МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ

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Конспект лекцій з курсу «Лексикологія англійської мови » для студентів вищих навчальних закладів

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Навчальне видання присвячено теоретичним основам курсу «Лексикологія англійської мови». Воно містить основні відомості про предмет і задачі курсу, етимологічний склад та стильові пласти словникового складу англійської мови, словотвір, семасіологію, фразеологію, синонімію, антонімію сучасної англійської мови, а також деякі відмінності британського та американського варіантів англійської мови. Посібник має за мету поглибити набуті студентами знання протягом попереднього навчання про такі аспекти англійської лексикології як складна природа значення слова як основної складової одиниці лексикології та сучасні методи її дослідження , про англійські ідіоми, про певні зміни , які відбулися із словниковим складом англійської мови протягом його історичного розвитку та деякі інші аспекти. Адже забезпечення лінгвістичної компетенції студентів, які вивчають іноземну мову, неможливе без застосування системного підходу до мовних ресурсів та розуміння внутрішніх механізмів, завдяки яким і працює багаторівнева система мови.

Обрана тематика відповідає навчальній програмі з курсу «Лексикологія англійської мови » для студентів вищих навчальних закладів.

LECTURE 1 Lexicology as a Branch of Linguistics. Main Notions of Lexicology.

1. Lexicology as a branch of linguistics. Its interrelations with other sciences .

2. The word as the fundamental object of lexicology. The nature of the word.

3. Levels of study in lexicology.

1. Lexicology as a branch of linguistics. Its interrelations with other sciences. Lexicology (from Gr lexis "word" and logos "learning") is a part of linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of a language and the properties of words as the main units of the language. It also studies all kinds of semantic grouping and semantic relations: synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, semantic fields, etc.

In this connection, the term *vocabulary* is used to denote a 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 at the same time a semantic, grammatical and phonological unit. So, the subject-matter of lexicology is the word, its morphemic structure, history and meaning.

There are several **branches of lexicology**. 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 referred to as language universals. *Special lexicology* focuses on the description of the peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language. A branch of study called *contrastive lexicology* provides a theoretical foundation on which the vocabularies of different languages can be compared and described, the correlation between the vocabularies of two or more languages being the scientific priority.

Vocabulary studies include such aspects of research as *etymology, semasiology and onomasiology*. The evolution of a vocabulary forms the object of historical lexicology or e*tymology* (from Gr. etymon "true, real"), discussing the origin of various words, their change and development, examining the linguistic and extra-linguistic forces that modify their structure, meaning and usage.

Semasiology (from Gr. semasia "signification") is a branch of linguistics whose subject-matter is the study of word meaning and the classification of changes in the signification of words or forms, viewed as normal and vital factors of any linguistic development. It is the most relevant to polysemy and homonymy.

Onomasiology is the study of the principles and regularities of the signification of things / notions by lexical and lexico-phraseological means of a given language. It has its special value in studying dialects, bearing an obvious relevance to synonymity.

Descriptive lexicology deals with the vocabulary of a language at a given stage of its evolution. It studies the functions of words and their specific structure as a characteristic inherent in the system. In the English language the above science is oriented towards the English word and its morphological and semantic structures, researching the interdependence between these two aspects. These structures are identified and distinguished by contrasting the nature and arrangement of their elements.

Within the framework of lexicology, both *synchronic* (Gr syn "together", "with" and chronos "time") and *diachronic* or historical (Gr dia "through") approaches to the language suggested by the Swiss philologist Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913) are effectively realized. Language is the reality of thought, and thought develops together with the development of a society, thus the language and its vocabulary should be studied in the light of social history. Every new phenomenon in a human society in general, which is of any importance for communication, finds a reflection in the corresponding vocabulary. A word is considered to be a generalized reflection of reality; therefore, it is impossible to understand its development if one is ignorant of the changes in socio-political or everyday life, manners and culture, science of a linguoculture it serves to reflect. These extra-linguistic forces influencing the evolution of words are taken into the priority consideration in modern lexicology.

With regard to special lexicology the synchronic approach is concerned with the vocabulary of a language as it exists at a certain time (e.g., a course in Modern English Lexicology). The diachronic approach in terms of special lexicology deals with the changes and the development of the vocabulary in the course of time. It is special historical lexicology that deals with the evolution of vocabulary units as time goes by. The two approaches should not be contrasted, as they are interdependent since every linguistic structure and system actually 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 evolution.

2. The word as the fundamental object of lexicology. The real nature of a word and the term itself has always been one of the most ambiguous issues in almost every branch of linguistics. To use it as a term in the description of language, we must be sure what we mean by it. To illustrate the point here, let us count the words in the following sentence: You can't tie a bow with the rope in the bow of a boat. Probably the most straightforward answer to this is to say that there are 14. However, the orthographic perspective taken by itself, of course, ignores the meaning of the words, and as soon as we invoke meanings we at least are talking about different words bow, to start with. Being a central element of any language system, the word is a focus for the problems of phonology, lexicology, syntax, morphology, stylistics and also for a number of other language and speech sciences.

Within the framework of linguistics the word has acquired definitions from the syntactic, semantic, phonological points of view as well as a definition combining various approaches. Thus, it has been syntactically defined as "the minimum sentence" by H.Sweet and much later as "the minimum independent unit of utterance" by L.Bloomfield. E. Sapir concentrates on the syntactic and semantic aspects calling the word "one of the smallest completely satisfying bits of isolated meaning, into which the sentence resolves itself". A purely semantic treatment is observed in S. Ullmann's explanation of words as meaningful segments that are ultimately composed of meaningful units. The prominent French linguist A. Meillet combines the semantic, phonological and grammatical criteria: "A word is defined by the association of a given meaning with a given group of sounds susceptible of a given grammatical employment". Notions fixed in word meanings are formed as generalized and approximately correct reflections of reality, thus, signifying them words objectivize reality and conceptual worlds in their content. So, *the word* is a basic unit of a language resulting from the association of a given meaning with a given cluster of sounds susceptible of a certain grammatical employment.

The nature of the word. Taking into consideration the above, let us consider the nature of the word. First, the word is a *unit of speech w*hich serves the purposes of human communication. Thus, the word can be defined as a *unit of communication.* Secondly, the word can be perceived as the *total of the sounds* which comprise it. Third, the word, viewed structurally, possesses several characteristics.

 The modern approach to the word is based on distinguishing between the *external and the internal structures of the word.* By the *external structure* of the word we mean its morphological structure. For example, in the word post-impressionists the following

morphemes can be distinguished: the prefixes post-, im-, the root –press-, the noun-forming suffixes -ion, -ist, and the grammatical suffix of plurality -s. All these morphemes constitute the external structure of the word post-impressionists. The *internal structure* of the word, or its meaning, is nowadays commonly referred to as the word's semantic structure. This is the word's main aspect. Words can serve the purposes of human communication solely due to their meanings.

Another structural aspect of the word is its *unity*. The word possesses both its *external (*or formal) unity and *semantic* unity. The formal unity of the word is sometimes inaccurately interpreted as indivisibility. The example of *postimpressionists* has already shown that the word is not, strictly speaking, indivisible, though permanently linked. The formal unity of the word can best be illustrated by comparing a word and a word-group comprising identical constituents. The difference between a blackbird and a black bird is best explained by their relationship with the grammatical system of the language. The word blackbird, which is characterized by unity, possesses a single grammatical framing: blackbirds. The first constituent black is not subject to any grammatical changes. In the word-group a black bird each constituent can acquire grammatical forms of its own: the blackest birds I've ever seen. Other words can be inserted between the components which is impossible so far as the word is concerned as it would violate its unity: a black night bird.

The same example may be used to illustrate what we mean by semantic unity. In the word-group a black bird each of the meaningful words conveys a separate concept: bird – a kind of living creature; black – a color. The word blackbird conveys only one concept: the type of bird. This is one of the main features of any word: it always conveys one concept, no matter how many component morphemes it may have in its external structure. c) A further structural feature of the word is its susceptibility to grammatical employment. In speech most words can be used in different grammatical forms in which their interrelations are realized. So, the formal/structural properties of the word are 1) i*solatability* (words can function in isolation, can make a sentence of their own under certain circumstances); 2) *inseparability/unity* (words are characterized by some integrity, e.g. a light – alight (with admiration); 3) a certain *freedom of distribution* (exposition in the sentence can be different); 4) *susceptibility to grammatical employment*; 5) a word as one of the fundamental units of the language is a double facet unit of form (its external structure) and meaning (its internal/semantic structure).

To sum it up, a word is the smallest naming unit of a language with a more or less free distribution used for the purposes of human communication, materially representing a group of

sounds, possessing a meaning, susceptible to grammatical employment and characterized by formal and semantic unity.

3. Levels of study in lexicology. Modern approaches to this problem are characterized by two different levels of study: *syntagmatic and paradigmatic.*

On the *syntagmatic level*, the semantic structure of the word is analyzed in its linear relationships with neighboring words in connected speech. In other words, the semantic characteristics of the word are observed, described and studied on the basis of its typical contexts.

On the *paradigmatic level*, the word is studied in its relationships with other words in the vocabulary system. So, a word may be studied in comparison with other words of a similar meaning (e. g. work, n. – labor, n.; to refuse, v. – to reject v. – to decline, v.), of opposite meaning (e. g. busy, adj. – idle, adj.; to accept, v. – to reject, v.), of different stylistic characteristics (e. g. man, n. – chap, n. – bloke, n. — guy, n.).

Consequently, the key problems of paradigmatic studies are synonymy, antonymy, and functional styles. One further important objective of lexicological studies is the study of the vocabulary of a language as a system. Revising the issue, the vocabulary can be studied synchronically (at a given stage of its development), or diachronically (in the context of the processes through which it grew, developed and acquired its modern form). The opposition of the two approaches is nevertheless disputable as the vocabulary, as well as the word which is its fundamental unit, is not only what it is at this particular stage of the language development, but what it was centuries ago and has been throughout its history.

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LECTURE II   The Etymology of English Words. Words of Native Origin.

1.   A brief survey of the history of English language.

2.   The etymological structure of English vocabulary. Words of native origin.

It is true that English vocabulary, which is one of the most extensive amongst the world's languages contains an immense number of words of foreign origin. Explanations for this should be sought in the history of the language which is closely connected with the history of the nation speaking the language. In order to have a better understanding of the problem, it will be necessary to go through a brief survey of certain historical facts, relating to different epochs. By *etymology* of words is understood their origin.

The first century B. C. Most of the territory now, known to us as Europe is occupied by the Roman Empire. Among the inhabitants of the continent are Germanic tribes, "barbarians" as the arrogant Romans call them. Theirs is really a rather primitive stage of development, especially if compared with the high civilisation and refinement of Rome. They are primitive cattle-

breeders and know almost nothing about land cultivation. Their tribal languages contain only Indo-European and Germanic elements. The latter fact is of some importance for the purposes of our survey.

