal phrases:** the root of the trouble;
2. **verbal phrases:** put one's best foot forward;
3. **adjectival phrases:** as good as gold; red as a cherry;
4. **adverbial phrases:** from head to foot;
5. **prepositional phrases:** In the course of;
6. **conjunctional phrases:** as long as, on the other hand;
7. **interjectional phrases:** Well, I never!

A stereotyped sentence also introduced into speech as a ready-made formula may be illustrated by Never say die! – never give up hope, take your time – do not hurry.

This classification takes into consideration not only the type of component parts but also the functioning of the whole, thus, tooth and nail is not a nominal but an adverbial unit, because it serves to modify a verb (e.g. fight tooth and nail).

Within each of these classes a further subdivision is as follows:

a) Set expressions functioning like nouns:

N+N: maiden name - the surname of a woman before she was married; brains trust – a committee of experts;

N's+N: cat's paw - one who is used for the convenience of a cleverer and stronger person;

Ns' N; ladies' man - one who makes special effort to charm or please women;

N+prp+N: the arm of the law; skeleton in the cupboard;

N+A: knight errant - the phrase is today applied to any chivalrous man ready to help and protect oppressed and helpless people.

N+and+N: lord and master - husband; all the world and his wife;

A+N: high tea - an evening meal which combines meat or some similar extra dish with the usual tea;

N+subordinate clause: ships that pass in the night - chance acquaintances;

b) Set expressions functioning like verbs:

V+N: take advantage;

V+and+V: pick and choose,

V+(one's)+N+(prp): snap one's fingers, at;

V+one+N: give one the bird – to fire sb;

V+ subordinate clause: see how the land lies - to discover the state of affairs;.

c) Set expressions functioning like adjectives:

Atand+A: high and mighty;

(as)+A+as+N: as old as the hills, as mad as a hatter;

d) Set expressions functioning like adverbs:

N+N: tooth and nail;

prp+N: by heart, of course; adv+prp+N: once in a blue moon; prp+N+or+N: by hook or by crook;

cj+clause: before one can say Jack Robinson;.

e) Set expressions functioning like prepositions: prp+N+prp: in consequence of

f) Set expressions functioning like interjections:

These are often structured as imperative sentences: Bless (one's) soul! God bless me! Hang it (all)!

**Proverbs, sayings, familiar quotations and clichés**

The place of proverbs, sayings and familiar quotations with respect to set expressions is a controversial issue. A proverb is a short familiar epigrammatic saying expressing popular wisdom, a truth or a moral lesson in a concise and imaginative way. Proverbs have much in common with set expressions, because their lexical components are also constant, their meaning is traditional and mostly figurative, and they are introduced into speech ready-made. That is why some scholars following V.V. Vinogradov think proverbs must be studied together with phraseological units. Others like J. Casares and N.N. Amosova think that unless they regularly form parts of other sentences it is erroneous to include them into the system of language, because they are independent units of communication. N.N. Amosova even thinks that there is no more reason to consider them as part of phraseology than, for instance, riddles and children’s counts. This standpoint is hardly acceptable especially if we do not agree with the narrow limits of phraseology offered by this author. Riddles and counts are not as a rule included into utterances in the process of communication, whereas proverbs are. Whether they are included into an utterance as independent sentences or as part of sentences is immaterial. If we follow that line of reasoning, we shall have to exclude all interjections such as *Hang it (all)*! because they are also syntactically independent. As to the argument that in many proverbs the meaning of component parts does not show any specific changes when compared to the meaning of the same words in free combinations, it must be pointed out that in this respect they do not differ from very many set expressions, especially those which are emotionally neutral.

Another reason why proverbs must be taken into consideration together with set expressions is that they often form the basis of set expressions. E. g. *the last straw breaks the camel’s back*: : *the last straw; a drowning man will clutch at a straw*: : *clutch at a straw; it is useless to lock the stable door when the steed is stolen*: : *lock the stable door*‘to take precautions when the accident they are meant to prevent has already happened’.

Both set expressions and proverbs are sometimes split and changed for humorous purposes, as in the following quotation where the proverb *All is not gold that glitters*combines with an allusion to the set expression *golden age,*e . g . *It will be an age not perhaps of gold, but at least of glitter.*Compare also the following, somewhat daring compliment meant to shock the sense of bourgeois propriety: *But I laughed and said, “Don’t you worry, Professor, I'm not pulling her ladyship’s leg. I wouldn’t do such a thing. I have too much respect for that charming limb.”*(Cary) Sometimes the speaker notices the lack of logic in a set expression and checks himself, as in the following: *Holy terror, she is*— *least not so holy, I suppose, but a terror all right*(Rattigan).

Taking a familiar group of words: *A living dog is better than a dead lion*(from the Bible) and turning it around, a fellow critic once said that Hazlitt was unable to appreciate a writer till he was dead — that Hazlitt thought *a dead ass better than a living lion.*A. Huxley is very fond of stylistic, mostly grotesque, effects achieved in this way. So, for example, paraphrasing the set expression *marry into money*he says about one of his characters, who prided herself on her conversation, that *she had married into conversation.*

Lexicology does not deal more fully with the peculiarities of proverbs: created in folklore, they are studied by folklorists, but in treating units introduced into the act of communication ready-made we cannot avoid touching upon them too.

As to familiar quotations, they are different from proverbs in their origin. They come from literature but by and by they become part and parcel of the language, so that many people using them do not even know that they are quoting, and very few could acccurately name the play or passage on which they are drawing even when they are aware of using a quotation from W. Shakespeare.

