

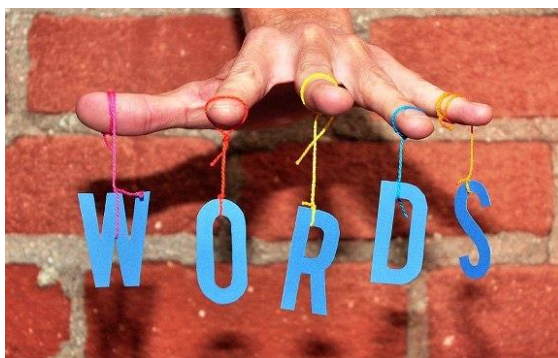
МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ  
ФГАОУ ВПО «КАЗАНСКИЙ (ПРИВОЛЖСКИЙ) ФЕДЕРАЛЬНЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ»

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ИНСТИТУТ МЕЖДУНАРОДНЫХ ОТНОШЕНИЙ, ИСТОРИИ И ВОСТОКОВЕЛЕНИЯ  
ОТДЕЛЕНИЕ ПЕРЕВОДОВЕДЕНИЯ И ВСЕМИРНОГОКУЛЬТУРНОГО НАСЛЕДИЯ  
КАФЕДРА ТЕОРИИ И ПРАКТИКИ ПЕРЕВОДА

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**ЭЛЕКТРОННЫЙ КОНСПЕКТ ЛЕКЦИЙ**



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Данный электронный конспект лекций предназначен для организации лекционных и практических занятий, а также самостоятельной работы студентов по освоению курса «Лексикология». При составлении конспекта были учтены требования к содержанию дисциплины «Лексикология» для студентов лингвистических, а также смежных специальностей (например, Филологическое образование (Профиль: Иностранный язык) Педагогическое образование (Иностранный язык и второй иностранный язык)). Конспект включает оглавление курса лекций, список вопросов каждой темы согласно оглавлению, список терминов и определений для каждой темы, краткое содержание лекции по всем вопросам каждой темы, а также список литературы и сетевых источников по проблеме. ЭКЛ предназначен для преподавателей английского языка и студентов, обучающихся на филологических факультетах университетов и институтов. Он может быть также использован учителями английского языка и всеми, изучающими английский язык самостоятельно.

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**Аннотация:** Содержание данного курса раскрывает этимологические особенности английского словарного фонда, общие и частные проблемы словарного состава английского языка, общие закономерности словообразования, развитие и функционирование языкового значения. В данном курсе наряду с лекционным материалом и заданиями для практических и семинарских занятий, студентам предлагаются разнообразные материалы для самостоятельной работы по изучаемым темам.

**Темы:** 1. Lexicology as a Linguistic Discipline. 2. Lexicography. 3. Ways of Enriching Vocabulary. Word-building. 4. Word-building. Conversion. 5. Word-building. Derivation. 6. Word-building. Composition. 7. Word-building. Shortening. 8. Secondary Eays of Word-building. 9. Phraseological Unit. 10. Classification of Phraseological Units. 11. Priverbs and Sayings. 12. Ways of Forming Phraseological Units. 13. Semasiology. The Problem of Word-meaning. 14. Semasiology. Types of Meaning.

**Ключевые слова:** английский язык, лексикология, лексическая единица, словообразование.

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## Лекция 1.

### LEXICOLOGY AS A LINGUISTIC DISCIPLINE

#### Список вопросов

1. **Lexicology as a Science.**
  - 1.1. **General Lexicology.**
  - 1.2. **Special Lexicology.**
  - 1.3. **Contrastive Lexicology.**
  - 1.4. **Historical Lexicology.**
  - 1.5. **Descriptive Lexicology.**
2. **The Connection between Lexicology and Other Branches of Science.**
  - 2.1. **Lexicology and Non-linguistic Disciplines.**
  - 2.2. **Lexicology and Linguistic Disciplines.**

#### Список терминов и определений

1. **Lexicology** is one of linguistic sciences, which studies the vocabulary of the language and the properties of words (and their combinations) as the main units of the language.
2. **Vocabulary** is a system formed by the sum total of all the words and word equivalents. It is an adaptive system adjusting itself to the changing requirements and conditions of human communication and cultural surrounding.
3. **Word** is the basic unit of a given language resulting from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment.

#### Содержание лекции

##### 1. **Lexicology as a Science.**

Lexicology is one of linguistic sciences. As we know, linguistics is the study of languages. In linguistic courses (Introduction into Linguistics, General Linguistics, etc.) you have studied and will have studied various aspects of the problem and know that the number of definitions of the phenomenon of 'language' suggested by different scholars is great. We shall not discuss this again but let us recall at least two approaches to the understanding of 'language' that seem to be most important.

'Language' is a system, which is very close in its nature to any mathematical system although, as we see now, it is more complicated than any known mathematical system (this understanding is met in works of many linguists: L. von Bertalaffy, N. Bourbaki, E.S. Cassirer, L. Hjelmsler, N.S. Trubetskoy, O. Jespersen, B.A. Serebrennikov, A.A. Reformatski and others). 'Language' is a

system of signs (oral and written) having the function of communication. The word 'system' is understood not merely as the sum total of elements but it is a set of elements associated and functioning together according to certain laws. The signs (words, word-combinations and phrases) and rules of their usage vary in different languages.

There exists another approach to the understanding of 'language' that exposes another most important aspect of it. According to this approach 'Language' is defined as the reality of thought. There were many discussions of the part played by 'language' in mental processes. According to research in psychology, 'language' plays a very important part in this. From the point of view of the eminent psychologist L.S. Vigotski, people think on the basis of condensed and generalized linguistic and visual images. This shows the paramount importance of the language in the process of thinking.

Languages can be studied in various ways. *General linguistics* studies different and common sides of all languages. *Particular linguistics* studies different sides of particular languages. Linguistics divides the language into parts: sounds, words and their parts – morphemes, word-combinations, phrases, texts, grammatical forms and functions, etc. and studies them separately. The main three components in any language are the grammatical system, the vocabulary and the system of sounds.

Lexicology exists in different forms.

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

**1.2. Special Lexicology** investigates characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of the given language.

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

**1.4. Historical Lexicology** or **Etymology** studies the evolution of the vocabulary and its elements: origin, change, development, linguistic and extralinguistic factors modifying their structure, meaning and usage. It has a lot of work to do, as the vocabulary is never stable: words continuously drop out and come into usage.

**1.5. Descriptive Lexicology** deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development.

## **2. The Connection between Lexicology and Other Branches of Science.**

Lexicology is closely connected with the following branches of science:

### **2.1. Lexicology and Non-linguistic Disciplines.**



**Psychology.** There exists a branch of linguistics, **psycholinguistics**, which studies mental processes through the language, mostly through the vocabulary used by this or that person. But in the process of study, it investigates the language phenomena deeper.

**Social history.** The vocabulary of a language is never stable. It undergoes numerous changes because of both *linguistic factors* (processes of word-building, of change and development of meaning, etc.) and *extralinguistic factors* (new objects and phenomena of life demand new names). Most of all, and in the quickest way, the vocabulary reacts when something new appears in life (for instance, new terms appear: *computer, car, sputnik*). Thus, lexicology is not only a purely linguistic science, but it is a **sociolinguistic science** at the same time.

**Philosophy.** Although lexicology is a new science, many lexicological problems were studied long ago in works by ancient Greek philosophers. Aristotle and Plato studied the relationship of the name and the thing which is one of the key questions in gnostic theories and in the struggle of materialistic and idealistic, religious trends of philosophy. i.e. which was at the beginning of everything: matter or the word, information.

## **2.2. Lexicology and Linguistic Disciplines.**

Lexicology studies only one side of linguistic units. The other sides are studied by other linguistic disciplines. But as the linguistic unit exists as a whole, all its sides are connected with the other sides and they influence each other. So, the linguistic sciences studying different sides of linguistic signs are necessarily connected.

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

**Terminology.** It studies different sides of terms and lexicology gives methods and the scientific apparatus for that. In fact terminology now is a part of lexicology, just like lexicography.

**Phonetics.** It studies the sounding of the language, which is inevitably connected with the lexical meaning: meaning changes if you change the sounding of a word: *smell, small, smile;*

*thick, sick, kick, lick, pick;*

*'export –ex'port.*

**Stylistics.** It studies vocabulary, but from a different point of view:

*farewell (poet.), good-bye (neutral), bye-bye (coll.), so long (coll.), ta-ta (low coll.).* All these words are synonyms, but they are stylistic synonyms and stylistics analyses their stylistic peculiarities: we see that the object of studies in lexicology and stylistics is the same, but the investigation takes place from a different point of view.

**Grammar.** As words possess grammatical meaning side by side with lexical meaning, we conclude that **grammar** and lexicology are inevitably closely connected. Sometimes a form that originally expressed some grammatical meaning (e.g. plural of nouns) becomes the basis of a

new lexical meaning: *arms – weapon, colours – banner, works – factory, looks – appearance, customs – import duties or the department that collects import duties, taxes on imported goods.*

In addition, new grammatical forms and new words are sometimes formed on the basis of the same ways of word-building or changing grammatical forms of words:

*foot – feet* (plural);

*food – to feed* (new word, new part of speech);

*teacher, singer* (noun suffixes);

*shorter, longer* (the inflexion showing the comparative degree of adjectives).

**Linguistic engineering.** As for the present, lexicology is connected with developing linguistic engineering, and provides material for computer programmes and machines, taking part not only in lexicological investigation but also in gathering linguistic material for electronic and traditional dictionaries.

So, lexicology does not exist in a vacuum and it is closely connected with many other sciences (both linguistic and non-linguistic) as its object and its problems are studied in different ways by other sciences.

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## Лекция 2.

### LEXICOGRAPHY

#### Список вопросов

1. **British Lexicography.**
2. **American Lexicography.**
3. **Types of Dictionaries**

#### Список терминов и определений

1. **Lexicography** is the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries.
2. **Dictionary** is a collection of words in one or more specific languages, often listed alphabetically (or by radical and stroke for ideographic languages), with usage information, definitions, etymologies, phonetics, pronunciations, and other information; or a book of words in one language with their equivalents in another, also known as a lexicon.
3. **Neologism** is the name for a newly coined term, word, or phrase that may be in the process of entering common use, but has not yet been accepted into mainstream language.
4. **Collocation** is two or more words that often go together.

#### Содержание лекции

##### 1. British Lexicography

The history of dictionary making for the English language goes as far back as the **Old English period** where we can find *glosses of religious books* with translations from Latin (the religious books in England, beginning with the Bible, were written in Latin at that time).

Regular *bilingual English-Latin* dictionaries already existed in the **15<sup>th</sup> century**. Later, *English-French* and *English-German* dictionaries appeared.