Now comes an event which brings an important change. After a number of wars between the Germanic tribes and the Romans these two opposing peoples come into peaceful contact. Trade is carried on, and the Germanic people gain knowledge of new and useful things. The first among them are new things to eat. It has been mentioned that Germanic cattle-breeding was on a primitive scale. Its only products known to the Germanic tribes were meat and milk. It is from the Romans that they learn how to make butter and cheese and, as there are naturally no words for these foodstuffs in their tribal languages, they are to use the Latin words to name them (Lat. *butyrum, caseus).* It is also to the Romans that the Germanic tribes owe the knowledge of some new fruits and vegetables of which they had no idea before, and the Latin names of these fruits

and vegetables enter their vocabularies reflecting this new knowledge: *cherry* (Lat. *cerasum),* *pear* (Lat. *pirum), plum* (Lat. *prunus), pea* (Lat. *pisum), beet* (Lat. *beta), pepper* (Lat. *piper).* It is interesting to note that the word *plant* is also a Latin borrowing[1] of this period (Lat. *planta).*

 By a *borrowing* or *loan-word* we mean a word which came into the vocabulary of one language from another and was assimilated by the new language.

Here are some more examples of Latin borrowings of this period: *cup* (Lat. *cuppa), kitchen* (Lat. *coquina), mill* (Lat. *molina), port* (Lat. *portus), wine* (Lat. *vinum).*

The fact that all these borrowings occurred is in itself significant. It was certainly important that the Germanic tribal languages gained a considerable number of new words and were thus enriched. What was even more significant was that all these Latin words were destined to become the earliest group of borrowings in the future English language which was — much later — built on the basis of the Germanic tribal languages. Which brings us to another epoch, much closer to the English language as we know it, both in geographical and chronological terms.

The fifth century A. D. Several of the Germanic tribes (the most numerous amongst them being the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes) migrated across the sea now known as the English Channel to the British Isles. There they were confronted by the Celts, the original inhabitants of the Isles. The Celts desperately defended their lands against the invaders, but they were no match for the military-minded Teutons and gradually yielded most of their territory. They retreated to the North and South-West (modern Scotland, Wales and Cornwall). Through their numerous contacts with the defeated Celts, the conquerors got to know and assimilated a number of Celtic words (Mod. E. *bald, down, glen, druid, bard, cradle).* Especially numerous among the Celtic borrowings were place names, names of rivers, bills, etc. The Germanic tribes occupied the land, but the names of many parts and features of their territory remained Celtic. For instance, the names of the rivers Avon, Exe, Esk, Usk, Ux originate from Celtic words meaning "river" and "water".

Ironically, even the name of the English capital originates from Celtic *Llyn + dun* in which *llyn* is another Celtic word for "river" and *dun* stands for "a fortified hill", the meaning of the whole being "fortress on the hill over the river".

Some Latin words entered the Anglo-Saxon languages through Celtic, among them such widely-used words as *street* (Lat. *strata via)* and *wall* (Lat. *vallum).*

The seventh century A. D. This century was significant for the christianisation of England. Latin was the official language of the Christian church, and consequently the spread of Christianity was accompanied by a new period of Latin borrowings. These no longer came from spoken Latin as they did eight centuries earlier, but from church Latin. Also, these new Latin borrowings were very different in meaning from the earlier ones. They mostly indicated persons, objects and ideas associated with church and religious rituals. E. g. *priest (Lai. presbyter), bishop (Lai. episcopus), monk* (Lat. *monachus), nun (Lai. nonna), candle (Lai. candela).*

Additionally, in a class of their own were educational terms. It was quite natural that these were also Latin borrowings, for the first schools in England were church schools, and the first teachers priests and monks. So, the very word *school* is a Latin borrowing (Lat. *schola,* of Greek origin) and so are such words *as scholar (Lai. scholar(-is)* and *magister* (Lat. *ma-gister).*

From the end of the 8th c. to the middle of the 11th c. England underwent several Scandinavian invasions which inevitably left their trace on English vocabulary. Here are some examples of early Scandinavian borrowings: *call,* v., *take,* v., *cast,* v., *die,* v., *law,* п., *husband,* n. (< Sc. *hus + bondi,* i. e. "inhabitant of the house"), *window* n. (< Sc. *vindauga,* i. e. "the eye of the wind"), *ill,* adj., *loose,* adj., *low,* adj., *weak,* adj.

Some of the words of this group are easily recognisable as Scandinavian borrowings by the initial *sk-* combination. E. g. *sky, skill, skin, ski, skirt.*

Certain English words changed their meanings under the influence of Scandinavian words of the same root. So, the O. E. *bread* which meant "piece" acquired its modern meaning by association with the Scandinavian *brand.*

The O. E. *dream* which meant "joy" assimilated the meaning of the Scandinavian *draumr (cf.* with the Germ. *Traum* "dream" and the R. *дрёма).*

1066. With the famous Battle of Hastings, when the English were defeated by the Normans under William the Conqueror, we come to the eventful epoch of the Norman Conquest. The epoch can well be called eventful not only in national, social, political and human terms, but also in linguistic terms. England became a bi-lingual country, and the impact on the English vocabulary made over this two-hundred-years period is immense: French words from the Norman dialect penetrated every aspect of social life. Here is a very brief list of examples of *Norman French borrowings.*

Administrative words: *state, government, parliament, council, power.*

Legal terms: *court, judge, justice, crime, prison.*

Military terms: *army, war, soldier, officer, battle, enemy.*

Educational terms: *pupil, lesson, library, science, pen, pencil.*

Everyday life was not unaffected by the powerful influence of French words. Numerous terms of everyday life were also borrowed from French in this period: e. g. *table, plate, saucer, dinner, supper, river, autumn, uncle,* etc.

The *Renaissance Period.* In England, as in all European countries, this period was marked by significant developments in science, art and culture and, also, by a revival of interest in the ancient civilisations of Greece and Rome and their languages. Hence, there occurred a considerable number of Latin and Greek borrowings. In contrast to the earliest Latin borrowings (1st c. B. C.), the Renaissance ones were rarely concrete names. They were mostly abstract words (e. g. *major, minor, filial,moderate, intelligent, permanent, to elect, to create).* There were naturally numerous scientific and artistic terms *(datum, status, phenomenon, philosophy, method, music).*[1] The same is true of Greek Renaissance borrowings (e. g. *atom, cycle, ethics, esthete).*

The Renaissance was a period of extensive cultural contacts between the major European states. Therefore, it was only natural that new words also entered the English vocabulary from other European languages. The most significant once more were French borrowings. This time they came from the Parisian dialect of French and are known as *Parisian borrowings.* Examples: *regime, routine, police, machine, ballet, matinee, scene, technique, bourgeois,* etc. (One should note that these words of French origin sound and "look" very different from their Norman predecessors. We shall return to this question later (see Ch. 4).)

Italian also contributed a considerable number of words to English, e. g. *piano, violin, opera, alarm, colonel.*

There are certain structural features which enable us to identify some words as borrowings and even to determine the source language. We have already established that the initial *sk* usually indicates Scandinavian origin. You can also recognise words of Latin and French origin by certain suffixes, prefixes or endings. The two tables below will help you in this.

The historical survey above is far from complete. Its aim is just to give a very general idea of the ways in which English vocabulary developed and of the major events through which it acquired its vast modern resources.

Phenomenon, philosophy, method, music, etc. were borrowed into English from Latin and had earlier come into Latin from Greek.one would certainly expect the native element to prevail. This anomaly is explained by the country's eventful history and by its many international contacts.

On a straight vocabulary count, considering the high percentage of borrowed words, one would have to classify English as a language of international origin or, at least, a Romance one (as French and Latin words obviously prevail). But here another factor comes into play, the relative frequency of occurrence of words, and it is under this heading that the native Anglo-Saxon heritage comes into its own. 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.).

English vocabulary consists of two layers – the native stock of words and the borrowed stock of words. The native words are further subdivided into those of Indo-European stock, those of Germanic origin and those of the English proper origin.

Some Especially Frequent Borrowed Affixes

Latin Affixes

The prefix –dis	disable, disagree, disown, etc.
The suffix -able	curable, capable, adorable, etc
The suffix -ate	congratulate, create, appreciate, etc
The suffix –ute	contribute, constitute, attribute, etc.
The remnant suffix -ct	conduct, collect, act, etc.

The remnant suffix –d(e)	applaud, include, divide, etc
The suffix -ant	constant, important, arrogant, etc
The suffix -ion	opinion, legion, union, etc.
The suffix –tion	temptation, relation, revolution, etc.
The suffix -ent	absent, evident, decent, etc.
The suffix -or	junior, major, senior, etc.
The suffix -al	fraternal, maternal, cordial, etc
The suffix -ar	familiar, solar, lunar, etc.

French Affixes

The suffix -ance	arrogance,endurance
The suffix -ence	intelligence,patience
The suffix -ment	apointment,development
The suffix -age	courage, marriage
The suffix -ess	tigress,atcress
The suffix -ous	curious ,dengerous
The prefix -ens	enable,enslave

2. The Etymological Structure of English Vocabulary. Words of Native Origin.

Now let us turn to the native element, the original stock of the English vocabulary. It consists of three groups, only the third being dated: the words of this group appeared in the English vocabulary in the 5th c. or later, that is, after the Germanic tribes migrated to the British Isles. As to the Indo-European and Germanic groups, they are so old that they cannot be dated. It was mentioned in the historical survey opening this chapter that the tribal languages of the Angles, the Saxons, the Jutes, by the time of their migration, contained only words of Indo-European and Germanic roots plus a certain number of the earliest Latin borrowings.

By the Indo-European element are meant words of roots common to all or most languages of the Indo-European group. English words of this group denote elementary concepts without which no human communication would be possible. The following groups can be identified.

I. Family relations: *father, mother, brother, son,daughter.*

II. Parts of the human body: *foot* (cf. R. *пядь), nose, lip, heart.*

III. Animals: *cow, swine goose.*

IV. Plants: *tree, birch (Uk.береза), corn (Uk.зерно)*

V. Time of day: *day, night.*

VI. Heavenly bodies*: sun, moon, star.*

VII. Numerous adjectives: *red (Ukr.рудий), glad , sad (R.сытый)*

VIII. The numerals from one to a hundred.

IX. Pronouns- personal ,(except *they ,* which is a Scandinavian borrowing), demonstrative.

X .Numerous verbs: *be (R. Быть), stand (R.стоять), sit (R.сидеть), know.*

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.