The Shakespearian quotations have become and remain extremely numerous — they have contributed enormously to the store of the language. Some of the most often used are*: I know a trick worth two of that; A man more sinned against than sinning*("King Lear"); *Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown*("Henry IV"). Very many come from “Hamlet", for example: *Frailty, thy name is woman’, Give every man thy ear, but few thy voice’, Something is rotten in the state of Denmark; Brevity is the soul of wit; The rest is silence; Thus conscience does make cowards of us all; There are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio, I Than are dreamt of in your philosophy; It out-herods Herod; For to the noble mind / Rich gifts wax poor when givers prove unkind.*

Excepting only W. Shakespeare, no poet has given more of his lines than A. Pope to the common vocabulary of the English-speaking world. The following are only a few of the best known quotations: *A little learning is a dangerous thing; To err is human; To forgive, divine; For fools rush in where angels fear to tread; At every word a reputation dies; Who shall decide when doctors disagree?*

Quotations from classical sources were once a recognised feature of public speech: *de te fabula narratur*(Horace) ‘the story is about you’; *ternpora mutantur, et nos mutamur in illis*‘times change, and we change with them’; *timeo Danaoset dona ferentes*(Virgil) ‘I fear the Greeks, even when bringing gifts’. Now they are even regarded as bad form, because they are unintelligible to those without a classical education. So, when a speaker ventures a quotation of that kind he hastens to translate it. A number of classical tags nevertheless survive in educated speech in many countries. There are the well-known phrases, such as *ad hoc*‘for this special reason’; *bona fide*‘in good faith’; *cum grano salts*‘with a grain of salt’; *mutatis mutandis*‘with necessary changes’; *tabula rasa*‘a blank tablet’ and others of the same kind. As long as they keep their Latin form they do not belong to English vocabulary. Many of them, however, show various degrees of assimilation, e.g. *viva voce*['vaiva ‘vousi] ‘oral examination’, which may be used as an adjective, an adverb and a verb. *Viva voce examination*is colloquially shortened into *viva*(noun and verb).

Some quotations are so often used that they come to be considered clichés. The term comes from the printing trade. The cliché (the word is French) is a metal block used for printing pictures and turning them out in great numbers. The term is used to denote such phrases as have become hackneyed and stale. Being constantly and mechanically repeated they have lost their original expressiveness and so are better avoided. H.W. Fowler in a burst of eloquence in denouncing them even exclaims: “How many a time has Galileo longed to recant his recantation, as *e pur si muove*was once more applied or misapplied!"1 Opinions may vary on what is tolerable and what sounds an offence to most of the listeners or readers, as everyone may have his own likes and dislikes. The following are perhaps the most generally recognised: *the acid test, ample opportunities, astronomical figures, the arms of Morpheus, to break the ice, consigned to oblivion, the irony of fate, to sleep the sleep of the just, stand shoulder to shoulder, swan song, toe the line, tender mercies,*etc. Empty and worn-out but pompous phrases often become mere verbiage used as a poor compensation for a lack of thought or precision. Here are some phrases occurring in passages of literary criticism and justly branded as clichés: *to blaze a trail, consummate art, consummate skill, heights of tragedy, lofty flight of imagination.*The so-called journalese has its own set of overworked phrases: *to usher in a new age, to prove a boon to mankind, to pave the way to a bright new world, to spell the doom of civilisation,*etc.

In giving this review of English set expressions we have paid special attention to the fact that the subject is a highly complex one and that it has been treated by different scholars in very different ways. Each approach and each classification have their advantages and their drawbacks. The choice one makes depends on the particular problem one has in view, and even so there remains much to be studied in the future.

1 *E pur si muove*(It) ‘yet it does move’ — the words attributed to Galileo Galilei. He is believed to have said them after being forced to recant his doctrine that the Earth moves round the Sun.

**REVISION QUESTIONS:**

1. What is the difference between formal and functional classification of set expressions?

2. How are stereotyped sentences introduced into speech as ready-made formulas?

3. Can you provide examples of set expressions functioning like nouns?

4. In what ways do proverbs have similarities with set expressions?

5. Why do some scholars believe that proverbs should be studied together with phraseological units?

6. How are proverbs sometimes split and changed for humorous purposes?

7. Provide an example of a situation where a speaker notices the lack of logic in a set expression.

8. What is the difference between proverbs and familiar quotations in terms of origin?

9. How do Shakespearian quotations contribute to the English language?

10. Why are classical tags considered bad form in public speech today?

11. What is the significance of the term "cliché" in relation to phrases?

12. How does H.W. Fowler describe clichés in literary criticism?

13. Can you provide examples of phrases that have become clichés in literary criticism?

14. Why is it important to study English set expressions?

**Тема 12. Basics of English lexicography.**

**English Lexicography.**

**History of English Lexicography.**

**The main problems in lexicography.**

**Types of dictionaries.**

**Lexicography** is the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries. It's closely connected with Lexicology for:

1) they have a common object of study, i.e the vocabulary of a language;

2) they make use of each other's achievements, i.e. the material collected in dictionaries is used by linguistists in their research and on the other hand, the principles of dictionary making are based on linguistic fundamentals.

The difference between them lies in the degree of systematization and completeness each of them is able to achieve.

**Lexicology** aims at systematization, revealing characteristic features of words. However, it can't achieve completeness as regards vocabulary units, for their number is very great, and systematization and completeness can't be achieved simultaneously.

But dictionaries aim at a more or less complete description of individual words, but in doing so they can't attain systematic treatment.

The most ***important problems*** faced by lexicographers are:

1. the selection of lexical units for inclusion;
2. their arrangement;
3. the selection and arrangement of word-meanings;
4. the definition of meanings;
5. illustrative material;
6. supplementary material.

1. The selection of units for inclusion

The basic problem is what lexical units to select for inclusion, and to determine the type and number of headwords.

Should we include / the dictionary contain foreign words? technical terms? archaic words? new words? dialectisms? slang words, etc?

We face the problem of polysemy and homonymy. Besides, we should decide how to treat derivatives, esp. those built after the most productive patterns (such as

*v + -er → N, A + -ness → N, a + -ly → Adv*). Should they be given special entries or not?

There are no general answers to these questions. The choice depends on the type of the dictionary, its aim, size, and some other considerations, and is always more or less arbitrary.

2. Arrangement of entries

When the problem of arrangement is settled there arises the question which of the selected units have the right to a separate entry and which are to be included under the headword,

e.g whether "*each* *other*" is a group of two separate words to be treated separately under the headwords "*each*" and "*other*" or whether it is a unit that deserves a special entry.

The number of entries also depends on how dictionary compilers solve the problems of polysemy and homonymy and regularly formed derivatives with such affixes as *-er, -ly, -ness, -ing*.