The first *unilingual* English dictionary explaining difficult words with English equivalents, occurring in books, appeared in **1604**. The author of the dictionary was a schoolmaster, Robert Cawdrey.

In **1721**, an English writer and scientist, *Nathanael Bailey*, published the first *etymological dictionary* explaining the origin of English words.

In **1775** an English scientist and writer of some books *Dr. Samuel Johnson* published a famous *explanatory* dictionary of the English language. It made an epoch in the history of English lexicography and was republished many times. Johnson's influence on the English language and its style was of great importance. It made it possible to preserve the English spelling conservative. Its aim was to normalize the vocabulary.

In **1858**, one of the members of the English philological society *Dr. Trench* raised the question of compiling such a dictionary, which would include all the words existing in the English language, irrespective of their style. The first volume was published in 1884, the last one – in 1928. A supplement appeared in 1933. The dictionary was called "A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles" (NED) and consisted of twelve volumes. About one thousand people took part in collecting the material for it. In 1933, it was republished under the title "The Oxford English Dictionary" and consisted of thirteen volumes.

Many versions of this dictionary exist: "The Shorter Oxford Dictionary" (2 volumes), "The Concise Oxford Dictionary" (1 volume: it contains only modern words and no examples), a still shorter form is "The Pocket Oxford Dictionary", etc.

NED is the source of scientific material used by scholars, writers, students, and people loving the language and interested in it. The word-article in the dictionary includes detailed information about the word: transcription, part of speech it belongs to, pronunciation in all variants, if it is a term, a dialect word, an archaic word or a neologism, the history of the development of the word is given, all its meanings are enumerated and every meaning is illustrated by many examples from English literature in etymological order (in total, there are two million examples), then word combinations with the word are given, its synonyms, antonyms to it, etc.

## **2. American Lexicography**

American lexicography began to develop later, due to well-known historical reasons.

The name of the first American dictionary writer which appeared in **1798** was also *Samuel Johnson*. The dictionary was short and was made for schools.

The most famous American dictionary was written by an active American statesman and public man *Noah Webster*. It is due to him that the American spelling is a little different from the British spelling. He introduced the new American spelling into his famous dictionary.

In **1828** a two-volume Webster's dictionary called "The American Dictionary of the English Language" containing 70 000 word-articles was published. In its modern edition it has almost nothing in common with the first edition. It now contains 600 000 word-articles.

As for Russia, some of the most valuable and reliable dictionaries are: "English-Russian Dictionary" by Prof. Muller (1 volume); "English-Russian Dictionary" by Prof. I.R Galperin (2 volumes and a supplement –1 volume); "English-Russian Dictionary" by Prof. J.D. Apresyan (3 volumes); "Russian-English Dictionary" by Prof. A.I. Smimitsky; "Russian-English Dictionary" by R.C. Daghish; a two-volume English-Russian Phraseological Dictionary by Prof. A.V. Koonin and others.

### 3. Types of Dictionaries

All dictionaries are divided into: **Encyclopaedic** (thing-books) and **Linguistic** (word-books).

#### Linguistic Dictionaries:

##### A general

general (give information of wide range,

e.g. *Webster's, NED*)

##### A1 explanatory

(e.g. *Thesaurus of (translation) English Words and Phrases* by Peter Mark Roget. 1852: *There are 30 editions, much material was added by the author's son and grandson*).

##### A2 parallel (translation)

##### B specialized

##### B1 synonyms

##### B2 neologisms

##### B3 phraseological

##### B4 collocations

##### B5 word-frequency

##### B6 antonyms

##### B7 slang

##### B8 pronouncing etc.

All types of dictionaries may be *monolingual (unilingual)* or *bilingual*. *Multilingual (polyglot)* dictionaries are not numerous. The main function of a polyglot dictionary is comparing synonyms and terms.

Linguistic dictionaries are referred to either as *diachronic* (Oxford Dictionary) or *synchronic*, descriptive (A.S. Hornby, *The Advanced Learners' Dictionary of Current English*). But quite few dictionaries are purely diachronic or synchronic.

Nowadays, machines are used to gather and classify the material for dictionaries. Most new dictionaries are compiled with the help of machines, but they are not yet perfect and need correction before publishing. One of such dictionaries is "A Dictionary of Word Frequency in

French" (1971). There appeared a lot of electronic versions of dictionaries, but to say if this or that electronic dictionary is reliable enough, we are to study it and to learn who the author is, if he or she is a serious and trustworthy researcher.

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### Лекция 3

### WAYS OF ENRICHING VOCABULARY. WORD-BUILDING.

#### Список вопросов

#### 1. The New Lexical Units Appearance.

- 1.1. **Word-Building.**
2. **Morpheme.**
3. **Structural Types of English Words.**
  - 3.1. **Simple (Root) Words.**
  - 3.2. **Derived Words.**
  - 3.3. **Compound Words.**
  - 3.4. **Compound-derived Words.**

#### **Список терминов и определений**

1. **The morpheme** is the smallest sense unit in the language.
2. **The stem** is the part of the word to which the latest affix is added.
3. **A compound** is a lexeme (less precisely, a word) that consists of more than one stem.
4. **A derived word** is a new word in a language formed from preexisting words by using active models of word-formation and composition.

#### **Содержание лекции**

##### **1. The New Lexical Units Appearance**

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

The vocabulary of Modern English is very rich – more than 600 000 words while in Old English there were about 30 000 words (the numbers are approximate, the lexical units cannot be counted exactly).

The new lexical units appear in the language in the following ways:

- ✓ by means of **word-building**,
- ✓ by means of **changing the meaning of words**,
- ✓ by means of **forming phraseological units**,
- ✓ by means of **borrowing new words from other languages**.

##### **1.1. Word-Building**

In English there exist four main ways and seven secondary ways of word-building. The four main ways are:

- ✓ **conversion**,
- ✓ **derivation**,
- ✓ **composition**,
- ✓ **shortening**.

The seven secondary ways of word-building in English are:

- ✓ **sound interchange,**
- ✓ **stress interchange,**
- ✓ **sound imitation,**
- ✓ **reduplication,**
- ✓ **blending** (contamination),
- ✓ **back formation,**
- ✓ **redistribution.**

## 2. Morpheme

Each word consists of morphemes. It is not an independent sense unit as a word or a sentence are, it is always used as a part of a word. There exist four types of morphemes.

The **root** expresses the lexical meaning of a word.

**Affixes** modify the meaning of the root. Affixes are divided into *prefixes* and *suffixes*. Prefixes stand before the stem, suffixes stand after the stem.

**Prefixes** modify the lexical meaning of the root (e.g. *just- unjust*).

**Suffixes** form a new part of speech: e.g. **beauty** n. – *beautiful* adj. Forming a new part of speech is the main function of suffixes.

**Inflexions** build new grammatical forms of the same word: *pen – pens* (singular/plural).

Building new grammatical forms is the main function of inflexions.

The **stem** is the part of the word to which the latest affix is added: e.g. *active = act (root/stem) + -ive (suffix)*, *activity = activ (stem) + -ity (suffix)*.

Stems have part of speech characteristics, i.e. they belong to parts of speech, e.g. *active – act (verb stem)*, *beautiful – beauti (noun stem)*. Stems can be bound and free. The bound stem cannot be used as an independent word in the language (e.g. *Irish = Ir (stem) + -ish (suffix)*), the free stem can be used as an independent word in the language (e.g. *childish = child (stem) + -ish (suffix)*).

## 3. Structural Types of English Words

There are four structural types of words in English.

**3.1. Simple (root) words** consist of a root, which is a stem at the same time:

*to do, desk, lamp, to try.*

We should draw attention to the fact that the difference between the root and the stem is not just structural. The root is understood as a stable part of the word, the stem is understood as the part of the word to which word-building elements are added to build this or that word. i.e. it is understood as the working mechanism of production of new words. There can be formal, structural coincidence of the root and the stem, but mostly they do not coincide.



**3.2. Derived words** consist of a stem and one or more affixes:

*active* = *act* (stem) + *-ive* (suffix), *activity* = *activ* (stem) + *-ity* (suffix).

**3.3. Compound words** include two or more stems in their structure:

*blackboard* = *black* (stem) + *board* (stem),

*penny-in-the-slot* = *penny* (stem) + *in* (stem) + *the* (stem) + *slot* (stem).

**3.4. Compound-derived words** consist of two or more stems and one or more affixes:

*light-minded* = *light* (stem) + *mind* (stem) + *ed* (suffix).

Sometimes the coincidence of the structural type of the word and the structural type of the stem can be noticed but it does not often happen:

to *act* – **simple (root) word / simple (root) stem**,

but: *active* – **derived word / simple (root) stem**,

*activity* – **derived word / derived stem**.

Adding an affix to the root changes the structural type of the word:

*beauty* – simple (root),

*beautiful* (suffix)-derived,

but: *pen* – simple,

*pens* (inflection) – simple.

By adding an affix, a new word is built, the structure of which can be different, but in adding an inflection, just the grammatical form of the same word itself is changed.

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#### Лекция 4.

### WORD-BUILDING. CONVERSION.

#### Список вопросов

1. **Introduction.**
2. **The Historical Development of Conversion.**
3. **The Problem of the First Component in ‘Stone Wall’.**
4. **Semantic Relations in Conversion.**

#### Список терминов и определений

1. **Conversion** is a way of word-building through changes of paradigm and function of the word.
2. **The ‘Stone Wall’ problem** is: “Is the ‘stone wall’ a compound or a word combination. The answer depends on how the first component is treated. If it is understood as a noun stem then it is a compound. If the first component is an adjective it’s a word combination. The generally accepted point of view is that ‘stone wall’ is a specific type of compound, so called unstable compound.
3. **Semantic relation** is a relation between meanings.
4. **Substantivization** is the result of 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).

## Содержание лекции

### 1. Introduction

The appearance of conversion in the English language is connected with some facts of the history of the English language.

Let us write down the following sentences, and analyse them:

1. I took a *taxi*. They *taxied* to the station.
2. They ran *in* and *out*. He knows the *ins* and *outs* of our town.
3. He went home *then*. The *then* world will be mad, they say.
4. Two *noes* make a *yes*. I will take *no no* for an answer.
5. She *mothered* Betty to a point of hysteria.
6. We *tea* at four.
7. There's a constant struggle between the *haves* and the *havenots*.
8. *But* me no *buts* and *if* me no *ifs*.

Pay attention to the words in italics, and answer the following questions:

1. What is the part of speech to which the word belongs? Why?
2. What is its function in the sentence?
3. How should we translate the word?
4. What is peculiar about the pointed out words?
5. How can it happen that a word of one part of speech can be used in the function of another part of speech?
6. What serves as the word-building means in this connection?