I. Parts of the human body :*head, hand, arm, finger.*

II. Animals: *bear, fox, calf.*

III. Plants: *oak, fir, grass.*

IV. Seasons of the year: *winter, spring, summer.*(*Autumn* is a French borrowing)

V. Landscape features: sea, plant.

VI Human dwellings and furniture: *house, room, bench.*

VII. Sea –going vessels: *boat, ship.*

IX. Adjectives: green*, blue, grey, white, small, thick, high, old, good. .*

X. Verbs: *see, hear, speak, tell, say, answer, make, give, drink.*

It haIt has been mentioned that the English proper element is, in certain respects, opposed to the first two groups. Not only can it be approximately dated, but these words have another distinctive feature: they are specifically English having no cognates[2] in other languages whereas for Indo-European and Germanic words such cognates can always be found, as, for instance, for the following words of the Indo-European group.

Star: Germ. *Stern,* Lat. *Stella,* Gr. *aster.*

Sad: Germ, *satt,* Lat. *satis,* R. *сыт,.*

Stand: Germ, *stehen,* Lat. *stare, R. стоять.*

Here are some examples of English proper words. These words stand quite alone in the vocabulary system of Indo-European languages: *bird, boy, girl, lord, lady, woman, daisy, always.*

Of course, one might remark that Russian vocabulary also has the words *лорд, леди, бой* (in the meaning of "native servant"). The explanation is simple: these words have been borrowed by Russian from English and therefore are not cognates of their English counterparts. *Cognates* — words of the same etymological root, of common origin.

It should be taken into consideration that the English proper element also contains all the later formations, that is, words which were made after the 5th century according to English word-building patterns both from native and borrowed morphemes. For instance, the adjective 'beautiful' built from the French borrowed root and the native suffix belongs to the English proper element.

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LECTURE III The Etymology of English Words .Reasons for Borrowing Process. Assimilation of Borrowings.

1. Reasons for Borrowing Process.

2.Assimilation of Borrowings.

3. Types of Borrowings.

1. Reasons for Borrowing Process. This question partially concerns the historical circumstances which stimulate the borrowing process. Each time two nations come into close contact, certain borrowings are a natural consequence. The nature of the contact may be different. It may be wars, invasions or conquests when foreign words are in effect imposed upon the reluctant conquered nation. There are also periods of peace when the process of borrowing is due to trade and international cultural relations.

These latter circumstances are certainly more favourable for stimulating the borrowing process, for during invasions and occupations the natural psychological reaction of the oppressed nation is to reject and condemn the language of the oppressor. In this respect the linguistic heritage of the Norman Conquest seems exceptional, especially if compared to the influence of the Mongol-Tartar Yoke on the Russian language. The Mongol-Tartar Yoke also represented a long period of cruel oppression, yet the imprint left by it on the Russian vocabulary is comparatively insignificant.

The difference in the consequences of these evidently similar historical events is usually explained by the divergence in the level of civilisation of the two conflicting nations. Russian civilisation and also the level of its language development at the time of the Mongol-Tartar invasion were superior to those of the invaders. That is why the Russian language successfully

resisted the influence of a less developed language system. On the other hand, the Norman culture of the 11th c. was certainly superior to that of the Saxons. The result was that an immense number of French words forced their way into English vocabulary. Yet, linguistically speaking, this seeming defeat turned into a victory. Instead of being smashed and broken by the powerful intrusion of the foreign element, the English language managed to preserve its essential structure and vastly enriched its expressive resources with the new borrowings.

But all this only serves to explain the conditions which encourage the borrowing process. The question of *why* words are borrowed by one language from another is still unanswered.

Sometimes it is done 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.*

2. Assimilation of borrowings. Assimilation is the process of changing the adopted word. The process of assimilation of borrowings includes changes in sound form of morphological structure, grammar characteristics, meaning and usage.

Phonetic assimilation comprises changes in sound form and stress. Sounds that were alien to the English language were fitted into its scheme of sounds, e.g. In the recent French borrowings communique, cafe the long [e] and [e] are rendered with the help of [ei]. The accent is usually transferred to the first syllable in the words from foreign sources. The degree of phonetic adaptation depends on the period of borrowing: the earlier the period the more completed this adaptation. While such words as "table", "plate" borrowed from French in the 8th - 11th centuries can be considered fully assimilated, later Parisian borrowings (15th c.) such as regime, valise, cafe" are still pronounced in a French manner.

Grammatical adaption is usually a less lasting process, because in order to function adequately in the recipient language a borrowing must completely change its paradigm. Though there are some well-known exceptions as plural forms of the English Renaissance borrowings - datum pl. data, criterion - pl. criteria and others.

The process of semantic assimilation has many forms: narrowing of meanings (usually polysemantic words are borrowed in one of the meanings); specialisation or generalisation of meanings, acquiring new meanings in the recipient language, shifting a primary meaning to the position of a secondary meaning. Completely assimilated borrowings are the words, which have undergone all types of assimilation. Such words are frequently used and are stylistically neutral, they may occur as dominant words in a synonymic group. They take an active part in word formation.

Partially assimilated borrowings are the words which lack one of the types of assimilation. They are subdivided into the groups:

1) Borrowings not assimilated semantically (e.g. shah, rajah). Such words usually denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from which they came.

2) Loan words not assimilated grammatically, e.g. nouns borrowed from Latin or Greek which keep their original plural forms (datum - data, phenomenon - phenomena).

3)Loan words not completely assimilated phonetically. These words contain peculiarities in stress, combinations of sounds that are not standard for English (machine, camouflage, tobacco).

4) Loan words not completely assimilated graphically (e.g. ballet, cafe, cliche).

Barbarisms are words from other languages used by the English people in conversation or in writing but not assimilated in any way, and for which there are corresponding English equivalents e.g. ciao Italian - good-bye English

3. Types of Borrowings.

International Words It is often the case that a word is borrowed by several languages, and not just by one. Such words usually con-

vey concepts which are significant in the field of communication.

Many of them are of Latin and Greek origin. Most names of sciences are international, e. g. *philosophy, mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, medicine, linguistics, lexicology.* There are also numerous terms of art in this group: *music, theatre, drama, tragedy, comedy, artist, primadonna.*

It is quite natural that political terms frequently occur in the international group of borrowings: *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 latter is a Russian borrowing, and it became an international word (meaning a man-made satellite) in 1961, immediately after the first space flight by Yury Gagarin.

The English language also contributed a considerable number of international words to world languages. Among them the sports terms occupy a prominent position: *football, volley-ball, baseball, hockey, cricket, rugby, tennis, golf,* etc.

Fruits and foodstuffs imported from exotic countries often transport their names too and, being simultaneously 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 E. *son,* the Germ. *Sohn* and the R. *сын* 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.

Etymological Doublets   The words *shirt* and *skirt* etymologically descend from the same root. *Shirt* is a native word, and *skirt* (as the initial *sk* suggests), is a Scandinavian borrowing. Their phonemic shape is different, and yet there is a certain resemblance which reflects their common origin. Their meanings are also different but easily associated: they both denote articles of clothing.

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

They may enter the vocabulary by different routes. Some of these pairs, like *shirt* and *skirt,* consist of a native word and a borrowed word: *shrew,* n. (E.) — *screw,* n. (Sc.).

Others are represented by two borrowings from different languages which are historically descended from the same root: *senior* (Lat.) — *sir* (Fr.), *canal* (Lat.) — *channel* (Fr.), *captain* (Lat.) — *chieftan* (Fr.).

Still others were borrowed from the same language twice, but in different periods: *corpse* [ko:ps] (Norm. Fr.) — *corps* [ko:] (Par. Fr.), *travel* (Norm. Fr.) — *travail* (Par. Fr.), *cavalry* (Norm. Fr.) — *chivalry* (Par. Fr.), *gaol* (Norm. Fr.) — *jail* (Par. Fr.).

Etymological triplets (i. e. groups of three words of common root) occur rarer, but here are at least two examples: *hospital* (Lat.) — *hostel* (Norm. Fr.) — *hotel* (Par. Fr.), *to capture* (Lat.) — *to catch* (Norm. Fr.) — *to chase* (Par. Fr.).

A doublet may also consist of a shortened word and the one from which it was derived (see Ch. 6 for a description of shortening as a type of word-building): *history — story, fantasy — fancy, fanatic — fan, defence — fence, courtesy — curtsy, shadow — shade.*

Translation-Loans

The term *loan-word* is equivalent to *borrowing.* By translation-loans we indicate borrowings of a special kind. 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), collective farm* (from R. *колхоз), five-year plan* (from R. *пятилетка).*

The Russian *колхоз* was borrowed twice, by way of translation-loan *(collective farm)* and by way of direct borrowing *(kolkhoz).*

The case is not unique. 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.*

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Lecture IV   Word- Formation in Modern English

1. Morphological Structure of a Word.

2 The Main Structural Types of Modern English Words

3.Major Types of Modern English Word Building.

1.**Morphological Structure of a Word**. The word consists of morphemes. The term *morpheme* is derived from Greek morphe (form) + -eme. The Greek suffix -eme 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, occurring 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.

According to the role they play in constructing words all morphemes are subdivided into two large classes: *roots* (or *radicals)* and *affixes.* The latter, in their turn, fall into *prefixes* which precede the root in the structure of the word (as in *re-read, mis-pronounce, unwell)* and *suffixes* which follow the root (as in *teach-er, cur-able, diet-ate). Stem* is part of the word consisting of root and affix. In English words stern and root often coincide. *Word formation is the* creation of new words from the elements existing in the language. Together with borrowing, word-building provides for enlarging and enriching the vocabulary of the language.

A root is the lexical nucleus of a word bearing the major individual meaning common to a set of semantically related words, constituting one word cluster/word-family (e.g. learn-learner-

learned learnable; heart-hearten, dishearten, hear-broken, hearty, kind-hearted etc.) with which no grammatical properties of the word are connected

Unlike a root, a *stem* is that part of the word that remains unchanged throughout its paradigm (formal aspect). For instance, heart-hearts-to one's heart's content vs. hearty-heartier-the heartiest. It is the basic unit at the derivational level, taking the inflections which shape the word grammatically as a part of speech. There are three types of stems: simple, derived and compound. *Simple stems* are semantically non-motivated and do not constitute a pattern on analogy with which new stems may be modeled (e.g. pocket, motion, receive, etc.). Simple stems are generally monomorphic and phonetically identical with the root morphemes (sell, grow, kink, etc.). *Derived stems* are built on stems of various structures, they are motivated, i.e. derived stems are understood on the basis of the derivative relations between their immediate constituents and the correlated stems. Derived stems are mostly polymorphic (e.g. governments, unbelievable, etc.). *Compound stems* are made up of two immediate constituents, both of which are themselves stems, e.g. match-box, pen-holder, ex-film-star, etc. It is built by joining two stems, one of which is simple, the other is derived. The derivational types of words are classified according to

2. The main Structural Types of English Words. *T*here are some structural types of words in English: 1) *simple words* (single root morphemes, e.g. agree, child, red, etc.);

2) *derivatives* (affixational derived words) consisting one or more affixes: enjoyable, childhood, unbelievable). Derived words are extremely numerous in the English vocabulary. Successfully competing with this structural type is the so-called root word which has only a root morpheme in its structure. This type is widely represented by a great number of words belonging to the original English stock or to earlier borrowings (house, room, book, work, port, street, table, etc.).