**The order of arrangement** of the entries is different in different types of dictionaries. The order may be **(a)** ***alphabetical*** and **(b)** ***the cluster-type order***, i.e. words of the same root, or close in their denotational meaning, or in their frequency value are grouped together.

Each mode of presentation has its advantages. **(a)** The alphabetical order provides for an easy finding of any word, **(b)** The cluster-type order requires less space and presents a clearer picture of the relations of each unit with the others in the language system.

Practically, however, most dictionaries use a combination of these two orders of arrangement.

**3. The number of meanings and their choice**depend on:

1) the aim the dictionary compilers set themselves;

2) how they treat obsolete, dialectal, highly specialized meanings, how they solve the problem of polysemy and homomymy.

There are ***three*** different ***ways of arranging word-meanings***:

1) ***historical order***, i.e. meanings are arranged in the order of their historical development (from the earliest to the most recent ones);

2) ***actual (or empirical) order***, i.e. meanings are arranged according to their frequency value (the most common ones come first);

3) ***logical order***, i.e. meanings are arranged to show their logical connection.

The historical order is mostly used in diachronical (historical) dictionaries, and in synchronic ones compilers usually use the empirical and the logical order.

**4.** Meanings may be **defined**in different ways:

1) by means of encyclopedic definitions (such definitions are concerned with objects for which words are names);

2) by means of descriptive definitions or paraphrases;

3) with the help of synonymous words and expressions;

4) by means of cross-reference.

Descriptive definitions are used in a majority of cases. They are concerned with words as speech material.

American dictionaries for the most part are traditionally encyclopedic. They furnish their readers with more information about facts and things than British dictionaries which are more linguistic

Encyclopedic definitions are typical of nouns, esp. proper nouns and terms.

Synonyms are most often used to define verbs and adjectives, and (cross-) reference is used to define derivatives, abbreviations and variant forms.

**5. Illustrative examples**raise the following questions:

1) when are examples to be used?

2) what words may be listed without any illustrations?

3) should they be made up or borrowed from books and/or periodicals? (In diachronic dictionaries quotations are used and they are carefully dated).

4) How much space should they occupy?

**6. The supplementary material** appended to the dictionary may be:

1) material of linguistic nature pertaining to the vocabulary (e.g. geographical names, foreign words, standard abbreviations);

2) material of encyclopedic nature (may include lists of colleges, universities, tables of weights and measures, military ranks, etc.).

All dictionaries are divided into ***encyclopedic*** and ***linguistic***. They differ in **(1)** the choice of items included and **(2)** in the information given about them.

**Linguistic dictionaries** are word-books. Their subject-matter is lexical units and their linguistic properties (pronunciation, meaning, usage, etc.).

**Encyclopedias** are thing-books, giving information about the extralinguistic world. They deal with objects, phenomena and concepts. **Encyclopedic dictionaries** give both types of information.

The most famous encyclopedias in English are the Encyclopedia Britannica (in 32 volumes) and Encyclopedia Americana (30 volumes). Besides there are reference books confined to some particular fields of knowledge,

e.g. the Oxford Art Dictionary, the Oxford Companion to English Literature, "Who's Who" Dictionary, etc.

Linguistic dictionaries can be classified by different criteria:

1) According to **the nature of their word-list** they are ***general*** and ***restricted***.

**General dictionaries** contain lexical units in ordinary use in different spheres of communication.

**Restricted dictionaries** make their choice from a certain part of the vocabulary,

e.g. phraseological dictionaries, dialectal dictionaries, dictionaries of new words, terminological dictionaries and so on.

2) According to **the information supplied** dictionaries may be ***explanatory*** and ***specialized***.

**Explanatory dictionaries** provide information on all aspects of lexical units (graphical, grammatical, etymological, stylistic, semantic, etc.).

**Specialized dictionaries** deal with only some aspect of lexical units,

e.g. English Pronouncing Dictionary by Daniel Jones.

3) According to**the language** in which information is given dictionaries may be: ***monolingual*** end ***bilingual*** *(translation).*

4) According to **the prospective user**dictionaries are divided into ***those meant for scholars*** (e.g. etymological dictionaries), ***for language learners/students*** (e.g. Oxford Student's Dictionary of Current English by A.S. Hornby) and ***for the general public*** (e.g. The Concise Oxford Dictionary).

