MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE OF UKRAINE

O. M. BEKETOV NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF URBAN ECONOMY in KHARKIV

O. L. Ilienko,

I. A. Kamienieva,

Ye. S. Moshtagh

ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY

TUTORIAL

Kharkiv

O. M. Beketov NUUE

2020

УДК 811.111(075.8)
I–45

Authors:

Ilienko Olena Lvivna, PhD in Philology, associate professor of the department of foreign languages at O. M. Beketov National University of Urban Economy in Kharkiv

Kamienieva Iryna Adamivna, senior teacher of the department of foreign languages at O. M. Beketov National University of Urban Economy in Kharkiv

Moshtagh Yevheniia Serhiivna**,** PhD in Philology, associate professor of the department of foreign languages at O. M. Beketov National University of Urban Economy in Kharkiv

Reviewers:

Radchuk Olha Viacheslavivna, PhD in Philology, associate professor of the department of Slavic languages at H.S. Skovoroda Kharkiv National Pedagogical University

Sazonova Yaroslava Yuriivna, doctor of philology, professor of foreign language department at H.S. Skovoroda Kharkiv National Pedagogical University

Tsegelska Maryna Volodymyrivna, PhD in Philology, associate professor of the department of the English language with teaching methodology at Kryvyi Rih State Pedagogical University

Recommended for publication by Academic Council of O. M. Beketov NUUE as a tutorial (record №10 of 14.05.2020)

Ilienko O. L.

I–45 English Lexicology : tutorial / O. L. Ilienko, I. A. Kamienieva, Ye. S. Moshtagh ; O. M. Beketov National University of Urban Economy in Kharkiv. – Kharkiv : Publishing House I. Ivanchenka, 2020. – 218 p.

ISBN 978-617-7879-23-6.

This tutorial is based on a series of lectures on English Lexicology. It is written for students of English language / linguistics and may also be of interest to all readers who would like to gain some information about the vocabulary resources of Modern English. The overall idea of the tutorial is to present core knowledge in English Lexicology which is meant to prepare students for carrying out further research on topics they are interested in. In Part I "Fundamentals of English Lexicology and Lexicography" the reader can find a short theoretical survey of the wide word theory and of the main problems associated with the English vocabulary with concise definitions of all essential issues. Part II "Practical Tests and Exercises" comprises exercises and tests which are designed to help students focus on and understand how this or that linguistic phenomenon from the field of the English Lexicology can be actualized in the practical study.

УДК 811.111(075.8)

Посібник заснований на серії лекцій з англійської лексикології. Він призначений для студентів, які вивчають англійської мову, а також для широкого кола читачів, які хотіли б отримати інформацію про лексичні джерела сучасної англійської мови. Загальна ідея посібника полягає в наданні основних знань з англійської лексикології, які нададуть студентам можливість проводити подальші дослідження з питань, які їх цікавлять у означеній сфері. У частині І "Основи англійської лексикології та лексикографії" міститься короткий теоретичний огляд теорії лексикології та основних проблем, пов'язаних із словником англійської мови, із стислими визначеннями усіх суттєвих питань. Частина ІІ "Практичні тести та вправи" містить вправи та тести, які покликані допомогти студентам зрозуміти, як те чи інше мовне явище в галузі англійської лексикології реалізується у практичному дослідженні.

ISBN 978-617-7879-23-6

CONTENTS

PREFACE

This tutorial is based on a series of lectures on English Lexicology. It is written for students of English language / linguistics and may also be of interest to all readers who would like to gain some information about the vocabulary resources of Modern English. The overall idea of the tutorial is to present just a core knowledge in English Lexicology which is meant to prepare students for carrying out further research on topics they are interested in.

In Part I "Fundamentals of English Lexicology and Lexicography" the reader can find a short theoretical survey of the wide word theory and of the main problems associated with the English vocabulary with concise definitions of all essential issues. The structural division of this part reflects the major distinctive areas of lexicology today and examines the following topics:

1. Language and Lexicology.
2. Lexicography.
3. Word-structure.
4. Enriching Vocabulary. Word-building (affixation, conversion, composition, shortening, secondary ways of word-building).
5. Word-groups and Phraseological units.
6. Semasiology. Word meaning.
7. Semantic Change.
8. Homonymy. Synonymy. Antonymy.
9. The Origin of English Words.
10. Variants and Dialects of English.

Part I incorporates lectures with the description of the main concepts of the English Lexicology followed by the list of key terms and questions with the aim to assist students in understanding and systematizing the material under study.

The tutorial combines theory and practice. Part II "Practical Tests and Exercises" comprises exercises and tests which are designed to help students focus on and understand how this or that linguistic phenomenon from the field of the English Lexicology can be actualized in the practical study. A wide range of different tasks are aimed at expanding their abilities to reflect upon and analyze linguistic phenomena and will contribute to better understanding of fundamental principles of lexicology and enhancing their linguistic competence in general.

The Glossary is a complete list of all the terms and concepts described in the textbook; the alphabetic order will easily help students to find the necessary item.

In the Reference Material there are also topics for reports and presentations for further research and studies in the area of English Lexicology.

The Bibliography comprises all the resources used by the author and cited in the book.

Part I

FUNDAMENTALS OF ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY AND LEXICOGRAPHY

1 LANGUAGE AND LEXICOLOGY

§1 The Object of Lexicology. Links of Lexicology with other Branches of Linguistics

§2 Sub-branches of Lexicology

§1 The Object of Lexicology. Links of Lexicology with other Branches of Linguistics

Lexicology (of Greek origin: *lexis* 'word' + *logos* 'learning') is one of the branches of linguistics concerned with words. Lexical study involves such diverse areas as the sense relationships between words, word-structure and word formation, properties of words and their combinations, principles underlying the classification of vocabulary units into various groupings, the compilation of dictionaries, the use of abbreviations and many others. Thus, the lexicology deals with the vocabulary and characteristic features of words and word-groups as the main units of the language.

A comparison of the words 'vocabulary', 'lexis' and 'lexicon' would show that three items may be considered more or less synonymous. However, it must be added that the first one is more colloquial, the third is more learned and technical, and the second may be situated half-way between the other two. A distinction must, nevertheless, be drawn between the terms 'vocabulary', 'lexis' and 'lexicon' on the one hand, and 'dictionary' on the other. While each of the first three may refer to the total work stock of the language, a dictionary is only a selective recording of that stock at a given point in time [Jackson and Ze'Amwella 1998].

The term **vocabulary** is used to denote the system formed by the sum total of all the words and word equivalents [Arnold 1986, 9]. It is an adaptive system adjusting itself to the changing requirements and conditions of human communication and cultural surrounding.

A **lexicon** is a list of words in a language or that a particular person knows – a vocabulary – along with some knowledge of how each word is used (a kind of mental dictionary). A lexicon may be general or domain-specific; we might have, for example, of several thousand common words of English and German, or the lexicon of the technical terms of dentistry in some language. The words that are of

interest are usually open-class or content words, such as nouns, verbs, and adjectives, rather than closed-class or grammatical function words, such as articles, pronouns, and prepositions, whose behavior is more tightly bound to the grammar of the language. A lexicon may also include multi-word expressions such as fixed phrases (*by and large*), phrasal verbs (*tear apart*), and other common expressions (*Merry Christmas!*).

Strictly speaking, a useful distinction may be made between the lexicon as an object defined by linguistic theory and the dictionary, which presents 'certain information drawn from the lexicon in a stylized way' [Grimes 1988, 167].

Grimes also describes the lexicon as simply the totality of all the information there is about words and word-like objects in a natural language; it registers items and their properties in contrast to the grammar, which registers combinations of items and their properties [ibid, 168].

Each word or phrase in a lexicon is described in a lexical entry; exactly what is included into each entry depends on the purpose of the particular lexicon. The details that are given may include any of its properties of spelling and sound, grammatical behavior, meaning or use and the nature of its relationships with other words. A lexical entry is therefore a potentially large record specifying many aspects of the linguistic behavior and meaning of a word.

The term **word** denotes the basic unit of a language of a given language resulting from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment [Arnold 1986, 9].

A word therefore is simultaneously a semantic and grammatical and phonological unit. It is the smallest unit of the language which can stand alone as a complete utterance. It is a small unit within a vast, efficient and perfectly balanced system [Антрушина 2000].

The phoneme, morpheme and sentence have their fixed place in the language system, whereas the word belongs both to the morphological and to the syntactical and lexical plans. The word is a bridge between morphology and syntax, making the transition from morphology to syntax gradual and imperceptible [Бабич 2008, 17]. Every word is a semantic, grammatical and phonological unity. It is used for the purpose of communication and its content or meaning reflects human notions.

Concepts fixed in the meaning of words are formed as generalized reflections of reality, therefore in signifying them words reflect reality in their content. The acoustic aspect of the word serves to name objects of reality. When a word first comes into existence, it is built out according to the existing patterns of the elements available in the language [Бабич 2008, 18]. "The word is the

fundamental unit of language. It is a dialectal unity of form and content. Its content and meaning is not identical to notion, but it may reflect human notions, and in this sense may be considered as the form of their existence" [Арнольд 1986].

The term **word-group** denotes a group of words which exists in the language as a ready-made unit, has the unity of meaning, the unity of syntactical function (*as loose as a goose* – 'clumsy', a predicative).

The modern approach to word studies is based on distinguishing between the external and the internal structures of the word.

By the **external structure** we mean its morphological structure. All these morphemes constitute the external structure of the word.

The **internal structure** of the word, or its meaning, is nowadays commonly referred to as the word's semantic structure. Words can serve the purposes of human communication solely due to their meanings. The area of lexicology specializing in the semantic studies is called semantics.

Another structural aspect of the word is its **unity**. The word possesses both external (or formal unity) and semantic unity. Formal unity of the word is sometimes inaccurately interpreted as indivisibility. But the word is not strictly speaking indivisible. Yet, it component morphemes are permanently linked together in opposition to word-groups, both free and with fixed contexts, whose components possess a certain structural freedom [Антрушина и др. 2000].

On the **syntagmatic level**, the semantic structure of the word is analyzed in its linear relationships with neighbouring words in connected speech. A word enters into syntagmatic (linear) combinatorial relationships with other lexical units, that can form its context, serving to identify and distinguish its meaning as lexical units are context-dependent [Арнольд 1986, 23]. Using syntagmatic analysis we analyse syntax or surface structure – one element selects the other element either to precede or to follow it (e.g., the definite article selects a noun and not a verb). For example, in phrases *ironing board, bed and board, board of trustees, go on board* the word *board* acquires different meaning in different context.

On the **paradigmatic level**, the word is studied in its relationship with other words in the vocabulary system. A word enters into contrastive paradigmatic relations with all other words that can occur in the same context and can be contrasted to it. Therefore, a word can be studied in comparison with other words of similar meaning, of opposite meaning or of different stylistic characteristics. Paradigmatic analysis is the analysis of paradigms (e.g. substituting words of the same type or class to calibrate shifts in connotation).

Syntagmatic (sequence)

The	first	question		was difficult
↕	↕			↕
Paradigmatic		second	word	easy
(substitution)		third	problem	funny
		last	exam	silly
		final	paper	loaded

Fig. 1. *Syntagmatic vs paradigmatic level*

Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations may be represented in a diagram as in Fig.1. This shows that every word may be considered in terms of two dimensions or axes of structure. The 'horizontal' or syntagmatic and the 'vertical' or paradigmatic. It is precisely in terms of syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations that the meaning of English words can be determined.

As the vocabulary or the lexical system of the language forms the system of the language as other systems, its study in lexicology should not be separated from the other constituents of the system, so it has close ties with other branches of linguistics. Lexicology is only one possible level of language analysis, others being phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics and none of them can be studied successfully without reference to the others. All these different levels of analysis interact with one another in various ways, and when we use language, we call on all simultaneously and unconsciously.

There is a relationship between lexicology and phonetics since phonetics is concerned with the study of the word, with the sound-form of the word.

Lexicology is connected with grammar as words presented in a dictionary bear a definite relation to the grammatical system of the language because they belong to some part of speech and conform to some lexico-grammatical characteristics of the word class to which they belong. Lexicology is linked with the history of the language since the latter investigates the changes and the development of the vocabulary of the language.

Stylistics studies such problems concerning lexicology as the problems of meaning, synonymy, differentiation of the vocabulary according to the sphere of communication.

The extra-linguistic factors influence usage and development of language which are dealt in sociolinguistics and may be defined as the study of influence produced upon language by various social factors; this influence is particularly strong in lexis as the word-stock of a language directly and immediately reacts to whatever happens in the social life of the speech community. The new language of

cyberspace (‘*cyber vocabulary*’) can be a very good example of the process. In the 1980s and 90s a wide range of cybercompounds relating to the use of the Internet and virtual reality appeared in the language: *cyberphobia, cyberpunk, cyberspace, cyberart, cyberhippy, cyberlawyer, cyberworld, cybermat, cybercop, cyberchar, cyber-community, cybernaut, cybrarian*.

Many words discussing technology are coined with *byte, net, mega, web* and *digit*: *digitized cyberads, gigabyte, megalomania.*

Thus, in contrast with phonology, morphology and syntax, lexicology is a sociolinguistic discipline, as it is based on establishing interrelations between the language, the social life and conventions of language use [Бабич 2008].

§2 Sub-branches of Lexicology

Lexicology exists in different forms. The constituent parts of lexicology are its specific sub-branches: etymology, semantics, phraseology, lexicography, etc., each of which has its own aim of study, its own object of investigation, and its own methods of linguistic research.

General Lexicology carries out the general study of the vocabulary, irrespective of the specific feature of any particular language and it studies linguistic phenomena and properties common to all languages, i.e. so-called language and linguistic universals.

Special Lexicology investigates characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language. Special lexicology may be historical and descriptive.

Contrastive Lexicology works out the theoretical basis on which the vocabularies of different languages can be compared and described.

The language is viewed in two basically different ways: historical (diachronic, Greek *dia* – ‘through’, *chronos* – ‘time’) and descriptive, which is synchronic (Greek *syn* – ‘with, together’). **Historical Lexicology or Etymology** (Greek *etumon* ‘primary or basic word, original form of a word’) studies the evolution of the vocabulary and its elements: origin, change, development, linguistic and extralinguistic factors modifying their structure, meaning and usage. **Descriptive Lexicology** deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development.

Phraseology is the branch of lexicology specializing in word groups which are characterized by stability of structure and transferred meaning.

Terminology studies different sides of terms and lexicology gives methods and the scientific apparatus for that.

Lexicography is the science and practice of compiling dictionaries; lexicology works out a serious scientific foundation for it.

Corpus semantics studies how words are used in text and discourse and uses observations of use as evidence of meaning.

KEY TERMS

Corpus semantics, typology, external structure of the word, internal structure of the word, lexicography, general lexicology, particular lexicology, lexicology, lexicon, phraseology, terminology, vocabulary, word, word-group.

QUESTIONS

1. What does lexicology study?
2. Examine the following definitions of 'lexicology'. What do they agree on as the scope of lexicology? And where do they disagree?

a) "An area of language study concerned with the nature, meaning, history and use of words and word elements and often also with the critical description of lexicography."

b) "The study of the overall structure and history of the vocabulary of a language."

c) "A branch of linguistics concerned with the meaning and uses of words."

d) "The study of the form, meaning and behaviour of words."

3. What does the term 'word' denote?
4. What is the term 'vocabulary' used to denote?
5. What is the object of study of general lexicology?
6. What does special lexicology study?
7. What forms the object of study of historical lexicology?
8. What does descriptive lexicology deal with?
9. What branches of linguistics does lexicology have close ties with?
10. What is the literal meaning of the term 'synchronic' which is Greek by origin?
11. What does the diachronic approach concern with?
12. What is the external structure of the word *irresistible*? What is the internal structure?
13. What is understood by the semantic unity of the word?
14. What are the main differences in studying the language syntagmatically and paradigmatically?

2 LEXICOGRAPHY

§1 Lexicography as a Branch of Lexicology

In lexicology the word is studied as a part of the system. In lexicography it is studied as an individual unit in respect of its meaning and use from the practical point of its use by the reader of the dictionary for learning the language or comprehending texts in it or for any other purpose like checking correct spelling, pronunciation etc. A word may have different and varied characteristic, all of which may not be needed by a lexicographer. Their work is guided more by the purpose of the dictionary and the type of the audience. They present the words of the lexical system in a way so as to make it more practically useable in real life situation i.e. in actual speech. For example, lexicology may give the theoretical basis for enumerating different meanings of a polysemous word, but how these meanings are worded and presented in the dictionary is governed by the practical problems of utility of the dictionary for different types of readers.

The aim of lexicology is to study the vocabulary of a language as a system, so the treatment of individual units may not claim to be complete because the number of units is very larger. Its goal is systematization in the study as a whole but not completeness as regards individual units, so it cannot claim to be a perfectly systematic treatment. In lexicography, every entry is treated as an independent problem. Lexicologists present their material in sequence according to their view of the study of vocabulary. The lexicographers are mostly guided by the principle of convenience in retrieval of the data and arrange words usually in alphabetical order.

Practical lexicography is the art or craft of writing dictionaries.

Theoretical lexicography is the scholarly discipline of analyzing and describing the semantic relationships within the lexicon (vocabulary) of a language (metalexicography).

General lexicography focuses on the design, compilation, use and evaluation of general dictionaries, i.e. dictionaries that provide a description of the language in general use.

Specialized lexicography focuses on the design, compilation, use and evaluation of specialized dictionaries, i.e. dictionaries that are devoted to a (relatively restricted) set of linguistic and factual elements of one or more specialist subject fields.

The recent development of corpus linguistics (corpus linguistics deals mainly with compiling various electronic corpora for conducting investigations in different linguistic fields such as phonetics, phonology, grammar, stylistics, graphology, discourse, lexicon and many others) has given birth to **corpus-based lexicography** and new corpus-based generations of dictionaries.

Computational lexicography deals with the design, compilation, use and evaluation of electronic dictionaries.

All the "exercises" in the field of lexicography can be divided into two major areas: dictionary-making and dictionary research (practical lexicography vs. theoretical lexicography) as can be seen in Fig. 2 (from Hartmann [2003; 2]).

LEXICOGRAPHY

Dictionary-making	**Dictionary Research**
- Recording\ Fieldwork	- Dictionary History
- Editing\ Description	- Dictionary Criticism
- Publishing\ Presentation	- Dictionary Typology
	- Dictionary Structure
	- Dictionary Use
	Other

Fig. 2. *Practical and theoretical branches of lexicography*

The term '**dictionary**' is used to denote a book that lists the words of a language in a certain order (usually alphabetical) and gives their meanings or equivalent words in a different language.

The word *dictionary* was coined on the basis of the Latin forms *dictionarius* or *dictionarium*, from *dictio* 'action of saying' or 'word', itself from the verb *dicere,* 'say'. According to the Oxford English Dictionary (OED), *dictionarius* was used for the first time in 1225 by the poet and grammarian Joannes de Garlandia, or John of Garland(e) (1195–1272) as the title of his compilation of Latin vocables, sayings, and maxims arranged according to their subjects, with glosses in French and English, published in Paris, for the use of learners [Bejoint 2010; 6].

§2 The Brief History of Lexicography

The beginning of the lexicography in England can be dated as far as 600–700 AD, when the first glosses explaining difficult Latin words appeared. The most ancient glossaries of English origin are known from the libraries to which they now belong: *the Leiden*, *the Epinal*, *the Erfurt*, and *the Corpus* (Corpus Christi College, Cambridge). *The Leiden Glossary* represents a collection of smaller glossaries (sets of glosses) under the name of the treatise from which it was extracted, the words in each being left in the order in which they happened to come in the treatise or work, without any further arrangement, alphabetical or other. *The Epinal Glossary*, which uses part at least of the materials of *the Leiden*, has advanced to *first-letter* order: all the A-words come together, followed by all the B-words and so on to Z, but there is no further arrangement under the individual letters. In *the Corpus Glossary* the alphabetical arrangement was carried as far as the second letter of each word.

The Latin words in those glossaries were explained by simpler Latin words, if it was not possible, Old English words were used. In *the Epinal Glossary* there were only a few English words, in *the Corpus Glossary* their number increased, and in the glossaries that followed the Latin explanations became more and more frequently replaced by English ones, thus making the vocabularies of the tenth and eleventh centuries truly Latin – English.

In the first decades of the eleventh century, Aelfric, abbot of Eynsham monastery near Oxford, compiled a glossary that was ordered thematically.

It was a list of Latin words, with Old English equivalents with such topics as ‘God, heaven, angels, sun, moon, earth, sea, herbs, trees, weapons, metals, precious stones’, etc. This glossary is known as *The London Vocabulary*.

Many more vocabularies were compiled further in the eleventh century; and they became fuller and more orderly as time advanced, and also more English [Murray 2004; 7], and we can see that the aim changed as well: it was not primarily to explain Latin words, but to give their English equivalents.

By the end of the fourteenth century English had become sanctioned for use in the courts of law and been introduced into the grammar schools in the translation of Latin exercises. Under these new conditions lexicographical activity at once bursts fourth with vigour. Six important vocabularies of the fifteenth century are printed by Wright-Wuelcker, most of them arranged under subject headings. About the middle of the century, also, was compiled the famous *Medulla Grammatices*, designated as ‘the first Latin-English dictionary’, the popularity of which is shown by the many manuscript copies that still survive; it formed the basis of the *Ortus* (i.e. *Hortus*) *Vocabulorum* of the first printed Latin-English

Dictionary, issued from the press of Wynkin de Worde in 1500, and in many subsequent editions down to 1533. But almost all the glosses and vocabularies mentioned were Latin-English; their primary object was not English, but the elucidation of Latin [Murray 2004]. The first English-Latin dictionary appeared in 1440 entitled *Promptorium Parvulorum sive Clericorum* by Galfridus Grammaticus.

From the middle of the sixteenth century onwards, a number of bilingual dictionaries appeared featuring English and a modern European language. These were explanatory dictionaries for English learners of the language in question (e.g. Italian in *A Worlde of Wordes, 1598* or French in *Dictionarie of the French and English Tongues, 1611*).

The first English monolingual dictionaries were published in the seventeenth century. The most frequently mentioned works are by Robert Cawdrey, *A Table Alphabeticall of Hard Usuall English Wordes* (1604), John Bullokar, *An English Expositor* (1616) and Henry Cockeram, *English Dictionarie* (1623). The first editions of Robert Cawdrey contain around 2,500 difficult words, terms which the English language borrowed from Hebrew, Greek, Latin, French etc.; it was purely alphabetical with spelling and meaning. Bullokar had more headwords (around 5,000) because he included many obsolete words.

By the end of the seventeenth century, with monolingual dictionaries by the time well established, "bilingual works which combined English and a modern foreign language profited from the general decline of Latin and played a major part in the promotion of the various national tongues" [Cowie 2009; 3].

English was becoming the international language of commerce, but the language profited too from mass migration to the New World. So linguistic needs of the time were quite practical – a demand for the standard language and a need for colloquial usage. By the end of the nineteenth century, there was also a much greater emphasis on the explanatory needs of learners of English.

"The first dictionary coming close to a complete inventory of the English language" [Sterkenburg 2003; 12] was *A New English Dictionary* by John Kersey (1702). The lexicon included 28,000 entries of general vocabulary. Nathaniel Bailey's *An Universal Etymological Dictionary* of 1721 contained 40,000 headwords of everyday general vocabulary, unusual words and etymology.

The dictionary which is considered to be the landmark in establishing the role of lexicographer as an authority on the correct spelling, pronunciation and definitions is Samuel Johnson's *Dictionary of the English Language* of 1755. Johnson's aim was to show the best way to use words and to record and preserve the purity of the English language. He used a corpus of authentic literary texts for

his dictionary, from which he chose citations to illustrate the meaning of the words in the context and the usage by the best, reputable authors [Sterkenburg 2003, 13; Morton 1994]. Johnson used 114,000 citations to prove his definitions, connotations and added commentaries if he doubted the usage. He described the meaning of the words in chronological order, from the literal to the figurative, metaphorical, stylistic meaning.

Despite early signs, in the reign of Ivan the Terrible, of Russians establishing trading contacts with England, it took a full century, taking 1600 as a starting point, "to develop relations on a scale that would encourage serious language learning" [Cowie 2009; 4]. Learner of English had to wait till 1772 for the first English-Russian Dictionary to appear. In Zhdanov's *New Dictionary, English and Russian, 1784*, the entries were listed alphabetically, parts of speech identified with the information about the register and meaning of the words. In 1840 the first Russian-English dictionary appeared by James Banks which was chiefly for Russians wishing to write in English and later, 1883-1885, Aleksandrov's *Russian-English Dictionary* for secondary schools.

Dictionaries of national usages appeared in America and several other countries, including India. *The Dictionary of American Usage (DAE)* was the first of these to be produced; it narrowed the scope to material that would distinguish American English. In *the Dictionary of Americanisms on Historical Principles (DA)* (1951), the list of word was limited to words and expressions that originated in the United States. The other dictionaries to be mentioned are *A Dictionary of Jamaican English on historical principles* (1967), *The Dictionary of South African English* (1978)*, The Dictionary of the Older Scottish Tongue, DOST* (a 12-volume dictionary compiled from 1931 to 2002), *The Scottish National Dictionary, SND* (compiled from 1931 to 1976 with a *New Supplement* in 2005), *The Dictionary of Bahamian English (1982)*, *Dictionary of Caribbean English Usage* (1996) and *The Caribbean Multilingual Dictionary* (2003).

Webster's Third New International Dictionary is considered to be a landmark in American lexicography, as it adopts its descriptive approach to the English lexicon, dealing with English words not only from the linguistic dimension but also from the social and cultural dimensions. This approach is now "universally acknowledged as one of the fundamental principles for both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries" [Yong, Peng 2007, 19].

The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (1963), followed by *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (1978), *Collins Cobuild Dictionary of the English Language* (1987), etc. concentrated on learner's language needs and reference skills, focus was more on the active use of the dictionary: it was not a

mere description of the meaning of an individual word, but what the word meant in the connected speech, in the language system and in real context, in this way words are defined as interrelated constituent part of the lexical system and described in connection with their potential linguistic and socio-cultural contexts.

§3 Corpora and Lexicography

Most current dictionaries no longer use invented examples but rely on corpora of authentic English. A corpus is "an extension of the traditional archive" [Čhermak 2003, 18], but its obvious advantage is the vast amount of data and the speed of their access.

The purpose of a language corpus is to provide language workers with evidence of how language is really used, evidence that can then be used to inform and substantiate individual theories about what words might or should mean. The words in a corpus come from books, magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, radio and television broadcasts. Traditional grammars and dictionaries tell us what a word *ought to mean*, but only experience can tell us what a word *is used to mean*. This is why dictionary publishers, grammar writers, language teachers, and developers of natural language processing software alike have been turning to corpus evidence as a means of extending and organizing that experience.

The first widely-used computer-readable corpora were set up in the 1960s and 1970s. The Brown Corpus prepared at Brown University in the USA consists of one million words of written American English. It was published in 1961 and sampled as text fragments of 2,000 words each. The Brown Corpus has inspired a whole family of corpora [http://www.helsinki.fi/varieng/CoRD/corpora/BROWN/index.html].

The LOB (Lancaster – Oslo – Bergen) Corpus [http://www.helsinki.fi/varieng/CoRD/corpora/LOB/index.html] was designed as the British equivalent of the Brown Corpus: one million words of written British English, also published in 1961, and sampled as text fragments of 2,000 words each, from informative texts, such as newspapers, learned and scientific writing, and imaginative fiction.

London – Lund Corpus [http://www.helsinki.fi/varieng/CoRD/corpora/LLC/index.html] was constructed at University College London and the University of Lund. This corpus is about 435,000 words of spoken British English, and contains 5,000-word samples of the usage of adult, educated, professional people, including face-to-face and telephone conversations, lectures, discussions and radio commentaries.

The Bank of English Corpus created by COBUILD (Collins Birmingham University International Language Database) at the University of Birmingham by the late 1990s totaled about 330 million words, including fiction and nonfiction books, newspapers and samples of spoken English. The corpus is available in different forms: primarily the Bank of English itself, and a 50-million-word sub-corpus which is available over the internet as CobuildDirect.

The British National Corpus [http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/] is a 100-million-word collection of samples of written and spoken language from a wide range of sources, designed to represent a wide cross-section of British English from the later part of the 20th century, both spoken and written. The written part of the BNC (90 %) includes, for example, extracts from regional and national newspapers, specialist periodicals and journals for all ages and interests, academic books and popular fiction, published and unpublished letters and memoranda, school and university essays, etc. The spoken part (10 %) consists of orthographic transcriptions of unscripted informal conversations (recorded by volunteers selected from different age, region and social classes in a demographically balanced way) and spoken language collected in different contexts. The latest edition is the *BNC XML Edition*, released in 2007.

The International Corpus of English (ICE) [http://ice-corpora.net/ice/] began in 1990 with the primary aim of collecting material for comparative studies of English worldwide. Twenty-four research teams around the world are preparing electronic corpora of their own national or regional variety of English. Each ICE corpus consists of one million words of spoken and written English produced after 1989. In the corpus variants and dialects of English are represented in different text categories (phone calls, classroom discussions, business interactions, parliamentary debates, legal presentations and unscripted speeches of the spoken discourse; student essays, social and business letters, academic and non-academic writing, press news reports, editorials, novels and stories of the written discourse).

Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE) [https://www.univie.ac.at/voice/page/index.php] is the first corpus of English as lingua franca (ELF) publicly. It comprises transcripts of naturally occurring face–to face interactions (interviews, press conferences, service encounters, seminar discussions, meetings, panels, etc.) in English as a lingua franca. Currently it comprises one million words of spoken ELF interactions with some recordings of transcribed speech events which can be listened to.

The use of corpora in dictionary-making allows to make a dictionary in a much shorter period of time with up-to-date information about the language; thus

the definitions are more complete and precise as a larger number of natural examples are examined.

§4 Types of Dictionaries. Dictionary Entry

In many parts of the English-speaking world, dictionaries have achieved such prestige that people can mention 'the dictionary' as one of their institutional texts, rather in the same way that they might refer to Shakespeare and Bible. Such status means that a dictionary may easily be seen as the model of word-meanings, it is the appropriate model of words as a component of language or of word-meanings stored as an inventory in the human brain or mind (Yallop 2004, 24). So, lexicography is not just the writing and compiling of dictionaries. It involves "observing, collecting, selecting, and describing units from the stock of words and word combinations in one or more languages" [Svensen 1993; 1], moreover, as lexicography includes the development and description of the theories and methods which are to be the basis of the activity, it can be also defined as "the theory and practice of encoding and transmitting, intra-culturally or interculturally, information and knowledge concerning socialized linguistic forms of a given speech community and / or extralinguistic reality from the compiler to the user so as to effect the user's knowledge structure and perception of the world [Yong, Peng 2007, 11].

The practitioners of lexicography described the process of compiling dictionaries in different terms, from 'exciting' (Eric Partridge) and 'enjoyable' (James Hulbert), to 'difficult' (Ladislav Zgusta), 'tedious' (H.A. Gleason), 'like engineering' (Charles McGregor) and 'nothing less than the attempt to fashion a custom-made product on an assembly-line basis' (Sidney Landau).

One of the biggest challenges in this process is to treat each dictionary entry in such a way so that all the entries do not disagree and correspond to their relative importance in the language. Thus, a dictionary is "a reference tool, in a paper or electronic form, that provides information on the meaning and use of a representative sample of the lexical items of a language or of a variety of a language, where each item is treated in a separate paragraph and all the paragraphs are ordered for easy consultation" [Bejoint 2010, 34]. But the dictionary is not only used as a reference work, it also serves as a kind of "storage facility, a storeroom for a language in which we can find much of what once existed and which exists today" [Sterkenburg 2003, 6].

Dictionaries may be classified under different heads. According to the choice of items included and the sort of information given about these items dictionaries may be divided into two big groups – encyclopedic and linguistic,

though it is not always easy to distinguish between linguistic and encyclopedic knowledge, to draw a neat line between them. One may argue on the terms as well – would it be perfectly correct to call encyclopedia a dictionary? Or this term may refer only to reference books highlighting the special features of lexical items?

Encyclopedias are scientific reference books dealing with every branch of knowledge, or with one particular branch, usually in alphabetical order. They are 'thing-books' that give information about the extralinguistic world, they deal with facts and concepts.

Linguistic dictionaries are 'word-books' the subject matter of which is lexical units and their linguistic properties such as pronunciation, meaning, origin, peculiarities of use, and other linguistic information. Linguistic dictionaries can be further divided into different categories by different criteria.

1. The nature (scope) of word lists: **general** (unrestricted) and **restricted** dictionaries. General dictionaries represent the vocabulary as a whole with a degree of completeness depending upon the scope and the bulk of the book in question. They can include frequency dictionaries, rhyming dictionaries, a thesaurus, etc. Restricted dictionaries cover only the certain specific part of the vocabulary and can be subdivided depending upon whether the words chosen according to the sphere of human activity in which they are used, the type of the units themselves or the relations existing between them:

(1) technical terms for various branches of knowledge (medical, linguistic, economic, etc.);

(2) phraseological units, borrowings, dialect words, etc.;

(3) formidable array of synonymic dictionaries.

2. The kind of information: **explanatory** vs. **specialized** (*translation, pronouncing, etymological, ideographic dictionaries*, etc.). Specialized dictionaries deal with lexical units only in relation to some of their characteristics.

3. The language in which the information is given: **monolingual** vs. **bilingual** dictionaries. Bilingual dictionaries may have two principle purposes: reference for translation and guidance for expression.

4. The prospective user, e.g. *advanced learners of English, children, students*, etc. If a dictionary is aimed at a young user, it is normally characterized by an appropriate selection of the vocabulary, limited amounts of information, often the use of pictures and colours. There is a big range of dictionaries that are aimed at the learners of English as a second or foreign language; the dictionaries aimed at a native speaker adult user might be termed the general-purpose dictionary and owned by quite many people [Jackson 2002, 24].

5. **Diachronic vs. synchronic**. Synchronic dictionaries are concerned with the present-day meaning and usage of words. Diachronic dictionaries reflect the development of the English vocabulary by recording the history of form and meaning for every word registered. They can be divided into etymological (focusing on the origin of the words and expressions and their formal, orthographic and phonetic, development) and historical (focusing on the changes that have occurred in both the form and the meaning of a word within a specific language for a period of time from which there is a historical evidence at hand). In many historical dictionaries, historical and etymological perspectives are combined.

6. The form of dictionaries: '**hard**' (paper) and '**soft**' (electronic) dictionaries. Electronic dictionaries fundamentally differ in form, content and function from conventional word-books and they offer many advantages compared to hard-copy dictionaries. Among the most significant differences are: 1) the use of multimedia means; 2) the navigable help indices in windows oriented software; 3) the use of sound, animation, audio and visual elements as well as interactive exercises and games; 4) the varied possibilities of search and access methods that allow the user to specify the output in a number of ways; 5) the access to and retrieval of information are no longer determined by the internal, traditionally alphabetical, organization of the dictionary, but a nonlinear structure of the texts; 6) the use of hyperlinks which allow easily and quickly to cross-refer to words within an entry or to other words connected with this entry. The advantages of electronic dictionaries are practically the speed with which they can be consulted and, as mentioned before, the multiple search routes. One can find the opposite meaning through the antonym or find a particular synonym by consulting the list of synonyms. By consulting the analytical definitions, one can find many words that belong to the same upper or lower classes, i.e. hyperonyms, synonyms.

Many dictionaries on CD-ROM contain much more material than their hard-copy counterparts, such as audio and video material, pronunciation and a corpus of authentic texts, to name but a few. An electronic dictionary in the form of a databank can also be edited on a daily basis, allowing changes to be made, neologisms to be added and obvious errors to be corrected. Such a dictionary is unmistakably dynamic [Piet van Sterkburg 2003, 5].

The dictionary entries are organized as follows [Halliday, Teubert, Yallop, Čermakova 2004]:

1. The **headword** or **lemma**, often in bold or some other special font; lemma is the base form under which the word is entered and assigned its place: typically, the 'stem', or simplest form (singular noun, present \ infinitive verb, etc.). Other forms may not be entered if they are predictable (such as the plural *bears*, but the

irregular past forms of the verbs are given. In a language such as Russian, where the stem form of a word typically does not occur alone, a particular variant is chosen as a lemma: nominative singular for nouns, infinitive for verbs, etc.

2. Its **pronunciation**, in some form of alphabetic notation.

3. Its word class ('part of speech'); usually one of the primary word classes (verb, noun, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, propositions, conjunctions, determiner / article). To this class specification may be added some indications of a subclass, for example count or mass noun, intransitive or transitive verb.

4. Its **etymology** (historical origin and derivation); the etymology may include not only the earliest known form and the language in which this occurs but also cognate forms in other languages. Some dictionaries may also include a suggested 'proto-' form, a form not found anywhere but reconstructed by the methods of historical linguistics; proto-forms are conventionally marked with an asterisk.

5. Its **definition**; the definition takes one or both of two forms: description and synonymy. The description may obviously need to include words that are 'harder' (less frequently used) that the lemmatized word. Some dictionaries, such as the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, limit the vocabulary that they use in their descriptions. With synonymy, a word, or little set of words of similar meaning is brought in, often giving slightly more specific senses. All definition is ultimately circular; but compilers try to avoid very small circles, such as defying *sad* as *sorrowful*, and then *sorrowful* as *sad*.

6. **Citations** (examples of its use) refer to definitions or senses, show how the word is used in context. They may illustrate a typical usage, or use in wellknown literary texts, or the earliest recorded instances of the word. There may also be various 'fixed expressions' (idioms and cliches), where the expression functions like a single, composite lexical item (*bear fruit, bear in mind*).

Compound words, like *cutthroat*, and derivatives, like *cutting* or *uncut*, are often entered under the same lemma; in that case, compounds will appear under the first word (*cutthroat* under *cut*, *haircut* under *hair*) and derivatives under the stem (both *cutting* and *uncut* under *cut*). Though, dictionaries can adopt varying practices. In some dictionaries, compounds are given separate lemmata, and sometimes a derivational affix is used as lemma and derivatives grouped under that (for example, *antibody, anticlimax, antidote*, etc. all under *anti-*).

Most dictionaries follow this general structure, but variations are of course found. For example, etymological information may come at the end of the entry rather than near the beginning.

In thesaurus, by contrast, there is no separate entry for each word. The word occurs simply as part of a list; and it is the place of a word in the whole construction of the book that tells you what it means. In the thesaurus the words are organized not on the basis of form but on the basis of meaning (that is not grammatical classes but semantic classes). The most illustrious example of a nonalphabetical dictionary in English is *Roget's Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases* by Peter Mark Roget, a co-author of the seventh edition of the Encyclopaedia Britannica. The Thesaurus, begun in 1810 and published in 1852, contained about 40,000 words. It has been re-edited several times since then in many different forms, paper or electronic, with additions and deletions but the same organization. *Roget* is not a registered trademark anymore, and many versions have been produced by different publishers that do not have much in common with the original, except the name. That only proves the citation [Murrey 2004, 3] that the English dictionary "like the English Constitution, is the creation of no one man, and of none age it is a growth that has slowly developed itself down the ages "As we can see from above, a dictionary is a "reference tool, in paper or electronic form, that provides information on the meaning and use of a representative sample of the lexical items of a language or of variety of a language, where each item is treated in a separate paragraph and all the paragraphs are ordered for easy consultation" [Bejoint 2010, 34].

KEY TERMS

Computational lexicography, corpus-based lexicography, dictionary, encyclopedia, general lexicography, headword, lemma, linguistic dictionary, practical lexicography, specialized lexicography, theoretical lexicography.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the term 'dictionary' used to denote?
2. What are the main principles of classification of dictionaries?
3. What is the main difference between an encyclopedia and a linguistic dictionary?
4. How is a dictionary entry organized?
5. What is the order of arrangement of meanings in a dictionary entry?
6. What are the modern trends in lexicography?
7. Why are corpora studies so important today?
8. What corpora of English do you know?
9. What are the main differences between 'hard' and 'soft' dictionaries?
10. What type of dictionary do the below-mentioned belong to?

a) The Cambridge International Dictionary of English
b) The New Oxford Thesaurus English
c) The Collins Dictionary of Allusions
d) The Penguin Dictionary of English Grammar
e) Random House Webster's Dictionary of American Slang
f) The English-Russian Dictionary of Linguistics

3 ENRICHING VOCABULARY

WORD STRUCTURE. AFFIXATION

§1 *Ways of Enriching Vocabulary. Word-building. Various Types and Ways of Forming Words*

§2 *Morpheme. Classification of Morphemes. Morphemic Types of Words. Types of Word-Segmentability. Procedure of Morphemic Analysis*

§3 *Affixation. Suffixation. Classification of Suffixes. Prefixation. Classification of Prefixes*

§1 Ways of Enriching Vocabulary. Word-building. Various Types and Ways of Forming Words

One of the main tasks of lexicology is to define the main ways of enriching the vocabulary of a given language, to point out which of the ways are the most characteristic of the language in general and at some definite periods of the history of the language.

Some of the ways of forming words in present-day English can be resorted to for the creation of new words whenever the occasion demands — these are called **productive ways of forming words**, other ways of forming words cannot now produce new words, and these are commonly termed **non-productive** or **unproductive**. For instance, affixation has been a productive way of forming words ever since the Old English period; on the other hand, sound interchange must have been at one time a word-building means but in Modern English, as has been mentioned above, its function is actually only to distinguish between different classes and forms of words.

It follows that productivity of word-building ways, individual derivational patterns and derivational affixes is understood as their ability of making new words which all who speak English find no difficulty in understanding, in particular their

ability to create what are called **occasional words** or **nonce-words**. The term suggests that a speaker coins such words when he needs them; if on another occasion the same word is needed again, he coins it afresh. Nonce-words are built from familiar language material after familiar patterns. Needless to say dictionaries do not as a rule record occasional words. The following words may serve as illustration: (his) collarless (appearance), a lungful (of smoke), a Dickensish (office), to unlearn (the rules), etc.

The delimitation between productive and non-productive ways and means of word-formation as stated above is not, however, accepted by all linguists without reserve. Some linguists consider it necessary to define the term productivity of a word-building means more accurately. They hold the view that productive ways and means of word-formation are only those that can be used for the formation of an unlimited number of new words in the modern language, i.e. such means that "know no bounds" and easily form occasional words. This divergence of opinion is responsible for the difference in the lists of derivational affixes considered productive in various books on English Lexicology.

Recent investigations seem to prove however that productivity of derivational means is relative in many respects. Moreover there are no absolutely productive means; derivational patterns and derivational affixes possess different degrees of productivity. Therefore it is important that conditions favouring productivity and the degree of productivity of a particular pattern or affix should be established. All derivational patterns experience both structural and semantic constraints. The fewer are the constraints the higher is the degree of productivity, the greater is the number of new words built on it. The two general constraints imposed on all derivational patterns are — the part of speech in which the pattern functions and the meaning attached to it which conveys the regular semantic correlation between the two classes of words. It follows that each part of speech is characterized by a set of productive derivational patterns peculiar to it. Three degrees of productivity are distinguished for derivational patterns and individual derivational affixes: l) highly-productive , 2) productive or semi-productive and 3) non-productive.

Productivity of derivational patterns and affixes should not be identified with frequency of occurrence in speech, although there may be some interrelation between them. Frequency of occurrence is characterized by the fact that a great number of words containing a given derivational affix are often used in speech, in particular in various texts. Productivity is characterized by the ability of a given suffix to make new words.

In linguistic literature there is another interpretation of derivational productivity based on a quantitative approach.1 A derivational pattern or a derivational affix are qualified as productive provided there are in the word-stock dozens and hundreds of derived words built on the pattern or with the help of the suffix in question. Thus interpreted, derivational productivity is distinguished from word-formation activity by which is meant the ability of an affix to produce new words, in particular occasional words or nonce-words. To give a few illustrations. The agent suffix -er is to be qualified both as a productive and as an active suffix: on the one hand, the English word-stock possesses hundreds of nouns containing this suffix (e.g. driver, reaper, teacher, speaker, etc.), on the other hand, the suffix -er in the pattern *v+-er -> N* is freely used to coin an unlimited number of nonce-words denoting active agents (e.g., interrupter, respecter, laugher, breakfaster, etc.).

The adjective suffix -ful is described as a productive but not as an active one, for there are hundreds of adjectives with this suffix (e.g. beautiful, hopeful, useful, etc.), but no new words seem to be built with its help.

For obvious reasons, the noun-suffix -th in terms of this approach is to be regarded both as a non-productive and a non-active one.

New lexical units (words, word combinations, set phrases) appear

1) by means of the word building;

2) by means of changing the meaning of words;

3) by means of forming phraseological units;

4) by means of borrowing new words from other languages.

The most productive way of enriching the vocabulary on the basis of native words in Indio-European languages is word-building.

Main ways of word-building are:

1) conversion (the formation of a new word by bringing the stem of this word into a different formal paradigm; the basic form of the original and the basic form of the derived words in case of conversion are homonymous);

2) affixation (the formation of a new word with the help of affixes);

3) composition (the formation of a new word by combining two or more stems which occur in the language as free forms);

4) shortening (the formation of a word by cutting off the part of the word).