3} words made by conversion (e. g. to hand, v. formed from the noun hand; to can, v. from can, n.; to pale, v. from pale, adj.; a find, n. from to find, v.; etc.);

3) *compound* words consisting of two or more stems (e. g. dining-room, bluebell, mother-in-law, good-for-nothing, etc.). Words of this structural type are produced by the word-building process called composition;

4) *derivational compounds* in which phrase components are joined together by means of compounding and affixation (e.g. oval-shaped, strong-willed, care-free);

5) *phrasal verbs* as a result of a strong tendency of English to simplification (to put up with, to give up, to take for, etc.) .

3.Major Types of English Word Building . *Word building (word-formation*) is the creation of new words from elements already existing in a particular language. Every language has its own patterns of word formation. Together with borrowing, word-building provides for enlarging and enriching the vocabulary of the language. The process of **affixation** consists in coining a new word by adding an affix or several affixes to some root morpheme – principal, promotion . The role of the affix in this procedure is very important and therefore it is necessary to consider certain facts about the main types of affixes.

From the etymological point of view affixes are classified into the same two large groups as words: native and borrowed. Borrowed affixes s. p 11-12.

Some Native Suffixes

Noun-forming	-er	worker, *miner,* teacher, painter, etc.
	-ness	*coldness, loneliness, loveliness,* etc.
	-ing	fee*ling,* mea*ning,* sing*ing,* read*ing,* etc.
	-dom	free*dom,* wis*dom,* king*dom,* etc.
	-hood	child*hood*, man*hood*, mother*hood*,
	-ship	friend*ship*, companion*ship*, master-*ship,* etc.
	-th	leng*th,* bread*th,* heal*th,* tru*th,* etc.
Adjective-forming	-ful	care*ful,* joy*ful,* wonder*ful,* sin*ful,* skil*ful,* etc.
	-less	care*less,* sleep*less,* cloud*less,* sense-*less,* etc.
	-y	coz*y,* tid*y,* merr*y,* snow*y,* show*y,* etc.
	-ish	Engli*sh,* Spani*sh,* reddi*sh,* childi*sh,* etc.
	-ly	*lonely, lovely, ugly, likely, lordly,*
	-en	*wooden, woollen,* silken, golden, etc.
	-some	hand*some,* quarrel*some,* tire*some,*
Verb-forming	-en	wid*en,* redd*en,* dark*en,* sadd*en,* etc.
Adverb-forming	-ly	warm*ly,* hard*ly,* simp*ly,* careful*ly,* cold*ly, etc.*

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). 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).

The semantic distinctions of words produced from the same root by means of different affixes are also of considerable interest, 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 R. цветистый), *flowered* means "decorated with a pattern of flowers" (e. g. *flowered silk or chintz, cf.* with the R. цветастый) and *flowering* is the same as *blossoming* (e. g. *flowering bushes or shrubs, cf.* with the R. цветущий).

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.

Conversion. The process of coining new words in a different part of speech and with a different distribution characteristic but without adding any derivative element, so that the basic form of the original and the basic form of the derived word are homonymous, is called conversion. In other words, it is the formation of a new word through changes in its paradigm.

Conversion is not only a highly productive but also a particularly English way of word-building. Its overwhelming productivity is considerably encouraged by certain features of the English language in its modern stage of development. The analytical structure of Modern English greatly facilitates processes of making words of one category of parts of speech from words of another. So does the simplicity of paradigms of English parts of speech. A great number of one-syllable words is another factor in favor of conversion, for such words are naturally more mobile and flexible than polysyllables.

The two categories of parts of speech especially affected by conversion are nouns and verbs. *Verbs* made from nouns are the most numerous amongst the words produced by conversion: e. g. to hand, to back, 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, to towel, to tattoo, and very many others.

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.

V*erbs* can also be made from a*djectives*: 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.

Other parts of speech are not entirely unsusceptible to conversion as the following examples show: to down, to out , the ups and downs, the ins and outs, like, n. (as in the like of me and the like of you, the whys and wherefores, etc.

There are certain *regularities* in conversion associations. For instance, in the group of verbs made from nouns 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 an aspect of behavior 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 21 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 pocket).

7. The name of a meal — the process of taking it (to lunch, to supper).

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

Composition . This type of word-building, in which new words are produced by combining two or more stems. Compounds, though certainly fewer in quantity than derived or root words, still represent one of the most typical and specific features of English word-structure.Compounds are not homogeneous in structure. Traditionally three types are distinguished: neutral, morphological and syntactic.

Neutural compounds have also some types:

In *simple neutral compounds*: the process of compounding is realised without any linking elements, by a mere juxtaposition of two stems, as in *blackbird, shop-window, sunflower, bedroom, tallboy,* etc.

Compounds which have affixes in their structure are called *derived or derivational compounds*. E. g. *absent-mindedness, blue-eyed, golden-haired, broad-shouldered, lady-killer, film-goer, music-lover, honey-mooner, first-nighter, late-comer, newcomer, early-riser, evildoer.* The productivity of this type is confirmed by a considerable number of comparatively recent formations, such as *teenager, babysitter, strap-hanger, fourseater* ("car or boat with four seats"), *doubledecker* ("a ship or bus with two decks").

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

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

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

Compound nouns can be coined according to the following patterns:

 N+N (e.g. night-club, airhostess, etc (this pattern is the most productive);

Adj + N (e.g. deadline, sweet-heart, etc.) V + N (e.g. push-cart, fly-wheel, etc.)

Ving + N (e.g. living room, blotting paper);

N + V-ing (e.g. law-breaking, horseracing).

 Compound adjectives are built up after such patterns: N + A (e.g. show-white, sky-blue);

A + A (e.g. red-hot, social linguistic);

A + N-ed (e.g. long-legged, navy-eyed);

 N + V-ed (e.g. crisis-ridden, hand-made)

 N/A/Adv/Pron + V-ing (e.g. peace-making, joy-causing, easy-going, everlasting, self-denying)

Compound adverbs, pronouns, connectives are represented by an insignificant number of words (e.g. anything, inside, upright, somebody, otherwise, moreover, elsewhere, anything, by means of, etc.)

Another focus of interest is the semantic aspect of compound words, that is, the question: can the meaning of a compound word be regarded as the sum of its constituent meanings?

To try and answer this question, let us consider the following groups of examples.

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

This group seems to represent compounds whose meanings can really be described as the sum of their constituent meanings. They are called *non-idiomatic compounds.*

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

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

In these compounds one of the components (or both) has changed its meaning: a blackboard is neither a board nor necessarily black, football is not a ball but a game, a chatterbox not a box but a person, and a lady-killer kills no one but is merely a man who fascinates women. It is clear that in all these compounds the meaning of the whole word cannot be defined as the sum of the constituent meanings

Similar enigmas are encoded in such words as *man-of-war* ("warship"), *merry-to-round* ("carousel"),

The compounds whose meanings do not correspond to the separate meanings of their constituent parts are called *idiomatic compounds,* in contrast to the first group known as *non-idiomatic compounds.*

Shortening (or contraction) as comparatively new way of word-building has achieved a high degree of productivity nowadays, especially in American English. Shortenings 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).*

 The second way of shortening is to make a new word from the initial letters of a word group: *U.N.O.* ['ju:neu] from *the United Nations Organisation, B.B.C.* from the *British Broadcasting Corporation, M.P.* from *Member of Parliament.* This type is called initial shortenings. They are found not only among formal words, such as the ones above, but also among colloquialisms and slang. So, *g. f.* is a shortened word made from the compound *girl-friend.*

Both types of shortenings are characteristic of informal speech in general and of uncultivated speech particularly. Here are some more examples of informal shortenings. *Movie* (from *moving-picture), gent* (from *gentleman), specs* (from *spectacles), circs* (from *circumstances, e. g. under the circs. Exam, lab, prof, vac, hol, co-ed* (a girl student at a coeducational school or college).

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Lecture V   Homonyms.

1. Definition of Homonyms. Classification of Homonyms. Paronyms.

2.Sources of Homonyms.

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1.**Definition of homonyms .Classification of homonyms**. Homonyms are words which are identical in sound and spelling, or, at least, in one of these aspects, but different in their meaning (e.g. bank, n. – a shore; bank, n. – an institution for receiving, lending, exchanging, and safeguarding money; ball, n. – a sphere; any spherical body; ball, n. – a large dancing party. English vocabulary is rich in such pairs and even groups of words. Their identical forms

are mostly accidental: the majority of homonyms coincided due to phonetic changes which they suffered during their development.

The most widely accepted classification of homonyms is that recognizing homonyms proper, homophones and homographs. *Homonyms proper* (or perfect, absolute) are words identical in pronunciation and spelling but different in meaning (e.g. back n. "part of the body" – back adv. 45 "away from the front"- back v. "go back"; bear n. "animal" – bear v. "carry, tolerate"). *Homophones* are words of the same sound but of different spelling and meaning (e.g. buy v. – by prep.; him pr. – hymn n.; piece n. – peace n.; rite n. – write v. – right adj.). The following joke is based on a pun which makes use of homophones: "Waiter!" "Yes, sir." "What's this?" "It's bean soup, sir." "Never mind what it has been. I want to know what it is now."

Homographs are words different in sound and in meaning but accidentally identical n spelling (e.g. bow [bau], v. – to incline the head or body in salutation; bow [bou], n. – a flexible strip of wood for propelling arrows; lead [li:d], v. – to conduct on the way, go before to show the way; lead [led] n. – a heavy, rather soft metal).

*Homoform*s are words identical in some of their grammatical forms (e.g. to bound (jump, spring) – bound (past participle of the verb bind); found (establish) found (past participle of the verb find). Homonyms may belong both to the same and to different categories of parts of speech. Obviously, a classification of homonyms should reflect this distinctive feature. Also, the paradigm of each word should be considered, because it has been observed that the paradigms of some homonyms coincide completely, and of others only partially.

Accordingly, Professor A. I. Smimitsky classified homonyms into two large classes: full homonyms and partial homonyms.

 Full lexical homonyms are words which represent the same category of parts of etch and have the same paradigm (e.g. match, n. – a game, a contest; match, n. – a short piece of wood used for producing fire; wren, n. – a member of the Women's Royal Naval Service; wren, n. – a bird).