In all the given sentences you saw converted words.

The first scientific definition of conversion was given still in the 1950's by Prof. A.I. Smirnitsky. It was morphological.

The only word-building means in conversion, according to Prof. Smirnitsky is paradigm, e.g.: *taxi* – *to taxi*, *water* – *to water*.

The difference in them is in the fact that they have different paradigms due to their belonging to different parts of speech: n *taxi* (sing), *taxis* (pl) – v *to taxi*, *taxies*, *taxied*, *will taxi* etc.

The modern definition of conversion combines the morphological definition and the change of function. As function in the language, or in the speech, is the problem of syntax, so the modern definition is morphologo-syntactical.

### 2. The Historical Development of Conversion

The causes that made conversion, this specific English way of word-building, appear, and become widespread are to be approached diachronically.

After the Scandinavian conquest, due to the fact that the conquerors and the conquered were people of the same origin, same cultural level, customs and traditions and their languages were

akin, Scandinavians and Englishmen could easily communicate. The fact that the languages were akin made communication much easier for them: the roots as it happens to languages of the same origin were mostly alike and differences were in affixes and inflexions. While communicating the English and Scandinavians stressed the parts of words that were alike and neglected those which differed, so as we know in Middle English there began a 'levelling' of endings, one of the reasons of which was the Scandinavian conquest.

Old English *lufian* (v), *lufu* (n) –Modern English *love* (n, v),

More rarely it is the prefix that was dropped: Old English *zemynd* –Modern English *mind*.

Words borrowed from other languages underwent the same process, for example, French borrowings: Old French *eschequier* (v), *eshec* (n) –Modern English *check* (n, v),

Nowadays, new pairs of converted words are built on the analogy with those already in the word-stock: *to phone*, *to wire*, *to can* etc.

Prof. Yartseva considers it necessary to distinguish between homonymous word-pairs which appeared as a result of the loss of endings (she calls them cases of historical homonymy) and those formed on the analogy with those in the word-stock (she calls them cases of conversion proper). Prof. Smirnitsky is of the opinion that on a synchronic level there is no difference in correlation between such cases. He and Otto Jespersen consider that both cases should be united and called 'conversion' because their word-building foundation is the same. For practical purposes it is simpler and more convenient to use one and the same term for both cases.

### **3. The Problem of the First Component in 'Stone Wall'**

In the theory of conversion, there exists the problem if the first component in word combinations of the 'stone wall' type (*speech sound*, *rose garden*, *cannon ball*, *log cabin*, *price rise*, etc.) is a noun in the function of an attribute or a converted adjective from a noun. In the latter case it would mean that conversion of nouns into adjectives is possible in English.

There are two points of view. Otto Jespersen and some other linguists consider that 'stone' is a converted adjective.

Prof. Yartseva, Prof. Ilyish, Prof. Zhigadlo and the English linguist Henry Sweet consider that 'stone' is a noun in the function of an attribute. They say that 'stone' is characteristic of English as it is poor in morphological forms.

The problem is not solved yet.

### **4. Semantic Relations in Conversion**

As one of the two words in the converted pair is semantically derived from the other we should determine the semantic relations between those words.

1. *Verbs converted from nouns (denominal verbs)*. This is the largest group of converted words. The lexical meaning of the verb converted from a noun can point out the instrument, the agent, the place, the cause, the result and the time of the action.

Verbs converted from nouns denoting some part of a human body have instrumental meaning: *e.g. to eye (to watch), to finger (to touch with a finger), to elbow (to push one's way with elbows), to toe (to touch with a toe)*.

The same instrumental meaning can be observed in verbs formed from nouns denoting tools, machines, and weapons: *e.g. to hammer, to knife, to machine-gun, to wheel, to pump, to saw, to spur*.

Sometimes the noun from which the verb is formed names the agent of the action: *e.g. to crowd, to flock, to ape, to dog, to monkey, to wolf (down)*.

Very often such verbs have metaphorical meanings.

With nouns denoting places, buildings, containers the meaning of the converted verb will denote the action performed at (the place expressed by the noun stem from which the verb originated: *e.g. to bottle, to can, to corner, to floor, to garage, to park, to pocket*.

With nouns denoting time the meaning of the converted verb will denote an action performed at the time expressed by the noun stem from which it originated: *e.g. to honeymoon, to weekend, to winter*.

R.S. Ginsburg, in summing up the findings of the linguists who have done research in this field, enumerates the following typical semantic relations in denominal verbs converted from nouns:

1) action characteristic of the object,

*e.g. ape n. – ape v. – imitate in a foolish way;*

2) instrumental use of the object,

*e.g. whip n. – whip v. – strike with a whip;*

3) acquisition or addition of the object.

*e.g. fish n. – fish v. – catch or try to catch fish;*

4) deprivation of the object,

*e.g. dust n. – dust v. – remove dust from something.*

So, as we see, summing up R.S. Ginsburg points out some semantic relations we did not speak about and does not point out some of the above-mentioned ones. So, points of view of linguists differ in this.'

2. *Nouns converted from verbs (deverbal substantives)*. Such nouns can have the following meanings:

1) process, feeling, action: *e.g. hiss, hunt, knock, whisper, sleep;*

2) the result of the action expressed by the verb stem: *e.g. burn, cut, offer;*

- 3) the place where the action expressed by the verb stem occurs: *e.g. drive, stand*;
- 4) the doer of the action expressed by the verb stem (usually with the derogatory meaning): *e.g. bore, cheat, flirt, scold, tease*.

From the point of view of R.S. Ginsburg, the verb generally referring to an action, the converted noun, may denote:

- 1) instance of the action,

*e.g. jump v. – jump n. – sudden spring from the ground*;

- 2) agent of the action,

*e.g. help v. – help n. – a person who helps*;

- 3) place of the action,

*e.g. walk v. – walk n. – a place for walking*;

- 4) object or result of the action,

*e.g. peel v. – peel n. – the outer skin of fruit or potatoes taken off*;

*find v. – find n. – something found, especially something valuable or pleasant*.

In the case of polysemantic words one and the same member of a conversion pair belongs to several of the above-mentioned groups, *e.g. dust v. – can belong to group 4 of denominal verbs and to group 3 of denominal verbs: deprivation of the object and acquisition, addition of the object*.

From the point of view of some linguists (see the previous paragraph on 'Stone Wall Problem' in this lecture) there not only exists conversion of verbs and nouns, but of other parts of speech, too. We share their opinion. Such linguists consider that *verbs can be also converted from adjectives*. In such cases they denote the change of a state:

*e.g. to clean, to warm, to empty, to idle, to tame, to loose, to tidy, to total*.

Care should be taken not to mix up cases of conversion with cases of *substantivization of adjectives*.

Some scientists (Otto Jespersen, Kruisinga and others) consider substantivization of adjectives to be cases of conversion. This is not correct from the point of view of some of our scholars (Arnold, Vinokurov, Ivanov and others), because substantivization of adjectives is characteristic of many languages, Russian included, where the morphological system is very rich. And conversion is characteristic of English where the system of morphological forms is poor. Substantivization of adjectives is not the result of changing the paradigm, it is the result of the slow process of changing the syntactical functions of a word.

In cases of substantivization of adjectives, we primarily have word combinations of an adjective with a noun, where the adjective is much stronger semantically because the noun expresses some general notion (*e.g. a native man, a captive man, a conservative man*). Later on, the noun is

dropped as it is less important semantically, and the attribute is now used in the function and with the meaning of the whole combination:

*e.g. a native man – a native, a captive man – a captive, a conservative man – a conservative, a criminal man – a criminal, a dear man – a dear, an equal man – an equal, a female being – a female, a grown-up person – a grown-up, an intellectual person – an intellectual, a male being – a male, a private soldier – a private, a general officer – a general.*

A group of substantivized adjectives is only used with the definite article and denotes a class, a group of people or nationality. Having the meaning of the plural, they are used without the -s inflexion, but the verb used with them has the plural form:

e.g. the rich, the poor, the dead, the English, the French, etc. But if a single person is meant other words are used, not substantivized adjectives:

e.g. an Englishman, a Spaniard, a blind man, etc.

The problem of correlation of substantivization and conversion is a complicated one and demands further investigation.

As for the semantic relations in converted pairs of words belonging to other parts of speech, this problem is connected with different points of view on the 'stone wall' problem and has not yet been properly investigated and, therefore, requires further research.

The role of conversion in English word-building is extremely significant and cannot be overestimated. Conversion is highly productive in modern English.

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## Лекция 5.

### WORD-BUILDING. DERIVATION.

#### Список вопросов

#### 1. Introduction.

#### 2. Suffixes.

##### 2.1. Noun Suffixes.

##### 2.2. Adjective Suffixes.

##### 2.3. Adverb Suffixes.

##### 2.4. Verb Suffixes.

##### 2.5. Numeral Suffixes.

#### 3. Prefixes.

##### 3.1. Classification of Prefixes According to the Part of Speech in Which They Are Used.

###### 3.1.1. Verb Prefixes.

###### 3.1.2. Adjective Prefixes.

###### 3.1.3. Noun Prefixes.

##### 3.2. Classification of Prefixes According to Their Meaning.

#### Список терминов и определений

**1. Derivation** is affixation, i.e. adding an affix to the stem of a definite part of speech.

**2. Suffix** is an affix which is placed after the stem of a word. Common examples are case endings, which indicate the grammatical case of nouns or adjectives, and verb endings, which form the conjugation of verbs.

**3. Prefix** is an affix which is placed before the stem of a word. Adding it to the beginning of one word changes it into another word. For example, when the prefix un- is added to the word happy it creates the word unhappy.



## Содержание лекции

### 1. Introduction

Derivation is one of the most productive ways of word-building in English. All affixes are divided into prefixes and suffixes. Prefixes stand before roots and suffixes stand after roots. But prefixes and suffixes are not only different in their positions in a word, but also in their main functions.

### 2. Suffixes

The main function of the suffix is to form one part of speech from another (*to work – worker, beauty – beautiful*). There are some suffixes, however which are exceptions, i.e. they can change the lexical meaning of a word without forming another part of speech, e.g. **-ish**: if it is added to adjective stems it forms adjectives – *green, greenish*; **-ie**: it is added to noun stems and forms nouns with a diminutive meaning – *horse – horsie*.

Suffixes can be classified according to the part of speech that they form, according to their origin, according to their productivity and frequency of usage.