Secondary ways of word-building are:

1) blending (the formation of a new word by combining parts of two words);

2) acronymy, or graphical abbreviation (is the formation of a word from the initial letters of a word-combination);

3) sound interchange (the formation of a word due to an alteration in the phonemic composition of its root);

4) stress interchange (the formation of a new word by means of the shift of the stress in the source word);

5) sound imitation, or onomatopoeia (the naming of an action or a thing by a more or less exact reproduction of the sound associated with it);

6) back formation (the formation of a new word by subtracting a real or supposed suffix from the existing words).

§2 Morpheme. Classification of Morphemes. Morphemic Types of Words. Types of Word-Segmentability. Procedure of Morphemic Analysis

Before we turn to the studies of the ways of word building in English we should analyze the structure of the English word.

Words consist 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 unit (*phoneme*, *sememe*).

The branch of linguistics which studies morphemes and their arrangement in forming words is called **morphology**.

The morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of a language, which has lexical or grammatical meaning or carries information about meaning and function. It is thus the smallest linguistic sign, having both form and meaning, tied together arbitrarily or conventionally. It is important to remember that morpheme is neither a meaning nor a stretch of sounds, but a meaning and a stretch of sounds joined together. Morphemes cannot be segmented into smaller units without losing their constitutive essence, i.e. two-facetedness – association of a certain meaning with a certain sound-pattern. Morphemes occur in speech only as constituent parts of words but not independently.

The case for an element to be regarded as a morpheme is strengthened if it does not just exist within a single word, but recurs in others with a recognizably related meaning. When examining the credentials of any element, we should look for its recurrence elsewhere as corroboration [Coates 1999, 4]. A morpheme may be involved in regular patterns of interchange: *-er* in *calmer* gains credibility as a morpheme not only because it is what is left over when you remove the meaningful *calm,* but also it interchanges with *-er* in a regular meaning relationship found in hosts of other adjectives too (*fatter, larger* and so on).

Typical morphemes are meaningful, recur in a language's vocabulary and may recur in regular interchanges.

The combination of lexical and grammatical morphemes does not produce new words or lexemes, but only new word-forms. The addition of morphemes for plural or past tense is an almost unlimited grammatical process – it is inflectional morphology (or inflexion) as opposed to word-formation. The remaining lexical morpheme which does not occur independently is usually called a **stem**.

Morphemes may have different phonetic shapes. In the word-cluster *please, pleasing, pleasure, pleasant* the root morpheme is represented by different phonetic shapes. All the representations of the given morpheme are called **allomorphs** or **morpheme variants**. They are the positional variants occurring in a specific environment, when, for example, two linguistic variants cannot appear in the same environment, e.g.: stems, ending in consonants take as a rule *–ation* (*liberation*); stems ending in *pt* though, take *–tion* (*corruption*) and the final *t* becomes fuse with the suffix. The example of allomorphs among prefixes is *im-, ir-, il- and in-* (*impossible, irregular, illegal, indirect*).

Morphemes can be classified from the semantic point of view and from the structural point of view. Semantically morphemes fall into two types:

1) **root-morphemes** (or radicals) are the lexical nuclei of words. The root-morpheme is isolated as the morpheme common to a set of words making up a word-cluster;

2) **non-root morphemes** include inflectional morphemes (or inflections) and affixational morphemes (or affixes). Inflections carry only grammatical meaning and are thus relevant only for the formation of word-forms, whereas affixes are relevant for building various types of stems. (A stem is the part of a word that remains unchanged throughout its paradigm). Lexicology is concerned only with affixational morphemes. Affixes are divided into prefixes and suffixes.

A **prefix** is a derivational morpheme preceding the root-morpheme and modifying its meaning.

A **suffix** is a derivational morpheme following the root and forming a new derivative in a different part of speech or a different word class.

While suffixes and prefixes are very common in English, there are also rare cases of affixes that cannot be considered prefixes or suffixes, because they are inserted not at the boundary of another morpheme but right into another morpheme (e.g.: *abso-bloody-lutely*, where *-bloody-* interrupts the morphemes *absolute* and *-ly*). Such intervening affixes are called **infixes**.

The part of a word which an affix is attached to is called a **base**. The term root refers to bases that cannot be analyzed further into morphemes or when we explicitly refer to the indivisible central part of a complex word. The derived word is often referred to as a **derivative**.

Structurally morphemes fall into three types.

1. A **free morpheme** is defined as one that coincides with the stem or a word-form (homonymous to word-form): *boy, sport*.

2. A **bound morpheme** occurs only as a constituent part of the word, affixes are bound morphemes for they always make the part of the word.

An affix should not be confused with the combining form which is also a bound form, but can be distinguished from an affix historically. Combining forms were borrowed from Latin or Greek, in which they existed as free forms, and most of them are international: ***aqua****culture,* ***aqua****marine,* ***aqua****relle,* ***poly****clinic,* ***poly****mer,* ***stereo****phonic,* ***stereo****scopic,* ***hydra****nth,* ***cycl****ic,* ***graph****ic*, ***tele****vision.*

3. **Semi-bound** (**semi-free**) **morphemes** (or **semi-affixes**) are morphemes that can function in a morphemic sequence both as an affix and as a free morpheme. The most frequent of semi-affixes is - *man*, as its combining activity is very high and one might compile a very long list of words: *seaman, postman, fireman, countryman, clergyman, yes-man*, etc. A great combining capacity characterizes such elements as *-like (godlike, unladylike, suchlike), -proof (waterproof, soundproof, bombproof), -worthy (seaworthy, noteworthy, trustworthy), mini- (miniskirt, minibar, mini-planet) midi- (midi-coat, midi-carrier, midicomputer), over- (overdone, overload, overnight),* alongside with these there are also *–wise (clockwise), -way(s) (likeways), -monger (fishermonger), -wright (playwright).*

In morphemes different types of meaning can be singled out depending on the semantic class morphemes belong to. Root-morphemes possess lexical, differential and distributional types of meaning. Affixational morphemes have lexical, part-of-speech, differential and distributional types of meaning. Both rootmorphemes and affixational morphemes are devoid of grammatical meaning.

The **lexical meaning** of root-morphemes differs from that of affixational morphemes. Root-morphemes have an individual lexical meaning shared by no other morphemes in the language. The lexical meaning of affixational morphemes is, as a rule, of a more generalizing character.

As in words, lexical meaning in morphemes may also be analyzed into denotational and connotational components. The connotational component may be found not only in root-morphemes but in affixational morphemes as well. Endearing and diminutive suffixes, such as *-ette* (*kitchenette, leaflet*); *-ie* (*dearie, girlie*); *-ling* (*duckling, wolfing*) bear a heavy emotive charge. Stylistic reference may also be found in morphemes of different types. For example, the affixational morphemes *-ine* (*chlorine*), *-oid* (*rhomboid*) are bookish.

Differential meaning is the semantic component that serves to distinguish one word from all others containing identical morphemes. In words consisting of two or more morphemes, one of the constituent morphemes always has differential meaning.

Distributional meaning is the meaning of the order and arrangement of morphemes making up the word. It is found in all words containing more than one morpheme.

In most cases affixational morphemes are indicative of the part of speech to which a derivational word belongs. For example, the affixational morpheme *-ment* (*movement*) is used to form nouns, while the affixational morpheme *–less* (*careless*) forms adjectives. Sometimes the part-of-speech meaning of morphemes predominates. For example, the morpheme *–ice* in the word *justice* serves principally to transfer the **part-of-speech meaning** of the morpheme *just-* into another class and namely that of the noun.

According to the number of morphemes words are classified into:

1) monomorphic or root-words which consist of only one rootmorpheme;

2) polymorphic words which according to the number of root-morphemes are classified into:

1) monoradical and

2) polyradical.

Monoradical words fall into three subtypes:

a) radical-suffixal words, i.e. words consisting of one-root morpheme and one or more suffixal morphemes (*acceptable, acceptability*);

b) radical-prefixal words, i.e. words consisting of one-root morpheme and a prefixal morpheme (*outdo, unbutton*);

c) prefixo-radical-suffixal words, i.e. words consisting of one root, prefixal and suffixal morphemes (*disagreeable, misinterpretation*).

Polyradical words fall into two types:

a) polyradical words which consist of two or more roots with no affixational morphemes (*book-stand, lamp-shade*);

b) polyradical words which contain at least two roots and one or more affixational morphemes (*safety-pin, light-mindedness, pen-holder*).

The process of dividing words into morphemes is called *segmentation*, or morphological segmentation.

Three types of morphemic segmentability of words are distinguished: complete, conditional, defective [Зыкова 2007, 55–56].

Complete segmentability is characteristic of a great number of words, the morphemic structure of which is transparent enough, as their individual

morphemes clearly stand out within the word and can be easily isolated. The morphemes making up words of complete segmentability are called **morphemes proper** or full **morphemes**.

Conditional segmentability characterizes words whose segmentation into constituent morphemes is doubtful for semantic reasons. In the words *retain, detain, receive, deceive* the sound clusters [*ri*-] [*di*-] seem to be singled out quite easily due to their recurrence in a number of words. On the other hand, they have nothing in common with the phonetically identical morphemes *re*-, *depart* which are found in the words *rewrite, reorganize, decode, deorganize*. Neither the sound clusters [*ri*-], [*di*-] nor the *[-tein*], [-*si:v*] possess any lexical or part-of speech meaning of their own. The types of meaning that can be ascribed to them is differential and distributional.

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

This brief information shows the importance of morphology in lexicology.

In fact, the construction of words and parts of words, and the distinction between the different types of words are based on morphological analysis making morphology particularly relevant in the discussion of word formation [ibid].

§3 Affixation. Suffixation. Classification of Suffixes. Prefixation. Classification of Prefixes

Affixation is defined as the formation of words by adding derivational affixes to different types of bases. It has been productive in all periods of the history of English.

Derived words formed by affixation may be the result of one or several applications of word-formation rule and thus the stems of words making up a word-cluster enter into derivational relations of different degrees. The zero degree of derivation is ascribed to simple words, i.e. words whose stem is homonymous with a word-form and often with a root-morpheme, e.g. atom, haste, devote, anxious, horror, etc. Derived words whose bases are built on simple stems and thus are formed by the application of one derivational affix are described as having the first degree of derivation, e.g. atomic, hasty, devotion, etc. Derived words formed by two consecutive stages of coining possess the second degree of derivation, etc., e.g. atomical, hastily, devotional, etc.

Affixation includes suffixation and prefixation. As a rule, prefixes modify the lexical meaning of stems to which they are added. In a suffixal derivative the

suffix does not only modify the lexical meaning of the stem it is added to, but the word itself is usually transferred to another part of speech.

Distinction is naturally made between prefixal and suffixal derivatives according to the last stage of derivation, which determines the nature of the pattern that signals the relationship of the derived word with its motivating source unit, cf. unjust *(un-+just),* justify, *(just*+ + -ify), arrangement *(arrange* + -ment), non-smoker (non- + *smoker).*

Words like reappearance, unreasonable, denationalise, are often qualified as prefixal-suffixal derivatives. The reader should clearly realise that this qualification is relevant only in terms of the constituent morphemes such words are made up of, i.e. from the angle of morphemic analysis.

From the point of view of derivational analysis such words are mostly either suffixal or prefixal derivatives, e.g. sub-atomic = sub- + *(atom* + + - *ic),* unreasonable = un- + *(reason* + *-able),* denationalise = de- + + *(national* + *-ize),* discouragement = *(dis-* + *courage)* + -ment.

A careful study of a great many suffixal and prefixal derivatives has revealed an essential difference between them. In Modern English suffixation is mostly characteristic of noun and adjective formation, while prefixation is mostly typical of verb formation. The distinction also rests on the role different types of meaning play in the semantic structure of the suffix and the prefix. The part-of-speech meaning has a much greater significance in suffixes as compared to prefixes which possess it in a lesser degree. Due to it a prefix may be confined to one part of speech as, e.g, enslave, encage, unbutton or may function in more than one part of speech as, e.g., over- in overkind *a,* to overfeed *v,* overestimation *n;* unlike prefixes, suffixes as a rule function in any o n e part of speech often forming a derived stem of a different part of speech as compared with that of the base, e.g. careless *a* – cf. care *n;* suitable *a* — cf. suit *v,* etc.

Furthermore, it is necessary to point out that a suffix closely knit together with a base forms a fusion retaining less of its independence than a prefix which is as a general rule more independent semantically, cf. reading – ‘the act of one who reads’; ‘ability to read’; and to re-read — ‘to read again.'

Suffixes can be classified into different types in accordance with different principles.

1. Origin: Romanic (e.g. - *age,* - *ment,* - *tion*), Native (e.g. *-er, -dom,* - *ship*), Greek (e.g. *-ism, -ize*), etc.

2. Productivity: productive suffixes (*-er, -ing, -ness, -ation, -ee, -ism, -ist, -ance, -ry, -or, ics*), non-productive suffixes *(-some, -th, -hood, -ship, -ful, -ly, -en, -ous*).

3. Lexico-grammatical character of the base suffixes are usually added to:deverbial suffixes (speak*er*, read*er*, agree*ment*, suit*able*); denominal suffixes (hope*less*, hope*ful*, violin*ist*, tire*some*); deadjectival suffixes (wid*en*, quick*ly*, redd*ish*, lonel*iness*).

4. Part of speech they form: noun-forming suffixes (writ*er*, bond*age*, knight*hood*, tender*ness*, friend*ship*, assist*ance*, free*dom*, hous*ing*); adjective forming suffixes (read*able*, norm*al*, phonet*ic*, depend*ent*, shap*ed*, hope*ful*, whit*ish*, posit*ive*, courage*ous*); numeral-forming suffixes (seven*fold*, fif*teen*, fif*th*, for*ty*); verb-forming suffixes (activ*ate*, intens*ify*, harmon*ize*, establ*ish*).

5. Generalizing denotational meaning: agent of an action (bak*er*, assist*ance*); collectivity (official*dom*), diminutiveness (girl*ie*, duckl*ing*), etc.

6. Stylistic reference: neutral (read*able*, hous*ing*); with stylistic value (posi*tron*, aster*oid*, etc.)

Prefixation is the formation of words with the help of prefixes. The interpretation of the terms prefix and prefixation now firmly rooted in linguistic literature has undergone a certain evolution. For instance, some time ago there were linguists who treated prefixation as part of word-composition (or compounding). The greater semantic independence of prefixes as compared with suffixes led the linguists to identify prefixes with the first component part of a compound word. At present the majority of scholars treat prefixation as an integral part of word-derivation regarding prefixes as derivational affixes which differ essentially both from root-morphemes and non-derivational prepositive morphemes. Opinion sometimes differs concerning the interpretation of the functional status of certain individual groups of morphemes which commonly occur as first component parts of words. H. Marchand, for instance, analyses words like to overdo, to underestimate as compound verbs, the first components of which are locative particles, not prefixes. In a similar way he interprets words like income, onlooker, outhouse qualifying them as compounds with locative particles as first elements.

There are about 51 prefixes in the system of Modern English wordformation. According to the available word-counts of prefixal derivatives the greatest number are verbs – 42.4%, adjectives comprise 33,5% and nouns make up 22.4%. To give some examples.- prefixal verbs: to enrich, to coexist, to disagree, to undergo, etc.; prefixal adjectives: anti-war, biannual, uneasy, super-human, etc.; prefixal nouns: ex-champion, co-author, disharmony, subcommittee, etc.

It is of interest to mention that the number of prefixal derivatives within a certain part of speech is in inverse proportion to the actual number of prefixes: 22 form verbs, 41 prefixes make adjectives and 42 – nouns.

Proceeding from the three types of morphemes that the structural classification involves two types of prefixes are to be distinguished:

1) those not correlated with any independent word (either notional or functional), e.g. un-, dis-, re-, pre-, post-, etc.; and

2) those correlated with functional words (prepositions or preposition like adverbs), e.g. out-, over-, up-, under-, etc.

Prefixes of the second type are qualified as **semi bound morphemes** , which implies that they occur in speech in various utterances both as independent words and as derivational affixes, e.g. 'over one's head', 'over the river' (cf. to over*lap,* to over*pass*); 'to run out', 'to take smb out' (cf. to out*grow,* to out*line);* 'to look up', 'hands up' (cf. *upstairs,* to up*set);* 'under the same roof, 'to go under' (cf. to under*estimate*, under*current),* etc.

It should be mentioned that English prefixes of the second type essentially differ from the functional words they are correlated with:

a) like any other derivational affixes they have a more generalized meaning in comparison with the more concrete meanings of the correlated words (see the examples given above); they are characterised by a unity of different denotational components of meaning — a generalised component common to a set of prefixes and individual semantic component distinguishing the given prefix within the set.

b) they are deprived of all grammatical features peculiar to the independent words they are correlated with;

c) they tend to develop a meaning not found in the correlated words;

d) they form regular sets of words of the same semantic type.

Of late some new investigations into the problem of prefixation in English have yielded interesting results. It appears that the traditional opinion, current among linguists, that prefixes modify only the lexical meaning of words without changing the part of speech is not quite correct with regard to the English language. In English there are about 25 prefixes which can transfer words to a different part of speech in comparison with their original stems. Such prefixes should perhaps be called conversive prefixes, e.g. to begulf (cf. gulf *n),* to debus (cf. bus *n);* to embronze (cf. bronze *n),* etc. If further investigation of English prefixation gives more proofs of the conversive ability of prefixes, it will then be possible to draw the conclusion that in this respect there is no functional difference between suffixes and prefixes, for suffixes in English are also both conversive (cf. hand — handless) and non-conversive (cf. father — fatherhood, horseman — horsemanship, etc.).

Some recent investigations in the field of English affixation have revealed a close interdependence between the meanings of a polysemantic affix and the

lexico-semantic group to which belongs the base it is affixed to, which results in the difference between structural and structuralsemantic derivational patterns the prefix forms. A good illustration in point is the prefix en-.

When within the same structural pattern en-+*n* —> *V,* the prefix is combined with noun bases denoting articles of clothing, things of luxury, etc. it forms derived verbs expressing an action of putting or placing on, e.g. enrobe (cf. robe), enjewel (cf. jewel), enlace (cf. lace), etc.

When added to noun bases referring to various land forms, means of transportation, containers and notions of geometry it builds derived verbs denoting an action of putting or placing in or into, e.g. embed (cf. bed), entrap (cf. trap), embark (cf. bark), entrain (cf. train), encircle (cf. circle), etc.

In combination with noun bases denoting an agent or an abstract notion the prefix en- produces causative verbs, e.g. enslave (cf. slave), endanger (cf. danger), encourage (cf. courage), etc.

Unlike suffixation, which is usually more closely bound up with the paradigm of a certain part of speech, prefixation is considered to be more neutral in this respect.

It is significant that in linguistic literature derivational suffixes are always divided into noun-forming, adjective-forming, etc. Prefixes, however, are treated differently. They are described either in alphabetical order or subdivided into several classes in accordance with their origin, meaning or function and never according to the part of speech.

Prefixes seldom shift words from one part of speech into another and both the source word and its prefix derivative mostly belong to the same part of speech.

Prefixes can be classified according to the following principles.

1. Origin: Native (*be*fool, *mis*understand, *over*estimate, *un*academic), Romanic (*in*sufficient), Greek (*syn*thesis).

2. Productivity: productive (e.g. *re*do, *anti*biotic).

3. Lexico-grammatical character of the base: deverbal (*re*do, *over*do, *out*cast); denominal (*un*button, *de*train, *ex*-wife); deadjectival (*un*pleasant, *bi*annual).

4. Part of speech they from: verb-forming prefixes (*en*close, *be*friend, *de*throne); noun-forming prefixes (*non*-smoker, *sub*-branch, *ex*-wife); adjective-forming prefixes (*un*just, *il*legal, *ir*regular); adverb-forming prefixes (*un*fortunately, *up*road).

5. Generalizing denotational meaning: negative prefixes (*un*grateful, *non*political, *in*sufficient, *dis*loyal, *a*moral); reversative prefixes (*un*button, *de*mobilize, *dis*connect); pejorative prefixes (*mis*understand, *mal*treatment, *pseudo*-

scientific); prefixes of time and order (*pre*-war, *post*-war); prefix of repetition (*re*think); locative prefixes (*trans*atlantic, *super*structure).

6. Stylistic reference: neutral (*un*just); with stylistic value (*super*structure).

Suffixation is the formation of words with the help of suffixes. Suffixes usually modify the lexical meaning of the base and transfer words to a, different part of speech. There are suffixes however, which do not shift words from one part of speech into another; a suffix of this kind usually transfers a word into a different semantic group, e.g. a concrete noun becomes an abstract one, as is the case with child – childhood, friend — friendship, etc.

Chains of suffixes occurring in derived words having two and more suffixal morphemes are sometimes referred to in lexicography as compound suffixes: -ably = -able + -ly (e.g. profitably, unreasonably); - ically = -ic + -al + -ly (e.g. musically, critically); -ation = -ate + -ion (e.g. fascination, isolation) and some others.

Compound suffixes do not always present a mere succession of two or more suffixes arising out of several consecutive stages of derivation. Some of them acquire a new quality operating as a whole unit.

There are different classifications of suffixes in linguistic literature, as suffixes may be divided into several groups according to different principles:

1) The first principle of classification that, one might say, suggests itself is the part of speech formed. Within the scope of the part-of-speech classification suffixes naturally fall into several groups such as:

a) noun-suffixes, i.e. those forming or occurring in nouns, e.g. -er, -dom, -ness, -ation, etc. (teacher, Londoner, freedom, brightness, justification, etc.);

b) adjective-suffixes, i.e. those forming or occurring in adjectives, e.g. -able, -less, -ful, -ic, -ous, etc. (agreeable, careless, doubtful, poetic, courageous, etc.);

c) verb-suffixes, i.e. those forming or occurring in verbs, e.g. -en, -fy, -ise (-ize) (darken, satisfy, harmonise, etc.);

d) adverb-suffixes, i.e. those forming or occurring in adverbs, e.g. -ly, -ward (quickly, eastward, etc.).

2) Suffixes may also be classified into various groups according to the lexico-grammatical character of the base the affix is usually added to. Proceeding from this principle one may divide suffixes into:

a) deverbal suffixes (those added to the verbal base), e.g. -er, -ing, -ment, -able, etc. (speaker, reading, agreement, suitable, etc.);

b) denominal suffixes (those added to the noun base), e.g. -less, -ish, -ful, -ist,

-some, etc. (handless, childish, mouthful, violinist, troublesome, etc.);

c) de-adjectival suffixes (those affixed to the adjective base), e.g. -en, -ly, -ish, -ness, etc. (blacken, slowly, reddish, brightness, etc.).

3) A classification of suffixes may also be based on the criterion of sense expressed by a set of suffixes. Proceeding from this principle suffixes are classified into various groups within the bounds of a certain part of speech. For instance, noun-suffixes fall into those denoting:

a) the agent of an action, e.g. -er, -ant (baker, dancer, defendant, etc.);

b) appurtenance, e.g. -an, -ian, -ese, etc. (Arabian, Elizabethan, Russian, Chinese, Japanese, etc.); c) collectivity, e.g. -age, -dom, -ery (-ry), etc. (freightage, officialdom, peasantry, etc.);

d) diminutiveness, e.g. -ie, -let, -ling, etc. (birdie, girlie, cloudlet, squireling, wolfling, etc.).

4) Still another classification of suffixes may be worked out if one examines them from the angle of stylistic reference. Just like prefixes, suffixes are also characterised by quite a definite stylistic reference falling into two basic classes:

a) those characterised by neutral stylistic reference such as -able, -er, -ing, etc.;

b) those having a certain stylistic value such as -oid, -i/form, -aceous, -tron, etc.

Suffixes with neutral stylistic reference may occur in words of different lexico-stylistic layers e.g. agreeable, cf. steerable (steerable spaceship); dancer, cf. transmitter, squealer; 1 meeting, cf. monitoring (the monitoring of digestive processes in the body), etc. As for suffixes of the second class they are restricted in use to quite definite lexico-stylistic layers of words, in particular to terms, e.g. rhomboid, asteroid, cruciform, cyclotron, synchrophasotron, etc.

5) Suffixes are also classified as to the degree of their productivity.

As is known, language is never stable: sounds, constructions, grammatical elements, word-forms and word-meanings are all exposed to alteration. Derivational

affixes are no exception in this respect, they also undergo semantic change. Consequently many commonly used derivational affixes are polysemantic in Modern English. The following two may well serve as illustrations. The noun-suffix -er is used to coin words denoting 1) persons following some special trade or profession, e.g. baker, driver, hunter, etc.; 2) persons doing a certain action at the moment in question, e.g. packer, chooser, giver, etc.; 3) a device, tool, implement, e.g. blotter, atomiser, boiler, eraser, transmitter, trailer, etc.

The adjective-suffix -y also has several meanings, such as 1) composed of, full of, e.g. bony, stony; 2) characterised by, e.g. rainy, cloudy; 3) having the character of, resembling what the base denotes, e.g. inky, bushy.

The various changes that the English language has undergone in the course of time have led to chance coincidence in form of two or more derivational affixes. As a consequence, and this is characteristic of Modern English, many homonymic derivational affixes can be found among those forming both different parts of speech and different semantic groupings within the same part of speech.

KEY TERMS

Allomorph, affixation, base, bound morpheme, complete segmentability, conditional segmentability, defective segmentability, derivative, infix, free morpheme, morpheme, non-root morpheme, prefix, root-morphemes, semi-bound (semi-free) morpheme, segmentation, stem, suffix.

QUESTIONS

1. What are the main ways of enriching vocabulary?
2. What are the principal productive ways of word building in English?
3. What do we mean by affixation?
4. What is a morpheme?
5. How do we distinguish between a morpheme and a word?
6. What is a suffix? What is a prefix?
7. What are the structural types of words in English?
8. What types of meaning do root morphemes possess?
9. What types of meaning do affixational morphemes have?
10. What are the three types of morphemic segmentability?
11. What is the procedure of morphemic analysis based on?
12. What are the principles of classification of suffixes?
13. What are the principles of classification of affixes?
14. What affixes are called native?
15. What are the sources of borrowed affixes?

4 WORD-BUILDING

CONVERSION. COMPOSITION

§1 Conversion. Typical Semantic Relations in Conversion

§2 Word-Composition. Types of Meaning of Compound Words. Classification of Compound Words. Correlation Types of Compound Words

§1 Conversion. Typical Semantic Relations in Conversion

Conversion (**zero-suffixation, transposition**) is one of the principal ways of forming words in modern English. It is highly productive in replenishing the English word-stock with new words. Conversion consists in making a new word from some existing word by changing the category of a part of speech; the morphemic shape of the original word remains unchanged. The new word acquires a meaning, which differs from that of the original one though it can be easily associated with it. The converted word acquires also a new paradigm and a new syntactic function, which is peculiar to its new category as a part of speech.

Even though conversion does not add an affix, conversion is often considered to be a type of derivation because of the change in the category and meaning it brings about. For this reason, it is sometimes called zero derivation.

Conversion has been the object of the linguistic study since 1891 when H. Sweet used this term in his *New English Grammar*. Professor A. I. Smirnitsky in his works treated conversion as a morphological way of forming words where a word is transferred from one paradigm to another, and it is the paradigm that is used as a word-formation means. As a paradigm is a morphological category, conversion may be described as a morphological way of forming words. Other linguists (I.V. Arnold, V.N. Yartseva) treat conversion as a combined morphological and syntactic way of word-building, as a new word appears not in isolation, but in a definite environment of other words, and it involves both a change of the paradigm and a change of the syntactic function.

Conversion is usually restricted to words containing a single morpheme, though in some cases conversion can even apply to compounds.

Among the main varieties of conversion are:

1) verbalization (the formation of verbs), e.g. *ape (n) → to ape (v)*;

2) substantivation (the formation of nouns), e.g. *private (adj) → private (n)*;

3) adjectivation (the formation of adjectives), e.g. *down (adv.) → down (adj.);*

4) adverbalization (the formation of adverbs), e.g. *home (n.) → home (adv.).*

The two categories of parts of speech especially affected by conversion are nouns and verbs (these are two undisputable cases of conversion). Verbs converted from nouns are called denominal verbs. If the noun refers to some object of reality (animate or inanimate) the converted verb may denote:

1) action characteristic of an object: *ape* n. → *ape* v. 'imitate in a foolish way';

2) instrumental use of an object: *whip* n. → *whip* v. 'strike with a whip';

3) acquisition or addition of an object: *fish* n. → *fish* v. 'to catch or try to catch a fish';

4) deprivation of an object: *dust* n. → *dust* v. 'remove dust from sth';

5) location: *pocket* n. → *pocket* v. 'put into one's pocket'

Nouns converted from verbs are called deverbal substantives. If a verb refers to an action, the converted noun may denote:

1) instance of the action: *jump* v. → *jump* n. 'a sudden spring from the garden';

2) agent of an action: *help* v. → *help* n. 'a person who helps';

3) place of the action: *drive* v. → *drive* n. 'a path or road along which one drives';

4) result of the action: *peel* v. → *peel* n. the outer skin of fruit or potatoes taken off';

5) object of the action: *let* v. → *let* n. 'a property available for rent'.

The causes that made conversion so widely spread are to be approached diachronically.

Nouns and verbs have become identical in form firstly as a result of the loss of endings. When endings have disappeared phonetic development resulted in the merging of sound forms for both elements of these pairs, e.g. *carian* (v), *caru* (n) → *care* (v, n); *lufu* (n), *lufian* (v) → *love* (n, v).

Thus, from the diachronic point of view distinction should be made between homonymous word-pairs, which appeared as a result of a loss of inflections, and those formed by the conversion.

The diachronic semantic analysis of a conversion pair reveals that in the course of time the semantic structure of the base may acquire a new meaning or several meanings under the influence of the meanings of the converted word. This semantic process is called reconversion, e.g. *smoke (n) →smoke (v)*. The noun *smoke* acquired in 1715 the meaning of 'the act of smoke coming out into a room instead of passing up the chimney' under the influence of the meaning of the verb

smoke ‘to emit smoke as the result of imperfect draught or improper burning’, acquired by this verb in 1663 [Зыкова 2007].

The flexibility of the English vocabulary system makes a word formed by conversion capable of further derivation, so that it enters into combinations not only with functional but also with derivational affixes characteristic of a verbal stem, and becomes distributionally equivalent to it. For example, *view* ‘to watch television’ gives *viewable, viewer, viewing* [Арнольд 1986, 163].

Conversion can be combined with other word-building processes, such as composition, which is described below.

Conversion pairs are distinguished by the structural identity of the root and phonetic identity of the stem of each of the two words. Synchronically we deal with pairs of words related through conversion that coexist in contemporary English. The two words, e.g. to break and a break, being phonetically identical, the question arises whether they have the same or identical stems, as some linguists are inclined to believe. It will be recalled that the stem carries quite a definite part-of-speech meaning; for instance, within the word-cluster to dress - dress – dresser - dressing - dressy, the stem dresser - carries not only the lexical meaning of the root-morpheme dress-, but also the meaning of substantivity, the stem dressy- the meaning of quality, etc. These two ingredients - the lexical meaning of the root-morpheme and the part-of-speech meaning of the stem - form part of the meaning of the whole word. It is the stem that requires a definite paradigm; for instance, the word dresser is a noun primarily because it has a noun-stem and not only because of the noun paradigm; likewise, the word materialise is a verb, because first and foremost it has a verbal stem possessing the lexico-grammatical meaning of process or action and requiring a verb paradigm.

What is true of words whose root and stem do not coincide is also true of words with roots and stems that coincide: for instance, the word atom is a noun because of the substantival character of the stem requiring the noun paradigm. The word sell is a verb because of the verbal character of its stem requiring the verb paradigm, etc. It logically follows that the stems of two words making up a conversion pair cannot be regarded as being the same or identical: the stem hand- of the noun hand, for instance, carries a substantival meaning together with the system of its meanings, such as: 1) the end of the arm beyond the wrist; 2) pointer on a watch or clock; 3) worker in a factory; 4) source of information, etc.; the stem hand- of the verb hand has a different part-of-speech meaning, namely that of the verb, and a different system of meanings: 1) give or help with the hand, 2) pass, etc. Thus, the stems of word-pairs related through conversion have different part-

of-speech and denotational meanings. Being phonetically identical they can be regarded as homonymous stems.

A careful examination of the relationship between the lexical meaning of the root-morpheme and the part-of-speech meaning of the stem within a conversion pair reveals that in one of the two words the former does not correspond to the latter. For instance, the lexical meaning of the rootmorpheme of the noun hand corresponds to the part-of-speech meaning of its stem: they are both of a substantival character; the lexical meaning of the root-morpheme of the verb hand, however, does not correspond to the part-of-speech meaning of the stem: the root-morpheme denotes an object, whereas the part-of-speech meaning of the stem is that of a process. The same is true of the noun fall whose stem is of a substantival character (which is proved by the noun paradigm fall - falls - fall's - falls', whereas the root-morpheme denotes a certain process. It will be recalled that the same kind of non-correspondence is typical of the derived word in general. To give but two examples, the part of speech meaning of the stem blackness - is that of substantivity, whereas the root-morpheme black-denotes a quality; the part-of-speech meaning of the stem eatable- (that of qualitativeness) does not correspond to the lexical meaning of the root-morpheme denoting a process. It should also be pointed out here that in simple words the lexical meaning of the root corresponds to the part-of-speech meaning of the stem, cf. the two types of meaning of simple words like black *a,* eat *v,* chair *n,* etc. Thus, by analogy with the derivational character of the stem of a derived word it is natural to regard the stem of one of the two words making up a conversion pair as being of a derivational character as well. The essential difference between affixation and conversion is that affixation is characterised by both semantic and structural derivation (e.g. friend - friendless, dark - darkness, etc.), whereas conversion displays only semantic derivation, i.e. hand - to hand, fall - to fall, taxi - to taxi, etc.; the difference between the two classes of words in affixation is marked both by a special derivational affix and a paradigm, whereas in conversion it is marked only by paradigmatic forms.

As one of the two words within a conversion pair is semantically derived from the other, it is of great theoretical and practical importance to determine the semantic relations between words related through conversion. Summing up the findings of the linguists who have done research in this field we can enumerate the following typical semantic relations.

I. Verbs converted from nouns (denominal verbs).

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

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

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

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

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

II. Nouns converted from verbs (deverbal substantives).

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

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

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

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

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

In conclusion it is necessary to point out that in the case of polysemantic words one and the same member of a conversion pair, a verb or a noun, belongs to several of the above-mentioned groups making different derivational bases. For instance, the verb dust belongs to Group 4 of Denominal verbs (deprivation of the object) when it means ‘remove dust from something’, and to Group 3 (acquisition or addition of the object) when it means ‘cover with powder’; the noun slide is referred to Group 3 of

Deverbal substantives (place of the action) when denoting ‘a stretch of smooth ice or hard snow on which people slide’ and to Group 2 (agent of the action) when it refers to a part of an instrument or machine that slides, etc.

Basic Criteria of semantic derivation follows from the foregoing discussion that within conversion pairs one of the two words has a more complex semantic structure, hence the problem of the criteria of semantic derivation: which of the two words within a conversion pair is the derived member?

The first criterion makes use of the non-correspondence between the lexical meaning of the root-morpheme and the part-of-speech meaning of the stem in one of the two words making up a conversion pair. In cases like pen *n* - pen *v,*

father *n* - father *v,* etc. the noun is the name for a being or a concrete thing. Therefore, the lexical meaning of the root-morpheme corresponds to the part-of-speech meaning of the stem.

This type of nouns is regarded as having a simple semantic structure. The verbs pen, father denote a process, therefore the part-of-speech meaning of their stems does not correspond to the lexical meaning of the roots which is of a substantival character. This distinction accounts for the complex character of the semantic structure of verbs of this type. It is natural to regard the semantically simple as the source of the semantically complex, hence we are justified in assuming that the verbs pen, father are derived from the corresponding nouns. This criterion is not universal being rather restricted in its application. It is reliable only when there is no doubt that the root-morpheme is of a substantival character or that it denotes a process, i.e. in cases like to father, to pen, a fall, a drive, etc. But there are a great many conversion pairs in which it is extremely difficult to exactly determine the semantic character of the root-morpheme, e.g. answer *v* - answer *n*; match *v* - match *n*, etc. The non-correspondence criterion is inapplicable to such cases.

The second criterion involves a comparison of a conversion pair with analogous word-pairs making use of the synonymic sets, of which the words in question are members. For instance, in comparing conversion pairs like chat *v* - chat *n;* show *v* - show *n*; work *v* - work *n,* etc. with analogous synonymic word-pairs like converse - conversation; exhibit - exhibition; occupy - occupation; employ - employment, etc. we are led to conclude that the nouns chat, show, work, etc. are the derived members. We are justified in arriving at this conclusion because the semantic relations in the case of chat *v* - chat *n;* show *v* - show *n*; work *v* - work *n* are similar to those between converse - conversation; exhibit - exhibition; employ - employment.

Like the noncorrespondence criterion the synonymity criterion is considerably restricted in its application. This is a relatively reliable criterion only for abstract words whose synonyms possess a complex morphological structure making it possible to draw a definite conclusion about the direction of semantic derivation. Besides, this criterion may be applied only to deverbal substantives *(v -> n)* and not to denominal verbs *(n -> v)*.

Of more universal character is **the criterion based on derivational relations** within the word-cluster of which the converted words in question are members. It will be recalled that the stems of words making up a word-cluster enter into derivational relations of different degrees. If the centre of the cluster is a verb, all derived words of the first degree of derivation have suffixes generally

added to a verbbase. The centre of a cluster being a noun, all the first-degree derivatives have suffixes generally added to a noun-base.

Proceeding from this regularity it is logical to conclude that if the firstdegree derivatives have suffixes added to a noun-base, the centre of the cluster is a noun, and if they have suffixes added to a verb-base, it is a verb.2 It is this regularity that the criterion of semantic derivation under discussion is based on. In the word-cluster hand *n* — hand *v* — handful — handy — handed the derived words have suffixes added to the nounbase which makes it possible to conclude that the structural and semantic centre of the whole cluster is the noun hand. Consequently, we can assume that the verb hand is semantically derived from the noun hand. Likewise, considering the derivatives within the word-cluster float *n* — float *v* — floatable — floater — floatation — floating we see that the centre is the verb to float and conclude that the noun float is the derived member in the conversion pair float *n* — float *v*. The derivational criterion is less restricted in its application than the other two described above. However, as this criterion necessarily involves consideration of a whole set of derivatives it can hardly be applied to word-clusters which have few derived words.

Of very wide application is **the criterion of semantic derivation** based on semantic relations within conversion pairs. It is natural to conclude that the existence within a conversion pair of a type of relations typical of, e.g., denominal verbs proves that the verb is the derived member. Likewise, a type of relations typical of deverbal substantives marks the noun as the derived member. For instance, the semantic relations between crowd *n* — crowd *v* are perceived as those of an object and an action characteristic of the object, which leads one to the, conclusion that the verb crowd is the derived member; likewise, in the pair take *v* — take *n* the noun is the derived member, because the relations between the two words are those of an action and a result or an object of the action — type relations of deverbal substantives, etc. This semantic criterion of inner derivation is one of the most important ones for determining the derived members within a conversion pair, for its application has almost no limitations.

To sum up, out of the four criteria considered above the most important are the derivational and the semantic criteria, for there are almost no limitations to their application. When applying the other two criteria, their limitations should be kept in mind. As a rule, the word under analysis should meet the requirements of the two basic criteria. In doubtful cases one of the remaining criteria should be resorted to. It may be of interest to point out that in case a word meets the requirements of the noncorrespondence criterion no additional checking is necessary.

Modern English vocabulary is exceedingly rich in conversion pairs. As a way of forming words conversion is extremely productive and new conversion pairs make their appearance in fiction, newspaper articles and in the process of oral communication in all spheres of human activity gradually forcing their way into the existing vocabulary and into the dictionaries as well. New conversion pairs are created on the analogy of those already in the word-stock on the semantic patterns described above as types of semantic relations.

Conversion is highly productive in the formation of verbs, especially from compound nouns. 20th century new words include a great many verbs formed by conversion, e.g. to motor — 'travel by car'; to phone — 'use the telephone'; to wire — 'send a telegram'; to microfilm — 'produce a microfilm *of;* to tear-gas — 'to use tear-gas'; to fire-bomb — 'drop fire-bombs'; to spearhead — 'act as a spearhead for'; to blueprint — 'work out, outline', etc. A diachronic survey of the present- day stock of conversion pairs reveals, however, that not all of them have been created on the semantic patterns just referred to. Some of them arose as a result of the disappear- ance of inflections in the course of the historical development of the English language due to which two words of different parts of speech, e.g. a verb and a noun, coincided in pronunciation. This is the case with such word-pairs, for instance, as love *n (OE.* lufu) — love *v (OE.* lufian); work *n (OE.* wēōrc) — work *v (OE.* wyrcan); answer *n (OE.* andswaru) — answer *v (OE.* andswarian) and many others. For this reason certain linguists consider it necessary to distinguish between homonymous wordpairs which appeared as a result of the loss of inflections and those formed by conversion.

The term conversion is applied then only to cases like doctor *n* — doctor *v;* brief *a* — brief *v* that came into being after the disappearance of inflections, word-pairs like work *n* — work *v* being regarded exclusively as cases of homonymy.

Other linguists share Prof. Smirnitsky's views concerning discrimination between conversion as a derivational means and as a type of wordbuilding relations between words in Modern English. Synchronically in Modern English there is no difference at all between cases like taxi *n* — taxi *v* and cases like love *n* — love *v* from the point of view of their morphological structure and the word-building system of the language. In either case the only difference between the two words is that of the paradigm: the historical background is here irrelevant. It should be emphatically stressed at this point that the present-day derivative correlations within conversion pairs do not necessarily coincide with the etymological relationship. For instance, in the word-pair awe *n* — awe *v* the noun is the source, of derivation both diachronically and synchronically, but it is quite different with the pair mould *v* — mould *n:* historically the verb is the derived member, whereas

it is the other way round from the angle of Modern English (cf. the derivatives mouldable, moulding, moulder which have suffixes added to verb-bases).

A diachronic semantic analysis of a conversion pair reveals that in the course of time the semantic structure of the base may acquire a new meaning or several meanings under the influence of the meanings of the converted word.

This semantic process has been termed **reconversion** in linguistic literature. There is an essential difference between conversion and reconversion: being a way of forming words conversion leads to a numerical enlargement of the English vocabulary, whereas reconversion only brings about a new meaning correlated with one of the meanings of the converted word. Research has shown that reconversion only operates with denominal verbs and deverbal nouns. As an illustration the conversion pair smoke *n* — smoke *v* may be cited. According to the *Oxford English Dictionary* some of the meanings of the two words are:

SMOKE n

1. the visible volatile product given off by burning or smouldering substances (1000) the act of smoke coming out into a room instead of passing up the chimney (1715).

SMOKE *v*

1. *intr.* to produce or give forth smoke (1000) of a room, chimney, lamp, etc.: to be smoky, to emit smoke as the result of imperfect draught or improper burning (1663).

Comparison makes it possible to trace the semantic development of each word. The verb smoke formed in 1000 from the noun smoke in the corresponding meaning had acquired by 1663 another meaning by a metaphorical transfer which, in turn, gave rise to a correlative meaning of the noun smoke in 1715 through reconversion.

Conversion is not an absolutely productive way of forming words because it is restricted both semantically and morphologically.

With reference to semantic restrictions it is assumed that all verbs can be divided into two groups:

a) verbs denoting processes that can be represented as a succession of isolated actions from which nouns are easily formed, e.g. fall *v* — fall *n;* run *v* — run *n;* jump *v* — jump *n,* etc.;

b) verbs like to sit, to lie, to stand denoting processes that cannot be represented as a succession of isolated actions, thus defying conversion. However, a careful examination of modern English usage reveals that it is extremely difficult

to distinguish between these two groups. This can be exemplified in such pairs as to invite — an invite, to take — a take, to sing — a sing, to bleed — a bleed, to win — a win, etc. The possibility for the verbs to be formed from nouns through conversion seems to be illimitable.

The morphological restrictions suggested by certain linguists are found in the fact that the complexity of word-structure does not favour conversion. It is significant that in *MnE.* there are no verbs converted from nouns with the suffixes -ing and -ation. This restriction is counterbalanced, however, by innumerable occasional conversion pairs of rather complex structure, e.g. to package, to holiday, to wireless, to petition, to reverence, etc. Thus, it seems possible to regard conversion as a highly productive way of forming words in Modern English.

The English word-stock contains a great many words formed by means of conversion in different periods of its history. There are cases of traditional and occasional conversion. Traditional conversion refers to the accepted use of words which are recorded in dictionaries, e.g. to age, to cook, to love, to look, to capture, etc. The individual or occasional use of conversion is also very frequent; verbs and adjectives are converted from nouns or vice versa for the sake of bringing out the meaning more vividly in a given context only. These cases of individual coinage serve the given occasion only and do not enter the word-stock of the English language.

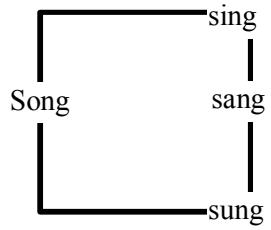
Sound-interchange in English is often combined with a difference in the paradigm. This raises the question of the relationship between sound-interchange and conversion. To find a solution of the problem in terms of A. I. Smirnitsky's conception of conversion the following three types of relations should be distinguished:

1) breath — to breathe

As far as cases of this type are concerned, sound-interchange distinguishes only between words, it does not differentiate word-forms of one and the same word. Consequently it has no relation to the paradigms of the words. Hence, cases of this type cannot be regarded as conversion.

