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**Лексикология английского языка:  
Дайджест лекций**

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Учебное пособие предназначено для обучающихся, изучающих лексикологию английского языка, и содержит информацию по слову как объекту изучения лексикологии, его словообразованию и значению, типологии слов по словообразовательным и семантическим критериям, типам словарей.

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## **Introduction**

The digest of Lectures on Lexicology of the English language contains theory and of the main problems associated with English vocabulary, its characteristics and subdivisions.

The manual is intended for the students of speciality Theory and Practice of Linguistics and Intercultural Communication and English language students at Pedagogical Universities taking the course of English lexicology and fully meets the requirements of the programme in the subject. It may also be of interest to all readers, whose command of English is sufficient to enable them to read texts of average difficulty and who would like to gain some information about the vocabulary resources of Modern English (for example, about synonyms and antonyms), about the stylistic peculiarities of English vocabulary, about the complex nature of the word's meaning and the modern methods of its investigation, about English idioms, about those changes that English vocabulary underwent in its historical development and about some other aspects of English lexicology. One can hardly acquire a perfect command of English without having knowledge of all these things, for a perfect command of a language implies the conscious approach to the language's resources and at least a partial understanding of the "inner mechanism" which makes the huge language system work.

The manual contains 15 lectures on different problems of lexicology which will help students to get ready for fulfilling practical tasks in lexicological analysis, credit tests and passing examinations.

### **Methodical recommendations for manual usage**

1. Carefully read the text of the lecture. It would be useful for you to fully understand the nature of the lexicological problem or phenomenon.
2. Look up unknown words and terms in the dictionary to be sure you are correct in pronouncing and using them in speech. You need perfect awareness of their meanings and usage. Learn the words and expressions by heart.
3. Look carefully at the examples of usage to be aware of collocability of words and expressions.
4. Make notes of the main definitions and ideas which are essential in the lecture.
5. Try to explain to yourself schemes or drawings represented in the lecture.
6. Make up a short summary of the lecture, plan of the lecture or its graphical or schematic representation to be able to recollect material using these visual props.

7. Prepare yourselves carefully for doing tests.
8. Prepare yourselves carefully for oral representation of the material at seminars and final examinations.

## LECTURE 1

### Lexicology Word as it's subject.

#### Branches of Lexicology.

What's is a name? that which we call a rose

By any other name would smell as sweet...

(W. Shakespeare. *Romeo and Juliet*, Act II, Sc. 2)

These famous lines reflect one of the fundamental problems of linguistic research: what is in a name, in a word? Is there any direct connection between a word and the object it represents? Could a rose have been called by "any other name" as Juliet says?

These and similar questions are answered by lexicological research. *Lexicology*, a branch of linguistics, is the study of words.

For some people studying words may seem uninteresting. But if studied properly, it may well prove just as exciting and novel as unearthing the mysteries of Outer Space.

It is significant that many scholars have attempted to define the word as a linguistic phenomenon. Yet none of the definitions can be considered totally satisfactory in all aspects. It is equally surprising that, despite all the achievements of modern science, certain essential aspects of the nature of the word still escape us. Nor do we fully understand the phenomenon called "language", of which the word is a fundamental unit.

We do not know much about the origin of language and, consequently, of the origin of words. It is true that there are several hypotheses, some of them no less fantastic than the theory of the divine origin of language.

We know nothing — or almost nothing — about the mechanism by which a speaker's mental process is converted into sound groups called "words", nor about the reverse process whereby a listener's brain converts the acoustic phenomena into concepts and ideas, thus establishing a two-way process of communication.

We know very little about the nature of relations between the word and the referent (i. e. object, phenomenon, quality, action, etc. denoted by the word). If we assume that there is a direct relation between the word and the referent — which seems logical — it gives rise to another question: how should we explain the fact that the same referent is designated by quite different sound groups in different languages.

We *do* know by now — though with vague uncertainty — that there is nothing accidental about the vocabulary of the language (by the *vocabulary* of a language is understood the total sum of its words. Another term for the same is the *stock of words*), that each word is a small unit within a vast, efficient and perfectly balanced system. But we do not know why it possesses these qualities, nor do we know much about the processes by which it has acquired them.

The list of unknowns could be extended, but it is probably high time to look at the brighter side and register some of the things we *do* know about the nature of the word.

*First*, we do know that the word is a unit of speech which, as such, serves the purposes of human communication. Thus, the word can be defined as a *unit of communication*.

*Secondly*, the word can be perceived as the total of the sounds which comprise it.

*Third*, the word, viewed structurally, possesses several characteristics.

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

By external structure of the word we mean its morphological structure. For example, in the word *post-impressionists* the following morphemes can be distinguished: the prefixes *post-*, *im-*, the root *press*, the noun-forming suffixes *-ion*, *-ist*, and the grammatical suffix of plurality *-s*. All these morphemes constitute the external structure of the word *post-impressionists*.

The external structure of words, and also typical word-formation patterns, are studied in the section on word-building.

The internal structure of the word, or its *meaning*, is nowadays commonly referred to as the word's *semantic structure*. This is certainly the word's main aspect. Words can serve the purposes of human communication solely due to their meanings, and it is most unfortunate when this fact is ignored by some contemporary scholars who, in their obsession with the fetish of structure tend to condemn as irrelevant anything that eludes mathematical analysis. And this is exactly what meaning, with its subtle variations and shifts, is apt to do.

The area of lexicology specialising in the semantic studies of the word 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. The example of *post-impressionists* has already shown that the word is not, strictly speaking, indivisible. Yet, its component morphemes are permanently linked together in opposition to word-groups, both free and with fixed contexts, whose components possess a certain structural freedom, e. g. *bright light*, *to take for granted*.

The formal unity of the word can best be illustrated by comparing a word and a word-group comprising identical constituents. The difference between a *blackbird* and a *black bird* is best explained by their relationship with the grammatical system of the language. The word *blackbird*,

which is characterised by unity, possesses a single grammatical framing: *blackbird/s*. The first constituent *black* is not subject to any grammatical changes. In the word-group a *black bird* each constituent can acquire grammatical forms of its own: *the blackest birds I've ever seen*. Other words can be inserted between the components which is impossible so far as the word is concerned as it would violate its unity: *a black night bird*.

The same example may be used to illustrate what we mean by semantic unity.

In the word-group a *black bird* each of the meaningful words conveys a separate concept: *bird* — a kind of living creature; *black* — a colour.

The word *blackbird* conveys only one concept: the type of bird. This is one of the main features of any word: it always conveys one concept, no matter how many component morphemes it may have in its external structure.

A further structural feature of the word is its susceptibility to grammatical employment. In speech most words can be used in different grammatical forms in which their interrelations are realised.

So far we have only underlined the word's major peculiarities, but this suffices to convey the general idea of the difficulties and questions faced by the scholar attempting to give a detailed definition of the word. The difficulty does not merely consist in the considerable number of aspects that are to be taken into account, but, also, in the essential unanswered questions of word theory which concern the nature of its meaning

All that we have said about the word can be summed up as follows.

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

### **The Main Lexicological Problems**

Two of these have already been underlined. The problem of word-building is associated with prevailing morphological word-structures and with processes of making new words. Semantics is the study of meaning. Modern approaches to this problem are characterised by two different levels of study: *syntagmatic and paradigmatic*.

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

On the paradigmatic level, the word is studied in its relationships with other words in the vocabulary system. So, a word may be studied in comparison with other words of similar meaning



(e. g. *work*, n. — *labour*, n.; *to refuse*, v. — *to reject* v. — *to decline*, v.), of opposite meaning (e. g. *busy*, adj. — *idle*, adj.; *to accept*, v. — *to reject*, v.), of different stylistic characteristics (e. g. *man*, n. — *chap*, n. — *bloke*, n. — *guy*, n.). Consequently, the main problems of paradigmatic studies are synonymy, antonymy, functional styles.

*Phraseology* is the branch of lexicology specialising in word-groups which are characterised by stability of structure and transferred meaning, e. g. *to take the bull by the horns*, *to see red*, *birds of a feather*, etc.

One further important objective of lexicological studies is the study of the vocabulary of a language as a system. The vocabulary can be studied synchronically, that is, at a given stage of its development, or diachronically, that is, in the context of the processes through which it grew, developed and acquired its modern form. The opposition of the two approaches accepted in modern linguistics is nevertheless disputable as the vocabulary, as well as the word which is its fundamental unit, is not only what it is now, at this particular stage of the language's development, but, also, what it was centuries ago and has been throughout its history.

Lexicology presents a wide area of knowledge.

1. Historical lexicology deals with the historic change of words in the course of lang. development.
2. Comparative lexicology studies closely relative languages from the point of view of their identity and differentiation.
3. Contrastive lexicology - both relative and irrelative languages establishes differences and similarity.
4. Applied lexicology - translation, lexicography, pragmatics of speech.

### **Lecture 2-3**

#### **Formal and Informal Words**

Just as there is formal and informal dress, so there is formal and informal speech. One is not supposed to turn up at a ministerial reception or at a scientific symposium wearing a pair of brightly coloured pyjamas. (Jeans are scarcely suitable for such occasions either, though this may be a matter of opinion.) Consequently, the social context in which the communication is taking place determines both the mode of dress and the modes of speech. When placed in different situations, people instinctively choose different kinds of words and structures to express their thoughts. The suitability or unsuitability of a word for each particular situation depends on its stylistic characteristics or, in other words, on the functional style it represents.

The term *functional* style is generally accepted in modern linguistics. Professor I. V. Arnold defines it as "a system of expressive means peculiar to a specific sphere of communication".

By the sphere of communication we mean the circumstances attending the process of speech in each particular case: professional communication, a lecture, an informal talk, a formal letter, an intimate letter, a speech in court, etc.

All these circumstances or situations can be roughly classified into two types: formal (a lecture, a speech in court, an official letter, professional communication) and informal (an informal talk, an intimate letter).

Accordingly, functional styles are classified into two groups, with further subdivisions depending on different situations.

### **Informal Style**

Informal vocabulary is used in one's immediate circle: family, relatives or friends. One uses informal words when at home or when feeling at home.

Informal style is relaxed, free-and-easy, familiar and unpretentious. But it should be pointed out that the informal talk of well-educated people considerably differs from that of the illiterate or the semi-educated; the choice of words with adults is different from the vocabulary of teenagers; people living in the provinces use certain regional words and expressions. Consequently, the choice of words is determined in each particular case not only by an informal (or formal) situation, but also by the speaker's educational and cultural background, age group, and his occupational and regional characteristics.

Informal words and word-groups are traditionally divided into three types: *colloquial*, *slang* and *dialect words and word-groups*.

### **Colloquial Words**

Among other informal words, *colloquialisms* are the least exclusive: they are used by everybody, and their sphere of communication is comparatively wide, at least of *literary colloquial words*. These are informal words that are used in everyday conversational speech both by cultivated and uneducated people of all age groups. The sphere of communication of literary colloquial words also includes the printed page, which shows that the term "colloquial" is somewhat inaccurate.

Vast use of informal words is one of the prominent features of 20th century English and American literature. It is quite natural that informal words appear in dialogues in which they realistically reflect the speech of modern people:

"You're at *some sort of* technical college?" she said to Leo, not looking at him ... .

"Yes. I hate it though. I'm *not good enough at maths*. There's a *chap* there *just down from* Cambridge who *puts us through* it. I can't *keep up*. Were you good at maths?"

"Not bad. But I imagine school maths are different."

"Well, yes, they are. I can't *cope with this stuff* at all, it's the whole way of thinking that's beyond me... I think I'm going to *chuck it* and take *a job*."

(From *The Time of the Angels* by I. Murdoch)

However, in modern fiction informal words are not restricted to conversation in their use, but frequently appear in descriptive passages as well. In this way the narrative is endowed with conversational features. The author creates an intimate, warm, informal atmosphere, meeting his reader, as it were, on the level of a friendly talk, especially when the narrative verges upon non-personal direct speech.

"Fred Hardy was a *bad lot*. Pretty women, *chemin de fer*, and an unlucky *knack* for *backing* the wrong horse had *landed him in* the bankruptcy court by the time he was twenty-five ...

...If he thought of his past it was with complacency; he *had had a good time*, he had enjoyed his *ups and downs*; and now, with good health and a clear conscience, he was prepared to settle down as a country gentleman, *damn it*, bring up the *kids* as kids should be brought up; and when the *old buffer* who sat for his *Constituency pegged out*, by *George*, go into Parliament himself."

(From *Rain and Other Short Stories* by W. S. Maugham)

Here are some more examples of literary colloquial words. *Pal* and *chum* are colloquial equivalents of *friend*; *girl*, when used colloquially, denotes a woman of any age; *bite* and *snack* stand for *meal*; *hi*, *hello* are informal greetings, and so *long* a form of parting; *start*, *go on*, *finish* and *be through* are also literary colloquialisms; *to have a crush on somebody* is a colloquial equivalent of *to be in love*. *A bit (of)* and *a lot (of)* also belong to this group.

A considerable number of shortenings are found among words of this type. E. g. *pram*, *exam*, *fridge*, *flu*, *prop*, *zip*, *movie*.

Verbs with post-positional adverbs are also numerous among colloquialisms: *put up*, *put over*, *make up*, *make out*, *do away*, *turn up*, *turn in*, etc.

Literary colloquial words are to be distinguished from familiar colloquial and low colloquial.

The borderline between the literary and familiar colloquial is not always clearly marked. Yet the circle of speakers using familiar colloquial is more limited: these words are used mostly by the

young and the semi-educated. This vocabulary group closely verges on slang and has something of its coarse flavour.

E. g. *doc* (for *doctor*), *hi* (for *how do you do*), *ta-ta* (for *good-bye*), *goings-on* (for *behaviour*, usually with a negative connotation), *to kid smb.* (for *tease, banter*), *to pick up smb.* (for *make a quick and easy acquaintance*), *go on with you* (for *let me alone*), *shut up* (for *keep silent*), *beat it* (for *go away*).

Low colloquial is defined by G. P. Krapp as uses "characteristic of the speech of persons who may be broadly described as uncultivated". This group is stocked with words of illiterate English which do not present much interest for our purposes.

The problem of functional styles is not one of purely theoretical interest, but represents a particularly important aspect of the language-learning process. Students of English should be taught how to choose stylistically suitable words for each particular speech situation.

So far as colloquialisms are concerned, most students' mistakes originate from the ambiguousness of the term itself. Some students misunderstand the term "colloquial" and accept it as a recommendation for wide usage (obviously mistaking "colloquial" for "conversational"). This misconception may lead to most embarrassing errors unless it is taken care of in the early stages of language study.

As soon as the first words marked "colloquial" appear in the students' functional vocabulary, it should be explained to them that the marker "colloquial" (as, indeed, any other stylistic marker) is not a recommendation for unlimited usage but, on the contrary, *a sign of restricted usage*. It is most important that the teacher should carefully describe the typical situations to which colloquialisms are restricted and warn the students against using them under formal circumstances or in their compositions and reports.

Literary colloquial words should not only be included in the students' functional and recognition vocabularies, but also presented and drilled in suitable contexts and situations, mainly in dialogues. It is important that students should be trained to associate these words with informal, relaxed situations.

## **Slang**

Much has been written on the subject of slang that is contradictory and at the same time very interesting.

The Oxford English Dictionary defines slang as "language of a highly colloquial style, considered as below the level of standard educated speech, and consisting either of new words or of current words employed in some special sense."

This definition is inadequate because it equates slang with colloquial style. The qualification "highly" can hardly serve as the criterion for distinguishing between colloquial style and slang.

Yet, the last line of the definition "current words in some special sense" is important and we shall have to return to this a little later.

Here is another definition of slang by the famous English writer G. K. Chesterton:

"The one stream of poetry which is constantly flowing is slang. Every day some nameless poet weaves some fairy tracery of popular language. ...All slang is metaphor, and all metaphor is poetry. ...The world of slang is a kind of topsy-turvydom of poetry, full of blue moons and white elephants, of men losing their heads, and men whose tongues run away with them — a whole chaos of fairy tales."

The first thing that attracts attention in this enthusiastic statement is that the idioms which the author quotes have long since ceased being associated with slang: neither *once in a blue moon*, nor *the white elephant*, nor *your tongue has run away with you* are indicated as slang in modern dictionaries. This is not surprising, for slang words and idioms are short-lived and very soon either disappear or lose their peculiar colouring and become either colloquial or stylistically neutral lexical units.

As to the author's words "all slang is metaphor", it is a true observation, though the second part of the statement "all metaphor is poetry" is difficult to accept, especially if we consider the following examples: *mug* (for *face*), *saucers*, *blinkers* (for *eyes*), *trap* (for *mouth*, e. g. *Keep your trap shut*), *dogs* (for *feet*), *to leg (it)* (for *to walk*).

—All these meanings are certainly based on metaphor, yet they strike one as singularly unpoetical.

Henry Bradley writes that "Slang sets things in their proper place with a smile. So, to call a hat 'a lid' and a head 'a nut' is amusing because it puts a hat and a pot-lid in the same class". And, we should add, a head and a nut in the same class too.

"With a smile" is true. Probably "grin" would be a more suitable word. Indeed, a prominent linguist observed that if colloquialisms can be said to be wearing dressing-gowns and slippers, slang is wearing a perpetual foolish grin. The world of slang is inhabited by odd creatures indeed: not by men, but by *guys* (R. чучела) and *blighters* or *rotters* with *nuts* for heads, *mugs* for faces, *flippers* for hands.

All or most slang words are current words whose meanings have been metaphorically shifted. Each slang metaphor is rooted in a joke, but not in a kind or amusing joke. This is the criterion for distinguishing slang from colloquialisms: most slang words are metaphors and jocular, often with a coarse, mocking, cynical colouring.

This is one of the common objections against slang: a person using a lot of slang seems to be sneering and jeering at everything under the sun. This objection is psychological. There are also linguistic ones.

G. H. McKnight notes that "originating as slang expressions often do, in an insensibility to the meaning of legitimate words, the use of slang checks an acquisition of a command over recognised modes of expression ... and must result in atrophy of the faculty of using language".

H. W. Fowler states that "as style is the great antiseptic, so slang is the great corrupting matter, it is perishable, and infects what is round it".

McKnight also notes that "no one capable of good speaking or good writing is likely to be harmed by the occasional employment of slang, provided that he is conscious of the fact..."

Then why do people use slang?

For a number of reasons. To be picturesque, arresting, striking and, above all, different from others. To avoid the tedium of outmoded hackneyed "common" words. To demonstrate one's spiritual independence and daring. To sound "modern" and "up-to-date".

It doesn't mean that all these aims are achieved by using slang. Nor are they put in so many words by those using slang on the conscious level. But these are the main reasons for using slang as explained by modern psychologists and linguists.

The circle of users of slang is more narrow than that of colloquialisms. It is mainly used by the young and uneducated. Yet, slang's colourful and humorous quality makes it catching, so that a considerable part of slang may become accepted by nearly all the groups of speakers.

### **Dialect Words**

H. W. Fowler defines a dialect as "a variety of a language which prevails in a district, with local peculiarities of vocabulary, pronunciation and phrase". [19] England is a small country, yet it has many dialects which have their own distinctive features (e. g. the Lancashire, Dorsetshire, Norfolk dialects).

So dialects are regional forms of English. Standard English is defined by the Random House Dictionary as the English language as it is written and spoken by literate people in both formal and informal usage and that is universally current while incorporating regional differences. [54]

On the British Isles there are some local varieties of English which developed from Old English local dialects. There are six groups of them: Lowland /Scottish/, Northern, Western, Midland, Eastern, Southern. These varieties are used in oral speech by the local population. Only the Scottish dialect has its own literature /R. Berns/.

One of the best known dialects of British English is the dialect of London - Cockney. Some peculiarities of this dialect can be seen in the first act of «Pigmalion» by B. Shaw, such as :

interchange of /v/ and /w/ e.g. wery vell; interchange of /f/ and /θ/ , /v/ and /θ/ , e. g/ fing/thing/ and fa: ve / father/; interchange of /h/ and /-/ , e.g. «'eart» for «heart» and «hart» for «art»; substituting the diphthong /ai/ by /ei/ e.g. «day» is pronounced /dai/; substituting /au/ by /a:/ , e.g. «house» is pronounced /ha:s/, «now» /na:/ ; substituting /ou/ by /o:/ e.g. «don't» is pronounced /do:nt/ or substituting it by / / in unstressed positions, e.g. «window» is pronounced /wind /.

Another feature of Cockney is rhyming slang: «hat» is «tit for tat», «wife» is «trouble and strife», «head» is «loaf of bread» etc. There are also such words as «tanner» /sixpence/, «peckish»/hungry/. Peter Wain in the «Education Guardian» writes about accents spoken by University teachers: «It is a variety of Southern English RP which is different from Daniel Jones's description. The English, public school leavers speak, is called «marked RP», it has some characteristic features :the vowels are more central than in English taught abroad, e.g. «bleckhet»/for «black hat»/, some diphthongs are also different, e.g. «house» is pronounced /hais/. There is less aspiration in /p/, /b/, /t/ /d/. The American English is practically uniform all over the country, because of the constant transfer of people from one part of the country to the other. However, some peculiarities in New York dialect can be pointed out, such as: there is no distinction between / / and /a: / in words: «ask», «dance» «sand» «bad», both phonemes are possible. The combination «ir» in the words: «bird», «girl» «ear» in the word «learn» is pronounced as /oi/ e.g. /boid/, /goil/, /loin/. In the words «duty», «tune» /j/ is not pronounced /du:ti/, /tu:n/.

Dialectal peculiarities, especially those of vocabulary, are constantly being incorporated into everyday colloquial speech or slang. From these levels they can be transferred into the common stock, i. e. words which are not stylistically marked (see "The Basic Vocabulary", Ch. 2) and a few of them even into formal speech and into the literary language. *Car, trolley, tram* began as dialect words.

A snobbish attitude to dialect on the part of certain educationalists and scholars has been deplored by a number of prominent linguists. E. Partridge writes:

"The writers would be better employed in rejuvenating the literary (and indeed the normal cultured) language by substituting dialectal freshness, force, pithiness, for standard exhaustion, feebleness, long-windedness than in attempting to rejuvenate it with Gallicisms, Germanicisms, Grecisms and Latinisms." [38]

In the following extract from *The Good Companions* by J. B. Priestley, the outstanding English writer ingeniously and humorously reproduces his native Yorkshire dialect. The speakers are discussing a football match they have just watched. The author makes use of a number of dialect words and grammatical structures and, also, uses spelling to convey certain phonetic features of "broad Yorkshire".

"'Na Jess!' said the acquaintance, taking an imitation calabash pipe out of his mouth and then winking mysteriously.

'Na Jim!' returned Mr. Oakroyd. This 'Na' which must once have been 'Now', is the recognised salutation in Bruddersford,<sup>1</sup> and the fact that it sounds more like a word of caution than a word of greeting is by no means surprising. You have to be careful in Bruddersford.

'Well,' said Jim, falling into step, 'what did you think on 'em?'

'Think on 'em!' Mr. Oakroyd made a number of noises with his tongue to show what he thought of them.