**Historical Development of British and American Lexicography.**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **period** |  |  |
| **I** | 5th - 13th c. Glossaries | A gloss is a note made in a margin or between lines, usu. a word or phrase, explaining or translating a difficult word in a MS or other text. Such glosses have played an important role in the history of lexicography. The first vocabulary lists in English were 8th-century Anglo-Saxon glosses, in which words were written between Latin lines. Later, these words were collected together as lists, more or less alphabetically. Such lists were known as "glossae collectae" (collected glosses), later "glossaria" (glossaries). These are ancestors of the first Latin-English dictionaries.The first printed dictionary in Britain appeared in 1500, it was "Ortus Vocabulorum", a Latin-English dictionary. |
| **II** | 16th c. Foreign - Language Dictionaries | The rapid development of international trade in the 16th century led to a demand for translation dictionaries: French-English, Spanish-English, Italian-English, etc. |
| **III** | 17th c.Dictionaries of Hard Words | These dictionaries were meant to give information on hard and exotic words: borrowings from Latin, Greek, new European languages, obsolete Anglo-Saxon words, etc. The first monolingual English dictionary of this type appeared in 1604. It was "Table Alphabeticall" (compiled by Robert Cawdry, a school-master), which contained fewer than 3.000 "hard usuall English words" listed alphabetically, with the barest explanations. It was designed for quick consultation by "unskillful persons" to help them understand and use foreign borrowings. |
| **IV** | 17th c. -the first half of the 18th c. | Dictionaries of hard words were gradually replaced by dictionaries giving information on current usage. The first attempt at a dictionary including all the words of the language, not only hard ones, was made by Nathaniel Bailey, who published the first edition of his Universal Etymological English Dictionary (1721), a one-volume reference dictionary of some 40.000 entries that was strong on bookish and technical vocabulary, weak in definition and semantic covering, up-to-date in spelling and provided the accepted etymologies of its day. It was the standard dictionary of the 18th c. The 28th and last edition was in 1800. Nathaniel Bailey was the first to give information on the pronunciation and etymology of English words. |
| **V** | second half of the 18th c. - first half of the 19th c.Prescriptive Dictionaries | It was a very important stage in the history of British Lexicography because in 1755 Dr Samuel Johnson's famous dictionary appeared. It differs from the works of his predecessors in both scale and intention. Dr Johnson sought to encapsulate the "best" usage of his day, and did this on the basis of over 100.000 quotations from the best authrs in the 16th c. to his own time.In definitions and the internal arrangement of entries, Johnson also went beyond his rivals. By arranging the senses chronologically, Johnson enabled his readers to follow the evolution of each word and provided the foundation for the historical lexicography of the 19th c.Johnson gave little attention to collocation, idiom, and grammatical information, although he provided a brief grammar at the front. In cases of divided or uncertain usage he provided a prescriptive comment, e.g. "a proper word".His dictionary enjoyed unique authority among successive generations of users in the matter of word choice and word usage. In spelling it represents a strongly conservative tradition, compared with which Bailey was progressive.Pronouncing dictionaries became established in the latter half of the 18th c., of which John Walker's "Critical Pronouncing Dictionary of the English Language" (1791) was the foremost. The Walker pronunciations were effectively married with Johnson's Dictionary in many of the abridged versions of Johnson's Dictionary, which lasted well into the 19th c. |
| **VI** | latter half of the 19th c. - the 1970's | contributed to dictionary making (1) the development of encyclopedic dictionaries and specialized dictionaries (such as of dialect and technical words), (2) recording of word-history through dated quotations.The 19thc. saw many largescale dictionary projects, produced by teams of compilers. In 1858 the English Philological Society started work on compiling the Oxford English Dictionary on Historical Principle. It was first published in 1928. This excellent dictionary covers the English vocabulary with a completeness unrivalled in linguistic history. The second edition of the OED was published in 1989, in 20 volumes. The Concise Oxford Dictionary and the Shorter OED are its variants.The 20th c. saw the development of Lexicography as a scholarly subject, largely under the influence of Linguistics, and promoted especially by the growth of academic societies, such as the Dictionary Society of North America (1975), and the European Association for Lexicography (1983). |

Since the 1970s, the flow of dictionaries has been unabated, as publishers try to meet the needs of an increasingly language-conscious age. New editions and supplements to the well-known dictionaries have appeared and several publishers have launched new general series (e.g.Longman). Reader's Digest .produced its great Illustrated Dictionary in 1984, the first full-colour English dictionary, in the encyclopedic tradition. Prominent also have been the dictionaries for special purposes (foreign language teaching, linguistics, medicine, chemistry, etc.). For the first time, spoken vocabulary has begun to find its way into dictionaries.

The 1980s will one day be seen as a watershed in lexicography - the decade in which computer applications began to alter radically the methods and the potential of lexicography: the future is on disc, in the form of vast lexical databases, continuously updated, that can generate a dictionary of agiven size and scope in a fraction of the time it used to take. Special programs have become available enabling people to ask the dictionary special questions (e.g. "find all words ending in -esse"). Access to large machine-dictionaries is becoming routine in offices and homes.

**Classification of Dictionaries**

|  |
| --- |
| **Dictionaries are classified** |
| **according to:** | **into:** |
| **1** | subject matter | encyclopedic - linguistic |
| **2** | language of explanation | monolingual - bilingual - polylingual |
| **3** | type of explanation | explanatory - translation - demonstrative |
| **4** | nature of word-list | general - restricted |
| **5** | range of data about the word | general - specialized |
| **6** | type of information given | specialized: combinatory, slang, etymological, pronouncing, etc. |
| **7** | time axis | synchronic (descriptive) - diachronic (historical) |
| **8** | the prospective user | general - specialist - learner's (beginner - advanced, native - foreign, etc.) |
| **9** | size | comprehensive (unabridged) -short (abridged) or concise: single-volume "desk" and "family" dictionaries, collegiate, school, pocket, mini and micro dictionaries |
| **10** | the compiler's technique | hand-made - computer-based |
| **11** | form | paper - electronic |

**Dictionary Information**

Dictionaries generally give some or all of the following types of information:

1. Headword and any variants, sometimes with syllabication marked and homograph status indicated.
2. Pronunciation in a system of respelling or phonetic symbols.
3. Grammatical information and usage labels (often in the form of abbreviations or codes).
4. Number of senses as necessary.
5. Explanations proper.
6. Illustrative phrases or sentences.
7. Compounds, derivatives, phrasal verbs and idioms.
8. Etymology.
9. Points of usage.
10. Synonyms and antonyms.

Dictionaries are often characterized by the type of information on which they concentrate, e.g. The Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology.

**REVISION QUESTIONS:**

1. What is the main connection between lexicography and lexicology?

2. Why can't lexicology achieve completeness in regards to vocabulary units?

3. What are some of the important problems faced by lexicographers?

4. How do dictionary compilers decide which lexical units to include in a dictionary?

5. What factors influence the arrangement of entries in dictionaries?

6. In what ways can word meanings be arranged in dictionaries?

7. How are meanings typically defined in dictionaries?

**Тема 13. Varieties of language.**

**Characteristics of World Englishes.**

**Language, dialect and accent.**

**British English and American English**

There is little question that English is the most widely taught, read, and spoken language that the world has ever known. It may seem strange, on some moments' reflection, that the native language of a relatively small island nation could have developed and spread to this status.

The global spread of English has been viewed as two diasporas.

The first diaspora involved migrations of substantial numbers of English speakers from the present British Isles to, for example, Australia, New Zealand, and North America Those English users who left the old country for new ones brought with them the resource of language and its potentials for change which are always with us, though we are not often called upon to contemplate them explicitly. The language that they brought with them changed over time, to be sure, but no more or less substantially or rapidly than the language "at home," for all languages evolve in the natural course of time and use.

The second diaspora of English, in the colonial contexts of Asia and Africa, entailed transportation of the language, but only to a small extent transportation of English-speak-ing people. Thus, the language was brought into new sociocultural contexts by a very small number of users; nevertheless, English became extremely important and useful to the much larger local populations, who have continued to expand the roles of English, often with greater vigor in postcolonial times.