2) song — to sing

In the above given example the vowel in song interchanges with three different vowels, the latter interchanging with one another in the forms of the verb to sing:



Like the previous type, the words song — to sing are not related by conversion: song differs from to sing (sang, sung) not only in the paradigm. Its root-vowel does not occur in the word-forms of the verb and vice versa.

3) house — to house

In such cases the type of sound-interchange distinguishing the two words (verb and noun) is the same as that which distinguishes the wordforms of the noun, cf, house [haus] — houses [hauziz] and to house [hauz] — houses [hauziz]. Consequently, the only difference between the two words lies in their paradigms, in other words, word-pairs like house — to house are cases of conversion.

It is fairly obvious that in such cases as present — to present, accent — to accent, etc. which differ in the position of stress, the latter does not distinguish the word-forms within the paradigm of the two words. Thus, as far as cases of this type are concerned, the difference in stress is similar to the function of sound-interchange in cases like breath — to breathe. Consequently, cases of this type do not belong to conversion.

There is, however, another interpretation of the relationship between conversion and sound (stress)-interchange in linguistic literature. As sound- and (stress-)interchange often accompanies cases of affixation, e.g. courage - courageous, stable - stability, it seems logical to assume that conversion as one of the types of derivation may also be accompanied by sound- (stress-)interchange. Hence, cases like breath - to breathe; to sing - song; present - to present; increase - to increase, etc. are to be regarded as those of conversion.

1. Conversion, an exceedingly productive way of forming words in Modern English, is treated differently in linguistic literature. Some linguists define it as a morphological, others as a morphological-syntactic way of forming words, still others consider conversion from a purely syntactic angle.

2. There are several criteria of semantic derivation within conversion pairs. The most universal are the semantic and the frequency criteria.

3. On the synchronic plane conversion is regarded as a type of derivative correlation between two words making up a conversion pair.

4. On the diachronic plane conversion is a way of forming new words on the analogy of the semantic patterns available in the language. Diachronically distinction should be made between cases of conversion as such and those of homonymy due to the disappearance of inflections in the course of the development of the English language.

§2 Word-Composition. Types of Meaning of Compound Words. Classification of Compound Words. Correlation Types of Compound Words

Word-composition is the type of the word-formation, in which new words are produced by combining two or more Immediate Constituents, which are both derivational bases. The ICs of compound words represent bases of all three structural types:

1) bases that coincide with morphological stems;

2) bases that coincide with word-forms;

3) bases that coincide with word-groups.

The bases built on stems may be of different degree of complexity:

1) simple, e.g. *week-end;*

2) derived, e.g. *letter-writer;*

3) compound, e.g. *aircraft-carrier.*

The meaning of a compound word is made up of two components: structural and lexical. The structural meaning of compounds is formed on the base of: 1) the meaning of their distributional pattern and 2) the meaning of their derivational pattern.

The distributional pattern of a compound is understood as the order and arrangement of the ICs that constitute a compound word. A change in the order and arrangement of the same ICs signals the compound words of different lexical meanings, cf.: *a fruit-market* (‘market where fruit is sold’) and *market-fruit* (‘fruit designed for selling’). A change in the order and arrangement of the ICs may destroy its meaning.

The meaning of the derivational pattern can be abstracted and described through the interrelation of their ICs. For example, the derivational pattern N+Ven underlying the compound adjectives *duty-bound, wind-driven, mud-stained* conveys the generalized meaning of instrumental or agentive relations which can be interpreted as ‘done by’ or ‘with the help of smth’. Derivational patterns in compounds may be monosemantic or polysemantic. For example, the pattern N+N→N conveys the following semantic relations: 1) the purpose (*bookshelf)*; 2) resemblance (*needle-fish*); 3) of instrument or agent (*windmill, sunrise*).

The lexical meaning of compounds is formed on the base of the combined lexical meanings of their constituents. The semantic centre of the compound is the lexical meaning of the second component modified and restricted by the meaning of the first. The lexical meanings of both components are closely fused together to create a new semantic unit with a new meaning, which dominates the individual meanings of the bases, and is characterized by some additional component not found in any of the bases. For instance, the lexical meaning of the compound word

handbag is not essentially ‘a bag designed to be carried in the hand’ but ‘a woman’s small bag to carry everyday personal items’.

Word-composition plays a central role in word-formation in many languages. Compounds in English can be written differently: they can be written as single words, sometimes with intervening hyphen, and sometimes as separate words. As for the pronunciation, the first component is more often stressed in adjective-noun compounds. Tense and plural markers can be added to the compound as a whole.

Compound words can be classified according to different principles.

1. According to the relations between the ICs compound words fall into two classes:

1) Coordinative compounds – the two ICs are semantically equally important.

a) reduplicative compounds which are made up by the repetition of the same base, e.g. *pooh-pooh, fifty-fifty, hush-hush, murmur, blahblah.*

It is a very mixed group containing usual free forms, onomatopoeic stems and pseudo-morphemes.

b) compounds formed by joining phonically variated rhythmic twin forms, e.g. *chit-chat, zig-zag, sing-song, ping-pong, tip-top, crisscross, shillyshally* (with the same initial consonants but different vowels); *walkie-talkie, clap-trap, razzle-dazzle, boogie-woogie, fibbertygibberty, harum-scarum, hoity-toity, hurdy-gurdy, mumbo-jumbo, willy-nilly* (with different initial consonants but the same vowels). These two types are mainly emotionally charged and colloquial, jocular, sometimes sentimental and babyish.

c) additive compounds which are built on stems of the independently functioning words of the same part of speech, e.g. *actor-manager, queen-bee*.

2) Subordinative compounds – the components are neither structurally nor semantically equal in importance but are based on the domination of the head-member which is, as a rule, the second IC, e.g. *stone-deaf, age-long*. The second IC preconditions the part-of-speech meaning of the whole compound.

2. According to the part of speech.

1) Compound nouns, e.g. *sunbeam, maidservant*. We can differentiate certain types of compound nouns.

The *sunbeam* type. A noun stem is determined by another noun stem. This is a most productive type, the number of examples being practically unlimited.

The *maidservant* type also consists of noun stems but the relationship between the elements is different. Maidservant is an appositional compound. The second element is notionally dominant.

The *looking-glass* type shows a combination of a derived verbal stem with a noun stem.

The *searchlight* type consisting of a verbal stem and a noun stem is of a comparatively recent origin.

The *blackboard* type has already been discussed. The first stem here very often is not an adjective but a Participle II: *cutwork.*

There are several groups with a noun stem for the first element and various deverbal noun stems for the second: *housekeeping, sunrise, timeserver.*

A very productive and numerous group are nouns derived from verbs with postpositives, or more rarely with adverbs. This type consists chiefly of impersonal deverbal nouns denoting some action or specific instance: *blackout, breakdown, hangover, makeup, take-off, start-back*.

2) Compound adjectives, e.g. *heart-free, far-reaching*. The main types of compound adjectives are the following.

The *snow-white* type with emphatic comparison in sense relation 'as white as snow', *dog-tired, dirt-cheap, stone-deaf, blood-red, sky-blue, pitchblack*; *knee-deep, breast-high, nationwide, life-long, worldwide*.

The *red-hot* type consists of two adjective stems, the first expressing the degree or the nuance of the second: *white-hot, light-blue, reddish-brown*.

The same formula occurs in additive compounds of the *bitter-sweet* type correlated with free phrases; the same semantic relations are rather numerous in technical and scholarly vocabulary: *social-economic*, etc.

The *peace-loving* type consisting of a noun stem and a participle stem, is very productive at present: *breath-taking, freedom-loving, soulstirring*.

Temporal and local relations underlie such cases as *sea-going, picture-going, summer-flowering*.

The *hard-working* type structurally consists of an adjective stem and a participle stem: *good-looking, sweet-smelling, far-reaching*.

There is a considerable group of compounds characterised by the type word *man-made*, i.e. consisting of Participle II with a noun stem for a determinant. The semantic relations underlying this type are remarkable for their great variety: *man-made* 'made by man' (the relationship expressed is that of the agent and the action); *home-made* 'made at home' (the notion of place); *safety-tested* 'tested for safety' (purpose); *moss-grown* 'covered with moss' (instrumental notion); compare also the figurative compound *heart-broken* 'having a broken heart'. Most of the compounds containing a Participle II stem for their second element have a passive meaning. The few exceptions are: *well-read, well-spoken, well-behaved* and the like [Арнольд 1986, 126].

3) Compound pronouns, e.g. *somebody, nothing*.

4) Compound adverbs, e.g. *nowhere, inside*.

5) Compound verbs, e.g. *to offset, to bypass, to mass-produce*. Scholars do not agree on the question of compound verbs and it would be more correct to speak of pseudo-compounds, as most of them are created as verbs not by the process of composition but by conversion or backformation.

The verbs *blackmail, honeymoon and nickname* are cases of conversion from endocentric nominal compounds like in many other examples of this type: *safeguard, shipwreck, whitewash, tiptoe, outline, heroworship, weekend*, *double-cross, stream-line, soft-pedal, spotlight*.

The second group is less numerous than the first but is highly productive: the verbs *backbite, browbeat, ill-treat, house-keep, hitch-hike, proof-read, massproduce, taperecord, vacuumclean, hijack*. These are the cases of backformation (from *ill-treatment, mass-production, high-jacker*, etc.) [ibid, 127]

3. According to the means of composition compound words are classified into:

a) compounds composed without connecting elements, e.g. *heartache, dog-house*;

b) compounds composed with the help of a vowel or consonant as a linking element (morphological compounds), e.g. *hand**i**craft, speed**o**meter, state**s**man, Angl**o**-Saxon, electr**o**-motor, sport**s**man, kin**s**man, heart**s**ease, hunt**s**man*;

c) compounds composed with the help of linking elements represented by preposition or conjunction stems (syntactical compounds), e.g. *son-**in**-law, pepper-**and**-salt, hook-**and**-ladder, man-**of**-war, cat-**of**-nine-tails, touch-**me**-not, hide-a**nd**-seek, penny-**in-the**-slot, well-**to**-do person, up-**to**-day tendencies, out-**of-the**-way village.*

4. According to the type of bases that form compounds the following classes can be singled out:

1) compounds proper that are formed by joining together bases built on the stems or on the word-forms with or without a linking element, e.g. *door-step, street-fighting*;

2) derivational compounds that are formed by joining affixes to the bases built on the word-groups or by converting the bases built on the wordgroups into other parts of speech, e.g. *long-legged* → (long legs) + -ed; a *turnkey* (to turn key) + conversion. Derivational compounds or compound-derivatives are words in which the structural integrity of the two free stems is ensured by a suffix referring to the combination as a whole, not to one of its elements: *kind-hearted, old-timer, schoolboyishness, teenager*.

Thus derivational compounds fall into two groups.

1. Derivational compounds mainly formed with the help of the suffixes - *ed* and *-er* applied to bases built, e.g. *narrow-minded*, *doll-faced, left-hander, honeymooner, weekender, teenager*. The suffix *-er* is one of the productive suffixes in forming derivational compounds: *backbencher, do-gooder, eye-opener, firstnighter, go-getter late-comer, left-hander*, etc. The compounds with *–ed* are possessive: *one-eyed and three-headed, absent-minded, bare-legged, black-haired, blue-eyed, cruel-hearted, lightminded, ill-mannered, many-sided, narrow-minded, shortsighted*, etc. The first element may also be a noun stem: *bow-legged, heartshaped* and very often a numeral: *three-coloured*.

2. Derivational compounds formed by conversion applied to bases built, as a rule, on three types of phrases – verbal-adverbial phrases (a *breakdown*), verbal-nominal phrases (a *kill-joy*) and attributive phrases (a *sweet-tooth*).

Derivational compounds or pseudo-compounds are all subordinative and fall into two groups according to the type of variable phrases that serve as their bases and the derivational means used:

a) **derivational compound adjectives** formed with the help of the highly-productive adjectival suffix -ed applied to bases built on attributive hrases of the *A+N, Num + N, N+N* type, e.g. long legs, three corners, doll face. Accordingly the derivational adjectives under discussion are built after the patterns *[(a+n) + -ed],* e.g. longlegged, flat-chested, broad-minded; *[(num + n) + -ed],* e.g. two-sided, three-cornered; [(n + n) + *-ed],* e.g. doll-faced, heart-shaped.

b) **derivational compound nouns** formed mainly by conversion applied to bases built on three types of variable phrases — verb-adverb phrase, erbal-nominal and attributive phrases.

The commonest type of phrases that serves as derivational bases for this group of derivational compounds is the *V + Adv* type of word-groups as in, e.g., a breakdown, a break-through, a cast-away, a lay-out. Semantically derivational compound nouns form lexical groups typical of conversion, such as an actor instance of the action, e.g. a holdup — ‘a delay in traffic’ from to hold up — ‘delay, stop by use of force’; a r e s u l t of the action, e.g. a breakdown — ‘a failure in machinery that causes work to stop’ from to break down — ‘become disabled’; an active agent or recipient of the action, e.g. cast-offs — ‘clothes that the owner will not wear again’ from to cast off — ‘throw away as unwanted’; a show-off — ‘a person who shows off from to show off — ‘make a display of one’s abilities in order to impress people’. Derivational compounds of this group are spelt generally solidly or with a hyphen and often retain a level stress. Semantically they are motivated by transparent derivative relations with the

motivating base built on the so-called phrasal verb and are typical of the colloquial layer of vocabulary. This type of derivational compound nouns is highly productive due to the productivity of conversion.

The semantic subgroup of derivational compound nouns denoting agents calls for special mention. There is a group of such substantives built on an attributive and verbal-nominal type of phrases. These nouns are semantically only partially motivated and are marked by a heavy emotive charge or lack of motivation and often belong to terms as, e.g., a kill-joy, a wet-blanket — 'one who kills enjoyment'; a turnkey — 'keeper of the keys in prison'; a sweet-tooth — 'a person who likes sweet food'; a redbreast — 'a bird called the robbin'. The analysis of these nouns easily proves that they can only be understood as the result of conversion for their second ICs cannot be understood as their structural or semantic centres, these compounds belong to a grammatical and lexical groups different from those their components do. These compounds are all animate nouns whereas their second ICs belong to inanimate objects. The meaning of the active agent is not found in either of the components but is imparted as a result of conversion applied to the word-group which is thus turned into a derivational base.

These compound nouns are often referred to in linguistic literature as "bahuvrihi" compounds or exocentric compounds, i.e. words whose semantic head is outside the combination. It seems more correct to refer them to the same group of derivational or pseudo-compounds as the above cited groups. This small group of derivational nouns is of a restricted productivity, its heavy constraint lies in its idiomaticity and hence its stylistic and emotive colouring.

Semantically compound words are generally motivated units. The meaning of the compound is first of all derived from the' combined lexical meanings of its components. The semantic peculiarity of the derivational bases and the semantic difference between the base and the stem on which the latter is built is most obvious in compound words. Compound words with a common second or first component can serve as illustrations. The stem of the word board is polysemantic and its multiple meanings serve as different derivational bases, each with its own selective range for the semantic features of the other component, each forming a separate set of compound words, based on 'specific derivative relations. Thus the base board meaning 'a flat piece of wood square or oblong' makes a set of compounds chess-board, notice-board, key-board, diving-board, foot-board, signboard; compounds paste-board, carboard are built on the base meaning 'thick, stiff paper'; the base board-meaning 'an authorised body of men', forms compounds school-board, board-room. The same can be observed in words built on the polysemantic stem of the word foot. For example, the base foot- in foot-

print, foot-pump, foothold, foot-bath, foot-wear has the meaning of ‘the terminal part of the leg’, in foot-note, foot-lights, foot-stone the base foot- has the meaning of ‘the lower part’, and in foothigh, foot-wide, footrule — ‘measure of length’. It is obvious from the above-given examples that the meanings of the bases of compound words are interdependent and that the - choice of each is delimited as in variable word-groups by the nature of the other IC of the word. It thus may well be said that the combination of bases serves as a kind of minimal inner context distinguishing the particular individual lexical meaning of each component.

In this connection we should also remember the significance of the differential meaning found in both components which becomes especially obvious in a set of compounds containing identical bases.

The linguistic analysis of extensive language data proves that there exists a regular correlation between the system of free phrases and all types of subordinative (and additive) compounds. Correlation embraces both the structure and the meaning of compound words, it underlies the entire system of productive present-day English composition conditioning the derivational patterns and lexical types of compounds.

The structural correlation manifests itself in the morphological character of components, range of bases and their order and arrangement. It is important to stress that correlative relations embrace only minimal, non-expanded nuclear types of phrases. The bases brought together in compound words are built only on the stems of those parts of speech that may form corresponding word-groups. The head of the word-group becomes the head-member of the compound, i.e. its second component. The typical structural relations expressed in word-groups syntactically are conveyed in compounds only by the nature and order of its bases.

Compounds of each part of speech correlate only with certain types of minimal variable phrases.

Semantically correlation manifests itself in the fact that the semantic relations between the components of a compound mirror the semantic relations between the member-words in correlated word-groups. For example, compound adjectives of the *n+Ven* type, e.g. duty-bound, snow-covered, are circumscribed by the instrumental relations typical of the correlated word-groups of Ven+ by/with + *N* type regardless of the actual lexical meanings of the bases. Compound nouns of the n+n type, e.g. story-teller, music-lover, watch-maker, all mirror the agentive relations proper to phrases of the *N* who *V+N,* cf. a story-teller and one who tells stories, etc.

Correlation should not be understood as converting an actually functioning phrase into a compound word or the existence of an individual word-group in

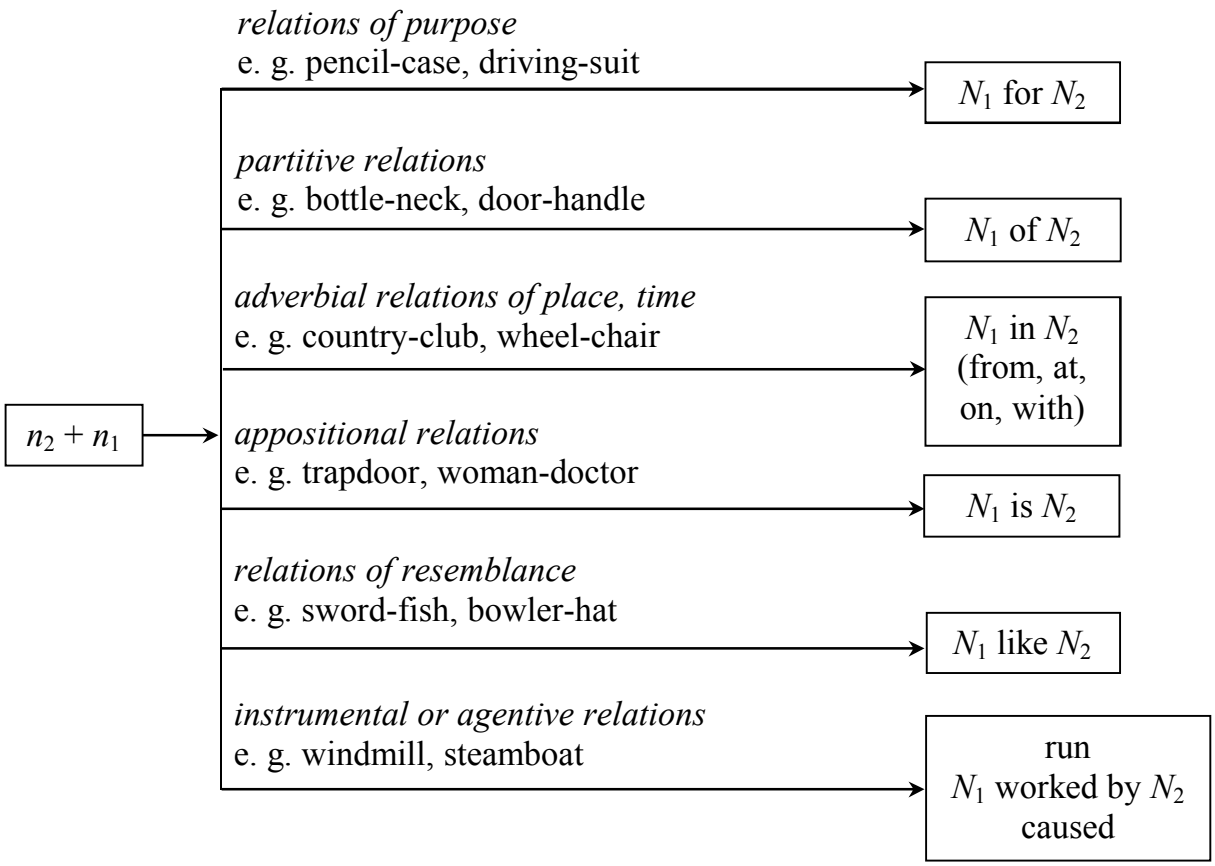
actual use as a binding condition for the possibility of a compound. On the contrary there is usually only a potential possibility of conveying the same semantic content by both a word-group and a compound, actually this semantic content is conveyed preferably either by a phrase or by a compound word.

Correlation, it follows, is a regular interaction and interdependence of compound words and certain types of free phrases which conditions both the potential possibility of appearance of compound words and their structure and semantic type. Thus, the fact that there is a potential possibility of individual phrases with the underlying pattern, for example, as *A* + as *N* in as white as snow, as red as blood presupposes a potential possibility of compound words of the *n*+ *a* type snow-white, blood-red, etc. with their structure and meaning relation of the components preconditioned. It happens that in this particular case compound adjectives are more typical and preferred as a language means of conveying the quality based on comparison.

Structural and semantic correlation by no means implies identity or a one-to-one correspondence of each individual pattern of compound "words to one phrase pattern. For example the *n* + *nv* type of compound nouns comprises different patterns, such as *ln+(v+ -er)]* — rocket-flyer, shoemaker, bottle-opener; [n+(*v* + -*ing)]* — rocket-flying, football-playing; *[n+(v+ -ion)]* — price-reduction. All these patterns differing in the individual suffix used in the final analysis correlate with verbal-nominal wordgroups of the *V+N* type (e.g. to fly rockets), the meaning of the active doer (rocket-flyer) or the action (rocket-flying) is conveyed by the suffixes.

However the reverse relationship is not uncommon, e.g. one derivational pattern of compound adjectives *(n+a)* in words like oil-rich, skyhigh, grass-green corresponds to a variety of word-group patterns which differ in the grammatical and semantic relationship between memberwords expressed in phrases by different prepositions. Thus compound adjectives of this type may correspond to phrase patterns *A* +of + *N,* e.g. pleasure-tired; *A+in+N,* e.g. oil-rich; as *A* as *N,* e.g. grass-green. Another example of the same type of correlation is the polysemantic *n+n* pattern of nominal compounds which mirror a variety of semantic relations underlying word-groups of the *N*+prp+*N* type, such as relations of resemblance (e.g. needle-fish), local and temporal relations (e.g. country-house, night-flight), relations of purpose (e.g. search-warrant), etc. which in word-groups are conveyed by prepositions or other function words.

Table represents the most common and frequent types of semantic correlation between *n+n* pattern of compounds and various patterns of nominal word-groups.



- e. g. case for (keeping) pencils; a suit for driving
- e. g. the neck of the bottle; the handle of the door
- e. g. a club in the country; a chair on wheels
- e. g. a door (that) is a trap; the doctor is a woman
- e. g. a fish like a sword; a hat like a bowler
- e. g. a mill worked by the wind; a boat run by steam

Compound words, due to the fact that they do not require any explicit way to convey the semantic relationship between their components except their order, are of much wider semantic range, leave more freedom for semantic interpretation and convey meaning in a more compressed and concise way. This makes the meaning of compounds more flexible and situationally derived.

It follows that motivation and regularity of semantic and structural correlation with free word-groups are the basic factors favouring a high degree of productivity of composition and may be used to set rules guiding spontaneous, analogic formation of new compound words.

KEY TERMS

Additive compounds, compounds proper, conversion (zero-suffixation, transposition, coordinative compounds, derivational compounds, reduplicative compounds, subordinative compounds, word-composition.

QUESTIONS

1. What is conversion?
2. What categories of parts of speech are especially affected by conversion?
3. What are the main varieties of conversion?
4. What verbs are called denominal? What may the converted word denote?
5. What nouns are called deverbal substantives? What may they denote?
6. What is understood by composition?
7. Into what groups and sub-groups can compounds be subdivided?
8. Which types of composition are productive in Modern English?
9. What are the interrelations between the meaning of a compound word and the meaning of its constituent parts?
10. What does the correlation between the system of free phrases and compound words embrace?

5 WORD-BUILDING. SHORTENING

SECONDARY WAYS OF WORD-BUILDING

§1 *Shortening (truncation)*

§2 *Blending*

§3 *Onomatopoeia (sound-imitation)*

§4 *Back-formation (reversion, disaffixation)*

§5 *Sound interchange (gradation)*

§6 *Distinctive stress (distinctive change)*

§1 Shortening (truncation)

One of the characteristic features of the English vocabulary is a large number of shortened words. It is a feature of English to use laconic structures in syntax and in morphology as well as in the lexical system.

As we know, due to the leveling of endings in the Middle English period, the number of short words grew and the demand of rhythm dictated the appearance of more and more such words. That is one of the main reasons why there are so many monosyllabic words in English now.

As for borrowed words, they have undergone the same process of shortening in the course of assimilation as most of native words are monosyllabic. Shortened

borrowed words sound more English than their long prototypes. Shortenings have been recorded since 15th century and shortening is more and more productive now.

All shortenings (or contracted or curtailed words) can be divided into two large groups: *lexical and spelling shortenings.*

Lexical shortenings

1. **Clipping** (part of the word is clipped, cut off) is a process that shortens a polysyllabic word by deleting one or more syllables.

a) **aphaeresis** is clipping of the first part of the word, dropping the beginning of the word. Sometimes it is a new word and in other cases it is the same word but belongs to another sphere of speech: *history – story, telephone – phone, omnibus - bus, motor-car – car, defence – fence, example – sample.*

b) **syncope** – the middle of the word is clipped, shortening by dropping the letter or unstressed syllable in the middle of the word: *market – mart, mathematics – maths, spectacles – specs.*

Syncope is common in poetry, e.g. *e'er, n'er* – rhythm dictates the necessity.

Syncope is common in proper names: *Catherine – Kate; Louise - Lucy*.

c) ← is shortening by dropping the last letter or syllable: *permanent wave – perm, zoological garden – zoo, examination – exam, graduate – grad, advertisement – ad, champion – champ, photograph – photo, laboratory – lab, public house – pub, gymnastics – gym*.

d) combination of aphaeresis and apocope: *influenza – flu, refrigerator – fridge, avant-guard – van, van-guard, professor – fess*.

Sometimes truncation and affixation can occur together, as with formations expressing intimacy or smallness, so-called diminutives: *Mandy ← Amanda, Andy ← Andrew, Patty ← Patricia*.

2. **Initial shortening** is the process of making a new word from the initial letters of a word-group. There are two ways of reading shortened words:

a) alphabetical pronunciation (the letters are spelt out) – **initialisms:**

TUC – Trade Union Congress

BBC – British Broadcasting Corporation

RAF – Royal Air Force

SOS – Save Our Souls

MP – Member of the Parliament or Military Police

P.M. – Prime Minister

ATM – Automated Teller Machine

HIV – Human Immunodeficiency Virus

HTML – Hyper Text Markup Language

FAQ – Frequently Asked Questions

In initial shortenings we can see the formation of plural and the possessive case: *MPs, MP's*. Affixes can be added: *ex-POW* ('prisoner of war'); the verb paradigm can be retained: *okays, okayed, okaying*.

b) **acronyms** (from Gr. *acros-* 'end' + *onym* 'name'). Acronyms are formed by taking the initial letters of the words in a phrase and pronouncing them as a word.

This type of word formation is especially common in names of organizations and in terminology. *NATO* [ˈneɪtəʊ] stands for North Atlantic Treaty Organisation, *UNO* [ˈjuːnəʊ] – United Nations Organisation, *UNESCO* [juːˈnɛskəʊ] – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation, *AIDS* [ˈeidz] – acquired immune deficiency syndrome, *NASA* [ˈnasə] – National Aeronautics and Space Administration. Such commonly used words as *radar* [ˈreɪdɑː] (from 'radio detecting and ranging'), and *laser* [ˈleɪzə] ('light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation') originated as acronyms.

Sometimes the two ways of reading shortened words are combined, like in *CD-ROM* [ˌsiːdiːˈrɒm] – (Compact Disc – Read Only Memory), *H-bomb* [ˈeɪtʃbɒm], *V-J Day* [ˌviːˈdʒeɪdeɪ] (Victory over Japan) – they are called compound shortened words.

In lexical shortenings we can see the change of the spelling to preserve the pronunciation: *library – libe, microphone – mike, bicycle – bike*.

"Acronyms present a special interest because they exemplify the working of the lexical adaptive system. In meeting the needs of communication and fulfilling the laws of information theory requiring a maximum signal in the minimum time the lexical system undergoes modification in its basic structure: namely it forms new elements not by combining existing morphemes and proceeding from sound forms to their graphic representation but the other way round – coining new words from the initial letters of phrasal terms originating in texts" [Арнольд 1986, 143].

Spelling shortenings

Spelling shortenings have existed in the English language since Old English. They came into English from Ancient Greece and Roman Empire.

1) Latin:

a.m. (ante meridian) – 'in the morning'

p.m. (post meridian) – 'in the afternoon'

cf. (confere) – 'compare'

i.e. (id est) – 'that is'

ib (id) (ibidem) – 'in the same place'

e.g. (example gratia) – 'for example'

ff. (felice) – 'the following pages'

loc.cit. (locus citato) – ‘in the passage cited’

L (libra) – ‘pound’

s. (solidis) – ‘shilling’

viz (videlicet) – ‘namely’

2) Native spelling shortenings

a) forms of address: *Mr, Mrs, Ms*

b) units of weight, time, distance, electricity: *min, sec., in, m, p, ft, v, cm*

c) military ranks, scientific degrees: *capt., c-in-c, BSc, BA, MA, MSc, PhD*

d) names of offices: *Govt., Dept.*

For spelling shortenings it is typical to have homonyms: *p* can mean *page, particle, penny, post, president.*

When a shortened word appears in the language, the full form may

1) disappear: *avanguarde – vanguard, van; mobile vulgus – mob, fanaticus – fan;*

2) remain, but have different meaning: *courtesy – curtsy; to espy – to spy;*

3) remain but belong to another part of speech: *to estrange – strange;*

4) remain and belong to some other style: *doc – doctor, prof – professor.*

In most cases the shortened word belongs to the colloquial style and the full form to the neutral style, though there are some cases when the shortened form belongs to the neutral style and the full form – to the bookish style: *cinema – cinematograph, bus – omnibus, taxi – taximotor, cab – cabriolet.*

§2 Blending

Blendings or blends (fusions, portmanteau words) are words that are created from parts of two already existing items, usually the first part from one and the final part of the other:

brunch from *breakfast and lunch*

smog from *smoke and fog*

spam from *spiced ham*

chunnel from *channel and tunnel*

motel from *motor hotel*

aerobicise from *aerobics* and *exercise*

bit from *binary and digit.*

The process of formation is also called telescoping, because the words seem to slide into one another like sections of a telescope.

We can distinguish additive and restrictive blends. The additive type is transformable into a phrase consisting of the respective complete stems combined

by the conjunction and, e.g. *smog* < *smoke and fog*, *Frenglish* < *French and English, transceiver* < *transmitter and receiver.*

The restrictive type is transformable into an attributive phrase where the first element serves as modifier of the second: *medicare* < *medical care, positron* < *positive electron*.

Some words are on the borderline between compounding and blending. It combines all of one word with part of the other: *workaholic, medicare, Eurotunnel, slanguage, guesstimate.*

§3 Onomatopoeia (sound-imitation)

Onomatopoeia (from Gr. *onoma* 'name' and *poiein* 'to make') – **sound-imitation** is the formation of words from sounds that resemble those associated by the object or action to be named, or that seem suggestive of its qualities. Sound imitating or onomatopoetic words are motivated with reference to the extra-linguistic reality, they are echoes of natural words.

Examples of such onomatopoeic words in English include *cock-a-doodle-do, quack, croak, mew, meow, moo, low, lullaby, twang, babble, blob, bubble, flush, gush, splash, whiz.* Some names of animals, birds and insects are produced by sound-imitation: *crow, cuckoo, humming-bird, whip-poor-will, cricket.*

Thus, we can classify onomatopoeic words according to the source of sound:

1) verbs denoting sounds produced by human beings in the process of communication: *babble, chatter, giggle, grunt, grumble, murmur, whisper*, etc.;

2) sounds produced by animals, birds and insects: *buzz, cackle, croak, crow, hiss, honk, howl, moo, mew, neigh, purr, roar*, etc.;

3) verbs imitating water, metallic things, forceful motions: *bubble, splash, clink, tinkle, clash, crash, whip, whisk*, etc.

§4 Back-formation (reversion, disaffixation)

Back-formation is a process that creates a new word by removing a real or supposed affix from another word in a language. The process is based on analogy. Words that end in *–or* or *–er* have proven susceptible to backformation in English, for example: *beg* from *beggar*, *butle* form *butler*, *cobble* from *cobbler*, *burgle* form *burglar*, *sculpt* from *sculptor*, etc. Nouns with productive suffixes can also be involved in back-formation process: *enthuse* from *enthusiasm, donate* from *donation, orientate from orientation, self-destruct* from *self-destruction.*

Back-formation continues to produce new words in modern English, for instance the form *attrit* was formed from *attrition*, the verb *lase* from *laser*, *liposuct* from *liposuction*.

As we can see form the examples above, the most productive type of backformation in present-day English is derivation of verbs.

§5 Sound interchange (gradation)

Sound interchange (**gradation**). Sound-interchange is the formation of a word due to an alteration in the phonemic composition of its root: *speak – speech, blood – bleed*, *food – feed*, *strong – strength*, *advice – advise*, *life – live.* As it can be seen from the examples, the change may affect the root vowel or the root consonant. It may also be combined with affixation like in *strong, adj. > strength*. This type of word-building is not productive at all in the present day English, and synchronically it should not be considered as a method of wordbuilding at all, but "rather as a basis for contrasting words belonging to the same word-family and different parts of speech or different lexico-grammatical groups" [Арнольд 1986, 1145].

§6 Distinctive stress (distinctive change)

Distinctive stress (**distinctive change**) is the formation of a word by the means of the shift of the stress in the source word: *'increase (n) – in'crease (v), 'absent (adj) – ab'sent (v).*

Normally disyllabic nouns and verbs and adjectives and verbs of Romanic origin that have a distinctive stress pattern.

The distinctive stress is not a productive way of word-building, nor does it provide a very effective means of distinguishing words (there is, for example, a large group of disyllabic loan words that retain stress on the same syllable both in verb and nouns: *accord, account, advance, amount, concern, exclaim,* etc.).

There is a host of possibilities speakers of a language have at their disposal to create new words on the basis of existing ones.

KEY TERMS

Abbreviation, additive blend, acronym, aphaeresis, apocope, back-formation, blending, distinctive stress, initialism, onomatopoeia, restrictive blend, shortening, sound interchange, syncope, telescoping.

QUESTIONS

1. What type of shortening do you know?
2. Describe the secondary ways of word-building and give examples to each type.

6 WORD-GROUPS

AND PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

§1 *Collocability. Word-Groups. Lexical and Grammatical Valency. Motivation in Wordgroups*

§2 *Types of Phraseological Units*

§3 *Types of Transference of Phraseological Units*

§4 *Origin of Phraseological Units*

§5 *Proverbs, Sayings, Quotations*

§1 Collocability. Word-Groups. Lexical and Grammatical Valency. Motivation in Wordgroups

Phraseology is usually presented as a sub-field of lexicology dealing with the study of word combinations rather than single words. It appeared in the domain of lexicology and is undergoing the process of segregating as a separate branch of linguistics. The reason is clear – lexicology deals with words and their meanings, whereas phraseology studies such collocations of words (phraseologisms, phraseological units, idioms), where the meaning of the whole collocation is different from the simple sum of literal meanings of the words, comprising a phraseological unit.

These multi-word units are studied in a wide range of linguistic research and a considerable arsenal of empirical approaches has been used to identify phraseological units: metaphor theory and conceptual integration theory in the processing of figurative phraseological units, natural language processing (automatic extraction of phraseological units), phraseology in language acquisition, comprehension and education in language teaching, interpretation of phraseologisms in terms of culture, including differences in cultural knowledge and the speaker's motivation of idiomatic meaning, etc.

As we can see, the items under study in this lecture are variously named: 'phraseological units' (Ginzburg *et al.* 1979; Glaser 1986), 'word-combinations'

(Akhmanova 1974; Cowie 1994), 'phrasal lexemes' (Lipka 1991, Moon 2001), etc. Most linguists recognize a primary division between 'word-like' units, which function syntactically at or below the level of the simple sentence, and 'sentencelike' units, which function pragmatically as sayings, catchphrases, and conversational formulae [Cowie 2001; 4]. These multi-word units are classified into a wide range of subtypes according to their degree of semantic noncompositionality, syntactic fixedness, lexical restrictions and institutionalization [Granger, Meuner, 2008].

In the table below (Table) a wide diversity of terms for 'sentence-like' and 'word-like' combinations offered by different linguists is shown [Cowie 2001; 5]:

Table – **Terms used for 'sentence-like' and word-like' combinations**

Author	*General Category*	*Sentence-like*	*Word-like*
(or pragmatic) unit	*(or semantic) unit*		
Chernuisheva (1964)	phraseological unit	phraseological expression	–
Zgusta (1971)	set combination	set group	–
Mel'čuk (1988)	phraseme,or set phrase or pragmateme	pragmatic phraseme, phraseme	semantic
Gläser (1988)	phraseological unit	proposition	nomination
Cowie (1988)	word-combination	functional expression	composite
Howarth (1996)	word-combination	functional expression	composite unit

Mel'čuk proposes the following classification of phrasemes or set-phrases (Fig.3) [Mel'čuk 2001, 30]:

Phrasemes

Pragmatic Phrasemes	Semantic Phrasemes
- Pragamatemes	- Idioms
- Collocations	
- Quasi-idioms	

Fig. 3. *Mel'čuk's classification of set-phrases*

Cowie distinguishes a category of 'formulae', viz. pragmatically specialized units like *good morning* or *how do you do*, whose meaning are "largely a reflexion of the way they function in the discourse (as greetings, enquiries, invitations, etc.) [Cowie 1988, 132]. Such formulae as *are you with me* or *would you mind repeating that* are used for "organizing turn-taking, indicating a speaker's attitude to other participants, and generally ensuring the smooth conduct of interaction" [ibid, 133].

As shown in Fig.4, 5, Cowie makes a primary distinction between composites, which function syntactically at or below the level of the sentence, and formulae, which function pragmatically as autonomous utterance.

Composites are further subdivided into restricted collocations, figurative idioms and pure idioms, three categories of which form a phraseological continuum, with the most transparent and variable at one hand and the most opaque and fixed at the other. The category of restricted collocations, often referred to simply as 'collocations', includes combinations such as *perform a task* or *heavy rain*, which are characterized by restricted collocability and figurative or specialized meaning of one of the elements. It includes verb-noun combinations with a delexical verb (e.g. *make a comment*). Figurative idioms have a figurative meaning but also preserve a literal interpretation (e.g. *do a U-turn*). They resist substitution of their components. Pure idioms such as *spill the beans* or *blow the gaff* are semantically non-compositional. The category of formulae includes 'sentence-like' units, "which function pragmatically as sayings, catchphrases, and conversational formulae" [Cowie 1998b, 4]. The category of formulae is further subdivided into routine formulae, like *good morning*, or *see you soon*, which perform speech-act functions, and speech formulae, which are used to organize messages and indicate speaker's or writer's attitudes (*you know what I mean*, *are you with me?*).

Word combinations

Composites	Formulae
- Restricted collocation	- Routine formulae
- Figurative idioms	- Speech formulae
- Pure idioms	

Fig. 4. *Cowie's [2001] classification of word combinations*

Free combination || Restricted collocation >> Figurative idiom >> Pure Idiom

blow a trumpet blow a fuse blow your own trumpet blow the gaff

Fig. 5. *Cowie's [1981] phraseological continuum*

Phraseological Units (PUs)

↓ ↓ ↓

Referential PUs Structural PUs Communicative PUs

↓ ↓

Nominative Propositional

↓ ↓

Collocations at sentence level

Partial Idioms at text level

Idioms

Fig. 6. *Burger's [1998] typology*

Classification of phraseological units developed by Burger [Burger 1988] in many ways echoes with Mel'čuk's and Cowie's: propositional units including proverbs and idiomatic sentences are classified as 'formulae' or 'pragmatic phrasemes' as both the criteria of function in the discourse and function in the sentence are used (Fig. 6). Communicative phraseological units or routine formulae fulfill an interactional function: they are typically used as text controllers to initiate, maintain and close a conversation or to signal the attitude of the addressor (*well, I mean*). Unlike Cowie and Mel'čuk, Burger creates a third category of structural phraseological units which includes wordcombinations that establish grammatical relations, e.g. concerning, *as well as*.

However, he regards structural phraseological units as the smallest and least interesting category and does not go into detail.

Although the approaches to phraseological units study are different, some parameters are typically implicated in the research [Gries 2008, 3]:

1) the nature of the elements involved in a phraseologism;

2) the number of elements involved in a phraseologism;

3) the number of times an expression must be observed before it counts as phraseologism;

4) the permissible distance between the elements involved in phraseologism;

5) the degree of lexical and syntactic flexibility of the elements involved;

6) the role that semantic unity and semantic-non-compositionality / nonpredictability play in the definition.

With respect to all or some of the above mentioned parameters we come across different definitions of the units under study.

Stefan Th. Gries: **Phraseologism** is the co-occurrence of a form or a lemma of a lexical item and one or more additional linguistic elements of various kinds which functions as one semantic unit in a clause or sentence and whose frequency of co-occurrence is larger than expected on the basis of chance [Gries 2008, 6].

Phraseological units, according to Prof. A.V. Kunin, are stable wordgroups with partially or fully transferred meanings [Кунин 1996].

According to Rosemarie Glaeser, a **phraseological unit** is a lexicalized, reproducible bilexemic or polylexemic word group in common use, which has relative syntactic and semantic stability, may be idiomatized, may carry connotations, and may have an emphatic or intensifying function in a text [Glaeser 1998].

The term **set-phrase** implies that the basic criterion of differentiation is stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure of word-groups. The term **idiom** generally implies that the essential feature of the linguistic units under consideration is idiomaticity or lack of motivation. The term **word-equivalent** stresses not only the semantic but also the functional inseparability of certain word-groups and their aptness to function in speech as single words [Гинзбург и др., 1979].

In traditional approach to phraseology adopted by Russian scholars like Vinogradov and Amosova the scope of phraseologisms is restricted to a specific subset of linguistically defined multi-word units and seeing phraseology as a continuum along which word combinations are situated, with the most opaque and fixed ones at one end and the most transparent and variable ones at the other or from free combinations to pure idioms [Cowie 2001]. The most important aspect of this approach is to identify linguistic criteria for distinguishing one type of the phraseological unit from another. The most idiomatic units are often presented as the most ‘core’.

One more approach pioneered by Sinclair identifies phraseological units not on the basis of linguistic criteria, but on lexical co-occurrences. As this approach is frequency-based, it generates a wide range of word-combinations encompassing sequences like frames, collocational frameworks, colligations and largely compositional recurrent phrases [Granger and Paquot 2008, 29]. Many of the units that were traditionally considered as peripheral or falling outside the limits of phraseology have now become central as they have revealed themselves to be pervasive in language, while many of the most restricted units (idioms, proverbs) have proved to be highly infrequent [Moon 1998]. In Sinclair’s model of the

language, phraseology is central: phraseological items, whatever their nature, take precedence over single words [Sinclair 1987]. Sinclair summarized the results of corpus investigations in the Principle of Idiom: “a language user has available to him or her a large number of semi-preconstructed phrases that constitute single choices, even though they might appear to be analyzable into segments” [Sinclair 1991, 100] and suggested that for normal texts, the first mode of analysis to be applied is the idiom principle, as most of text is interpreted by this principle.

One more feature which should be mentioned is the cultural value of phraseological units. Phraseology is a particularly fruitful point of focus for ‘linguo-cultural’ analysis as cultural meanings have to be taken into account when we deal with restricted lexical connotation.

Before we proceed to the problem of phraseology it is essential to briefly outline the features common to various types of word-groups viewed as selfcontained lexical units irrespective of the degree of structural and semantic cohesion of the component words.

The aptness of a word to appear in various combinations is described as its **lexical valency** or **collocability**. The noun *job,* for example, is often combined with such adjectives as *backbreaking, difficult, hard; full-time, part-time, summer, cushy, easy; demanding; menial,* etc. Lexical valency acquires special importance in case of polysemy as through the lexical valency different meanings of a polysemantic word can be distinguished, for instance, cf.: *heavy table (safe, luggage); heavy snow (rain, storm); heavy drinker (eater); heavy sleep (sorrow, disappointment); heavy industry (tanks).*

The range of the lexical valency of words is linguistically restricted by the inner structure of the English word-stock. Though the verbs *lift* and *raise* are usually treated as synonyms, it is only the latter that is collocated with the noun *question.*

Words habitually collocated in speech tend to constitute a cliche, for instance, the noun *arms* and the noun *race.* Thus, *arms race* is a cliche.