... 'Ah '11 tell tha<sup>7</sup> what it is, Jess,' said his companion, pointing the stem of his pipe and becoming broader in his Yorkshire as he grew more philosophical. 'If t' United<sup>1</sup> had less brass<sup>2</sup> to lake<sup>3</sup> wi', they'd lake better football.' His eyes searched the past for a moment, looking for the team that had less money and had played better football. 'Tha can remember when t' club had niwer<sup>4</sup> set eyes on two thousand pahnds, when t' job lot wor not worth two thahsand pahnds, pavilion and all, and what sort of football did they lake then? We know, don't we? They could gi' thee<sup>1</sup> summat<sup>5</sup> worth watching then. Nah, it's all nowt,<sup>6</sup> like t' ale an' baccy<sup>7</sup> they ask so mich<sup>8</sup> for — money fair thrawn away, ah calls it. Well, we mun<sup>9</sup> 'a' wer teas and get ower it. Behave thi-sen/<sup>10</sup> Jess!' And he turned away, for that final word of caution was only one of Bruddersford's familiar good-byes.

'Ay,<sup>11</sup> replied Mr. Oakroyd dispiritedly. 'So long, Jim!'"

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<sup>1</sup> *tha (thee)* — the objective case of *thou*; <sup>2</sup> *brass* — money; <sup>3</sup> *to lake* — to play; <sup>4</sup> *nivver* — never; <sup>5</sup> *summat* — something; <sup>6</sup> *nowt* — nothing; <sup>7</sup> *baccy* — tobacco; <sup>8</sup> *mich* — much; <sup>9</sup> *mun* — must; <sup>10</sup> *thi-sen* (= *thy-self*) — yourself; <sup>11</sup> *ay(e)* — yes.

## BRITISH AND AMERICAN ENGLISH

British and American English are two main variants of English. Besides them there are: Canadian, Australian, Indian, New Zealand and other variants. They have some peculiarities in pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary, but they are easily used for communication between people living in these countries. As far as the American English is concerned, some scientists /H.N. Menken, for example/ tried to prove that there is a separate American language. In 1919 H.N. Menken published a book called «The American Language». But most scientists, American ones including, criticized his point of view because differences between the two variants are not systematic.



American English begins its history at the beginning of the 17-th century when first English-speaking settlers began to settle on the Atlantic coast of the American continent. The language which they brought from England was the language spoken in England during the reign of Elizabeth the First. In the earliest period the task of Englishmen was to find names for places, animals, plants, customs which they came across on the American continent. They took some of names from languages spoken by the local population - Indians, such as : “chipmuck»/an American squirrel/, «igloo»/ Escimo dome-shaped hut/, «skunk» / a black and white striped animal with a bushy tail/, «squaw» / an Indian woman/, »wigwam» /an American Indian tent made of skins and bark/ etc. Besides Englishmen, settlers from other countries came to America, and English-speaking settlers mixed with them and borrowed some words from their languages, e.g. from French the words «bureau»/a writing desk/,«cache» /a hiding place for treasure, provision/, «depot»/ a store-house/,«pumpkin»/a plant bearing large edible fruit/. From Spanish such words as:»adobe» / unburnt sun-dried brick/, »bananza» /prosperity/, «cockroach» /a beetle-like insect/, «lasso» / a noosed rope for catching cattle/ were borrowed. Present-day New York stems from the Dutch colony New Amsterdam, and Dutch also influenced English. Such words as: «boss», «dope», «sleigh»were borrowed.

The second period of American English history begins in the 19-th century. Immigrants continued to come from Europe to America. When large groups of immigrants from the same country came to America some of their words were borrowed into English. Italians brought with them a style of cooking which became widely spread and such words as: «pizza», «spaghetti»came into English. From the great number of German-speaking settlers the following words were borrowed into English: «delicatessen», «lager»,«hamburger», «noodle», «schnitzel» and many others. During the second period of American English history there appeared quite a number of words and word-groups which were formed in the language due to the new political system, liberation of America from the British colonialism, its independence. The following lexical units appeared due to these events: the United States of America , assembly, caucus, congress, Senate, congressman, President, senator, precinct, Vice-President and many others. Besides these political terms many other words were coined in American English in the 19-th century: to antagonize, to demoralize, influential, department store, telegram, telephone and many others. There are some differences between British and American English in the usage of prepositions, such as prepositions with dates, days of the week BE requires «on» / I start my holiday on Friday/, in American English there is no preposition / I start my vacation Friday/. In BE we use «by day», «by night»/»at night», in AE the corresponding forms are «days» and «nights». In BE we say «at home» , in AE - «home» is used. In BE we say «a quarter to five», in AE «a quarter of five». In BE we say «in the street», in AE -«on the street». In BE we say «to chat to somebody», in AE «to

chat with somebody». In BE we say «different to something», in AE - «different from something». There are also units of vocabulary which are different while denoting the same notions, e.g. BE - «trousers», AE - «pants»; in BE «pants» are «трусы» which in AE is «shorts». While in BE «shorts» are underwear. This can lead to misunderstanding. There are some differences in names of places:

BE	AE
passage	hall
cross-roads	intersection
pillar box	mail-box
the cinema	the movies
overpass	zebra crossing
pavement	sidewalk
tube, underground	subway
tram	streetcar
flat	apartment
surgery	doctor's office
lift	elevator

*Some names of useful objects:*

BE	AE
buro	ballpoint
rubber	eraser
parcel	package
elastic	rubber band
carrier bag	shopping bag
reel of cotton	spool of thread

Some words connected with food:

BE	AE
tin	can
sweets	candy
sweet biscuit	cookie
dry biscuit	crackers
sweet	dessert
chips	french fries

minced meat            ground beef

*Some words denoting personal items:*

BE	AE
fringe	bangs/of hair/
turn- ups	cuffs
tights	pantyhose
mackintosh	raincoat
braces	suspenders
poloneck	turtleneck
waistcoat	vest

*Some words denoting people:*

BE	AE
post-graduate	graduate
chap, fellow	guy
caretaker	janitor
constable	patrolman
shopassistant	shopperson
bobby	cop

If we speak about cars there are also some differences:

BE	AE
boot	trunk
bumpers	fenders
a car,	an auto,
to hire a car	to rent a car

Differences in the organization of education lead to different terms. BE «public school» is in fact a private school. It is a fee-paying school not controlled by the local education authorities. AE «public school» is a free local authority school. BE «elementary school» is AE «grade school» BE «secondary school» is AE «high school». In BE « a pupil leaves a secondary school», in AE «a student graduates from a high school» In BE you can graduate from a university or college of education, graduating entails getting a degree. A British university student takes three years known as the first, the second and the third years. An American student takes four years, known as

freshman, sophomore, junior and senior years. While studying a British student takes a main and subsidiary subjects. An American student majors in a subject and also takes electives. A British student specializes in one main subject, with one subsidiary to get his honours degree. An American student earns credits for successfully completing a number of courses in studies, and has to reach the total of 36 credits to receive a degree.

### *Differences of spelling.*

The reform in the English spelling for American English was introduced by the famous American lexicographer Noah Webster who published his first dictionary in 1806. Those of his proposals which were adopted in the English spelling are as follows: a) the deletion of the letter «u» in words ending in «our», e.g. honor, favor; b) the deletion of the second consonant in words with double consonants, e.g. traveler, wagon, c) the replacement of «re» by «er» in words of French origin, e.g. theater, center, d) the deletion of unpronounced endings in words of Romanic origin, e.g. catalog, program, e) the replacement of «ce» by «se» in words of Romanic origin, e.g. defense, offense, d) deletion of unpronounced endings in native words, e.g. tho, thro.

### *Differences in pronunciation*

In American English we have r-coloured fully articulated vowels, in the combinations: ar, er, ir, or, ur, our etc. In BE the sound /ɜ:/ corresponds to the AE /ʌ/, e.g. «not». In BE before fricatives and combinations with fricatives «a» is pronounced as /ɑ:/, in AE it is pronounced /ʌ/ e.g. class, dance, answer, fast etc. There are some differences in the position of the stress:

BE	AE
add`ress	adress
la`boratory	`laboratory
re`cess	`recess
re`search	`research
in`quiry	`inquiry
ex`cess	`excess

Some words in BE and AE have different pronunciation, e.g.

BE	AE
/ˈfju:tail/	/ˈfju:t l/
/ˈdousail /	/ˈdos l/

/kla:k/	/kl rk/
^fig /	/figyer/ /
`le3 /	/ li:3 r/
/lef`ten nt/	/lu:tenant/
/ nai /	/ni: r/
/shedju:l/	/skedyu:l/

But these differences in pronunciation do not prevent Englishmen and American from communicating with each other easily and cannot serve as a proof that British and American are different languages. Words can be classified according to the period of their life in the language. The number of new words in a language is always larger than the number of words which come out of active usage. Accordingly we can have archaisms, that is words which have come out of active usage, and neologisms, that is words which have recently appeared in the language.

The following table sums up the description of the stylistic strata of English vocabulary.

Stylistically-neutral words	Stylistically-marked words	
	Informal	Formal
Basic vocabulary	I. Colloquial words A. literary, B. familiar, C. low. II. Slang words. III. Dialect words.	I. Learned words A. literary, B. words of scientific prose, C. officialese, D. modes of poetic diction. II. Archaic and obsolete words. III. Professional terminology.

## Lecture 4

### Etymology of the English Vocabulary

Etymology – branch of lexicology, which deals with the different processes of assimilation or adaptation of the English words. The English vocabulary is very rich. From the point of view of etymology, English vocabulary can be divided into 2 parts: 70% of borrowings in English language, 30% of native words. Borrowings usually take place under 2 circumstances: 1) when

people have a direct contact with another people; 2) when there is a cultural need to borrow a word from another languages.

## **BORROWINGS**

Borrowing words from other languages is characteristic of English throughout its history. More than two thirds of the English vocabulary are borrowings. Mostly they are words of Romanic origin (Latin, French, Italian, Spanish). Borrowed words are different from native ones by their phonetic structure, by their morphological structure and also by their grammatical forms. It is also characteristic of borrowings to be non-motivated semantically. English history is very rich in different types of contacts with other countries, that is why it is very rich in borrowings. The Roman invasion, the adoption of Christianity, Scandinavian and Norman conquests of the British Isles, the development of British colonialism and trade and cultural relations served to increase immensely the English vocabulary. The majority of these borrowings are fully assimilated in English in their pronunciation, grammar, spelling and can be hardly distinguished from native words. English continues to take in foreign words, but now the quantity of borrowings is not so abundant as it was before. All the more so, English now has become a «giving» language, it has become Lingva franca of the twentieth century. Borrowings can be classified according to different criteria: a) according to the aspect which is borrowed, b) according to the degree of assimilation, c) according to the language from which the word was borrowed. (In this classification only the main languages from which words were borrowed into English are described, such as Latin, French, Italian, Spanish, German and Russian.)

### **CLASSIFICATION OF BORROWINGS ACCORDING TO THE BORROWED ASPECT**

There are the following groups: phonetic borrowings, translation loans, semantic borrowings, morphemic borrowings. Phonetic borrowings are most characteristic in all languages, they are called loan words proper. Words are borrowed with their spelling, pronunciation and meaning. Then they undergo assimilation, each sound in the borrowed word is substituted by the corresponding sound of the borrowing language. In some cases the spelling is changed. The structure of the word can also be changed. The position of the stress is very often influenced by the phonetic system of the borrowing language. The paradigm of the word, and sometimes the meaning of the borrowed word are also changed. Such words as: labour, travel, table, chair, people are phonetic borrowings from French; apparatchik, nomenklatura, sputnik are phonetic borrowings from Russian; bank, soprano, duet are phonetic borrowings from Italian etc. Translation loans are

word-for-word (or morpheme-for-morpheme) translations of some foreign words or expressions. In such cases the notion is borrowed from a foreign language but it is expressed by native lexical units, «to take the bull by the horns» (Latin), «fair sex» (French), «living space» (German) etc. Some translation loans appeared in English from Latin already in the Old English period, e.g. Sunday (solis dies). There are translation loans from the languages of Indians, such as: «pipe of peace», «pale-faced», from German «masterpiece», «homesickness», «superman». Semantic borrowings are such units when a new meaning of the unit existing in the language is borrowed. It can happen when we have two relative languages which have common words with different meanings, e.g. there are semantic borrowings between Scandinavian and English, such as the meaning «to live» for the word «to dwell» which in Old English had the meaning «to wander». Or else the meaning «дар», «подарок» for the word «gift» which in Old English had the meaning «выкуп за жену». Semantic borrowing can appear when an English word was borrowed into some other language, developed there a new meaning and this new meaning was borrowed back into English, e.g. «brigade» was borrowed into Russian and formed the meaning «a working collective», «бригада». This meaning was borrowed back into English as a Russian borrowing. The same is true of the English word «pioneer». Morphemic borrowings are borrowings of affixes which occur in the language when many words with identical affixes are borrowed from one language into another, so that the morphemic structure of borrowed words becomes familiar to the people speaking the borrowing language, e.g. we can find a lot of Romanic affixes in the English word-building system, that is why there are a lot of words - hybrids in English where different morphemes have different origin, e.g. «goddess», «beautiful» etc.

#### CLASSIFICATION OF BORROWINGS ACCORDING TO THE DEGREE OF ASSIMILATION

The degree of assimilation of borrowings depends on the following factors: a) from what group of languages the word was borrowed, if the word belongs to the same group of languages to which the borrowing language belongs it is assimilated easier, b) in what way the word is borrowed: orally or in the written form, words borrowed orally are assimilated quicker, c) how often the borrowing is used in the language, the greater the frequency of its usage, the quicker it is assimilated, d) how long the word lives in the language, the longer it lives, the more assimilated it is. Accordingly borrowings are subdivided into: completely assimilated, partly assimilated and non-assimilated (barbarisms). Completely assimilated borrowings are not felt as foreign words in the language, cf the French word «sport» and the native word «start». Completely assimilated verbs belong to regular verbs, e.g. correct-corrected. Completely assimilated nouns form their

plural by means of s-inflexion, e.g. gate- gates. In completely assimilated French words the stress has been shifted from the last syllable to the last but one. Semantic assimilation of borrowed words depends on the words existing in the borrowing language, as a rule, a borrowed word does not bring all its meanings into the borrowing language, if it is polysemantic, e.g. the Russian borrowing «sputnik» is used in English only in one of its meanings. Partly assimilated borrowings are subdivided into the following groups: a) borrowings non-assimilated semantically, because they denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from the language of which they were borrowed, e.g. sari, sombrero, taiga, kvass etc. b) borrowings non-assimilated grammatically, e.g. nouns borrowed from Latin and Greek retain their plural forms (bacillus - bacilli, phenomenon - phenomena, datum -data, genius - genii etc. c) borrowings non-assimilated phonetically. Here belong words with the initial sounds /v/ and /z/, e.g. voice, zero. In native words these voiced consonants are used only in the intervocal position as allophones of sounds /f/ and /s/ ( loss - lose, life - live ). Some Scandinavian borrowings have consonants and combinations of consonants which were not palatalized, e.g./sk/ in the words: sky, skate, ski etc (in native words we have the palatalized sounds denoted by the digraph «sh», e.g. shirt); sounds /k/and /g/ before front vowels are not palatalized e.g. girl, get, give, kid, kill, kettle. In native words we have palatalization, e.g. German, child. Some French borrowings have retained their stress on the last syllable, e.g. police, cartoon. Some French borrowings retain special combinations of sounds, e.g. /a:3/ in the words : camouflage, bourgeois, some of them retain the combination of sounds /wa:/ in the words: memoir, boulevard. d) borrowings can be partly assimilated graphically, e.g. in Greek borrowings «y» can be spelled in the middle of the word (symbol, synonym),«ph» denotes the sound /f/ (phoneme, morpheme), «ch» denotes the sound /k/(chemistry, chaos),«ps» denotes the sound /s/ (psychology). Latin borrowings retain their polysyllabic structure, have double consonants, as a rule, the final consonant of the prefix is assimilated with the initial consonant of the stem, (accompany, affirmative). French borrowings which came into English after 1650 retain their spelling, e.g. consonants «p», «t», «s» are not pronounced at the end of the word (buffet, coup, debris), Specifically French combination of letters«eau» /ou/ can be found in the borrowings : beau, chateau, troussaeu. Some of digraphs retain their French pronunciation: ‘ch’ is pronounced as /sh/, e.g. chic, parachute, ‘qu’ is pronounced as /k/ e.g. bouquet, «ou» is pronounced as /u:/, e.g. rouge; some letters retain their French pronunciation, e.g. «i» is pronounced as /i:/, e.g. chic, machine; «g» is pronounced as /3/, e.g. rouge. Modern German borrowings also have some peculiarities in their spelling: common nouns are spelled with a capital letter e.g. Autobahn, Lebensraum; some vowels and digraphs retain their German pronunciation, e.g. «a» is pronounced as /a:/ (Dictat), «u» is pronounced as /u:/ (Kuchen), «au» is pronounced as /au/ (Hausfrau), «ei» is pronounced as /ai/ (Reich); some consonants are also pronounced in the German way, e.g. «s» before a vowel is



pronounced as /z/ (Sitzkrieg), «v» is pronounced as /f/ (Volkswagen), «w» is pronounced as /v/ , «ch» is pronounced as /h/ (Kuchen). Non-assimilated borrowings (barbarisms) are borrowings which are used by Englishmen rather seldom and are non-assimilated, e.g. addio (Italian), tete-a-tete (French), dolce vita (Italian), duende (Spanish), an homme a femme (French), gonzo (Italian) etc.

## CLASSIFICATION OF BORROWINGS ACCORDING TO THE LANGUAGE FROM WHICH THEY WERE BORROWED

### ROMANIC BORROWINGS

#### **Latin borrowings.**

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

#### **French borrowings**

The influence of French on the English spelling. The largest group of borrowings are French borrowings. Most of them came into English during the Norman conquest. French influenced not only the vocabulary of English but also its spelling, because documents were written by French scribes as the local population was mainly illiterate, and the ruling class was French. Runic letters remaining in English after the Latin alphabet was borrowed were substituted by Latin letters and combinations of letters, e.g. «v» was introduced for the voiced consonant /v/ instead of «f» in the intervocal position /lufian - love/, the digraph «ch» was introduced to denote the sound /ch/ instead of the letter «c» / chest/before front vowels where it had been palatalized,

the digraph «sh» was introduced instead of the combination «sc» to denote the sound /sh/ /ship/, the digraph «th» was introduced instead of the Runic letters «0» and « » /this, thing/, the letter «y» was introduced instead of the Runic letter «3» to denote the sound /j/ /yet/, the digraph «qu» substituted the combination «cw» to denote the combination of sounds /kw/ /queen/, the digraph «ou» was introduced to denote the sound /u:/ /house/ (The sound /u:/ was later on diphthongized and is pronounced /au/ in native words and fully assimilated borrowings). As it was difficult for French scribes to copy English texts they substituted the letter «u» before «v», «m», «n» and the digraph «th» by the letter «o» to escape the combination of many vertical lines /«sunu» - «son», luvu» - «love»/.

#### Borrowing of French words.

There are the following semantic groups of French borrowings: a) words relating to government : administer, empire, state, government; b) words relating to military affairs: army, war, banner, soldier, battle; c) words relating to jury: advocate, petition, inquest, sentence, barrister; d) words relating to fashion: luxury, coat, collar, lace, pleat, embroidery; e) words relating to jewelry: topaz, emerald, ruby, pearl ; f) words relating to food and cooking: lunch, dinner, appetite, to roast, to stew.

Words were borrowed from French into English after 1650, mainly through French literature, but they were not as numerous and many of them are not completely assimilated. There are the following semantic groups of these borrowings: a) words relating to literature and music: belle-lettres, conservatoire, brochure, nuance, pirouette, vaudeville; b) words relating to military affairs: corps, echelon, fuselage, manoeuvre; c) words relating to buildings and furniture: entresol, chateau, bureau; d) words relating to food and cooking: ragout, cuisine.

#### **Italian borrowings.**

Cultural and trade relations between Italy and England brought many Italian words into English. The earliest Italian borrowing came into English in the 14-th century, it was the word «bank» /from the Italian «banco» - «bench»/. Italian money-lenders and money-changers sat in the streets on benches. When they suffered losses they turned over their benches, it was called «banco rotta» from which the English word «bankrupt» originated. In the 17-th century some geological terms were borrowed :volcano, granite, bronze, lava. At the same time some political terms were borrowed: manifesto, bulletin. But mostly Italian is famous by its influence in music and in all Indo-European languages musical terms were borrowed from Italian : alto, baritone, basso, tenor, falsetto, solo, duet, trio, quartet, quintet, opera, operette, libretto, piano, violin. Among the 20-th century Italian borrowings we can mention : gazette, incognito, autostrada, fiasco, fascist, dilettante, grotesque, graffito etc.

#### **Spanish borrowings.**

Spanish borrowings came into English mainly through its American variant. There are the following semantic groups of them: a) trade terms: cargo, embargo; b) names of dances and musical instruments: tango, rumba, habanera, guitar; c) names of vegetables and fruit: tomato, potato, tobacco, cocoa, banana, ananas, apricot etc

## GERMANIC BORROWINGS

English belongs to the Germanic group of languages and there are borrowings from Scandinavian, German and Holland languages, though their number is much less than borrowings from Romanic languages.

### Scandinavian borrowings.

By the end of the Old English period English underwent a strong influence of Scandinavian due to the Scandinavian conquest of the British Isles. Scandinavians belonged to the same group of peoples as Englishmen and their languages had much in common. As the result of this conquest there are about 700 borrowings from Scandinavian into English. Scandinavians and Englishmen had the same way of life, their cultural level was the same, they had much in common in their literature therefore there were many words in these languages which were almost identical,

e.g.	ON	OE	Modern E
	syster	sweoster	sister
	fiscr	fisc	fish
	felagi	felawe	fellow

However there were also many words in the two languages which were different, and some of them were borrowed into English, such nouns as: bull, cake, egg, kid, knife, skirt, window etc, such adjectives as: flat, ill, happy, low, odd, ugly, wrong, such verbs as : call, die, guess, get, give, scream and many others. Even some pronouns and connective words were borrowed which happens very seldom, such as : same, both, till, fro, though, and pronominal forms with«th»: they, them, their. Scandinavian influenced the development of phrasal verbs which did not exist in Old English, at the same time some prefixed verbs came out of usage, e.g. ofniman, beniman. Phrasal verbs are now highly productive in English /take off, give in etc/.

### German borrowings.

There are some 800 words borrowed from German into English. Some of them have classical roots, e.g. in some geological terms, such as: cobalt, bismuth, zink, quartz, gneiss, wolfram. There were also words denoting objects used in everyday life which were borrowed from German: iceberg, lobby, rucksack, Kindergarten etc. In the period of the Second World War the

following words were borrowed: Volkssturm, Luftwaffe, SS-man, Bundeswehr, gestapo, gas chamber and many others. After the Second World War the following words were borrowed: Berufsverbot, Volkswagen etc.

### **Holland borrowings.**

Holland and England have constant interrelations for many centuries and more than 2000 Holland borrowings were borrowed into English. Most of them are nautical terms and were mainly borrowed in the 14-th century, such as: freight, skipper, pump, keel, dock, reef, deck, leak and many others.

Besides two main groups of borrowings (Romanic and Germanic) there are also borrowings from a lot of other languages. We shall speak about Russian borrowings, borrowings from the language which belongs to Slavonic languages.