 Partial homonyms are subdivided into three subgroups:

a) Simple lexico-grammatical partial homonyms are words which belong to the same category of parts of speech. Their paradigms have one identical form, but it is never the same form (e.g. found, v. ↔ found, v. (Past Ind., Past Part, of to find); lay, v. ↔ lay, v. (Past Ind. of to lie)).

b) Complex lexico-grammatical partial homonyms are words of different categories of parts of speech which have one identical form in their paradigms (e.g. rose, n. ↔ rose, v. (Past Ind. of to rise); left, adj. ↔ left, v. (Past Ind., Past Part, of to leave); bean, n. ↔ been, v. (Past Part, of to be)).

c) Partial lexical homonyms are words of the same category of parts of speech which are identical only in their corresponding forms (e.g. lie (lay, lain), v. ↔ lie (lied, lied), v.; hang (hung, hung), v. ↔ to hang (hanged, hanged), v.)

Paronyms are words that are alike in form, but different in meaning and usage. They are liable to be mixed and sometimes mistakenly interchanged. The term paronym comes from the Greek para "beside" and onoma "name" (e.g. precede ↔ proceed; preposition ↔ proposition; popular ↔ populous; grateful ↔ gracious; shit ↔ shoot: Oh, shoot, I forgot to buy milk (Longman)).

2.Sources of Homonyms .There are several sources of homonyms:

a) phonetic changes which words undergo in the course of their historical development. As a result of such changes, two or more words which were formerly pronounced differently may develop identical sound forms and thus become homonyms (e.g. night and knight were not homonyms in Old English as the initial k in the second word was pronounced, and not dropped as it is in its modern sound form: OE. kniht (cf OE nihi). A more complicated change of form brought together another pair of homonyms: to knead (OE cnēdan) and to need (OE nēodian);

b) conversion which serves the creating of grammatical homonyms (e.g. iron →to iron, work→ to work, etc.); c) shortening is a further type of word-building which increases the number of homonyms (e.g. fan, n. in the sense of "an enthusiastic admirer of some kind of sport or of an actor, singer" is a shortening produced from fanatic. Its homonym is a Latin borrowing fan. n. which denotes an implement for waving lightly to produce a cool current of air. The noun rep, n. denoting a kind of fabric has three homonyms made by shortening: repertory → rep, n., representative → rep, n., reputation → rep, n.);

d) borrowing is another source of homonyms. A borrowed word may, in the final stage of its phonetic adaptation, duplicate in form either a native word or another borrowing (e.g. ritus Lat. → rite n. – write v. – right adj.; pais OFr → piece, n. – pettia OFr → peace n.); e) words made by sound-imitation can also form pairs of homonyms with other words (e.g. bang, n. "a loud, sudden, explosive noise" – bang, n. "a fringe of hair combed over the forehead"; mew, n. "the sound a cat makes" – mew, n. "a sea gul" – mew, n. "a pen in which poultry is fattened" – mews "small terraced houses in Central London").

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LECTURE VI   Synonyms

1.Definiition of Synonyms. **Synonymic Dominant .**
2. Criteria of Synonymy
3.Classification of Synonyms .
4.Sources of Synonymy

 1.Definiition of Synonyms. **Synonymic Dominant .** Attempts to study the inner structure of the vocabulary have revealed that in spite of its heterogeneity the English word stock may be analyzed into numerous sub-systems whose members have some features in common, thus distinguishing them from the members of other subsystems. Words can be classified in many

ways. One way of semantic classifying is based on the semantic similarity (or polarity) of words or their component morphemes. The terms usually used to denote these two types of semantic relatedness are synonymy and antonymy.

S*ynonyms* are traditionally described as words different in sound-form but identical or similar in meaning. This definition has been severely criticized on the following points: 1) it cannot be applied to polysemantic words (e.g. the verb to look is usually regarded as a synonym of to watch, to observe, etc. but in its other meanings it is not synonymous with this group but rather with the verbs to seem, to appear); 2) it is hardly possible to speak of similarity of lexical meaning as a whole as it is only the denotational component that may be described as similar (e.g. to die and to pass away are considered synonymous, but the stylistic reference is completely different); 3) it is impossible to speak of identity in meaning as a criterion of synonymy since identity of meaning is very rare even among monosemantic words.

In this connection there has appeared a modified definition of synonyms by I.V. Arnold: *synonyms are* 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 alteration in denotational meaning, but differing in morphemic composition, phonemic shape, shades of meaning, connotations, affective value, valency and idiomatic use.

The duality of synonyms is, probably, their most confusing feature: they are somewhat the same, and yet they are most obviously different. Synonyms add precision to each detail of description and the correct choice of a word from a group of synonyms may color the whole text. They are one of the language's most important expressive means.

The principal function of synonyms is to represent the same phenomenon in different aspects, shades and variations. A carefully chosen word from a group of synonyms is a great asset both on the printed page and in a speaker's utterance. It was Mark Twain who said that the difference between the right word and just the right word is the difference between the lightning and the lightning-bug. Thus, synonymy is the coincidence in the essential meaning of words which usually preserve their differences in connotations and stylistic characteristics.

The synonymic dominant is the most general term potentially containing the specific features rendered by all the other members of the group. The words face, visage, countenance have a common denotational meaning – the front of the head which makes them close synonyms. Face is the dominant, the most general word; countenance is the same part of the head with the

reference to the expression it bears; visage is a formal word, chiefly literary, for face or countenance.

The semantic structure of a synonymic dominant is quite simple: it consists only of denotative component and it has no connotations. All (or, at least, most) synonymic groups have a "central" word of this kind whose meaning is equal to the denotation common to the entire synonymic group (e.g. to surprise — to astonish — to amaze - to astound; to shout - to yell - to bellow - to roar; to shine - to flash - to blaze - to gleam - to glisten - to sparkle - to glitter - to shimmer — to glimmer).

The dominant synonym expresses the notion common to all synonyms of the group in the most general way, without contributing any additional information as to the manner, intensity, duration or any attending feature of the referent. So, any dominant synonym is a typical basic-vocabulary word. Its meaning, which is broad and generalized, more or less covers the meanings of the rest of the synonyms, so that it may be substituted for any of them.

The characteristic features of the dominant synonym are the following: 1) high frequency of usage; 2) broad combinability (ability to be used in combinations with various classes of words); 3) broad general meaning; 4) lack of connotations. In a great number of cases the semantic difference between two or more synonyms is supported by the difference in valency (e.g. the verbs win and gain – both may be used in combination with the noun victory: to win a victory, to gain a victory but with the word war only win is possible: to win a war).

2.Criteria of synonymy. In contemporary research on synonymy semantic criterion is frequently used. In terms of componential analysis synonyms may be defined as words with the same denotation, or the same denotative component, but differing in connotations, or in connotative components. A group of synonyms may be studied with the help of their dictionary definitions (definitional analysis). In this work the data from various dictionaries are analyzed comparatively. After that the definitions are subjected to transformational operations (transitional analysis). In this way, the semantic components of each analyzed word are singled out.

In the respect of synonyms *the criterion of interchangeability* is sometimes applied. According to this, synonyms are defined as words which are interchangeable at least in some contexts without any considerable alteration in denotational meaning. But this is possible only in some contexts, in others their meanings may not coincide (e.g. the comparison of the sentences the *rainfall in April was abnormal and the rainfall in April was exceptional* may give us grounds for assuming that *exceptional and abnormal* are synonyms. The same adjectives in a different

context are by no means synonymous, as we may see by comparing my son is exceptional and my son is abnormal). This criterion of interchangeability has been much criticised. Almost every attempt to apply it to this or that group of synonyms seems to lead one to the inevitable conclusion that either there are very few synonyms or, else, that they are not interchangeable, cf:

He glared at her (i.e. He looked at her angrily).

He gazed at her (i.e. He looked at her steadily and attentively; probably with admiration or interest).

 He glanced at her (i.e. He looked at her briefly and turned away).

He peered at her (i.e. He tried to see her better, but something prevented: darkness, fog. weak eyesight).

These few examples are sufficient to show that each of the synonyms creates an entirely new situation so sharply differing from the rest that attempts at "interchanging" anything can destroy the utterance devoiding it of any sense at all. Consequently, it is difficult to accept interchangeability as a criterion of synonymy because the specific characteristic of synonyms, and the one justifying their very existence, is that they are not, cannot and should not be interchangeable. In conclusion, let us stress that even if there are some synonyms which are interchangeable, it is quite certain that there are also others which are not. A criterion should be applicable to all synonyms and not just to some of them. Otherwise it is not acceptable as a valid criterion.

Classification of synonyms The only existing classification system for synonyms was established by Academician V. V. Vinogradov, the famous Russian scholar. In his classification system there are three types of synonyms: *ideographic* (which he defined as words conveying the same concept but differing in shades of meaning), *stylistic* (differing in stylistic characteristics) and *absolute (*coinciding in all their shades of meaning and in all their stylistic characteristics).

However, the following aspects of his classification system are open to question. Firstly, absolute synonyms are rare in the vocabulary and, on the diachronic level, absolute synonymy is anomalous and consequently temporary: the vocabulary system invariably tends to abolish it either by rejecting one of the 50 absolute synonyms or by developing differentiation characteristics in one or both (or all) of them. Therefore, it does not seem necessary to include absolute synonyms, which are a temporary exception, in the system of classification.

According to the criterion of interchangeability in context synonyms are classified into *total, relative and contextual. Tota*l synonyms are those members of a synonymic group which can replace each other in any given context, without the slightest alteration in denotative meaning or emotional meaning and connotations. They are very rare. Examples can be found mostly in special literature among technical terms and others (*fatherland – motherland; suslik - gopher; noun — substantive; functional affix -, inflection; scarlet fever – scarlatina.)*

Some authors class groups like *ask - beg - implore, or like - love ~ adore, gift - talent - genius, famous - celebrate - eminent* as relative synonyms, as they denote different degree of the same notion or different shades of meanings and can be substituted only in some contexts. *Contextual* or context-dependent synonyms are similar in meaning only under some specific distributional conditions. It may happen that the difference between the meanings of two words is contextually neutralized (buy and get would not generally be taken as synonymous, but they arc synonyms in the following examples – I'll go to the shop and buy some bread and I'll go to the shop and get some bread).

A more modem and a more effective approach to the classification of synonyms may be based on the definition describing synonyms *as words differing in connotations.* It seems convenient to classify connotations by which synonyms differ rather than synonyms themselves. It opens up possibilities for tracing much subtler distinctive features within their semantic structures.

I. The connotation of *degree or intensity* can be traced in such groups of synonyms as to surprise - to astonish - to amaze - to astound; to satisfy - to please - to content - to gratify - to delight - to exalt; to shout — to yell — to bellow — to roar; to like — to admire — to love — to adore — to worship.