The lexical valency of correlated words in different languages is different, cf.: in English *pot flowers* – in Russian *комнатные цветы.*

Grammatical valency is the aptness of a word to appear in specific grammatical (or rather syntactic) structures. The minimal grammatical context in which words are used when brought together to form word-groups is usually described as the pattern of the word-groups. For instance, the verb *to offer* can be followed by the infinitive *(to offer to do smth.)* and the noun (*to offer a cup of tea).*

The verb *to suggest* can be followed by the gerund *(to suggest doing smth.)* and the noun *(to suggest an idea).* The grammatical valency of these verbs is different.

The grammatical valency of correlated words in different languages is not identical, cf.: in English *to influence a person, a decision, a choice* (verb + noun) – in Russian (verb + preposition + noun).

The term **'syntactic structure (formula)'** implies the description of the order and arrangement of member-words in word-groups as parts of speech. For instance, the syntactic structure of the word-groups *a clever man, a red flower* may be described as made up of an adjective and a noun, i. e. A + N; of the word-groups *to take books, to build houses* – as a verb and a noun, i. e. V + N.

The structure of word-groups may also be described in relation to the head-word. In this case, it is usual to speak of the pattern but not of formulas.

For example, the patterns of the verbal groups *to take books, to build houses* are to take + N, to build + N. The term **'syntactic pattern'** implies the description of the structure of the word-group in which a given word is used as its head.

According to the syntactic pattern, word-groups may be classified into predicative and non-predicative. Predicative word-groups have a syntactic structure similar to that of a sentence, e.g. *he went, John works.* All other wordgroups are called non-predicative. Non-predicative word-groups may be subdivided into subordinative (e.g. *red flower, a man of wisdom)* and coordinative (e.g. *women and children, do or die).*

Structurally, all word-groups can be classified by the criterion of distribution into two extensive classes: endocentric and exocentric.

Endocentric word-groups are those that have one central member functionally equivalent to the whole word-group, i. e. the distribution of the whole word-group and the distribution of its central member are identical. For instance, in the word-groups *red flower, kind to people,* the head-words are the noun *flower* and the adjective *kind* correspondingly. These word-groups are distributionally identical with their central components. According to their central members word-groups may be classified into: nominal groups or phrases (e.g. *red flower),* adjectival groups (e.g. *kind to people),* verbal groups (e.g. *to speak well),* etc.

Exocentric word-groups are those that have no central component and the distribution of the whole word-group is different from either of its members. For instance, the distribution of the word-group *side by side* is not identical with the distribution of its component-members, i. e. the component-members are not syntactically substitutable for the whole word-group.

Types of meaning in word-groups. The meaning of word-groups can be divided into: 1) lexical and 2) structural (grammatical) components.

1. **The lexical meaning** of the word-group may be defined as the combined lexical meaning of the component words. Thus, the lexical meaning of the word-group *red flower* may be described denotationally as the combined meaning of the words *red* and *flower*. However, the term 'combined lexical meaning' is not to imply that the meaning of the word-group is a mere additive result of all the lexical meanings of the component members. The lexical meaning of the word-group predominates over the lexical meanings of its constituents.

2. **The structural meaning** of the word-group is the meaning conveyed mainly by the pattern of arrangement of its constituents. For example, such word-groups as *school grammar* (школьная грамматика) and *grammar school* (грамматическая школа) are semantically different because of the difference in the pattern of arrangement of the component words. The structural meaning is the meaning expressed by the pattern of the word-group but not either by the word *school* or the word *grammar*. It follows that it is necessary to distinguish between the structural meaning of a given type of a word-group as such and the lexical meaning of its constituents.

The meaning of the word-group is derived from the combined lexical meanings of its constituents and is inseparable from the meaning of the pattern of their arrangement.

Motivation in word-groups. Semantically all word-groups can be classified into motivated and non-motivated. A word-group is **lexically motivated** if the combined lexical meaning of the group is deducible from the meanings of its components, e.g. *red flower, heavy weight, teach a lesson.* If the combined lexical meaning of a word-group is not deducible from the lexical meanings of its constituent components, such a word-group is **lexically non-motivated**, e.g. *red tape* ('official bureaucratic methods'), *take place* ('occur').

The degree of motivation can be different. Between the extremes of complete motivation and lack of motivation there are innumerable intermediate cases. For example, the degree of lexical motivation in the nominal group *black market* is higher than in *black death,* but lower than in *black dress,* though none of the groups can be considered completely non-motivated. This is also true of other words-groups, e.g. *old man* and *old boy* both of which may be regarded as lexically motivated though the degree of motivation in *old man* is noticeably higher.

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

interpretation. Thus, *apple sauce* is lexically motivated when it means 'a sauce made of apples' but when used to denote 'nonsense' it is clearly non-motivated.

Completely non-motivated or partially motivated word-groups are described as phraseological units or idioms.

A phraseological unit can be defined as a reproduced and idiomatic (nonmotivated) or partially motivated unit built up according to the model of free word-groups (or sentences) and semantically and syntactically brought into correlation with words. Hence, there is a need for criteria exposing the degree of similarity/difference between phraseological units and free word-groups, phraseological units and words.

§2. Types of Phraseological Units. Idiomaticity.

According to the degree of idiomaticity phraseological units can be classified into three big groups: phraseological fusions, phraseological unities and phraseological collocations.

Phraseological fusions are completely non-motivated word-groups, e.g. *as mad as a hatter* – 'utterly mad'; *white elephant* – 'an expensive but useless thing'.

Phraseological unities are partially non-motivated as their meaning can usually be perceived through the metaphoric meaning of the whole phraseological unit, e. g. *to bend the knee* – 'to submit to a stronger force, to obey submissively'; *to wash one's dirty linen in public* – 'to discuss or make public one's quarrels'. The boundary between unities and fusions is, of course, not clear-cut, but varies according to the linguistic and cultural experience of the individual.

Phraseological collocations are not only motivated but contain one component used in its direct meaning, while the other is used metaphorically, e.g. *to meet the requirements, to attain success.* In this group of phraseological units some substitutions are possible which do not destroy the meaning of the metaphoric element, e.g. *to meet the needs, to meet the demand, to meet the necessity; to have success, to lose success.* These substitutions are not synonymical and the meaning of the whole changes, while the meaning of the verb *meet* and the noun *success* are kept intact.

The current definition of phraseological units as highly idiomatic word-groups which cannot be freely made up in speech, but are reproduced as ready-made units as been subject to severe criticism by linguists of different schools of thought. The main objections and debatable points may be briefly outlined as follows:

1. The definition is felt to be inadequate as the concept **ready-made units** seems to be rather vague. In fact this term can be applied to a variety of

heterogeneous linguistic phenomena ranging from word-groups to sentences (e.g. proverbs, sayings) and also quotations from poems, novels or scientific treatises all of which can be described as readymade units.

2. Frequent discussions have also led to questioning this approach to phraseology from a purely semantic point of view as **the criterion of idiomaticity** is found to be an inadequate guide in singling out phraseological units from other word-groups. Borderline cases between idiomatic and non-idiomatic word-groups are so numerous and confusing that the final decision seems to depend largely on one's "feeling of the language". This can be proved by the fact that the same word-groups are treated by some linguists as idiomatic phrases and by others as free word-groups. For example, such word-groups as take the chair – 'preside at a meeting', take one's chance – 'trust to luck or fortune', take trouble (to do smth) – 'to make efforts' and others are marked in some of the English dictionaries as idioms or phrases, whereas in others they are found as free word-groups illustrating one of the meanings of the verb to take or the nouns combined with this verb.

The impracticability of the criterion of idiomaticity is also observed in the traditional classification of phraseological collocations. The extreme cases, i.e. phraseological fusions and collocations are easily differentiated but the borderline units, as for example phraseological fusions and phraseological unities or phraseological collocations and free word-groups, are very often doubtful and rather vaguely outlined. We may argue, e.g., that such word-groups as high treason or show the white feather are fusions because one finds it impossible to infer the meaning of the whole from the meaning of the individual components. Others may feel these word-groups as metaphorically motivated and refer them to phraseological unities.

The term **idiomaticity** is also regarded by some linguists as requiring clarification. As a matter of fact this term is habitually used to denote lack of motivation from the point of view of one's mother tongue.

A word-group which defies word by word translation is consequently described as idiomatic. It follows that if idiomaticity is viewed as the main distinguishing feature of phraseological units, the same word-groups in the English language may be classified as idiomatic phraseological units by Russian speakers and as non-idiomatic word-groups by those whose mother tongue contains analogous collocations. Thus, e.g., from the point of view of Russian speakers such word-groups as take tea, take care, etc. are often referred to phraseology as the Russian translation equivalents of these word-groups *(пить чай, заботиться)* do not contain the habitual translation equivalents of the verb take. French speakers,

however, are not likely to find anything idiomatic about these word-groups as there are similar lexical units in the French language (cf. prendre du thé, prendre soin). This approach to idiomaticity may be termed interlingual as it involves a comparison, explicit or implicit of two different languages.

The term **idiomaticity** is also understood as lack of motivation from the point of view of native speakers. As here we are concerned with the English language, this implies that only those word-groups are to be referred to phraseology which are felt as non-motivated, at least synchronically, by English speakers, e.g. red tape, kick the bucket and the like. This approach to idiomaticity may be termed intralingual. In other words the judgement as to idiomaticity is passed within' the framework of the language concerned, not from the outside. It is readily observed that classification of factual linguistic material into free wort-groups and phraseological units largely depends upon the particular meaning we attach to the term **idiomaticity**. It will be recalled, for example, that habitual collocations are word-groups whose component member or members possess specific and limited lexical valency, as a rule essentially different from the lexical valency of related words in the Russian language.1 A number of habitual collocations, e.g. heavy rain, bad mistake, take care and others, may be felt by Russian speakers as **peculiarly English** and therefore idiomatic, whereas they are not perceived as such by English speakers in whose mother tongue the lexical valency of member words heavy, bad, take presupposes their collocability with rain, mistake, care.

3. **The criterion of stability** is also criticised as not very reliable in distinguishing phraseological units from other word-groups habitually referred to as phraseology. We observe regular substitution of at least one of the lexical components. In to cast smth in smb's teeth, e.g. the verb cast may be replaced by fling; to take a decision is found alongside with to make a decision; not to care a twopenny is just one of the possible **variants of the phrase**, whereas in others the noun twopenny may be replaced by a number of other nouns, e.g. farthing, button, pin, sixpence, fig, etc. It is also argued that stability of lexical components does not presuppose lack of motivation. The word-group shrug one's shoulders, e.g, does not allow of the substitution of either shrug or shoulders; the meaning of the word-group, however, is easily deducible from the meanings of the member-words, hence the word-group is completely motivated, though stable. Idiomatic word-groups may be variable as far as their lexical components are concerned, or stable. It was observed that, e.g., to cast smth in smb's teeth is a highly idiomatic but variable word-group as the constituent member cast may be replaced by fling or throw; the word-group red tape is both highly idiomatic and stable. It follows that

stability and idiomaticity may be regarded as two different aspects of word-groups. Stability is an essential feature of set-phrases both motivated and non-motivated. Idiomaticity is a distinguishing feature of phraseological units or idioms which comprise both stable set-phrases and variable word-groups. The two features are not mutually exclusive and may be overlapping, but are not interdependent.

Stability of word-groups may be viewed in terms of predictability of occurrence of member-words. Thus, e.g., the verb shrug predicts the occurrence of the noun shoulders and the verb clench the occurrence of either fists or teeth. The degree of predictability or probability of occurrence of member-words is different in different word-groups. We may assume, e.g., that the verb shrug predicts with a hundred per cent probability the occurrence of the noun shoulders, as no other noun can follow this particular verb. The probability of occurrence of the noun look after the verb cast is not so high because cast may be followed not only by look but also by glance, light, lots and some other nouns. Stability of the word-group in clench one's fists is higher than in cast a look, but lower than in shrug one's shoulders as the verb clench predicts the occurrence of either fists or teeth. It is argued that the stability of all word-groups may be statistically calculated and the word-groups where stability exceeds a certain limit (say 50%) may be classified as set-phrases.

Predictability of occurrence may be calculated in relation to one or, more than one constituent of the word-group. Thus, e.g., the degree of probability of occurrence of the noun bull after the verb take is very low and may practically be estimated at zero. The two member-words take the bull, however, predict the occurrence of by the horns with a very high degree of probability.

Stability viewed in terms of probability of occurrence seems a more reliable criterion in differentiating between set-phrases and variable or free word-groups, but cannot be relied upon to single out phraseological units. Besides, it is argued that it is practically impossible to calculate the stability of all the word-groups as that would necessitate investigation into the lexical valency of the whole vocabulary of the English language.

§3 Types of Transference of Phraseological Units

Phraseological transference is a complete or partial change of meaning of an initial (source) word-combination (or a sentence) as a result of which the word-combination (or the sentence) acquires a new meaning and turns into a phraseological unit. Phraseological transference may be based on simile, metaphor, metonymy, synecdoche, etc. or on their combination.

1. Transference based on **simile** is the intensification of some feature of an object (phenomenon, thing) denoted by a phraseological unit by means of bringing it into contact with another object (phenomenon, thing) belonging to an entirely different class (e.g. English and Russian phraseological units: *(as) pretty as a picture – хорошая как картинка, (as) fat as a pig – жирный как свинья, to fight like a lion – сражаться как лев, to swim like a fish – плавать как рыба).*

2. Transference based on **metaphor** is a likening of one object (phenomenon, action) of reality to another, which is associated with it on the basis of real or imaginable resemblance. For example, in the phraseological unit *to bend somebody to one's bow* meaning 'to submit someone' transference is based on metaphor, i.e. on the likening of a subordinated, submitted person to a thing (bow) a good command of which allows its owner to do with it everything he wants to.

3. Transference based on **metonymy** is a transfer of name from one object (phenomenon, thing, action, process, etc.) to another based on the contiguity of their properties, relations, etc. The transfer of name is conditioned by close ties between the two objects; the idea about one object is inseparably linked with the idea about the other object. For example, the metonymical transference in the phraseological unit *a silk stocking* meaning 'a rich, well-dressed man' is based on the replacement of the genuine object (a man) by the article of clothing which was very fashionable and popular among men in the past.

Synecdoche is a variety of metonymy. Transference based on synecdoche is naming the whole by its part, the replacement of the common by the private, of the plural by the singular and vice versa. For example, the components *flesh* and *blood* in the phraseological unit *in the flesh and blood* meaning 'in a material form' as the integral parts of the real existence replace a person himself or any living being, see the following sentences: *We've been writing to each other for ten years, but now he's actually going to be here in the flesh and blood. Thousands of fans flocked to Dublin to see their heroes in the flesh and blood.* Synecdoche is usually found in combination with other types of transference, e.g. metaphor: *to hold one's tongue* – 'to say nothing, to be discreet'.

§4 Origin of Phraseological Units

According to their origin all phraseological units may be divided into two big groups: native and borrowed.

The main sources of **native phraseological units** are:

1) terminological and professional lexics, e.g. physics: *center of gravity* (центр тяжести), *specific weight* (удельный вес); navigation: *cut the painter* (обрубить канат) – 'to become independent', *lower one's colours* (спустить свой

флаг) – 'to yield, to give in'; military sphere: *fall into line* (стать в строй) – 'conform with others';

2) British literature, e.g. *the green-eyed monster* – 'jealousy' (W. Shakespeare); *like Hamlet without the prince* – 'the most important person at event is absent' (W. Shakespeare); *fall on evil days* – 'live in poverty after having enjoyed better times' (J. Milton); *a sight for sore eyes* – 'a person or thing that one is extremely pleased or relieved to see' (J. Swift); *How goes the enemy?* (Ch. Dickens);

3) British traditions and customs, e.g. *baker's dozen* – 'a group of thirteen'. In the past British merchants of bread received from bakers thirteen loaves instead of twelve and the thirteenth loaf was merchants' profit;

4) superstitions and legends, e.g. *a black sheep* – 'a less successful or more immoral person in a family or a group'. People believed that a black sheep was marked by the devil; *the halcyon days* – 'a very happy or successful period in the past'; according to an ancient legend a halcyon hatches / grows its fledglings in a nest that sails in the sea and during this period (about two weeks) the sea is completely calm;

5) historical facts and events, personalities, e.g. *as well be hanged for a sheep as a lamb* – 'something that you say when you are going to be punished for something so you decide to do something worse because your punishment will not be any more severe'; according to an old law a person who stole a sheep was sentenced to death by hanging, so it was worth stealing something more because there was no worse punishment; *to do a Thatcher* – 'to stay in power as prime minister for three consecutive terms (from the former Conservative prime minister Margaret Thatcher)';

6) phenomena and facts of everyday life, e.g. *carry coals to Newcastle* – 'to take something to a place where there is plenty of it available'. Newcastle is a town in Northern England where a lot of coal was produced; *to get out of wood* – 'to be saved from danger or difficulty'.

The main sources of **borrowed phraseological units** are:

1) the Holy Script, e. g. *the left hand does not know what the right hand is doing* – 'communication in an organization is bad so that one part does not know what is happening in another part'; *the kiss of Judas* – 'any display of affection whose purpose is to conceal any act of treachery' (Matthew XXVI: 49);

2) ancient legends and myths belonging to different religious or cultural traditions, e.g. *to cut the Gordian knot* – 'to deal with a difficult problem in a strong, simple and effective way' (from the legend saying that *Gordius,* king of Gordium, tied an intricate knot and prophesied that whoever untied it would

become the ruler of Asia. It was cut through with a sword by Alexander the Great); *a Procrustean bed* – 'a harsh, inhumane system into which the individual is fitted by force, regardless of his own needs and wishes' (from Greek Mythology, *Procrustes* – a robber who forced travelers to lie on a bed and made them fit by stretching their limbs or cutting off the appropriate length of leg);

3) facts and events of the world history, e.g. *to cross the Rubicon* – 'to do something which will have very important results which cannot be changed after'. Julius Caesar started a war which resulted in victory for him by crossing the river Rubicon in Italy; *to meet one's Waterloo* – 'be faced with, esp. after previous success, a final defeat, a difficulty or obstacle one cannot overcome (from the defeat of Napoleon at Waterloo 1815)';

4) variants of the English language, e.g. *a heavy hitter* – 'someone who is powerful and has achieved a lot' *(American); a hole card* – 'a secret advantage that is ready to use when you need it' *(American); be home and hosed* – 'to have completed something successfully' *(Australian);*

5) other languages (classical and modern), e.g. *second to none* – 'equal with any other and better than most' (from Latin: *nulli secundus); for smb's fair eyes* – 'because of personal sympathy, not be worth one's deserts, services, for nothing' (from French: *pour les beaux yeux de qn.); the fair sex* – 'women' (from French: *le beau sex); let the cat out of the bag* – 'reveal a secret carelessly or by mistake' (from German: *die Katze aus dem Sack lassen); tilt at windmills* – 'to waste time trying to deal with enemies or problems that do not exist' (from Spanish: *acometer molinos de viento); every dog is a lion at home* – 'to feel significant in the familiar surrounding' (from Italian: *ogni cane e leone a casa sua).*

§5 Proverbs, Sayings, Quotations

A **proverb** (from Latin *pro* 'forward'+ *verb* 'word') is a collection of words that has been disseminated forth, and states a general truth or gives advice [Бабич 2008; 105]. *You can take the horse to the water, but you can't make him drink. If you sing before breakfast, you will cry before night. A new broom sweeps clean.* A ← (from Old English: *say* (tell) + *ing* gerund suffix) is any common, colloquial expression, or a remark often made. *Charity begins at home. It takes two to tango.*

A.V. Koonin includes proverbs in his classification of phraseological units labeling them communicative phraseological units [Кунин 1972]. As the quotient of phraseological stability in a word-group is not below the minimum, it means that we are dealing with a phraseological unit.

Phraseological units rather frequently originate from the proverbs making it difficult to draw any rigid or permanent border-line between them. Compare the

following examples: *the last straw ← The last straw breaks the camel's back*; *birds of a feather ← Birds of a feather flock together*; *spill the milk ← There is no use crying over the spilt milk.*

Proverbs and saying possess such characteristics of phraseological units:

1) they are introduced in speech ready-made;

2) their components are constant;

3) their meaning is traditional and mostly figurative;

4) many proverbs and sayings are metaphorical (*Time is money. Little drops make the mighty ocean. Rome wasn't built in a day. Words can cut like a knife. Make hay while the sun shines*).

Others like J. Casares and N.N. Amosova think that unless they regularly form parts of other sentences it is erroneous to include them into the system of language, because they are independent units of communication. N.N. Amosova even thinks that there is no more reason to consider them as part of phraseology than, for instance, riddles and children's counts. "This standpoint is hardly acceptable especially if we do not agree with the narrow limits of phraseology offered by this author. Riddles and counts are not as a rule included into utterances in the process of communication, whereas proverbs are. Whether they are included into an utterance as independent sentences or as part of sentences is immaterial. If we follow that line of reasoning, we shall have to exclude all interjections such as *Hang it (all)!* because they are also syntactically independent" [Арнольд 1986, 179].

Familiar quotations come from literature and gradually become part of the language. Lots of quotations come from Shakespeare: *Something is rotten in the state of Denmark. To be or not to be: that is the question. I must be cruel, only to be kind. The rest is silence. Frailty, thy name is woman.* The Shakespearean quotations have become and remain extremely numerous and they contributed enormously to the store of the language.

Some quotations come from Alexander Pope, the English poet and satirist: *Who shall decide when doctors disagree? To err is human. To forgive divine. A little learning is a dangerous thing.*

Some quotations are so often used that they come to be considered cliches: *the acid test, astronomic figures, to break the ice, consigned to oblivion, the irony of fate, stand shoulder to shoulder, swan sing, the arms of Morpheus, to usher in a new age, to pave the way to a bright new world*, etc.

KEY TERMS

Endocentric word-group, exocentric word-group, grammatical valency, lexical valency, lexically motivated word-groups, lexically non-motivated word-groups, phraseological collocation, phraseological fusions, phraseological transference, phraseological unit, phraseological unity, phraseology, proverb saying, syntactic structure, syntactic pattern.

QUESTIONS

1. What is a phraseological unit?
2. What kinds of word-groups can be singled out according to the syntactic pattern?
3. What classes of word-groups can be singled out according to the criterion of distribution?
4. What word-groups are called endocentric?
5. What word-groups are called exocentric?
6. In what way do the lexical and structural types of meaning of wordcombinations interact? What does the connection between lexical and structural types of meaning of word-groups imply?
7. What is meant by the lexical motivation of a word-group?
8. In what cases is a word-combination considered to be lexically non-motivated?
9. What degrees of motivation can be singled out?
10. What does the structural similarity between word-groups and phraseological units consist in?
11. What are the characteristic features of phraseological units?
12. What is meant by phraseological transference?
13. What does the transference based on simile mean?
14. What is the metaphoric transference?
15. What does the metonymical transference imply?
16. What types of phraseological units can be distinguished according to the degree of idiomaticity? Characterize each type.
17. What types of phraseological units can be singled out from the point of view of their origin?
18. What are the main sources of origin of native phraseological units?
19. What are the main sources of origin of borrowed phraseological units?
20. How do proverbs differ from phraseological units?

7 SEMASIOLOGY. WORD-MEANING

§1 Semasiology and Semantics. Referential, Functional and Information-Oriented Definitions of the Meaning

§2 Types of Meaning

§3 Aspects of Lexical Meaning

By definition Lexicology deals with words, word-forming morphemes (derivational affixes) and word-groups or phrases. All these linguistic units may be said to have meaning of some kind: they are all significant and therefore must be investigated both as to form and meaning. The branch of lexicology that is devoted to the study of meaning is known as **Semasiology**.

It should be pointed out that just as lexicology is beginning to absorb a major part of the efforts of linguistic scientists semasiology is coming to the fore as the central problem of linguistic investigation of all levels of language structure. It is suggested that semasiology has for its subject – matter not only the study of lexicon, but also of morphology, syntax and sentential semantics. Words, however, play such a crucial part in the structure of language that when we speak of semasiology without any qualification, we usually refer to the study of word-meaning proper, although it is in fact very common to explore the semantics of other elements, such as suffixes, prefixes, etc.

Meaning is one of the most controversial terms in the theory of language. At first sight the understanding of this term seems to present no difficulty at all – it is freely used in teaching, interpreting and translation.

The scientific definition of meaning however just as the definition of some other basic linguistic terms, such as word sentence, etc., has been the issue of interminable discussions. Since there is no universally accepted definition of meaning we shall confine ourselves to a brief survey of the problem as it is viewed in modern linguistics both in our country and elsewhere.

§1 Semasiology and Semantics. Referential, Functional and Information-Oriented Definitions of the Meaning

The area of study dealing with meaning is called **semantics**. The term ‘meaning’ is used here in the ordinary, non-technical sense, without reference to any particular theoretical framework. Most linguists agree that meaning pervades the whole language. However, they are not always unanimous on the terms to be used in the discussion of semantics.

The nature of meaning is pervasive; if we are to talk about the semantics at all, then we should identify several kinds of semantics: pragmatic semantics, which studies the meaning of utterances in context; sentence semantics, which handles the meaning of sentences as well as meaning relations between sentences; lexical semantics, which deals with the meaning of words and the meaning relations that are internal to the vocabulary of the language [Jackson and Ze'Amwella 2008].

Semantics is usually approached from one of the two perspectives: philosophical or linguistic. Philosophical semantics is concerned with the logical properties of language, the nature of formal theories, and the language of logic.

Linguistic semantics involves all aspects of meaning in natural languages, from the meaning of complex utterances in specific contexts to that of individual sounds in syllables.

Consequently, since semantics covers all aspects of human language, it must be considered not only as a division of lexicology, but also as part of phonology, syntax, discourse analysis, textlinguistics, pragmatics, etc. We will use the term **'semasiology'**. The name comes from the Greek *sēmasiā* 'signification' (from Gr. *sēma* 'sign', *sēmantikos* 'significant' and *logos* 'meaning') Semasiology is the branch of linguistics which studies the meaning of words regardless of their phonetic expression. Semasiology departs from a word or lexical expression and asks for it meaning, in different senses; this discipline within linguistics is concerned with the question "What does X-word mean?" So, semasiology is the branch of lexicology and semantics devoted to the study of word meaning. The main objects of semasiological studies are semantic development of words, its causes and classification, relevant distinctive features and types of lexical meaning.

What is meaning? To define meaning is especially difficult due to the complexity of the process by which language and human consciousness serve to reflect outward reality and to adopt it to human needs. Generally speaking, meaning can be more or less described as a component of the word through which the concept is communicated [Антрушина и др. 2001].

The definition of lexical meaning has been attempted more than once in accordance with the main principles of different linguistic schools. F. de Saussure considered meaning to be the relation between the object and the notion named, and the name itself. In Bloomfieldian approach meaning is the situation in which the word is uttered. At present there is no universally accepted definition of meaning, or rather a definition reflecting all the basic features of meaning and being at the same time operational. Nevertheless, different definitions of meaning help to sum up the general characteristics of the notion comparing various approaches to the description of the content side of the language. Most Russian

scholars agree that lexical meaning is the realization of concept or emotion by means of a definite language system [Арнольд 1986].

There are three main categories of definitions of meaning which may be referred to as

– referential or analytical definitions of meaning;

– functional or contextual definitions of meaning;

– operational or information-oriented definitions of meaning.

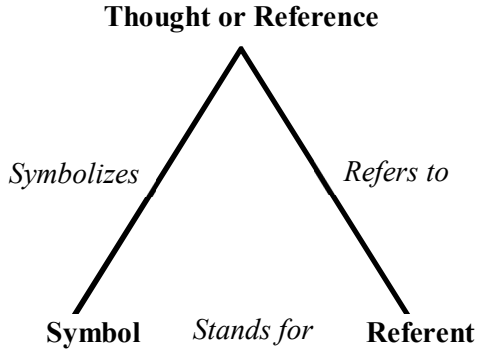
Referential or analytical definitions of meaning. Referential or onomasiological approach studies the meaning as the interdependence between words and their referents, that is things and concepts they name (various names given to the same senses). The essential characteristic of **the referential approach** is that it distinguishes between the three components closely connected with meaning:

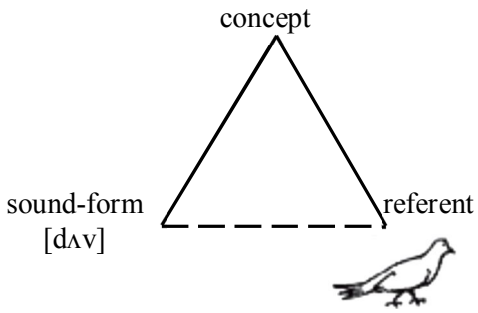
1) the sound-form of the linguistic sign;

2) the concept underlying this sound-form;

3) the referent, i. e. the part or aspect of reality to which the linguistic sign refers.

Many scholars tried to modify the diagram originally introduced by the German mathematician and philosopher Gottlieb Frege (1848–1925) and rethought by Ferdinand de Saussure. In 1923 English scholars C.K. Ogden and I.A. Richards adopted this three-cornered pattern with considerable modification (now it is known under different names: the semantic triangle, triangle of signification, Frege semiotic triangle, Ogden and Richards basic triangle or simply basic triangle). With them, the sign is a two-facet unit comprising form (phonetical and orthographic), regarded as a linguistic symbol, and reference which is more linguistic than just a concept (Fig. 7). This approach may be called referential because it implies that linguistic meaning is connected with the referent [Арнольд 1986, 31].





Several problems have traditionally been identified with the notion of reference as a way of describing word meaning [De Stadler 1989: 9, 17–18]:

1. There are many words for which the reference is not easily established.

For example, adjectives such as *large, beautiful* and *almighty*, as well as fictional or mythical entities such as *goblin* and *unicorn*.

2. Compositional meaning, for example in compound words such as *laptop* (referring to a portable computer), are problematic, since the meaning of the compound cannot be derived from the reference of either *a lap* or *a top*, or from a straightforward combination of the references of the two words.

3. Reference is a feature of expressions, such as full noun phrases in a specific context, rather than individual lexical items. For example, the word *table* in isolation has a sense which can be given in a dictionary, but the word table will only have referential meaning is an expression such as *The table in my dining room sits 8 people*.

4. The same object in the real world (for example, *Venus*) can be referred to by different expressions which are both meaningful (namely the morning star and the evening star).

The functional approach to meaning maintains that the meaning of a linguistic unit can be studied only through its relation to other linguistic units. According to the given approach the meanings of the words *a step* and *to step* is different because they function in speech differently. *To step* may be followed by an adverb, *a step* cannot, but it may be proceeded by an adjective. The position of a word in relation to other words is called **distribution of the word**. As the distribution of the words *to step* and *a step* is different, they belong to different classes of words and their meanings are different.

The same is true of different meanings of one and the same word. Analyzing the function of a word in linguistic contexts and comparing these contexts, we conclude that meanings are different. For example, we can observe the difference of meanings of the verb *to take* if we examine its functions in different linguistic contexts, *to take a seat* ('to sit down') as opposed to *to take to smb.* ('to begin to like someone'). The term '**context**' is defined as the minimum stretch of speech necessary and sufficient to determine which of the possible meanings of a polysemantic word is used [Ginzburg 1979, 24].

The functional approach is sometimes described as contextual as it is based on the analysis of various contexts. In the functional approach which is typical of structural linguistics semantic investigation is confined to the analysis of the difference or sameness of meaning: meaning is understood as the function of a linguistic unit.

The operational or information-oriented definitions of meaning are centered on defining meaning through its role in the process of communication. Thus, this approach studies words in action and is more interested in how meaning works than in what it is.

Within this approach, meaning is defined as information conveyed from the speaker to the listener in the process of communication. This definition is applicable both to words and sentences and thus overcomes one of the alleged drawbacks of the referential approach. The problem is that it is more applicable to sentences than to words and even as such fails to draw a clear distinguishing line between the direct meaning and implication (additional information). Thus, the sentence *Ann came at 6 o'clock* besides the direct meaning may imply that *Ann 'was two hours late; failed to keep his promise; came though he did not want to; was punctual as usual, etc.'* In each case the implication would depend on the concrete situation of communication and discussing meaning as information conveyed would amount to the discussion of an almost infinite set of possible communication situations. The distinction between the two layers in the information conveyed is so important that two different terms may be used to denote them. **The direct information** conveyed by the units constituting the sentence may be referred to as meaning while **the information added** to the extralinguistic situation may be called sense [Зыкова 2007].

When comparing the two approaches described above in terms of methods of linguistic analysis we see that the functional approach should not be considered an alternative, but rather a valuable complement to the referential theory. It is only natural that linguistic investigation must start by collecting an adequate number of samples of contexts.1 On examination the meaning or meanings of linguistic units will emerge from the contexts themselves. Once this phase had been completed it seems but logical to pass on to the referential phase and try to formulate the meaning thus identified. There is absolutely no need to set the two approaches against each other; each handles its own side of the problem and neither is complete without the other.

§2 Types of Meaning

It is more or less universally recognised that word-meaning is not homogeneous but is made up of various components the combination and the interrelation of which determine to a great extent the inner facet of the word. These components are usually described as types of meaning. The two main types of meaning that are readily observed are the grammatical and the lexical meanings to be found in words and word-forms.

Word-meaning is not homogeneous. It is made up of various components. These components are described as types of meaning. The two main types of meaning are the grammatical meaning and the lexical meaning. Still one more type of meaning is singled out. It is based on the interaction of the major types and is called the part-of-speech (or lexicogrammatical) meaning.

The grammatical meaning is defined as an expression in speech of relationship between words. The grammatical meaning is the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words, as, for example, the tense meaning in the word-forms of the verbs: *asked, thought, walked;* the case meaning in the word-forms of various nouns: *girl's, boy's, nights';* the meaning of plurality which is found in the word-forms of nouns: *joys, tables, places.* The grammatical meaning is more abstract and more generalized than lexical meaning and it unites words into big groups as we can see from the above-mentioned examples.

In a broad sense it may be argued that linguists who make a distinction between lexical and grammatical meaning are, in fact, making a distinction between the functional (linguistic) meaning which operates at various levels as the interrelation of various linguistic units and referential (conceptual) meaning as the interrelation of linguistic units and referents (or concepts).

In modern linguistic science it is commonly held that some elements of grammatical meaning can be identified by the position of the linguistic unit in relation to other linguistic units, i.e. by its distribution. Wordforms speaks, reads, writes have one and the same grammatical meaning as they can all be found in identical distribution, e.g. only after the pronouns he, she, it and before adverbs like well, badly, to-day, etc.

It follows that a certain component of the meaning of a word is described when you identify it as a part of speech, since different parts of speech are distributionally different.

Comparing word-forms of one and the same word we observe that besides grammatical meaning, there is another component of meaning to be found in them.

Unlike the grammatical meaning this component is identical in all the forms of the word. Thus, e.g. the word-forms go, goes, went, going, gone possess different grammatical meanings of tense, person and so on, but in each of these forms we find one and the same semantic component denoting the process of movement. This is the lexical meaning of the word which may be described as the component of meaning proper to the word as a linguistic unit, i.e. recurrent in all the forms of this word.

The lexical meaning of the word is the meaning proper to the given linguistic unit in all its forms and distributions. The word-forms *go, goes, went, going, gone* possess different grammatical meanings of tense, person, number, but in each form they have one and the same semantic component denoting 'the process of movement'.

Both the lexical and grammatical meanings make up the word-meaning as neither can exist without the other. That can be observed in the semantic analysis of correlated words in different languages. The Russian word *сведения* is not semantically identical with the English equivalent *information* because unlike the Russian *сведения* the English word does not possess the grammatical meaning of plurality which is part of the semantic structure of the Russian word.

In some parts of speech the prevailing component is the grammatical type of meaning. For example, in the verb *to be* the grammatical meaning of a linking element prevails: *He is a teacher.*

The lexico-grammatical meaning the common denominator of all the meanings of words belonging to a lexico-grammatical class, it is the feature according to which they are grouped together [Арнольд 1986, 39].

It is usual to classify lexical items into major word-classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) and minor word-classes (articles, prepositions, conjunctions, etc.).

All members of a major word-class share a distinguishing semantic component which though very abstract may be viewed as the lexical component of part-of-speech meaning. For example, the meaning of ‘thingness’ or substantiality may be found in all the nouns e.g. table, love, sugar, though they possess different grammatical meanings of number, case, etc. It should be noted, however, that the grammatical aspect of the part-of-speech meanings is conveyed as a rule by a set of forms. If we describe the word as a noun we mean to say that it is bound to possess a set of forms expressing the grammatical meaning of number (cf. table — tables), case (cf. boy, boy’s) and so on. A verb is understood to possess sets of forms expressing, e.g., tense meaning (worked — works), mood meaning (work! — (I) work), etc.

The part-of-speech meaning of the words that possess only one form, e.g. prepositions, some adverbs, etc., is observed only in their distribution (cf. to come in (here, there) and in (on, under) the table).

One of the levels at which grammatical meaning operates is that of minor word classes like articles, pronouns, etc.

Members of these word classes are generally listed in dictionaries just as other vocabulary items, that belong to major word-classes of lexical items proper (e.g. nouns, verbs, etc.).

One criterion for distinguishing these grammatical items from lexical items is in terms of closed and open sets. Grammatical items form closed sets of units usually of small membership (e.g. the set of modern English pronouns, articles, etc.). New items are practically never added.

Lexical items proper belong to open sets which have indeterminately large membership; new lexical items which are constantly coined to fulfil the needs of the speech community are added to these open sets.

The interrelation of the lexical and the grammatical meaning and the role played by each varies in different word-classes and even in different groups of words within one and the same class. In some parts of speech the prevailing component is the grammatical type of meaning. The lexical meaning of prepositions for example is, as a rule, relatively vague (independent of smb, one of the students, the roof of the house). The lexical meaning of some prepositions, however, may be comparatively distinct (cf. in/on, under the table). In verbs the lexical meaning usually comes to the fore although in some of them, the verb to be, e.g., the grammatical meaning of a linking element prevails (cf. he works as a teacher and he is a teacher).

The essence of **the part-of-speech meaning** of a word is revealed in the classification of lexical items into major word-classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) and minor word-classes (articles, prepositions, conjunctions, etc).

All members of a major word-class share a distinguishing semantic component which, though very abstract, may be viewed as the lexical component of part-of-speech meaning. For example, the meaning of thingness or substantiality may be found in all the nouns, e.g. *table, love, sugar,* though they possess different grammatical meaning of number and case.

The grammatical aspect of part-of-speech meaning is conveyed as a rule by a set of forms. If we describe the word as a noun we mean to say that it is bound to possess a set of forms expressing the grammatical meaning of number *(table - tables)* and case (*boy - boys).*

The part-of-speech meaning of the words that possess only one form, e.g. prepositions, some adverbs, etc. is observed only in their distribution, e.g. *to come in (here, there); in (on, under) the table.*

§3 Aspects of Lexical Meaning

Aspects of lexical meaning. In the general framework of lexical meaning several aspects can be singled out. They are:

1) the denotational aspect;

2) the connotational aspect;

3) the pragmatic aspect.

The conceptual content of a word is expressed in its denotative meaning. **The denotational aspect** of lexical meaning is the part of lexical meaning which establishes correlation between the name and the object, phenomenon, process or characteristic feature of concrete reality (or thought as such), which is denoted by the given word. The term 'denotational' is derived from the English word *to denote* which means 'be a sign of, indicate, stand as a name or symbol for'.

For example, the denotational meaning of *booklet* is 'a small thin book that gives information about something'. It is through the denotational aspect of meaning that the bulk of information is conveyed in the process of communication. The denotational aspect of lexical meaning expresses the notional content of a word.

"The information communicated by the virtue of what the word refers to is often subject to complex associations originating in habitual contexts, verbal or situational, of which the speaker and the listener are aware of, they give the word its connotative meaning" [Арнольд 1986, 40].

The connotational aspect of lexical meaning is the part of meaning which reflects the attitude of the speaker towards what he speaks about.

Connotation conveys additional information in the process of communication, it is a set of associations that a word's use can evoke. Connotation can include:

1) **the emotive charge**, e.g. *daddy* as compared to *father;*

2) **evaluation**, which may be positive or negative, e.g. *clique* (a small group of people who seem unfriendly to other people) as compared to *group* (a set of people);

3) **intensity** (or **expressiveness**), e.g. *adore* as compared to *love;*

4*)* **imagery**, e.g. *to wade* – to walk with an effort (through mud, water or anything that makes progress difficult). The figurative use of the word gives rise to another meaning which is based on the same image as the first – *to wade through a book.*

The pragmatic aspect of lexical meaning is the part of meaning, that conveys information on the situation of communication. Like the connotational aspect, the pragmatic aspect falls into four closely linked together subsections:

1) **information on the 'time and space' relationship of the participants**. Some information which specifies different parameters of communication may be conveyed not only with the help of grammatical means (tense forms, personal pronouns, etc.), but through the meaning of the word. For instance, the words *come* and *go* can indicate the location of the Speaker who is usually taken as the zero point in the description of the situation of communication.

2) the **time element** when related through the pragmatic aspect of meaning is fixed indirectly. Indirect reference to time implies that the frequency of occurrence of words may change with time and in extreme cases words may be out of use or become obsolete. Thus, the word *behold* – 'take notice, see (esp. something unusual or striking)' as well as the noun *beholder* – 'spectator' are out of use now but were widely used in the 17th century;

3) **information on the participants and the given language community.** To illustrate this type of pragmatic information in the word meaning one can cite an example analysed by G. Leech in *Semantics*. Discussing two sentences (1) *They chucked a stone at the cops, and then did a bunk with the loot.* (2) *After casting a stone at the police, they absconded with the money,* G. Leech points out that sentence (1) could be said by two criminals, talking casually about the crime afterwards; sentence (2) might be said by the chief inspector in making his official report. The pragmatic aspect of the word may also convey information about the social system of the given language community, its ideology, religion, system of norms and customs;

4) **information on the tenor of discourse** which reflects how the addresser (the speaker or the writer) interacts with the addressee (the listener or the reader). Tenors are based on social or family roles of the participants of communication. A mother will talk in a different way (a) with her small child and (b) about her children. There may be a situation of a stranger talking to a stranger, or two friends discussing matters of interest, or a teacher talking to a student, or a student interviewed by the dean, etc.;

5) **information on the register of communication.** The conditions of communication form another important group of factors. The register defines the general type of the situation of communication grading the situations in formality (variations ranging from extreme degrees of formality through norm to extreme non-formality). Three main types of the situations of communication are usually singled out: formal, neutral and informal. Practically every word in the language is register-oriented. Thus, the pragmatic aspect of meaning refers words like *cordial, fraternal, anticipate, aid, sanguinary, celestial* to the formal register while units

like *cut it out, to be kidding, hi, stuff* are to be used in the informal register [Зыкова 2007].

KEY TERMS

Concept, connotation, denotatum, grammatical meaning, information-oriented approach, functional approach, lexical meaning, part-of-speech meaning, pragmatic aspect of the meaning, referential approach, register, semantics, semasiology, tenor of the discourse.

QUESTIONS

1. What do semantics, semasiology and onomasiology study?
2. What is the significance of semasiology?
3. What are the three main trends in defining the meaning of a word?
4. What is the essence of referential or analytical approach to meaning?
5. How is meaning defined on a functional (or contextual) basis?
6. What is the essence of operational or information-oriented approach?
7. What are the main stages of the process of naming?
8. What types of meaning can be singled out?
9. What aspects of the lexical meaning can be singled out?
10. What connotational and pragmatic aspects of lexical meaning can be singled out?

8 SEMANTIC CHANGE

§1 *Causes of Semantic Change*

§2 *Types of Semantic Changes*

Word-meaning is liable to change in the course of the historical development of language. Changes of lexical meaning may be illustrated by a diachronic semantic analysis of many commonly used English words. The word fond *(OE.* fond) used to mean ‘foolish’, ‘foolishly credulous’; glad *(OE,* glaed) had the meaning of ‘bright’, ’shining’ and so on.

Change of meaning has been thoroughly studied and as a matter of fact monopolised the attention of all semanticists whose work up to the early 1930’s was centered almost exclusively on the description and classification of various changes of meaning. Abundant language data can be found in almost all the books dealing with semantics. Here we shall confine the discussion to a brief outline of

the problem as it is viewed in modern linguistic science. To avoid the ensuing confusion of terms and concepts it is necessary to discriminate between the causes of semantic change, the results and the nature of the process of change of meaning. 1. These are three closely bound up, but essentially different aspects of one and the same problem.

Discussing the causes of semantic change we concentrate on the factors bringing about -this change and attempt to find out w h y the word changed its meaning. Analysing the nature of semantic change we seek to clarify the process of this change and describe how various changes of meaning were brought about. Our aim in investigating the results of semantic change is to find out w h a t was changed, i.e. we compare the resultant and the original meanings and describe the difference between them mainly in terms of the changes of the denotational components.

§1 Causes of Semantic Change

In diachronical and historical linguistics, semantic change is a change in the meaning of a word. Every word has a variety of senses and connotations which can be added, removed or altered over time, often to the extent that cognates across space and time have very different meanings. Semantic change is one of the major processes to find a designation for a concept. The study of semantic change can be seen a part of etymology, onomasiology, semasiology and semantics.