## **SLAVIC BORROWINGS**

### **Russian borrowings.**

There were constant contacts between England and Russia and they borrowed words from one language into the other. Among early Russian borrowings there are mainly words connected with trade relations, such as: rouble, copeck, pood, sterlet, vodka, sable, and also words relating to nature, such as: taiga, tundra, steppe etc. There is also a large group of Russian borrowings which came into English through Russian literature of the 19-th century, such as : Narodnik, moujik, дума, zemstvo. volost, ukase etc, and also words which were formed in Russian with Latin roots, such as: nihilist, intelligenzia, Decembrist etc. After the Great October Revolution many new words appeared in Russian connected with the new political system, new culture, and many of them were borrowed into English, such as: collectivization, udarnik, Komsomol etc and also translation loans, such as: shock worker, collective farm, five-year plan etc. One more group of Russian borrowings is connected with perestroika, such as: glasnost, nomenklatura, apparatchik etc.

### **ETYMOLOGICAL DOUBLETS**

Sometimes a word is borrowed twice from the same language. As the result, we have two different words with different spellings and meanings but historically they come back to one and the same word. Such words are called etymological doublets. In English there are some groups of them:

Latino-French doublets.

Latin	English from Latin	English from French
camera	camera	chamber

Franco-French doublets - doublets borrowed from different dialects of French.

Norman	Paris
--------	-------

canal	channel
captain	chieftain
catch	chaise

Scandinavian-English doublets

Scandinavian	English
skirt	shirt
scabby	shabby

There are also etymological doublets which were borrowed from the same language during different historical periods, such as French doublets: gentil - любезный, благородный, etymological doublets are: gentle - мягкий, вежливый and genteel - благородный. From the French word gallant etymological doublets are: ‘gallant - храбрый and gallant - галантный, внимательный.

Sometimes etymological doublets are the result of borrowing different grammatical forms of the same word, e.g. the Comparative degree of Latin «super» was «superior» which was borrowed into English with the meaning «high in some quality or rank». The Superlative degree (Latin «supremus») in English «supreme» with the meaning «outstanding», «prominent». So «superior» and «supreme» are etymological doublets.

### The Etymological Structure of English Vocabulary

The native element <sup>1</sup>	The borrowed element
I. Indo-European element	I. Celtic (5th — 6th c. A. D.)
II. Germanic element	II. Latin 1st group: 1st c. B. C. 2nd group: 7th c. A. D. 3rd group: the Renaissance period
III. English Proper element (no earlier than 5th c. A. D.)	III. Scandinavian (8th — 11th c. A. D.) IV. French 1. Norman borrowings: 11th — 13th c. A. D. 2. Parisian borrowings (Renaissance) V. Greek (Renaissance) VI. Italian (Renaissance and later) VII. Spanish (Renaissance and later) VIII. German IX. Indian X. Russian and some other groups

## **Lecture 5-6**

### **Word Formation**

#### **LANGUAGE UNITS**

The main unit of the lexical system of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning is a word. This unit is used in grammatical functions characteristic of it. It is the smallest language unit, which can stand alone as a complete utterance. A word, however, can be divided into smaller sense units - morphemes. The morpheme is the smallest meaningful language unit. The morpheme consists of a class of variants, allomorphs, which are either phonologically or morphologically conditioned, e.g. please, pleasant, pleasure. Morphemes are divided into two large groups: lexical morphemes and grammatical (functional) morphemes. Both lexical and grammatical morphemes can be free and bound. Free lexical morphemes are roots of words, which express the lexical meaning of the word, they coincide with the stem of simple words. Free grammatical morphemes are function words: articles, conjunctions and prepositions (the, with, and). Bound lexical morphemes are affixes: prefixes (dis-), suffixes (-ish) and also blocked (unique) root morphemes (e.g. Fri-day, cran-berry). Bound grammatical morphemes are inflexions (endings), e.g. -s for the Plural of nouns, -ed for the Past Indefinite of regular verbs, -ing for the Present Participle, -er for the Comparative degree of adjectives. In the second half of the twentieth century the English word building system was enriched by creating so called splinters which scientists include in the affixation stock of the Modern English word building system. Splinters are the result of clipping the end or the beginning of a word and producing a number of new words on the analogy with the primary word-group. For example, there are many words formed with the help of the splinter mini- (apocopy produced by clipping the word «miniature»), such as «miniplane», «minijet», «minicycle», «minicar», «miniradio» and many others. All of these words denote objects of smaller than normal dimensions. On the analogy with «mini-» there appeared the splinter «maxi-» (apocopy produced by clipping the word «maximum»), such words as «maxi-series», «maxi-sculpture», «maxi-taxi» and many others appeared in the language. When European economic community was organized quite a number of neologisms with the splinter Euro- (apocopy produced by clipping the word «European») were coined, such as: «Euratom» «Eurocard», «Euromarket», «Europlug», «Eurotunnel» and many others. These splinters are treated sometimes as prefixes in Modern English. There are also splinters, which are formed by means of apheresis, that is, clipping the beginning of a word. The

origin of such splinters can be variable, e.g. the splinter «burger» appeared in English as the result of clipping the German borrowing «Hamburger» where the morphological structure was the stem «Hamburg» and the suffix -er. However in English the beginning of the word «Hamburger» was associated with the English word «ham», and the end of the word «burger» got the meaning «a bun cut into two parts». On the analogy with the word «hamburger» quite a number of new words were coined, such as: «baconburger», «beefburger», «cheeseburger», «fishburger» etc. The splinter «cade» developed by clipping the beginning of the word «cavalcade» which is of Latin origin. In Latin the verb with the meaning «to ride a horse» is «cabalicare» and by means of the inflexion -ata the corresponding Participle is formed. So the element «cade» is a combination of the final letter of the stem and the inflexion. The splinter «cade» serves to form nouns with the meaning «connected with the procession of vehicles denoted by the first component», e.g. «aircade» - «a group of airplanes accompanying the plane of a VIP», «autocade» - «a group of automobiles escorting the automobile of a VIP», «musicade» - «an orchestra participating in a procession». In the seventies of the twentieth century there was a political scandal in the hotel «Watergate» where the Democratic Party of the USA had its pre-election headquarters. Republicans managed to install bugs there and when they were discovered there was a scandal and the ruling American government had to resign. The name «Watergate» acquired the meaning «a political scandal», «corruption». On the analogy with this word quite a number of other words were formed by using the splinter «gate» (apheresis of the word «Watergate»), such as: «Irangate», «Westlandgate», «shuttlegate», «milliongate» etc. The splinter «gate» is added mainly to Proper names: names of people with whom the scandal is connected or a geographical name denoting the place where the scandal occurred. The splinter «mobile» was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «automobile» and is used to denote special types of automobiles, such as: «artmobile», «bookmobile», «snowmobile», «tourmobile» etc. The splinter «napper» was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «kidnapper» and is used to denote different types of criminals, such as: «busnapper», «babynapper», «dognapper» etc. From such nouns the corresponding verbs are formed by means of backformation, e.g. «to busnap», «to babynap», «to dognap». The splinter «omat» was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «automat» (a cafe in which meals are provided in slot-machines). The meaning «self-service» is used in such words as «laundromat», «cashomat» etc. Another splinter «eteria» with the meaning «self-service» was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «cafeteria». By means of the splinter «eteria» the following words were formed: «grocery», «booketeria», «booteteria» and many others. The splinter «quake» is used to form new words with the meaning of «shaking», «agitation». This splinter was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «earthquake». The following words were formed with the help of this splinter: «Marsquake», «Moonquake», «youthquake» etc. The splinter «rama(ama)» is a clipping

of the word «panorama» of Greek origin where «pan» means «all» and «orama» means «view». In Modern English the meaning «view» was lost and the splinter «rama» is used in advertisements to denote objects of supreme quality, e.g. «autorama» means «exhibition-sale of expensive cars», «trouserama» means «sale of trousers of supreme quality» etc. The splinter «scape» is a clipping of the word «landscape» and it is used to form words denoting different types of landscapes, such as: «moonscape», «streetscape», «townscape», «seascape» etc. Another case of splinters is «tel» which is the result of clipping the beginning of the word «hotel». It serves to form words denoting different types of hotels, such as: «motel» (motor-car hotel), «boatel» (boat hotel), «floatel» (a hotel on water, floating), «airtel» (airport hotel) etc. The splinter «theque» is the result of clipping the beginning of the word «apothèque» of Greek origin which means in Greek «a store house». In Russian words: «библиотека», «картотека», «фильмотека» the element «тека» corresponding to the English «theque» preserves the meaning of storing something which is expressed by the first component of the word. In English the splinter «theque» is used to denote a place for dancing, such as: «discotheque», «jazzotheque». The splinter «thon» is the result of clipping the beginning of the word «marathon». «Marathon» primarily was the name of a battle-field in Greece, forty miles from Athens, where there was a battle between the Greek and the Persian. When the Greek won a victory a Greek runner was sent to Athens to tell people about the victory. Later on the word «Marathon» was used to denote long-distance competitions in running. The splinter «thon (athon)» denotes «something continuing for a long time», «competition endurance» e.g. «dancathon», «telethon», «speakathon», «readathon», «walkathon», «moviethon», «swimathon», «talkathon», «swearthon» etc. Splinters can be the result of clipping adjectives or substantivized adjectives. The splinter «aholic» (holic) was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «alcoholic» of Arabian origin where «al» denoted «the», «koh'l» - «powder for staining lids». The splinter «(a)holic» means «infatuated by the object expressed by the stem of the word», e.g. «bookaholic», «computerholic», «coffeeholic», «cheesaholic», «workaholic» and many others. The splinter «genic» formed by clipping the beginning of the word «photogenic» denotes the notion «suitable for something denoted by the stem», e.g. «allergenic», «cardiogenic», «mediagenic», «telegenic» etc. As far as verbs are concerned it is not typical of them to be clipped that is why there is only one splinter to be used for forming new verbs in this way. It is the splinter «cast» formed by clipping the beginning of the verb «broadcast». This splinter was used to form the verbs «telecast» and «abroadcast». Splinters can be called pseudomorphemes because they are neither roots nor affixes, they are more or less artificial. In English there are words, which consist of two splinters, e.g. «telethon», therefore it is more logical to call words with splinters in their structure «compound-shortened words consisting of two clippings of words». Splinters have only one function in English: they serve to change the



lexical meaning of the same part of speech, whereas prefixes and suffixes can also change the part-of-speech meaning e.g. the prefix «en-» and its allomorph «em» can form verbs from noun and adjective stems («embody», «enable», «endanger»), «be-» can form verbs from noun and adjective stems («becloud», «benumb»), «post-» and «pre-» can form adjectives from noun stems («pre-election campaign», «post-war events»). The main function of suffixes is to form one part of speech from another part of speech, e.g. «-er», «-ing», «-ment» form nouns from verbal stems («teacher», «dancing», «movement»), «-ness», «-ity» are used to form nouns from adjective stems («clannishness», «marginality»). According to the nature and the number of morphemes constituting a word there are different structural types of words in English: simple, derived, compound, compound-derived. Simple words consist of one root morpheme and an inflexion (in many cases the inflexion is zero), e.g. «seldom», «chairs», «longer», «asked». Derived words consist of one root morpheme, one or several affixes and an inflexion, e.g. «derestricted», «unemployed». Compound words consist of two or more root morphemes and an inflexion, e.g. «baby-moons», «wait-and-see (policy)». Compound-derived words consist of two or more root morphemes, one or more affixes and an inflexion, e.g. «middle-of-the-roaders», «job-hopper». When speaking about the structure of words stems also should be mentioned. The stem is the part of the word which remains unchanged throughout the paradigm of the word, e.g. the stem «hop» can be found in the words: «hop», «hops», «hopped», «hopping». The stem «hippie» can be found in the words: «hippie», «hippies», «hippie's», «hippies'». The stem «job-hop» can be found in the words: «job-hop», «job-hops», «job-hopped», «job-hopping». So stems, the same as words, can be simple, derived, compound and compound-derived. Stems have not only the lexical meaning but also grammatical (part-of-speech) meaning, they can be noun stems («girl» in the adjective «girlish»), adjective stems («girlish» in the noun «girlishness»), verb stems («expell» in the noun «expellee») etc. They differ from words by the absence of inflexions in their structure, they can be used only in the structure of words. Sometimes it is rather difficult to distinguish between simple and derived words, especially in the cases of phonetic borrowings from other languages and of native words with blocked (unique) root morphemes, e.g. «perestroika», «cranberry», «absence» etc. As far as words with splinters are concerned it is difficult to distinguish between derived words and compound-shortened words. If a splinter is treated as an affix (or a semi-affix) the word can be called derived, e.g., «telescreen», «maxi-taxi», «shuttlegate», «cheeseburger». But if the splinter is treated as a lexical shortening of one of the stems, the word can be called compound-shortened word formed from a word combination where one of the components was shortened, e.g. «busnapper» was formed from «bus kidnapper», «minijet» from «miniature jet». In the English language of the second half of the twentieth century there developed so called block compounds, that is compound words which have a uniting

stress but a split spelling, such as «chat show», «penguin suit»etc. Such compound words can be easily mixed up with word-groups of the type «stone wall», so called nominative binomials. Such linguistic units serve to denote a notion which is more specific than the notion expressed by the second component and consists of two nouns, the first of which is an attribute to the second one. If we compare a nominative binomial with a compound noun with the structure N+N we shall see that a nominative binomial has no unity of stress. The change of the order of its components will change its lexical meaning, e.g. «vid kid» is «a kid who is a videofan» while «kid vid» means «a video-film for kids» or else «lamp oil»means «oil for lamps» and «oil lamp» means «a lamp which uses oil for burning». Among language units we can also point out word combinations of different structural types of idiomatic and non-idiomatic character, such as «the first fiddle», «old salt» and «round table», «high road». There are also sentences, which are studied by grammarians. Thus, we can draw the conclusion that in Modern English the following language units can be mentioned: morphemes, splinters, words, nominative binomials, non-idiomatic and idiomatic word-combinations, sentences.

## **WORD BUILDING**

Word building is one of the main ways of enriching vocabulary. There are four main ways of word-building in modern English: affixation, composition, conversion, abbreviation. There are also secondary ways of word-building: sound interchange, stress interchange, sound imitation, blends, back formation.

### **AFFIXATION**

Affixation is one of the most productive ways of word-building throughout the history of English. It consists in adding an affix to the stem of a definite part of speech. Affixation is divided into suffixation and prefixation.

#### **Suffixation.**

The main function of suffixes in Modern English is to form one part of speech from another, the secondary function is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech. ( e.g. «educate» is a verb, «educatee»is a noun, and « music» is a noun, «musicdom» is also a noun) . There are different classifications of suffixes :

1. Part-of-speech classification. Suffixes which can form different parts of speech are given here : a) noun-forming suffixes, such as : -er (criticizer), -dom (officialdom),-ism (ageism), b) adjective-forming suffixes, such as : -able

(breathable), less(symptomless), -ous (prestigious), c) verb-forming suffixes, such as -ize (computerize) , -ify (micrify), d) adverb-forming suffixes , such as : -ly (singly), -ward (tableward), e) numeral-forming suffixes, such as -teen (sixteen), -ty (seventy).

2. Semantic classification . Suffixes changing the lexical meaning of the stem can be subdivided into groups, e.g. noun-forming suffixes can denote: a) the agent of the action, e.g. -er (experimenter), -ist (taxist), -ent(student), b) nationality, e.g. -ian (Russian), -ese (Japanese), -ish (English), c) collectivity, e.g. -dom (moviedom), -ry (peasantry, -ship(readership), -ati ( literati), d) diminutiveness, e.g. -ie (horsie), -let (booklet), -ling (gooseling),-ette (kitchenette), e) quality, e.g. -ness (copelessness), -ity (answerability).
3. Lexico-grammatical character of the stem. Suffixes which can be added to certain groups of stems are subdivided into: a) suffixes added to verbal stems, such as : -er (commuter), -ing (suffering), -able (flyable), -ment (involvement), -ation (computerization), b) suffixes added to noun stems, such as : -less (smogless), ful (roomful), -ism (adventurism), -ster (pollster), -nik (filmmik), -ish (childish), c) suffixes added to adjective stems, such as : -en (weaken), -ly (pinkly), -ish (longish), -ness (clannishness).
4. Origin of suffixes. Here we can point out the following groups: a) native (Germanic), such as -er,-ful, -less, -ly. b) Romanic, such as : -tion, -ment, -able, -eer. c) Greek, such as : -ist, -ism, -ize. d) Russian, such as -nik.
5. Productivity. Here we can point out the following groups: a) productive, such as : -er, -ize, --ly, -ness. b) semi-productive, such as : -eer, -ette, -ward. c) non-productive , such as : -ard (drunkard), -th (length).

Suffixes can be polysemantic, such as : -er can form nouns with the following meanings : agent, doer of the action expressed by the stem(speaker), profession, occupation (teacher), a device, a tool (transmitter). While speaking about suffixes we should also mention compound suffixes which are added to the stem at the same time, such as -ably, -ibly, (terribly, reasonably), -ation (adaptation from adapt). There are also disputable cases whether we have a suffix or a root morpheme in the structure of a word, in such cases we call such morphemes semi-suffixes, and words with such suffixes can be classified either as derived words or as compound words, e.g. -gate (Irangate), -burger(cheeseburger), -aholic (workaholic) etc.

## **Prefixation**

Prefixation is the formation of words by means of adding a prefix to the stem. In English it is characteristic for forming verbs. Prefixes are more independent than suffixes. Prefixes can be classified according to the nature of words in which they are used : prefixes used in notional words and prefixes used in functional words. Prefixes used in notional words are proper prefixes which are bound morphemes, e.g. un- (unhappy). Prefixes used in functional words are semi-bound morphemes because they are met in the language as words, e.g. over- (overhead) ( cf over the table ). The main function of prefixes in English is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech. But the recent research showed that about twenty-five prefixes in Modern English form one part of speech from another (bebutton, interfamily, postcollege etc). Prefixes can be classified according to different principles :

1. Semantic classification : a) prefixes of negative meaning, such as : in- (invaluable), non- (nonformals), un- (unfree) etc, b) prefixes denoting repetition or reversal actions, such as: de- (decolonize), re- (revegetation), dis- (disconnect), c) prefixes denoting time, space, degree relations, such as : inter-(interplanetary) , hyper- (hypertension), ex- (ex-student), pre- (pre-election), over- (overdrugging) etc.

2. Origin of prefixes: a) native (Germanic), such as: un-, over-, under- etc. b) Romanic, such as : in-, de-, ex-, re- etc. c) Greek, such as : sym-, hyper- etc. When we analyze such words as : adverb, accompany where we can find the root of the word (verb, company) we may treat ad-, ac- as prefixes though they were never used as prefixes to form new words in English and were borrowed from Romanic languages together with words. In such cases we can treat them as derived words. But some scientists treat them as simple words. Another group of words with a disputable structure are such as :contain, retain, detain and conceive, receive, deceive where we can see that re-, de-, con- act as prefixes and -tain, -ceive can be understood as roots. But in English these combinations of sounds have no lexical meaning and are called pseudo-morphemes. Some scientists treat such words as simple words, others as derived ones. There are some prefixes, which can be treated as root morphemes by some scientists, e.g. after- in the word afternoon. American lexicographers working on Webster dictionaries treat such words as compound words. British lexicographers treat such words as derived ones.

## **COMPOSITION**

Composition is the way of word building when a word is formed by joining two or more stems to form one word. The structural unity of a compound word depends upon : a) the unity of

stress, b) solid or hyphenated spelling, c) semantic unity, d) unity of morphological and syntactical functioning. These are characteristic features of compound words in all languages. For English compounds some of these factors are not very reliable. As a rule English compounds have one uniting stress (usually on the first component), e.g. hard-cover, best-seller. We can also have a double stress in an English compound, with the main stress on the first component and with a secondary stress on the second component, e.g. blood-vessel. The third pattern of stresses is two level stresses, e.g. snow-white, sky-blue. The third pattern is easily mixed up with word-groups unless they have solid or hyphenated spelling. Spelling in English compounds is not very reliable as well because they can have different spelling even in the same text, e.g. war-ship, blood-vessel can be spelt through a hyphen and also with a break, insofar, underfoot can be spelt solidly and with a break. All the more so that there has appeared in Modern English a special type of compound words which are called block compounds, they have one uniting stress but are spelt with a break, e.g. air piracy, cargo module, coin change, penguin suit etc. The semantic unity of a compound word is often very strong. In such cases we have idiomatic compounds where the meaning of the whole is not a sum of meanings of its components, e.g. to ghostwrite, skinhead, brain-drain etc. In non idiomatic compounds semantic unity is not strong, e. g., airbus, to bloodtransfuse, astrodynamics etc. English compounds have the unity of morphological and syntactical functioning. They are used in a sentence as one part of it and only one component changes grammatically, e.g. These girls are chatter-boxes. «Chatter-boxes» is a predicative in the sentence and only the second component changes grammatically. There are two characteristic features of English compounds: a) Both components in an English compound are free stems, that is they can be used as words with a distinctive meaning of their own. The sound pattern will be the same except for the stresses, e.g. «a green-house» and «a green house». Whereas for example in Russian compounds the stems are bound morphemes, as a rule. b) English compounds have a two-stem pattern, with the exception of compound words, which have form-word stems in their structure, e.g. middle-of-the-road, off-the-record, up-and-doing etc. The two-stem pattern distinguishes English compounds from German ones.

### **WAYS OF FORMING COMPOUND WORDS**

Compound words in English can be formed not only by means of composition but also by means of : a) reduplication, e.g. too-too, and also by means of reduplicating combined with sound interchange , e.g. rope-ripe, b) conversion from word-groups, e.g. to micky-mouse, can-do, makeup etc, c) back formation from compound nouns or word-

groups, e.g. to bloodtransfuse, to fingerprint etc , d) analogy, e.g. lie-in ( on the analogy with sit-in) and also phone-in, brawn-drain (on the analogy with brain-drain) etc.

### CLASSIFICATIONS OF ENGLISH COMPOUNDS

1. According to the parts of speech compounds are subdivided into: a) nouns, such as : baby-moon, globe-trotter, b) adjectives, such as : free-for-all, power-happy, c) verbs, such as : to honey-moon, to baby-sit, to henpeck, d) adverbs, such as: downdeep, headfirst, e) prepositions, such as: into, within, f) numerals, such as : fifty-five.
2. According to the way components are joined together compounds are divided into: a) neutral, which are formed by joining together two stems without any joining morpheme, e.g. ball-point, to windowshop, b) morphological where components are joined by a linking element :vowels «o» or «i» or the consonant «s», e.g. {«astrospace», «handicraft»,«sportsman»}, c) syntactical where the components are joined by means of form-wordstems, e.g. here-and-now, free-for-all., do-or-die .
3. According to their structure compounds are subdivided into: a) compound words proper which consist of two stems, e.g. to job-hunt, train-sick, go-go, tip-top , b) derivational compounds, where besides the stems we have affixes, e.g. ear-minded, hydro-skimmer, c) compound words consisting of three or more stems, e.g. cornflower-blue, eggshell-thin, singer-songwriter, d) compound-shortened words, e.g. boatel, tourmobile, VJ-day, motocross, intervision, Eurodollar, Camford.
4. According to the relations between the components compound words are subdivided into : a) subordinative compounds where one of the components is the semantic and the structural centre and the second component is subordinate; these subordinative relations can be different: with comparative relations, e.g. honey-sweet, eggshell-thin, with limiting relations, e.g. breast-high, knee-deep, with emphatic relations, e.g. dog-cheap, with objective relations, e.g. gold-rich, with cause relations, e.g. love-sick, with space relations, e.g. top-heavy, with time relations, e.g. spring-fresh, with subjective relations, e.g. foot-sore etc b) coordinative compounds where both components are semantically independent. Here belong such compounds when one person (object) has two functions, e.g. secretary-stenographer, woman-doctor, Oxbridge etc. Such compounds are called additive. This group includes also compounds formed by means of reduplication, e.g. fifty-fifty, no-no, and also compounds formed with the help of rhythmic stems (reduplication combined with sound interchange) e.g. criss-cross, walkie-talkie.
5. According to the order of the

components compounds are divided into compounds with direct order, e.g. kill-joy, and compounds with in direct order, e.g. nuclear-free, rope-ripe .