Along with the mere numbers, it is important to note that these language-contact situations involved English and genetically unrelated and widely divergent Asian and African languages and, concomitantly, their cultures, both of which were far removed from the experience and common presuppositions of the native English speakers. These contact situations have had striking and lasting effects on English in these regions, so that although these contemporary Englishes have much in common, they are also unique in their grammatical innovations and tolerances, lexis, pronunciations, idioms, and discourse.

Everyone is cognizant of the notion of dialects of languages, including English. Dialects are characterized by identifiable differences vis-a-vis other dialects, in pronunciation, lexical choice or usage, grammar, and so on; we speak easily of southern English, New England English, American English, and British English.

These are all dialects: types of English that are identified with the residents of particular places. There are also age, gen-der, and other sorts of group-related dialects – as is so often the case with language-evolved issues, the label depends upon the question that is being addressed. Any speaker can be said to speak various dialects, depending upon the circumstances of a discussion: In terms of geography, one of the authors grew up speaking southern American English; in terms of profession and education, both authors speak standard English; and so on.

The well-known national dialects are not usually referred to as such, for the term dialect has acquired various sorts of stigmatized baggage over the years. In some speakers' minds, to say that people speak a dialect is tantamount to saying that they are provincial, perhaps not well educated - though this is neither a necessary nor a proper connotation of dialect in its technical meaning. However, because of these negative associations, most people nowadays use variety to refer to a subtype of a language, for example, the American and British varieties of English.

Still, the substitution of one term for another is just that, and "my variety versus yours" can still be a point of contention. The implications for attitudes about control of the language are extremely hard to overcame.

Strevens made a cogent and useful distinction between dialect, "differences of grammar and vocabulary," and accent "difference of pronunciation;" (Strevens, 1983:88).

Strevens notes that we expect to find a consistent pairing of dialect and accent in any given area, and he points out that "since dialect + accent pairs co-exist in this way it is not surprising that most nonspecialists, and even many teachers of English habitually confuse the terms dialect and accent, and observe no distinction between them" (Strevens, 1983:89)

One key point, then is the following: "In fact, the only cases where this strict pairing lof dialect and accent] does not operate are precisely in relation to Standard English" (Strevens,1983:89) This is why, for example, we are not at all surprised when standard English is spoken with various accents in the United States by network news anchors and by international politicians on both sides of the Atlantic. We recognize fundamental sorts of structural and semantic sameness, and are aware of but do not put a high value on differences of pronunciation.

Commonly accepted varieties of English today include American and British, of course, and also Australian, Canadian, and New Zealand. There are many national varieties of English in the world today - a sense of their extent and distribution can be gained by reviewing a list of countries in which English is an official language. Refer to Table 1 which is not intended to be an exhaustive list. English may be a co-official language, or it may be, as in the United States, the official language in fact though not in law. A more comprehensive list of "territories for which English is a significant language" is given in McArthur (1992:XXVIII-XXIX).

**LANGUAGE AND DIALECT**

Dialectology, obviously, is the study of dialect and dialects. But what exactly is a dialect? In common usage, of course, a dialect is a substandard, low status, often rustic form of language, generally associated with the peasantry, the working class, or other groups lacking in prestige, dialect is also a term which is often applied to forms of language, particularly those spoken in more isolated parts of the world, which have no written form.

And dialects are also often regarded as some kind of (often erroneous) deviation from a norm - as aberrations of a correct or standard form of language.

What does it mean to say that some variety is a language? This is first of all a question about popular usage: what do ordinary people mean when they say that some variety is a language? It is part of our culture to make a distinction between "languages" and "dialects" – in fact, we make two separate, distinctions using these terms, and we may draw conclusions from this fact about our culturally inherited view of language. We may contrast our culture in this respect with others where no such distinction is made. This was the case in England until the term dialect was borrowed in the Renaissance, as a learned word from Greek. In fact, we may see our distinction between "language" and "dialect" as due to the influence of Greek culture, since the distinction was developed in Greek because of the existence of a number of clearly distinct written varieties in use in Classical Greece.

The other contrast between "language" and "dialect" is a question of prestige, a language having prestige which a dialect lacks. If we apply the terms in this sense Standard English is not a dialect at all, but a language, whereas the varieties which are not used in formal writing are dialects. Whether some variety is called a language or a dialect depends on how much prestige one thinks it has, and for most people this is a clear-cut matter, which depends on whether it is used in formal writing. Accordingly, people in Britain habitually refer to languages which are unwritten (or which they think are unwritten) as dialects, or "mere dialects", irrespective of whether there is a (proper) language to which they are relat-ed. (It would be nonsense to use "dialect" in this way intending its "size" sense, of course.)

It is probably fair to say that the only kind of variety which would count as a "proper language" (in the second sense of "language) is a standard language. Standard languages are interesting in as much as they have a rather special relation to society - one which is quite abnormal when seen against the context of the tens (or hundreds?) of thousands of years during which language has been used. Whereas one thinks of normal language development as taking place in a rather haphazard way, largely below the threshold of consciousness of the speakers, standard languages are the result of a direct and deliberate intervention by society. This intervention, called "standardisation", produces a standard language where before there were just "dialects" (in the second sense, i.e. non-standard varieties).

In the world of linguistics, precise language is important. Well, language, in general, is important in linguistics. But using the proper terms to refer to everything is important in any scientific field. However, when these terms are then brought to the general public, they sometimes can get a bit muddled. Here, we’ll try to clear up some of the confusion on the differences between languages, accents and dialects.

To start, we should note that we’re not talking about the abstract sense of language, which you can read all about. This distinction is about why English and Spanish are “languages,” but [Spanglish](https://www.babbel.com/en/magazine/how-many-people-speak-spanglish-where-is-it-spoken) and [New Mexican Spanish](https://www.babbel.com/en/magazine/new-mexican-spanish-language-preserved-time) are “dialects.” The exact distinction is a little bit murky.