II. In the group of synonyms to stare - to glare - to gaze - to glance - to peep - to peer, all the synonyms except to glance denote a lasting act of looking at somebody or something, whereas to glance describes a brief, passing look. These synonyms may be said have a *connotation of duration* in their semantic structure. Other examples are: to flash (brief) - to blaze (lasting); to shudder (brief) - to shiver.

III. The synonyms to stare - to glare - to gaze are differentiated from the other words of the group by *emotive connotations*, and from each other by the nature of the emotion they imply. Here one should be warned against confusing words with emotive connotations and words with emotive denotative meanings (e. g. to love - to admire - to adore - to worship; angry -furious — enraged; fear - terror — horror).

IV. The *evaluative connotation* conveys the speaker's attitude towards the referent, labeling it as good or bad. So in the group well-known -famous - notorious - celebrated, me adjective notorious bears a negative evaluative connotation and celebrated a positive one. Cf: a notorious murderer, robber, swindler, coward, lady-killer, flirt, but a celebrated scholar, artist, singer, man-of-letters.

 V. The *causative connotation* can be illustrated by the examples to sparkle and to glitter: one's eyes sparkle with positive emotions and glitter with negative emotions. The causative connotation is also typical of the verbs to shiver and to shudder, in whose semantic structures the cause of the act or process of trembling is encoded: to shiver with cold, from a chill, because of the frost; to shudder with fear, horror, etc. (also to blush from modesty, shame or embarrassment) and to redden (from anger or indignation)

VI. The *connotation of manner* can be singled out in some groups of verbal synonyms The verbs to stroll - to stride - to trot - to pace - to swagger - to stagger - to stumble all denote different ways and types of walking, encoding in their semantic structures the length of pace, tempo, gait and carriage, purposefulness or lack of purpose.

VII. The verbs to peep and to peer are *connotations of duration and manner*. But there is some other curious peculiarity in their semantic structures. One peeps at smb./smth. through a hole, crack or opening, from behind a screen, a half-closed door, a newspaper, a fan, a curtain, etc. It seems as if a whole set of scenery were built within the word's meaning. Of course, it is not quite so, because "the set of scenery" is actually built in the context, but, as with all regular contexts, it is intimately reflected in the word's semantic structure thus demonstrating the connotation of attendant circumstances. This connotation is also characteristic of to peer: one peers at smb./smth. in darkness, through the fog, through dimmed glasses or windows, from a great distance; a shortsighted person may also peer at things. So, in the semantic structure of to peer are encoded circumstances preventing one from seeing clearly.

VIII. The synonyms pretty, handsome, beautiful are more or less interchangeable. Yet, each of them describes a special type of human beauty: beautiful is mostly associated with classical features and a perfect figure, handsome with a tall stature, a certain robustness and fine proportions, pretty with small delicate features and a fresh complexion. This connotation may be defined as the *connotation of attendant features*.

 IX. *Stylistic connotations* stand somewhat apart for two reasons. Firstly, some scholars do not regard the word's stylistic characteristic as a connotative component of its semantic structure. Secondly, stylistic connotations are subject to further classification, namely: colloquial, slang, dialect, learned, poetic, terminological, archaic, cf. (Meal). Snack, bite (coll.), snap (dial), repast, refreshment, feast (formal). These synonyms, besides stylistic connotations, have connotations of attendant features: snack, bite, snap all denote a frugal meal taken in a hurry; refreshment is also a light meal; feast is a rich or abundant meal. Or (to leave). To be off, to clear out (coll.), to beat it, to hoof it, to take the air (si,), to depart, to retire, to withdraw (formal). According to whether the difference is in denotational or connotational component synonyms are classified into ideographic and stylistic. Ideographic synonyms denote different shades of meaning or different degrees of a given quality. They are nearly identical in one or more denotational meanings and interchangeable at least in some contexts, e.g. beautiful - fine-handsome - pretty. Beautiful conveys, for instance, the strongest meaning; it marks the possession of that quality in its fullest extent, while the other terms denote the possession of it in part only. Fineness, handsomeness and prettiness are to beauty as parts to a whole (also compare constituents of the synonymic group choose, select, opt, elect, pick). Pictorial language often uses poetic words, archaisms as stylistic alternatives of neutral words (e.g. bliss for happiness, steed for horse, quit for leave). In many cases a stylistic synonym has an element of elevation in its meaning (e.g. face - visage, girl — maiden). Along with elevation of meaning there is the reverse process of degradation (e.g. to begin- to fire away, to eat — to devour, to steal ~ to pinch, face — muzzle).

4.Sources of synonymy Scholars distinguish the following sources of synonymy:

1. Synonyms which originated from the native language (e.g. fast-speedy-swift; handsome-pretty-lovely; bold-manful-steadfast).

2. Synonyms created through the adoption of words from dialects (e.g. mother – minny (Scot.); dark-murk (O.N.); charm – glamour (Scot.); long distance call (AE) - trunk call (BE); radio (AE) - wireless (BE)).

3. Synonyms that owe their origin to foreign borrowings (e.g. help-aid (Fr); heaven – sky (Sc.); freedom – liberty (L.)).The peculiar feature of synonymy in English is the contrast between simple native words stylistically neutral, literary words borrowed from French and learned words of Greco-Latin origin.

Native	French Borrowing	Latin borrowings

| to ask | to question | to interrogate |
| to end | to finish | to complete |

4. Synonyms created by means of all word-forming processes productive in the language. It must be noted that synonyms may influence each other semantically in two opposite ways: one of them is dissimilation or differentiation, the other – the reverse process, i.e. assimilation. Many words now marked in the dictionaries as "archaic" or "obsolete" have dropped out of the language in the competition of synonyms, others survived with a meaning more or less different from the original one. This process is called *synonymic differentiation* and is so current that is regarded as an inherent law of language development. Cf.: soil French borrowing - a strip of land. eorpe, land, folde OE synonyms – the upper layer of earth in which plants grow. → *soil, earth, ground* - the mould in which plants grow.

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LECTURE VII Antonyms. Euphemisms. Neologysms.

1.Definition of Antonyms

2.Euphemisms. Neologysms.

1. **.Definition of Antonyms** Antonyms may be defined as two or rarely more words of the same language belonging to the same part of speech identical in style and nearly identical in distribution, associated and used together so that their denotative meanings render contrary or contradictory notions.

Antonymy is not evenly distributed among the categories of parts of speech. Most antonyms are adjectives, which seems to be natural because qualitative characteristics are easily compared and contrasted: *high - low, wide — narrow, strong — weak, old—young, friendly - hostile*.

Verbs take second place, so far as antonymy is concerned. Yet, verbal pairs of antonyms are fewer in number: to *lose - to find, to live - to die, to open - to close, to weep - to laugh.*

Nouns are not rich in antonyms, but even so some examples can be given: *friend'- enemy, joy - grief, good - evil, heaven - earth, love - hatred*. Antonymic adverbs can be subdivided into two groups:

a) adverbs derived from adjectives: *warmly - coldly, merrily - sadly, loudly - softly;*

b) adverbs proper: *now - then, here - there, ever - never, up - down, in - out.*

Nowadays most scholars agree that in the semantic structures of all words, which regularly occur in antonymic pairs, a special antonymic connotation can be singled out. We are so used to coming across hot and cold together, in the same contexts that even when we find hot alone, we cannot help subconsciously registering it as not cold, that is, contrast it to its missing antonym. The word possesses its full meaning for us not only due to its direct associations but also because we subconsciously oppose it to its antonym, with which it is regularly used, in this case to hot. Therefore, it is reasonable to suggest that the semantic structure of hot can be said to include the antonymic connotation of "not cold", and the semantic structure of enemy the connotation of "not a friend" .

A careful examination will reveal three kinds of oppositeness of meaning represented by the following pairs of antonyms. Consider: a) *narrow-wide, small-large, tall-short*; b) *alive-dead, male-female, open-shut; c) over-under, receive-give, wife-husband.*

The antonyms represented in the group a) are called gradable antonyms. They are adjectives which do not refer to absolute qualities, but which may be subject to comparison or qualification.

The antonyms represented in the group b) are called complementary antonyms. It means that the denial of one member of the pair implies the assertion of the other member

The antonyms represented in the pairs in c) are called converses or relational opposites. One member of the pair refers to the converse relation referred to by the other member (e.g. if the bathroom os over the hall, then the hall is under the bathroom). A relation exists between the antonyms such that one is the converse of the other: they represent two (opposite) perspectives on the same relation. This type of antonymy is quite distinct from the other two and there appears to be no overlap.

2.Euphemisms. Neologysms. There are words in every language which people instinctively avoid because they are considered indecent, indelicate, rude, too direct or impolite. As the "offensive" referents, for which these words stand, must still be alluded to, they are often described in a roundabout way, by using substitutes called euphemisms. This device is determined by social conventions which are sometimes apt to be over-sensitive, see "indecency" where there is none and seek refinement in absurd avoidances and pretentiousness.

Numerous euphemisms are used to avoid the so-called social taboos and are inspired by social convention. To illustrate, the word l*avatory* has, naturally, produced many euphemisms. Here are some of them: *powder room, washroom, restroom, retiring room, (public) comfort station, ladies' room), gentlemen's (room), water-closet, w. c., public conveniences.*

Pregnancy is another topic for "delicate" references. Here are some of the euphemisms used as substitutes for the adjective pregnant: *in an interesting/delicate condiition, in the family way, with a baby coming, (big) with child, expecting*. The apparently innocent word *trousers,* not so long ago, had a great number of euphemistic equivalents, some of them quite funny: *unmentionables, inexpressibles, indescribables, unwhisperables, you-mustn't-men-tion 'ems, sit-upons*.

Nowadays, however, nobody seems to regard this word as "indecent" any more, and so its euphemistic substitutes are no longer in use. A landlady who refers to her *lodgers as paying guests* is also using a euphemism, aiming at half-concealing the embarrassing fact that she lets rooms.

There are many words which are easy targets for euphemistic substitution. These include words associated with *drunkenness (e.g. intoxicated (form.), under the influence (form.), tipsy, mellow, fresh, high, merry, flustered, overcome, full (coll.), boiled'(sl.), fried'(sl.), tanked (sl.), tight (sl.), stiff (sl.), pickled (sl.), soaked'(sl.), sheets to the wind (sl.), high as a kite, half-seas-over (sl.), under the surface, etc.); being in prison (to be in chokey, to be in the jug; to be involved in correctional facilities); unemployment (redundancies, downsizing, rightsizing); drugs (grass, mushrooms, acid, snow, speed); homelessness (shopping bag people – people who wander city streets with all their possessions in shopping bags* (Collins)).