## CONVERSION

Conversion is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. It is also called affixless derivation or zero-suffixation. The term «conversion» first appeared in the book by Henry Sweet «New English Grammar» in 1891. Conversion is treated differently by different scientists, e.g. prof. A.I. Smirntitsky treats conversion as a morphological way of forming words when one part of speech is formed from another part of speech by changing its paradigm, e.g. to form the verb «to dial» from the noun «dial» we change the paradigm of the noun (a dial, dials) for the paradigm of a regular verb (I dial, he dials, dialed, dialing). A. Marchand in his book «The Categories and Types of Present-day English» treats conversion as a morphological-syntactical word-building because we have not only the change of the paradigm, but also the change of the syntactic function, e.g. I need some good paper for my room. (The noun «paper» is an object in the sentence). I paper my room every year. (The verb «paper» is the predicate in the sentence). Conversion is the main way of forming verbs in Modern English. Verbs can be formed from nouns of different semantic groups and have different meanings because of that, e.g. a) verbs have instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting parts of a human body e.g. to eye, to finger, to elbow, to shoulder etc. They have instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting tools, machines, instruments, weapons, e.g. to hammer, to machine-gun, to rifle, to nail, b) verbs can denote an action characteristic of the living being denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, e.g. to crowd, to wolf, to ape, c) verbs can denote acquisition, addition or deprivation if they are formed from nouns denoting an object, e.g. to fish, to dust, to peel, to paper, d) verbs can denote an action performed at the place denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, e.g. to park, to garage, to bottle, to corner, to pocket, e) verbs can denote an action performed at the time denoted by the noun from which they have been converted e.g. to winter, to week-end . Verbs can be also converted from adjectives, in such cases they denote the change of the state, e.g. to tame (to become or make tame) , to clean, to slim etc. Nouns can also be formed by means of conversion from verbs. Converted nouns can denote: a) instant of an action e.g. a jump, a move, b) process or state e.g. sleep, walk, c) agent of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. a help, a flirt, a scold , d) object or result of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. a burn, a find, a purchase, e) place of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. a drive, a stop, a walk. Many nouns converted from verbs can be used only in the Singular

form and denote momentaneous actions. In such cases we have partial conversion. Such deverbal nouns are often used with such verbs as: to have, to get, to take etc., e.g. to have a try, to give a push, to take a swim.

## CRITERIA OF SEMANTIC DERIVATION

In cases of conversion the problem of criteria of semantic derivation arises: which of the converted pair is primary and which is converted from it. The problem was first analyzed by prof. A.I. Smirnitsky. Later on P.A.Soboleva developed his idea and worked out the following criteria:

The factual direction of conversion is difficult to define sometimes it's even impossible but there are some helpers or indicators in this process. If you need to define from Noun to Verb or from verb to noun the conversion happened Logical and semantic criteria are here of importance.

1) If we consider e.g. the pairs book –to book and fish - to fish the nouns have got more meanings than the verbs

2) Logical criterion may help in cases when there are logically connected pairs/ In the pairs instrument and the action done with the instrument the noun is a grounding element and conversion is going in direction noun –to verb. *Hammer – to hammer* The same is characteristic of the parts of body and actions *head<sub>n</sub> → head<sub>v</sub>, hand<sub>n</sub> → hand<sub>v</sub>, finger<sub>n</sub> → finger<sub>v</sub>.*

3) Definition may be taken into account: producing form is used in definition: *look<sub>n</sub>* – the act of looking; *ride<sub>n</sub>* – spell of riding, so in the pairs- *look<sub>n</sub>— look<sub>v</sub>, ride<sub>n</sub> — ride<sub>v</sub>* the direction of conversion is from V→N. Vice versa in the pairs - *pressure<sub>n</sub>— pressure<sub>v</sub>* the direction of conversion is from N→V, as *to pressure means – to exert pressure.*

4) In the direction N-to verb the verb can't be irregular and the noun with the nominative suffix can't be made up by conversion Thus in the pair of catch to catch the Verb is a ground of producing a noun/ In the pairs of *caution<sub>n</sub> – caution<sub>v</sub>, mention<sub>n</sub> – mention<sub>v</sub>, pleasure<sub>n</sub> – pleasure<sub>v</sub>* the producing stem is noun.

5) The criterion of word formation is also of help/ In pair *awe<sub>n</sub> – awe<sub>v</sub>* the direction of conversion is defined as from N→V, as word formation from *awe* is characterized by adding nominative suffixes (*awe: awesome, awesomeness, awful,awfulness, awfully, aweless*).

In the pair *float<sub>n</sub> – float<sub>v</sub>* the direction of conversion is determined as from V→N, as word formation from the stem *float* is characterized by adding verbal suffixes (*float: floatable, floatation, floatage, floater, floating*).

## SUBSTANTIVIZATION OF ADJECTIVES



Some scientists (Yespersen, Kruisinga ) refer substantivization of adjectives to conversion. But most scientists disagree with them because in cases of substantivization of adjectives we have quite different changes in the language. Substantivization is the result of ellipsis (syntactical shortening ) when a word combination with a semantically strong attribute loses its semantically weak noun (man, person etc), e.g. «a grown-up person» is shortened to «a grown-up». In cases of perfect substantivization the attribute takes the paradigm of a countable noun , e.g. a criminal, criminals, a criminal's (mistake) , criminals' (mistakes). Such words are used in a sentence in the same function as nouns, e.g. I am fond of musicals. (musical comedies). There are also two types of partly substantivized adjectives: those which have only the plural form and have the meaning of collective nouns, such as: sweets, news, empties, finals, greens, those which have only the singular form and are used with the definite article. They also have the meaning of collective nouns and denote a class, a nationality, a group of people, e.g. the rich, the English, the dead .

### **«STONE WALL» COMBINATIONS**

The problem whether adjectives can be formed by means of conversion from nouns is the subject of many discussions. In Modern English there are a lot of word combinations of the type , e.g. price rise, wage freeze, steel helmet, sand castle etc. If the first component of such units is an adjective converted from a noun, combinations of this type are free word-groups typical of English (adjective + noun). This point of view is proved by O. Yespersen by the following facts: 1. «Stone» denotes some quality of the noun «wall». 2. «Stone» stands before the word it modifies, as adjectives in the function of an attribute do in English. 3. «Stone» is used in the Singular though its meaning in most cases is plural, and adjectives in English have no plural form. 4. There are some cases when the first component is used in the Comparative or the Superlative degree, e.g. the bottomest end of the scale. 5. The first component can have an adverb which characterizes it, and adjectives are characterized by adverbs, e.g. a purely family gathering. 6. The first component can be used in the same syntactical function with a proper adjective to characterize the same noun, e.g. lonely bare stone houses. 7. After the first component the pronoun «one» can be used instead of a noun, e.g. I shall not put on a silk dress, I shall put on a cotton one. However Henry Sweet and some other scientists say that these criteria are not characteristic of the majority of such units. They consider the first component of such units to be a noun in the function of an attribute because in Modern English almost all parts of speech and even word-groups and sentences can be used in the function of an attribute, e.g. the then president (an adverb), out-of-the-way vilages (a word-group), a devil-may-care speed (a sentence). There are different semantic relations between the components of «stonewall» combinations. E.I. Chapnik classified them into the following groups:

1. time relations, e.g. evening paper, 2. space relations, e.g. top floor, 3. relations between the object and the material of which it is made, e.g. steel helmet, 4. cause relations, e.g. war orphan, 5. relations between a part and the whole, e.g. a crew member, 6. relations between the object and an action, e.g. arms production, 7. relations between the agent and an action e.g. government threat, price rise, 8. relations between the object and its designation, e.g. reception hall, 9. the first component denotes the head, organizer of the characterized object, e.g. Clinton government, Forsyte family, 10. the first component denotes the field of activity of the second component, e.g. language teacher, psychiatry doctor, 11. comparative relations, e.g. moon face, 12. qualitative relations, e.g. winter apples.

## **ABBREVIATION**

In the process of communication words and word-groups can be shortened. The causes of shortening can be linguistic and extra-linguistic. By extra-linguistic causes changes in the life of people are meant. In Modern English many new abbreviations, acronyms, initials, blends are formed because the tempo of life is increasing and it becomes necessary to give more and more information in the shortest possible time. There are also linguistic causes of abbreviating words and word-groups, such as the demand of rhythm, which is satisfied in English by monosyllabic words. When borrowings from other languages are assimilated in English they are shortened. Here we have modification of form on the basis of analogy, e.g. the Latin borrowing «fanaticus» is shortened to «fan» on the analogy with native words: man, pan, tan etc. There are two main types of shortenings : graphical and lexical.

### **Graphical abbreviations**

Graphical abbreviations are the result of shortening of words and word-groups only in written speech while orally the corresponding full forms are used. They are used for the economy of space and effort in writing. The oldest group of graphical abbreviations in English is of Latin origin. In Russian this type of abbreviation is not typical. In these abbreviations in the spelling Latin words are shortened, while orally the corresponding English equivalents are pronounced in the full form, e.g. for example (Latin *exempli gratia*), a.m. - in the morning (*ante meridiem*), No - number (*numero*), p.a. - a year (*per annum*), d - penny (*dinarius*), lb - pound (*libra*), i. e. - that is (*id est*) etc. Some graphical abbreviations of Latin origin have different English equivalents in different contexts, e.g. p.m. can be pronounced «in the afternoon» (*post meridiem*) and «after death» (*post mortem*). There are also graphical abbreviations of native origin, where in the spelling we have abbreviations of words and word-groups of the corresponding English

equivalents in the full form. We have several semantic groups of them : a) days of the week, e.g. Mon - Monday, Tue - Tuesday etc b) names of months, e.g. Apr - April, Aug - August etc. c) names of counties in UK, e.g. Yorks - Yorkshire, Berks -Berkshire etc d) names of states in USA, e.g. Ala - Alabama, Alas - Alaska etc. e) names of address, e.g. Mr., Mrs., Ms., Dr. etc. f) military ranks, e.g. capt. -captain, col. - colonel, sgt - sergeantetc. g) scientific degrees, e.g. B.A. - Bachelor of Arts, D.M. - Doctor of Medicine . ( Sometimes in scientific degrees we have abbreviations of Latin origin, e.g., M.B. - Medicinae Baccalaurus). h) units of time, length, weight, e.g. f. / ft -foot/feet, sec. - second,in. -inch, mg. - milligram etc. The reading of some graphical abbreviations depends on the context, e.g.«m» can be read as: male, married, masculine, metre, mile, million, minute,«l.p.» can be read as long-playing, low pressure.

### **Initial abbreviations**

Initialisms are the bordering case between graphical and lexical abbreviations. When they appear in the language, as a rule, to denote some new offices they are closer to graphical abbreviations because orally full forms are used, e.g. J.V. - joint venture. When they are used for some duration of time they acquire the shortened form of pronouncing and become closer to lexical abbreviations, e.g. BBC is as a rule pronounced in the shortened form. In some cases the translation of initialisms is next to impossible without using special dictionaries. Initialisms are denoted in different ways. Very often they are expressed in the way they are pronounced in the language of their origin, e.g. ANZUS (Australia, New Zealand, United States) is given in Russian as АНЗУС, SALT (Strategic Arms Limitation Talks) was for a long time used in Russian as СОЛТ, now a translation variant is used (ОСВ -Договор об ограничении стратегических вооружений).This type of initialisms borrowed into other languages is preferable, e.g. UFO - НЛО, СП - JV etc.

There are three types of initialisms in English: a) initialisms with alphabetical reading, such as UK, BUP, CND etc b) initialisms which are read as if they are words, e.g. UNESCO, UNO,NATO etc. c) initialisms which coincide with English words in their sound form,such initialisms are called acronyms, e.g. CLASS (Computer-based Laboratoryfor Automated School System). Some scientists unite groups b) and c) into one group which they call acronyms. Some initialisms can form new words in which they act as root morphemes by different ways of wordbuilding: a) affixation, e.g. AWALism, ex-rafer, ex- POW, to waafize, AIDSophobiaetc. b) conversion, e.g. to raff, to fly IFR (Instrument Flight Rules), c) composition, e.g. STOLport, USAFman etc. d) there are also compound-shortened words where the first component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical reading and the second one is a complete word, e.g. A-bomb, U-pronunciation, V -day etc. In some cases the first component is a complete word and the

second component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical pronunciation, e.g. Three - Ds(Three dimensions) - стереофильм.

### **Abbreviations of words**

Abbreviation of words consists in clipping a part of a word. As a result we get a new lexical unit where either the lexical meaning or the style is different from the full form of the word. In such cases as »fantasy» and «fancy», «fence» and «defence» we have different lexical meanings. In such cases as «laboratory» and «lab», we have different styles. Abbreviation does not change the part-of-speech meaning, as we have it in the case of conversion or affixation, it produces words belonging to the same part of speech as the primary word, e.g. prof is a noun and professor is also a noun. Mostly nouns undergo abbreviation, but we can also meet abbreviation of verbs, such as to rev from to revolve, to tab from to tabulate etc. But mostly abbreviated forms of verbs are formed by means of conversion from abbreviated nouns, e.g. to taxi, to vac etc. Adjectives can be abbreviated but they are mostly used in school slang and are combined with suffixation, e.g. comfy, dilly, mizzy etc. As a rule pronouns, numerals, interjections, conjunctions are not abbreviated. The exceptions are: fif (fifteen), teen-ager, in one's teens (apheresis from numerals from 13 to 19). Lexical abbreviations are classified according to the part of the word, which is clipped. Mostly the end of the word is clipped, because the beginning of the word in most cases is the root and expresses the lexical meaning of the word. This type of abbreviation is called apocope. Here we can mention a group of words ending in «o», such as disco (dicotheque), expo (exposition), intro (introduction) and many others. On the analogy with these words there developed in Modern English a number of words where «o» is added as a kind of a suffix to the shortened form of the word, e.g. combo (combination) - небольшой эстрадный ансамбль, Afro (African)-прическа под африканца etc. In other cases the beginning of the word is clipped. In such cases we have apheresis, e.g. chute (parachute), varsity(university), copter (helicopter), thuse (enthuse) etc. Sometimes the middle of the word is clipped, e.g. mart (market), fanzine (fan magazine), maths (mathematics). Such abbreviations are called syncope. Sometimes we have a combination of apocope with apheresis, when the beginning and the end of the word are clipped, e.g. tec (detective), van (avanguard) etc. Sometimes shortening influences the spelling of the word, e.g. «c» can be substituted by «k» before «e» to preserve pronunciation, e.g. mike(microphone), Coke (coca-cola) etc. The same rule is observed in the following cases: fax(facsimile), teck (technical college), trunk (tranquilizer) etc. The final consonants in the shortened forms are substituted by letters characteristic of native English words.

## **SECONDARY WAYS OF WORDBUILDING**

### **SOUND INTERCHANGE**

Sound interchange is the way of word-building when some sounds are changed to form a new word. It is non-productive in Modern English, it was productive in Old English and can be met in other Indo-European languages. The causes of sound interchange can be different. It can be the result of Ancient Ablaut which cannot be explained by the phonetic laws during the period of the language development known to scientists., e.g. to strike -stroke, to sing - song etc. It can be also the result of Ancient Umlaut or vowel mutation which is the result of palatalizing the root vowel because of the front vowel in the syllable coming after the root ( regressive assimilation), e.g. hot - to heat (hotian), blood - to bleed (blodian) etc. In many cases we have vowel and consonant interchange. In nouns we have voiceless consonants and in verbs we have corresponding voiced consonants because in Old English these consonants in nouns were at the end of the word and in verbs in the intervocal position, e.g. bath - to bathe, life -to live, breath - to breathe etc.

### **STRESS INTERCHANGE**

Stress interchange can be mostly met in verbs and nouns of Romanic origin: nouns have the stress on the first syllable and verbs on the last syllable, e.g. `accent - to ac`cent. This phenomenon is explained in the following way: French verbs and nouns had different structure when they were borrowed into English, verbs had one syllable more than the corresponding nouns. When these borrowings were assimilated in English the stress in them was shifted to the previous syllable (the second from the end) . Later on the last unstressed syllable in verbs borrowed from French was dropped (the same as in native verbs) and after that the stress in verbs was on the last syllable while in nouns it was on the first syllable. As a result of it we have such pairs in English as : to af`fix - `affix, tocon`flict- `conflict, to ex`port - `export, to ex`tract - `extract etc. As a result of stress interchange we have also vowel interchange in such words because vowels are pronounced differently in stressed and unstressed positions.

### **SOUND IMITATION**

It is the way of word-building when a word is formed by imitating different sounds. There are some semantic groups of words formed by means of sound imitation a) sounds produced by human beings, such as : to whisper, to giggle, to mumble, to sneeze, to whistle etc. b) sounds produced by animals, birds, insects, such as : to hiss, to buzz, to bark, to moo, to twitter etc. c) sounds produced by nature and objects, such as : to splash, to rustle, to clatter, to bubble, to ding-

dong, to tinkle etc. The corresponding nouns are formed by means of conversion, e.g. clang (of a bell), chatter (of children) etc.

### **BLENDS**

Blends are words formed from a word-group or two synonyms. In blends two ways of word-building are combined : abbreviation and composition. To form a blend we clip the end of the first component (apocope) and the beginning of the second component (apheresis) . As a result we have a compound-shortened word. One of the first blends in English was the word «smog» from two synonyms: smoke and fog which means smoke mixed with fog. From the first component the beginning is taken, from the second one the end, «o» is common for both of them. Blends formed from two synonyms are: slanguage, to hustle, gasohol etc. Mostly blends are formed from a word-group, such as : acromania (acronymmania), cinemadict (cinema addict), chunnel (channel, canal), dramedy (dramacomedy), detectifiction (detective fiction), faction (fact fiction)(fiction based on real facts), informercial (information commercial) , Medicare ( medical care) , magalog ( magazine catalogue) slimnastics (slimming gymnastics), sociolite (social elite), slanguist ( slanglinguist) etc.

### **BACK FORMATION**

It is the way of word-building when a word is formed by dropping the final morpheme to form a new word. It is opposite to suffixation, that is why it is called back formation. At first it appeared in the language as a result of misunderstanding the structure of a borrowed word. Prof. Yartseva explains this mistake by the influence of the whole system of the language on separate words. E.g. it is typical of English to form nouns denoting the agent of the action by adding the suffix -er to a verb stem(speak- speaker). So when the French word «beggar» was borrowed into English the final syllable «ar» was pronounced in the same way as the English -er and Englishmen formed the verb «to beg» by dropping the end of the noun. Other examples of back formation are : to accreditate (from accreditation), to bach (from bachelor), to collocate (from collocation), to enthuse (from enthusiasm), to compute (from computer), to emote (from emotion) to reminisce ( from reminiscence) , to televise (from television)etc. As we can notice in cases of back formation the part-of-speech meaning of the primary word is changed, verbs are formed from nouns.

## Lecture 7

### **THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE. LINGUISTIC SIGN. SEMIOTICS.**

Sapir: "Language is a purely human and non instinctive method of communicating ideas emotions and desires by means of a system voluntarily produced symbols"

Von Frisch: communicating among bees, no real evidence to challenge Sapir's ideas, that language is restricted to human beings.

Language- is a function of our social relationships, language is a system of arbitrary social convention and social symbols as well as social etiquette, public ceremonies, etc.

Every community even insignificant and primitive has its own set of conventions.

Saussure: language had become into existence by virtue of a contract signed by the members of the community.

Any language requires a speaker and a receiver (listener). These roles are reversible.

The transmitter- receiver circuit is the basis of all linguistic communication.

Many linguists: language is a system of signs (Saussure- first)

He proposed the term "semiology" which was to be the science of signs with language as part of it.

There are traffic, mathematics, shop signs.

Non-linguistic and linguistic signs.

A road sign has 2 aspects: 1. arises directly from the visual symbol itself- the signifier.

2. IS what the sign means- signification.

The signifier conveys the meaning of message- signification.

Road signs are conventional (all the symbols are clear enough, it has meaning for a person who's familiar with this code). They are chosen by some agreement between people (traffic light)

Linguistic signs resemble non- linguistic, because

- 1.the signifier, signification
- 2.arbitrary and conventional

In linguistic signs the signifier is represented by the vocal or graphic component.

The signification is what the signifier signifies (an article of furniture)

We can call the signification the semantic content (the difference between linguistic and non-linguistic signs → non-linguistic signs are unambiguous (однозначны))

Traffic light “red” → only “stop”

Linguistic –very rare unambiguity.

Wood timber-a tract of land occupied by trees.

Signification timber fibrous tree tract of land  
substance big/small

English:	timber	wood	tree	forest/wood
Русский.:	лес	дерево	дерево	лес

Linguistic signs can tell us a lot about the cultures of various speech communities, language is a special way of looking at the world and interpreting experience.

The relations signifier- signification are not fixed. This is the well- know law of sign conversion (semiotic conversion ) by Kartsevskiy who wrote an article about asymmetrical dualism of the language sign.

There is no one to one correspondence between signifier and signification.

Some more striking differences between linguistic and non-linguistic signs.

1.) Linguistics signs are often complex.

Disc-jockey (is composed of 2 signs when we add them together the meaning changes)

2.) Linguistic signs depend on context .



We can't say what "wood" mean alone

3.) Ling/signs are creative, flexible and adaptable.

Desk - an article of furniture  
- floor for someone.

Sassure: 4) 1. Linguistic signs are natural, because languages are the only natural systems of communication for people, other artificial.

5.) 2. The linear character of the linguistic sign can represent themselves in time and space only in the form of a line (chain)

6.) 3. Immutability and mutability at the same time being natural adaptive systems languages change in time causing changes of linguistic signs, but at the same time they possess certain stability because they are used for the purposes of communication.

Language is a complex:

House - it can be used in universal sense to cover a range of houses or a particular house.

➔ The elements of language are associated with whole groups of experience and not with a single experience.

Language is a kind of catalogue, the world is ordered prior to perception by man into perfectly distinct categories of objects.

Semiotic, semiology - a general science of signs.

It studies signs, sign phenomena, sign using.