The most popular description of the difference between languages and dialects comes from the Yiddish scholar Max Weinreich, who allegedly heard it from an audience member during a lecture he was giving: “A language is a dialect with an army and a navy.” While this is primarily a catchy, funny phrase, it does sort of get to the difference between languages and dialects. The decision for something to be called a language is tied up with how countries identify their boundaries, how many people speak the language and other political considerations.

“A language is a dialect with an army and a navy.”

There’s not really a scientific way to split languages apart from each other. You can say that Japanese and Swedish are clearly different languages, but some languages are very similar. Swedish, Norwegian and Danish are all very close, to the point where they’re pretty much [mutually intelligible](https://www.babbel.com/en/magazine/the-scandinavian-languages-three-for-the-price-of-one/). The dialects of Chinese, on the other hand, are not all mutually intelligible, but they haven’t earned the title of language. Really, there’s no exact difference between languages and dialects. In some writing, you might see that people say dialects are just spoken, whereas languages include both written and spoken aspects, but for linguists, they’re pretty much the same. Languages are just self-important dialects.

It’s worth knocking out one pervasive myth about languages and dialects. What you’ll most commonly see is that a “language” is considered the ideal form of a way to talk, like Standard English, and a “dialect” is a deviation away from this ideal, like Black English or Southern English. This imposes a hierarchy on language that is, frankly, elitist. It’s better to imagine language as an umbrella category for all of the dialects of English, including Standard English. There is no one dialect that is superior to any other.

The good news is that the difference between accents and dialects is much less murky than that between dialects and language. The bad news is that there are some disagreements on what those differences are.

In most uses, “accent” and “dialect” are used interchangeably. Accent seems to be used far more than dialect, as “dialect” sounds slightly more scientific. Both words are used pretty liberally in our series [*The United States Of Accents*](https://www.babbel.com/en/magazine/united-states-of-accents-general-american), as well as in a number of other publications, but they are not the same.

The definition of accents and dialects used most often by [people who work with language](https://www.theallusionist.org/allusionist/evolution-of-accents) is that accents are just one part of a dialect. An accent refers to how people pronounce words, whereas a dialect is all-encompassing. A dialect includes the pronunciations, grammar and vocabulary that people use within a group. Thus our series would be more aptly named *The United States Of Dialects*, but that doesn’t have the same ring to it.

[Another definition](https://english.stackexchange.com/questions/722/is-the-line-blurring-between-accent-and-dialect) that has been used to explain the difference is that dialects refer to the way people speak their mother tongue, and accents refer to how someone speaks another language. A person speaking English with an Italian accent, for example. This doesn’t really capture all of the ways “accent” is used, however, because having a New York accent doesn’t mean you ever spoke another language. Closer to the the first definition, some people use “accent” for pronunciation and “dialect” for the words people use. This can be useful for writers to talk about these two aspects differently. Unless otherwise specified, however, the first definition is likely the one that’s being used.

**Bottom Line:**Many non-academic articles might use the words interchangeably, but for the most part, accent is how a person pronounces words and dialect includes a person’s pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary.

In order to avoid the messy connotations of “dialect” and “language,” linguists now use the word [“variety”](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=muXrgGyN6AI) instead. The word refers to variation in the language, and it is used to group together linguistic clusters in a more exacting way.

There are geographic varieties (Southern English, Boston English), social varieties (upper-class Spanish, middle-class English), standard varieties (Standard English, Standard French) and much more. You also have your own personal variety, called an idiolect, which is a way of talking that’s specific to you. It hasn’t been used among non-linguists very often, but it’s the most useful term if you really want to break down how language works.

English is one of the most widely spoken languages in the world, and you’ll find its more than 1 billion speakers just about everywhere. (It’s fun to note that scientists have even taken the English language to Antarctica!)

But there are two particular groups of English speakers we’ll focus on in this article—and they are the ones who live on both sides of the Atlantic Ocean, or what the Brits like to call “the pond.” If you’ve enjoyed some British *football*, puzzled over a British *biscuit*, or just watched a little “Peppa Pig” with your kids recently, we probably won’t surprise you when we say there are some key and noteworthy differences in how English functions in the United States versus the United Kingdom.

Let’s take a quick look at some fun and noteworthy examples of how English vocabulary, slang, spelling and pronunciation can vary depending on your location.

**British vs. American: Vocabulary and slang**

In general, most words mean the same thing in British and American English. For example, the words *apple* and *chair* refer to the same objects in both versions of English. For the most part, speakers of American English and British English won’t have much trouble at all understanding one another when it comes to vocabulary.

However, there are many examples of the same thing being referred to by different words depending on if you are using American or British English. For a well-known example, British English uses the word [*football*](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/football) to refer to the sport that Americans know as [*soccer*](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/soccer). For the sport that Americans know as *football*, Brits use the term … [*American football*](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/american-football).

This is far from the only example, though. Here are just a few more examples of two different words being used to refer to the same thing:

* [French fries](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/french%20fry)/fries (American) vs. [chips](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/chips) (British)
* [cotton candy](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/cotton%20candy) (American) vs. [candyfloss](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/candyfloss) (British)
* [apartment](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/apartment) (American) vs. [flat](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/flat) (British)
* [garbage](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/garbage) (American) vs. [rubbish](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/rubbish) (British)
* [cookie](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/cookie) (American) vs. [biscuit](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/biscuit) (British)
* [green thumb](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/green%20thumb) (American) vs. [green fingers](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/green%20fingers) (British)
* [parking lot](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/parking%20lot) (American) vs. [car park](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/car%20park) (British)
* [pants](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/pants) (American) vs. [trousers](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/trousers) (British)
* [windshield](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/windshield) (American) vs. [windscreen](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/windscreen) (British)

We can find similar examples when we look at slang words. Sometimes, different slang words are used in American and British English to refer to the same things.