#### 2.1. Noun Suffixes

- 1) -er – Germanic origin, forms nouns from verb stems, denotes the agent – *worker, teacher*; nouns from noun stems or adjective stems of place, denotes 'resident of, one living in' – *Londoner, islander*;
- 2) -ing – Germanic origin, forms nouns from verb stems, denotes a process, act, fact, doing, feeling, resulting, accompanying – *reading, learning, feeling, covering*;
- 3) -ness – Germanic origin, forms nouns from adjective or verb stems, denotes state, condition, quality or degree – *goodness, darkness, forgiveness*;
- 4) -ist – Greek origin, forms nouns from nouns, denotes a person who belongs to some profession, occupation, to some trend in politics, art etc. – *violinist, socialist*;
- 5) -ism – Greek origin, forms nouns from nouns or adjectives, denotes teachings, trends in politics, art, systems in social life – *socialism, capitalism, modernism*;
- 6) -ess – Romanic origin, forms nouns from noun stems, denotes a feminine being – *actress, goddess, lioness*;
- 7) -ment – Romanic origin, forms nouns from verb stems, denotes some action, process – *development*.

#### 2.2. Adjective Suffixes

- 1) -ish – Germanic origin, forms adjectives from adjective stems, adds the meaning of approaching the quality expressed by the stem – *reddish*.

It can also form an adjective from a noun stem, means 'looking like the person expressed by the stem' (depreciatory colouring) – childish, womanish. It can also be met in some words denoting nationality – *Irish*;

2) -ful – Germanic origin, forms adjectives from noun stems, denotes 'full of, abounding in' – *thankful, hopeful, harmful*;

3) -less – Germanic origin, forms adjectives from noun stems, denotes 'without, not having, devoid of the quality expressed by the noun stem from which it is formed' – *aimless*;

4) -ed – Germanic origin, forms adjectives from noun stems, denotes 'possessing the quality expressed by the noun stem from which it is formed' – *bearded, gifted*;

Most often it is used to form compound-derived adjectives – *long-legged*;

5) -able (-ible) – Romanic origin, forms adjectives from verb stems, denotes 'capable of doing the action expressed by the stem' – *eatable, movable*;

It can also form adjectives from noun stems, then it denotes 'characterized by the quality expressed by the stem' – *comfortable, honourable, fashionable*.

### 2.3. Adverb Suffixes

1) -ly– Germanic origin, forms adverbs from adjective stems, denotes the manner of the action – *carefully*. Some scientists (A.I. Smirnitsky is one of them) consider that in this case we deal not with an adverb but with an adjective used in the function of an adverb because these words have the same grammatical forms as adjectives, i.e. they form degrees of comparison in the same manner as other adjectives: *quick – quicker – the quickest, quickly – quicker – quickest*.

2) -ward– Germanic origin, forms adverbs from noun or preposition stems, denotes direction: *skyward, inward*.

### 2.4. Verb Suffixes

1) -ize – Greek origin, forms verbs from noun or adjective stems – *generalize, materialize*;

2) -ate – Romanic origin, forms verbs from adjective stems – *differentiate*;

3) -fy (-ify) – Romanic origin, forms verbs from noun or adjective stems – *simplify, beautify*;

4) -en – Germanic origin, forms noun or adjective stems – *lengthen, madden*.

### 2.5. Numeral Suffixes

1) -ty – Germanic origin, forms numerals from numeral stems – *ninety*;

2) -teen – Germanic origin, forms numerals from numeral stems – *sixteen*.

### 3. Prefixes

Prefixes in English cannot build grammatical forms as in Russian (for example, the Russian aspect of verbs – *делать – сделать*). In English prefixes change the lexical meaning of the root without changing the part of speech. This is their main function. But there are some prefixes in English that are exceptions: *be-*; *en-* (*em-*); *pre-*, *post-*, *inter-*, *anti-*.

There exist 2 classifications of prefixes:

- 1) according to the part of speech in which they are met, used;
- 2) according to the meaning of a prefix.

The meaning of the prefix is not so completely fused with the meaning of the primary stem, as in the case with suffixes, the prefix retains a certain degree of semantic independence. It allows to classify them according to their meaning.

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In a very ancient prelanguage, primitive language prefixes and suffixes were independent words added to other words and later, they lost, to a bigger or smaller degree, their independence and their lexical meaning, and became some formal parts of words with a certain grammatical function. But it so happened that up to now, prefixes retained their semantic independence and their lexical meaning to a greater degree than suffixes.

### **3.1. Classification of Prefixes According to the Part of Speech in Which They Are Used**

**3.1.1. Verb Prefixes:** *out-*: to outnumber; *over-*: to overcrowd; *under-*: to underestimate; *mis-*: to misinform; *un-*: to unpack; *dis-*: to disagree; *re-*: to rewrite.

**3.1.2. Adjective Prefixes:** *in-* (*il-*, *ir-*, *im-*): inactive, illiterate, impossible; *non-*: non-effective; *dis-*: dishonest; *extra-*: extraordinary; *un-*: unhappy.

**3.1.3. Noun Prefixes:** *non-*: nonsense; *ex-*: ex-champion; *dis-*: disagreement; *mis-*: misunderstanding.

### **3.2. Classification of Prefixes According to Their Meaning**

1) negative, reverse, opposite meaning: *un-*: to undo; *non-*: non-acceptance; *in-* (*im-*, *il-*, *ir-*): immoral, impatient; *dis-*: dishonesty;

2) relationship in time, place, degree: *ex-*, *pre-*, *post-*, *inter-*: ex-president, prehistoric; *inter-*: international; *over-*, *under-*, *out-*, *extra-*, *super-*: to outwit, to underfeed.

Prefixes are more semantically independent in English than suffixes and that allows to classify them according to their meaning.

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## Лекция 6.

### WORD-BUILDING. COMPOSITION.

#### Список вопросов

1. Word Groups vs Compound Words.
2. Classification of Compound Words.
  - 2.1. Neutral Type of Compounds.
    - 2.1.1. Compound Nouns of Neutral Type.
    - 2.1.2. Compound Adjectives of Neutral Type.
    - 2.1.3. Compound Verbs of Neutral Type.
    - 2.1.4. Compound Adverbs of Neutral Type.
    - 2.1.5. Compound Pronouns of Neutral Type.

## 2.2. Morphological Type of Compounds.

## 2.3. Syntactical Type of Compounds.

### Список терминов и определений

1. **Compound words** are words formed by adding stems to each other.
2. **Neutral compounds** are formed by joining together two stems without any joining morpheme. Such compounds are the most productive in English.
3. In **morphological compounds** stems are joined by means of a vowel or a consonant.
4. In **syntactical compounds** there are stems of form words: conjunctions, prepositions, articles, particles, etc. In these compounds, whole phrases can be lexicalized.
5. **Compound-derived words** are built with the help of two ways of word-building: composition and derivation.
6. **Compound-shortened words** are formed with the help of two ways of word-building: composition and shortening.

### Содержание лекции

#### 1. Word Groups vs Compound Words

Compound words are formed by adding stems to each other. It is not easy to differentiate word-groups from compound words in English due to its poor morphology. In any language the following factors may serve as a help in discerning compound words and word-groups:

- 1) the unity of stress in compound words, e.g. *'blackboard*;
- 2) the unity of spelling in compound words, e.g. *blackboard, skyscraper, silver-fox*;
- 3) the semantic unity (idiomaticity, i.e. the whole meaning of the compound word is not simply a sum of meanings of its components but it is different), e.g. *chatter-box*;
- 4) the morphological unity, i.e. compound words have morphological forms proper to words (e.g. one plural ending at the end of the word, not at the end of each component), e.g. *a chatter-box, chatter-boxes*;
- 5) the unity of syntactical functioning, i.e. a compound word fulfills the function of one member of the sentence (while in word-groups each word has its own syntactical function), e.g. *These girls are chatter-boxes*. 'Chatter-boxes' is a predicative in the sentence.

English compounds possess two characteristic structural features:

- 1) the majority of them are formed with the help of free stems: e.g. *anyway, silverfox*.
- 2) the pattern which is most often used in English compounds is a two-stem pattern: e.g. *chatter-box, seaport*.

In English we can see many exceptions.

1. The unity of stress in compounds, but: e.g. *'singing-'bird* – певчая птица.

That is a compound noun, but it has two primary stresses as if it were a word-group. So, the criterion of the unity of stress is not always reliable in English.

2. The unity of spelling, but:

e.g. *quicksilver... quick-silver...*

quick silver – (all the variants of spelling are possible). So, the criterion of the unity of spelling is not always reliable in English.

3. The semantic unity, but:

e.g. *air-mail, spaceman, seaman, airship*. All these compounds are not idiomatic, i.e. the meaning of the whole is a sum of the meanings of the components, and so the whole meaning is motivated, not idiomatic. Thus, the criterion of the semantic unity is not always reliable in English.

4. The morphological unity is not a criterion in English, because both in compounds and in word-groups, morphological forms do not differ:

e.g. *stone wall, stone walls* – a word-group,

*singing-bird, singing-birds* – a compound.

## **2. Classification of Compound Words**

According to their structure English compounds can be divided into three main and two subordinate types.

The main types are:

- 1) neutral compounds,
- 2) morphological compounds,
- 3) syntactical compounds.

### **2.1. Neutral Type of Compounds**

Such compounds are the most productive in English. They are divided into structural types and subtypes according to the part of speech and the meaning that is expressed.

#### **2.1.1. Compound Nouns of Neutral Type:**

- 1) N + N structural type;
- 2) G + N type;
- 3) N + G type;
- 4) Adj + N type;
- 5) N + V type;
- 6) V + N type;
- 7) PN + N type;

8) Adv + V type;

9) V + Adv type.

### **2.1.2. Compound Adjectives of Neutral Type:**

1) Adj + Adj type;

2) N + Adj type;

3) N + P type;

4) Adv + P type;

5) P + Adv type;

6) Num + N type.

### **2.1.3. Compound Verbs of Neutral Type:**

1) N + V type;

2) Adv + V type;

3) N + N type;

4) Adj + N type;

5) Adj + V type.

### **2.1.4. Compound Adverbs of Neutral Type:**

1) N + Adj type;

2) Adv + N type;

3) P + N type.

### **2.1.5. Compound Pronouns of Neutral Type:**

1) pronoun-pronoun type: e.g. anyone.

## **2.2. Morphological Type of Compounds**

In English morphological compounds the joining vowels are 'o' and 'i', the joining consonant is 's'. The first component in such compounds is mostly a bound stem, e.g.: Anglo-Saxon, electro-motor, sportsman, kinsman, heartsease, boatsman, huntsman, handicraft, crowsfeet.

## **2.3. Syntactical Type of Compounds**

This type of compounds is peculiarly English, but in modern English, this type of compounds is not lined very often. E.g.: hook-and-ladder, man-of-war, mother-in-law, cat-of-nine-tails, touch-me-not, hide-and-seeK, penny-in-the-slot, forget-me-not. There are syntactical compound adjectives that are included into dictionaries. But there exist English syntactical compound adjectives, which are built in the process of speech.