Ch. Morris } made a contribution in semiotics.  
Ch. Pierce }

Morris- semiotics consists of 3 parts:

1. Pragmatics – sign - user relations.

2. Semantics – sign - referent relations. We abstract from the user and analyse only the expression and their meaning.

5. Syntax – sign- sign relations. We abstract from the meaning and analyse only the relations between expressions.

Pierce- gave his original definition of a sign and classified the signs.

A sign is something, which stands to somebody for something.

3 main types of signs:

1. Icons (resembles it's referent)

*The dog on the gate → Beware of the dog.*

2. Indexes are associated with their referents.

*A smoke is an index of fire.*

High temperature → illness

3. Symbols is related to it's referent only by convention.

*Mathematical signs*

*Traffic light signals.*

Examples of all types can be found in the natural language.

## Lecture 8

### THEORY OF NOMINATION AND REFERENCE.

The word, the phrase and the sentence are the basic nom.units of the lang., it means that they are united by nominative function, the ability to.

The process of nomination is going names to things, objects, phenomena, qualities, actions.

The process of semiosis- something serves as a sign.

It takes places when we address smb., exchange information, present something to somebody showing our love and respect, when a painter paints his picture, when we nod or shake our head.

All these processes are different, but they have the same structure from the point of view of semiosis.

It consists of 3 components:

1. sign
2. interpreter or user
3. designatum ( what the sign means)

1. The term “semiosis” in the broadest sense means the semantic activity, human activity including the use of signs.
2. The process of endowing (наделять) linguistic signs with meaning.
3. The process of sign formation.

For lexicology-2 is important.

Nomination and semiosis are performed simultaneously.

When we give name to an object we ascribe some meaning to it.

Our language reflects the structure of the world, but not directly, it reflects the world through our conceptual sphere => language reflects our conceptualization of the world. Words are symbols, they represent objects.

There are 2 steps of conceptualization:

1. The formation of a concept or an image.
2. Establishing a link between the conception and the linguistic sign.

Nomination always presupposes idealization.

Idealization- the formation of abstractions.

Mental representation of objects, properties and relations- abstractions.

The results of this are reflected with the help of linguistic signs. Words mirror concepts through our perception of the world.

Reference- the linkage of a linguistic unit with a non-linguistic entity to which it serves a name.

The reference is that non-direct link which connects a name and the entity in the outer world.

The word is a symbolic substitute for a certain referent.

Referent shall function as a m function of the word.

Different words perform this function differently:

1. Pronounce

He, his this, that

She, her

They indicate, point out, but there is no constant referent for them (different objects each time)

Such words- deictic elements of the language, because they can be applied to any referent.

Linguistics consider them to be signs indexes.

## 2. Proper names.

Their reference is also unique, their content doesn't depend on the conditions of the action communication, it doesn't characterize an object.

## 3. Prepositions.

They refer to relationship between objects, but the objects are each time different.

## 4. Verbs.

They have meaning, but they are devoid of reference.

Conclusion:

1. Languages are semiotic system which operate with signs.
2. Signs are bilateral entities. They have signifier and signified ( the plane of content, the plane of expression).
3. Signs convey some meaning, which is enveloped in a certain form.
4. Linguistic signs differ from each other according to the type of nomination and referential function which they form.

## Lecture 9

### What Is "Meaning"?

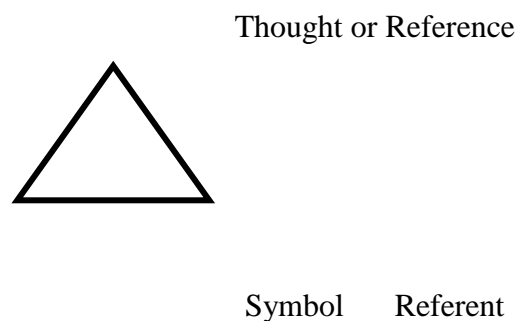
Language is the amber in which a thousand precious and subtle thoughts have been safely embedded and preserved.

(From *Word and Phrase* by J. Fitzgerald)

The question posed by the title of this chapter is one of those questions, which are easier to ask than answer. The linguistic science at present is not able to put forward a definition of meaning which is conclusive.

However, there are certain facts of which we can be reasonably sure, and one of them is that the very function of the word as a unit of communication is made possible by its possessing a meaning. Therefore, among the word's various characteristics, meaning is certainly the most important.

Generally speaking, meaning can be more or less described as a component of the word through which a concept is communicated, in this way endowing the word with the ability of denoting real objects, qualities, actions and abstract notions. The complex and somewhat mysterious relationships between *referent* (object, etc. denoted by the word), *concept* and *word* are traditionally represented by the following triangle [35]:



By the "symbol" here is meant the word; thought or reference is concept. The dotted line suggests that there is no immediate relation between word and referent: it is established only through the concept.

On the other hand, there is a hypothesis that concepts can only find their realisation through words. It seems that thought is dormant till the word wakens it up. It is only when we hear a spoken word or read a printed word that the corresponding concept springs into mind.

The mechanism by which concepts (i. e. mental phenomena) are converted into words (i. e. linguistic phenomena) and the reverse process by which a heard or a printed word is converted into a kind of mental picture are not yet understood or described. Probably that is the reason why the process of communication through words, if one gives it some thought, seems nothing short of a miracle. Isn't it fantastic that the mere vibrations of a speaker's vocal chords should be taken up by a listener's brain and converted into vivid pictures? If magic does exist in the world, then it is truly the magic of human speech; only we are so used to this miracle that we do not realise its almost supernatural qualities.

The branch of linguistics which specialises in the study of meaning is called *semantics*. As with many terms, the term "semantics" is ambiguous for it can stand, as well, for the expressive aspect

of language in general and for the meaning of one particular word in all its varied aspects and nuances (i.e. the semantics of a word = the meaning(s) of a word).

As Mario Pei puts it in *The Study of Language*, "Semantics is 'language' in its broadest, most inclusive aspect. Sounds, words, grammatical forms, syntactical constructions are the tools of language. Semantics is language's avowed purpose" [39]

The meanings of all the utterances of a speech community are said by another leading linguist to include the total experience of that community; arts, science, practical occupations, amusements, personal and family life.

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

Yet, before going deeper into this problem, it is necessary to make a brief survey of another semantic phenomenon which is closely connected with it.

### **Polysemy. Semantic Structure of the Word**

The semantic structure of the word does not present an indissoluble unity (that is, actually, why it is referred to as "structure"), nor does it necessarily stand for one concept. It is generally known that most words convey several concepts and thus possess the corresponding number of meanings. A word having several meanings is called *polysemantic*, and the ability of words to have more than one meaning is described by the term *polysemy*.

Two somewhat naive but frequently asked questions may arise in connection with polysemy:

- 1 . Is polysemy an anomaly or a general rule in English vocabulary?
2. Is polysemy an advantage or a disadvantage so far as the process of communication is concerned?

Let us deal with both these questions together.

Polysemy is certainly not an anomaly. Most English words are polysemantic. It should be noted that the wealth of expressive resources of a language largely depends on the degree to which polysemy has developed in the language. Sometimes people who are not very well informed in linguistic matters claim that a language is lacking in words if the need arises for the same word to be applied to several different phenomena. In actual fact, it is exactly the opposite: if each word is found to be capable of conveying, let us say, at least two concepts instead of one, the expressive potential of the whole vocabulary increases twofold. Hence, a well-developed polysemy is not a drawback but a great advantage in a language.

On the other hand, it should be pointed out that the number of sound combinations that human speech organs can produce is limited. Therefore at a certain stage of language development the production of new words by morphological means becomes limited, and polysemy becomes

increasingly important in providing the means for enriching the vocabulary. From this, it should be clear that the process of enriching the vocabulary does not consist merely in adding new words to it, but, also, in the constant development of polysemy.

The system of meanings of any polysemantic word develops gradually, mostly over the centuries, as more and more new meanings are either added to old ones, or oust some of them (see Ch. 8). So the complicated processes of polysemy development involve both the appearance of new meanings and the loss of old ones. Yet, the general tendency with English vocabulary at the modern stage of its history is to increase the total number of its meanings and in this way to provide for a quantitative and qualitative growth of the language's expressive resources.

When analysing the semantic structure of a polysemantic word, it is necessary to distinguish between two levels of analysis.

On the first level, the semantic structure of a word is treated as a system of meanings. For example, the semantic structure of the noun *fire* could be roughly presented by this scheme (only the most frequent meanings are given):

**Fire, *n.***

- I. Flame
- II. An instance of destructive burning; e. g. *a forest fire*.
- III. Burning material in a stove, fireplace, etc.; e. g. *There is a fire in the next room. A camp fire*.
- VI. The shooting of guns, etc.; e. g. *to open (cease) fire*.
- V. Strong feeling, passion, enthusiasm; e. g. *a speech lacking fire*.

The above scheme suggests that meaning I holds a kind of dominance over the other meanings conveying the concept in the most general way whereas meanings II—V are associated with special circumstances, aspects and instances of the same phenomenon.

Meaning I (generally referred to as *the main meaning*) presents the centre of the semantic structure of the word holding it together. It is mainly through meaning I that meanings II—V (they are called *secondary meanings*) can be associated with one another, some of them exclusively through meaning I, as, for instance, meanings IV and V.

Yet, it is not in every polysemantic word that such a centre can be found. Some semantic structures are arranged on a different principle. In the following list of meanings of the adjective *dull* one can hardly hope to find a generalised meaning covering and holding together the rest of the semantic structure.

**Dull, *adj.***

- I. Uninteresting, monotonous, boring; e. g. *a dull book, a dull film.*
- II. Slow in understanding, stupid; e. g. *a dull student.*
- III. Not clear or bright; e. g. *dull weather, a dull day, a dull colour.*
- IV. Not loud or distinct; e. g. *a dull sound.*
- V. Not sharp; e. g. *a dull knife.*
- VI. Not active; e. g. *Trade is dull.* VII. Seeing badly; e. g. *dull eyes* (arch.). VIII, Hearing badly; e. g. *dull ears* (arch.),

Yet, one distinctly feels that there is something that all these seemingly miscellaneous meanings have in common, and that is the implication of deficiency, be it of colour (m. III), wits (m. II), interest (m. I), sharpness (m. V), etc. The implication of insufficient quality, of something lacking, can be clearly distinguished in each separate meaning.

In fact, each meaning definition in the given scheme can be subjected to a transformational operation to prove the point.

**Dull, *adj.***

- I. Uninteresting > deficient in interest or excitement.
- II. ... Stupid----- > deficient in intellect.
- III. Not bright -----> deficient in light or colour.
- IV. Not loud ----- > deficient in sound.
- V. Not sharp -----> deficient in sharpness.
- VI. Not active----- > deficient in activity.
- VII. Seeing badly----- > deficient in eyesight.
- VIII. Hearing badly ----- > deficient in hearing.

The transformed scheme of the semantic structure of *dull* clearly shows that the centre holding together the complex semantic structure of this word is not one of the meanings but a certain *component* that can be easily singled out within each separate meaning.

This brings us to the second level of analysis of the semantic structure of a word. The transformational operation with the meaning definitions of *dull* reveals something very significant: the semantic structure of the word is "divisible", as it were, not only at the level of different meanings but, also, at a deeper level.

Each separate meaning seems to be subject to structural analysis in which it may be represented as sets of semantic components. In terms of *componential analysis*, one of the modern methods of semantic research, the meaning of a word is defined as a set of elements of meaning which are not



part of the vocabulary of the language itself, but rather theoretical elements, postulated in order to describe the semantic relations between the lexical elements of a given language.

The scheme of the semantic structure of *dull* shows that the semantic structure of a word is not a mere system of meanings, for each separate meaning is subject to further subdivision and possesses an inner structure of its own.

Therefore, the semantic structure of a word should be investigated at both these levels: a) of different meanings, b) of semantic components within each separate meaning. For a monosemantic word (i. e. a word with one meaning) the first level is naturally excluded.

### Types of Semantic Components

The leading semantic component in the semantic structure of a word is usually termed *denotative component* (also, the term *referential component* may be used). The denotative component expresses the conceptual content of a word.

The following list presents denotative components of some English adjectives and verbs:

<i>lonely</i> , adj.	-----	[ alone
<i>notorious</i> , adj.	-----	[ widely
Denotative components		
<i>celebrated</i> , adj.	-----	[ widely
<i>to glare</i> , v.	-----	[ to look ] .....
<i>to glance</i> , v.	-----	[ to look ] .....
<i>to shiver</i> , v.	-----	[ to tremble ] .....
<i>to shudder</i> , v.	-----	[ to tremble ] .....

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

Let us complete the semantic structures of the words given above introducing connotative components into the schemes of their semantic structures.

Denotative components      Connotative components

<i>lonely</i> , adj.	=== >	alone, without	+ melancholy, sad	Emotive connotation
<i>notorious</i> , adj.	=== >	widely known	+ for criminal acts or bad traits of	Evaluative connotation, negative
<i>celebrated</i> , adj.	- -	widely known	+ for special achievement in	Evaluative connotation, positive
<i>to glare</i> , v.	—   to look   +		steadily, lastingly in anger, rage,	1. Connotation of duration 2. Emotive connotation
<i>to glance</i> , v.	===   to look   + >		briefly, passingly	Connotation of duration
<i>to shiver</i> , v.	—   to tremble		[ lastingly ] ++ (usu) with the cold	1. Connotation of duration 2. Connotation of cause
<i>to shudder</i> , v.	— [ to tremble   +		[ briefly   with horror, disgust, etc.	1. Connotation of duration 2. Connotation of cause

The above examples show how by singling out denotative and connotative components one can get a sufficiently clear picture of what the word really means. The schemes presenting the semantic structures of *glare*, *shiver*, *shudder* also show that a meaning can have two or more connotative components.

The given examples do not exhaust all the types of connotations but present only a few: emotive, evaluative connotations, and also connotations of duration and of cause.

### **Lexical meaning.**

Lexical meaning are studied by semantics (semasiology).

In English “semantics” meant a science for predicting the future ( the weather)

Modern use: a science relating to lexical meaning.

Meaning is very ambiguous, contradiction.

Ogden and Richards : "Meaning of meaning" gave 16 definitions of "meaning"

Witgenstein: the meaning of the word is it's use in the language.

Yelmslev: was sure that in absolute isolation no sign has any meaning. Language can't be described as a pure system of signs. It's only with the communicative function of any language we called it external function that sign system begin to operate.

Bloomfield: meaning of the utterance is the situation in which the speaker utters it and the response which it calls forth in the hearer. Human utterances supposed to be connected with certain situations and accompanied by certain responses.

Harris: the meaning of an element in each linguistic environment is the difference between the meaning of it linguistic environment and the whole utterance.

The meaning of "blue" in "blueberry" is the meaning of "blue" minors berry. "Blue" is not simply a color, but the difference from other berries.

Sapire and Vygotsky they spoke about the link between speaking and thinking and gave the following definition: the meaning of a word presents such a close amalgam of thought and language that it's hard to tell whether it's a phenomenon of speech or thought. Thought is not just expressed in words, it comes into existence through them, so the relation of thought to word is not a thing, but a process.

Linguistic approaches to "meaning"

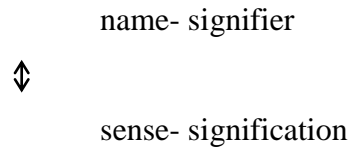
Sassurre wanted semantics to keep within linguistic boundaries only. His theory of meaning uses the analogy of a sheet of paper whose 2 sides are parts of a whole.

In language one can neither divide sound from thought nor thought from sound.

Linguistic operate in the border land where the elements of sound and thought combine.

The formal relationship between them is achieved in the sign. We can't do anything to one sign of the side (signifier) without affecting the other. If a change occurs in signifier → in signification.

It was translated by Ulman.



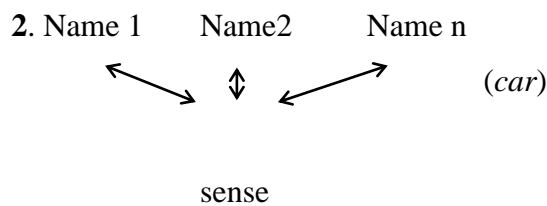
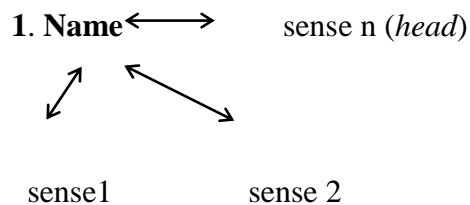
This diagram doesn't restrict the sense- name connection to one-to-one relationship (однозначное соответствие) 1 имя-1 значение

On the contrary, several senses can be attached to a single name

“head” -of a person  
-of a company  
-of a cabbage

And vice versa,

car }  
automobile } mean four- wheeled vehicle (the same)  
motorcar }



“light” The following relationship can be observed:

1. Homonymic relationship

Adj. Light (bright) is a homonym of light (not heavy)

2. Sense association.

The noun "light" is associated with sunlight, brightness, etc.

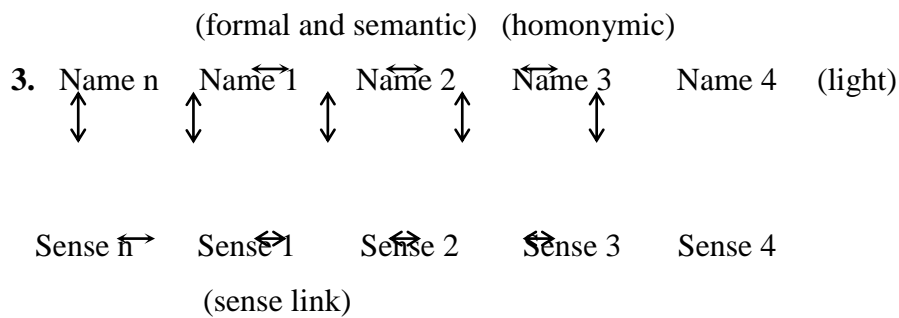
3. Formal and semantic relationship.

The noun "light" has a direct formal and semantic relationship with – the adj. "light"

-the verb "light"

and -the verb "lighten"

-the noun "lightning"



The description doesn't take into account the variety of context.

### Meaning and Use

The notion of meaning and use are closely interrelated. It means that the meaning of a word can't be entirely separated from its use in speech.

What are relations between them:

Leach: the lexical meaning is meaning in abstraction and use is meaning in situation.

The difference between:

Meaning	Use
1. Found in dictionaries	1. Found in actual use
2. Denotative	2. Conotative
3. Isolated	3. Deriving from context
4. Conventionalized by authority	4. Creative
5. Regulated by authority	5. Negotiated between users
6. Base meaning	6. Extended meaning (расширенное)
7. Predictable	7. Unpredictable
8. Generalized	8. Particular

The nature of meaning is best described with reference to functions of language in human communications.

R. Jakobson (formulated these functions)

The process of communication includes:

1. The speaker
2. The Addressee
3. The Code
4. The Message (is what the speaker says in the code)
5. The Context (the things, qualities, actions that the speaker wants to talk about)
6. The Contact (the relations between the speaker and the addressee)

6 functions of the language:

1. The Emotive (speaker related)

The speaker tries to express his feelings by using emotive language.

*type writer* (only referential meaning, it serves as a name of a particular object)

*America* (besides its referential meaning, emotive meaning it evokes some attitudes with the name of the country American life, American English, American Dream)

*fascist*

Fascist- the emotive meaning matters much more than the referential meaning.

The larger is the emotive component within the words meaning, the smaller is the significance of its referential meaning.

2. Conative (функция усвоения)

(addressee related)

- a. patterns of speech are chosen with regard to parameters of the situation.
- b. We make the message more listener friendly.

3. The Metalinguistic (oriented towards language itself)

Every language is a code used to communicate smth.

Languages presents a set of conventions, it means that in actual speech certain words are not our free choice.

}

*A flock of birds*

we can observe the restricting function of lang.code

*A herd of cows*

*A school of fish*

*A pride of lions*

*A swarm of flies, bees*

#### 4. The Poetic (message related)

Some scholars consider language to be the dress of thought (Quirk)

The Poetic function turns language into a deliberately well- tailored dress of thought.

#### 5. The Referential (context related)

The main function of the language to convey information.

#### 6. The Phatic (contact related-контактноустанавливающая)

The speaker wants to establish a social bond with a listener, he uses a lot of words which do not convey meaning, but have a purely interactive function.

*Nice to see you* }  
*How are you ?* } formula of politeness  
*Talk about the weather*

## Lecture 10

### How Words Develop New Meanings

It has been mentioned that the systems of meanings of polysemantic words evolve gradually. The older a word is, the better developed is its semantic structure. The normal pattern of a word's semantic development is from monosemy to a simple semantic structure encompassing only two or three meanings, with a further movement to an increasingly more complex semantic structure.

In this chapter we shall have a closer look at the complicated processes by which words acquire new meanings.

There are two aspects to this problem, which can be generally described in the following way:

a) Why should new meanings appear at all? What circumstances cause and stimulate their

development? b) How does it happen? What is the nature of the very process of development of new meanings?

Let us deal with each of these questions in turn.

### **Causes of Development of New Meanings**

The first group of causes is traditionally termed *historical* or *extra-linguistic*. Different kinds of changes in a nation's social life, in its culture, knowledge, technology, arts lead to gaps appearing in the vocabulary which beg to be filled. Newly created objects, new concepts and phenomena must be named. We already know of two ways for providing new names for newly created concepts: making new words (word-building) and borrowing foreign ones. One more way of filling such vocabulary gaps is by applying some old word to a new object or notion.

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

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

The history of English nouns describing different parts of a theatre may also serve as a good illustration of how well-established words can be used to denote newly-created objects and phenomena. The words *stalls*, *box*, *pit*, *circle* had existed for a long time before the first theatres appeared in England. With their appearance, the gaps in the vocabulary were easily filled by these widely used words which, as a result, developed new meanings.<sup>1</sup>

New meanings can also be developed due to linguistic factors (the second group of causes). Linguistically speaking, the development of new meanings, and also a complete change of meaning, may be caused through the influence of other words, mostly of synonyms.<sup>1</sup>

Let us consider the following examples.

The Old English verb *steorfan* meant "to perish". When the verb *to die* was borrowed from the Scandinavian, these two synonyms, which were very close in their meaning, collided, and, as a result, *to starve* gradually changed into its present meaning: "to die (or suffer) from hunger".

The history of the noun *deer* is essentially the same. In Old English (O. E. *deor*) it had a general meaning denoting any beast. In that meaning it collided with the borrowed word *animal* and changed its meaning to the modern one ("a certain kind of beast", R. *олень*).



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

### **The Process of Development and Change of Meaning**

The second question we must answer in this chapter is *how* new meanings develop. To find the answer to this question we must investigate the inner mechanism of this process, or at least its essential features. Let us examine the examples given above from a new angle, from within, so to speak.

<sup>1</sup> Most scholars distinguish between the terms *development of meaning* (when a new meaning and the one on the basis of which it is formed coexist in the semantic structure of the word, as in *mill*, *carriage*, etc.) and *change of meaning* (when the old meaning is completely replaced by the new one, as in the noun *meat* which in Old English had the general meaning of "food" but in Modern English is no longer used in that sense and has instead developed the meaning "flesh of animals used as a food product").