Euphemisms may, of course, be used due to genuine concern not to hurt someone's feelings (e.g. a *lia*r can be described as *a person who does not always strictly tell the truth* and a *stupid man* can be said *to be not exactly brilliant*; *parotitis instead of mumps; H1N1 virus instead of swine flu; deceased instead of dead; to make smb a widow/a widower instead of to kill smb4; sanitary engineer instead of waste collector*).

Superstitious taboos have given rise to the use of another type of euphemisms. The reluctance to call things by their proper names is also typical of this type of euphemisms, but this time it is based on a deeply-rooted subconscious fear. Superstitious taboos have their roots in the distant past of mankind when people believed that there was a supernatural link between a name and the object or creature it represented.

 Therefore, all the words denoting evil spirits, dangerous animals, or the powers of nature were taboo. If uttered, it was believed that unspeakable disasters would result not only for the speaker but also for those near him. That is why all creatures, objects and phenomena threatening danger were referred to in a descriptive way. So, a dangerous animal might be described as the *one-lurking-in-the-wood* and a mortal disease *as the black death*. Euphemisms are probably the oldest type of synonyms, for it is reasonable to assume that superstitions which caused real fear called for the creation of euphemisms long before the need to describe things in their various aspects or subtle shades caused the appearance of other synonyms.

The Christian religion also made certain words taboo. The proverb Speak of the devil and he will appear must have been used and taken quite literally when it was first used, and the fear of calling the devil by name was certainly inherited from ancient superstitious beliefs. So, the word devil became taboo, and a number of euphemisms were substitutes for it: *the Prince of Darkness, the black one, the evil one, dickens (coll.), deuce (coll.), (Old) Nick (coll.). The word God, due to other considerations, also had a great number of substitutes which can still be*

traced in such phrases as Good Lord!, By Heavens!, Good Heavens.' (My) goodness!, (My) goodness gracious!, Gracious me!

Even in our modern emancipated times, old superstitious fears still lurk behind words associated with death and fatal diseases. People are not superstitious nowadays and yet they are reluctant to use the verb to die which has a long chain of substitutes (e. g. *to pass away, to be taken, to breathe one's last, to depart this life, to close one's eyes, to yield (give) up the ghost, to go the way of all flesh, to go West (sl.), to kick off '(sl.), to check out (sl.), to kick the bucket (sl.), to take a ride (sl.), to join the majority)*

Mental diseases also cause the frequent use of euphemisms. A mad person may be described as insane, mentally unstable, unbalanced, unhinged, *not (quite) right (coll.), not all there (coll.), off one's head (coll.), off one's rocker (coll.), wrong in the upper storey (coll.), having bats in one's belfry (coll.), crazy as a bedbug (coll.), cuckoo (si.), nutty (si.), off one's nut (si.), loony (si.), a mental case, a mental defective, etc.* A clinic for such patients can also be discreetly referred to as, for instance, *an asylum, sanitarium, sanatorium, (mental) institution, and, less discreetly, as a nut house (sl.), booby hatch (sl.), loony bin (sl.), etc.* To sum it up, the use of euphemisms and their very existence are caused either by social conventions or by certain psychological factors. Most of them have peculiar stylistic connotations in their semantic structures.

Talking about *neologisms*, it should be emphasized that the vocabulary is an adaptive system. To adapt means to undergo modifications in functions and structure so as to be fit for a new use, a new environment or a new situation. The concept of adaptive system permits us to study language as a constantly developing but systematic whole. The adaptive system approach gives a more adequate account of the systematic phenomena of a vocabulary by explaining more facts about the functioning of words and providing more relevant generalizations, because we can take into consideration the influence of extra-linguistic reality. The study of the vocabulary as an adaptive system reveals the pragmatic essence of the communication process, i.e. the way language is used to influence the addressee.

 The adaptivity of the vocabulary can be observed by its results – by studying new words or neologisms. New notions come into being and require new words to name them. They are created irrespective of their scale of importance. They may concern some social relationships such as a new political form, or short-lived concepts, such as fashions in dancing, clothes, manners. In every case either the old words are appropriately changed in meaning or new words are borrowed, or more often coined out of the existing language material either

according to the patterns and ways already productive in the language at the given stage of its development or creating new ones.

Thus, *a neologism* is a newly coined word or phrase or a new meaning for an existing word or a word borrowed from another language. The intense development of industry and science, social and cultural evolution have called forth the invention and introduction of a huge number of new words and changed the meaning of old ones (e.g. *aerobics, pulsar, software, hardware, black hole, feedback, hyper-market, isotope, chat show, generation Y, yumpie (young upwardly mobile professional person), ,m, Webcast wedding (a wedding broadcast by Internet), stress puppy, hurry sickness, breatharianism, pescephobe, WMWM (white married working mom), wasband (ex-husband), ageful (elderly),* etc).

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Lecture VIII Semantic Change. Polysemy

1.Semantic Structure of the Word.

2.The Factors Accounting for the Semantic Change.

3.Types of Transference.

4.Polysemy.

1. **1.Semantic Structure of the Word.** Word meaning is liable to change in the course of the historical development of language. Words acquire new meanings while some of the old ones die away. When the new meaning replaces the older or exists side by side with it as part of semantic structure of a polysemantic word, it enriches the vocabulary qualitatively. When it exists side by side with the older meaning, but is no longer associated with it, so that the semantic development results in the emergence of a new word, this contributes to the quantitative growth of the vocabulary. The break of the word "club" into a pair of homonyms ("*stick with one end*" and "*association of people meeting periodically*") gave a new lexical unit to the English vocabulary.

The branch of linguistics which specialises in the study of meaning is called *semantics.* The modern approach to semantics is based on the assumption that the inner form of the word (i. e. its meaning) presents a structure which is called the *semantic structure* of the word.

 Grammatical meaning is defined as the expression in speech relationships between words. For eg. The meaning of plurality in the words   students, books, windows.

Lexical meaning is the realization of concept or emotion by means of a definite language system. The conceptual content of the word is expressed by its denotative meaning. It is the denotational meaning that makes communication possible.

Connotation is the pragmatic communicative value of the word receives depending on where, when, how, by whom for what purpose it may be used. There are four types of connotations: stylistic (we speak here about the appropriate functional style – slay – kill)), emotional (conveys the speakers emotions – mummy – mother), evaluative (show approval or disapproval of the spoken object – celebrated   -well-known-notorious), intensifying (The degree of intensity is expressed) adore – love).

 2.   **The factors accounting for semantic change** may be divided into two groups:

1.   Extra-linguistic.
2.   Linguistic.
 By extra-linguistic causes we mean various changes in the life of the speech community, changes in economic and social structure, in ideas, scientific concepts, way of life and other spheres of human activity as reflected in word meaning.

The progress of scientific knowledge has brought new notions attached to new meanings for many words, such as: *atom, atomic energy, solar system*, etc.

The change in emotional attitude to the referent is found, for instance, in the so-called *degradation of meaning*. *Knave* is a good example of this process. In Old English the word *cnafa* first meant a boy, then a servant-boy, later a male servant, then it acquired the meaning of a man of humble birth or position and finally the word acquired a derogatory meaning – a tricky deceitful person.

Some changes of meaning can be described by purely *linguistic causes* – factors acting within the language system. The most common is so-called ellipsis. If in a phrase, made up of two words one of the word is omitted, its meaning is transferred to its partner. For example, the verb *to starve* originally meant "to die". It was habitually used in the collocation *starve of hunger,* then the second element was dropped but its meaning was transferred to the verb *starve*. The verb "to die" came to be used in a more general sense.

Similar semantic change may be observed in Modern English when the meaning of one word is transferred to another because they habitually occur together in speech. For example, we usually say "a weekly" and mean "a weekly newspaper".

Results of the semantic change may be observed in the changes in the denotative meaning of the word (extension and narrowing of meanings) or the alteration of its connotative meaning (elevation and degradation of meaning).

Extension of meaning is a semantic process when a word comes to be applied to a greater number of referents.

For example, the word salary comes from Latin *salarium,* which meant the money given to Roman soldiers to buy salt with. As we know now the word means "fixed payment paid regularly for services".

Other examples of extension:

Camp – originally a military camp; now "a place where people live in tents or hunts for some time".

Box – originally it was a small container for drugs, jewels and money; now any container.

Narrowing of meaning is the process contrary to extension. It is a semantic process when a word comes to apply to a fewer number of referents. Examples of narrowing:

Meat – (originally) edible flesh;

Hound – (originally) dog;

Worm – any reptile or insect

Poison – a drink

The process of narrowing occurs when a proper noun is used as a common noun.

For example:

city – the City (in London);

peninsula – the Peninsula (Iberian Peninsula).

The process of narrowing may be also present when an abstract noun becomes a concrete noun (e.g. beauty – a beautiful girl).

Elevation of meaning is the improvement of the connotative component of meaning.

For example, *minister* – (originally) a servant or an attendant;

fame – report, common talk, rumour.

Such changes are not always easily accounted for, but on the whole social changes are of importance for words that acquire better meanings.

Degradation of meaning is the acquisition by the word of some derogatory emotive charge.

For example:

knave – (originally)a boy;

silly – happy;

idiot – a private person.

3.Types of Transference.

Transference Based on Resemblance (Similarity*)* This type of transference is also referred to as *linguistic metaphor.* A new meaning appears as a result of associating two objects (phenomena, qualities, etc.) due to their outward similarity.

The noun *eye,* for instance, has for one of its meanings "hole in the end of a needle" (R. *ушко голки),* which also developed through transference based on resemblance. A similar case is represented by *the neck of a bottle.*

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.

The meanings formed through this type of transference are frequently found in the informal strata of the vocabulary, especially in slang . 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.

Transference Based on Contiguity 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.

The meaning of the adjective *sad* in Old English was "satisfied with food" (cf. with the R. *cum* 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 described 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.

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 (R. *рабочие руки).*

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.*

4.Polysemy.

Polysemy – is a plurality of meaning. It is a semantic universal characteristic of most words in many languages, but it is more characteristic of the English vocabulary due to the monosyllable character of English words and predominance of root words. The greater the relative frequency of the word, the more polysemic it is.

Different meanings of a word are referred to as lexico-grammatical variants of the word. All the lexico-grammatical variants of the word taken together form its semantic structure or semantic paradigm. Thus, in the semantic structure of the word "youth" three lexico-grammatical variants can be distinguished:

 –the state of being young (an abstract uncountable noun);

 – a young man (a countable noun);

– young men and women (a collective noun).

The main source of the development of regular polysemy is metaphoric and metonymic transference of meaning, which is commonplace and appears to be fundamental in living languages.

Degradation and elevation of meaning play a certain role in making words polysemantic. Word "story", for example, got additional meaning due to the degradation of meaning when the word became more negative than positive in its uses. (*Don`t tell me stories* (lies).

The opposite process – the elevation of meaning – may lead to polysemy as well.