There are, besides the three big classes of compounds, two subordinate groups: compound-derived and compound-shortened words.

*Compound-derived words* are built with the help of two ways of word-building: composition and derivation, i.e. such words have two (or more) stems which is characteristic of compound words

and they also have suffixes which is characteristic of derived words, e.g.: *first-nighter, honeymooner, teenager, go-getter, long-legged, absentminded, light-minded, two-seater, weekender.*

For this type of compounds suffixes -er, -ness for nouns and -ed for adjectives are characteristic. *Compound-shortened words* are formed with the help of two ways of word-building: composition and shortening, i.e. such words have two or more stems, which is characteristic of compound words and besides, they are also contracted, which is characteristic of shortenings, e.g.: *a.a.gun (anti-aircraft gun), g. man (government man), h. bag (hand bag).*

### Список сокращений

N – noun.

G – gerund.

Adj – adjective.

V – verb.

PN – pronoun.

Adv – adverb.

P – participle.

Num – numeral.

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## Лекция 7.

### WORD-BUILDING. SHORTENING.

#### Список вопросов

1. **Introduction.**
2. **Lexical shortenings.**
3. **Spelling shortenings.**

#### Список терминов и определений

1. **Shortening** is the process and the result of forming a word out of the initial elements (letters, morphemes) of a word combination.
2. **Aphaeresis** (аферезис) is the clipping of the first part of the word.
3. **Syncope** (синкопа) is the clipping of the middle of the word, i.e. it is shortening by dropping a letter or an unstressed syllable in the middle of the word.
4. **Apocope** (апокопа) is the shortening by dropping the last letter or syllable.

#### Краткое содержание лекции

##### 1. Introduction

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

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

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

English than their long prototypes. Shortenings have been recorded since 15<sup>th</sup> century and shortening is more and more productive now.

All shortenings can be divided into two large groups: *lexical* and *spelling shortenings*.

## 2. Lexical shortenings

They are divided into *clipped words* and *initial shortenings*.

In clipped words a part of the word is clipped, cut off.

*Clipped words* are divided into four groups:

1) *aphaeresis*, e.g.: *history* – **story**, *defence* – **fence**, *between* – **tween**;

2) *syncope*, e.g.: *market* – **mart**, *spectacles* – **specs**, *mathematics* – **maths**.

Syncope is common in poetry, e.g. e'er, n'er. Rhythm dictates the necessity of syncope here.

3) *apocope*, e.g.: *permanent wave* – **perm**, *photograph* – **photo**, *zoological garden* – **zoo**;

4) *the combination of aphaeresis with apocope*, e.g.: *influenza* – **flu**, *avant-garde* – **van**, **vanguard**, *refrigerator* – **fridge**.

The second group of lexical shortenings is called *initial shortenings*. They are formed when a word-combination is shortened and only initial letters of each word are taken. The rules of reading such initial shortenings are the following:

1) In *some* cases we have alphabetical pronunciation of each letter in the shortening, e.g.: *T.U.C.* (Trade-Unions Congress), *BBC* (British Broadcasting Corporation).

2) In other cases, we pronounce initial shortenings as if they were separate words, e.g.: *NATO* [‘neitou] (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), *UNESCO* [ju’neskou] (United Nations Economic Scientific and Cultural Organization).

What way of reading initial shortenings is to be used is traditional. We should simply memorize the way of reading this or that shortening.

Sometimes we have *compound shortened words*, e.g.: *H-bomb* (hydrogen bomb), *VJ Day* (Victory over Japan Day).

In some cases suffixes or prefixes are added, e.g.: *ex-POW* (prisoner of war).

All the above-mentioned peculiarities of spelling, pronunciation and word-building mark the fact that lexical shortenings are taken for separate words.

## 3. Spelling shortenings

Spelling shortenings are different: they are not taken for new words and are shortened only in spelling, not in pronunciation. They are pronounced as whole English words even if they are of a foreign origin.

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

There are two large groups of spelling shortenings in modern English:

1. *Those borrowed from Latin.* In such cases in the spelling we have initial letters of Latin words but we pronounce the full forms of the corresponding English words, e.g.: *a.m.* (*ante meridian*) – in the morning, *cf.* (*confere*) – compare, *i.e.* (*id est*) – that is, *e.g.* (*exempli gratia*) – for example. As for 'a.m.. p.m.' we may sometimes read them in a shortened way (Latin letters are pronounced) due to the latest trend; 'etc.' can be pronounced in Latin in official speech (previously 'and so on' was usual).

2. *Native spelling shortenings.*

There are some semantic groups of native spelling shortenings:

- a) forms of address;
- b) units of weight, time, distance, electricity;
- c) military ranks, scientific degrees, etc.;
- d) names of offices.

Spelling shortenings have different principles of their structure. When a shortened word appears in the language the full form may:

- 1) disappear, e.g.: *avanguard* – *vanguard*, *van*,
- 2) remain but have a different meaning with the shortened form, e.g.: *courtesy* – *curtsy*;
- 3) remain but belong to another part of speech, e.g.: *to estrange* v. – *strange* adj.;
- 4) remain and belong to some other style, e.g.: *doc* – *doctor*, *mike* – *microphone*.

In most cases the shortened form belongs to the colloquial style and the full form to the neutral style. But there are some cases when the shortened form belongs to the neutral style and the full form is archaic and belongs to the bookish style.

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## Лекция 8.

### SECONDARY WAYS OF WORD-BUILDING

#### Список вопросов

1. **Sound Interchange.**
2. **Stress Interchange**
3. **Reduplication.**
4. **Sound Imitation.**
5. **Blending (Contamination).**
6. **Back Formation.**
7. **Redistribution.**

#### Список терминов и определений

1. **Sound interchange** is a phonetic phenomenon used to build different words and word forms through the changes of the sound form of roots.
2. **Morphological stress** is a stress, which differentiates parts of speech.
3. **Reduplication** is the way of word-building when new words are formed by repeating one and the same syllable or a whole stem.
4. **Sound imitation** is the naming of an action or a thing by a more or less exact reproduction of a sound associated with it.

5. **Blends** (portmanteau words, telescopic words) are formed by means of merging parts of words, i.e. clipped words, into one new simple, not compound, word.

6. **Back formation** denotes the derivation of new words by subtracting a real or supposed affix from existing words through misunderstanding their structure.

## Содержание лекции

### 1. Sound Interchange

It is one of the oldest ways of word-building and is met in all Indo-European languages. This way of word-building is non-productive in Modern English. Sound interchange may be only regarded as a way of forming words diachronically, and nowadays it has turned into a means of distinguishing between words of different parts of speech (e.g. *to sing* – *song*) or between different word-forms (e.g. *man* – *men*).

*Sound interchange (gradation)* is divided into three types:

- 1) change of root vowels;
- 2) change of root consonants;
- 3) change of root vowels and root consonants.

Sound interchange may be combined with affixation (e.g. *strong* – *strength*) or with affixation and the shift of stress (e.g. 'democrat – de'mocracy).

Sound interchange may be combined with affixation (e.g. *strong* – *strength*) or with affixation and the shift of stress (e.g. 'democrat – de'mocracy).

All cases of sound interchange can only be explained historically (diachronically) as no new words are formed in this way now. The causes of sound interchange are different. In some cases it is the result of *ancient ablaut or vowel gradation*, which cannot be explained by the phonetic laws of the language during the historical period of its development known to scientists through written works. It is prehistoric from the point of view of Germanic languages and is met in the same words in all languages belonging to the Germanic group, e.g.:

to strike – stroke, to sing – song.

It may also be *ancient umlaut or vowel mutation*, which is the result of the position of the vowel in the word and is connected with palatalizing vowels, e.g.:

hot – heat (OE 'hotian'), blood – bleed (OE 'blodian').

So, in verbs in Old English there was the sound [i] in the suffix of the verb and thus the root vowel was palatalized in verbs under the influence of this sound (regressive assimilation).

In many cases we have vowel and consonant in change: in nouns we have voiceless consonants, in verbs – the corresponding voiced consonants. It is explained by the fact that in verbs the

consonant was in the intervocal position in Old English and in nouns it stood at the end of the word. Modern spelling and pronunciation help to see this, e.g.:

bath – to bathe, life – to live, breath – to breathe, loss – to lose.

## **2. Stress Interchange**

In many cases we have *stress interchange* in different parts of speech in modern English.

Nouns and verbs differing by the position of the stress are of Romanic origin, they came into English from or through French. In this case the nouns have a stress on the first syllable and the verbs on the second syllable, e.g.: '*accent* – to *ac'cent*, '*conduct* – to *con'duct*.

This principle is observed in English very strictly (although not always, e.g. 'comment n – to 'comment v) and is explained in the following way: French verbs and nouns with the same root had a different structure at the time they were borrowed into English. That is during the Middle English period nouns had two syllables in their structure and verbs had three syllables. When these words were assimilated in English the stress in them was shifted from the last syllable, which is typical of French, to the last but one syllable, which was typical of Middle English. Fixed stress existed in English then. In the nouns where there were two syllables, the stress was on the first syllable and in the verbs where there were three syllables the stress was on the middle syllable. Later on the final syllable in verbs was dropped as it happened to native verbs as well when there was levelling of endings, and the stress in verbs remained on the last syllable (the former middle syllable).

As a result we can find many pairs of verbs and nouns of Romanic origin differing by the position of their stress.

As a result of stress interchange we have vowel interchange as well because English vowels in stressed and unstressed positions are pronounced in a different way, e.g.:

'present – to pre'sent.

Stress distinction is, however, neither productive nor regular.

## **3. Reduplication**

Reduplication in most cases is combined with sound interchange. Reduplication is often combined with alliteration and rhyme and also with sound imitation. In most cases words formed by reduplication belong to the colloquial style (only a few of such words belong to the neutral style, e.g. '*murmur*', '*ping-pong*').

When reduplication is used without sound interchange we have cases of perfect (v complete) reduplication. In most cases reduplication is partial.

Reduplication is not productive. It is used mainly in speaking with small children and especially in children's stories.

## **4. Sound Imitation**

There are some semantic groups of words formed by means of sound imitation:

- 1) sounds produced by human beings;
- 2) sounds produced by animals, birds, insects, etc.;
- 3) sounds produced by nature (trees, water, wind, etc.);

As a matter of fact, the problem of sound imitation is connected with the major concern of linguistics and one of the most important problems of philosophy, i.e. how human language appeared. There are a great deal of theories and hypotheses explaining the origin of the human language.

### **5. Blending (Contamination)**

It was Lewis Carroll, the author of the well-known book 'Alice in Wonderland' who called them 'portmanteau words', as two meanings in such words are "packed in a portmanteau."