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

*Stalls* and *box* formed their meanings in which they denoted parts of the theatre on the basis of a different type of association. The meaning of the word *box* "a small separate enclosure forming a part of the theatre" developed on the basis of its former meaning "a rectangular container used for packing or storing things". The two objects became associated in the speakers' minds because boxes in the earliest English theatres really resembled packing cases. They were enclosed on all

sides and heavily curtained even on the side facing the audience so as to conceal the privileged spectators occupying them from curious or insolent stares.

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

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

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

Two types of transference are distinguishable depending on the two types of logical associations underlying the semantic process.

### **Transference Based on Resemblance (Similarity)**

This type of transference is also referred to as *linguistic metaphor*. A new meaning appears as a result of associating two objects (phenomena, qualities, etc.) due to their outward similarity. *Box* and *stall*, as should be clear from the explanations above, are examples of this type of transference.

Other examples can be given in which transference is also based on the association of two physical objects. The noun *eye*, for instance, has for one of its meanings "hole in the end of a needle" (cf. with the R. *ушко иголки*), which also developed through transference based on resemblance. A similar case is represented by *the neck of a bottle*.

The noun *drop* (mostly in the plural form) has, in addition to its main meaning "a small particle of water or other liquid", the meanings: "ear-rings shaped as drops of water" (e. g. *diamond drops*) and "candy of the same shape" (e. g. *mint drops*). It is quite obvious that both these meanings are also based on resemblance. In the compound word *snowdrop* the meaning of the second

constituent underwent the same shift of meaning (also, in *bluebell*). In general, metaphorical change of meaning is often observed in idiomatic compounds.

The main meaning of the noun *branch* is "limb or subdivision of a tree or bush". On the basis of this meaning it developed several more. One of them is "a special field of science or art" (as in *a branch of linguistics*). This meaning brings us into the sphere of the abstract, and shows that in transference based on resemblance an association may be built not only between two physical objects, but also between a concrete object and an abstract concept.

The noun *bar* from the original meaning *barrier* developed a figurative meaning realised in such contexts as *social bars*, *colour bar*, *racial bar*. Here, again, as in the abstract meaning of *branch*, a concrete object is associated with an abstract concept.

The noun *star* on the basis of the meaning "heavenly body" developed the meaning "famous actor or actress". Nowadays the meaning has considerably widened its range, and the word is applied not only to screen idols (as it was at first), but, also, to popular sportsmen (e. g. *football stars*), pop-singers, etc. Of course, the first use of the word *star* to denote a popular actor must have been humorous or ironical: the mental picture created by the use of the word in this new meaning was a kind of semi-god surrounded by the bright rays of his glory. Yet, very soon the ironical colouring was lost, and, furthermore the association with the original meaning considerably weakened and is gradually erased.

The meanings formed through this type of transference are frequently found in the informal strata of the vocabulary, especially in slang (see Ch. 1). A red-headed boy is almost certain to be nicknamed *carrot* or *ginger* by his schoolmates, and the one who is given to spying and sneaking gets the derogatory nickname of *rat*. Both these' meanings are metaphorical, though, of course, the children using them are quite unconscious of this fact.

The slang meanings of words such as *nut*, *onion* (= *head*), *saucers* (= *eyes*), *hoofs* (== *feet*) and very many others were all formed by transference based on resemblance.

### **Transference Based on Contiguity**

Another term for this type of transference is *linguistic metonymy*. The association is based upon subtle psychological links between different objects and phenomena, sometimes traced and identified with much difficulty. The two objects may be associated together because they often appear in common situations, and so the image of one is easily accompanied by the image of the other; or they may be associated on the principle of cause and effect, of common function, of some material and an object which is made of it, etc.

Let us consider some cases of transference based on contiguity. You will notice that they are of different kinds.

The Old English adjective *glad* meant "bright, shining" (it was applied to the sun, to gold and precious stones, to shining armour, etc.). The later (and more modern) meaning "joyful" developed on the basis of the usual association (which is reflected in most languages) of light with joy (cf. with the R. *светлое настроение; светло на душе*).

The meaning of the adjective *sad* in Old English was "satisfied with food" (cf. with the R. *сыт(ый)* which is a word of the same Indo-European root). Later this meaning developed a connotation of a greater intensity of quality and came to mean "oversatisfied with food; having eaten too much". Thus, the meaning of the adjective *sad* developed a negative evaluative connotation and now described not a happy state of satisfaction but, on the contrary, the physical unease and discomfort of a person who has had too much to eat. The next shift of meaning was to transform the description of physical discomfort into one of spiritual discontent because these two states often go together. It was from this prosaic source that the modern meaning of *sad* "melancholy", "sorrowful" developed, and the adjective describes now a purely emotional state. The two previous meanings ("satisfied with food" and "having eaten too much") were ousted from the semantic structure of the word long ago.

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

By the *arms* of an arm-chair we mean the place where the arms lie when one is sitting in the chair, so that the type of association here is the same as in *the foot of a bed*. The *leg* of a bed (table, chair, etc.), though, is the part, which serves as a support, the original meaning being "the leg of a man or animal". The association that lies behind this development of meaning is the common function: a piece of furniture is supported by its legs just as living beings are supported by theirs.

The meaning of the noun *hand* realised in the context *hand of a clock (watch)* originates from the main meaning of this noun "part of human body". It also developed due to the association of the common function: the hand of a clock points to the figures on the face of the clock, and one of the functions of human hand is also that of pointing to things.

Another meaning of *hand* realised in such contexts as *factory hands, farm hands* is based on another kind of association: strong, skilful hands are the most important feature that is required of a person engaged in physical labour (cf. with the R. *рабочие руки*).

The adjective *dull* (see the scheme of its semantic structure in Ch. 7) developed its meaning "not clear or bright" (as in *a dull green colour; dull light; dull shapes*) on the basis of the former

meaning "deficient in eyesight", and its meaning "not loud or distinct" (as in *dull sounds*) on the basis of the older meaning "deficient in hearing". The association here was obviously that of cause and effect: to a person with weak eyesight all colours appear pale, and all shapes blurred; to a person with deficient hearing all sounds are indistinct.

The main (and oldest registered) meaning of the noun *board* was "a flat and thin piece of wood; a wooden plank". On the basis of this meaning developed the meaning "table" which is now archaic. The association which underlay this semantic shift was that of the material and the object made from it: a wooden plank (or several planks) is an essential part of any table. This type of association is often found with nouns denoting clothes: e. g. a *taffeta* ("dress made of taffeta"); a *mink* ("mink coat"), a *jersey* ("knitted shirt or sweater").

Meanings produced through transference based on contiguity sometimes originate from geographical or proper names. *China* in the sense of "dishes made of porcelain" originated from the name of the country which was believed to be the birthplace of porcelain.

*Tweed* ("a coarse wool cloth") got its name from the river Tweed and *cheviot* (another kind of wool cloth) from the Cheviot hills in England.

The name of a painter is frequently transferred onto one of his pictures: *a Matisse* — *a painting by Matisse*.

### ***Broadening (or Generalisation) of Meaning.***

#### ***Narrowing (or Specialisation) of Meaning***

Sometimes, the process of transference may result in a considerable change in range of meaning. For instance, the verb *to arrive* (French borrowing) began its life in English in the narrow meaning "to come to shore, to land". In Modern English it has greatly widened its combinability and developed the general meaning "to come" (e. g. *to arrive in a village, town, city, country, at a hotel, hostel, college, theatre, place, etc.*). The meaning developed through transference based on contiguity (the concept of coming somewhere is the same for both meanings), but the range of the second meaning is much broader.

Another example of the broadening of meaning is *pipe*. Its earliest recorded meaning was "a musical wind instrument". Nowadays it can denote any hollow oblong cylindrical body (e. g. *water pipes*). This meaning developed through transference based on the similarity of shape (pipe as a musical instrument is also a hollow oblong cylindrical object), which finally led to a considerable broadening of the range of meaning.

The word *bird* changed its meaning from "the young of a bird" to its modern meaning through transference based on contiguity (the association is obvious). The second meaning is broader and more general.

It is interesting to trace the history of the word *girl* as an example of the changes in the range of meaning in the course of the semantic development of a word.

In Middle English it had the meaning of "a small child of either sex". Then the word underwent the process of transference based on contiguity and developed the meaning of "a small child of the female sex", so that the range of meaning was somewhat narrowed. In its further semantic development the word gradually broadened its range of meaning. At first it came to denote not only a female child but, also, a young unmarried woman, later, any young woman, and in modern colloquial English it is practically synonymous to the noun *woman* (e. g. *The old girl must be at least seventy*), so that its range of meaning is quite broad.

The history of the noun *lady* somewhat resembles that of *girl*. In Old English the word (OE hlæfdiZe) denoted the mistress of the house, i. e. any married woman. Later, a new meaning developed which was much narrower in range: "the wife or daughter of a baronet" (aristocratic title). In Modern English the word *lady* can be applied to any woman, so that its range of meaning is even broader than that of the OE hlæfdige. In Modern English the difference between *girl* and *lady* in the meaning of *woman* is that the first is used in colloquial style and sounds familiar whereas the second is more formal and polite. Here are some more examples of narrowing of meaning:

*Deer*: \ any beast ] > [ a certain kind of beast ]

*Meat*: [ any food ] > [ a certain food product ]

*Boy*: [ any young person of the male sex ] > [ servant of the male sex ]

It should be pointed out once more that in all these words the second meaning developed through transference based on contiguity, and that when we speak of them as examples of narrowing of meaning we simply imply that the range of the second meaning is more narrow than that of the original meaning.

## Lecture 11.

### Homonyms: Words of the Same Form

#### HOMONYMS

Homonyms are words different in meaning but identical in sound or spelling, or both in sound and spelling.

E. g. *J bank*, n. — a shore

*bank*, n. — an institution for receiving, lending, exchanging, and safeguarding money

*ball*, n. — a sphere; any spherical body *ball*, n. — a large dancing party

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

If synonyms and antonyms can be regarded as the treasury of the language's expressive resources, homonyms are of no interest in this respect, and one cannot expect them to be of particular value for communication. Metaphorically speaking, groups of synonyms and pairs of antonyms are created by the vocabulary system with a particular purpose whereas homonyms are accidental creations, and therefore purposeless.

In the process of communication they are more of an encumbrance, leading sometimes to confusion and misunderstanding. Yet it is this very characteristic which makes them one of the most important sources of popular humour.

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

"A tailor guarantees to give each of his customers a perfect fit."

(The joke is based on the homonyms: I. *fit*, n. — perfectly fitting clothes; II. *fit*, n. — a nervous spasm.)

Homonyms which are the same in sound and spelling (as the examples given in the beginning of this chapter) are traditionally termed *homonyms proper*.

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

"Waiter!" "Yes, sir." "What's this?" "It's bean soup, sir."

"Never mind what it has been. I want to know what it is now."

*Bean*, n. and *been*, Past Part, of *to be* are *phones*. As the example shows they are the same in sound but different in spelling. Here are some more examples of homophones:

*night*, n. — *knight*, n.; *piece*, n. — *peace*, n.; *scent*, n. — *cent*, n. — *sent*, v. (Past Indef., Past Part, of *to send*); *rite*, n. — *to write*, v. — *right*, adj.; *sea*, n. — *to see*, v. — *C* [si:] (the name of a letter).

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

*to bow* [bau], v. - to incline the head or body in salutation

*bow* [b<sub>qu</sub>], n. - a flexible strip of wood for propelling arrows

*to lead* [li:d], v.— to conduct on the way, go before to show the way

*lead* [led], n. - a heavy, rather soft metal

### Sources of Homonyms

One source of homonyms has already been mentioned: *phonetic changes* which words undergo in the course of their historical development. As a result of such changes, two or more words which were formerly pronounced differently may develop identical sound forms and thus become homonyms.

*Night* and *knight*, for instance, were not homonyms in Old English as the initial *k* in the second word was pronounced, and not dropped as it is in its modern sound form: O.E. *kniht* (cf. O.E. *niht*). A more complicated change of form brought together another pair of homonyms: *to knead* (O.E. *cnēdan*) and *to need* (O.E. *nēodian*).

In Old English the verb *to write* had the form *writan*, and the adjective *right* had the forms *reht*, *riht*. The noun *sea* descends from the Old English form *sæ*, and the verb *to see* from O. E. *sēon*. The noun *work* and the verb *to work* also had different forms in Old English: *wyrkean* and *weork* respectively.

Homonyms can appear in the language as the result of levelling of grammar inflexions, when different parts of speech become identical in their outer aspect, e.g. «care» from «caru» and «care» from «carian». They can be also formed by means of conversion, e.g. «to slim» from «slim», «to water» from «water». They can be formed with the help of the same suffix from the same stem, .g. «reader»/ a person who reads and a book for reading/.

Homonyms can also appear in the language accidentally, when two words coincide in their development, e.g. two native words can coincide in their outer aspects: «to bear» from «beran»/to carry/ and «bear» from «bera»/an animal/. A native word and a borrowing can coincide in their outer aspects, e.g. «fair» from Latin «feria» and «fair» from native «fager» /blond/. Two borrowings can coincide e.g. «base» from the French «base» /Latin basis/and «base» /low/ from the Latin «bas» /Italian «basso»/. Homonyms can develop through shortening of different words, e.g. «cab» from «cabriolet», «cabbage», «cabin».

*Borrowing* is another source of homonyms. A borrowed word may, in the final stage of its phonetic adaptation, duplicate in form either a native word or another borrowing. So, in the group of homonyms *rite*, n. — *to write*, v. — *right*, adj. the second and third words are of native origin



whereas *rite* is a Latin borrowing (< Lat. *ritus*). In the *pair piece*, n. — *peace*, n., the first originates from O.F. *pais*, and the second from O.F. (< Gaulish) *pettia*. *Bank*, n. ("shore") is a native word, and *bank*, n. ("a financial institution") is an Italian borrowing. *Fair*, adj. (as in a *fair deal*, *it's not fair*) is native, and *fair*, n. ("a gathering of buyers and sellers") is a French borrowing. *Match*, n. ("a game; a contest of skill, strength") is native, and *match*, n. ("a slender short piece of wood used for producing fire") is a French borrowing.

Word-building also contributes significantly to the growth of homonymy, and the most important type in this respect is undoubtedly *conversion*. Such pairs of words as *comb*, n. — *to comb*, v., *pale*, adj. — *to pale*, v., *to make*, v. — *make*, n. are numerous in the vocabulary. Homonyms of this type, which are the same in sound and spelling but refer to different categories of parts of speech, are called *lexico-grammatical homonyms*.

*Shortening* is a further type of word-building which increases the number of homonyms. E.g. *fan*, n. in the sense of "an enthusiastic admirer of some kind of sport or of an actor, singer, etc." is a shortening produced from *fanatic*. Its homonym is a Latin borrowing *fan*, n. which denotes an implement for waving lightly to produce a cool current of air. The noun *rep*, n. denoting a kind of fabric (cf. with the R. *penc*) has three homonyms made by shortening: *rep*, n. (< *repertory*), *rep*, n. (< *representative*), *rep*, n. (< *reputation*)', all the three are informal words.

During World War II girls serving in the Women's Royal Naval Service (an auxiliary of the British Royal Navy) were jokingly nicknamed *Wrens* (informal). This neologistic formation made by shortening has the homonym *wren*, n. "a small bird with dark brown plumage barred with black" (R. *кранивник*).

Words made by sound-imitation can also form pairs of homonyms with other words: e. g. *bang*, n. ("a loud, sudden, explosive noise") — *bang*, n. ("a fringe of hair combed over the forehead"). Also: *mew*, n. ("the sound a cat makes") — *mew*, n. ("a sea gull") — *mew*, n. ("a pen in which poultry is fattened") — *mews* ("small terraced houses in Central London").

The above-described sources of homonyms have one important feature in common. In all the mentioned cases the homonyms developed from two or more different words, and their similarity is purely accidental. (In this respect, conversion certainly presents an exception for in pairs of homonyms formed by conversion one word of the pair is produced from the other: *a find* < *to find*.)

Now we come to a further source of homonyms, which differs essentially from all the above cases. Two or more homonyms can originate from different meanings of the same word when, for some reason, the semantic structure of the word breaks into several parts. This type of formation of homonyms is called *split polysemy*.

Let us consider the history of three homonyms:

*board, n.* — a long and thin piece of timber

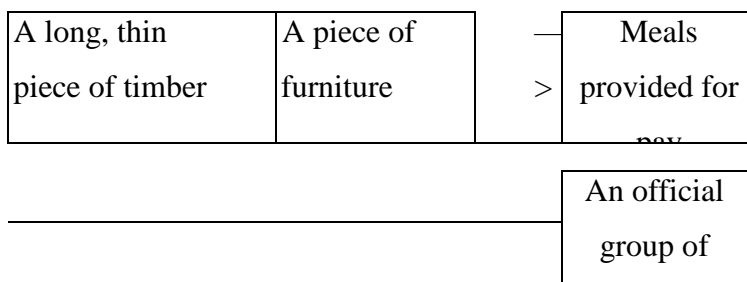
*board, n.* — daily meals, esp. as provided for pay, e. g. *room and board*

*board, n.* — an official group of persons who direct or supervise some activity, e. g. *a board of directors*

It is clear that the meanings of these three words are in no way associated with one another. Yet, most of larger dictionaries still enter a meaning of *board* that once held together all these other meanings "table". It developed from the meaning "a piece of timber" by transference based on contiguity (association of an object and the material from which it is made). The meanings "meals" and "an official group of persons" developed from the meaning "table", also by transference based on contiguity: meals are easily associated with a table on which they are served; an official group of people in authority are also likely to discuss their business round a table.

Nowadays, however, the item of furniture, on which meals are served and round which boards of directors meet, is no longer denoted by the word *board* but by the French Norman borrowing *table*, and *board* in this meaning, though still registered by some dictionaries, can very well be marked as archaic as it is no longer used in common speech. That is why, with the intrusion of the borrowed *table*, the word *board* actually lost its corresponding meaning. But it was just that meaning which served as a link to hold together the rest of the constituent parts of the word's semantic structure. With its diminished role as an element of communication, its role in the semantic structure was also weakened. The speakers almost forgot that *board* had ever been associated with any item of furniture, nor could they associate the concepts of meals or of a responsible committee with a long thin piece of timber (which is the oldest meaning of *board*). Consequently, the semantic structure of *board* was split into three units. The following scheme illustrates the process:

***Board, n.*** (development of meanings)



***Board I, II, III, n.*** (split polysemy)

I. A long, thin piece of timber	A piece of furniture	II. Meals provided for
Seldom used; ousted III. by the French borrowing <i>table</i> .		An official group of persons

A somewhat different case of split polysemy may be illustrated by the three following homonyms:

*spring*, n. — the act of springing, a leap

*spring*, n. — a place where a stream of water comes up out of the earth (R. *родник*, *источник*)

*spring*, n. — a season of the year.

Historically all three nouns originate from the same verb with the meaning of "to jump, to leap" (O. E. *springan*), so that the meaning of the first homonym is the oldest. The meanings of the second and third homonyms were originally based on metaphor. At the head of a stream the water sometimes leaps up out of the earth, so that metaphorically such a place could well be described as *a leap*. On the other hand, the season of the year following winter could be poetically defined as *a leap* from the darkness and cold into sunlight and life. Such metaphors are typical enough of Old English and Middle English semantic transferences but not so characteristic of modern mental and linguistic processes. The poetic associations that lay in the basis of the semantic shifts described above have long since been forgotten, and an attempt to re-establish the lost links may well seem far-fetched. It is just the near-impossibility of establishing such links that seems to support the claim for homonymy and not for polysemy with these three words.

It should be stressed, however, that split polysemy as a source of homonyms is not accepted by some scholars. It is really difficult sometimes to decide whether a certain word has or has not been subjected to the split of the semantic structure and whether we are dealing with different meanings of the same word or with homonyms, for the criteria are subjective and imprecise. The imprecision is recorded in the data of different dictionaries which often contradict each other on this very issue, so that *board* is represented as two homonyms in Professor V. K. Muller's dictionary, as three homonyms in Professor V. D. Arakin's and as one and the same word in Hornby's dictionary.

*Spring* also receives different treatment. V. K. Muller's and Hornby's dictionaries acknowledge but two homonyms: I. a season of the year, II. a) the act of springing, a leap, b) a place where a

stream of water comes up out of the earth; and some other meanings, whereas V. D. Arakin's dictionary presents the three homonyms as given above.

### **Classifications of homonyms.**

Walter Skeat classified homonyms according to their spelling and soundforms and he pointed out three groups: perfect homonyms that is words identical in sound and spelling, such as : «school» - «косяк рыбы» and «школа» ; homographs, that is words with the same spelling but pronounced differently, e.g. «bow» -/bau/ - «поклон» and /bou/ - «лук»; homophones that is words pronounced identically but spelled differently, e.g. «night»- «ночь» and «knight» - «рыцарь».

Another classification was suggested by A.I Smirnitsky. He added to Skeat's classification one more criterion: grammatical meaning. He subdivided the group of perfect homonyms in Skeat's classification into two types of homonyms: perfect which are identical in their spelling, pronunciation and their grammar form, such as: «spring» in the meanings: the season of the year, a leap, a source, and homofoms which coincide in their spelling and pronunciation but have different grammatical meaning, e.g. «reading» - Present Participle, Gerund, Verbal noun., to lobby - lobby.

So Professor A. I. Smirnitsky classified homonyms into two large classes: I. full homonyms, II. partial homonyms.

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

E. g. / *match*, n. — a game, a contest

*match*, n. — a short piece of wood used for producing fire

*wren*, n. — a member of the Women's Royal Naval Service

*wren*, n. — a bird

Partial homonyms are subdivided into three subgroups:

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

E. g. / *(to) found*, v.

\ *found*, v. (Past Indef., Past Part. of *to find*)

/ *to lay*, v.

*lay*, v. (Past Indef. of *to lie*)

[ *to bound*, v.

*bound*, v. (Past Indef., Past Part, of *to bind*)

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

E. g. f *rose*, n.

*rose*, v. (Past Indef. of *to rise*)

*maid*, n.

*made*, v. (Past Indef., Past Part, of *to make*)

*left*, adj.

*left*, v. (Past Indef., Past Part, of *to leave*)

*bean*, n.

*been*, v. (Past Part, of *to be*)

*one*, num.

*won*, v. (Past Indef., Past Part, of *to win*)

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

E. g. \ *to lie* (*lay*, *lain*), v. *to lie* (*lied*, *lied*), v.

*to hang* (*hung*, *hung*), v.

*to hang* (*hanged*, *hanged*), v.

*to can* (*canned*, *canned*) (I) *can* (*could*)

A more detailed classification was given by I.V. Arnold. She classified only perfect homonyms and suggested four criteria of their classification: lexical meaning, grammatical meaning, basic forms and paradigms. According to these criteria I.V. Arnold pointed out the following groups: a) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings, basic forms and paradigms and different in their lexical meanings, e.g. «board» in the meanings «a council» and «a piece of wood sawn thin»; b) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings and basic forms, different in their lexical meanings and paradigms, e.g. *to lie* - *lied* - *lied*, and *to lie* - *lay* - *lain*; c) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, paradigms, but coinciding in their basic forms, e.g. «light» / «lights»/, «light» / «lighter», «lightest»/; d) homonyms different

in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, in their basic forms and paradigms, but coinciding in one of the forms of their paradigms, e.g. «a bit» and «bit» (from «to bite»).