Semantic changes attracted academic discussions already in ancient times. The first major works of modern times were Reisig (1839), Darmesteter (1887), Paul (1880), Stern (1939), Bloomfield (1933). Studies beyond the analysis of single words were started with the word-field analyses of Trier (1931), who claimed that every semantic change of a word would also affect all other words in a lexical field. More recent works including pragmatic and cognitive theories are those in Warren (1992), Dirk Geeraerts (1997), Truagott (1990), and Blank (1997).

Word meanings are constantly changing, and the driving forces of meaning change are varied and diverse. Few semantic changes are determined by purely language-internal factors; the majority can only be understood by taking various kinds of external influences into account.

The causes of language change in general (not only on the lexical level) are frequently of economic nature: speakers connect a speech act with a certain goal, a certain target, a certain intention. Speakers like to reach this effect with the best possible efficiency, i.e. to use the least possible motoric or cognitive effort, respecting – according to their needs – certain maxims such as *Make your contribution convincing / credible / emphatic* etc., *Make clear what you mean*.

Maxims for dynamics may trigger linguistic changes, which may secondarily be conserved in the language through maxims for statics. In general, constant linguistic change is not planned, but simply occurs, as a by-product. That is why some speak of an 'invisible hand' here – a metaphor taken from Adam Smith's explanation of economic processes. These things hold true for all types of linguistic change [Grzega, Schoner 2007]. Forces triggering off lexical change can be rather conscious or rather subconscious. Lexical change is mostly caused by a combination of various factors.

Here we give the list of factors suggested by Joachism Grzega and Marion Schoner [ibid].

1. New concept. New concepts require a new designation.

2. Changes in the referent. If a concept changes in a way that the speaker does not perceive it is a completely new subject, it may still be given a new name, especially of the older variants of the concept still exist beside the newer ones (*breakfast, lunch, brunch*). If the referent changes but the designation is the same as the referent's function is the same, this process is called a substitution from semasiological aspect (e.g. ME *pen* 'feather' is still used for denoting writing device although feathers are no longer used for writing).

3. Changing world views, changing categorization of the world. It is not the referent that changes, but the organization of the content of the sign, the organization of the concept, the relevance of the referents in the world. That the word *girl* is more and more used to denote 'teenage female human' has to do with a changing view on what childhood and adolescence are, viz. that children and teenagers are not simply smaller versions of adults.

4. Onomasiological fuzziness. Under onomasiological fuzziness we can assume the following three phenomena, which are often hard to keep apart:

1) the semasiological problem that the speaker is unable to distinguish between concepts although the know the existing terms (conceptual ignorance);

2) the encyclopedic problem that a speaker regards different concepts as genetically related, although they might not be so (blurred concepts);

3) the onomasiological problem that the speaker is able to distinguish between different concepts but is unable to assign the right term (referential ignorance).

5. Official language policy. These are laws and law-like rules which an institution creates for its speech community. The appearance of such expressions as *education user, food and beverage consultant, content provider* instead of *student, waiter* and *writer* is due to the official language policy.

6. Inofficial language policy. It does not evolve from any official institution but from members of the language community (for example, youth language which deliberately uses terms that differ from the vocabulary of the older generation).

7. Taboo and political correctness. That is the prohibition to designate things with their real name. Political correctness is a modern form of a taboo. Sometimes euphemisms are dictated by a wish to give more dignity to a profession. Some *barbers* called themselves *hair stylists* and even *hairologists*, airline stewards and stewardesses become *flight attendants*, maids become *house workers*, etc.

8. Disguising language, "misnomers". Misnomers are the words that individuals have decided to coin in order to deceive the hearer by disguising unpleasant concepts (e.g. *friendly fire* instead of "bombardment by own troops").

9. Flattery and insult. Flattery (e.g. *gentleman* ← *gentle man*) consciously keeps to the rule of a speech community, insult (e.g. *whitey*) consciously violates the rules).

10. Prestige, fashion. English borrowed a lot of new words during the Middle English period because the upper-class were made up of French people: *garment, rose, prince, hour, question.*

11. Social or demographic reasons. The contact between the social groups may easily and subconsciously trigger off lexical change – the more intensive the social contact is, the more intensive is the linguistic change. In the history of the English language, the two prominent instances of exchanges between two social groups were the one with the Vikings in the 8th to 11th centuries and the one with the French in the 11th to 15th centuries.

12. Anthropological salience of a concept (natural salience). It is the nature of humans that some concepts automatically raise emotions and thus attract a large number of synonyms. Conceptual fields that are typically affected by this are found in the realm of the basics of life, feelings and values, attributes, hopes and expectations (for example in Germanic languages most designations for the basic concepts *bad* and *good* go to the same roots).

13. Culture induced salience of a concept (cultural salience). The salience of some concepts can change with the change of the culture (for example, the increased importance of arts and fashion has affected the lexical treatment of the conceptual field of colors: from the vague differentiation between *light blue* and *dark blue* to a neat distinction between *cobalt blue*, *royal blue*, *indigo* etc.). Such neat detailed differentiations often originate in expert slang and then penetrate the language of the general speech community.

14. Dominance of the prototype. The phenomenon that some members of the same conceptual field have a higher prominence than others may lead to the

development of the gradual subconscious shift to terms denoting the prototype or the class that the prototype belongs to. One possible result of the process is generalization, or widening of meaning, of the original designation of the prototype (e.g. *kleenex*, originally the trademark for the specific tissue, is now used to refer to any kind of tissue). Another possible result is the specialization, or narrowing of the meaning (e.g. the word *corn* has been a restriction in use, from a general term to denote cereal to the term that denotes a kind of cereal that is prominent in a given region). A third possible result is that the designation of the prototype serves as the basis for the designation of concepts of the same hierarchical level (the prototypical fruit in Europe is the *apple*; other fruits and vegetables which were imported during the last centuries were named according to that term, as to be found in various European languages: *pine-apple* (English), *Apfelsine* (German – 'orange'), *Erdapfel* (German – 'potato'), *sinnaasappel* (Dutch – 'orange'), *pomme de terre* (French – 'potato'), *pomodoro* (Italian – 'tomato').

15. Wish for plasticity, which means the wish for clear, also figurative phrases. Onomatopoetic (sound-imitating) words, hyperbole and tautological compounds (the compounds where one element at least from a historical point of view semantically also included in the other element: *peacock* ← *pea and (hound) dog, Martian* instead of *alien*.

16. Aesthetic-formal reasons: homonymic conflicts and polysemic conflicts. Polysemy is the extension of use of an already existing lexeme and thus a quite usual and economic way to find new designations. However, if one of the meanings fall into the domain of taboos, the entire word-form, including its other senses, might be banned; and here we could speak of polysemic conflict (e.g. in American English the word *ass* for 'horse-like grey animal' was substituted for *donkey* because the former sounds too much like *arse* 'bottom, bum').

17. Communicative formal reasons: homonymic conflict. Homonymic conflicts evolve because of rapid speaking, and dropping the sounds at the end of the vowel, change in the phonetic system, cohabitation or concurrence of speakers of different dialects or languages, cultural reasons which cause originally unproblematic homonymy or polysemy to become conflictuous, change of meaning. If such conflicts occur, the language community basically uses three ways to dispose of the inconvenience: 1) loss one or both words (e.g. *queen* 'queen' vs. *quean* 'prostitute' in Early Modern English – the latter has been replaced by several loanwords, indigenous words and new, word formations); restriction of one of the words only to certain contexts (e.g. *to weigh* 'to measure the weight' vs. *to weigh* 'to lift', the latter only today in to *weigh anchor*).

18. Word play which includes humor, irony and puns (e.g. *perfect lady* 'prostitute'; *to take French leave* 'to leave secretly, without paying'; *to cool* 'look' (back slang)).

19. Excessive length of words. An excessive length of a word can be the reason for lexical change if the word occurs frequently in the language (e.g. *fax* instead of *telefax*).

20. Morphological misinterpretation. This is an unconscious process of interpreting a meaningful \ senseful form into polysyllabic (and seemingly polymorphemic) words. We refer to the result of such process as folk-etymology (e.g. French *contredanse* was reinterpreted as *country dance* in English).

21. Logical formal reasons are responsible for adaptation of morphological irregularities (e.g. apart from monomorphic *cheap* people also coined the derivative *inexpensive*, especially popular in American English).

22. Lack of motivation means that the word is less and less used because it is not motivated enough, i.e. there is no clear, visible motive and a more motivated synonym takes over and the use of the original words is restricted or becomes obsolete.

23. Onomasiological analogy means that a certain phenomenon is modeled, or patterned, on another phenomenon. As a factor for lexical change the term onomasiological analogy can be used when a specific lexical change develops on the analogy of another, previous lexical change. Brought into a formula we can say this: concept A is no longer be expressed by *x*, but by *x+1*.

In analogy to this, the related concept B is no longer be expressed by *y*, but by *y+1* (e.g. shortly after Middle English *spring* was used to express 'the season before the summer', *fall* began to be used to denote 'the season after the summer' on the analogy of this. On a number of CDs we find the form *outro* instead of *close* – an obvious coinage on the analogy of *intro* (itself clipped from *introduction*).

24. Secondary effects do not refer to a lexical change, but the change of the linguistic situation of a certain lexeme; such a change is caused by a related lexeme (e.g. the expressions *to starve* and *to die* were initially used as synonyms in the English language; through its close phonetic relation to the adjective *dead*, *to die* was preferred over *to starve*; when *to die* entered English from Old Norse, it was used more and more often and, as a secondary effect, *to starve* was used restrictedly for 'to die of hunger') [Grzega, Schoner 2007].

We can group all these forces mentioned into more encompassing units, e.g. rater conscious vs. rather subconscious; innovative vs. destructive; speakeroriented forces vs. hearer-oriented forces.

We can also roughly group the above-described factors into extralinguistic and linguistic. By **extra-linguistic causes** of semantic change various changes in the life of the speech community are meant, by purely linguistic causes we mean factors acting within the language system. **Linguistic causes** influencing the process of vocabulary adaptation may be of paradigmatic and syntagmatic character; in dealing with them we have to do with the constant interaction and interdependence of vocabulary units in language and speech, such as differentiation between synonyms, changes taking place in connection with ellipsis and with fixed contexts [Арнольд 1986, 72].

Differentiation of synonyms is a gradual change observed in the course of language history. A well-known example of the differentiation of synonyms is between the words *deer*, *beast* and *animal*. The word *beast* was borrowed from French into Middle English. Before it appeared, the general word for animal was *deer*, which after the word *beast* was introduced became narrowed to its present meaning 'a hoofed animal of which the males have antlers'. Somewhat later, the

Latin word *animal* was also borrowed, then the word *beast* was restricted, and its meaning served to separate the four-footed kind from all the other members of the animal kingdom. Thus, *beast* displaced *deer* and was in its turn itself displaced by the generic *animal*.

Fixed context is another linguistic factor in semantic change when synonyms come into competition and one of them is later used only in particular, fixed context. This the case with the nouns *token* and *sign*. The noun *token* originally had the broad meaning of 'sign'. When brought into competition with the loan word *sign*, it became restricted in use to a number of set expressions such as *love token*, *token of respect* and so became specialised in meaning.

Another example of the linguistic cause of semantic change is **ellipsis** when the words of the frequently used phrase can be omitted (both qualifying and kernel words). For example, in phrases *propose marriage*, *be expecting a baby*, *mass media*, *summit meeting* such parts as *marriage*, *a baby*, *mass*, *meeting* are omitted without destroying the meaning of the original phrase.

§2 Types of Semantic Changes

A number of classification schemes have been suggested for semantic changes. The most widely accepted scheme in the English-speaking academic world is from Bloomfield [Bloomfield 1933]:

1. Narrowing: change from superordinate level to subordinate level (e.g. *skyline* used to refer to any horizon, but now it has narrowed to a horizon decorated by skyscrapers).

2. Widening: change from subordinate level to superordinate level. There are many examples of specific brand names being used for the general product, such as with *Kleenex*).

3. Metaphor: change based on similarity of thing (e.g. *broadcast* originally meant 'to cast seeds out'; with the advent of radio and television, the word was extended to indicate the transmission of audio and video signals, outside of agricultural circles, very few people use *broadcast* in the earlier sense).

4. Metonymy: change based on nearness in space or time (e.g. *jaw* 'cheek'→ 'jaw').

5. Synecdoche: change based on whole-part relation; the convention of using capital cities to represent countries or their governments is an example of this.

6. Hyperbole: change from stronger to weaker meaning (e.g. *astound* 'strike with thunder' → 'surprise strongly').

7. Litotes: change from weaker to stronger meaning (e.g. *kill* 'torment' →'kill'.

8. Degeneration: the acquisition by the word of some derogative emotional charge (e.g. *knave* 'boy' → 'servant'.

9. Elevation: the improvement of the connotational component (e.g. *knight* 'boy' → 'knight').

However, the categorization of Blank [Blank 1998] has gained increasing acceptance:

1. Metaphor: change based on similarity between concepts (e.g. *mouse* 'rodent' → 'computer device').

2. Metonymy: change based on contiguity between concepts (e.g. *horn* 'animal horn' → 'musical instrument').

3. Specialization of meaning: downward shift in taxonomy (e.g. *corn* 'corn' → 'wheat' (UK)).

4. Generalization of meaning: upward shift in taxonomy (e.g. *hoover* 'Hoover vacuum cleaner' → 'any type of vacuum cleaner').

5. Cohyponymic transfer: horizontal shift in a taxonomy (e.g. the confusion of *mouse* and *rat* in some dialects).

6. Antiphrasis: change based on a contrastive aspect of the concepts (e.g. *perfect lady* in the sense of 'prostitute').

7. Auto-antonymy: change of a word's sense and concept to the complementary opposite (e.g. *bad* in the slang sense of 'good').

8. Auto-converse: lexical expression of a relationship by the two extremes of the respective relationship (e.g. *take* in the dialectal use as 'give').

9. Ellipsis: semantic change based on the contiguity of names (e.g. *car* 'cart' → 'automobile', due to the invention of the *(motor) car)*.

10. Folk-etymology: semantic change based on the similarity of names (e.g. French *contredanse* → English *country dance*).

Some authors [Bloomfield 1933] distinguish between nature and consequences of semantic change.

Nature of semantic change:

1) metaphor: change based on a similarity of senses;

2) metonymy: change based on a contiguity of senses;

3) folk-etymology: change based on a similarity of names;

4) ellipsis: change based on a contiguity of names.

Consequences of semantic change:

1) widening of meaning: raise of quantity;

2) narrowing of meaning: loss of quantity;

3) amelioration of meaning: raise of quality;

4) pejoration of meaning: loss of quality.

Results of the semantic changes can also be subdivided into changes of the denotational component and of the connotational component:

Change of the denotational component:

1) restriction of meaning and

2) extension of meaning.

Change of the connotational component:

1) deterioration of meaning and

2) amelioration of meaning.

Causes, nature and results of semantic changes should be viewed as three essentially different but inseparable aspects of one and the same linguistic phenomenon as a change of meaning may be investigated from the point of view of its cause, nature and its consequences.

Apart from many individual studies, etymological dictionaries are prominent reference books for finding out about semantic changes. The internet platform *Onomasiology Online* shows a bibliography of etymological dictionaries of languages world-wide.

KEY TERMS

Degeneration, elevation, extra-linguistic causes of semantic change, linguistic causes of semantic change, narrowing, semantic change, widening.

QUESTIONS

1. What causes the development of meaning?
2. What linguistic causes of semantic changes can be singled out?
3. What extra-linguistic causes of semantic changes can be singled out?
4. What classifications of the results of semantic changes do you know?
5. What are the basic types of associations involved in various semantic changes?

9 HOMONYMY. SYNONYMY. ANTONYMY

§1 *Homonymy. Classification of Homonyms. Sources of Homonyms*

§2 *Types of Semantic Relations (Proximity, Equivalence, Inclusion, Opposition. Hyponymy. Paronymy*

§3 *Synonymy. Classification of Synonyms. Lexical and Terminological Sets. Lexico-Semantic Groups and Semantic Fields*

§4 *Antonymy. Classification of Antonyms*

§1 Homonymy. Classification of Homonyms. Sources of Homonyms

Homonyms (from Greek '*homos*' means 'the same', '*omona*' means 'name') are the words, different in meaning and either identical both in sound and spelling or identical only in spelling or sound. Modern English is rich in homonymous words and word-forms; it is sometimes suggested that the abundance of homonyms in Modern English is to be accounted for by the monosyllabic structure of the commonly used English words. The most widely accepted classification of them was suggested by W.W. Skeat:

1. Homonyms proper (or perfect homonyms.
2. Homophones.
3. Homographs.

Homonyms proper are words identical in pronunciation and spelling: *ball* as 'a round object used in game', *ball* as 'a gathering of people for dancing; *bark* (verb) means 'to utter sharp explosive cries'; *bark* (noun) is 'a noise made by dog or a sailing ship', etc.

Homophones are words of the same sound, but of different meaning, for example: *air – heir, arms – alms, steal – steel, rain – reign, scent – cent,* etc.

Homographs are words different in sound and in meaning but accidentally identical in spelling:

Bow [bou] – ‘a weapon made from a long curved piece of wood, used for shooting arrows’ / [bau] – ‘a forward movement of the top part of the body, especially to show respect’.

Lead [li:d] – ‘the first position at a particular time during a race or competition’/ [led] – ‘a soft heavy grey metal’.

Another classification was suggested by A.I. Smirnitsky who added to Skeat’s classification one more criterion: grammatical meaning. Homonyms fall into three groups:

1) lexical (no link between their lexical meanings), e.g. *fair – fare*, *bow – bow*);

2) grammatical (belong to different parts of speech), e.g. *milk – to milk*, *practice – to practise*;

3) lexico-grammatical, e.g. *tear* (n) – *tear* (v), *bear* (n) – *bare* (a).

According to this classification, we distinguish between full homonyms and partial homonyms. Full homonyms are identical in sound and in all their forms and paradigms; partial homonyms are identical in sound in several forms.

One of source of homonyms is a phonetic change, which a word undergoes in the course of its historical development. As a result of such changes, fewer or more words, which were formerly pronounced differently, may develop identical sound forms and thus become homonyms.

Night and *knight,* for instance, were not homonyms in Old English as the initial “k” in the second word was pronounced. The verb *to write* in Old English had the form *to writan* and the adjective *right* had the form *recht* or *riht*.

Another source of homonyms is borrowing. A borrowed word may, in the final stage of the phonetic adaptation, conclude the form either with a native word or another borrowing. So in the group of homonyms ‘*rite n – to write – right adj.*’ the second and third words are of native origin, whereas ‘*rite*’ is Latin borrowing (Latin *ritus*).

Word building also contributes significantly to the growth of homonymy, the most important type of it being conversion. Such pairs of words as *comb* (*n)* – *comb* (*v)*; *pale* (*adj). – pale* (*v)*; *make* (*v) – make* (*n)*, etc. are numerous in vocabulary. Homonyms of this type refer to different categories of parts of speech and called lexico-grammatical homonyms.

Shortening is a further type of word-building, which increases the number of homonyms. For example *fan* (an enthusiastic admirer of some sportsmen, actor, singer, etc.) is a shortening produced from *fanatic*. Its homonym is a Latin borrowing ‘*fan*’ – an element for waving and produce some cool wind.

The noun, for instance, '*rep*', a kind of fabric, has four homonyms: *rep* = *repertory*; *rep = representative; rep = reputation; rep = repetition*.

One of the most complicated problems in semasiology is to define the place of homonyms among other relationships of words, it is hard to determine clearly where polysemy ends and homonymy begins. In a simple code each sign has only realized in natural language. When several related meanings are associated with the same form, the word is called polysemantic. When two or more unrelated meanings are associated with the same form, these words are homonyms. When two or more forms are associated with the same or nearly the same meaning, they are called the synonyms.

§2 Types of Semantic Relations (Proximity, Equivalence, Inclusion, Opposition. Hyponymy. Paronymy

Linguistics views the language system as consisting of several subsystems all based on oppositions, differences, sameness and positional values [Арнольд 1986]. Regardless of exactly how one conceives of word meaning, or word senses, because they pertain in some manner to categories on the word itself, lexical relationships between word senses mirror, perhaps imperfectly, certain relationships that hold between the categories themselves.

The 'classical' lexical or semantic relationships pertain to identity the meaning, inclusion of meaning, part-whole relationships, and opposite meaning.

Throughout the course, we will use the following terminology for these basic types of semantic relations: proximity, equivalence, inclusion and opposition.

Semantic **proximity** implies that words however different may enter the semantic relations if they share certain semantic features, e.g. words *red* and *green* share the semantic features of 'colour'. Two or more words are synonymous (with respect to one sense of each) if one may substitute for another in a text without changing the meaning of the text. This may be construed more or less strictly; words may be synonymous in one context but not in another; often, putative synonyms, will vary in connotation or linguistic style, and this might or might not be considered significant. More usually, synonyms are actually merely near-synonyms. A higher degree of semantic proximity helps to single out synonyms while a lower degree of proximity provides for a description of broader and less homogeneous semantic groups.

Semantic **equivalence** implies full similarity of meaning of two or more language units. Equivalence should be distinguished from equality and identity, as it is the relation between two elements based on the common feature due to which they belong to the same set [Арнольд 1996, 23]. Semantic equivalence is very

seldom observed in words and is claimed to be much oftener encountered in case of sentences (*She lives in Paris – She lives in the capital of France*).

Semantic equivalence of words is unstable, it tends to turn into the relations of semantic proximity (the realization of the economy principle in the language which 'does not need' words different in form and absolutely similar in meaning.

Inclusion exists between two words if the meaning of one word contains the semantic features constituting the meaning of the other word. The semantic relations of inclusion are called hyponymic relations which may be viewed as the hierarchical relationship between the meanings of the general and individual terms. The general terms – *red, vegetable* – are referred to as classifiers or **hyperonyms**. The more specific term is called the **hyponym** (*scarlet, vermilion, crimson; potato, cucumber, carrot*) is included in a more general term (hyperonym).

The inclusion relationship between verbs is sometimes known as troponymy, emphasizing the point that verb inclusion tend to be a matter of 'manner': *to murmur* is to talk in a certain manner [Fellbaum 1998]. Inclusion relationships are transitive, and thus form semantic hierarchies among word senses; words without hyponyms are leaves and word without hypernyms are roots. (The structures are more usually networks than trees, but we shall use the word 'hierarchy' to emphasis the inheritance aspect of the structures.

The individual terms contain the meaning of the general term in addition to their individual meaning which distinguishes them from each other. Thus, we can define hyponymy as a paradigmatic relation of sense between a more specific or subordinate lexeme, and a more general, or superordinate, lexeme. Hyponym is a core relationship within a dictionary; it expresses basic meaning relationships in the lexicon.

The part–whole relationships **meronymy** and **holonymy** also form hierarchies. Although they may be glossed roughly as *has-part* and *part-of*, we again avoid these ontologically biased terms. The notion of part–whole is overloaded; for example, the relationship between *wheel* and *bicycle* is not the same as that of *professor* and *faculty* or *tree* and *forest*; the first relationship is that of functional component, the second is group membership, and the third is element of a collection.

There is one more interesting example which shows that two words with a common hypernym will often overlap in sense – that is, they will be **nearsynonyms.**

Consider, for example, the English words *error* and *mistake*, and some words that denote kinds of mistakes or errors: *blunder, slip, lapse, faux pas, bull, howler,* and *boner* [Fellbaum 1998, p.8–9]. How can we arrange these in a

hierarchy? First we need to know the precise meaning of each and what distinguishes one from another. Fortunately, lexicographers take on such tasks, and the data for this group of words is given in *Webster's New Dictionary of Synonyms*:

Error implies a straying from a proper course and suggests guilt as may lie in failure to take proper advantage of a guide.

Mistake implies misconception, misunderstanding, a wrong but not always blameworthy judgment, or inadvertence; it expresses less severe criticism than *error*.

Blunder is harsher than *mistake* or *error*; it commonly implies ignorance or stupidity, sometimes blameworthiness.

Slip carries a stronger implication of inadvertence or accident than *mistake*, and often, in addition, connotes triviality.

Lapse, though sometimes used interchangeably with *slip*, stresses forgetfulness, weakness, or inattention more than accident; thus, one says a *lapse* of memory or a *slip* of the pen, but not vice versa.

Faux pas is most frequently applied to a mistake in etiquette.

Bull, howler, and boner are rather informal terms applicable to blunders that typically have an amusing aspect.

At first, we can see some structure: *faux pas* is said to be a hyponym of *mistake*; *bull, howler,* and *boner* are apparently true synonyms – they map to the same word sense, which is a hyponym of *blunder*. However, careful consideration of the data shows that a strict hierarchy is not possible. Neither *error* nor *mistake* is the more-general term; rather, they overlap. Neither is a hypeornym of the other, and both, really, are hyperonyms of the more-specific terms. Similarly, *slip* and *lapse* overlap, differing only in small components of their meaning. And a *faux pas*, as a mistake in etiquette, is not really a type of mistake or error distinct from the others; a faux pas could also be a lapse, a blunder, or a howler.

This example is in no way unusual. On the contrary, this kind of cluster of near synonyms is very common, as can be seen in *Webster's New Dictionary of Synonyms* and similar dictionaries in English and other languages. Moreover, the differences between the members of the near-synonym clusters for the same broad concepts are different in different languages. The members of the clusters of near-synonyms relating to errors and mistakes in English, French, German, and Japanese, for example, *do not line up neatly with one another* or translate directly [ibid]; one cannot use these word senses to build ontology of errors.

These observations have led to the proposal that a fine-grained hierarchy is inappropriate as a model for the relationship between the senses of near-synonyms

in a lexicon for any practical use in tasks such as machine translation and other applications involving fine-grained use of word senses. Rather, what is required is a very coarse-grained conceptual hierarchy that represents word meaning at only a very coarse-grained level, so that whole clusters of near-synonyms are mapped to a single node: their core meaning. Members of a cluster are then distinguished from one another by explicit differentiation of any of the peripheral concepts that are involved in the fine-grained aspects of their denotation (and connotation). In the example above, *blunder* might be distinguished on a dimension of severity, while *faux pas* would be distinguished by the domain in which the mistake is made.

Paronyms are words that are kindred both in sound form and meaning and therefore liable to be mixed but in fact different in meaning and usage and therefore only mistakenly interchanged (*to affect – to effect; prosecute – persecute, moral – morale; human – humane, alternate – alternative, consequent – consequential, continuance – continuation, ingenious - ingenuous*, etc.)

The contrast of semantic features helps to establish the semantic relations of **opposition**, which implies the exclusion of the meaning of one word by another and that the referential areas of the words are opposed. A lexical opposition can be defined as a systematically relevant relationship of partial difference between two partially similar words [Арнольд 1986]. Words that are opposites, generally speaking, share most elements of their meaning, except for being positioned at the two extremes of one particular dimension. Thus *hot* and *cold* are opposites – **antonyms**, in fact – but *telephone* and *Abelian group* are not, even though they have no properties in common (that is, they are "opposite" in every feature or dimension).

There are two types of relations of semantic opposition: polar opposition and relative opposition. Polar oppositions are based on the semantic feature uniting two linguistic units by antonymous relations: *beautiful – ugly, young – old*. Relative oppositions imply that there are several semantic features on which the opposition rests. For example, the verb *to leave* means 'to go away from' and its opposite, the verb *to arrive* denotes 'to reach a place, esp. the end of a journey'. It is quite obvious that the verb *to leave* implies certain finality and movement in the opposite direction from the place specified. The verb *to arrive* lays special emphasis semantically on 'reaching something'. Cruse A. distinguishes several different lexical relations of oppositeness, including **antonymy** of gradable adjectives, **complementarity** of mutually exclusive alternatives (*alive–dead*), and directional opposites (*forwards–backwards*) [Cruse 1986].

In addition to the "classical" lexical relationships, there are many others, which may be broadly thought of as **associative** or **typicality** relations. For

example, the relationship between *dog* and *bark* is that the former is a frequent and typical agent of the latter. Other examples of this kind of relationship include typical instrumentality (*nail–hammer*), cause (*leak–drip*), and location (*doctor–hospital*). Synonymy, inclusion, and associative relations form the basis of the structure of a **thesaurus**. While general-purpose thesauri, such as *Roget's*, leave the relationships implicit, others, especially those used in the classification of technical documents, will make them explicit with labels such as *equivalent term, broader term, narrower term*, and *related term*.

Thus, according to the basic types of semantic relations the linguistic units may be classified into synonyms and antonyms.

§3 Synonymy. Classification of Synonyms. Lexical and Terminological Sets. Lexico-Semantic Groups and Semantic Fields

A characteristic feature of a vocabulary of any language is the existence of synonyms, which is closely connected with the problem of meaning of the word.

The most complicated problem is the definition of the term 'synonyms' (Greek *same* + *name*). There are a great many definitions of the term, but there is no universally accepted one. Traditionally the **synonyms** are defined as words different in sound-form, but identical or similar in meaning in some or all contexts.

The problem of synonymy is treated differently by Russian and foreign scientists. Among numerous definitions of the term in our linguistics the most comprehensive and full one is suggested by I.V. Arnold: "Synonyms are two or more words of the same meaning, belonging to the same part of speech, possessing one or more identical meaning, interchangeable at least in some contexts without any considerable alteration in denotational meaning, but differing in morphemic composition, phonemic shape, shades of meaning, connotation, affective value, style, emotional coloring and valence peculiar to one of the elements in a synonymic group" [Арнольд 1986].

The semantic difference between synonyms is supported by the difference in valency and distribution. Valency is a permanent discrimination characteristic that always accompanies the differentiation in the semantic characteristics.

The outstanding Russian philologist A.I. Smirnitsky suggested the classification of synonyms into 3 types:

1) Ideographic synonyms (or denotational) are words conveying the same notion but differing in shades of meaning: *to understand – to realize, to expect – to anticipate, to look – glance – stare – peep – gaze, healthy – wholesome – sound – sane, to walk – to pace – to stride – to stroll.*

2) Stylistic synonyms are words differing only in stylistic characteristics: *to begin – to commence, enemy – opponent – foe – adversary, to help – to aid – to assist, terrible – horrible – atrocious.*

Very often we cannot draw a strict line between ideographic and stylistic synonyms, as they are interwoven. Difference of the connotational component is accompanied by some variation of the denotational meaning of synonyms, that is why it would be more consistent to subdivide synonymous words into ideographic, stylistic and ideographic-stylistic synonyms, e.g., *intelligent – shrewd – clever – bright – sagacious.*

3) Absolute (perfect, complete) synonyms are words coinciding in all their shades of meaning and in all their stylistic characteristics. Absolute synonyms are not common in a language. In Russian, e.g., *лётчик – пилот – авиатор*; in English, e.g. *pilot – airman – flyer – flyingman*. Examples of these type of synonyms can be found mainly in special literature among technical terms peculiar to this or that branch of knowledge, e.g.: *noun* and *substantive*, *flection* and *inflection* in linguistics.

4) Phraseological synonyms are used in different collocations: *language – tongue* (only *mother tongue*).

In the group of synonyms a dominant word is normally differentiated quite easily (*to look – to glare – to stare – to peep – to peer*). The dominant synonym is usually characterized by high frequency of usage, broad combinability, broad general meaning and lack of connotations.

English is very rich in synonyms. There are about 8,000 synonymic groups in modern English. “Having thrown its doors wide open to Latin and Romance loan words English has greatly enriched its synonymic resources, obtaining delicate shades of meaning and ensuring variety on a scale no other European language can equal [Ullmann 1962]. English is rich in synonyms for the historical reason; its vocabulary has come from two different sources, from Anglo-Saxon on one hand and from French, Latin and Greek on the other. Word borrowing, word derivation, semantic change, and other processes keep going on all the time, making English rich in synonyms [Бабич 2008; 78]. Native words (Anglo-Saxon) are often shorter, less learned and neutral, for example: *begin* (Native, neutral) – *commence* (French, between bookish and colloquial) – *initiate* (Latin, formal).

In each synonymic group, the most general word can be identified. Thus, in the group of adjectives *fashionable – chic – elegant – dressy – modish – smart – stylish – trendy* the word *fashionable* can stand for any of the others; it is called the synonymic dominant.

Synonymy has its characteristic patterns in each language. Its peculiar feature in English is the contrast between simple native words stylistically neutral, literary words borrowed from French and learned words of Greco-Latin origin: *to ask – to question (Fr.) – to interrogate (Lat.); belly – stomach (Fr.) – abdomen (Lat.); gather – assemble (Fr.) – collect (Lat.); empty – devoid (Fr.) – vacuous (Lat.), end – finish (Fr.) – complete (Lat.); rise – mount (Fr.) – ascend (Lat.); teaching – guidance (Fr.) – instruction (Lat.)* [Арнольд 1986, 204].

Euphemisms. Euphemisms (from a Greek word meaning 'to use words of good omen': *eu* – 'well' + *pheme* – 'speaking') are words or expressions thatspeakers substitute for taboo words in order to avoid direct confrontation with topics that are embarrassing, frightening, uncomfortable, etc. Such substitution is a mild or vague connotation for rough and unpleasant expressions: *to expire, to pass away, to depart, to join the majority, to kick the bucket* instead of *to die*.

Lexical groups. Word denoting different things correlated on extralinguistic grounds form lexical sets (*lion, tiger, leopard, puma, cat* refer to the lexical set of 'the animals of the cat family').

Words describing different sides of one and the same general notion are united in a lexico-semantic group (*pink, grey, blue, white* from the lexicosemantic group of 'colours').

If the underlying notion is broad enough to include almost all-embracing sections of the vocabulary we deal with semantic fields (the words *cosmonaut, spacious, to orbit* belong to the semantic field of 'space'). The broadest semantic fields are sometimes referred to as conceptual fields.

Field theory was put forward by a number of German and Swiss scholars in the 1920s and 1930s. However, according to Lyons, its origin can be traced back at least to the middle of the nineteenth century and more generally to the ideas of Humboldt and Herder. According to lexical field theory, the vocabulary of a language is essentially a dynamic and well-integrated system of lexems structured by relationships of meaning. The system is changing continuously by the interaction of various forces such as the disappearance of previously existing lexems, or the broadening or narrowing of the meaning of some lexems. The system is mainly characterized by the general-particular and part-whole relationships, which hold not only between individual lexems and the lexical fields within which they are best interpreted, but also between specific lexical fields and the vocabulary as a whole [Jackson and Amwella 1998]. One of the early theorists, Jost Trier, puts it like this: "Fields are living realities intermediate between individual words and the totality of the vocabulary; as parts of the whole, they share with words the property of being integrated in a large structure and with the

vocabulary the property of being structured in terms of smaller units" [ibid]. Trier argued that individual words acquire their meaning through their relationship to other words within the same semantic field – that is contrast and inclusion – and any extension of the sense of one word would automatically narrow the sense of the neighbouring words.

We should understand the difference between semantic and lexical fields here. A semantic field will vary from one language to another and from one period to another, depending on the way the speakers conceptualize the world around them. In order to be able to communicate about concepts, we impose a set of lexemes over the semantic field – a lexical field – but it is possible that one lexical field may not cover all parts of a semantic field. But, even more commonly, more than one lexical field will be used for any one semantic field, resulting in overlaps between fields (both lexical and semantic).

§4 Antonymy. Classification of Antonyms

Antonyms (Greek 'opposite' + 'name') are words grouped together on the basis of the semantic relations of opposition. By antonyms we usually indicate the words of the same category of speech which have contrastive meanings (*light – dark, hot – cold*).

Antonymy is not equally distributed among parts of speech. Most antonyms are adjectives as qualitative characteristics are easily compared and contrasted. Verbal pairs of antonyms are fewer in number (e.g. *to open – to close, to live – to die*). Nouns are not rich either (e.g. *friend – enemy, love – hatred*). Antonymic adverbs can be divided into two groups: 1) adverbs, derived from adjectives (*warmly – coldly*) and 2) adverbs proper (*now – then, ever – never*).

There are different classifications of antonyms.

Structurally, antonyms can be divided into antonyms of the same root (*to do – to undo, hopeful – hopeless*); and antonyms of different roots (*rich – poor, to die – to live*).

Semantically, antonyms may be classified into contraries contradictories, incompatibles, conversives and vectoral antonyms.

Contraries are antonyms that can be arranged into a series according to the increasing difference in one of their qualities. Contraries are gradable antonyms; they are polar members of a gradual opposition which may have intermediate elements (*cold – cool – warm – hot*).

Contradictories represent the type of semantic relations that exist between pairs like, for example, *dead – alive, single – married*. Contradictory antonymsare

mutually opposed, they deny one another; they form a private binary opposition and are the members of the two-term sets.

Incompatibles are antonyms which are characterized by the relations of exclusion. The use of one member of the set (*morning, afternoon, evening, night*) implies the exclusion of the other member of the group. Incompatibles differ from contradictories as incompatibles are members of the multiple-term sets while contradictories are members of two-term sets.

Conversives (conversive antonyms, converse terms, relational opposites) are words which denote one and the same situation as viewed from different points of view, with a reversal of the order of participants and their roles: *husband – wife, teacher – pupil, to buy – to sell, to lend – to borrow, before – after, north – south*. In a conversive pair, one of the antonyms cannot be used without suggesting the other. If there is a person who is buying something, then there is a person who is selling something to them. *If I am your wife then you are my husband; if you are above me then I am below you*.

Vectorial (or directional) antonyms are words denoting differently directed actions, features, etc.: *up – down, to rise – to fall, to arrive – to depart, clockwise – anticlockwise, to button – to unbutton, to appear – to disappear, to increase – to decrease, to learn – to forget*.

Sometimes linguistic units combine two opposite meanings in its semantic structure; it is called **enantiosemy** (or **autoantonymy**). Such words are scarce in the language (e.g. *odor* n. 1) an agreeable scent, fragrance; 2) a disagreeable smell). Unlike antonymy, enantiosemantic words have different lexical and syntactical valency.

In British and American English enantiosemantic words may develop opposite meanings, e.g. *public school* in the USA is a state school, whereas in Britain it means a private school.

Not every word has an antonym, though practically every word has a synonym. Words of concrete denotation have no antonyms (*table, blackboard*).

Unlike synonyms, antonyms do not differ either in style, emotional coloring or distribution.

Antonyms are words of the same part of speech having common denotational component of meaning but expressing contrasting points of the same notion. They have the same grammatical and lexical valency and often occur in the same contexts; they represent an important group of expressive means of the language.

KEY TERMS

Antonym, holonymy, homograph, homonym, proper, homophone, euphemism, inclusion, hyponym, lexical group, meronymy, opposition, paronym, equivalence, proximity.

QUESTIONS

1. What are homonyms?
2. What types of homonyms do you know?
3. What are the basic types of intralinguistic relations of words?
4. What is the semantic proximity of meaning?
5. What is the semantic equivalence of meaning?
6. What is inclusion?
7. What is synonymic dominant?
8. What do the terms ‘hyperonym’ and ‘hyponym’ mean?
9. What is opposition as the type of semantic relations?
10. According to what principles are synonyms classified?
11. According to what principles are antonyms classified?
12. Give definitions to such terms as ‘lexical set’, ‘terminological set’, ‘lexicosemantic group’, ‘semantic field’.

10 THE ORIGIN OF ENGLISH WORDS

§1 *Etymology. Origin of English Words*

§2 *Native words (Indo-European and Germanic Origin)*

§3 *Borrowed Words*

§4 *Assimilation of Borrowings*

§5 *Etymological Doublets. International Words*

The English language has throughout its history accepted words from other languages with which it has been in contact. Though some languages avoid as far as possible the use of alien terms (they substitute them and when an expression for a new object or a new idea is needed they make it of native elements), England “has always welcomed the alien” [Hughes 2000], and many hundreds of words of non-English origin are now the essential part of the English vocabulary and it is quite difficult to distinguish it from the native stock if you do not know the etymology.

§1 Etymology. Origin of English Words

Etymology (from Greek *etymon* 'truth' + *logos* 'learning') is a branch of linguistics that studies the origin and history of words tracing them to their earliest determinable source. The term 'etymology' was coined by the Stoics, a group of Greek philosophers and logicians who flourished from about the beginning of the 4th century BC. They noticed a lack of regularity in the correspondences between the forms of the language and their respective contents. In other words, they found no necessary connection between the sounds of the language on one hand and the thing for which the sounds stood on the other. Since they were convinced that language should be regularly related to its content, they undertook to discover the original forms called the 'etyma' (roots) in order to establish the regular correspondence between language and reality. This was the beginning of the study known today as etymology.

Occasionally, an erroneous origin has become enshrined in the language by the process of 'folk etymology', in which the pronunciation or spelling of a word is modified on a false analogy. The word *bridegroom*, for example, has no historical connection with the word *groom*. The Old English antecedent of *bridegroom* is *brydguma*, where *guma* is a word for 'man'. The word ought to have become *bridegoom* in modern English, but as the word *guma* felt out, the form *goom* was popularly reinterpreted with a change in pronunciation and spelling as *groom* (Yallop 32).

One of the difficulties faced by etymological studies is that some words are not etymologically related to ancient forms. It is therefore difficult to establish their origin. Another difficulty is that while it is possible to specify the exact time when some terms entered the language, for example through borrowing, it is clearly mpossible to say exactly when a form was dropped, especially since words can disappear from use for various reasons [Jackson and Ze'Amwell 1998].

The most crucial difficulty faced with etymological studies is that there can be no 'true' or 'original' meaning, since human language stretches too far back in istory.

Etymological information goes beyond the origin of words. It also makes reference to cognates (i.e. words related in form) in other languages.

Furthermore, in the case of borrowed words, it gives the source language, together with the date when the borrowing took place. Finally, it supplies any other information on the previous history of the word. As it was pointed by Jackson, "knowledge of etymology may help some learners to understand and retain new vocabulary items" [ibid].

English belongs to the group of Germanic languages, i.e. English goes back to the same proto-language that is also the "mother" of Dutch, Low German, High German, Norwegian, Danish, Swedish, Icelandic. The group of Germanic languages, in turn, belongs to the Indo-European language family, like the Romanic languages (e.g. Portuguese, Spanish, French, Italian) and their "mother" Latin, the Celtic languages (e.g. Welsh, Irish, Scottish Gaelic), the Balto-Slavic languages (e.g. Polish, Czech, Croatian, Russian, Lithuanian) and others.

The date of the birth of English is normally given as 449, when the three Germanic tribes of the Angles, Saxons and Jutes are said to have settled over from the continental areas by the Northern Sea. The first written records of English can be dated back to the 7th century. The period from the mid-5th century to around 1100 is referred to as Old English, the period from 1100 to around 1500 as Middle English, the period from 1500 to around 1750 as Early Modern English and the period thereafter as Modern English.

English is generally regarded as the richest of the world's languages with exceptionally large vocabulary and ability to borrow and accept words. Thus, according to their origin English words may be subdivided into two main sets: native words which belong to the original English word stock and known from the earliest available manuscripts of the Old English period and borrowings, words taken over from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language.

The English vocabulary has been enriched throughout its history by borrowings from foreign languages; this process has been going on for more than 1,000 years.

The fact that up to 80 per cent of the English vocabulary consists of borrowed words is due to the specific conditions of the English language development. Some important landmarks of British history that influenced the formation of the language:

a) Celtic tribes inhabiting Britain: Britons and Gaels; languages: Welsh, Cornish (now extinct), Irish, Scots, Manx;

b) the Roman conquest : 55–54 B.C. – 43 A.D. – permanent conquest of Britain under the emperor Claudius;

c) the Anglo-Saxon conquest: mid-5th century – the invasion of Germanic tribes (Angles, Saxons and Jutes); the start of the history of the English language;

d) the Scandinavian conquest (the 8th – the 11th cent);

e) the Norman conquest: 1066;

f) the Renaissance period (Greek, Italian, Spanish, French (Parisian borrowings), Russian.

When the Normans crossed over from France most English people spoke Old English, or Anglo-Saxon – a language of about 30,000 words; the Normans spoke the mixture of French and Latin. It took about three centuries for the languages to blend into one. Latin and Greek have been the source of vocabulary since the 16th century. There are practically no limits to the kinds of words that are borrowed; words are employed as symbols for every part of culture.

§2 Native words (Indo-European and Germanic Origin)

Native Words. By the Native Element we understand words that are not borrowed from other languages. Many of the common words of Modern English are native or Old English words (home*, stone, meat, drive, ride sing, six, you ,we,* etc.). The Native Element is the basic element, though it constitutes only up to 20–25 % of the English vocabulary.

Diachronically native words can be sub-divided into three main layers:

1. Indo-European elements. Since English belongs to the Germanic branch of the Indo-European group of languages, these words form the oldest layer and the basic word-stock of all Indo-European languages. The words belonging to this layer can be divided into definite semantic groups:

a) words expressing family relations (kinship terms): *father, mother, son, daughter, brother;*

b) words naming objects and phenomena of nature: *sun, moon, star, wind, water, hill, stone;*

c) words naming parts of the body: *foot, eye, ear, nose, tongue, tooth, heart, lip;*

d) names of trees, birds, animals: *tree, birch, cow, wolf, cat, goose, wolf, corn;*

e) names describing basic actions: *come, know, sit, work, bear, do, be, stand;*

f) words expressing physical properties and qualities: *right, quick, glad, sad, red, white, hard, new;*

g) numerals from one to one hundred: *one, two, three, ten, twenty, eighty, hundred;*

i) pronouns (personal, demonstrative, interrogative: *I, you, he, my, that, who* (*they* is a Scandinavian borrowing).