One of the first blends that appeared in English was 'smog' which is the combination of two clipped nouns: 'smoke' and 'fog'.

Blends can be formed in the following ways:

- 1) the beginning of the first word and the whole second word are joined;
- 2) the whole first word and the end of the second word are joined;
- 3) the whole first word and the whole second word, partially overlapping each other;
- 4) the beginning of the first word and the end of the second word are joined;
- 5) the word (or its part) is put inside another word;

Blending is mostly used in popular speech. This way of word-building is new in English but quite productive: a lot of neologisms of this kind appear in the language.

### **6. Back Formation**

The process is based on analogy. Prof. Yartseva explains this mistake by the influence of the whole system of the language on separate words, e.g.: it is characteristic of English to form nouns denoting the doer of the action from verb stems by means of the suffix -er (speak – speaker). So when the French noun 'beggart' was borrowed (a wandering monk) the final syllable 'ar' was easily associated in the minds of Englishmen with the suffix -er because it was pronounced in the same way. So the corresponding verb was formed from the noun by dropping the final syllable. In this way the verb 'to beg' appeared in English. This way of word-building is opposite to 'derivation'. Therefore it is called 'back-formation'.

The same way of word-building is used in other languages, e.g. a Dutch word 'zondek' was borrowed into Russian in the form of 'зонтик', 'ик' was understood as a diminutive suffix, so the word 'зонт' appeared in Russian.

In the second quarter of the 20<sup>th</sup> century a new type of backformation appeared in English: compound verbs are formed from compound nouns and from word combinations.

Backformation is connected with misunderstanding structure of words.

## **7. Redistribution**

This way of word-building is used very seldom. It is the result of a mistake in understanding the structure too. In this case the border between the indefinite article and the noun is misunderstood. Secondary ways are really secondary because they are mostly not productive.

Those are the secondary ways of word-building in modern English. Secondary ways are really secondary because they are mostly not productive. Yet if we compare the secondary ways of word-building we can see that some of them are used more often than others (e.g. 'blending' is used rather often and 'redistribution' is used very seldom).

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## Лекция 9.

### PHRASEOLOGICAL UNIT

#### Список вопросов

1. **Word Combinations in the Language.**

2. **Phraseology.**

#### Список терминов и определений

1. **Free word-combinations** are word-groups that have a greater semantic and structural independence and freely composed by the speaker in his speech according to his purpose.

2. In **semi-fixed combinations**, for example, the pattern consisting of the verb *go* followed by a preposition and a noun with no article before it (*go to school, go to market, go to courts*, etc.) has clear-cut boundaries for substitution, that is the verb *go* is used only with nouns of places where definite actions or functions are performed.

3. A **phraseological unit** is a word group with a fixed lexical composition and grammatical structure; its meaning, which is familiar to native speakers of the given language, is generally figurative and cannot be derived from the meanings of the phraseological unit's component parts. The meanings of phraseological units are the result of the given language's historical development.

4. An **idiom** (Latin: *idioma*, "special property", f. Greek: *ἰδίωμα* – *idiōma*, "special feature, special phrasing", f. Greek: *ἴδιος* – *idios*, "one's own") is a combination of words that has a figurative meaning owing to its common usage. An idiom's figurative meaning is separate from the literal meaning. There are thousands of idioms and they occur frequently in all languages. There are estimated to be at least twenty-five thousand idiomatic expressions in the English language

#### Содержание лекции

##### 1. **Word Combinations in the Language**

The vocabulary of the language is greatly enriched due to the fact that we can build phraseological units on the basis of existing words and word combinations. There are three groups of word combinations in the language: free word-combinations, semi-fixed word combinations and phraseological units.

A *free word combination* or a *free phrase* permits substitution of any of its elements without any semantic change in the other components.

In *semi-fixed combinations* there exist restrictions upon the types of words that can be used in this or that semi-fixed word combination in a given pattern. The change of the pattern leads to some semantic change in the combination, e.g. the pattern consisting of the verb followed by a preposition and a noun with no article before it: *to go to school, to go to market*, etc.

If substitution is only pronominal or restricted to a few synonyms for one of the members, or impossible, i.e. if the elements of a phrase or a combination are always the same or almost the same the word-group is a *phraseological unit* (a *set expression, a phraseologism*). The phraseological unit has its own whole meaning, which can be *idiomatic* or partly idiomatic, or sometimes direct.

The analysis of different phraseological units shows that in some of them substitution of elements is quite impossible and, in this case, if the meaning of the whole word-group is idiomatic, we deal with so-called *idioms*.

## **2. Phraseology**

Phraseological units are studied by a branch of lexicology called phraseology.

English and American linguists treat phraseological units as a problem of applied linguistics, and they have concentrated their efforts on compiling dictionaries of idiomatic phrases. Their object in doing so is chiefly practical: they furnish anyone with a guide to colloquial phrases. Dictionaries of this kind include among their entries not only word combinations, but also separate words interesting from the point of view of their etymology, motivation or expressiveness, and on the other hand, they also include greetings, nursery rhymes, etc. The English and the Americans can be proud of a very rich set of dictionaries of word-groups belonging to this type, but the most essential theoretical problems remain not only unsolved but untackled, except for short notes in works on general linguistics. Among these we can go back to W.L. Graff for a serious linguistic analysis of the difference between a set expression (a phraseological unit) and a free syntactical combination of elements in his book 'Language and Languages'.

Eminent Russian linguists, Academicians F.F. Fortunatov, A.A. Shakhmatov, and others, paved the way for a serious syntactical analysis of set expressions. Such great linguists as Potebnya and Dahl did much in investigating set expressions. Later, in Soviet times, many linguists showed a great interest in the theoretical aspects of the problem and a special branch of linguistics called 'phraseology' appeared in Russia. The most significant theories advanced for Russian phraseology are those by V.V. Vinogradov and B.A. Larin.

As for the English language, the number of works devoted to phraseology is so great that it is impossible to enumerate them. Suffice it to say that there exists a comprehensive dictionary of English phraseological units by Prof. A.V. Koonin. ("Англо-русский фразеологический словарь»), accompanied by articles on the theory of this part of the vocabulary, his books on English phraseology, the doctoral thesis by N N. Amosova and a number of theses for candidate degrees.

So we can conclude that phraseology is widely studied. Evidently it is connected with the fact that phraseological units are a very interesting object of linguistic investigation.

Phraseological units have common features both with words and with word combinations. If we compare phraseological units with words, we shall see that both a word and a phraseological unit express one single notion (we are not speaking now about proverbs and sayings which are a part of phraseology, although they are not just word-combinations but whole phrases, sentences), e.g. 'to die' and 'to kick the bucket' or 'to cross the Great divide'.

Both a word and a phraseological unit exist in the language as ready-made units and are not formed in the process of speech.

Both a word and a phraseological unit (word combination) act in a sentence as one part of it, e.g. he took to his heels (predicate).

However there is a *difference* between a word and a phraseological unit: in a word the notion is expressed by one lexeme and in a phraseological unit it is expressed by several.

If we compare a phraseological unit with a free syntactical combination, we shall see that the difference between them is as follows: a phraseological unit is a unit of the language and it is included into our speech as a ready-made unit, while a free syntactical combination is formed in the process of speech; a phraseological unit acts as a single part of the sentence, while a free syntactical combination has not less than two functions in the sentence, each notional word in a free syntactical combination has a separate syntactical function in the sentence (e.g. The first night (subject) was appointed for the 1st of October. The first (attribute) performance (subject) of the play took place on the 1st of October.)

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## Лекция 10.

### CLASSIFICATIONS OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

#### Список вопросов

1. **The Classification Based on the Semantic Principle.**
2. **The Classification Based on the Structural Principle.**
3. **The Classification Worked out by Prof. I.V. Arnold.**
4. **The Classification suggested by Prof. B.A. Larin.**
5. **The Classification by Prof. A.V. Koonin.**

#### Список терминов и определений

1. **Swiss scientist Ch. Bally** is considered to be the founder, or father of phraseology. He was the first to notice that language includes not only words and sentences, but also rather peculiar units, i.e. phraseological units.

2. In **phraseological fusions**, the degree of motivation is very low and we cannot guess the meaning of a fusion from the meanings of its components.
3. In **phraseological unities** the meaning of the whole can be guessed from the metaphorical meaning of the unity.
4. In **phraseological collocations** words are motivated (one component is used in its direct meaning and the other is used metaphorically).

### **Содержание лекции**

Swiss scientist Ch. Bally is considered to be the founder, or father of phraseology. He was the first to notice that language includes not only words and sentences, but also rather peculiar units, i.e. phraseological units.

#### **1. The Classification Based on the Semantic Principle**

Ch. Bally suggested the first classification of phraseological units based on the semantic principle. Later on that classification (in the 1930's) was worked out for the Russian language by Academician V.V. Vinogradov.

According to that principle, Vinogradov pointed out three main groups of phraseological units:

phraseological fusions – фразеологические сращения,

phraseological unities – фразеологические единства,

phraseological collocations – фразеологические сочетания.

In **phraseological fusions**, the degree of motivation is very low and we cannot guess the meaning of a fusion from the meanings of its components. Fusions are idiomatic, they are national, and cannot be translated word for word from one language into another, e.g.:

to pay through the nose, part and parcel, a fishy story, a baker's dozen, spick and span, a mare's nest, at sixes and sevens, etc. (cf. in Russian 'точить лясы', 'у черта на куличках', etc.)

The meaning of these examples is not clear from the meanings of the whole component parts. So these word combinations are non-motivated, i.e. idiomatic and do not let the substitution of components at all.

The second group – **phraseological unities**– is much larger than the first. In phraseological unities the meaning of the whole can be guessed from the metaphorical meaning of the unity. Phraseological unities have homonyms among free syntactical combinations, e.g.: to skate on thin ice, as busy as a bee, to kiss the rod, old salt, to play the first fiddle, etc.

The third group – **phraseological collocations** – is still larger. In phraseological collocations words are motivated (one component is used in its direct meaning and the other is used metaphorically). Most often verb-noun phraseological collocations are used in English, e.g.: to take a liking (fancy), to meet requirements (the necessity, the demand), to draw a conclusion, to lend assistance, to pay attention, to take the floor, etc.

As we can see some of them allow substitution of their components with synonyms.

Phraseological collocations are most important for speaking a foreign language correctly: although the combinations of words are quite clear and are almost the same, they are different in different languages. So in teaching we should pay a special attention to this group as we can expect mistakes from foreign speakers firstly in phraseological collocations.

The classification by V.V. Vinogradov is the foundation of all further phraseological classifications and studies of phraseology, it is the first serious scientific classification, and it is quite logical and clear. As for its weak points we can find some as in all scientific theories, especially when they treat some problem for the first time:

- 1) it is based on the Russian material and trying to apply it to English or any other language one must be aware of this;
- 2) the subdivisions of phraseological units are not always clear-cut as there are cases when a phraseologism is difficult to attribute to any definite group;
- 3) not all the features of phraseological units are taken into consideration in this classification.