A word may have both a **direct** and a **figurative** meaning.

The meaning is **direct** when it nominates the referent without the help of the context. The meaning is **figurative (or secondary**) when the object is named and at the same time

characterized through its similarity with another object. In polysemy the secondary, derived meaning is connected with the primary meaning.

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Lecture   IX   Phraseology.

1The Definition of Phraseological Units .

2 Semantic and Structural Criteria for Identifying Phraseological Units .

3.Classification of Phraseological Units .

1. The Definition of Phraseological Units .*Phraseological units,* or *idioms,* as they are called by most western scholars, represent what can probably be described as the most picturesque, colourful and expressive part of the language's vocabulary. Phraseology is a kind of picture gallery in which are collected vivid and amusing sketches of the nation's customs, traditions and prejudices, recollections of its past history, scraps of folk songs and fairy-tales. Quotations from great poets are preserved here alongside the dubious   pearls of philistine wisdom of crude slang witticisms , for phraseology is not only the most colorful democratic area of r vocabulary and draws its resources from the very depths of popular speech.

The dropping metaphors, phraseological units or idioms are characterised by a double sense: the current meanings of constituent words build up a certain picture, but the actual meaning of the whole unit has little or nothing to do with that picture, in itself creating an entirely new image.

So, *a dark horse* is actually not a horse but a person about whom no one knows anything definite, and so one is not sure what can be expected from him.

A white elephant, however, is not even a person but a valuable object which involves great expense or trouble for its owner, out of all proportion to its usefulness or value, and which is also difficult to dispose of.

The green-eyed monster is jealousy, the image being drawn from *Othello* .

To let the cat out of the bag has actually nothing to do with cats, but means simply "to let some secret become known".

In *to bark up the wrong tree* (Amer.), the current meanings of the constituents create a vivid and amusing picture of a foolish dog sitting under a tree and barking at it while the cat or the squirrel has long since escaped. But the actual meaning of the idiom is "to follow a false scent; to look for somebody or something in a wrong place; to expect from somebody what he is unlikely to do".

So, together with synonymy and antonymy, phraseology represents expressive resources of vocabulary.

Idioms are ready-made speech units. Most Russian scholars use the term "phraseological unit" *("фразеологічна одиниця"*) which was first introduced by Academician V.V.Vinogradov . There are some other terms – set-expressions, set-phrases, collocations.

Here is the definition of a phraseological unit offered by Professor A. V. Koonin:"A phraseological unit is a stable word-group characterised by a completely or partially transferred meaning."

The essential features of ph. units are:
a) lack of semantic motivation;
b)lexical and grammatical stability.
A) we gave above examples

b) lexical and grammatical stability is displayed in the fact that no substitution of any element is possible in ph. Units. Phraseological units are characterised by semantic and structural unity.

There is the question of distinguishing between free word-groups and phraseological units .

Free word-groups are so called not because of any absolute freedom in using them but simply because they are each time built up anew in the speech process - While idioms are used as ready-made units with fixed and constant structures.

2. Semantic and Structural Criteria for Identifying Phraseological Units .

Most Russian scholars today accept *the semantic criterion* of distinguishing phraseological units from free word-groups as the major. Koonin definition ("A phraseological unit is a stable word-group characterised by a completely or partially transferred meaning.") suggests that the degree of semantic change in a phraseological unit may vary ("completely or partially transferred meaning"). In actual fact the semantic change may affect either the whole word-group or only one of its components. The following phraseological units represent the first case: *to skate on thin ice (~ to* put oneself in a dangerous position; to take risks);

to wear one's heart on one's sleeve[1] (~ to expose, so that everyone knows, one's most intimate feelings);

to have one's heart in one's boots (~ to be deeply depressed, anxious about something);

to have one's heart in one's mouth (~ to be greatly alarmed by what is expected to happen);

to have one's heart in the right place (~ to be a good, honest and generous fellow);

a crow in borrowed plumes (£ a person pretentiously and unsuitably dressed; cf. with the R. *ворона в павлиньих перьях);*

a wolf in a sheep's clothing[2] (~ a dangerous enemy who plausibly poses as a friend).

The second type is represented by phraseological units in which one of the components preserves its current meaning and the other is used in a transferred meaning:

to lose (keep) one's temper,

to fly into a temper,

to fall ill,

to fall in love (out of love),

to stick to one's word (promise),

to arrive at a conclusion,

bosom friends, shop talk (also: *to talk shop),*

small talk.

The structural criterion for distinguishing phraseological units and contrasting them to free word-groups.

Structural invariability of phraseological units finds expression in a number of restrictions.

First of all, restriction in substitution. As a rule, no word can be substituted for any meaningful component of a phraseological unit without destroying its sense. The idiom *to give somebody the cold shoulder* means "to treat somebody coldly, to ignore or cut him", but a *warm shoulder* or *a cold elbow* make no sense at all. The meaning of *a bee in smb's bonnet* was explained above, but *a bee in his hat* or *cap* would sound a silly error in choice of words.

At the same time, in free word-groups substitution does not present any dangers and does not lead to any serious consequences. In *The cargo ship is carrying coal to Liverpool* all the components can be changed:

The ship/vessel/boat carries/transports/takes/brings coal to (any port).

The second type of restriction is the restriction in introducing any additional components into the structure of a phraseological unit.

In a free word-group such changes can be made without affecting the general meaning of the utterance: *This big ship is carrying a large cargo of coal to the port of Liverpool.*

In the phraseological unit *to carry coals to Newcastle* no additional components can be introduced. Nor can one speak about *the big white elephant* (when using *the white elephant* in its phraseological sense) or about somebody *having his heart in his brown boots.*

The third type of structural restrictions in phraseological units is grammatical invariability. A typical mistake with students of English is to use the plural form of *fault* in the phraseological unit to *find fault with somebody* (e. g. *The teacher always found faults with the boy).* Though the plural form in this context is logically well-founded, it is a mistake in terms of the grammatical invariability of phraseological units >. A similar typical mistake often occurs in the unit *from head to foot* (e. g. *From head to foot he was immaculately dressed).* Students are apt to use the plural form of *foot* .

3.Classification of Phraseological Units .

As phraseological unit is a complex phenomenon ,there are different approaches to the classification of ph units: etymological, semantic, structural, functional. Such scientists as L. P. Smith, V. Vinogradov, A.I.Smirnitskiy, Koonin made their contribution to the classification of ph units

We will analyze Academician V. V. Vinogradov classification system of phraseological units based on *the semantic principle.*

Vinogradov's classification system is founded on the degree of semantic cohesion between the components of a phraseological unit. Accordingly, Vinogradov classifies phraseological units into three classes: *phraseological combinations, unities and fusions* (R. *фразеологические сочетания, единства и сращения).*

Phraseological combinations are word-groups with a partially changed meaning. They may be said to be clearly motivated, that is, the meaning of the unit can be easily deduced from the meanings of its constituents.

E. g. *to be at one's wits' end, to be good at something, to be a good hand at something, to have a bite, to come to a sticky end* (coll.), *to take something for granted, to stick to one's word, gospel truth, bosom friends.*

Phraseological unities are word-groups with a completely changed meaning, that is, the meaning of the unit does not correspond to the meanings of its constituent parts.

E. g. *to stick to one's guns* (~ to be true to one's views or convictions.

to catch/clutch at a straw/straws (~ when in extreme danger, avail oneself of even the slightest chance of rescue)

to lose one's head (~ to be at a loss what to do; to be out of one's mind);

to lose one's heart to smb. (~ to fall in love);

to lock the stable door after the horse is stolen (~ to take precautions too late, when

the mischief is done);

to look a gift horse in the mouth (= to examine a present too critically; to find fault with something one gained without effort); *to ride the high horse (~ to* behave in a superior, haughty, overbearing way. The image is that of a person mounted on a horse so high that he looks down on others);

the last drop/straw (the final culminating circumstance that makes a situation unendurable);

a big bug/pot, sl. (a person of importance);

a fish out of water (a person situated uncomfortably outside his usual or proper environment).

Phraseological fusions are word-groups with a completely changed meaning but, in contrast to the unities, they are demotivated, that is, their meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of the constituent parts; the metaphor, on which the shift of meaning was based, has lost its clarity and is obscure.

E. g. *to come a cropper* (to come to disaster);

neck and crop (entirely, altogether, thoroughly, as in: *He was thrown out neck and crop. at sixes and sevens* (in confusion or in disagreement);

to set one's cap at smb. (to try and attract a man; spoken about girls and women. The image, which is now obscure, may have been either that of a child trying to catch a butterfly with his cap or of a girl putting on a pretty cap so as to attract a certain person. In *Vanity Fair: "Be careful, Joe, that girl is setting her cap at you.");*

to leave smb. in the lurch (to abandon a friend when he is in trouble);

to show the white feather (to betray one's cowardice. The allusion was originally to cock fighting. A white feather in a cock's plumage denoted a bad fighter);

It is obvious that this classification system does not take into account the structural characteristics of phraseological units.

The structural principle of classifying phraseological units is based on their ability to perform the same syntactical functions as words. In the traditional structural approach, the following principal groups of phraseological units are distinguishable.

A.   *Verbal.* E. g. *to run for one's (dear) life, to get (win) the upper hand, to talk through one's hat, to make a song and dance about something, to sit pretty* (Amer. sl.).

B.   *Substantive.* E. g. *dog's life, cat-and-dog life, calf love, white lie, tall order, birds of a feather, birds of passage, red tape, brown study.*

C.   *Adjectival.* E. g. *high and mighty, spick and span, brand new, safe and sound.* In this group the so-called comparative word-groups are particularly expressive and sometimes amusing in

their unanticipated and capricious associations: (as) *cool as a cucumber, (as) nervous as a cat, (as) weak as a kitten, (as) good as gold* (usu. spoken about children), (as) *pretty as a picture, as large as life, (as) slippery as an eel, (as) thick as thieves, (as) drunk as an owl (sl.), (as) mad as a hatter/a hare in March.*

D.   Adverbial. E. g. *high and low* (as in *They searched for him high and low), by hook or by crook* (as in *She decided that, by hook or by crook, she must marry him), for love or money* (as in *He came to the conclusion that a really good job couldn't be found for love or money), in cold blood* (as in *The crime was said to have been committed in cold blood), in the dead of night, between the devil and the deep sea* (in a situation in which danger threatens whatever course of action one takes), *to the bitter end* (as in *to fight to the bitter end), by a long chalk* (as in *It is not the same thing, by a long chalk).*

***E. Interjectional.* E. g.** *my God/ by Jove! by George! goodness gracious! good Heavens!*

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ЛЕКСИКОЛОГІЯ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ

Конспект лекцій з курсу «Лексикологія англійської мови» для студентів вищих навчальних закладів