2. Common Germanic words. The Common Germanic stock includes words common for German, Norwegian, Dutch, Icelandic. They also constitute a very large layer of the vocabulary:

a) words naming parts of the body: *head, arm, finger*;

b) words naming periods of time: *summer, winter, time, week*;

c) words for objects and phenomena of nature: *storm, rain, flood, ground, sea, earth;*

d) words denoting materials and artifacts: *bridge, house, shop, coal, iron, lead, cloth*;

e) words naming different garments: *hat, shirt, shoe*;

f) words naming animals, birds, plants: *sheep, horse, fox, crow, oak, grass*;

g) verbs: *buy, drink, find, forget, go, have, live, make*;

i) pronouns: *all, each, self, such*;

j) adverbs: *again, forward, near*;

k) prepositions: *after, at, by, over, under, from, for*.

Native words are characterized by a wide range of lexical and grammatical valency, a developed polysemy, a great word-building power and the capacity of forming phraseological units.

§3 Borrowed Words

Borrowed words. English is generally regarded as the richest of the world's languages and it owes its exceptionally large vocabulary to its ability to borrow and absorb words from outside. "The English language is the sea which receives tributaries from every region under heaven", observes

Ralph Waldo Emerson. English has taken over words from most of the other languages with which it has had contact. A **borrowing** (a loan word) is a word taken over from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language.

Borrowing may be direct or indirect (through another language). Many Greek words came into English through Latin and many Latin words through French.

1. Latin borrowings (Latin – Continental, Latin – Celtic, Latin connected with the adoption of Christianity):

a) military terms: *wall, street, pitch*;

b) trade terms: *pound, inch*;

b) containers: *cup, dish*;

c) food: *butter, cheese*;

d) words connected with building: chalk, pitch;

e) names of towns: *Manchester, Lancaster* (*caster* – 'camp');

f) clerical terms: *dean, cross, alter, abbot, church, devil, priest, anthem, school*.

Some scientists point out three periods of Latin borrowings in Old English:

(1) Latin-Continental borrowings,

(2) Latin-Celtic borrowings, and

(3) Latin borrowings connected with the adoption of Christianity.

Military and trade terms, names of containers and food, words connected with buildings belong to the first period. These were concrete words that were adopted in purely oral manner, and they were fully assimilated in the language.

Such words as *port, mountain* and *fountain* were borrowed from Latin through Celtic. With the adoption of Christianity mostly religious or clerical terms were borrowed.

Latin words can still be found in uses as diverse as the English translation of Freud (the *ego* and the *id*) and the mottoes of army regiments (such as *Ubique* 'everywhere', the motto of the British Royal Artillery). Some Latin phrases are indeed everywhere, even if no longer fully understood (Yallop 34). Notable examples are *etc*., the abbreviation form of *et cetera*, 'and the rest'; *e.g.*, short for *exempli gratia*, 'for the sake of example'; and *a.m.* and *p.m.* (*ante meridiem, post meridiem*). Latin has been regularly used in anatomical description (*levator labii superior*, 'the upper lip raiser' muscle, or *corpus callosum*, the 'callous (hard) body in the brain), and in botany and zoology (*quercus* 'oak' for a genus of trees, or *felis* 'cat' for the genus of animals that includes domestic cats and some closely related species). When a profession has sought an erudite vocabulary to mark off its supposed area of competence, it has usually looked for classical languages for its jargon. The law, for example, has taken a lot of words from Latin such as *ad litem* ('in a lawsuit'), *bona fide* ('with good faith'), *corpus delicti* ('body of offence'), *and ultra vires* ('beyond one's legal power'), *ejusdem generis* ('of the same kind'), *in personam* ('against the person'). *De facto, in camers, sine die, sub judice* are also known in legal context.

Latin is considered one of the principal languages that affected the vocabulary of English. Scandinavian words were borrowed most freely between the ninth century and the twelfth, French words from twelfth to fourteenth, but Latin words have been making their way into English throughout almost the whole period of its history, first into the spoken language, later into written English (through religion, literature and science).

2. Greek borrowings often came into English by way of Latin or French: *athlete, acrobat, elastic, magic, rhythm, martyr*.

Latin and Greek words are used to denote names of sciences, political and philosophical trends and have academic and literary associations. Most of such borrowings are of the Middle English period and connected with the Great Revival of Learning: *formula, inertia, maximum, memorandum, veto, superior, per capita, dogma, drama, theory, pseudonym.* Medicine has taken a lot from Greek as well:

an inflammatory disease ends in *–itis* (*bronchitis, peritonitis*), a surgical removal ends in *–ectomy* (*hysterectomy*, *vasectomy*), the medical care of particular groups ends in *–iatrics* (*geriatrics*, *paediatrics*).

Many words were borrowed in the sixteenth century when interest in classic culture was at its height. Directly or indirectly, Greek contributed *athlete, acrobat*, *elastic, magic, rhythm,* and many others.

There are some classical borrowings in modern English as well: *anemia, aspirin, iodine, atom, calorie, acid, valency*, etc. There are words formed with the help of Latin and Greek morphemes (root or affixes): *tele, auto*, etc. Words like *altimeter, electroencephalogram, hydrophone* and *telespectroscope* have been built from Latin and Greek elements to deal with relatively recent technological innovations. "It has become so customary to use such elements as building blocks, that Latin and Greek are often combined in hybrid forms, as in Greek *tele-* with Latin *vision*, or Latin *appendic-* with Greek *–itis*" [Yallop 2004, 34].

Such twentieth-century concepts as *social security, multimedia, globalization, privatization, interdisciplinarity* and *interdiscursivity* attract classical naming of Latin and Greek origin.

3. French borrowings fall into several semantic groups as well:

a) government terms: *govern, administer, assembly, record, parliament*;

b) words connected with feudalism: *peasant, servant, control, money*;

c) military terms: *assault, battle, soldier; army, siege, defense, lieutenant*;

d) words connected with jury: *bill, defendant, plaintiff, judge, fine*;

e) words connected with art, fashion: *dance, pleasure, lace, pleat, beauty, figure, chic, prestige, cartoon, elite, avant-garde, entourage*.

Early French borrowings were fully assimilated; the opposite tendency is to be discerned in the later French borrowings. During the seventeenth century there was a change in the character of the borrowed words. From French, English has taken lots of words to do with cooking, the arts, and a more sophisticated life-style in general (*leisure, repertoire, resume, cartoon, critique, cuisine, chauffer, questionnaire, coup, bidet, detente*).

French borrowings of the period of the Norman Conquest have become part and parcel of the English vocabulary. The number of borrowings were so large that it was made possible to borrow morphemes and form word-hybrids, e.g.: *god – goddess (-ess* of French origin was added to the English stem), *short – shortage*, *bewilder – bewilderment*, *baker – bakery*. French stems can form hybrids with the English affixes: *beauty – beautiful*, *trouble – troublesome*.

English has continued to borrow words from French right down to the present, and as the result over a third of modern English vocabulary derives from French.

4. Scandinavian borrowings: *take, leg, hit, skin, same, both, though, they, them, their, cake, egg, kid, wish, want, craft*.

The impact of Old Norwegian on the English language is hard to evaluate. Nine hundred words are of Scandinavian origin. There are probably hundreds more we cannot account for definitely, and in the old territory of the Danelaw in northern England words like *beck* 'stream' and *garth* 'yard' survive in regional use; words beginning with *sk-* like *sky* are also Norse.

In many cases Scandinavian borrowings stood alongside their English equivalents. The Scandinavian *skirt* originally meant the same as the English *shirt*. The Norse *deyja* 'to die' joined its Anglo-Saxon synonym, the English *steorfa* (which ends up as 'starve'). Other synonyms include: *wish* and *want*, *craft* and *skill*, *rear* and *raise* [Бабич 2008].

5. Borrowings from other languages. Over 120 languages are on record as sources of the English vocabulary: Japanese (*karate, judo, tycoon*); Arabic (*algebra, algorithm, fakir, giraffe, sultan, harem, mattress*; Turkish (*yogurt, kiosk, tulip*), Farsi (*caravan, shawl, bazaar*); Italian (*piano, alto, incognito, bravo, ballerina, motto, casino, mafia, artichoke*); German (*blitz, hamburger, kindergarten, seminar, waltz*); Portuguese (*marmalade, cobra*); Spanish (*siesta, patio, mosquito, comrade, tornado, banana, guitar*); Dutch (*dock, limp, pump. yacht, cruise, gin, cookie*); Finnish (*sauna)*; Russian (*balalaika, tundra, robot*).

One more point to be mentioned is the indirect way of coming to the language of a large number of borrowings, not by direct contact with the language which is their source, but through an intervening language.

In this way many of the earlier Italian words came to English through French, the Italian of the Renaissance having reached France first, and thence having passed into English. The Earliest borrowings from the east came into English through Latin, many of them having already passed through Greek before reaching Latin. Most of such words are the objects of trade and culture. The word *pepper*, for instance, came first from some eastern language into Greek, thence into Latin and thence into English; *elephant* was first Egyptian, then Greek, Latin, French, and finally English; *camel* was originally Semitic, and this too passed through Greek and Latin before reaching English. *Albatross* is based ultimately on a Phoenician word which drifted successfully into Greek, Arabic and Portuguese, and then into English. *Apricot* began a long history in Latin, from which it passed

in succession to Greek, Arabic, Spanish, French, and English. *Silk* has been Chinese, Greek, Latin, and finally English [ibid, 6].

There are practically no limits to the kinds of words that are borrowed. Words are employed as symbols for every part of culture. When cultural elements are borrowed from one culture to another, the words for such cultural features often accompany the feature. Also, when a cultural feature of one society is like that of another, the word of a foreign language may be used to designate this feature in the borrowing society. In English a material culture word *rouge* was borrowed from French, a social culture word *republic* from Latin, and a religious culture word *baptize* from Greek [Бабич 21]. Such words become completely absorbed into the system, so that they are not recognized by speakers of the language as foreign. "Many of the words we shall have to class as 'foreigners' will seem at first sight 'true-born Englishmen', for they have been part of our vocabulary for centuries, but they have only a 'certificate of naturalization' not a right by birth." [Sheard 1954, 183].

We may distinguish different types of borrowing from one foreign language by another: (1) when the two languages represent different social, economic and political units and (2) when the two languages are spoken by those within the same social, economic, and political unit. The first of these types has been usually called 'cultural borrowing', while the second type has been termed 'intimate borrowing' [Бабич 2008, 22].

§4 Assimilation of Borrowings

Assimilation of borrowings is the adaptation of borrowed words to the system of the receiving language in pronunciation, in grammar and in spelling. According to the degree of assimilation all borrowed words can be divided into three groups:

1. completely assimilated borrowings, that correspond to all the standards of the language, follow all morphological, phonetical and orthographic standards, take an active part on word-formation, they are morphologically analyzable; borrowings of this type may be found in all the layers of older borrowings (*cheese, face, husband, animal*);

2. Partially assimilated borrowed words may be subdivided depending on the aspect that remains unaltered into:

a) borrowings not completely assimilated graphically (*ballet, buffet, cliche, cafe, bouquet*);

b) borrowings not completely assimilated phonetically (*machine, cartoon, police, prestige, regime, bourgeois)*;

c) borrowings not assimilated grammatically (*crisis – crises, phenomenon – phenomena*);

d) borrowings not assimilated semantically as they denote objects and notions peculiar to the country they came from (*sari, sombrero, rickshaw, sherbet).*

3. Unassimilated borrowings or barbarisms are words from other languages used by English people in conversation and in writing but not assimilated in any way, and for which there are corresponding English equivalents (*addio, ciao, coup-d'etat, ennui, eclat, en regle, par excellence, a priori, ad hoc*). Such words and phrases may be printed in italics, or in inverted commas, and so forth.

Borrowed words can be classified according to the aspect which is borrowed:

1) translation borrowings (loans) are words and expressions formed from the material already existing in the language but according to the pattern taken from the source language (*pipe of piece, masterpiece, wall newspaper, five-year plan*);

2) semantic borrowings are understood as the development in an English word of a new meaning under the influence of another language (*pioneer*).

Basically, the word-coiner can either adopt a foreign form (importation, loans) or pattern the formation with the own language material on a foreign form (substitution, calques). In English language history we have a clear preference for substitutions in Old English, and a growing degree of importations in later stages of English.

1. Importation means that we simply adopt (and often adapt) a foreign word instead of running through the entire word-finding process (e.g. Italian, Spanish *mouse* for 'a computer mouse').

In English language history the most important donor languages for loans are Latin (in various waves from the late 6th century until today: Ecclesiastical Latin, Medieval Latin, and with many Greek elements Neo-Latin), Old Norse (8th to 11th centuries, first in spoken language – which is why most Scandinavian words do not appear in English texts until the 11th century), and French (11th to 15th centuries).

2. Substitution means that at some part in the word-finding process you look at the equivalent in the foreign language or variety and then try to take your own material to copy the formation in the foreign language or variety (calques).

There are several ways of modelling indigenous coinages on a foreign designation.

1) if the foreign term is a composite form, you simply translate the single elements with the semantic equivalents of your own language; this is called *loan*

translation (e.g. German *Welt-anschauung* → English *world view*; English *skyscraper* → French *gratte-ciel,* Italian *gratta・cielo,* Spanish *rasca・cielo)*;

2) if the foreign term is a composite form, you look at the iconeme behind the formation and try to render this iconeme somehow with indigenous language material; this is called *loan rendering*, or *loan rendition* (e.g. English *sky・scraper* → German *Wolken・kratzer* (literally 'cloud scraper');

3) if the foreign term is not a composite form, you look at the entire semantic range of the word and then search for indigenous equivalents of the other senses of the foreign word and then provide your indigenous word with the same semantic range; this is called *loan meaning* (e.g. English *mouse,* German *maus*, French *souris*, Spanish *ratyn* for 'computer mouse').

It is, of course, not always clear whether there is a foreign model or whether the designation is an independent coinage.

Substitution may be partial if one part of a foreign composite is directly borrowed and the other part is translated. These formations are occasionally also referred to as loan blends (e.g. English *Saturday* ← Latin *Saturni dies*).

Sometimes a word is not borrowed in its exact original construction (e.g. German *Happy End* ← English *happy ending).* Sometimes a word is coined with foreign material although this very formation with the foreign material does not exist in the donor language itself; in these instances we speak of *pseudo-loans* (e.g. English *difficult* could also be termed a back-derivation from the true Gallicism *difficulty* instead of an importation of French *difficile*. French and Italian *footing* was coined for English *jogging*, German and Dutch *hometrainer* for English *exercise bicycle*).

§5 Etymological Doublets. International Words

Etymological Doublets. It happens frequently in the course of the history of the English language that a word is borrowed more than once. For example, the Latin word *uncial* was adopted by Germanic as a measure of length, and appears in Old English as *ynce*, Modern English *inch*; a few centuries later English borrowed a word again, this time in its Romance form, **untsia*, which becomes in Old English *yntse,* used as a measure of weight; the French descendent, *unce*, *once*, of Romance **untsia*, came into Middle English, again as a measure of weight, and has become Modern English *ounce*; all these were popular loans, but the final version, *uncial*, borrowed in the 17th century from Latin *unciālis*, the adjective of *uncia*, is definitely a learned loan.

English has a particularly large number of these repeated borrowings due to the fact that numerous borrowings from Latin in the Early Middle Ages were followed by even more plentiful adoptions from French, which developed from Latin, and further by continued contact between English and French.

Even within the Middle English period a word could be borrowed twice from different dialects of French. Not very many original Latin words appear in all these forms in Modern English, since a new borrowing has often ousted an earlier one, but a large number may be still found, cf. *catch, chase, captive; mint, money; wine, vine(yard); drake, dragon; master, magistrate; trivet, tripod; castle,chateau*, etc.

As we can see form the examples above, if a word was borrowed twice into the language, it can have different forms and meanings, and we will have to differentiate different words with different spelling and meanings, though historically they come back to one and the same word.

These are the words of the same root but came into the language by different ways:

1) one of the doublets is native, the other is borrowed (*screw* (n) – Scandinavian, *shrew* (n) – English);

2) both doublets may be borrowed from different languages, but these languages must be co-generic (*captain* – Latin, *chieftain* – French, *canal* – Latin, *channel* – French);

3) etymological doublets may be borrowed from the same language but in different historical periods (*corpse* – Norman, *corps* – Parisian);

4) both doublets are native, but one originates from the other (*history – story, fantasy – fancy, shadow – shade*).

International words are defined as words of identical origin and which occur in several languages as the result of simultaneous borrowings and convey notions significant in communication. We can single out several groups:

1) names of sciences of Latin and Greek origin: *philosophy, mathematics, chemistry, biology, medicine, linguistics*;

2) terms of arts: *music, theatre, drama, tragedy, comedy, artist*;

3) political terms: *politics, policy, revolution, progress, democracy, communism;*

4) scientific and technological words: *antibiotic, atomic, television, sputnik, bionics, gene*;

5) sports: *football, volley-ball, baseball, hockey, cricket, rugby, tennis, golf*;

6) foodstuffs: *coffee, chocolate, banana, coca-cola, mango, avocado, grapefruit.*

The English language contributed a considerable number of international words to world languages. International words are mainly borrowings.

KEY TERMS

Assimilation, borrowing, calque, etymological doublet, etymology, international word, importation, hybrid, native element, origin, translation borrowing, semantic borrowing.

QUESTIONS

1. How can you explain the fact that English vocabulary contains such an immense number of words of foreign origin?
2. Which words are called native?
3. What is a borrowing?
4. What is the diachronic division of borrowed words?
5. What are the earliest groups of English borrowings?
6. What words do Indo-European and Common Germanic stocks include?
7. What languages does the English language borrow words from?
8. What degrees of assimilation can be singled out?
9. In what spheres of communication do international words frequently occur?
10. What do we understand by etymological doublets?

11 VARIANTS AND DIALECTS OF ENGLISH

§1 Accents, Dialects and Variants of English. Received Pronunciation

English has always played a number of social roles such as conquering, subordinate, colonizing and global; and from the beginning English has existed in

regional varieties. Today the world varieties are so obvious and marked that “the question is increasingly asked where there is an English language or rather a variety of ‘Englishes’” [Hughes, 2000].

Different varieties of English can be recognized according to the user and to the use.

Speech variety is the form of language used by any group of speakers. It may refer to the basic lexicon, phonology, syntax, and morphology shared by members of the group or to the speech used by the members of the group in particular situations [Southerland 1997]. We can make judgments about regional background, social status, ethnicity, other social and personal traits based on the kind of the language people are using.

There are several types of speech variety: the standard language, social speech varieties (so called sociolects), regional speech varieties (regional dialects) and functional speech varieties (or registers).

Standard variety ranks above the others; it is normally employed by the government and the media, used and taught in educational institutions, more resistant to any changes than the other varieties.

Sociolects are used by particular social groups and may be associated with socioeconomic status of the speaker (income level, type of occupation, type of housing, educational level, etc.) as well as with ethnic, gender, occupational, or age groups.

Functional speech varieties show the appropriateness to particular speech situation, registers can be casual, formal, simplified, technical, etc.

In this lecture we will focus more on regional varieties of English.

An **accent** is a manner of pronunciation of a language. Accents can be confused with *dialects* which are varieties of language differing in vocabulary and syntax as well as pronunciation.

A **dialect** (from the Greek word διάλεκτος, *dialektos*) is a variety of a language that is characteristic of a particular group of the language's speakers.

The term is applied most often to regional speech patterns, but a dialect may also be defined by other factors, such as social class. Sometimes in stories authors use dialects to make a character stand out.

In popular usage, the word "dialect" is sometimes used to refer to a lesserknown language (most commonly a regional language), especially one that is unwritten or not standardized. This use of the word dialect is often taken as pejorative by the speakers of the languages referred to since it is often accompanied by the belief that the minority language is lacking in vocabulary, grammar, or importance.

It is important to understand that the boundaries where one accent ceases to be heard and another takes its place are not distinct at all. Accents and dialects blend subtly and imperceptibly into one another. Moreover, the variation of the language the people of this or that region are using is correlated with such social phenomena as age, gender, socio-economic status, ethnicity and local affiliations of both the speaker and the hearer, and can result in shirt-term, but also longterm, language change. 'Dialect areas' are not fixed, "accents shade one into another as individual speakers espouse features drawn from a range of accents to which they have access and that are indicative not just of their regional connections but also of their social needs and aspirations" [Kortmann 2004; 27].

It is not only for phonological features but for grammatical usage and lexical choice as well.

The traditional dialects spoken in the Northern Isles (Orkney and Shetland) can be describes as varieties of Scots with a substantial component of Scandinavian features manifested at all levels of language.

Variants of English are regional varieties possessing a literary norm. There are distinguished variants existing on the territory of the United Kingdom and variants existing outside the British Isles.

Standard English is a term generally applied to a form of the English language that is thought to be normative for educated native speakers. It encompasses grammar, vocabulary, spelling and pronunciation.

Received Pronunciation (RP) is a form of pronunciation of the English language (specifically British English) which has long been perceived as uniquely prestigious amongst British accents. About two percent of Britons speak with the RP accent in its pure form. Received Pronunciation or Southern English is widespread among educated population and has no local coloring. Speakers are distinguished from other educated people by the fact that it is impossible to determine their origin from their accent. As RP is used in teaching of English worldwide and for purposes of wide communication we can refer to it as a supraregional accent model [Kortmann 2004].

Received Pronunciation may be referred to as the **Queen's** (or **King's**) **English**, on the grounds that it is spoken by the monarch; however, that term is more often used to refer to correctly *written* Standard British English, as in the Queen's English Society. It is also sometimes referred to as **BBC English**, because it was traditionally used by the BBC, yet nowadays these notions are slightly misleading. Queen Elizabeth II uses one specific form of English, whilst BBC presenters and staff are no longer bound by one type of accent. There have also long been certain words that have had more than one RP pronunciation, such as

again, *either*, and *moor*. It is sometimes referred to as **Oxford English**. This was not because it was traditionally the common speech of the city of Oxford, but specifically of Oxford University; the production of dictionaries gave Oxford University prestige in matters of language. The extended versions of the Oxford Dictionary give Received Pronunciation guidelines for each word. RP is an accent (a form of pronunciation), not a dialect (a form of vocabulary and grammar). It may show a great deal about the social and educational background of a person who uses English. A person using the RP will typically speak Standard English although the reverse is not necessarily true (e.g. the standard language may be spoken by one in a regional accent, such as a Yorkshire accent; but it is very unlikely that one speaking in RP would use it to speak Scots or Geordie).

The vast majority of Englishes (all except British English) can be divided into several groups. Thus, J. Jenkins [Jenkins 2003; 22] divides them into two big groups: the new Englishes which resulted from the first diaspora and the New Englishes which resulted from the second. The first group consists primarily of the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa. The variants of English on those territories developed independently, mixed with dialects and accents in the settlements and have been in the usage since colonial days. The variants of English of the second group are (and were) learned as the second language or as one language within a wider multilingual repertoire. In this group Indian English, Philippine English, Nigerian English and Singaporean English may be included.

In some other works the variants of English are described in a slightly different way. For example, M. Saxena identifies three broad diaspora of Englishes that are relevant to understanding of the interface between the sociolinguistics of colonization and globalization [Saxena 2010, 22]. Diaspora Type I comprises speakers of English who have re-located from an Englishspeaking homeland or nation. They include speakers of varieties of English in Canada, Australia and New Zealand. In these countries English is the *de facto* language of establishment business whether or not this is expressed in any constitutional document. The Englishes that have emerged out of colonial enterprise form Diaspora Type II and are found in the British Commonwealth (Nigeria, Kenya, Jamaica, India, Hong Kong, the Philippines and the other former British colonies). The English language is the part of the language policy system and the official language of the countries. The third group, Diaspora Type III comprises those that have evolved either as the consequence of or in response to global market-cum-political forces: Japan, South Korea and China among others. This Diaspora leans towards so-called English home-land varieties of the United States and Britain in terms of attitudes and preferences. The other authors [James 2011] would call it emerging varieties with

one sub-group to be expected to appear with such a prospective member as Euro-English. Definitely there is no longer sovereignty of one 'kind' of English over the others, and the term 'variety' entails not only standard and national varieties, but also regional, social and ethnic dialects, group specific-language forms, contextually and stylistically defined expression, and so on, for use their respective cultural contexts.

§2 Lingua Franca. Pidgins. Creoles

There is also a group of languages which are *called contact languages*, they are creoles and pidgins.

Pidgin is a speech variety which develops when the speakers of two or more different languages come into contact with each other and do not know each other's language. Pidgins are not native languages of any group and may have arisen as a result of a natural tendency to simplify the language in contact situations between people. Pidgins can be called *auxiliary* languages, as they result from the communicative strategies when speakers of different languages try to bridge the communicative gap. The characteristics of a very basic type of pidgin may be single words, simplified grammar and exaggerated gestures used by a traveler when he contacts with local people (though it might be referred to as *jargon* [Holm, 2000]).

Thomason and Kaufman [1988] singled out the characteristics which define a pidgin:

1. Pidgins have no native speakers, i.e. they are second languages for everyone who speaks them.

2. They are governed by convention, i.e. they have vocabulary and grammatical structures, however basic, which are accepted by its speakers.

3. They are not mutually intelligible with their source languages. Thus, 'Pidgin English' is sufficiently different from English which a native speaker of English must learn.

4. Pidgins have grammars which are simpler than the grammars of their source languages.

Pidgins are a subset of a larger group of languages called **lingue franche** or **languages of wider communication.**

Lingua franca is a language used for communication among speakers of different languages. English is considered to be the most important lingua franca today as it is used as a means of communication among large numbers of people.

The term 'lingua franca' itself is an extension of the use of the name of the original 'Lingua Franca', a medieval trading pidgin used in the Mediterranean

region – an important maritime trading zone where traders' native languages included many very different languages such as Portuguese, Greek, Arabic and Turkish.

The pidgins which have survived longest and are spoken over the widest areas also serve as regional lingua francas: for example, West African Pidgin English (spoken over a wide area of West Africa) and Melanesian Pidgin English (spoken in Papua New Guinea, the Solomon Islands and Vanuatu).

If the pidgin is used on the territory for a long time and is acquired as a native language (for example by children), it begins to have native speakers, it becomes creolized, and the resultant language is called a creole.

So, we will define a **creole** as a language that, having originated as a pidgin, has become established as a first language in some speech community.

The standard language normally serves as the language of education and administration. Most creoles have existed in a relatively narrow belt between the Tropics of Cancer and Capricorn; there are a number of them in West Indies, the East Indies, and West Africa.

How do creoles come into being? What explains their character? How is it different from the lexifier language (the language from which it draws its lexicon)?

For creolists, 'supersrtate' (or 'top-layer') originally refers to the language of the socially and economically dominant group. It typically provides the basis for the lexicon for the emerging pidgin or creole (then it is referred to as 'lexifier language'). 'Substrate' ('layer below') refers to the first languages of the socially and economically subordinated populations. "Adstrate' designates languages that have a peripheral presence in the context where pidgins and creoles emerge. In the Caribbean, indigenous languages – where they survived European onslaught – and

late-arriving African and Asian languages are considered adstrates.

Below you can see some examples of Tok Pisin, New Guinea Pidgin English which is used even in the House of Assembly and in news broadcasts because of its nationwide currency. In this English-based pidgin, the lexifier is English, while the substrate would be a collection of more or less closely related indigenous languages of the South Pacific:

Bung i bin stat long Mande
Meeting he been start along Monday
The meeting began on Monday

Ol meri gat bikpela wari yet
All women got big-fellow worry yet
Women still have big worries

Yu no save wokabout nomo –

You no savvy walk about no more

You can't move any more.

A pidgin arises to fulfil restricted communication needs for which a small vocabulary is sufficient and there is no need for grammatical redundancy. Todd [Todd 1990, 2] provides the example of the English phrase '*two big newspapers'*.

In the word '*newspapers*' the plural marking *–s* is redundant as plurality is already established in the word 'two'. In the French equivalent, '*les deux grands journaux*' there is still more redundancy (the marking of plurality not only on the word '*journaux*' but also on '*les*' and '*grands*'). Cameroon pidgin eliminates redundancy by rendering the phrase as 'di tu big pepa'.

Atlantic creoles comprise a large and diversified number of languages, spoken in Africa, the Caribbean, the South American mainland, and in north and Central America. They include creoles that are lexically affiliated to English, Dutch, French, Spanish, and Portuguese. The English-lexicon creoles are the largest group including languages spoken in over 25 countries; the second-largest group is French-lexicon creoles, or the Caribbean French creoles, spoken in Haiti, St. Lucia, Dominica, Guadeloupe [Kouwenberg, Singler 2008].

The biggest group of creoles and pidgins is based on English lexicon. The group comprises Australian Pidgin English, Chinese Pidgin English, Hawaiian Creole English, West African Pidgin English, Nigerian Pidgin English, Grenada Creole, Trinidad Creole, Saramaccan, Cameroonian Pidgin English, etc. As for the other groups, we can mention Portugese / Spanish-Lexicon Creoles, French-Lexicon, Dutch-lexicon and other Pidgins, Creoles and Jargons including mixed languages such as Copper Island Aleut, Mbugu, Media Lengua and some others.

The linguist Max Weinreich often remarked: *a language is a dialect with an army and a navy*. In other words, the difference lies in the social world, not in the linguistic system. M. Weinreich meant that language is just another national asset which the army and navy have to protect. Though boundaries between the countries do not always coincide with dialect boundaries. For example, the regional speech on the border between the Netherlands and Germany was, up to a few generations ago, as similar as any two varieties of one language which are separated geographically by only a few miles.

As an example we can also mention here British Creole (British-based *patois* or London Jamaican), which is the product of dialect contact between the Creole language varieties of migrants from the Caribbean and vernacular varieties of urban English English. Speakers of British Creole are all bilinguals or multilinguals; at a very early age they acquire a local variety of British English, at

school – Standard English as well. In the second and later generations, codeswitching in private conversations is very common. For many British-born speakers the use of Creole in conversation is quite symbolic (ex. forms of address, greetings, swear words) as it serves as the marker of group identity [Sebba 1997, 198]. Here are some examples of British Creole from the Corpus of British Creole: "*Is wha appen Sharon, unnu reach already?*" – "*What happened Sharon, are you there already?" "De sun did a shine same way". – "The Sun was shining the same way".*

When languages come into contact, certain core elements of the vocabulary are resistant to change by outside influence (these are the words denoting some parts of the body or common substances like 'blood' and 'water'), while words for new phenomena coming in from a foreign culture (ex. terms), are more likely to be taken from the language of the culture which first introduced them [ibid, 10].

Anyway, in contact languages, the lexical system is the most susceptible to external influence. The changes in grammar and semantic systems take place when a large proportion of the population has knowledge of both languages and the contact between the languages continue for a very long period [ibid, 10].

If the creole continues to move in the direction of the standard dominant language, it becomes decreolised. The process of decreolisation occurs when a creole comes into extensive contact with the dominant language as in the case, for example, with African American Vernacular English (**AAVE**, commonly known as **Ebonics)**.

§3 British English

British English or UK English (BrE, BE, en-GB) is the broad term used to distinguish the forms of the English language used in the United Kingdom from forms used elsewhere. There is confusion whether the term refers to English as spoken in the British Isles or to English as spoken in the United Kingdom, though in the case of Ireland, there are further distinctions peculiar to Hiberno-English.

There are slight regional variations in formal written English in the United Kingdom (for example, although the words *wee* and *little* are interchangeable in some contexts, one is more likely to see *wee* written by someone from northern Britain or Northern Ireland than by someone from Southern England or Wales). Nevertheless, there is a meaningful degree of uniformity in *written* English within the United Kingdom, and this could be described as 'British English'. The forms of *spoken* English, however, vary considerably more than in most other areas of the world where English is spoken and a uniform concept of "British English" is therefore more difficult to apply to the spoken language. According to Tom

McArthur in the *Oxford Guide to World English*, "for many people...especially in England [the phrase *British English*] is tautologous," and it shares "all the ambiguities and tensions in the word *British*, and as a result can be used and interpreted in two ways, more broadly or more narrowly, within a range of blurring and ambiguity" [McArthur 2002, 45].

Dialects and accents vary not only amongst the nations of Britain, but also within the countries themselves. There are also differences in the English spoken by different socio-economic groups in any particular region.

The major divisions are normally classified as English English (or English as spoken in England, which comprises Southern English dialects, Midlands English dialects and Northern English dialects), Welsh English, Scottish English (not to be confused with Welsh and Scots languages) and the closely related dialects of the Scots language. The various British dialects also differ in the words that they have borrowed from other languages. The Scottish and Northern English dialects include many words originally borrowed from Old Norse and a few borrowed from Gaelic.

§4 American English

American English. The process of coining new lexical items started as soon as the colonists began borrowing names for unfamiliar flora, fauna, and topography from the Native American languages. Examples of such names are *opossum, raccoon, squash* and *moose* (from Algonquian). Other Native American loanwords, such as *wigwam* or *moccasin*, describe artificial objects in common use among Native Americans. The languages of the other colonizing nations also added to the American vocabulary; for instance, *cookie, cruller*, stoop, and *pit* (of a fruit) from Dutch; *levee, portage* (‘carrying of boats or goods’) and (probably) *gopher* from French; *barbecue, stevedore, and rodeo* from Spanish.

Among the earliest and most notable regular "English" additions to the American vocabulary, dating from the early days of colonization through the early 19th century, are terms describing the features of the North American landscape; for instance, *run, branch, fork, neck* (of the woods), *barrens, notch, knob, riffle, rapids, watergap, cutoff.*

Other noteworthy American toponyms are found among loanwords; for example, *praire, butte* (French); *bayou* (Choctaw via Louisiana French); *coulee* (Canadian French, but used also in Louisiana with a different meaning); *canyon, mesa.*

Ever since the American Revolution, a great number of terms connected with the U.S. political institutions have entered the language; examples are *run,*

gubernatorial, primary election, carpetbagger (after the Civil War), *repeater, lame duck* and *pork barrel.*

Already existing English words – such as *store, shop, dry goods, haberdashery, lumber* – underwent shifts in meaning; some – such as *mason, student, clerk*, the verbs *can* (as in "canned goods"), *ship, fix, carry, enroll* (as in school), *run* (as in "run a business"), *release* and *haul* – were given new significations, while others (such as *tradesman)* have retained meanings that disappeared in England.

A number of Americanisms describing material innovations remained largely confined to North America: *elevator, ground, gasoline;* many automotive terms fall in this category, although many do not *(hatchback, SUV, station wagon, tailgate, motorhome, truck, pickup truck, to exhaust).*

Finally, a large number of English colloquialisms from various periods are American in origin; some have lost their American flavor (from *OK* and *cool* to *nerd* and *24/7),* while others have not *(have a nice day, sure);* many are now distinctly old-fashioned *(swell, groovy).* Some English words now in general use, such as *hijacking, disc jockey, boost, bulldoze* and *jazz,* originated as American slang. Among the many English idioms of U.S. origin are *get the hang of, take for a ride, bark up the wrong tree, keep tabs, run scared, take a backseat, have an edge over, stake a claim, take a shine to, in on the ground floor, bite off more than one can chew, off/on the wagon, stay put, inside track, stiff upper lip, bad hair day, throw a monkey wrench, under the weather, jump bail, come clean, come again?, it ain't over till it's over, what goes around comes around?*

American English and British English (BrE) differ at the levels of phonology, phonetics, vocabulary, and, to a lesser extent, grammar and orthography. The most noticeable differences between AmE and BrE are at the levels of pronunciation and vocabulary.

I. Arnold classified the cases of difference between American English and British English into six categories:

1. Cases where there are no equivalents in British English: *drive-in* ‘a cinema where you can see the film without getting out of your car’ or ‘a shop where motorists buy things staying in the car’; *dude ranch* ‘a sham ranch used as a summer residence for holiday-makers from the cities’.

2. Cases where different words are used for the same denotatum, such as *can, candy, mailbox, movies, suspenders, truck* in the USA and *tin, sweets, pillarbox (or letter-box), pictures or flicks, braces* and *lorry* in England.

3. Cases where the semantic structure of a partially equivalent word is different. The word *pavement*, for example, means in the first place ‘covering of

the street or the floor and the like made of asphalt, stones or some other material'. In England the derived meaning is 'the footway at the side of the road'. The Americans use the noun *sidewalk* for this, while *pavement* with them means 'the roadway'.

4. Cases where otherwise equivalent words are different in distribution. The verb *ride* in Standard English is mostly combined with such nouns as *a horse, a bicycle*, more seldom they say *ride on a bus*. In American English combinations like *a ride on the train, ride in a boat* are quite usual.

5. It sometimes happens that the same word is used in American English with some difference in emotional and stylistic colouring. *Nasty*, for example, is a much milder expression of disapproval in England than in the States, where it was even considered obscene in the 19th century. *Politician* in England means 'someone in politics', and is derogatory in the USA.

6. Last but not least, there may be a marked difference in frequency characteristics. Thus, *time-table* which occurs in American English very rarely, yielded its place to *schedule*.

§5 Canadian English

Canadian English is the variety of English spoken in Canada. It contains elements of British English, American English and distinctive canadianisms. Canada has not such big dialect diversity as the United States, still there are notable variations.

The first Canadian dictionaries of Canadian English appeared in 1960s: the *Beginner's Dictionary* in 1962, the *Intermediate Dictionary* in 1964, the *Senior Dictionary* in 1967. In 1998 the Oxford University Press produced the *Oxford Canadian Dictionary* followed by the second edition in 2004.

Below you can see some examples of Canadian variant of English: *college* refers in Canada to a post-secondary technical or vocational institution; *bachelor* is an apartment in a single room; in Quebec it is *one-and-a-half* apartment, in Prince Edward Island it is a *loft*; *parkade* means a parking garage; *gasbar* is a filling station; *fire hall* stands for fire station; *loonie* is a Canadian one-dollar coin; *serviette* is a more common word for 'napkin'; *bunny hug* is a hooded sweater and *toque* is a knitted winter hat; *postal code* (cf. Br. *postcode* and Am. *ZIP code*); the sign *Way Out* is used as a synonym for *Exit* in transportation settings.

§6 Australian English

Australian English. Many works with an overview of Australian English have been published. One of the first was Karl Lentzner's *Dictionary of the Slang English of Australia of Australia and of Some Mixed Languages in 1892*. The first dictionary based on historical principles was *Austral English: A Dictionary of Australasian Words, Phrases and Usage* by E.E. Morris of 1898. We cannot but mention here *Macquarie Dictionary of Australian English* published in 1881 and two projects of Australian National University and Oxford University Press, which are *Oxford Dictionary of Australian English* and *Australian National Dictionary*.

Australian English began diverging from British English shortly after the foundation of the Australian penal colony of New South Wales (NSW) in 1788.

British convicts sent there, including Cockneys from London, came mostly from large English cities, they were joined by free settlers, military personnel and administrators, often with their families.

Australian English has many words that some consider unique to the language. One of the best known is *outback*, meaning 'a remote, sparsely populated area'. Another is *the bush*, meaning either a native forest or a country area in general. However, both terms have been widely used in many Englishspeaking countries. The convicts brought other similar words, phrases and usages to Australia. Many words used frequently by country Australians are, or were, also used in all or part of England, with variations in meaning. For example, *creek* in Australia, as in North America, means a stream or small river, whereas in the United Kingdom it means a small watercourse flowing into the sea; *paddock* in Australia means field, whereas in the UK it means a small enclosure for livestock; *bush* or *scrub* in Australia, as in North America, means a wooded area, whereas in England they are commonly used only in proper names (such as Shepherd's Bush and Wormwood Scrubs).

Some elements of aboriginal languages have been adopted by Australian English – mainly as names for places, flora and fauna (for example *dingo*).

Beyond that, little has been adopted into the wider language, except for some localised terms and slang. Some examples are *cooee* and *hard yakka*. The former is used as a high-pitched call, for attracting attention, which travels long distances. *Cooee* is also a notional distance: *if he's within cooee, we'll spot him*.

Hard yakka means 'hard work' and is derived from *yakka*, from the Yagara language once spoken in the Brisbane region. Also from there is the word *bung*, meaning 'broken or pretending to be hurt'. A failed piece of equipment may be described as having *bunged up* or as 'on the bung' or 'gone bung'. A person

pretending to be hurt is said to be ‘bunging it on’. A hurt person could say, ‘I've got a bung knee’.

A few words of Australian origin are now used in other parts of the Anglosphere as well; among these are *first past the post*, *to finalise*, *brownout*, *uni* (‘university’).

§7 Indian English

Indian English comprises several dialects or varieties of English spoken primarily in India, and by first-generation members of the Indian diaspora. This dialect evolved during and after the British colonial rule of India.

English is the *co-official* language of India, with about 90 million speakers, but with fewer than quarter of a million calling it a first language. With the exception of some families which communicate primarily in English as well as members of the relatively small Anglo-Indian community (numbering less than half a million), speakers of Indian English have it as a second language, with an indigenous language such as Hindi as their native tongue. We can speak about the network of varieties of Indian English resulting from a complex linguistic situation in the country. A new term appeared recently – ‘Hinglish’ – the combination of both languages in one sentence, which is becoming increasingly common in urban centres of the Hindi-speaking states of India. The process of easy incorporation of English words into Hindi sentences and Hindi words into English sentences even allowed David Crystal, a British linguist studying the globalization of English, reach a decision that the world’s Hinglish speakers may soon outnumber native English speakers.

There are many examples of Indian words which entered the *Oxford English Dictionary* as their popularity extended into worldwide mainstream English. Some of the more common examples are *jungle*, *bungalow, bandana*, *pyjamas*; others were introduced via the transmission of Indian culture, examples of which are *mantra*, *karma*, *avatar*, *pundit* and *guru*.

Words unique to (i.e. not generally well-known outside South Asia) and / or popular in India include those in the following by no means exhaustive list: *batchmate* or *batch-mate* (not classmate, but a schoolmate of the same grade); *eggitarian* for a person who eats vegetarian food, milk and eggs but not meat; *compass* for pencil box; *cousin-brother* (male first cousin) and *cousin-sister* (female first cousin); used conversely is *one's own brother/sister* (of one's parent, as opposed to uncle or aunt; English brother/sister): most Indians live in extended families and many do not differentiate even nominally between cousins and direct siblings; *godman* somewhat pejorative word for a person who claims to be divine

or who claims to have supernatural powers; *gully* to mean a narrow lane or alley (from the Hindi word *gali* meaning the same); *Himalayan blunder* (grave mistake); *would-be* (fiance/fiancee) ; *co-brother* indicates relationship between two men who married sisters, as in *"He is my co-brother"* (commonly used in South India). Some Indians consider *baby* as applicable only to a female infant.

A male infant would be called a *baba* [ba:ba:]; *bla bla bla* to denote meaningless trivial conversation.

The book *Hobson-Jobson* by Henry Yule and A. C. Burnell, first published in 1886, gives a glossary of colloquial Anglo-Indian words.

KEY TERMS

Accent, decreolisation, dialect, creole, creolisation, lingua franca, pidgin, Received Pronunciation, sociolect, speech variety, Standard English, standard variety, variant.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the difference between the terms ‘variants’ and ‘local dialects’ of the English language?
2. What variants of English exist on the territory of the United Kingdom?
3. What variants of the English language exist on the territory of the United Kingdom?
4. What groups of *Englishes* do you know?
5. Why are pidgins and creoles called contact languages?
6. What are the main characteristics of pidgin?
7. How do creoles appear?
8. What processes are called *creolisation* and *decreolisation*?
9. What distinctive features does the vocabulary of American and Canadian English have?
10. What is meant by the term Indian English?

Part II

PRACTICAL EXERCISES AND TESTS

1 EXERCISES

Ex. 1. Define the stylistic reference of the following words:

1. array
2. boozy
3. donation
4. forlorn
5. gee-gee
6. notwithstanding
7. labial
8. Lord
9. thee
10. thereupon

Ex. 2. Suggest formal variants to the following informal words and expressions:

1. also
2. anyway
3. ASAP
4. but
5. cheap
6. find out
7. get in touch with
8. go against
9. put off
10. say sorry
11. so
12. start
13. think about
14. totally
15. You can call me if you need anything.

Ex. 3. Suggest neutral synonyms to these literary words:

1. absurdity
2. albeit
3. array
11. fulguration
12. malefic
13. offspring

4. atrabilious
5. aurora
6. behold
7. beseech
8. deem
9. empyrean
10. ere
14. proceed
15. pulchritude
16. Rhadamanthine
17. susurration
18. tenebrous
19. yonder
20. zephyr

Ex. 4. Analyse the morphological structure of underlined words: identify the number of morphemes and their types according to the semantic and the structural classifications of morphemes. Take into account such units as semi-affixes (semi-prefixes, semi-suffixes), pseudo-morphemes, unique roots, combining forms.

Example:

anxious

In the word 'anxious', there are 2 morphemes:

anxi- is a root, a bound morpheme,

-ous is a suffix, a bound morpheme.

1. calculable
2. fruitfulness
3. geography
4. half-cooked
5. ill-fixed
6. inartistic
7. northeasterly
8. psychologist
9. receive
10. self-centeredness
11. semi-smiling
12. sleepier
13. two-sevens
14. uncharacteristically
15. waterproof

Ex. 5. Group the words according to the type of word-segmentability they may be referred to.