But Vinogradov's classification and his articles on Russian phraseology had an immense influence upon linguists in this country and abroad. The classification was the first serious and scientific phraseological one worked out in detail.

## **2. The Classification Based on the Structural Principle**

The second classification of phraseological units we shall discuss is the classification by Prof. A.I. Smirnitsky. The classification is based on the structural principle and was worked out for the English language in particular.

Prof. Smirnitsky called phraseological units 'word-equivalents' and classified them according to their structure. He subdivided them into the following groups:

**one-top units** that are compared with derived words; **two-top units** that are compared with compound words.

In one-top units we have one semantic centre that corresponds to the root in derived words. In two-top units we have two semantic centres that correspond to the roots in a compound word.

1. Among one-top units Smirnitsky points out three structural types:

- 1) Verb-adverb units of the type "to give up".

Polysemy and homonymy are characteristic features of these units. E.g. to give in, to bring up, to give up, etc.

The adverb in these units is a subordinate component both in semantics and in grammar. It is not changed in any way and it does not serve for the connection with other words in the sentence.

2) Phraseological units of the type "to be tired".

One should not mix up these units with passive constructions. In the Passive Voice we can only use the prepositions 'by' or 'with'. With these phraseological units we use different prepositions.

E.g. to be tired of, to be surprised at, to be interested in, etc.

There are also such phraseological units in this group that cannot be mixed up with the Passive Voice constructions. E.g. to be afraid of, to be aware of, etc.

Such units can be mixed up with free syntactical combinations of the type 'to be young'. The difference between them is that the adjective 'young' in the free syntactical combination can be used both in the function of an attribute and of a predicative, while the second component in the units of 'to be tired' type cannot be used attributively.

In these one-top units the verb is the grammar centre of the unit and the second component is the semantic centre of the unit: E.g. I am tired, he is tired, I was tired, we were tired, etc.

3) Preposition-noun phraseological units:

E.g. by heart, in time, for good, in the course of, etc.

These phraseological units are equivalents of adverbs, conjunctions and prepositions and are not changed grammatically, i.e. they have no grammar centre.

The noun component in these units does not change in number and usually has no article before it. In the course of time, such units may become words. Such is the case with the word 'instead' where the compound word is not stable yet. It is spelled together when it stands before a noun, a gerund or some other notional word. When it is used with possessive pronouns it is spelled as a phraseological unit.

E.g. Instead of going there we stayed at home.

He went there in my stead.

2. Among two-top units Prof. Smirnitsky points out:

1) Attributive-nominal phraseological units.

E.g. maiden attempt, first night, brown bread, etc. This type of phraseological units is often met in Indo-European languages (cf. in Russian: зеленая молодежь). Phraseological units of this type are noun equivalents and can be partly or perfectly idiomatic.

In partly idiomatic phraseological units in some cases the first component is idiomatic and the second one is used in its primary meaning (e.g. high road).

In other cases the first component is used in its primary meaning and the second one is idiomatic (e.g. first night, where the word 'night' is used in the meaning of 'performance').

In perfectly idiomatic units both components are idiomatic (e.g. blind alley, red tape, blue blood, etc.)

2) verb-noun phraseological units.

E.g. to steal a ride, to kiss the rod. to catch cold, etc. These phraseological units are different in their structure some of them have prepositions before the second component and others have none, in some of them we have the indefinite or the definite article and in others we have the zero article.

The grammar centre in these units is the verb: (e.g. he take the floor, he took the floor).

The semantic centre is usually the second component. So, e.g. in the units 'to catch cold', 'to fall in love' the idea is expressed by the second component.

The units can be perfectly idiomatic. In such cases they have no semantic centre (e.g. to play hockey, to kick the bucket, to burn inn boats, to bury the hatchet, etc.)

Very close to these phraseological units of the verb-noun type are such combinations as 'to have a smoke', 'to have a glance', etc. But they are not idiomatic at all. So we have in this case a special syntactical combination that is considered by some scientists as a kind of aspect in modern English.

3) Phraseological repetitions.

E.g. now or never, part and parcel, up and down.

In some cases phraseological repetitions are built on antonyms (e.g. back and forth, now or never). In other cases we have alliteration (e.g. part and parcel, betwixt und between.)

Such phraseological units are equivalents of adverbs, therefore they are not changed grammatically and have no grammar centre.

However, in addition to those two big groups pointed out by Prof. Smirnitsky (i.e. one-top and two-top phraseological units) there exists a much smaller group of phraseological units which have **more than two centres**, the same as compound words of syntactical type (e.g. a peg to hang a thing on, every other day, every now and then).

The classification by Prof. Smirnitsky is interesting, it was based on a new principle for that time: the structural principle. But not all types of phraseological units described by Prof. Smirnitsky are referred to phraseology by other scientists (e.g. one-top units, some repetitions, etc.)

### **3. The Classification Worked out by Prof. I.V. Arnold**



The third classification is also structural. A set expression functioning in speech is equivalent in distribution to definite classes of words or to complete sentences. Therefore I.V. Arnold differentiates set expressions into:

- 1) nominal phrases;
- 2) verbal phrases;
- 3) adjectival phrases;
- 4) adverbial phrases;
- 5) prepositional phrases;
- 6) conjunctive phrases;
- 7) interjectional phrases.

The classification takes into consideration not only the type of component parts but also **the functioning of the whole**.

Within each class a further subdivision is given.

#### **4. The Classification suggested by Prof. B.A. Larin**

This classification of phraseological units we are going to discuss is based on their origin, on the way of their formation, i.e. on the **etymological principle**. The phraseological unit originates as *a free combination*. The second stage is a *metaphorical phrase*. The third stage is that of an idiom with lost motivation.

Idioms are very interesting from the point of view of their origin. The origin of some of them can be understood if we know a whole legend or a story.

#### **5. The Classification by Prof. A.V. Koonin**

It is very interesting and complete. He tried to take into consideration all aspects of phraseological units in his classification: their structure, function semantic peculiarities, the level of stability, although the main attention was paid to **semantic and structural aspects**. It is a very large and detailed classification called 'structural-semantic' by A.V. Koonin.

All phraseological units are divided by A.V. Koonin into four large structural classes:

- 1) nominative phraseological units,
- 2) nominative-communicative phraseological units,
- 3) interjectional and modal phraseological units,
- 4) communicative phraseological units.

Each class is divided into subclasses and they are mostly divided into yet further groups and subgroups.

This classification enriches the treasury of theoretical understanding of phraseology. It allows us to see this complicated linguistic phenomenon from a new point of view, from new sides and to understand it much deeper.

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### Лекция 11.

### PROVERBS AND SAYINGS

#### Список вопросов

1. **Proverbs.**
2. **Sayings**
3. **Familiar quotations**

#### Список терминов и определений

1. A **proverb** is a short familiar saying expressing popular wisdom, a truth or a moral lesson in a concise and imaginative way, e.g. the devil is not so black as he is painted; the best is oftentimes

the enemy of the good; if you cannot have the best, make the best of what you have; true blue will never stain; as the call, so the echo; as a tree falls so shall it lie; a danger foreseen is half avoided; what we do willingly is easy; don't trouble troubles until troubles trouble you; where there is a will there is a way; there is no use crying over spilt milk; too many cooks spoil the broth; a stitch in time saves nine.

2. A **saying** is a sententious remark to the situation: e.g. more haste than speed; the last straw; more praise than pudding; by hook by crook.

3. **Familiar quotations** (крылатые слова и выражения) are different from proverbs and sayings in their origin. They come from literature, they have their authors. By and by, they become a part of the language, so that some people using them do not even know that they are quoting.

## Содержание лекции

### 1. Proverbs.

Proverbs have much in common with other phraseological units because the lexical components of proverbs are also constant, their meaning is traditional and mostly figurative, and they are introduced into speech ready-made. That is why some scholars following V.V. Vinogradov think that proverbs must be studied together with other phraseological units. Others, like J. Casares and N.N. Amosova, think that unless they regularly form parts of other sentences, it is wrong to study them together with other phraseological units.

These days, however, proverbs and sayings are considered by most scholars as a part of phraseology. The reasons are as follows: 1) whether phraseological units are independent sentences or parts of sentences is not important; 2) although in many proverbs the meaning of words does not differ from the meaning of the same words in free word combinations, we consider these proverbs phraseological units form the basis that there are other phraseological units – word-combinations in which the meanings of the components do not differ from the meanings of the same words in free word-combinations, i.e. the meanings are direct, not figurative, not transferred; 3) another reason why proverbs must be taken into consideration together with other phraseological units is that proverbs form the basis of other phraseological units: e.g. the last straw breaks the camel's back – the last straw; a drowning man will clutch at a straw – to clutch at a straw.

As you see, proverbs can be shortened. The shortened forms exist side by side with the full forms and in most cases have the same meaning: e.g. 'the last straw' has the same meaning as in the proverb 'The last straw breaks the camel's back'; the proverb 'Birds of a feather flock together'

can be shortened to 'birds of a feather' which preserves the meaning as it is in the proverb. But there are cases when the shortened form changes its meaning and is different from the meaning in the full form of the proverb: e.g. Every cloud has a silver lining. The shortened form 'silver lining' has the meaning 'a ray of hope'.

The shortened forms of proverbs are referred to sayings.

## 2. Sayings

Sayings can be both word-combinations and sentences. Unfortunately the terms 'proverb' and 'saying' are not defined properly up to day in linguistics, sometimes they are even mixed as in everyday speech. We have taken the approach to the discrimination of 'proverb' and 'saying' from the works by G.L. Permyakov.

## 3. Familiar quotations

Familiar quotations (крылатые слова и выражения) are different from proverbs and sayings in their origin. They come from literature, they have their authors. By and by, they become a part of the language, so that some people using them do not even know that they are quoting.

The Shakespearian quotations have become and remain extremely numerous. They are, as quotations of other authors, a part of the English vocabulary. As for their number they take the first place among familiar quotations in the English language, e.g.: a man more sinned against than sinning ('King Lear'); uneasy lies the head that wears a crown ('Henry IV'); give every man thy ear, but few thy voice ('Hamlet'); brevity is the soul of wit ('Hamlet').

With the exception of Shakespeare, no poet has given more of his lines than Alexander Pope to the common vocabulary of the English-speaking world, e.g.: a little learning is a dangerous thing; at every word a reputation dies; who shall decide when doctors disagree?