* **A wad of mucus:** [booger](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/booger) (American) vs. [bogey](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/bogey) (British)
* **A man:** [dude](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/dude) (American) vs. [bloke](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/bloke) (British)
* **Very good:** [awesome](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/awesome) (American) vs. [ace](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/ace) (British)
* **To chat:** [shoot the breeze](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/shoot%20the%20breeze) (American) vs. [chinwag](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/chin%20wag) (British)
* **An infantry soldier:** [grunt](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/grunt) (American) vs. [squaddie](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/squaddie) (British)
* **A toilet:** [john](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/john) (American) vs. [loo](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/loo) (British)
* **An anonymous man:** [John Doe](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/John%20Doe) (American) vs. John Smith (British)
* **To waste time:** [lollygag](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/lollygag) (American) vs. [faff about](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/faff) (British)

Finally, both American and British English have words that are used exclusively. For example, American English has words like [*bayou*](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/bayou)and [*cleats*](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/cleats) for which there is no British equivalent. On the other side, British English uses terms like *bunce*, [*niff*](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/niff), and [*jiggery pokery*](https://www.dictionary.com/browse/jiggery-pokery) that don’t really have American equivalents.

**British vs. American spelling**

Generally speaking, most English words are spelled the same in American and British English. However, there are some notable spelling patterns that are preferred depending on which form of English is used.

Listed below are just some examples of spelling differences you may encounter:

***-our* (British) vs. *-or* (American)**

* Examples: colour vs. color, armour vs. armor, flavour vs. flavor

***-ise* or *-ize* (British) vs. only *-ize* (American)**

* Examples: apologise vs. apologize, fantasise vs. fantasize, idolise vs. idolize

***-yse* (British) vs. –*yze* (American)**

* Examples: analyse vs. analyze, paralyse vs. paralyze

**Doubling the *L* in a verb conjugation (British) vs. keeping the single *L* (American)**

* **Examples:** travelled vs. traveled, labelling vs. labeling

***AE* (British) vs. *E* (American)**

* **Examples:** leukaemia vs. leukemia, paediatrics vs. pediatrics

***-ence* (British) vs. *-ense* (American)**

* **Examples:**defence vs. defense

**only *-ogue* (British) vs.*-og* or *-ogue* (American)**

* **Examples:** catalogue vs. catalog, dialogue vs. dialog

***-re* (British) vs.*-er* (American)**

* **Examples:** metre vs. meter, lustre vs. luster

In addition to these common patterns, some specific words are spelled differently in American and British English. Some examples include *airplane* (the first in each pair is the common American term) and *aeroplane*, *gray* and *grey*, *tire* and *tyre*, and *mold* and *mould*.

**REVISION QUESTIONS:**

1. Why is English considered the most widely taught, read, and spoken language in the world?

2. What are the two diasporas that have contributed to the global spread of English?

3. How did the first diaspora of English speakers contribute to the evolution of the language?

4. In what way did the second diaspora of English impact the sociocultural contexts of Asia and Africa?

5. What were the effects of the language-contact situations involving English and genetically unrelated languages in Asian and African regions?

6. How do contemporary Englishes in these regions differ from each other despite having commonalities?

7. What factors have influenced the unique grammatical innovations, lexis, pronunciations, idioms, and discourse of these English varieties?

**ПЕРЕЛІК КОНТРОЛЬНИХ ПИТАНЬ ДО ЗАЛІКУ:**

1. Words of Native Origin and Their Characteristics.
2. What does lexicology study?
3. What branch of lexicology studies common features of vocabularies of different languages?
4. What approach to vocabulary studies is mainly used by descriptive lexicology?
5. What branch of linguistics deals with causal relations between the way the language works and develops and the facts of social life?
6. Words that have dropped out of the language altogether are called?
7. Words that have different forms but meanings similar to a certain degree are called?
8. Words opposite in meaning are called?
9. Words having one and the same form but different meanings are called?
10. What does lexicography study?
11. What type of morphemes is the most recurrent in English words?
12. Affixes used to form new words in the period in question are called?
13. The lexical nucleus of any word is?
14. Which class of words accounts for the least number of words?
15. The way of wordbuilding when a word is formed by joining two or more stems to form one word is called?
16. Compounds where the components are joined without any linking element are called?
17. Compounds where the components are joined by a linking element are called?
18. Foreign Elements in Modern English.
19. Assimilation of Borrowings.
20. Etymological Doublets
21. International Words.
22. The morphological structure of a word
23. Productive and non-productive ways of word-formation.
24. Affixation.
25. Word – composition.
26. Conversion.
27. Shortening. Lexical abbreviations. Acronyms. Clipping.
28. Non-productive means of word formation. Blending. Back-formation. Onomatopoeia. Sound and stress interchange.
29. Types of word meaning: lexical, grammatical meanings. Denotational and connotational components of lexical meaning. Implicational meaning.
30. Polysemy.
31. Context. Types of context.
32. Change of meaning: Broadening (or Generalisation) of Meaning. Narrowing (or Specialisation) of Meaning. Elevation and degradation of meaning of a word.
33. Metaphor.
34. Metonymy.
35. Synonyms.
36. Homonyms.
37. Euphemisms.
38. Antonyms.
39. Neologisms.
40. Traditional lexicological grouping. Lexico-grammatical groups. Word-families.
41. Hyponymy, paradigmatic relation of inclusion. Hyponyms, hyperonymas, equonyms.
42. Free Word-Groups.
43. Functional styles: Informal Style; Formal Style; Professional Terminology: Basic Vo-cabulary.
44. Phraseology
45. Proverbs, sayings, familiar quotations and clichés.
46. Language, dialect and accent.
47. British English.
48. American English.
49. English Lexicography.
50. What factors have influenced the unique grammatical innovations, lexis, pronunciations, idioms, and discourse of these English varieties?

**КРИТЕРІЇ ОЦІНЮВАННЯ ТА ФОРМИ КОНТРОЛЮ**

Оцінка з дисципліни **«Лексикологія»** визначається з урахуванням результатів навчальної діяльності студента*. Рейтингова оцінка з навчальної дисципліни* – це кількість балів, яку студент отримує за певну навчальну діяльність (за наслідками поточного, модульного контролю), визначається як середнє арифметичне кількості балів з усіх модулів з дисципліни та балів за підсумковий контроль (екзамен).

*Оцінка з дисципліни* **«Лексикологія»** виставляється студентам, яким зараховані усі модулі з дисципліни і рейтингова оцінка з дисципліни є не меншою ніж 60 балів, визначається шляхом конвертації кількості балів з дисципліни в оцінку за чотирибальною (традиційною) шкалою ("відмінно", "добре", "задовільно", "незадовільно") та за шкалою ECTS.