Example: *exceed, tablet, lifeless*

Completesegmentability conditional segmentability defective segmentability

Lifeless *exceed* *tablet*

1. budget
2. drawback
3. effective
4. friendliness
5. perceive
6. pocket
7. raspberry
8. retain
9. ringlet
10. runner

Ex. 6. Give examples of free, bound and semi-bound (semi-free) morphemes (5–7 of each type). Pick out words of different morphemic types from your reading materials.

Ex. 7. In the given conversion pairs state the semantic relations between 1) the denominal verb and the noun it is derived from and 2) the deverbal substantive and the verb it is derived from.

Example:

to leak - leak 'a hole in a container or covering through which contents, especially liquid or gas, may accidentally pass'. The semantic relation between the words making up the conversion pair *to leak - leak* is 'the place of the action'.

coat, n - to coat 'to cover something with a coat'. The semantic relation between the words making up the conversion pair *coat \ to coat* is 'the addition of the object'.

1) crowd, n – to crowd
2) eye, n – to eye
3) fool, n – to fool
4) leather, n – to leather
5) to cheat – cheat, n
6) to forge –forge, n
7) to knock – knock, n
8) to tear – tear, n

Ex. 8. State the structural-semantic correlation between the given compound nouns and corresponding free phrases following the scheme that consists in defining:

1) the type of a compound noun;

2) the structural pattern of a compound noun;

3) the corresponding free phrase;

4) the structural type of the corresponding free phrase;

5) semantic relations between a compound noun and its corresponding free phrase.

Example: *maidservant*

1) a nominal compound

2) n2 + n,

3) 'the servant is a maid'

4) N, + is + N2

5) appositional relations

1. a take-off
2. a turnkey
3. dark-eyed
4. hairbrush
5. ice-breaker
6. landowner
7. radio-controlled
8. smoke-filled
9. ten-year
10. undertaker

Ex. 9. Carry out the morphemic analysis and the word formation analysis of the underlined words.

Example: *checkups* (noun)

The morphemic analysis: the word *check-ups* consists of 3 morphemes:

check – is a root, a free morpheme,

up – is a root, a free morpheme,

-s is an inflection, a bound morpheme.

The word-formation analysis: the noun *check-ups* is built by the two simultaneous processes of word composition and conversion (*check up, v -> checkup, n*).

1. gigabyte
2. industrialization
3. interview
4. modernise
5. onlookers
6. softened
7. teaspoonful
8. unthinkable
9. untrustworthy
10. widely-distributed

Ex. 10. In accordance with the part that is cut off to form a new word, classify cases of shortening into four groups:

1) aphaeresis

2) syncope

3) apocope

4) both initial and final shortenings.

1. bus
2. chute
3. cycle
4. fan
5. gator
6. Liz
7. plane
8. prep-school
9. quiz
10. vac

Ex. 11. Determine the original components of the following blends. Define which type (additive or restrictive) the blends belong to.

1. brunch
2. crocogator
3. flextime
4. flush
5. motel
6. Oxbridge
7. paratroops
8. smaze
9. transceiver
10. twirl

Ex. 12. According to their pronunciation classify the given acronyms into two groups:

1) those that are read as ordinary English words

2) those with the alphabetic reading.

1. NATO
2. UNO
3. WHO
4. IRA
5. NASA
6. SALT
7. UEFA
8. IQ
9. FBI
10. TEFL
11. UFO
12. VIP
13. FIFA

Ex. 13. Group the words formed by sound-interchange into:

1) those formed by vowel-interchange or ablaut (& suffixation);

2) those formed by consonant-interchange;

3) those formed by combining both means, i.e. vowel- and consonant interchange.

Example: *relief* (n) – *relieve* (v): consonant-interchange

1. bathe (v) – bath (n)
2. breathe (v) – breath (n)
3. clothe (v) – cloth (n)
4. deep (adj) – depth (n)
5. halve (v) – half (n)
6. knot (n) – knit (v)
7. loathe (v) – loath (n)

8. Long (adj) – length (n)
9. lose (v) – loss (n)
10. prove (v) – proof (n)
11. ride (v) – road (n)
12. sing (v) – song (n)
13. speak (v) – speech (n)
14. use (v) – use (n)
15. wreathe (v) – wreath (n)

Ex. 14. What serves as a word-formation means in the given pairs of words? Stress these words.

1. affix (n) – affix (v);
2. compound (n, adj) – compound (v);
3. conflict (n) – conflict (v);
4. decrease (n) – decrease (v);
5. frequent (adj) – frequent (v);
6. insult (n) – insult (v);
7. perfect (adj) – perfect (v);
8. permit (n) – permit (v);
9. produce (n) – produce (v);
10. subject (n, adj) – subject (v).

Ex. 15. Consult the dictionary and state the meaning and origin of the following phraseological units:

1) a drop in the bucket/ocean 6. the iron curtain
2) a whipping boy 7. the massacre of the innocent
3) cross the Rubicon 8. to bury the hatchet
4) of the same leaven/batch 9. to fiddle while Rome burns
5) the apple of discord 10. to run the gauntlet

Ex. 16. Translate the following phraseological units giving their literal and figurative meaning:

1) to draw the curtain over
2) to hang up one's boots
3) to lock the stable door when the steed is stolen
4) to put one's cards on the table
5) to put somebody out to pasture
6) to saddle the right horse
7) to see somebody in the flesh
8) to spill the beans
9) to touch the bottom

10) to turn the corner

Ex. 17. Complete the following proverbs and sayings and explain their meaning:

1) A rolling stone…

2) A stitch in time …

3) Beauty is in the eye …

4) Better late than …

5) Cleanliness is next to …

6) Honesty is…

7) Keep your friends close and ….

8) Make hay while …

9) Once bitten …

10) One man's trash is …

11) People who live in glass houses …

12) Steel waters …

13) The grass is always greener …

14) The pen is mightier than …

15) You can't make an omelet …

Ex. 18. Group the following words into three columns in accordance with the sameness of their 1) grammatical; 2) lexical; 3) part-of-speech meaning: girl's, nearest, at, wonderful, sleep, man, drift, wrote, tremendous, ship's, the most wonderful, table, near, for, went, friend's, handsome, sleeping, girl, nearer, slept, girls, lamp, go, during.

Ex. 19. Identify the denotational and connotational aspects of lexical meaning of the given words. Analyze the similarity and difference between the components of the connotational aspect of lexical meaning in the given pairs of words.

Example: *celebrated – notorious*

celebrated: denotational aspects: 'widely known, admired and talked by people because of good qualities'; components of the connotational aspect of lexical meaning: evaluation (positive);

notorious: denotational aspect: 'widely known because of something bad, for example, for being criminal, violent, or immoral'; components of the connotational aspect of lexical meaning: evaluation (negative).

1) adventure — ordeal

2) detestable — repulsive

3) esteem — respect

4) intelligent – shrewd

5) newfangled – modern
6) perfect — ideal
7) sophisticated — urbane
8) to deal with — to grapple with
9) to glance — to stare
10) to murmur — to whisper

Ex. 20. Identify the types of the following synonyms:

1) ask – implore – beg
2) breathed – voiceless (consonants)
3) cameraman – camera operator
4) cemetery – necropolis
5) dad – father
6) excuse – pardon – forgive
7) faculty – talent
8) fag – cigarette
9) foolish – unwise
10) genius – capacity – talent
11) good-bye – farewell
12) handsome – pretty – beautiful
13) irritate – annoy
14) learned – erudite
15) nearly – approximately
16) pregnant – in an interesting position
17) reckon – consider
18) to die – to kick the bucket
19) to meet – to encounter
20) yes – aye

Ex. 21. Identify the types of the following antonyms:

1) absent – present 11) parents – children
2) bitter – sweet 12) question – answer
3) careless – careful 13) right – wrong
4) dead – alive 14) rise – fall
5) east – west 15) scope – limitations
6) easy – difficult 16) slow – quick
7) forward – backward 17) small – great
8) husband – wife 18) true – false
9) married – divorced 19) unpleasant – charming
10) open – shut 20) urbane – gauche

Ex. 22. Establish the types of semantic relations between words:

1) dear - cheap
2) dear - expensive
3) deer - animal
4) deer - dear
5) deer-elk
6) ewe-ram
7) ewe-you

a) homonyms
b) synonyms
c) antonyms
d) hyponym – hyperonym

8) him - hymn

9) past - future e) co-hyponyms

10) red - green

11) sickness - illness

12) yew – ewe

13) yew – tree

Ex. 23. Identify the source of homonymy for the words:

a) divergent meaning development

b) convergent sound development

c) borrowing

d) conversion

e) shortening

1. bang, n (a fringe of hair combed over the forehead) - bang, n (a loud, sudden, explosive noise)

2. flower, *n* - flour, *n*

3. bank, n (a shore) - bank, *n* (a financial institution)

4. add, *v* - ad, n (an advertisement)

5. comb, n - comb, *v*

6. night, n - knight, n

7. love, n-love, *v*

8. board, n (a long, thin piece of timber) - board, n (an official group of persons who direct or supervise some activity)

9. pale, *adj*- pale, u

10. match, n (a game) - match, n (a slender short piece of wood used for producing fire)

11. plate, n – plate, *v*

12. fan, n (an implement for waving lightly to produce a cool current of air) – fan, n (an enthusiastic admirer of some kind of sport or of an actor, singer, etc.).

Ex. 24. Fill in the gaps with either British or American variant:

British	American
autumn	
candy	
lorry	
holiday	
parking lot	
trousers	
garbage	
highway	

subway
queue
full-stop
courgette
cinema
chips
crisps
resume
estate agent
movie
flat
pavement

Ex. 25. Choose the correct variant:

1. 'Eistedfodd' is a word naming national festival in ....
a) Scottish language and culture
b) Irish language and culture
c) Welsh language and culture.

2. The greeting *Howzit!* is from ....
a) New Zealand English
b) Geordie dialect
c) South African English.

3. The greeting "Kia ora" is from
a) New Zealand English
b) South African English
c) Hawaiian English.

4. In Scottish English *loch* means...
a) lock
b) lake
c) luck.

5. The Lancashire dialectal word *judy* used in the sentence ' *There are 12 boys and 15 judies in my son's class'* means ...
a) woman
b) girl
c) pupil.

6. The words *eggitarian, co-brother, cousin-brother* are specifically...
a) Indian English words
b) Australian English words
c) South African English words.

7. The words *sheila (‘woman ’), amber (‘beer’), arvo (‘afternoon’)* are specifically...

a) Canadian words

b) American words

c) Australian words.

8. In the American Variant of English *biscuit* means ....

a) cookie

b) crisp cake

c) scone.

9. The Scottish English noun *leid* used in the sentence *'Linguistics is the study of leid and how people use it* means ...

a) speech

b) language

c) syntax.

10. The Irish English verb *to cog* used in the sentence *'I wouldn't let just anybody cog my exercise'* denotes ...

a) to do

b) to translate

c) to cheat, especially by copying.

11. In Australian English *outback* means...

a) the part of a town or a city that is far from the city centre

b) space at the back of the car

c) remote, sparsely populated area.

12. The words *parkade (‘parking garage’), busker (‘street performer’), to fathom out (‘to explain’)* are specifically...

a) Canadian words

b) American words

c) Australian words.

Ex. 26. Define what type of dictionary the below-mentioned belong to.

1) The Cambridge International Dictionary of English

2) The New Oxford Thesaurus English

3) The Collins Dictionary of Allusions

4) The Penguin Dictionary of English Grammar

5) Random House Webster’s Dictionary of American Slang

6) The English-Russian Dictionary of Linguistics.

Ex. 27. Characterize the below-mentioned electronic dictionaries according to the:

a) type

b) size
c) structure
d) the arrangement of entries
e) the arrangement of phrasal words
f) the arrangement of idioms
g) the information about the word
h) pronunciation
i) regional labels
j) style label

DICTIONARIES

1. Cambridge Dictionaries Online. URL: http://dictionary.cambridge.org/
2. Merriam Webster Dictionary. URL: http://www.merriam-webster.com/
3. Thesaurus. URL: http://www.thesaurus.com/
4. Oxford Dictionaries. URL: http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/
5. Longman Dictionary of the Contemporary English. URL: http://www.ldoceonline.com/
6. Acronym Finder. URL: http://www.acronymfinder.com/
7. Dictionary.Com. URL: http://dictionary.reference.com/
8. Encyclopaedia Britannica. URL: http://www.britannica.com/
9. Online Etymology Dictionary. URL: http://www.etymonline.com/index.php
10. The Online Slang Dictionary. URL: http://onlineslangdictionary.com/

2 TRAINING TESTS

Test 1

Task 1. Analyze the morphological structure of the words in bold; identify the number of morphemes and their types according to the semantic and structural classifications of morphemes:

Example:

In the word self-centeredness, there are 4 morphemes:
center- is a root, a free morpheme,
self- is a semi-prefix,
-ed is a suffix, a bound morpheme,
-ness is a suffix, a bound morpheme.

1. anxious
2. conceive

3. light-mindedness
4. photographic
5. stupidity
6. unemployed
7. cloudiness
8. exceptionally
9. deactivated
10. ex-husbands

Task 2. Analyze the following words from the point of view of their intermediate constituents (ICs) and ultimate constituents (UCs):

1. unachievable
2. disfellowship
3. misidentify
4. hopefully
5. supplementary
6. subtropical
7. prehistoric
8. unluckily
9. inequality
10. unfortunately

Task 3. Segment the following words into morphemes. Define the semantic types and the structural types of morphemes:

1. beggarly
2. destabilize
3. disaffected
4. disinfectant
5. fruitfulness
6. half-eaten
7. maltreatment
8. overrule
9. photographic
10. rent-free
11. shorten
12. sympathy
13. theory
14. unassuming

Task 4. Group the words according to the type of word-segmentability they may be referred to:

Example: *exceed, tablet, lifeless*

Complete segmentability conditional segmentability defective segmentability

Lifeless *exceed* *tablet*

1. hostage
2. nameless
3. fraction
4. perceive
5. pocket
6. discuss
7. feminist
8. contain
9. overload
10. pioneer

Test 2

Task 1. Analyze the following words according to their morphemic types:

1. house
2. uncover
3. dark-brown
4. disappointment
5. effective
6. black
7. historian
8. book-keeper
9. cry
10. mistrust

Task 2. Carry out the morphemic analysis and the word formation analysis of the following words.

Example: *checkups*

The morphemic analysis: the word check-ups consists of 3 morphemes:

check- is a root, a free morpheme,

up- is a root, a free morpheme,

-s is an inflection, a bound morpheme.

The word-formation analysis: the noun check-ups is built by the two simultaneous processes of word composition and conversion (check up, v - > check-up, n).

1. maddened
2. interview
3. interviewed
4. tablespoonful
5. predominantly
6. headache
7. blueprinted
8. T-shirt
9. golden-haired
10. turnkey

Task 3. Define the etymology of the derivational affixes forming the given word:

Example: *risky – y is Old English*

1. childhood,
2. anti-federalist,
3. friendship,
4. cabbagelike,
5. pre-war,
6. Jacobite,
7. princess,
8. friendly,
9. breakage,
10. synesthesia.

Test 3

Task 1. Classify the phraseological units completing the table:

Example: *a home bird, to lead a busy life, a red herring*

Phraseological fusions	*Phraseological unities*	*Phraseological collocations*
a red herring	*a home bird*	*to lead a busy life*

1. a small talk
2. cross the Rubicon
3. in the twinkling of an eye
4. neck and crop
5. sermons in stones
6. the apple of discord

7. the primrose path
8. to keep the ball rolling
9. to meet the requirements
10. to set the Thames on fire

Task 2. What serves as a word-formation means in the following words?

Example: *relief (n) – relieve (v) – consonant –interchange*

1. Prep-school
2. abstract (adj) – abstract (v)
3. UEFA
4. prove (v) – proof (n)
5. to whatever
6. netiquette
7. snobbish
8. to enthuse
9. disadvantage
10. far-reaching

Task 3. Give definitions of the following lexicological terms or explain them:

Example: *vocabulary is a system formed by the sum total of all the words and word equivalents.*

1. bound morpheme
2. computational linguistics
3. corpus linguistics
4. differential meaning of the morpheme
5. distributional pattern of a compound
6. external structure of the word
7. types of compound words through the correlation with variable free phrases
8. main ways of word-building
9. morpheme
10. polyradical words
11. practical lexicography
12. secondary ways of word-building
13. subordinative compound
14. syncope
15. word

Test 4

Task 1. Determine the original components of the following blends. Define the type (additive or restrictive) the blend belongs to.

Example: *seadrome (sea + airdrome) – restrictive; to guesstimate (guess + estimate) – additive.*

1. positron
2. brunch
3. windoor
4. flextime
5. paratroops

Task 2. Choose the correct answer:

1. Many Latin borrowings came into English through....

a) German

b) French

c) Celtic.

2. The word *antipathy* consists of...

a) the root, free morpheme + the root, bound morpheme

b) the affixational, bound morpheme + the combining form which is a bound root

c) the affixational, bound morpheme + the root, free morpheme.

3. The word *uncomfortability* refers to ...

a) polymorphic, monoradical, prefixo-radical-suffixal words

b) monomorphic, prefixo-radical-suffixal words

c) polymorphic, polyradical words.

4. The structural pattern of the word *heavy-hearted* is ...

a) a + (n + -ed)

b) (a + n) + -ed

c) (a + n) + -sf.

5. The word *globesity* is a(n) ....

a) shortening

b) blend

c) acronym.

6. The suffix *-ity* found in the words *cruelty, oddity, purity, stupidity* is a ...

a) denominal suffix

b) deverbal suffix

c) noun-forming suffix.

7. The noun *look-see* meaning 'a brief look or inspection' is a ...

a) compound proper

b) reduplicative compound

c) derivational compound.

8. The word *red-brick* is a(n) ....

a) nominal compound

b) adjectival-nominal compound

c) verbal-nominal compound.

9. The word *souffle* ['su:flei] is a(n) ....

a) unassimilated borrowing/ a barbarism

b) partially assimilated borrowing

c) completely assimilated borrowing.

10. The word-combination *jealous of smb's success* is ...

a) endocentric, adjectival

b) exocentric

c) endocentric, nominal.

11. The word-combination *a bitter pill* meaning 'something very unpleasant that one must accept' is ...

a) completely motivated

b) completely non-motivated

c) partially motivated.

12. *The Oxford Companion to Twentieth-Century Poetry* is a(n) ...

a) linguistic dictionary

b) encyclopedic dictionary.

13. *The English-Russian Dictionary of Synonyms* is ...

a) general, specialized, bilingual, diachronic

b) restricted, explanatory, monolingual, synchronic

c) restricted, explanatory, bilingual, synchronic.

14. The words *parkade ('parking garage'), busker ('street performer'), to fathom out ('to explain')* are specifically...

d) Canadian words

e) American words

f) Australian words.

3 TESTS FOR SELF-CONTROL

Lexicology as a brunch of linguistics

1. What does lexicology study?

a) the grammar of a language

b) the vocabulary of a language

c) different stylistic devices

d) spelling rules

2. What branch of lexicology studies common features of vocabularies of different languages?

a) special lexicology

b) contrastive lexicology

c) general lexicology

d) etymology

3. What is not included into the subject of etymology?

a) the origin of different words

b) the linguistic and extralinguistic forces, modifying word structure, meaning and usage

c) the vocabulary of a language from the angle of its sound system

d) changes and development of words

4. What does semantics study?

a) meanings of words

b) history of words

c) sound forms of words

d) word concessions

5. What approach to vocabulary studies is mainly used by descriptive lexicology?

a) historical

b) synchronical

c) diachronical

6. What branch of linguistics deals with causal relations between the way the language works and develops and the facts of social life?

a) psycholinguistics

b) general linguistics

c) sociolinguistics

d) lexicology

7. What is definied as a «lexical opposition»?

a) the semantically relevant relationship of partial difference between two partially similar words

b) the semantically relevant relationship of partial similarity between two different words

c) the relationship of two words of one root

d) the relationship of equality of words

8. The capacity of words to combine with one another is called:

a) a polydimensional opposition

b) combinatorial possibilities

c) a lexical distinctive feature

9. The basis of a lexical opposition is:

a) the feature two contrasted words posess in common

b) a lexical distinctive feature

c) all the features of a word

10. Relationships based on the linear character of speech, on the influence of the context are called:

a) syntagmatic

b) paradigmatic

c) semantic

11. The term «lexicolization» means that:

a) connotations are used in the process of word-building

b) grammar means become lexical means to form new words

c) sound interchanges help to. build new words

12. The elements of a lexical system are:

a) independent from each other

b) interdependent

c) dependent on their consequence

13. A set is called structured when:

a) the number of its elements is greater than the number of the rules according to which these elements can be constructed

b) the number of the elements is constant

c) there are no subsets within the set

14. A lexical system is:

a) probabilistic

b) deterministic

c) closed

15. The relation between the elements based on the common feature due to which they belong to the same set is called:

a) equality

b) identity

c) equivalence

d) adequacy

16. Every lexical unit is:

a) independent

b) context-dependent

c) meaning-dependent

17. The system showing a word in all its word-forms is called:

a) a paradigm

b) a syntagm

c) a class

d) a part of speech

18. The unity of a form and a meaning is:

a) an absolute property of a word

b) a special property of a word

c) a relative property of a word

19. What language unit is capable of functioning alone?

a) a morpheme

b) a phoneme

c) a word

20. What kind of relations is based on the interdependence of words within the vocabulary?

a) syntagmatic

b) paradigmatic

c) semantic

21. Which of these sign systems is universal?

a) the deaf-and-dumb language

b) the language of colors

c) any natural language

22. Any language sign is a:

a) a unilateral unit

b) a bilateral unit

c) a casual formation

23. A phoneme is always:

a) a unilateral unit

b) a bilateral unit

c) a casual formation

24. To what group of properties does the ability of words to form a universal system belong?

a) to absolute properties

b) to special properties

c) to relative properties

25. According to the principle of novelty we can divide all the words into:

a) ready-made and newly-formed signs

b) archaisms and neologisms

c) neutral and obsolete words

26. What do we call newly-formed words?

a) occasionalisms

b) obsolete words

c) rotating words

27. What language units can be newly-formed at the present stage of language development?

a) phonemes

b) words

c) morphemes

28. The most recurrent words are:

a) simple

b) stylistically marked

c) historisms

29. Neutral words usually are not:

a) frequent

b) simple

c) archaic

d) native

30. Which of the following word properties does not belong to absolute?

a) reference to style

b) reference to time

c) ability to be combined with one another

d) frequency of usage

31. Words that have dropped out of the language altogether are called:

a) archaic

b) neologisms

c) obsolete

d) historisms

32. Words that are now used only in poetry and theological style are called:

a) historisms

b) obsolete

c) neologisms

d) archaisms

33. Words formed according to productive patterns are called:

a) historisms b) obsolete c) neologusms d) archaisms

34. Words denoting notions that have disappeared out of modern life are called:

a) historisms

b) obsolete

c) neologisms

d) archaisms

35. What properties permit words to be united in any aspect?

a) absolute properties

b) special properties

c) relative properties

36. How do we call word relations based on association?

a) homonymy

b) metonymy

c) synonymy

d) historisms

37. Words that have different forms but meanings similar to a certain degree are called:

a) antonyms

b) synonyms c) homonyms

d) polysemantic words

38. Words opposite in meaning are called:

a) antonyms

b) synonyms

c) homonyms

d) polysemantic words

39. Words having one and the same form but different meanings are called:

a) antonyms

b) synonyms

c) homonyms

d) polysemantic words

40. Words which meanings differ only by stylistic connotations are called:

a) stylistic synonyms

b) stylistic antonyms

c) polycemantic words

41. Homonyms having the same pronunciation are called:

a) homographes

b) homophones

c) homoforms

42. What does lexicography study?

a) the semantic of a word

b) theory and practice of dictionary compiling

c) dialect forms of words

d) word-building

43. Choose an archaism:

a) blitzkrieg

b) agrobiology

c) realmleader

d) brine

44. Choose a neologism:

a) maiden

b) chemurgy

c) kine

d) billow

45. Choose the most neutral word:

a) wench

b) damsel

c) girl

d) gal

46. Which word falls out of the synonymic row?

a) fawny

b) obsequious

c) guileless

d) sniveling

47. Find a synonymic dominant:

a) brisk

b) quick

c) alert

d) agile

48. Which words can be called homographs?

a) night (ніч) – knight (лицар)

b) minute (хвилина) – minute (дріб'язковий)

c) pick (поднимать) – pick (кирка)

49. To which group of homonyms do the words "club (дубинка) – club (клуб)" belong?

a) homoforms

d) homographs

c) perfect homonyms
d) homophones
50. To which group of homonyms do the words “lift – to lift” belong?
a) homoforms
d) homographs
c) perfect homonyms
d) homophones

The Theory of the Word. The Inner Structure

1. What type of morphemes is the most recurrent in English words?
a) derivational affixes
b) roots
c) functional affixes
d) markers
2. What type of morphemes did E. Nida call outer formatives?
a) derivational affixes
b) roots
c) functional affixes
d) markers
3. The morpheme “man” in the word “seaman” refers to:
a) unique morphemes
b) semi-affixes
c) root morphemes
4. Affixes used to form new words in the period in question are called:
a) newly-formed
b) productive
c) active
5. The term “hybrids” denotes:
a) words referring to different classes
b) words derived from two or more stems
c) elements derived from two or more different languages
6. In a derived word with a functional affix the following morpheme will end the word:
a) functional affixes
b) the second root
c) a derivational affix
7. Suffixes having no relevance for the present stage of a language are called:

a) obsolete suffixes
b) non-used suffixes
c) dead suffixes
8. Borrowed affixes are always received:
a) as independent parts
b) as derivatives from other morphemes
c) as parts of loan words
9. The notion of the traditional theory "a compound derived word" corresponds to the following class of the morphemic theory:
a) words consisting of two or more stems
b) words consisting of one root and one or more affixes
c) words consisting of one root
d) words consisting of two or more stems plus a common affix
10. What is not a drawback of the morphemic theory?
a) the defect of the definition
b) the process of cutting words into morphemes
c) linear character of cutting .
11. A morpheme can be defined as a:
a) minimum unilateral language unit
b) minimum unit of speech
c) minimum two-facet unit
d) minimum syntactical unit
12. What is not a type of morphemic segmentability?
a) complete segmentability
b) defective segmentability
c) conditional segmentability
d) pseudo-segmentability
13. Pseudo morphemes make up words of:
a) complete segmentability
b) defective segmentability
c) conditional segmentability
d) non-segmentability
14. Unique morphemes make up words of:
a) complete segmentability
b) defective segmentability
c) conditional segmentability
d) non-segmentability
15. The lexical nucleus of any word is:

a) a root morpheme
b) a stem morpheme
c) a prefix
d) an affix
16. Morphemes carrying only grammatical meaning are called:
a) inflexions
b) affixes
c) root morphemes
17. The system of grammatical forms characteristic of a word is called:
a) word-form
b) paradygm
c) stem
18. Derivational affixes help to:
a) build different word-forms
b) denote grammatical meaning
c) form new words
19. The capability of an affix to combine with a stem is called:
a) derivation
b) valency
c) motivation
20. Which class of words accounts for the least number of words?
a) compound words
b) derived words
c) simple words
d) compound derived words
21. Indivisible parts of an analyzed word are called:
a) immediate constituents
b) ultimate constituents
c) markers
22. Analysis into immediate constituents has a:
a) linear character
b) hierarchical character
c) syntagmatic character
23. Originally analysis into immediate constituents was applied to:
a) syntax
b) morphology
c) phonetics

24. Who was the first scientist to introduce analysis into immediate constituents?

a) E. Nida

b) L. Bloomfield

c) Ch. Rocket

25. Constituents that can be substituted for one another are called:

a) endocentric

b) exocentric

c) coordinative

26. Constructions in which one element is an attribution to the other are called:

a) coordinative

b) exocentric

c) subordinative

27. The way of wordbuilding when a word is formed by joining two or more stems to form one word is called:

a) affixation

b) derivation

c) composition

28. By what means is the word “rope-ripe”" built?

a) reduplication

b) back formation

c) conversion

29. By what means is the word “to kidnap” built?

a) reduplication

b) back formation

c) conversion

30. Transformation of a word of one class into the word of another class without changing its form is called:

a) reduplication

b) back formation

c) conversion

31. Prefixes un-, over-, under- belong to:

a) Romanic

b) Germanic

c) Greek

32. Prefixes in-, de-, re-, ex- belong to:

a) Romanic

b) Germanic
c) Greek
33. Prefixes sym-, hyper- belong to:
a) Romanic
b) Germanic
c) Greek
34. Such parts as tele-, maxi-, -radio are called:
a) roots
b) stems
c) semi-affix
35. Suffixes -er, -ent denote:
a) nationality
b) diminutiveness
c) the agent of the action
d) collectivity
36. Suffixes -ese, -ian, -ish denote:
a) nationality
b) diminutiveness
c) the agent of the action
d) collectivity
37. Suffixes -dom, -ry, -ship denote:
a) nationality
b) diminutiveness
c) the agent of the action
d) collectivity
38. Suffixes -let, -ette, -ling denote:
a) nationality
b) diminutiveness
c) the agent of the action
d) collectivity
39. Today the suffixes -ard (drunkard), -th (length, heigth) are:
a) productive
b) semi-productive
c) non-productive
40. In English prefixes are characteristic for forming:
a) nouns
b) adverbs
c) verbs

41. Compounds where the components are joined by means of form-word stems (free-for-all) arecalled:

a) syntactical

b) neutral

c) morphological

42. Compounds where the components are joined without any linking element are called:

a) syntactical

b) neutral

c) morphological

43. Compounds where the components are joined by a linking element are called:

a) syntactical

b) neutral

c) morphological

44. Subordinative relations in compounds “breast-high”, “knee-deep”" can be characterized as:

a) objective

b) comparative

c) emphatic

d) limiting

e) space

f) cause

45. Subordinative relations in compounds “eggshell-thin”, “honey-sweet” can be characterized as:

a) objective

b) comparative

c) emphatic

d) limiting

e) space

f) cause

46. Subordinative relations in compound “gold-rich” can be characterized as:

a) objective

b) comparative

c) emphatic

d) limiting

e) space

f) cause

47. Subordinative relations in compound "top-heavy" can be characterized as:

a) objective

b) comparative

c) emphatic

d) limiting

e) space

f) cause

48. Subordinative relations in compound "dog-cheap" can be characterized as:

a) objective

b) comparative

c) emphatic

d) limiting

e) space

f) cause

49. Subordinative relations in compound "love-sick" can be characterized as:

a) objective

b) comparative

c) emphatic

d) limiting

e) space

f) cause

50. The most logical theory of the inner structure of the word is:

a) the immedite and ultimate constituents theory

b) the traditional theory

c) the association-definition theory

d) the morphemic theory

Etymology

1. A word which belongs to the original English stock is:

a) a native word

b) a loan word

c) assimilation of a loan

d) a semantic loan

2. A word taken over from another language and modified according to the standards of the English language is:

a) a native word

b) a loan word

c) a semantic word

d) a etymological doublet

3. The native words are further subdivided into those of:

a) Indo-European stock and common Germanic original

b) Latin and Roman original

c) Greek and German origin

4. The term “source of borrowing” should be distinguished from the term:

a) a native word

b) an evaluatory word

c) an origin of borrowing

5. The term denoting the development in an English word of a new meaning due to the influence of a related word in another language is:

a) translation loan

b) loan translation

c) semantic loan

6. Loan words, which are partially assimilated …. , usually borrowed from Latin or Greek, keep their original plural form.

a) phonetically

b) grammatically

c) semantically

7. ... depends upon the length of period during which the word has been used in the receiving language:

a) the frequency of using

b) degree of assimilation

c) the quality of monosyllabic words

8. ... are found in all the layers of older borrowings:

a) completely assimilated words

b) partially assimilated words

c) barbarisms

9. Words from other languages used by English people in conversation or in writing but not assimilated in any way are:

a) completely assimilated words

b) partially assimilated words

c) barbarisms

10. Two or more words of the same language which were derived by different routes from the same basic words are:

a) international words

b) barbarisms

c) etymological doublets

11. What form of borrowed words is assimilated quicker?

a) oral

b) written

c) inner speech

12. Barbarisms are...

a) completely assimilated borrowings

b) partly assimilated borrowings

c) non-assimilated borrowings

13. Find the corresponding English equivalent to the barbarism “amour propre”

a) beloved person

b) self-esteem

c) self-study

d) relationship

14. Borrowings non-assimilated semantically denote...

a) objects and notions peculiar to the country from the language of which they were borrowed

b) objects, which are differently understood in different countries

c) phenomena, which are common for a group of countries

15. What word is not a barbarism?

a) tete-a-tete

b) dolce vita

c) business

16. What was the reason of Latin and Greek borrowing into English?

a) the Adoption of Christianity in the 6-th century

b) the decline of the Roman Empire

c) the Norman Conquest

17. What alphabet was ousted in England by the Latin alphabet?

a) the Greek alphabet

b) the Runic alphabet

c) the Celtic alphabet

18. Latin and Greek borrowings are mostly...

a) scientific

b) idiomatic

c) vulgar

19. What origin has the word “homonym”?

a) Greek
b) Latin
c) Italian
20. What is the largest group of borrowings in English?
a) Greek
b) French
c) Spanish
21. What was the main source of French borrowings?
a) French literature
b) French immigrants
c) French Theatre
22. What English word was formed of Italian “banco rota”?
a) baroque
b) bankrupt
c) bank-note
23. Italian borrowings influenced mainly
a) musical terms
b) scientific terms
c) linguistic terms
24. Find a Celtic borrowing among the following variats
a) whisky
b) antonym
c) parliament
25. English belongs to...
a) the Germanic group of languages
b) the Slavonic group of languages
c) the Turkic group of languages
26. Such pronouns as *same, both* are borrowed from....
a) Latin
b) Scandinavian
c) Holland
27. What is the origin of the word “balcony”
a) French
b) Spanish
c) Italian
28. Which word is not a Russian borrowing?
a) pood
b) steppe

c) dock

29. The word “intelligenzia” came in English as....

a) Russian borrowing but with Latin root

b) Germanic borrowing with Latin root

c) Germanic borrowing with French root

30. A word was borrowed from the same language. As the result, we have two different words with different spelling and meaning but historically they come back to one and the same word. How are these words called?

a) etymological doublets

b) etymological pair

c) etymological couple

31 Which pair is not etymological doublets

a) canal – channel

b) skirt – shirt

c) scrab – crab

32. Are “supreme” and “superior” etymological doublets?

a) yes

b) no

c) they are semi-etymological doublets

Semasiology

1. What branch of lexicology studies the meaning of words?

a) phraseology

b) semasiology

c) descriptive lexicology

2. With what kind of meaning does semasiology deal?

a) with lexical meaning only

b) with grammatical meaning

c) with meaning of borrowed words only

3. What does semasiology study diachronically?

a) word meaning at a given moment of time

b) the change in meaning the words undergo

c) assimilation of borrowed words

4. What does synchronic approach study?

a) meanings of individual words

b) semantic structures typical of the given period of the language studied

c) the change in meaning the words undergo

5. What is excluded from the object of semasiology?

a) semantic development of words, its causes and classification

b) relevant distinctive features and types of lexical meaning

c) semantic grouping of words

d) grammatical structure of words

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

a) radiation

b) concatenation

c) extension

7. Which of the following words is an example of an extension of the word meaning?

a) queen

b) meat

c) salary

d) minister

8. The study of signs and languages in general is called:

a) semasiology

b) semantics

c) semiotics

9. Find the example of metaphor

a) Alan was sickly barking.

b) The White House was sleeping

c) I can find million of reasons

10. What is meaning according to disciples of F. De Saussure?

a) it is the object or notion named

b) it is the relation between the object or notion named and the name itself

c) it is the concept reflected in the language

11. What is meaning according to disciples of L. Bloomfield?

a) the situation in which the word is uttered

b) the basis of lexicology

c) it is the relation between the object or notion named and the name itself

12. What is lexical meaning according to Soviet linguists?

a) it is the object or notion named

b) the realization of the notion by means of a definite language system

c) concepts of mental activity only

13. What expresses the notional content of a word?

a) semantic component

b) significative meaning

c) denotative meaning

14. What do we call a notion or an actually existing individual thing to which reference is made?

a) denotatum (referent)

b) semantic component

c) meaning

15. What do we call connotations of words?

a) the notional content of a word

b) the mental content of a word

c) the emotional or expressive counterpart of meaning

16. What is not a type of denotative meaning?

a) demonstrative meaning

b) affecting meaning

c) significative meaning

17. If a word evokes a general idea its function is:

a) demonstrative

b) affecting

c) significative

18. The function of demonstrative words is:

a) affecting

b) identifying

c) explanatory

19. Which element in the lexical meaning is not optional?

a) denotative

b) stylistic

c) connotative

20. What cannot be expressed by the connotative component?

a) stylistic colouring

b) emotion

c) evaluation

d) intensity

e) valency

21. What do we call an expression in speech of relationship between words based on contrastive features of arrangements in which they occur?

a) valency

b) grammatical meaning

c) lexical meaning

22. What do we call elements of meaning, which can be combined in different ways with other such elements?

a) semantic components

b) lexical components

c) denotata

23. A word that has more than one meaning is called:

a) homonym

b) polysemantic word

c) synonym

24. “The table kept laughing” is an example of

a) synecdoche

b) metonymy

c) metaphor

25. Metonymy in the sentence “He was summoned by the authorities” represents

a) the name of the container for the thing contained

b) the sign is used for the thing meant

c) the abstract is substituted for the concrete

26. The unity of one of the word's meaning and its form is called:

a) polycemy

b) homonymy

c) a lexico-grammatical variant

27. The usage of a word in a meaning that is not registered in the dictionary is called:

a) replication

b) unique usage

c) nonce usage

28. The meaning in speech is always:

a) contextual

b) original

c) independent of its dictionary meaning

29. What do we call the reflection in the mind of real objects and phenomena in their essential features and relations?

a) a referent

b) a notion

c) a class

30. Simile is very close to…

a) metaphor

b) metonymy

c) radiation

31. Find an example in which a metonymic extension takes place

a) tongues of flame

b) to drink milk

c) I was ready for my knife and fork

32. Find an example in which a metaphoric extension takes place

a) man's mouth

b) The town was sleeping

c) branch of linguistics

33. Words that can substitute any word of their class are called:

a) generic terms

b) primary lexico-grammatical variants

c) secondary lexico-grammatical variants

34. The minimal stretch of speech that determines each individual meaning of the word.

a) lexico-grammatical variant

b) derivation

c) context

35. What is the opposite in this pair of lexical meaning distinction "central and…":

a) international

b) peripheral

c) secondary

36. What do we call a meaning which nominates the object without the help of context?

a) figurative

b) direct

c) abstract

37. When an object is named and at the same time characterized through its similarity with another object, the meaning is:

a) figurative

b) direct

c) abstract

38. What is the main meaning of a word?

a) its concrete meaning

b) its direct meaning

c) the meaning that at the present stage of the word's development possesses the highest frequency

39. “To make a good teacher” is an example of

a) phraseologically bound lexical meaning

b) syntactically conditioned lexical meaning

c) structurally conditioned meaning

d) direct meaning

40. “Black Friday” is an example of

a) phraseologically bound lexical meaning

b) syntactically conditioned lexical meaning

c) structurally conditioned meaning

d) direct meaning

41. The earliest known meaning is called:

a) archaic

b) original

c) etymological

42. The meaning superseded at the present day by another one is called:

a) archaic

b) original

c) etymological

43. The meaning serving as basis for derived ones is called:

a) archaic

b) original

c) etymological

44. What do we call the semantic change characterized by narrowing in meaning?

a) specification

b) specialization

c) generalization

45. What do we call the process reverse to the narrowing of meaning?

a) specialization

b) nominalization

c) generalization

46. What do we call a transfer of name based upon the association of similarity, a hidden comparison?

a) metaphor

b) metonymy

c) epithet

47. What do we call a transfer based on the association of contiguity?

a) metaphor

b) metonymy

c) epithet

48. An exaggerated statement expressing an intensely emotional attitude of the speaker to what he is speaking about is called:

a) euphemism

b) hyperbole

c) litotes

49. A figure of speech characterized as expression of the affirmative by negating its opposite is called:

a) euphemism

b) hyperbole

c) litotes

50. What do we call a semantic shift undergone by words due to their referents coming up the social scale?

a) pejoration

b) amelioration

c) degradation

Homonymy, Synonymy, Antonymy

1. What phenomenon do we call homonyms?

a) two or more words identical in sound and spelling but different in meaning, distribution and origin

b) two or more words identical in meaning, distribution and origin but different in sound and spelling

c) two or more words posessing the same form and very close in their meanings

2. What helps to differentiate between homonyms in speech?

a) marks in the dictionary

b) context

c) the paradigm of the given word

3. What stylistic device is based upon the use of two or more meanings at the same time?

a) metaphor

b) zeugma

c) pun

4. What do the term “homonyms proper” denote?

a) words identical in pronunciation and spelling

b) words identical in and meaning

c) words identical in spelling only

5. Words of the same sound but different in spelling and meaning are called:

a) homophones

b) homonymes proper

c) homographs

6. Words different in meaning and sound but accidentally similar in spelling are called:

a) homophones

b) homonymes proper

c) homographs

7. To what type of homonyms do homoforms belong?

a) homophones

b) homonymes proper

c) homographs

8. What drawback does A.I. Smitnitsky's classification of homonyms proper have?

a) it excludes homonyms from the general vocabulary system

b) it disregards the difference between homonyms and other vocabulary units

c) it focuses our attention only on the meaning of homonyms

9. What is the main reason due to which homonyms appear?

a) split of polysemy

b) borrowings

c) parallel genesis

10. What is patterned homonymy?

a) homonyms built according to the same word-building pattern

b) homonyms that have developed from one common source and belong to various parts of speech

c) polysemantic words

11. What words do we call synonyms?

a) words kindred in meaning but distinct in morphemic composition, phonemic shape and usage

b) two or more words identical in sound and spelling but different in meaning, distribution and origin

c) words of one and the same stylistic origin

12. What forms the basis of a synonymic opposition?

a) additional connotations

b) stylistic colouring

c) the denotational component

13. What do we call the suspension of an otherwise functioning semantic opposition that occurs in some lexical contexts?

a) synonymisation

b) neutralization

c) differentiation

14. The most general term in a synonymic group is called:

a) the synonymic dominant

b) the synonymic head

c) the synonymic invariant

15. What do we call “a generic term”?

a) the synonymic dominant

b) the name for the notion of the genus as distinguished from the names of the species

c) the main word in a synonymic group

16. What do we call “hyponymy”?

a) inclusion of the meaning of one word into the meaning of another one

b) paronymy

c) the relation between two or more synonyms that are relating to one another as species of one genus

17. Hyponymy ia a:

a) unilateral relation

b) symmetrical relation

c) metaphorical relation

18. Ideographic synonyms are synonyms:

a) when the difference in meaning concerns the notion or the emotion expressed

b) when the difference in meaning concerns their graphical form

c) when the difference in meaning concerns their stylistic connotations

19. What do we call “total synonymy”?

a) synonymy where the members differ only in stylistic connotations

b) synonymy where the members can replace each other in every given context

c) synonymy where the members denote different objects

20. Synonyms that are similar in meaning only under some specific distributional context are called:

a) total synonyms

b) contextual synonyms

c) relative synonyms

21. In what way cannot synonyms influence one another?

a) assimilation

b) conversion

c) dissimilation

22. The process during which synonyms acquire different meanings is called:

a) assimilation

b) synonymic differentiation

c) neutralization

23. The substitution of a harsh, offensive or taboed word by another milder or less straightforward is called:

a) euphemism

b) zeugma

c) metaphor

24. What do we call words in which morphological and phonetical structure may vary?

a) lexical variants

b) synonyms

c) paronyms

25. Words resembling each other in form and meaning are called:

a) lexical variants

b) malaprodisms

c) paronyms

26. Misapplied words are called:

a) lexical variants

b) malaprodisms

c) paronyms

27. What do we mean by “antonyms”?

a) two or more words identical in sound and spelling but different in meaning, distribution and origin

b) words kindred in meaning but distinct in morphemic composition, phonemic shape and usage

c) words belonging to the same part of speech, identical in style and distribution whose denotative meanings render contrary or contradictory notions

28. What is the basis of an antonymic opposition?

a) regular co-occurrence in typical contexts combined with approximate sameness of distribution and stylistic and emotional equivalence

b) contradiction of meanings

c) difference of forms

29. The pair “known-unknown” refers to:

a) absolute antonyms

b) root antonyms

c) derivational antonyms

30. The pair “love-hatred” refers to:

a) root antonyms

b) derivational antonyms

c) hyponyms

31. If antonymy is based on a gradual opposition it is called:

a) complementary

b) proper

c) contextual

32. If antonymy is based on a binary opposition it is called:

a) complementary

b) proper

c) contextual

33. What do we call words that denote one and the same referent viewed from different points of view?

a) antonyms proper

b) paronyms

c) conversives

34. The meanings of polysemantic words are:

a) always synonyms

b) sometimes antonyms

c) sometimes conversives

35. How do we call words of different languages denoting one and the same object?

a) interlanguage synonyms

b) correlated words

d) derived words

36. What kind of homonymy characterizes the pair “brother's-brothers”?

a) lexical

b) grammatical

c) lexico-grammatical

37. Words homonymous in all their forms are called:
a) full homonyms
b) partial homonyms
c) lexico-grammatical homonyms
38. Homonymy of undividual forms is called:
a) lexico-grammatical
b) grammatical
c) partial
39. Choose a polysemantic word:
a) may
b) pool
c) board
d) date
40. Choose a perfect homonym:
a) mine
b) wait
c) whet
d) air
41. Choose a homophone:
a) mean
b) grate
c) sink
d) all
42. Choose a homograph:
a) row
b) led
c) fare
d) strait
43. Find a perfect homonym:
a) tear
b) wind
c) stable
d) minute
44. Find the synonymic dominant:
a) agree
b) approve
c) consent
45. Find a general term:

a) clatter
b) sound
c) bang
d) cluck
46. Find a synonym to the word “fortitude”:
a) awkward
b) ability
c) courage
d) magnificence
47. Find a euphemism:
a) devil
b) over-eating
c) to pass away
d) cemetery
48. Which word is not a euphemism?
a) to partake of food
b) devil
c) deuce
d) insane
49. Find the original word substituted by a euphemism “inexpressibles”:
a) trousers
b) cemeteries
c) toilets
50. What do the euphemism “in the family way” mean?
a) mad
b) pregnant
c) foolish
51. Choose the correct homonym
The artist did a beautiful ..... of the man.
a) bussed
b) bust
52. Choose the correct homonym
The woman simply ..... my cheek in passing.
a) bussed
b) bust
53. Choose the correct homonym
I have to say good ... to my best friend.
a) bye

b) by
c) buy
54. Choose the correct homonym
Did you go ….. the store on your way home.
a) bye
b) by
c) buy
55. Choose the correct homonym
Please ….. some bread when you go to the grocery store
a) bye
b) by
c) buy
56. Choose the correct homonym
I have a …. of jewels hidden in my backyard.
a) cash
b) cache
57. Choose the correct homonym
I will pay for that with ….
a) cash
b) cache
58. Choose the correct homonym
My ring is twenty-four …. marvel.
a) carrot
b) karat
c) caret
59. Choose the correct homonym
I will peel a ….. to go with my salad.
a) carrot
b) karat
c) caret
60. Choose the correct homonym
The editor used a….. to show me where to insert the comma.
a) carrot
b) karat
c) caret
61. Choose the correct synonym
Tease
a) same

b) harass
62. Choose the correct synonym
Tall
a) lofty
b) short
63. Choose the correct synonym
Tame
a) wild
b) subdued
64. Choose the correct synonym
Dirty
a) clean
b) tarnish
65. Choose the correct synonym
Sour
a) tart
b) smooth
66. Choose the correct synonym
Duty
a) task
b) same
67. Choose the correct synonym
Same
a) tease
b) similar
68. Choose the correct synonym
Late
a)early
b) overdue
69. Choose the correct synonym
Blab
a) tattle
b) gaudy
70. Choose the correct synonym

Tasty
a) savory
b) bland

71. Match the term on the left to its antonym on the right
a) Keen 1) blunt
b) Kindly 2) smoother
c) Kindle 3) verbose
d) Laconic 4) rejoice
e) Lament 5) malevolent
72. Match the term on the left to its antonym on the right
a) limber 1) thriving
b) lenient 2) severe
c) languishing 3) stiff
d) literal 4) prompt
e) late 5) fictional
73. Choose the correct antonym for each term
Detest
a) abhor
b) adore
74. Choose the correct antonym for each term
Detached
a) aloof
b) interested
75. Choose the correct antonym for each term.
Destitution
a) opulence
b) indigence
76. Choose the correct antonym for each term.
Prudent
a) reckless
b) careful
77. Choose the correct antonym for each term.
Chivalrous
a) gallant
b) ungracious
78. Choose the correct antonym for each term.
Childish
a) youthful
b) mature
79. Choose the correct antonym for each term.
Certitude

a) belief
b) doubt
80. Choose the correct antonym for each term.
Bewail
a) rejoice
b) sorrow
81. Choose the correct antonym for each term.
Behind
a) ahead
b) after
82. Choose the correct antonym for each term.
Befuddle
a) clarify
b) confuse
83. Match the term on the left to its antonym on the right
a) tolerance 1) disobedient
b) torpid 2) active
c) touchy 3) loathing
d) tractable 4) freeze
e) thaw 5) unruly
84. Match the term on the left to its antonym on the right
a) tranquil 1) original
b) transparent 2) opaque
c) treason 3) consolation
d) tribulation 4) troubled
e) trite 5) loyalty

Word-formation

1. The nucleus of the lexical meaning is
a) affix
b) suffix
c) root
d) stem
2. The morpheme that forms parts of speech is
a) stem
b) suffix
c) prefix
d) ending
3. The morpheme that modifies the meaning of the word is

a) stem
b) root
c) prefix
d) suffix

4. The morphemes that are classified according to their meaning are
a) prefixes
b) stems
c) roots
d) endings

5. The morphemes that are classified according to the part of speech they make are
a) prefixes
b) suffixes
c) endings
d) roots

6. What morphemes can be classified according to both the meaning and the part of speech?
a) prefixes
b) endings
c) suffixes
d) roots

7. Root words are
a) simple words
b) derived words
c) compound words
d) compound-derived words

8. The most frequent words are
a) simple words
b) derived words
c) compound words
d) compound-derived words

9. Derived words are words formed with the help of
a) root and affix
b) root
c) two stems
d) three stems

10. A blend is

a) a word made by taking the initial letters of 2 or more words and pronouncing those as a single word

b) a word created from 2 non-morphemic parts of already existing words

c) a word created by removing a morpheme perceived as an affix from an already existing word

11. An acronym is

a) a word created by removing a morpheme perceived as an affix from an already existing word

b) a word made by taking the initial letters of 2 or more words and pronouncing those as a single word

c) a word made by taking the initial letters of 2 or more words and pronouncing those as a single word

12. A clipping is

a) a shorten polysyllabic word by deleting I or more syllables

b) a word made by taking the initial letters of 2 or more words and pronouncing those as a single word

c) a word created from 2 non-morphemic parts of already existing words

13. The word spam (from spiced and ham) is

a) a clipping

b) an acronym

c) a blend.