In I. V. Arnold's classification there are also patterned homonyms, which, differing from other homonyms, have a common component in their lexical meanings. These are homonyms formed either by means of conversion, or by levelling of grammar inflexions. These homonyms are different in their grammar meanings, in their paradigms, identical in their basic forms, e.g. «warm» - «to warm». Here we can also have unchangeable patterned homonyms which have identical basic forms, different grammatical meanings, a common component in their lexical meanings, e.g. «before» an adverb, a conjunction, a preposition. There are also homonyms among unchangeable words which are different in their lexical and grammatical meanings, identical in their basic forms, e.g. «for» - «для» and «for» - «ибо».

## Lecture 12

### SYNONYMS

Synonyms are words different in their outer aspects, but identical or similar in their inner aspects. In English there are a lot of synonyms, because there are many borrowings, e.g. hearty / native/ - cordial/borrowing/. After a word is borrowed it undergoes desynonymization, because absolute synonyms are unnecessary for a language. However, there are some absolute synonyms in the language, which have exactly the same meaning and belong to the same style, e.g. to moan, to groan; homeland, motherland etc. In cases of desynonymization one of the absolute synonyms can specialize in its meaning and we get semantic synonyms, e.g. «city»/borrowed/, «town» /native/. The French borrowing «city» is specialized. In other cases native words can be specialized in their meanings, e.g. «stool»/native/, «chair» /French/.

Sometimes one of the absolute synonyms is specialized in its usage and we get stylistic synonyms, e.g. «to begin»/ native/, «to commence»/borrowing/. Here the French word is specialized. In some cases the native word is specialized, e.g. «welkin» /bookish/, «sky» /neutral/. Stylistic synonyms can also appear by means of abbreviation. In most cases the abbreviated form belongs to the colloquial style, and the full form to the neutral style, e.g. «examination», «exam». Among stylistic synonyms we can point out a special group of words which are called euphemisms. These are words used to substitute some unpleasant offensive words, e.g «the late» instead of «dead», «to perspire» instead of «to sweat» etc. There are also phraseological synonyms, these words are identical in their meanings and styles but different in their combining with other words in the sentence, e.g. «to be late for a lecture» but «to miss the train», «to visit

museums» but «to attend lectures» etc. In each group of synonyms there is a word with the most general meaning, which can substitute any word in the group, e.g. «piece» is the synonymic dominant in the group «slice», «lump», «morsel». The verb «to look at» is the synonymic dominant in the group «to stare», «to glance», «to peep». The adjective «red» is the synonymic dominant in the group «purple», «scarlet», «crimson». When speaking about the sources of synonyms, besides desynonymization and abbreviation, we can also mention the formation of phrasal verbs, e.g. «to give up» - «to abandon», «to cut down» - «to diminish».

Synonymy is one of modern linguistics' most controversial problems. The very existence of words traditionally called *synonyms* is disputed by some linguists; the nature and essence of the relationships of these words is hotly debated and treated in quite different ways by the representatives of different linguistic schools.

Even though one may accept that synonyms in the traditional meaning of the term are somewhat elusive and, to some extent, fictitious it is certain that there are words in any vocabulary, which clearly develop regular and distinct relationships when used in speech.

In the following extract, in which a young woman rejects a proposal of marriage, the verbs *like*, *admire* and *love*, all describe feelings of attraction, approbation, fondness:

"I have always *liked* you very much, I *admire* your talent, but, forgive me, — I could never *love* you as a wife should love her husband."

(From *The Shivering Sands* by V. Holt)

Yet, each of the three verbs, though they all describe more or less the same feeling of liking, describes it in its own way: "I like you, i. e., I have certain warm feelings towards you, but they are not strong enough for me to describe them as "love"," — so that *like* and *love* are in a way opposed to each other.

The duality of synonyms is, probably, their most confusing feature: they are somewhat the same, and yet they are most obviously different. Both aspects of their dual characteristics are essential for them to perform their function in speech: revealing different aspects, shades and variations of the same phenomenon.

"— Was she *a pretty* girl?

— I would certainly have called her *attractive*."

(Ibid.)

The second speaker in this short dialogue does his best to choose the word which would describe the girl most precisely: she was good-looking, but *pretty* is probably too good a word for her, so that *attractive* is again in a way opposed to *pretty* (*not pretty*, only *attractive*), but this

opposition is, at the same time, firmly fixed on the sameness of *pretty* and *attractive*: essentially they both describe a pleasant appearance.

Here are some more extracts, which confirm that synonyms add precision to each detail of description and show how the correct choice of a word from a group of synonyms may colour the whole text.

The first extract depicts a domestic quarrel. The infuriated husband shouts and glares at his wife, but "his *glare* suddenly softened into a *gaze* as he turned his eyes on the little girl" (i. e. he had been looking furiously at his wife, but when he turned his eyes on the child, he looked at her with tenderness).

The second extract depicts a young father taking his child for a Sunday walk.

"Neighbours were apt to smile at the long-legged bare-headed young man leisurely strolling along the street and his small companion demurely trotting by his side."

(From *Some Men and Women* by B. Lowndes)

The synonyms *stroll* and *trot* vividly describe two different styles of walking, the long slow paces of the young man and the gait between a walk and a run of the short-legged child.

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

A carefully chosen word from a group of synonyms is a great asset not only on the printed page but also in a speaker's utterance. It was Mark Twain who said that the difference between the right word and just the right word is the difference between the lightning and the lightning-bug.

The skill to choose the most suitable word in every context and every situation is an essential part of the language learning process. Students should be taught both to discern the various connotations in the meanings of synonyms and to choose the word appropriate to each context.

### **Criteria of Synonymy**

Synonymy is associated with some theoretical problems which at present are still an object of controversy. Probably, the most controversial among these is the problem of criteria of synonymy. To put it in simpler words, we are still not certain which words should correctly be considered as synonyms, nor are we agreed as to the characteristic features which qualify two or more words as synonyms.

Traditional linguistics solved this problem with the conceptual criterion and defined synonyms as words of the same category of parts of speech conveying the same concept but differing either in shades of meaning or in stylistic characteristics.



Some aspects of this definition have been criticised. It has been pointed out that linguistic phenomena should be defined in linguistic terms and that the use of the term concept makes this an extralinguistic definition. The term "shades of meaning" has been condemned for its vagueness and lack of precision.

In contemporary research on synonymy semantic criterion is frequently used. In terms of componential analysis synonyms may be defined as words with the same denotation, or the same denotative component, but differing in connotations, or in connotative components (see Ch. 7).

Though not beyond criticism, this approach has its advantages and suggests certain new methods of analysing synonyms.

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

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

Denotation	Connotations	
to look	steadily, lastingly	in surprise, curiosity, etc.
to look	steadily, lastingly	in anger, rage, fury
to look	steadily, lastingly	in tenderness, admiration, wonder
to look	briefly, in passing	
to look	steadily, lastingly	by stealth; through an opening or from a concealed location
to look	steadily, lastingly	with difficulty or strain

The common denotation convincingly shows that, according to the semantic criterion, the words grouped in the above table are synonyms. The connotative components represented on the right side of the table highlight their differentiations.

In modern research on synonyms **the criterion of interchangeability** is sometimes applied. According to this, synonyms are defined as words which are interchangeable at least in some contexts without any considerable alteration in denotational meaning.

This criterion of interchangeability has been much criticised. Every or almost every attempt to apply it to this or that group of synonyms seems to lead one to the inevitable conclusion that either there are very few synonyms or, else, that they are not interchangeable.

It is sufficient to choose any set of synonyms placing them in a simple context to demonstrate the point. Let us take, for example, the synonyms from the above table.

Cf.: *He glared at her* (i. e. He looked at her angrily). *He gazed at her* (i. e. He looked at her steadily and attentively; probably with admiration or interest).

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

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

These few simple examples are sufficient to show that each of the synonyms creates an entirely new situation which so sharply differs from the rest that any attempt at "interchanging" anything can only destroy the utterance devoiding it of any sense at all.

Consequently, it is difficult to accept interchange-ability as a criterion of synonymy because the specific characteristic of synonyms, and the one justifying their very existence, is that *they are not, cannot and should not be interchangeable*, in which case they would simply become useless ballast in the vocabulary.

Synonyms are frequently said to be the vocabulary's colours, tints and hues (so the term *shade* is not so inadequate, after all, for those who can understand a metaphor). Attempts at ascribing to synonyms the quality of interchangeability are equal to stating that subtle tints in a painting can be exchanged without destroying the picture's effect.

All this does not mean that no synonyms are interchangeable. One can find whole groups of words with half-erased connotations which can readily be substituted one for another. The same girl can be described as *pretty*, *good-looking*, *handsome* or *beautiful*. Yet, even these words are far from being totally interchangeable. Each of them creates its own picture of human beauty. Here is an extract in which a young girl addresses an old woman:

"I wouldn't say you'd been exactly *pretty* as a girl — *handsome* is what I'd say. You've got such strong features."

(From *The Stone Angel* by M. Lawrence)

So, handsome is *not* pretty and pretty is not necessarily handsome. Perhaps they are not even synonyms? But they are. Both, the criterion of common denotation ("good-looking, of pleasing appearance") and even the dubious criterion of inter-changeability seem to indicate that.

In conclusion, let us stress that even if there are some synonyms which *are* interchangeable, it is quite certain that there are also others which are not. A criterion, if it is a criterion at all, should be applicable to all synonyms and not just to some of them. Otherwise it is not acceptable as a valid criterion.

### **Types of Synonyms**

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

However, the following aspects of his classification system are open to question.

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

The vagueness of the term "shades of meaning" has already been mentioned. Furthermore there seems to be no rigid demarcation line between synonyms differing in their shades of meaning and in stylistic characteristics, as will be shown later on. There are numerous synonyms, which are distinguished by both shades of meaning and stylistic colouring. Therefore, even the subdivision of synonyms into ideographic and stylistic is open to question.

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

### **Types of Connotations**

I. *The connotation of degree or intensity* can be traced in such groups of synonyms as *to surprise — to astonish — to amaze — to astound; to satisfy — to please — to content — to*

*gratify — to delight — to exalt; to shout — to yell — to bellow — to roar; to like — to admire — to love — to adore — to worship.*

As the table on p. 189 shows, some words have two and even more connotative components in their semantic structures. In the above list the synonymic groups headed by *to satisfy* and *to like* contain words which can be differentiated not only by the connotation of intensity but by other types which will be described later.

II. In the group of synonyms *to stare — to glare — to gaze — to glance — to peep — to peer*, all the synonyms except *to glance* denote a lasting act of looking at somebody or something, whereas *to glance* describes a brief, passing look. These synonyms may be said to have a *connotation of duration* in their semantic structure.

Other examples are: *to flash (brief) — to blaze (lasting); to shudder (brief) — to shiver (lasting); to say (brief) — to speak, to talk (lasting).*

All these synonyms have other connotations besides that of duration.

III. The synonyms *to stare — to glare — to gaze* are differentiated from the other words of the group by *emotive connotations*, and from each other by the nature of the emotion they imply (see the table on p. 189).

In the group *alone — single — lonely — solitary*, the adjective *lonely* also has an emotive connotation.

*She was alone* implies simply the absence of company, *she was lonely* stresses the feeling of melancholy and desolation resulting from being alone. *A single tree on the plain* states plainly that there is (was) only one tree, not two or more. *A lonely tree on the plain* gives essentially the same information, that there was one tree and no more, but also creates an emotionally coloured picture.

In the group *to tremble — to shiver — to shudder — to shake*, the verb *to shudder* is frequently associated with the emotion of fear, horror or disgust, etc. (e. g. *to shudder with horror*) and therefore can be said to have an emotive connotation in addition to the two others.

One should be warned against confusing words with emotive connotations and words with emotive denotative meanings, e. g. *to love — to admire — to adore — to worship; angry — furious — enraged; fear — terror — horror*. In the latter, emotion is expressed by the leading semantic component whereas in the former it is an accompanying, subsidiary characteristic.

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

In the group *to produce* — *to create* — *to manufacture* — *to fabricate*, the verb *to create* characterises the process as inspired and noble. *To manufacture* means "to produce in a mechanical way without inspiration or originality". So, *to create* can be said to have a positive evaluative connotation, and *to manufacture* a negative one.

V. *The causative connotation* can be illustrated by the examples *to sparkle* and *to glitter* given above: one's eyes sparkle *with positive emotions* and glitter *with negative emotions*. However, this connotation of *to sparkle* and *to glitter* seems to appear only in the model "Eyes + Sparkle/Glitter".

The causative connotation is also typical of the verbs we have already mentioned, *to shiver* and *to shudder*, in whose semantic structures the cause of the act or process of trembling is encoded: *to shiver with cold, from a chill, because of the frost; to shudder with fear, horror, etc.*

*To blush* and *to redden* represent similar cases: people mostly blush from modesty, shame or embarrassment, but usually redden from anger or indignation. Emotive connotation can easily be traced in both these verbs.

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

VII. The verbs *to peep* and *to peer* have already been mentioned. They are differentiated by connotations of duration and manner. But there is some other curious peculiarity in their semantic structures. Let us consider their typical contexts.

One *peeps* at smb./smth. through a hole, crack or opening, from behind a screen, a half-closed door, a newspaper, a fan, a curtain, etc. It seems as if a whole set of scenery were built within the word's meaning. Of course, it is not quite so, because "the set of scenery" is actually built in the context, but, as with all regular contexts, it is intimately reflected in the word's semantic structure. We shall call this *the connotation of attendant circumstances*.

This connotation is also characteristic of *to peer* which will be clear from the following typical contexts of the verb.

One *peers* at smb./smth. in darkness, through the fog, through dimmed glasses or windows, from a great distance; a short-sighted person may also peer at things. So, in the semantic structure of *to peer* are encoded circumstances preventing one from seeing clearly. VIII. The synonyms *pretty*, *handsome*, *beautiful* have been mentioned as the ones which are more or less interchangeable. Yet, each of them describes a special type of human beauty: *beautiful* is mostly associated with classical features and a perfect figure, *handsome* with a tall stature, a certain robustness and fine proportions, *pretty* with small delicate features and a fresh complexion. This connotation may be defined as *the connotation of attendant features*.

IX. *Stylistic connotations* stand somewhat apart for two reasons. Firstly, some scholars do not regard the word's stylistic characteristic as a connotative component of its semantic structure. Secondly, stylistic connotations are subject to further classification, namely: colloquial, slang, dialect, learned, poetic, terminological, archaic. Here again we are dealing with stylistically marked words (see Ch. 1, 2), but this time we approach the feature of stylistic characteristics from a different angle: from the point of view of synonyms frequent differentiation characteristics.

Here are some examples of synonyms which are differentiated by stylistic connotations (see also Ch. 2). The word in brackets starting each group shows the denotation of the synonyms.

**(Meal).** Snack, bite (*coll.*), snap (*dial.*), repast, refreshment, feast (*formal*).

These synonyms, besides stylistic connotations, have connotations of attendant features.

*Snack, bite, snap* all denote a frugal meal taken in a hurry; *refreshment* is also a light meal; *feast* is a rich or abundant meal.

**(Girl).** Girlie (*coll.*), lass, lassie (*dial.*), bird, birdie, jane, fluff, skirt (*sl.*), maiden (*poet.*), damsel (*arch.*).

**(To leave).** To be off, to clear out (*coll.*), to beat it, to hoof it, to take the air (*sl.*), to depart, to retire, to withdraw (*formal*).

## Lecture 13

### Synonyms and Antonyms

#### The Dominant Synonym

The attentive reader will have noticed that in the previous chapter much use was made of the numerous synonyms of the verb *to look*, and yet, the verb *to look* itself was never mentioned. That doesn't seem fair because it is, certainly, a verb which possesses the highest frequency of use compared with its synonyms, and so plays an important role in communication. Its role and position in relation to its synonyms is also of some importance as it presents a kind of centre of the group of synonyms, as it were, holding it together.

Its semantic structure is quite simple: it consists only of denotative component and it has no connotations.

All (or, at least, most) synonymic groups have a "central" word of this kind whose meaning is equal to the denotation common to all the synonymic group. This word is called the *dominant synonym*.

Here are examples of other dominant synonyms with their groups:

To surprise — *to astonish* — *to amaze* — *to astound*.

To shout — *to yell* — *to bellow* — *to roar*.

To shine — *to flash* — *to blaze* — *to gleam* — *to glisten* — *to sparkle* — *to glitter* — *to shimmer* — *to glimmer*.

To tremble — *to shiver* — *to shudder* — *to shake*.

To make — *to produce* — *to create* — *to fabricate* — *to manufacture*.

Angry — *furious* — *enraged*. Fear — *terror* — *horror*.

The dominant synonym expresses the notion common to all synonyms of the group in the most general way, without contributing any additional information as to the manner, intensity, duration or any attending feature of the referent. So, any dominant synonym is a typical basic-vocabulary word (see Ch. 2). Its meaning, which is broad and generalised, more or less "covers" the meanings of the rest of the synonyms, so that it may be substituted for any of them. It seems that here, at last, the idea of interchangeability of synonyms comes into its own. And yet, each such substitution would mean an irreparable loss of the additional information supplied by connotative components of each synonym. So, using *to look* instead of *to glare*, *to stare*, *to peep*, *to peer* we preserve the general sense of the utterance but lose a great deal in precision, expressiveness and colour.

Summing up what has been said, the following characteristic features of the dominant synonym can be underlined:

- I. High frequency of usage.
- II. Broad combinability, i. e. ability to be used in combinations with various classes of words.
- III. Broad general meaning.
- IV. Lack of connotations. (This goes for stylistic connotations as well, so that neutrality as to style is also a typical feature of the dominant synonym.)

## **Euphemisms**

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

The word *lavatory* has, naturally, produced many euphemisms. Here are some of them: *powder room, washroom, restroom, retiring room, (public) comfort station, ladies' (room), gentlemen's (room), water-closet, w.c.* ([dʌblju:'si:]), *public conveniences* and even *Windsor castle* (which is a comical phrase for "deciphering" w.c.).

Pregnancy is another topic for "delicate" references. Here are some of the euphemisms used as substitutes for the adjective *pregnant*: *in an interesting condition, in a delicate condition, in the family way, with a baby coming, (big) with child, expecting.*

The apparently innocent word *trousers*, not so long ago, had a great number of euphemistic equivalents, some of them quite funny: *unmentionables, inexpressibles, indescribables, unwhisperables, you-mustn't-men-tion 'ems, sit-upons.* Nowadays, however, nobody seems to regard this word as "indecent" any more, and so its euphemistic substitutes are no longer in use.

Eating is also regarded as unrefined by some minds. Hence such substitutes as to *partake of food (of refreshment), to refresh oneself, to break bread.*

There are words which are easy targets for euphemistic substitution. These include words associated with drunkenness, which are very numerous.

The adjective *drunk*, for instance, has a great number of such substitutes, some of them "delicate", but most comical. E. g. *intoxicated (form.), under the influence (form.), tipsy, mellow, fresh, high, merry, flustered, overcome, full (coll.), drunk as a lord (coll.), drunk as an owl (coll.), boiled (sl.), fried (sl.), tanked (sl.), tight (sl.), stiff (sl.), pickled (sl.), soaked (sl.), three sheets to the wind (sl.), high as a kite (sl.), half-seas-over (sl.), etc.*

Euphemisms may, of course, be used due to genuine concern not to hurt someone's feelings. For instance, a liar can be described as a person who *does not always strictly tell the truth* and a stupid man can be said to be *not exactly brilliant.*

All the euphemisms that have been described so far are used to avoid the so-called *social taboos*. Their use, as has already been said, is inspired by social convention.

*Superstitious taboos* gave rise to the use of other type of euphemisms. The reluctance to call things by their proper names is also typical of this type of euphemisms, but this time it is based on a deeply-rooted subconscious fear.

*Superstitious taboos* have their roots in the distant past of mankind when people believed that there was a supernatural link between a name and the object or creature it represented. Therefore, all the words denoting evil spirits, dangerous animals, or the powers of nature were taboo. If uttered, it was believed that unspeakable disasters would result not only for the speaker but also for those near him. That is why all creatures, objects and phenomena threatening danger were referred to in a round-about descriptive way. So, a dangerous animal might be described as *the*



*one-lurking-in-the-wood* and a mortal disease as *the black death*. Euphemisms are probably the oldest type of synonyms, for

it is reasonable to assume that superstitions which caused real fear called for the creation of euphemisms long before the need to describe things in their various aspects or subtle shades caused the appearance of other synonyms.

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

The word *God*, due to other considerations, also had a great number of substitutes which can still be traced in such phrases as *Good Lord!*, *By Heavens!*, *Good Heavens!*, *(My) goodness!*, *(My) goodness gracious!*, *Gracious me!*

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

The slang substitutes seem to lack any proper respect, but the joke is a sort of cover for the same old fear: speak of death and who knows what may happen.

Mental diseases also cause the frequent use of euphemisms. A mad person may be described as *insane*, *mentally unstable*, *unbalanced*, *unhinged*, *not (quite) right*(coll.), *not all there* (coll.), *off one's head* (coll.), *off one's rocker* (coll.), *wrong in the upper storey* (coll.), *having bats in one's belfry* (coll.), *crazy as a bedbug* (coll.), *cuckoo* (sl.), *nutty* (sl.), *off one's nut* (sl.), *loony* (sl.), *a mental case*, *a mental defective*, etc.

A clinic for such patients can also be discreetly referred to as, for instance, *an asylum*, *sanitarium*, *sanatorium*, *(mental) institution*, and, less discreetly, as *a nut house* (sl.), *booby hatch* (sl.), *loony bin* (sl.), etc. The great number of humorous substitutes found in such groups of words prove particularly tempting for writers who use them for comical purposes. The following extracts from a children's book by R. Dahl are, probably, not in the best of taste, but they demonstrate the range of colloquial and slang substitutes for the word *mad*.

"He's gone off his rocker!" shouted one of the fathers, aghast, and the other parents joined in the chorus of frightened shouting.

"He's crazy!" they shouted.

"He's balmy!"

"He's nutty!"

"He's screwy!"

"He's batty!"

"He's dippy!"

"He's dotty!\*"

"He's daffy!"

"He's goofy!"

"He's beany!"

"He's buggy!"

"He's wacky!"

"He's loony!"

"No, he is not!" said Grandpa Joe.

(From *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory* by R. Dahl)

All the above examples show that euphemisms are substitutes for their synonyms. Their use and very existence are caused either by social conventions or by certain psychological factors. Most of them have stylistic connotations in their semantic structures. One can also assume that there is a special euphemistic connotation that can be singled out in the semantic structure of each such word. Let us point out, too, that euphemistic connotations in formal euphemisms are different in "flavour" from those in slang euphemistic substitutes. In the first case they are solemn and delicately evasive, and in the second rough and somewhat cynical, reflecting an attempt to laugh off an unpleasant fact.

## ANTONYMS

Antonyms are words belonging to the same part of speech, identical in style, expressing contrary or contradictory notions.