**Поточний контроль** здійснюється на кожному практичному занятті відповідно до конкретних цілей теми, під час індивідуальної роботи викладача зі студентом та складається з опитування (теоретичної підготовки до практичного заняття), виконання тестового завдання, виконання практичного завдання, документального оформлення практичної роботи, самостійної роботи студента у вигляді написання і захисту реферату та складання тестів.

Максимальна кількість балів, яку студент може набрати при вивченні модуля дисципліни – **100**, в тому числі за поточну навчальну діяльність – **60** балів, за результатами модульного контролю або заліку – **40** балів.

Співвідношення між результатами оцінювання поточної навчальної діяльності та модульного контролю 60% до 40%.

**Модульний контроль** здійснюється після завершення вивчення всіх тем модуля на останньому контрольному занятті з модуля і проводиться у письмовій формі. Тривалість проведення письмового модульного контролю становить 1 академічну годину.Модульний контроль вважається зарахованим, якщо студент набрав не менше **24** балів із **40**.

* Максимальна кількість балів, яку може отримати студент при складанні підсумкового контролю (екзамену) – **100** балів, який вважається зарахованим, якщо студент набрав не менше **60** із **100** балів.
* Оцінка з дисципліни виставляється лише студентам, яким зараховані усі модулі з дисципліни.
* Кількість балів, яку студент набрав з дисципліни, визначається як середнє арифметичне кількості балів з усіх модулів та підсумкового контролю з дисципліни (сума балів за усі модулі ділиться на кількість модулів з дисципліни).

**Шкала оцінювання**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| За шкалою | Екзамен | Залік | Бали |
| A | Відмінно | Зараховано | 90-100 |
| B | Добре | Зараховано | 82-89 |
| C | 74-81 |
| D | Задовільно | Зараховано | 64-73 |
| E | 60-63 |
| FX | Незадовільно | Не зараховано | 35-59 |
| F | Не зараховано | 0-34 |

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**Інформаційні ресурси**

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2. Oxford English Dictionary Online (Website: [oed.com](file:///C%3A%5CUsers%5CEUGENE%5CDesktop%5C%D0%9F%D0%BE%D0%BB%D1%96%D1%82%D0%B5%D1%85_1%20%D1%81%D0%B5%D0%BC%D0%B5%D1%81%D1%82%D1%80%5Coed.com)): The Oxford English Dictionary is one of the most authoritative sources for English word definitions and etymology.

3. Merriam-Webster Online (Website: [merriam-webster.com](file:///C%3A%5CUsers%5CEUGENE%5CDesktop%5C%D0%9F%D0%BE%D0%BB%D1%96%D1%82%D0%B5%D1%85_1%20%D1%81%D0%B5%D0%BC%D0%B5%D1%81%D1%82%D1%80%5Cmerriam-webster.com)): Merriam-Webster is a well-known American English dictionary with a user-friendly online platform.

4. Wordnik (Website: [wordnik.com](file:///C%3A%5CUsers%5CEUGENE%5CDesktop%5C%D0%9F%D0%BE%D0%BB%D1%96%D1%82%D0%B5%D1%85_1%20%D1%81%D0%B5%D0%BC%D0%B5%D1%81%D1%82%D1%80%5Cwordnik.com)): Wordnik provides not only definitions but also example sentences, word usage statistics, and related words for a deeper understanding of English vocabulary.

5. Vocabulary.com (Website: [vocabulary.com](file:///C%3A%5CUsers%5CEUGENE%5CDesktop%5C%D0%9F%D0%BE%D0%BB%D1%96%D1%82%D0%B5%D1%85_1%20%D1%81%D0%B5%D0%BC%D0%B5%D1%81%D1%82%D1%80%5Cvocabulary.com)): Vocabulary.com offers interactive quizzes and activities to help you learn and retain new words.

6. Thesaurus.com (Website: [thesaurus.com](file:///C%3A%5CUsers%5CEUGENE%5CDesktop%5C%D0%9F%D0%BE%D0%BB%D1%96%D1%82%D0%B5%D1%85_1%20%D1%81%D0%B5%D0%BC%D0%B5%D1%81%D1%82%D1%80%5Cthesaurus.com)): This website provides synonyms and antonyms for words, which can be helpful for understanding word relationships.

7. EnglishClub (Website: [englishclub.com](file:///C%3A%5CUsers%5CEUGENE%5CDesktop%5C%D0%9F%D0%BE%D0%BB%D1%96%D1%82%D0%B5%D1%85_1%20%D1%81%D0%B5%D0%BC%D0%B5%D1%81%D1%82%D1%80%5Cenglishclub.com)): EnglishClub provides a wide range of resources for learning English, including vocabulary lessons and quizzes.

8. Memrise (Website: [memrise.com](file:///C%3A%5CUsers%5CEUGENE%5CDesktop%5C%D0%9F%D0%BE%D0%BB%D1%96%D1%82%D0%B5%D1%85_1%20%D1%81%D0%B5%D0%BC%D0%B5%D1%81%D1%82%D1%80%5Cmemrise.com)): Memrise offers courses on English vocabulary and lexicology with interactive lessons and quizzes.

9. BBC Learning English (Website: [bbc.co.uk/learningenglish](file:///C%3A%5CUsers%5CEUGENE%5CDesktop%5C%D0%9F%D0%BE%D0%BB%D1%96%D1%82%D0%B5%D1%85_1%20%D1%81%D0%B5%D0%BC%D0%B5%D1%81%D1%82%D1%80%5Cbbc.co.uk%5Clearningenglish)): The BBC provides a wealth of resources, including vocabulary exercises and lessons, to help learners improve their English skills.

10. English Vocabulary Exercises (Website: [englishvocabularyexercises.com](file:///C%3A%5CUsers%5CEUGENE%5CDesktop%5C%D0%9F%D0%BE%D0%BB%D1%96%D1%82%D0%B5%D1%85_1%20%D1%81%D0%B5%D0%BC%D0%B5%D1%81%D1%82%D1%80%5Cenglishvocabularyexercises.com)): This website offers free vocabulary exercises and quizzes for English learners at different proficiency levels.