14. The word auto is

a) an acronym

b) a blend

c) a clipping

15. The word AIDS is

a) an acronym

b) a blend

c) a clipping

Phraseology

1. What is the subject of phraseology?

a) fixed collocations together with free ones

b) functionally and semantically inseparable word-groups

c) a syntagm denoting one idea

2. Which Russian scientist was the first to study word-groups on a scientific level?

a) V.V. Vinogradov

b) A.A. Schachmatov

c) A.V.Kunin

3. Who was the first linguist to initiate investigations of English phraseology in our country?

a) V.V. Vinogradov

b) A.V. Kunin

c) E. Nida

4. What is not a feature of a phraseological unit?

a) stability

b) semantic inseparability

c) functional variability

5. Which feature of the notion makes the basic criterion of differentiation a set phrase?

a) stability

b) semantic inseparability

c) functional inseparability

6. Which criterion lays in basis of differentiation of an idiom?

a) stability

b) semantic inseparability

c) lack of motivation

7. What does the term word-equivalent stress?

a) stability

b) semantic and functional inseparability

c) lack of motivation

8. Usually phraseological units are:

a) newly-formed

b) ready-made

c) variable from case to case

9. The meaning of most phraseological units:

a) can be easily deduced from the meanings of its components

b) cannot be deduced from the meanings of its components

c) can be regarded as sum of meanings

10. Completely non-motivated word-groups are called:

a) phraseological collocations

b) phraseological fusions

c) phraseological unities

11. Partially motivated word-groups are called:

a) phraseological collocations

b) phraseological fusions

c) phraseological unities

12. Motivated and partially variable word-groups are called:

a) phraseological collocations

b) phraseological fusions

c) phraseological unities

13. Which linguist introduced the classification of phraseological units into fusions, unities and collocations?

a) L. Bloomfield

b) V.V. Vinogradov

c) A.V. Kunin

14. Which feature of phraseological units is viewed interlingually, in comparison with similar units of other languages?

a) stability

b) variability

c) idiomacity

15. Who introduced the functional approach to phraseological units?

a) V. V. Vinogradov

b) A. L. Smirnitsky

c) A.V. Kunin

16. Which aspect cannot be referred to the notion idiomacity?

a) semantic inseparability

b) stylistic inseparability

c) firm motivation

17. What kind of motivation can be traced in proverbs and sayings?

a) they are non-motivated

b) the meaning is based on metaphor

c) the meaning is composed of the meanings of the parts

18. The contextual approach to phraseological units was for the first time used by:

a) N. N. Amosova

b) S. L. Ulmann

c) R. H. Robins

19. An essential feature of a phraseological unit is:

a) free context

b) fixed context

c) newly-created context

20. Traditional collocations (Smitnitsky's term) are characteristic of:

a) set expressions

b) word-groups with variable members

c) idioms

21. Two-member word-groups in which one of the members has specialized meaning dependent on the second component are called:

a) idioms

b) phraseological fusions

c) phrasemes

22. Units characterized by idiomacity of the whole group are called:

a) idioms

b) phraseological fusions

c) phrasemes

23. Transformation of free word-groups into mood-forms is called:

a) lexicalization

b) grammaticalization

c) idiomatization

24. Development of a word-groups into a word-equivalent is called:

a) lexicalization

b) grammaticalization

c) idiomatization

25. What happens to a word-group if one of its components drops out of the language altogether?

a) it is regarded as obsolete

b) it lacks motivation

c) it loses stability

26. What differs a set expression from a word?

a) it can be divided into separately structured elements

b) it can function without any context

c) it is not a bilateral unit

27. The set expression “in the course of” belongs to:

a) interjectional phrases

b) conjunctional phrases

c) prepositional phrases

28. Which of the following features manifests itself in the phrase “safe and sound”?

a) imagery

b) alliteration

c) connotation

29. Which of the following features manifests itself in the phrase “high and dry”?

a) rhyme

b) rhythm

c) alliteration

30. Which of the following features manifests itself in the phrase “for love or money”?

a) metaphor

b) contrast

c) simile

31. Which of the following features does not manifest itself in the phrase “to kill or cure”?

a) simile

b) alliteration

c) synonymy

32. Who introduced the following pattern if a set expression development “a free combination →a clearly motivated stereotyped metaphorical phrase→an idiom with lost motivation”?

a) B. A. Larin

b) Ch. Bally

c) A.V. Kunin

33. Who gave the first definition to a phraseological unit?

a) B. A. Larin

b) Ch. Bally

c) A.V. Kunin

34. Who classified phraseological units according to the way they are formed?

a) B. A. Larin

b) Ch. Bally

c) A.V. Kunin

35. What is not a primary way of forming phraseological units?

a) conversion

b) transforming the meaning of a free word-group

c) expressiveness

36. What is not a secondary way of forming phraseological units

a) conversion

b) analogy

c) contrast

d) expressiveness

37. Who elaborated the structural classification of phraseological units, comparing them with words?

a) A.V. Kunin

b) V.V. Vinogradov

c) A. 1. Smirnitsky

38. What is not a type of one-top phraseological units?

a) attributive-nominal groups

b) prepositional-nominal groups

c) units of the type “to give up”

39. What is not a type of two-top phraseological units?

a) attributive-nominal groups

b) prepositional-nominal groups

c) verb-nominal units

40. Who suggested the classification of phraseological units as parts of speech?

a) I. V. Arnold

b) A.V. Kunin

c) A. I. Smimitsky

41. Why do J. Casaris and N. N. Amosova exclude proverbs from the object of phraseology?

a) proverbs do not possess all the characteristics of phraseological units

b) proverbs are independent units of communication

c) proverbs are not stable enough

42. Who divides the whole bulk of phraseological units into unities and combinations?

a) A. 1. Smimitsky

b) T. V. Stroyeva

c) V.V. Vinogradov

43. A rigid and unchangable phraseological unit is called:

a) a phraseological unity

b) a phraseological combination

c) a fusion

44. Units revealing change of meaning only in one of the components are called:

a) a phraseological unity

b) a phraseological combination

c) a fusion

45. Prof. A. I. Smimitsky consideres a phraseological unit:

a) similar to word

b) different from word in its application

c) not a unit of vocabulary

46. Who suggested three classes of phraseological units: traditional phrases, phraseological combinations and idioms?

a) A. I. Smimitsky

b) T. V. Stroyeva

c) V.V. Vinogradov

47. A unit, the meaning of which can be derived from the meaning of the component parts is called:

a) a traditional phrase

b) a phraseological combination

c) an idiom

48. A unit, whose metaphorical motivation has faded and which are emotionally and stylistically neutral are called:

a) a traditional phrase

b) a phraseological combination

c) an idiom

49. Imaginative, emotional and stylistically coloured units are called:

a) a traditional phrase

b) a phraseological combination

c) an idiom

50. The unit “to wash one's dirty linen in public” refers to:

a) a traditional phrase

b) a phraseological combination

c) an idiom

Dialects and variants of English

1. What do we call regional varieties of a standard literary language characterized by some minor peculiarities in the sound system, vocabulary and grammar and their own literary norms?

a) dialects

b) variants of a language

c) ideolects

2. What do we call varieties of a language used as a means of oral communication in small localities?

a) dialects

b) variants of a language

c) ideolects

3. What do we call the group of features characteristic of one single person's speech?

a) a dialect

b) a variant of a language

c) an ideolect

4. What is the main field of difference between British, American, Australian and Canadian English?

a) phonetics

b) lexemes

c) grammar

5. Where do the lexical differences between territorial variants mostly manifest themselves?

a) in phraseological units

b) in divergences in the semantic structure of the words

c) in the words collocations

6. Which American linguist considers British and American English to be separate languages?

a) Ch. Rocket

b) L. Bloomfield

c) R. L. Mencken

7. Which of the following variants cannot be called territorially-marked?

a) Americanisms

b) General English

c) Canadianisms

8. In the corresponding pair "government-administration" the second word is:

a) a Briticism

b) an Americanism

c) an Australianism

9. In the corresponding pair "leader-editorial" the first word in the meaning "leading article in a newspaper" can be referred to:

a) Briticisms

b) Americanisms

c) Australianisms

10. The words "campus", "mailboy" are:

a) full Briticisms

b) full Americanisms

c) full Australianisms

11. The words “fortnight”, “pillar-box” are:

a) full Briticisms

b) full Americanisms

c) full Australianisms

12. The words “outback”, “backblocks” are:

a) full Briticisms

b) full Americanisms

c) full Australianisms

13 .Words of some variant that have no counterparts elsewhere denote

a) realia

b) phenomena observable in other English-speaking countries

c) interchangeable phenomena

14. The realia composite high school refers to:

a) Americanisms

b) Australianisms

c) Canadianisms

15. What is a derivational variant of a word?

a) a word having the same root but a different meaning

b) a word having the same root and identical in meaning but differing in derivational affixes

c) a word having the same root and identical in meaning but having another distribution

16. Lexical peculiarities in different parts of the English-speaking word do not include:

a) valency

b) the usage

c) the word-building patterns

17. What is not the major belt of dialects in the USA?

a) Northern

b) Southern

c) Midland

d) Western

18. The process of dialect divergence is going to:

a) increase

b) decrease

c) stabilize

19. The official language of Great Britain is called:

a) Standard English

b) Literary English

c) Scottish English

20. What differs a variant from a dialect?

a) it possesses a literary norm

b) it is acknowledged by all the population of the country

c) it is spoken only within some area

21. What is not a variant of English?

a) Scottish English

b) Irish English

c) Welsh English

22. Cockney belongs to the group of:

a) Northern dialects

b) Southern dialects

c) Midland dialects

23. On how many levels does Cockney exist?

a) two

b) three

c) four

24. Lines on the maps showing areas where the same dialect is spoken are called:

a) dialect borders

b) isoglosses

c) parabolas

25. What feature of Cockney was lost by the end of the 19th century?

a) replacement of [w] for [v]

b) replacement of [8] for [s]

c) replacement of [f] for [8]

26. Cockney's vocabulary is characterized by:

a) unpleasant acoustic effect

b) rhyming and imaginativeness

c) reduction of most literary words

27. Why cannot we call American English a dialect?

a) it is widely-spread

b) it is not a territorial variety

c) it has ins own literary norm called Standard American

28. The expression “I guess” in the meaning “I think” has come into American English from the language of:

a) W. Shakespeare

b) Chaucer

c) Spenser

29. The words “cafeteria”, “mustang”, “ranch”" have come into American English from:

a) Spanish

b) the Indian dialects

c) Brasilian

30. The American variant of “through”" is:

a) thru

b) through

c) throu

31. The British word cosy in American is written as:

a) cosy

b) cosey

c) cozy

32. The British word practice in American is written as:

a) practize

b) pracrice

c) ptactise

33. In American English the word “flat” means:

a) an apartment

b) a puncture in your tire

c) a hitch-hiking camp

34. What do we call international words?

a) words borrowed from one language into several others

b) words developed in different languages according to the same word building pattern?

c) words of the same root in different languages

35. In what language do the international words “bungalow”, “jute”, “khaki” originate?

a) in Canadian

b) in Indian

c) in Australian

36. In what language does the international word “boomerang” originate?

a) in Canadian

b) in Indian

c) in Australian

37. Which variant of English can be considered as normative now?

a) Canadian
b) American
c) British
d) none
38. Which of these words is used in America?
a) mail-car
b) telegraph blank
c) foreign mail
d) overseas mail
39. What do the word “homely” mean in American English?
a) ugly
b) plain
c) rustic
40. Which of the following words has the same meaning both British and in American English?
a) apartment
b) tardy
c) homely
d) calico
41. What is the American meaning of the word “to calculate”?
a) to sum up
b) to consider
c) to dream
d) to rely on
42. What is the American meaning of the word “sick”?
a) ill
b) feeling nausea
c) being in decay
d) yearning for
43. What is the American meaning of the word “faucet”?
a) electric pluck
b) facet
c) tap
44. What is the American meaning of the word “billion”?
a) milliard
b) trillion
c) million
45. What is the American meaning of the word “to solicit”?

a) to ask for money from a person
b) to sell by taking orders for a product or service
c) to advertise oneself as a prostitute
46. What is the American meaning of the word “quite”?
a) completely, perfectly
b) to some degree
c) unusual, above average
47. The origin of the names of states “Oklahoma”, “Ohio”, “Wyoming” is:
a) Indian
b) Celtic
c) Anglo-Saxon
48. The American spelling for “catalogue” is:
a) cat
b) catalog
c) cataloge
49. In American the words “clamour”, “colour” are written:
a) without “u”
b) without “o”"
c) in the same way
50. The American spelling for “vigorous” is:
a) vigoros
b) vigorus
c) vigorous

4 QUESTIONS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. Words of native origin and their characteristics.
2. Foreign elements in modern English.
3. Assimilation of borrowings.
4. Translation loans.
5. Etymological doublets.
6. International words.
7. The morphological structure of a word.
8. Productive ways of word-formation.
9. Affixation.
10. Prefixation.
11. Suffixation.
12. Semantics of affixes.

13. Semi-affixes.
14. Combining forms.
15. Word-composition.
16. Classification of compound words.
17. The semantic aspect of compound words.
18. The criteria of compounds.
19. Pseudo-compounds.
20. Conversion.
21. Shortening. Lexical abbreviations. Clipping.
22. Acronyms.
23. Non-productive means of word formation.
24. Blending.
25. Back-formation.
26. Onomatopoeia.
27. Sound and stress interchange.
28. Referential and functional approaches to meaning.
29. Types of word meaning.
30. Lexical meaning. Semantic structure of English words.
31. Denotational meaning and connotational meaning.
32. Implicational meaning.
33. Polysemy.
34. The semantic structure of a polysemantic word.
35. Types of context.
36. Causes of development of new meanings.
37. Change of meaning.
38. Broadening (or Generalisation) of meaning.
39. Narrowing (or Specialisation) of meaning.
40. Elevation and degradation of meaning of a word.
41. Transference based on resemblance (Similarity). Metaphor.
42. Transference based on contiguity. Metonymy.
43. Synonyms. Criteria of synonymy.
44. A synonymic group and its dominant member.
45. Problem of classification of synonyms.
46. Sources of synonymy.
47. Homonyms.
48. Paronyms.
49. Classification of homonyms.
50. Sources of homonyms.

51. Euphemisms.
52. Antonyms.
53. Neologisms.
54. Traditional lexicological grouping.
55. The theory of the semantic field.
56. Common contextual associations.
57. Hyponymy.
58. Hyponyms, hyperonymas, equonyms.
59. Paradigmatic relation of inclusion.
60. The problem of definition of free word-groups.
61. Structure of free word-groups.
62. Meaning of free word-groups.
63. Interrelation of structural and lexical meanings in word-groups.
64. Motivation in word-groups.
65. Lexical and grammatical valency.
66. Colloquialisms.
67. Slang.
68. Dialect words.
69. Formal words.
70. Learned words.
71. Archaic and obsolete words.
72. Professional terminology.
73. Basic vocabulary.
74. The problem of definition of phraseological word combination.
75. Criteria for identifying phraseological units.
76. Thematic (etymological) classification of phraseological units.
77. The structural principle of classifying phraseological units.
78. Formal and functional classification of phraseological units.
79. Ways of forming phraseological units.
80. Stylistic aspect of phraseology.
81. Polysemy and synonymy of phraseological units.
82. Proverbs, sayings, familiar quotations and cliches.
83. Characteristics of World Englishes.
84. Language, dialect and accent.
85. Geographical dialect continua.
86. Social dialect continua.
87. Varieties of Language.
88. English Lexicography.

5 GLOSSARY

A

Abbreviation is the process and the result of forming a word out of the initial elements of a word or phrase (*abbr., abbrv., abbrev.*). In strict analysis, abbreviations should not be confused with contractions or acronyms (including initialisms), though all three are connoted by the term "abbreviation" in loose parlance. An abbreviation is a shortening by any method; a contraction is a reduction of size by the drawing together of the parts and made by omitting certain letters or syllables and bringing together the first and last letters or elements; an abbreviation may be made either by omitting certain portions from the interior or by cutting off a part; a contraction is an abbreviation, but an abbreviation is not necessarily a contraction. However, normally acronyms are regarded as a subgroup of abbreviations.

Accent is a manner of pronunciation of a language.

Acronym is a word formed by taking the initial letters of the words in a phrase or title and pronouncing them as a word.

Active vocabulary is the vocabulary available to a native speaker or a learner for encoding purposes such as speaking, writing or translating from the native into a foreign language; it is considerably smaller than passive vocabulary associated with decoding tasks such as listening and reading.

Adjective is a lexical category that designates a property that is applicable to the entities named by nouns, can often take comparative and superlative endings in English, and functions as the head of an adjective phrase.

Affix is a bound morpheme that modifies the meaning and / or syntactic (sub) category of the stem in some way.

Affixation is the formation of words by adding derivational affixes to different types of bases.

Allomorph is a variant of a morpheme.

Amelioration is the process in which the meaning of a word becomes more favourable.

Antonyms are words grouped together on the basis of the semantic relations of opposition.

Antonymy is the relationship of oppositeness in meaning.

Aphaeresis is clipping of the first part of the word, dropping the beginning of the word.

Apocope is shortening by dropping the last letter or syllable.

Archaism is a lexical item that was previously widely used but has survived only in a particular dialect.

Argot is a secret language associated with social groups whose members wish to conceal some aspects of their communication from nonmembers.

Assimilation of borrowings is the adaptation of borrowed words to the system of the receiving language in pronunciation, in grammar and in spelling.

B

Back-formation is creating a new word by removing a real or supposed affix from another word in a language.

Blend(ing) is a word created from parts of two already existing items, usually the first part from one and the final part of the other.

Borrowing (a loan word) is a word taken over from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the receiving language.

Bound morpheme is a morpheme that must be attached to another element.

C

Cliché is a stereotyped expression mechanically reproduced in speech.

Cognate word is 1) a word related to one or more other words in the same language by derivation (thought is a cognate of think); 2) a word which shares a common ancestor with one or more other words as with English *sleep*, Dutch *slap* and German *Schlaf*, which are all considered to be descended from an ancestral Germanic form.

Cognitive linguistics is a branch of linguistics or cognitive science which seeks to explain language in terms of mental processes or with reference to a mental reality underlying the language.

Collocation is a combination words which conditions the realization of a certain meaning.

Collocation profile is a computer-generated list of all the collocates of a node word in a corpus, usually listed on the order of their statistical significance of occurrence.

Combinability is the ability of linguistic elements to combine in speech.

Compact dictionary is a reference book which is reduced either in physical size or in content.

Concept is a generalized reverberation in the human consciousness of properties of the objective reality learned in the process of the latter's cognition.

Concordance is a list of all the words which are used in a particular book or in the works of a particular author, together with the contexts in which each word occurs (usually not including highly frequent grammatical words such as articles and prepositions), e.g. *The Concordance to Shakespeare*.

Connotation is supplementary meaning or complimentary semantic and / or stylistic shade which is added to the word's main meaning and which serves to express all sorts of etymological, expressive, evaluative overtones; often contrasted with denotation.

Corpus is a systematic collection of texts which documents the usage features of a language variety.

Corpus linguistics is a branch of linguistics concerned with the application of computational corpus techniques to the solution of problems of large-scale description.

Corpusoriented lexicography is an approach to dictionary-making based on the tools and techniques of corpus linguistics.

Creole is a contact vernacular based on a 'pidgin' which has become the mother tongue of a speech community. Linguists recognize a continuum from the variety nearest the standard language ('acrolect') to that most different ('basilect'), with an intermediate variety ('mesolect') which varies from speaker to speaker.

Conversion is one of the principal ways of forming words in modern English which consists in making a new word from some existing word by changing the category of a part of speech; the morphemic shape of the original word remains unchanged.

D

Declension is the paradigm of an adjective, noun or pronoun, giving all its forms.

Defining dictionary is a type of reference work which explains the meaning of the words and phrases by definitions; the prototype of this dictionary is the monolingual alphabetical general dictionary.

Denotation is the central or core meaning of a word, sometimes claimed to be the relationship between a word and the reality it refers to, and often contrasted with connotation.

Derivation is forming a new word by combining a stem and affixes.

Derivational morpheme is an affixal morpheme which is added to the stem to form a new word.

Dialect is a variety of a language that is characteristic of a particular group of the language's speakers.

Dictionary is a book that lists the words of a language in a certain order (usually alphabetical) and gives their meanings or equivalent words in a different language.

Dictionary information is the information categories presented by the compiler and consulted by the user of a dictionary or other reference work; the information can be linguistic (e.g. spelling, meaning, pronunciation) or encyclopedic (facts and figures).

Discourse is the totality of verbal interactions and activities (spoken and written) that have taken place and are taking place in language community.

Distinctive stress *(distinctive change)* is the formation of a word by the means of the shift of the stress in the source word.

E

Endoglossic language is a language spoken as a native language by the majority of people in a given geographic region. e.g. Russian in Russia.

English as a foreign language is a variety of English which is used by learners for whom it is not the native language, usually outside a country where it is the dominant language.

English as a second language is a variety of English which is used by speakers for whom it is not the native language, usually in a country where it is the endoglossic, or dominant language, or in countries where it has an acknowledged function.

Epithet is a word or phrase used as a comment on, or brief description of, a person or object of attention.

Eponym is a word or phrase formed from a personal name, e.g. *a Roget* (i.e. a kind of thesaurus) < Peter M. Roget (1779–1869), the compiler of the *Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases* (London, 1852).

Equivalence is the relationship between words and phrases, from two or more languages, which share the same meaning; because of the problem of anisomorphism, equivalence is ‘partial’ or ‘relative’ rather than ‘full’ or ‘exact’ for most contexts.

Equivalent is a word or phrase in one language which corresponds in meaning to a word or phrase in another language.

ESP dictionary is a type of dictionary intended to describe a variety of English used by experts in a particular subject field. Dictionaries of this kind are conceived as aids for users who are already specialists in the field, but want to practice or study it further through the medium of English, e.g. for preparing an academic paper at an international conference.

Ethnonym *(ethnic name)* is a word or phrase used to refer to a particular community, they can range from affectionate nicknames to racial slurs.

Etymological dictionary is a type of dictionary in which words are traced back to their earliest appropriate forms and meanings.

Etymology is the origin and history of the elements in the vocabulary of a language.

Etymon is the form from which a word in a subsequent period of the language is derived.

Euphemism is a word or phrase used as a substitute for a vulgar, profane, blasphemous or otherwise disturbing.

Endocentric word-group has one central member functionally equivalent to the whole word-group, i. e. the distribution of the whole word-group and the distribution of its central member are identical.

Exocentric word-group has no central component and the distribution of the whole word-group is different from either of its members.

F

Fixed expression is a co-occurrence of two or more words which forms a unit of meaning.

G

Grammatical meaning is the meaning of the formal membership of a word expressed by the word's form. i.e. the meaning of relationship manifested not in the word itself but in the dependent element which is supplementary to its material part.

Grammatical valency is the aptness of a word to appear in specific grammatical (or rather syntactic) structures.

H

Hapax legomenon is a word or form found only once in a body of texts, for example in a corpus or in the works of a single author.

Historism *(historicism)* is a word which denotes a thing that is no longer used (names of social relations, institutions, objects of material culture of the past.

Homoacronym is an acronym which coincides with an ordinary English word semantically connected with the thin, person or phenomenon whose name is abbreviated (*NOW* is a *National Organisation for Women*).

Homographs are words different in sound and in meaning but accidentally identical in spelling.

Homonyms are the words, different in meaning and either identical both in sound and spelling or identical only in spelling or sound.

Homonyms proper are words identical in pronunciation and spelling.

Homophones are words of the same sound, but of different meaning.

Hybrid is a word different elements of which are of etymologically different origin.

Hyponymy is the relationship of meaning between specific and generic words.

I

Idiom is a type of fixed expression in which the meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings or functions of the different parts of the expression.

Indigenous language is a local language, usually contrasted with a colonial 'world language', e.g. the 'vernacular' languages in medieval Europe in relation to Latin, or the South American Indian languages in relation to Spanish or Portuguese.

Inflection is the marking of grammatical function by means of morphology, e.g. to show case or number.

Inflectional morpheme is a morpheme added to a base or stem to indicate grammatical function.

International words are words of identical origin and which occur in several languages as the result of simultaneous borrowings and convey notions significant in communication.

Interactive dictionary is an electronic dictionary which is not only capable of being integrated into a personal computer system, but also allows the potential combination with other media, such as the internet, film and sound, and – most crucially – an adaptation to the needs and preferences of the individual user, in terms of frequently performed lexical, grammatical and textual searches.

L

Language is a semiological system serving as the main and basic means of human communication.

Lemma is a form which represents different forms of a lexical entry in a dictionary.

Lexeme is a word in all its meanings and form, i.e. a word as a structural element of language.

Lexical item is a word understood as a unit of meaning rather than as written or spoken form.

Lexical meaning is the material meaning of a word, i.e. the meaning of the main material part of the word (as distinct from its formal or grammatical part), which reflects the concept the given word expresses and the basic properties of the thing (phenomenon, quality, state, etc.) the word denotes.

Lexical valency *(collocability)* is the aptness of a word to appear in various combinations.

Lexicography is the professional activity and academic field concerned with dictionaries and other reference works, it has two basic divisions: lexicographic practice, or dictionary-making, and lexicographic theory, or dictionary research.

Lexicology is a branch of linguistics concerned with the study of the basic units of the vocabulary (lexemes), their formation, structure and meaning.

Lexicon 1) is the totality of a language's vocabulary, seen either as a list or as a structured whole; the view of vocabulary as a list of words has led to the development of glossaries, dictionaries and other works of reference, while the structural view has encouraged such linguistic disciplines as grammar, lexicology and semantics; 2) is a type of reference work in which the words of a language, language variety, speaker or text are listed and explained, either in alphabetical or in thematic order, in English, this term is associated not with the general dictionary, but with more specialized works of a classical, literary or technical orientation.

Loan is a word adopted from another language (the donor language) and incorporated into a recipient language without translation. It is distinguished from a calque (loan translation), which is a word or phrase whose meaning or idiom is adopted from another language by translation into existing words or roots of the recipient language.

M

Meronymy is the relationship of meaning between part and whole.

Morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of a language, which has lexical or grammatical meaning.

Morphological segmentation *(divisibility)* is the ability of a word to be divided into its structural elements such as root, stem and affix (or affixes).

Motivation of the linguistic sign is a direct connection between the signifier and the signified.

N

Narrowing of meaning is the restriction of semantic capacity of a word in the course of its historical development.

Neologism is a new word, form, construction or sense introduced into discourse and ultimately into the language.

Nonce word *(nonce-word, occasional word)* is a lexical unit which is related by the speaker on the spur of the moment, for a given occasion only.

Noun is a lexical category that typically names entities can usually be inflected for number and possession in English, and functions as the head of a noun phrase.

O

Onomatopoeia is the formation of words from sounds that resemble those associated by the object or action to be named, or that seem suggestive of its qualities.

P

Paradigm is the system of the grammatical forms of a word.

Paronyms are words that are kindred both in sound form and meaning and therefore liable to be mixed but in fact different in meaning and usage and therefore only mistakenly interchanged.

Pejoration is a semantic change where the meaning of a word becomes more negative or unfavourable.

Phraseological transference is a complete or partial change of meaning of an initial (source) word-combination (or a sentence) as a result of which the word-combination (or the sentence) acquires a new meaning and turns into a phraseological unit.

Phraseological unit is a lexicalized, reproducible bilexemic or polylexemic word group in common use, which has relative syntactic and semantic stability, may be idiomatized, may carry connotations, and may have an emphatic or intensifying function in a text.

Pidgin is a lingua franca with a highly simplified grammatical structure that has emerged as a mixture of two or more languages and has no native speakers.

Politically correct vocabulary is the vocabulary reflecting the social tendency to advocating the equality of all regardless of their race, gender, age, physical or mental condition.

Polysemy is the situation in which a word has two or more related meanings.

Pragmatics is speaker's and addressee's background attitudes and beliefs, their understanding of the context of an utterance, and their knowledge of how language can be used for a variety of purposes.

Prefix is a derivational morpheme preceding the root-morpheme and modifying its meaning.

Preposition is a minor lexical category whose members typically designate relations in space or time; they come before the NP complement with which they combine to form a PP.

Proclitic is a clitic that attaches to the beginning of a word.

Productivity in morphology is the relative freedom with which affixes can combine with bases of the appropriate category.

Pronoun is a minor lexical category whose members can replace a noun phrase and that look to another element for their interpretation.

Proverb (from Latin *pro* 'forward'+ *verb* 'word') is a collection of words that has been disseminated forth, and states a general truth or gives advice.

R

Received Pronunciation (RP) is a form of pronunciation of the English language (specifically British English) which has long been perceived as uniquely prestigious amongst British accents.

Referent is a definite thing or phenomenon.

Regional dialect is a speech variety spoken in a particular geographical area (e.g., Appalachian English).

Register is a speech variety appropriate to a particular speech situation (e.g., formal versus casual).

Root in a complex word is the morpheme that remains after all affixes are removed.

Rootmorphemes (or radicals) are the lexical nucleus of words.

S

Saying is any common, colloquial expression, or a remark.

Semantic broadening is the process in which the meaning of a word becomes more general or more inclusive than its historically earlier form.

Semantic narrowing is the process in which the meaning of a word becomes less general or less inclusive than its historically earlier meaning.

Semantic shift is the process in which a word loses its former meaning, taking on a new, often related, meaning.

Semantics is the study of meaning in human language.

Simple word is a word that consists of a single morpheme.

Slang is an informal nonstandard speech variety characterized by newly coined and rapidly changing vocabulary.

Social stratification is the differentiation of language varieties along the vertical continuum of socioeconomic status.

Sociolect is a speech variety spoken by a group of people who share a particular social characteristic such as economic class, ethnicity and age.

Sociolinguistic competence is the ability to understand and produce a variety of social dialects in appropriate circumstances.

Sociolinguistics is the study of the social aspects of the language.

Speech variety is the language or form of language used by any group of speakers.

Soundinterchange is the formation of a word due to an alteration in the phonemic composition of its root.

Standard English is a term generally applied to a form of the English language that is thought to be normative for educated native speakers. It encompasses grammar, vocabulary, spelling and pronunciation.

Stem is the remaining lexical morpheme that does not occur independently.

Suffix is a derivational morpheme following the root and forming a new derivative in a different part of speech or a different word class.

Syncope is shortening by dropping the letter or unstressed syllable in the middle of the word.

Synonyms are word and expressions that have the same meanings in some or all contexts.

T

Taboo are expressions that are seen as offensive and are therefore often euphemized.

Thesaurus is 1) a book of words (synonyms, antonyms, associated and related words) that are put in groups together according to connections between their meanings and common topic (rather than in alphabetical order); 2) a comprehensive dictionary containing all the words of a language.

Tree structure is a diagram that represents the internal organization of a word, phrase, or sentence.

V

Variants of English are regional varieties possessing a literary norm.

Vocabulary is the system formed by the sum total of all the words and word equivalents.

W

Word is a basic unit of a language of a given language resulting from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment.

Wordcomposition is the type of the word-formation, in which new words are produced by combining two or more Immediate Constituents, which are both derivational bases.

Word-group denotes a group of words which exists in the language as a ready-made unit, has the unity of meaning, the unity of syntactical function.

6 TOPICS FOR REPORTS AND PRESENTATIONS

1. Methods and Procedures of Lexicological Research
2. The History of Dictionary-Making
3. Dictionaries in the Electronic Age
4. English Language Lexicographers
5. Polysemy and Homonymy in English
6. General Problems of the Theory of the Word. Motivation
7. Terminology and Terminography
8. Idiomatic Expressions. Different Approaches
9. Specific Features of English Proverbs and Sayings
10. Historical Lexicology: The Study of the Language Change
11. History of the English Vocabulary. Etymological Survey
12. Sociolexicology. Slang
13. Sociolexicology. Jargon and Argot
14. Borrowings in English: Types, Reasons, Assimilation.
15. English-Speaking World and Anglosphere
16. British English. English Dialects and Accents. Map of English Dialects
17. Celtic Languages
18. Hiberno-English. Welsh English. Scottish English
19. American English. General American. American Dialects. African-American Vernacular English
20. Canadian English. Newfoundland English
21. Indian English
22. Australian English. General Australian
23. New Zealand English
24. South African English
25. English-based Pidgins and Creoles

7 BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Aitchison J. Words in the Mind: An Introduction to the Mental Lexicon / Aitchison J. – Oxford: Blackwell, 2003.
2. Atkins B. T. The Oxford Guide to Practical Lexicography / B. T. Atkins and M. Rundell. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2008.
3. Beijont H. The Lexicography of English / H. Beijont. – New York: Oxford University Press, 2010.
4. Clark S. Word for Word / S. Clark and G. Pointon. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2002.
5. Coates R. Word Structure / R. Coates. – London: Routledge, 1999.
6. Cowie A. P. The Oxford History of English Lexicography / A. P. Cowie, ed. – Volumes I and II. General Purpose Dictionaries. New York: Oxford University Press, 2009.
7. Cowie A. P. Phraseology. Theory, Analysis and Applications / A. P. Cowie ed. – New York: Oxford University Press, 2001.
8. Cruse A. Lexical Semantics / A. Cruse. – Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1986.
9. Cruse A. Meaning in Language. An Introduction to Semantics and Pragmatics / A. Cruse. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2000.
10. Finegan E. American English and Its Distinctiveness. In E. Finegan and J. R. Rickford, eds. Language in the USA: Themes for the twenty-first century / E. Finegan. – Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2004. – Pp. 18–38.
11. Fontenelle T. Practical Lexicography: A Reader / T. Fontenelle. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2008.
12. Grezga J. and Schoner M. English and General Lexicology. Materials for Lexicology Seminars / J. Grezga. – Ingolstadt: Katolische Universitat Eichstatt, 2007.
13. Halliday M.A.K. Lexicology. A Short Introduction / M.A.K. Halliday, C. Yallop. – Trowbridge: Cromwell Press, 2007.
14. Hartmann R.R.K. Dictionary of Lexicography / R.R.K. Hartmann and G. James. – London: Routledge, 1998.
15. Hughes G. Words in Time: A Social History of the English Vocabulary / G. Hughes. – Blackwell, 1989.
16. Hughes G. A History of English Words. / G. Hughes. – Oxford: Blackwell, 2000.

17. Jackson H. Words, Meaning and Vocabulary. An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology / H. Jackson and E. Ze'Amvela. – Trowbridge: the Cromwell Press, 2000.

18. Jackson H. Lexicography: an Introduction / H. Jackson. – London: Routledge, 2002.

19. Jenkins J. World Englishes: A Resource Book for Students / J. Jenkins. – London: Routledge, 2003.

20. Kirkpatrick A. World Englishes. Implications for International Communication and English Language Teaching / A. Kirkpatrick. – Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2007.

21. Lipka L. English Lexicology: Lexical Structure, Word Semantics and Word Formation / L. Lipka. – Narr: Tubungen, 2002.

22. McArthur T. Oxford Guide to World English / T. McArthur. – Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2002.

23. Meunier F. Phraseology in Foreign Language Learning and Teaching / F. Meunier and S. Granger. – John Bemjamins B.V., 2008.

24. Plag I. Word-Formation in English / I. Plag. – Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2003.

25. Sheard J. The Words We Use / J. Sheard. – N.Y., 1954

26. Singleton D. Language and the Lexicon: An Introduction / D. Singleton. – London: Arnold, 2000.

27. Skandera P. Phraseology and Culture in English / P. Skandera. – Mouton de Gruyter, 2007.

28. Антрушина Г. Б. English Lexicology. Лексикология английского языка: учебное пособие для студентов / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева и Н. Н. Морозова. – 3-ье издание (на англ. яз.). – М.: Дрофа, 2000.

29. Арнольд И. В. Лексикология английского языка / И. В. Арнольд. – М.: Высшая Школа, 1986.

30. Бабич Г. Н. Lexicology: A Current Guide. Лексикология английского языка: учебное пособие / Г. Н. Бабич. – М.: Флинта. Наука, 2008.

31. Гвишиани Н. Б. Modern English Studies: Lexicology. Современный английский язык: Лексикология: учебное пособие / Н. Б. Гвишиани. – М.: Академия, 2009.

32. Гинзбург Р. З. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. Лексикология английского языка: учебник для институтов и факультетов иностранных языков / Р. З. Гинзбург, С. С. Хидекель, Г. Ю. Князева и А. А. Санкин. – М.: Высшая школа, 1979.

33. Голикова Ж. А. Modern English Lexicology and Phraseology. Practical Guide. Лексикология и фразеология современного английского языка. Практикум: учебное пособие / Ж. А. Голикова. – Минск : Новое знание, 2006.

34. Дубенец Э. М. Лексикология современного английского языка: лекции и семинары. Modern English Lexicology. Theory and Practice / Э. М. Дубенец. – М.: Глосса-Пресс, 2002.

35. Зыкова И. В. Практический курс английской лексикологии. A Practical Course in English Lexicology: учебное пособие для студентов лингв. вузов и фак. ин. яз. / И. В. Зыкова. – 2-ое издание, исправленное. – М.: Издательский центр «Академия», 2007.

36. Иванова Е. В. Лексикология и фразеология современного английского языка / Е. В. Иванова. – СПб, 2015.

37. Кунин А. В. Фразеология современного английского языка / А. В. Кунин. – М.: Международные отношения, 1972.

38. Лещева Л. М. Слова в английском языке. Лексикология современного английского языка: учебное пособие / Л. М. Лещева. – Минск, 2002.

39. Минаева Л. В. Лексикология и лексикография английского языка: учебное пособие / Л. В. Минаева. – М.: АСТ, Астрель, 2007.

40. Ожегов С. И. Лексикология. Лексикография. Культура речи / С. И. Ожегов. – М.: Высшая школа, 1974.

41. Уфимцева А. А. Лексическое значение / А. А. Уфимцева. – М.: Наука, 1986.

42. Харитончик З. А. Лексикология английского языка: учебное пособие / З. А. Харитончик. – Минск, 1992.

43. Швейцер А. Д. Литературный английский язык в США и Англии / А. Д. Швейцер. – 2-ое изд. – М.: УРСС Эдиториал, 2003.

Навчальне видання

ІЛЬЄНКО Олена Львівна,
КАМЄНЄВА Ірина Адамівна,
МОШТАГ Євгенія Сергіївна

ЛЕКСИКОЛОГІЯ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ

НАВЧАЛЬНИЙ ПОСІБНИК

(Англ. мовою)

Відповідальний за випуск *О. Л. Ільєнко*

За авторською редакцією

Комп'ютерне верстання *І. А. Камєнєва*

Дизайн обкладинки *Н. Б. Курилева, Т. А. Лазуренко*

Формат 60х84 1/16. Папір офсет. Друк цифровий
Ум.друк. арк. 12,7. Тираж 50 прим. Зам.№12-06.

Видавництво та друк
ФОП Іванченко І.С.
пр. Тракторобудівників,89-а/62, м. Харків, 61135
тел.: +38 (050/093) 40-243-50.
Свідоцтво про внесення суб`єкта видавничої справи до державного реєстру видавців, виготівників та розповсюджувачів видавничої продукції ДК № 4388 від 15.08.2012 р.
www.monograf.com.ua