V.N. Comissarov in his dictionary of antonyms classified them into two groups : absolute or root antonyms / »late« - «early»/ and derivational antonyms / «to please» - «to displease»/ . Absolute antonyms have different roots and derivational antonyms have the same roots but different affixes. In most cases negative prefixes form antonyms / un-, dis-, non-/. Sometimes they are formed by means of suffixes -ful and -less. The number of antonyms with the suffixes ful- and -less is not very large, and sometimes even if we have a word with one of these suffixes its antonym is formed not by substituting -ful by less-, e.g. «successful»-»unsuccessful», «selfless» - «selfish». The same is true about antonyms with negative prefixes, e.g. «to man» is not an

antonym of the word «to unman», «to disappoint» is not an antonym of the word «to appoint». The difference between derivational and root antonyms is not only in their structure, but in semantics as well. Derivational antonyms express contradictory notions, one of them excludes the other, e.g. «active»-«inactive». Absolute antonyms express contrary notions. If some notions can be arranged in a group of more than two members, the most distant members of the group will be absolute antonyms, e.g. «ugly», «plain», «good-looking», «pretty», «beautiful», the antonyms are «ugly» and «beautiful».

Leonard Lipka in the book «Outline of English Lexicology» describes different types of oppositeness, and subdivides them into three types: a) complementary, e.g. male -female, married -single, b) antonyms, e.g. good -bad, c) converseness, e.g. to buy - to sell. In his classification he describes complementarity in the following way: the denial of the one implies the assertion of the other, and vice versa.«John is not married» implies that «John is single». The type of oppositeness is based on yes/no decision. Incompatibility only concerns pairs of lexical units. Antonymy is the second class of oppositeness. It is distinguished from complementarity by being based on different logical relationships. For pairs of antonyms like good/bad, big/small only the second one of the abovementioned relations of implication holds. The assertion containing one member implies the negation of the other, but not vice versa. «John is good» implies that «John is not bad», but «John is not good» does not imply that «John is bad». The negation of one term does not necessarily implies the assertion of the other. An important linguistic difference from complementaries is that antonyms are always fully gradable, e.g. hot, warm, tepid, cold. Converseness is mirror-image relations or functions, e.g. husband/wife, pupil/teacher, precede/follow, above/below, before/after etc. «John bought the car from Bill» implies that «Bill sold the car to John». Mirror-image sentences are in many ways similar to the relations between active and passive sentences. Also in the comparative form: »Y is smaller than X, then X is larger than Y«. L. Lipka also gives the type which he calls directional opposition up/down, consequence opposition learn/know, antipodal opposition North/South, East/West, ( it is based on contrary motion, in opposite directions.) The pairs come/go, arrive/depart involve motion in different directions. In the case up/down we have movement from a point P. In the case come/go we have movement from or to the speaker. L. Lipka also points out non-binary contrast or many-member lexical sets. Here he points out serially ordered sets, such as scales / hot, warm, tepid, cool, cold/; colour words / black, grey, white/ ; ranks /marshal, general, colonel, major, captain etc./ There are gradable examination marks / excellent, good, average, fair, poor/. In such sets of words we can have outer and inner pairs of antonyms. He also points out cycles, such as units of time /spring, summer, autumn, winter/. In this case there are no «outermost» members. Not every word in a language can have antonyms. This



classified:

a) By the criterion of distribution they may be divided into endocentric - all groups that have the central member, which is functionally equivalent to the whole word group (Ex. a beautiful girl [girl is the center of the WC], very important [important is central]). Besides, there are exocentric groups - groups, which have no central member (Ex. he works; about John).

b) According to the central member, all endocentric word groups can be subdivided into nominal word groups (a beautiful girl), verbal (to readwell), or adjectiveable (very important) etc.

c) Endocentric word groups fall into:

Coordinative

If they have distribution of two or more members (Ex. cats and dogs).

Subordinative

If they have distribution only of one of its members (Ex. a beautiful girl).

d) According to the syntactic pattern all word groups are divided into predicative (he works) and non-predicative (very happy).

4. The meaning of word groups can be defined as the combined lexical meaning of the component words but it is not a mere additive result of all the lexical meanings of components. The meaning of the word group itself dominates the meaning of the component members (Ex. an easy rule, an easy person).

The meaning of the word group is further complicated by the pattern of arrangement of its constituents (Ex. school grammar- grammar school).

That's why we should bear in mind the existence of lexical and structural components of meaning in word groups, since these components are independent and inseparable. The syntactic structure (formula) implies the description of the order and arrangement of member-words as parts of speech ("to write novels" - verb + noun; "clever at mathematics"- adjective + preposition + noun).

As a rule, the difference in the meaning of the head word is presupposed by the difference in the pattern of the word group in which the word is used (to get + noun = to get letters / presents; to get + to + noun = to get to town). If there are different patterns, there are different meanings. BUT: identity of patterns doesn't imply identity of meanings.

5. Semantically. English word groups are analyzed into motivated word groups and non-motivated word groups. Word groups are lexically motivated if their meanings are deducible<sup>32</sup> from the meanings of components. The degree of motivation may be different.

A blind man - completely motivated

A blind print - the degree of motivation is lower A blind alley (= the deadlock) - the degree of motivation is still less. Non-motivated word-groups are usually described as phraseological units.

6 The term "phraseological unit" was introduced by Soviet linguists (Виноградов) and it's

generally accepted in this country. It is aimed at avoiding ambiguity with other terms, which are generated by different approaches, are partially motivated and non-motivated.

Set expressions imply that the basic criterion of differentiation is stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure of word groups. "Idiom" implies that the basic characteristics of the units under consideration is lack of motivation (or idiomaticity). Word equivalent stresses the functional inseparability of certain groups and their aptness (ability) to function in speech like words. 7. Phraseology as a special branch of linguistics was first singled out by Swiss linguist Charles Bally. The first classification of phraseological units was advanced for the Russian language by a famous Russian linguist Vinogradov. According to the semantic criterion of motivation and the functional criterion of stability he classified phraseological units into: (a) phraseological collocations. Phraseological collocations with groups with clearly motivated meaning and relative stability (Ex. "to take smth. for granted", "to meet the requirements", "to take offense"); (b) phraseological unities which are completely motivated. Their meaning is transparent (Ex. "to look a gift horse in the mouth" = to examine a present critically); (c) phraseological fusions that have the meaning which completely absorbs the meaning of components. They are completely non-motivated and stable (a mare's nest = rubbish, nonsense). The classification is open to criticism, since it doesn't take into account the structural characteristics of these units. Moreover, the criterion of the degree of motivation is rather subjective. Prof. Smirnitsky suggested another classification of phraseological units - it's an attempt to combine the structural and semantic principles.

Phraseological units are treated as word equivalents and they are grouped into: (a) one-summit units => they have one meaningful component (to be tied, to make out); (b) multi-summit units => have two or more meaningful components (black art, to fish in troubled waters).

Within each of these groups Prof. Smirnitsky classified phraseological units according to the part of speech of the summit constituent. He also distinguished proper phraseological units or units with non-figurative meaning and idioms that have transferred meaning based on metaphor.

This classification was criticized as inconsistent, because it contradicts the principle of idiomaticity advanced by the linguist himself. The inclusion of phrasal verbs into phraseology wasn't supported by any convincing argument. Prof. Amosova introduced another classification. Her approach is contextual. If 3 word groups make variable context the main feature of phraseological units is a fixed context

Units of a fixed context are subdivided into phrasemes and idioms. Phrasemes are as a rule two member units. One component of such units has a phraseologically bound meaning and the other component serves as the determining context.

(Ex. small talk, black market - "talk" and "market" serve as a determining cm-text).

In idioms the meaning is created by the whole though every element may have its original meaning weakened or even completely lost. Idioms may be motivated and demotivated. Motivated idiom is homonymous to a free phrase, which is used figuratively (to rule with a rod of iron = to rule despotically). A fixed context does not necessarily imply a specialized meaning of components because they may simply have a narrow range of valency (to shrug one's shoulders). Sometimes the criterion of invariability is overestimated while the criterion of the degree of idiomaticity is disregarded.

8. The classification system of phraseological units suggested by Prof. Kunin is the latest achievement in Russia. This classification is based on the combined structural-semantic principle and considers different aspects of stability. He subdivides all set expressions into: (a) phraseological units (idioms) (b) semi-idioms; (c) phraseomatic units.

Phraseological units are structurally separable language units with completely or partially transferred meanings (to kill 2 birds with one stone; to be in brown study = to be in low spirits). Semi-idioms have both literal and transferred meanings. Their first meaning is usually terminological or professional. And the second meaning is transferred (Ex. to lay down one's arms - сложить оружие). Phraseological units have literal and phraseologically bound meanings (Ex. safe and sound, to pay attention to smth.). Prof. Kunin assumes that all types of set expressions are characterized by the following aspects of stability: (a) stability of views - implies ready-made reproduction; (b) semantic complexity, (c) permanence of lexical composition (or lexical stability); (d) morphological and syntactical fixity; (e) refusal to follow the pattern of free word combinations

Idioms and semi-idioms are much more complex in structure than phraseological units. They have a broad stylistic range and they admit of more complex occasional changes.

Taking into consideration the structural and semantic complexity of set expressions, Prof. Kunin regards phraseology as a self-contained branch of linguistics. Set expressions are not regarded as word-correlates.

Phraseological stability distinguishes set expressions from free word groups and compound words.

### **How to Distinguish Phraseological Units from Free Word-Groups**

This is probably the most discussed — and the most controversial — problem in the field of phraseology. The task of distinguishing between free word-groups and phraseological units is further complicated by the existence of a great number of marginal cases, the so-called *semi-fixed* or *semi-free word-groups*, also called *non-phraseological word-groups* which share with phraseological units their structural stability but lack their semantic unity and figurativeness (e. g. *to go to school, to go by bus, to commit suicide*).

There are two major criteria for distinguishing between phraseological units and free word-groups: semantic and structural.

Compare the following examples:

A. Cambridge don: I'm told they're inviting more American professors to this university. Isn't it rather carrying coals to Newcastle?

(*To carry coals to Newcastle* means "to take something to a place where it is already plentiful and not needed". Cf. with the R. *В Тулу со своим самоваром.*)

B. This cargo ship is carrying coal to Liverpool.

The first thing that captures the eye is the semantic difference of the two word-groups consisting of the same essential constituents. In the second sentence the free word-group is *carrying coal* is used in the direct sense, the word *coal* standing for real hard, black coal and *carry* for the plain process of taking something from one place to another. The first context quite obviously has nothing to do either with coal or with transporting it, and the meaning of the whole word-group is something entirely new and far removed from the current meanings of the constituents.

Academician V. V. Vinogradov spoke of the semantic change in phraseological units as "a meaning resulting from a peculiar chemical combination of words". This seems a very apt comparison because in both cases between which the parallel is drawn an entirely new quality comes into existence.

The semantic shift affecting phraseological units does not consist in a mere change of meanings of each separate constituent part of the unit. The meanings of the constituents merge to produce an entirely new meaning: e. g. *to have a bee in one's bonnet* means "to have an obsession about something; to be eccentric or even a little mad". The humorous metaphoric comparison with a person who is distracted by a bee continually buzzing under his cap has become erased and half-forgotten, and the speakers using the expression hardly think of bees or bonnets but accept it in its transferred sense: "obsessed, eccentric".

That is what is meant when phraseological units are said to be characterised by semantic unity. In the traditional approach, phraseological units have been defined as word-groups conveying a single concept (whereas in free word-groups each meaningful component stands for a separate concept).

It is this feature that makes phraseological units similar to words: both words and phraseological units possess semantic unity (see Introduction). Yet, words are also characterised by structural unity which phraseological units very obviously lack being combinations of words. Most Russian scholars today accept *the semantic criterion* of distinguishing phraseological units from free word-groups as the major one and base their research work in the field of phraseology



on the definition of a phraseological unit offered by Professor A. V. Koonin, the leading authority on problems of English phraseology in our country:

"A phraseological unit is a stable word-group characterised by a completely or partially transferred meaning." [12]

The definition clearly suggests that the degree of semantic change in a phraseological unit may vary ("completely or partially transferred meaning"). In actual fact the semantic change may affect either the whole word-group or only one of its components. The following phraseological units represent the first case: *to skate on thin ice* (~ to put oneself in a dangerous position; to take risks); *to wear one's heart on one's sleeve*<sup>1</sup> (~ to expose, so that everyone knows, one's most intimate feelings); *to have one's heart in one's boots* (~ to be deeply depressed, anxious about something); *to have one's heart in one's mouth* (~ to be greatly alarmed by what is expected to happen); *to have one's heart in the right place* (~ to be a good, honest and generous fellow); *a crow in borrowed plumes* (£ a person pretentiously and unsuitably dressed; cf. with the R. *ворона в павлиньих перьях*); *a wolf in a sheep's clothing*<sup>2</sup> (~ a dangerous enemy who plausibly poses as a friend).

The second type is represented by phraseological units in which one of the components preserves its current meaning and the other is used in a transferred meaning: *to lose (keep) one's temper*, *to fly into a temper*, *to fall ill*, *to fall in love (out of love)*, *to stick to one's word (promise)*, *to arrive at a conclusion*, *bosom friends*, *shop talk* (also: *to talk shop*), *small talk*.

Here, though, we are on dangerous ground because the border-line dividing phraseological units with partially changed meanings from the so-called *semi-fixed* or *non-phraseological word-groups* (marginal cases) is uncertain and confusing.

The term "idiom", both in this country and abroad, is mostly applied to phraseological units with completely transferred meanings, that is, to the ones in which the meaning of the whole unit does not correspond to the current meanings of the components. There are many scholars who regard idioms as the essence of phraseology and the major focus of interest in phraseology research.

*The structural criterion* also brings forth pronounced distinctive features characterising phraseological units and contrasting them to free word-groups.

Structural invariability is an essential feature of phraseological units, though, as we shall see, some of them possess it to a lesser degree than others. Structural invariability of phraseological units finds expression in a number of restrictions.

First of all, restriction in substitution. As a rule, no word can be substituted for any meaningful component of a phraseological unit without destroying its sense. *To carry coals to Manchester* makes as little sense as *Б Харьков со своим самоваром*.

The idiom *to give somebody the cold shoulder* means "to treat somebody coldly, to ignore or cut him", but a *warm shoulder* or a *cold elbow* make no sense at all. The meaning of *a bee in smb's bonnet* was explained above, but *a bee in his hat* or *cap* would sound a silly error in choice of words, one of those absurd slips that people are apt to make when speaking a foreign language.

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

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

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

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

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

Yet, such restrictions are less regular. In *Vanity Fair* by W. M. Thackeray the idiom *to build a castle in the air* is used in this way:

"While dressing for dinner, she built *for herself* a most magnificent castle in the air *of which she was the mistress ...*"

In fiction such variations of idioms created for stylistic purposes are not a rare thing. In oral speech phraseological units mostly preserve their traditional structures and resist the introduction of additional components.

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

in this phrase thus erring once more against the rigidity of structure which is so characteristic of phraseological units.

Yet again, as in the case of restriction in introducing additional components, there are exceptions to the rule, and these are probably even more numerous.

One can *build a castle in the air*, but also *castles*. A shameful or dangerous family secret is picturesquely described as *a skeleton in the cupboard*, the first substantive component being

frequently and easily used in the plural form, as in: *I'm sure they have skeletons in every cupboard!* A *black sheep* is a disreputable member of a family who, in especially serious cases, may be described as *the blackest sheep of the family*.

### Proverbs

Consider the following examples of proverbs:

*We never know the value of water till the well is dry.*

*You can take the horse to the water, but you cannot make him drink.*

*Those who live in glass houses shouldn't throw stones.*

Even these few examples clearly show that proverbs are different from those phraseological units which have been discussed above. The first distinctive feature that strikes one is the obvious structural dissimilarity. Phraseological units, as we have seen, are a kind of ready-made blocks which fit into the structure of a sentence performing a certain syntactical function, more or less as words do. E. g. *George liked her for she never put on airs* (predicate). *Big bugs like him care nothing about small fry like ourselves*, (a) subject, b) prepositional object).

Proverbs, if viewed in their structural aspect, are sentences, and so cannot be used in the way in which phraseological units are used in the above examples.

If one compares proverbs and phraseological units in the semantic aspect, the difference seems to become even more obvious. Proverbs could be best compared with minute fables for, like the latter, they sum up the collective experience of the community. They moralise (*Hell is paved with good intentions*), give advice (*Don't judge a tree by its bark*), give warning (*If you sing before breakfast, you will cry before night*), admonish (*Liars should have good memories*), criticise (*Everyone calls his own geese swans*).

No phraseological unit ever does any of these things. They do not stand for whole statements as proverbs do but for a single concept. Their function in speech is purely *nominative* (i. e. they denote an object, an act, etc.). The function of proverbs in speech, though, is *communicative* (i. e. they impart certain information).

The question of whether or not proverbs should be regarded as a subtype of phraseological units and studied together with the phraseology of a language is a controversial one.

Professor A. V. Koonin includes proverbs in his classification of phraseological units and labels them *communicative phraseological units* (see Ch. 13). From his point of view, one of the main criteria of a phraseological unit is its stability. If the quotient of phraseological stability in a word-group is not below the minimum, it means that we are dealing with a phraseological unit. The structural type — that is, whether the unit is a combination of words or a sentence — is irrelevant.

The criterion of nomination and communication cannot be applied here either, says Professor A. V. Koonin, because there are a considerable number of verbal phraseological units which are word-groups (i. e. nominative units) when the verb is used in the Active Voice, and sentences (i. e. communicative units) when the verb is used in the Passive Voice. E. g. *to cross (pass) the Rubicon — the Rubicon is crossed (passed); to shed crocodile tears — crocodile tears are shed*. Hence, if one accepts nomination as a criterion of referring or not referring this or that unit to phraseology, one is faced with the absurd conclusion that such word-groups, when with verbs in the Active Voice, are phraseological units and belong to the system of the language, and when with verbs in the Passive Voice, are non-phraseological word-groups and do not belong to the system of the language. [12]

It may be added, as one more argument in support of this concept, that there does not seem to exist any rigid or permanent border-line between proverbs and phraseological units as the latter rather frequently originate from the former.

So, the phraseological unit *the last straw* originated from the proverb *The last straw breaks the camel's back*, the phraseological unit *birds of a feather* from the proverb *Birds of a feather flock together*, the phraseological unit *to catch at a straw (straws)* from *A drowning man catches at straws*.

What is more, some of the proverbs are easily transformed into phraseological units. E. g. *Don't put all your eggs in one basket* > *to put all one's eggs in one basket*; *don't cast pearls before swine* > *to cast pearls before swine*.

## Lecture 15

### Lexicography. Types of dictionaries

Lexicography is the subbranch of lexicology, which studies different dictionaries. The problem of compiling new dictionaries is a problem of great importance. The richer is a vocabulary, the richer and more developed is the language. The dictionaries should reflect the richness of the language. It should contain all the meanings of the words. The change of the vocabulary is connected with the change of the life of the society. The dictionary should reflect all these changes. There are different types of dictionaries. They are: 1. explanatory or etymological (Webster and Skeat); 2. dictionary of synonyms and antonyms (Апресян); 3. parallel or bilingual (E-R Мюллер; R-E Смирнитский); 4. phonetic by Jones; 5. Phraseological by Кунин. Etymological dictionary learns not only the meaning, but also the usage of the word. The author of the dictionary must know the language perfectly well. When compiling a dictionary it is necessary

to take into consideration that the word in one language does not fully correspond to its equivalents in other languages. For ex: to go – идти (человек, дождь, время). It is impossible to use ‘to go’ in all these cases (time flies, it is raining). Usually equivalent of the word corresponds only to one of the meanings, in other cases they are used differently. As a rule, words in the dictionary are arranged in alphabetical order. The catchword is usually given in heavy type. The part of speech to which this word belongs is usually indicated. This is of great importance especially for the English language. In English dictionaries usually pronunciation is given. In Russian dictionaries a stress is given. Sometime the pronunciation is given too. Each dictionary has its own way of showing pronunciation. Usually phonetic signs are explained in preface. The terms are usually indicated to which branch of science they belong. In England, the first English dictionary was published in the beginning of the 17th century (in the 1604). It was a dictionary of so-called hard words-words, difficult to understand. It was compiled by Cawdray. That dictionary comprised words, which were explained in the same language. This dictionary passed several editions, but it continued to treat only difficult words. In 1721, The Universal Etymological Dictionary was published. This dictionary was compiled by Johnson. Johnson’s dictionary was based on historical principles and comprised quotations from the books of different writers and had literary illustrations. In the following centuries, a number of lexicographers and writers began to work at the compiling new dictionaries. The result of this great work was the appearance of the Oxford New Dictionary. It was edited by Bradley. It consisted of 123 volumes. It includes pronunciation; it shows parts of speech and etymology of words. The meanings are numbered and lettered. Each meaning of the word is dated and illustrated by some quotations from the works of the best writers (Shakespeare). From this dictionary, we learn when the word came to be used, its exact meaning and so on. We have several abbreviated editions of this dictionary. In 1811 a Concise Oxford Dictionary appeared. It has no quotations from the works of different writers. The words in this dictionary are explained in English. We see the etymology of every word and find some expressions with it. Then a Pocket Oxford dictionary appeared. Now we have 4 editions of this dictionary. The first edition belongs to July 1924. This Pocket dictionary contains a long preface. It also gives pronunciation of every English word. At the end of this book, the author gives a list of suffixes of different origin and a list of abbreviations. To know not only the meaning of the word we should use Encyclopedia. ‘Britannica’ – dictionary on different branches of science. There are also phonetic dictionaries compiled by Johns. For ex: an English pronouncing dictionary, compiled by Johns. It deals with phonemes. In English, we have a special dictionary by Patridge – dictionary of slang and unconventional English. Only slang and vulgar words are in this dictionary. There are also phraseological dictionary compiled by Кунин. He gives phraseological combinations, unities and phusions in alphabetic order. At the end of this dictionary we can see an article, where Кунин

gives his own point of view on phraseological expressions. He gives intimate categories between phraseological combinations and unities. He also gives examples of intimate categories between phraseological unities and phrases. He gives such examples of intimate category as: it's raining cats and dogs, to talk through one's hat (бессмыслица). In this article he says, that there are 3 principal types of idiom classification: 1) grammatical, etymological, semantical or lexical. He gives examples of adjective phrases: (mad as March hare (не в своем уме)); adverbial phrases (on the alert (на страже)); verb phrases (to show the white feather (струсить)); noun phrases (blue-devils (уныние)).

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## **ПЕРЕЧЕНЬ КЛЮЧЕВЫХ СЛОВ**

1. Антонимия
2. Аффикс
3. Аффиксация
4. Денотативное значение
5. Денотация
6. Дериват
7. Деэтимологизация
8. Заимствования
9. Исконные слова
10. Конверсия
11. Коннотативное значение
12. Коннотация
13. Контекст
14. Лексема
15. Лексикография
16. Лексикология
17. Лексическое значение
18. Морфологическая структура
19. Омонимия
20. Паронимия
21. Полисемия
22. Реверсия
23. Семасиология
24. Синонимия
25. Словарные гнезда
26. Словарь
27. Словообразование
28. Словослияние



29. Словосложение
30. Сокращения
31. Фразеологизм
32. Фразеологическая единица
33. Эвфемизм
34. Энантосемия
35. Этимология