In Russian, there is also a rich heritage of familiar quotations from Russian literature. Suffice it to remind some of them: *А судьи кто? Карету мне, карету! Что будет говорить княгиня Марья Алексеевна? Где оскорбленному есть чувству уголок? Счастливые часов не наблюдают. В мои года не должно сметь свое суждение иметь.* (А.С. Грибоедов); *Мошенник на мошеннике сидит и мошенником погоняет* (Н.В. Гоголь); *Мы все учились понемногу чему-нибудь и как-нибудь, так просвещеньем, слава богу, у нас не мудрено блеснуть* (А.С. Пушкин); *Может, тебе и ключ от квартиры, где деньги лежат? Я старый, меня девушки не любят. Почем опиум для народа? Лед тронулся, господа присяжные заседатели! Мне моя жизнь дорога как память.* (И. Ильф и Е. Петров) and many, many others.

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## Лекция 12.

### WAYS OF FORMING PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

#### Список вопросов

1. **The Primary Ways of Forming Phraseological Units.**
2. **The Secondary Ways of Forming Phraseological Units**

#### Список терминов и определений

1. **Lexical meaning** is the meaning of a word in relation to the physical world or to abstract concepts, without reference to any sentence in which the word may occur.

**2. Metonymy** is a figure of speech in which a thing or concept is called not by its own name but rather by the name of something associated in meaning with that thing or concept. The words "metonymy" and "metonym" come from the Greek: μετωνυμία, metōnymía, "a change of name", from μετά, metá, "after, beyond" and -ωνυμία, -ōnymía, a suffix used to name figures of speech, from ὄνυμα, ónyma or ὄνομα, ónoma, "name." For instance, "Hollywood" is used as a metonym for the U.S. film industry because of the fame and cultural identity of Hollywood, a district of the city of Los Angeles, California, as the historical center of film studios and film stars. The national capital is often used to represent the government of a country, such as "Westminster" for Parliament of the United Kingdom, "Ottawa" for Parliament of Canada, or "Washington" for United States government.

**3. Litotes** (from Greek litos, "simple, single") it refers to an ironical understatement (e.g. no small amount) or two negatives used to make a positive (e.g. it was not unsuccessful).

**4. Pun** is a form of word play that suggests two or more meanings, by exploiting multiple meanings of words, or of similar-sounding words, for an intended humorous or rhetorical effect. These ambiguities can arise from the intentional use of homophonic, homographic, metonymic, or metaphorical language.

**5. Analogy** (from Greek ἀναλογία, analogía, "proportion") is a cognitive process of transferring information or meaning from a particular subject (the analogue or source) to another particular subject (the target), or a linguistic expression corresponding to such a process.

## Содержание лекции

Prof. A.V. Koonin subdivided the ways of forming phraseological units into two groups:

- 1) primary ways,
- 2) secondary ways.

### 1. The Primary Ways of Forming Phraseological Units

#### 1. *Transforming the meaning of free syntactical combinations.*

This is the main way of forming phraseological units.

There can be a **full transformation** of meaning on the basis of **metaphor** or **metonymy**.

E.g. 'big wig' (metonymy) – 'шишка', 'главарь', 'to burn one's fingers' (metaphor) – 'обжечься на чем-либо'.

In interjections, we always have full transformation of meaning on the basis of **expressiveness**.

E.g. 'My aunt!' – Вот те на! Здравствуйте, я ваша тетя!

Sometimes we have full transformation of meaning on the basis of **distortion** of a word combination.

E.g. 'odds and ends' – from 'odd ends' – остатки, хлам.

Full transformation of meaning can result from the usage of **archaisms** in a phraseological unit.

E.g. 'a good deal' – много – in this phraseological unit the noun 'deal' retains its Old English meaning 'a part' (OE *dal* – часть, доля);

'in a brown study' – in the unit 'brown' retains its archaic meaning 'gloomy', the noun 'study' retains its archaic meaning 'meditation'.

**Partial transformation** of meaning is not used very often. In such cases the meaning of the unit is more or less clear.

E.g. 'a copy-book maxim' – прописная истина.

Sometimes a whole sentence can be transformed into a phraseological unit when it is used in some other sphere of life.

E.g. That cock won't fight – Этот номер не пройдет. (The sentence is used as a free syntactical combination in cock-fighting. But when it is applied to other situations it becomes a phraseological unit because it is used then metaphorically).

## 2. *Transforming set expressions-terms*

E.g. 'to back the wrong horse' – просчитаться – is a phraseological unit, but 'поставить не на ту лошадь' in sport is a free word combination, a term.

## 3. *Transforming the meaning of words:*

a) In some cases we have some **unreal image** in the basis of a phraseological unit.

E.g. 'when the devil is blind' – i.e. 'never', 'like hell' – i.e. 'very quickly';

b) In some cases we have hyperbole or **litotes**. E.g. hyperbole: 'to make a mountain out of a molehill' – делать из мухи слона, сильно преувеличивать, 'to split hairs' – копаться в мелочах.

E.g. litotes: 'a bit of all right' – хоть куда;

c) Sometimes we have a **joke** in the basis of a phraseological unit.

E.g. 'in one's birthday suit' – нагишом;

d) Sometimes phraseological units are based on **traditions, customs, and historical facts**.

E.g. 'to boat the air' – попусту стараться (In the Middle Ages it was a custom to wave one's weapon as a token of victory when the opponent did not come to settle the argument by weapon);

'by hook or by crook' – всеми правдами и неправдами (In old England the owners of pubs used to pull their clients by hooks into their pubs);

'to win one's spurs' – продвинуться по службе (In the Middle Ages knights received spurs);

'wooden horse of Troy' – обман (The expression is taken from 'Eneida' by Virgily. Greeks could not seize Troy and they decided to deceive the Trojans. They made a wooden horse, a very large one, and told the Trojans that it was their offering to Gods to secure their way back home. The

Trojans pulled the horse inside the walls of the town into the main square. But there were soldiers in the horse. At night the soldiers stole out of it. They killed the Trojan guards at the gates, opened the gates of the town for the Greek troops. In this way Troy was seized).

4. *In comparative phraseological units the first component is used in its primary meaning, while the second one is transformed in its meaning on the basis of metaphor.*

E.g. 'as brave as a lion', 'like a hog on ice', 'to drink like a fish', etc.

5. *Phraseological units can be formed by using an expression of some writer in everyday speech.*

In some cases the author himself built these units, in other cases the meaning of his words is transformed later on. In English there are many phraseological units which became widely known. Such phraseological units can be titles of books or chapters.

E.g. 'the path of thunder' – трудный путь.

They can also be combinations of words used in the text. E.g. 'as good as one's word' – верный своему слову, 'one's pound of flesh' – точное количество, причитающееся по закону, 'to out-herod Herod' – переусердствовать, 'to make assurance double sure' – для большей верности, 'marriage of true minds' —счастливая пара.

Many phraseological units came **from the Bible**. E.g. 'to kill the fatted calf' – угостить лучшим, что есть в доме, 'a Judas' kiss' – предательство, 'the apple of discord' – яблоко раздора, 'the tower of Babel' – очень высокое сооружение большое скопление народа.

6. Phraseological units can be formed by using **puns**. Puns in English are usually based on homonyms.

E.g. 'tight as a drum' – drunk ('tight' – пьяный, 'tight' – тугой), 'cross as sticks' very angry ('cross' – сердитый, 'to cross' – перекрещиваться).

6. *Phraseological units can be formed by using puns.* Puns in English are usually based on homonyms.

E.g. 'tight as a drum' – drunk ('tight' – пьяный, 'tight' – тугой).

## **2. The Secondary Ways of Forming Phraseological Units**

They include the formation of phraseological units **on the basis of other phraseological units**:

1. By means of **changing the grammar form**.

E.g. the sentence in the Imperative Mood can be converted into an Infinitive word-combination:  
*Strike the iron while it is hot. – to strike the iron while it is hot.*

2. By means of using **analogy**.

E.g. 'curiosity killed the cat' – 'care killed the cat'.

3. By means of using **contrast**.

E.g. 'to come off the high horse' – перестать важничать – 'to mount a high horse' – заважничать.



Phraseological units can be borrowed from other languages as well. Sometimes as translation loans: E.g. 'to take the bull by the horns'; sometimes without translation: E.g. table d'hote. – общий обеденный стол в пансионатах, ресторанах и т. д.

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### Лекция 13.

### SEMASIOLOGY. THE PROBLEM OF WORD-MEANING.

#### Список вопросов

1. The Development of Semasiology as a Linguistics Discipline.
2. Word-Meaning.
  - 2.1. Referential Approach.

## 2.2. Functional Approach.

### Список терминов и определений

1. **Semasiology** (Gr. 'semasia' – signification) studies the problems of meaning and its changes.
2. **'Semantic field'** is a term that can be understood in both a wide and narrow sense. In the wide understanding, it means the semantic division of reality suggested by this or that language, the 'semantic net' thrown upon the reality, showing the world in its own way. The **'semantic net'** of a language is original, peculiar and each language has its own 'semantic net' that is not reproduced in any minute group in other languages. In the narrow meaning, the term can be used in relation to a class of words, to a group of words or sometimes to a single word. Even in the narrow sense, the 'semantic field' of one language is not equal to the 'semantic field' of another language.
3. **Meaning** is what the source or sender expresses, communicates, or conveys in their message to the observer or receiver, and what the receiver infers from the current context.
4. **Word-meaning** is the accepted meaning of a word.
5. **Concept** is the general idea derived or inferred from specific instances or occurrences.
6. **Referent** is the object or idea to which a word or phrase refers.

### Содержание лекции

#### 1. The Development of Semasiology as a Linguistics Discipline

One way of enriching the vocabulary is semantic changes. Problems of meaning and its changes are studied by **semasiology** (Gr. 'semasia' – signification).

Semasiology is one of the youngest branches of linguistics, although the objects of its study have attracted the attention of philosophers and grammarians since the times of antiquity. A thousand years B.C., Chinese scholars were interested in semantic change. We find the problems of word and notion (concept) relationship discussed in the works by Plato, Aristotle and the famous Indian grammarian Panini, and Duns Scotus, the Scottish philosopher of the 13th century, was interested in the problem of meaning.

For a very long period, the study of meaning formed a part of philosophy, logic, psychology, literary criticism and the history of language, fields in which important contributions to semantic research were made.

Semasiology came into its own only in the 1830's when a German scholar Karl Reisig, lecturing in classical philology, suggested that the studies of meaning should be regarded as an independent branch of knowledge.

It was Michel Breal, a French linguist, who played a decisive part in the creation and development of the new science. His book ('Essai de semantique', Paris, 1897) became widely known and was followed by a considerable number of investigations of meaning in different countries. **M. Breal is the founder of semasiology as it is.**

The treatment of meaning throughout the 19<sup>th</sup> century and in the first decade of the 20<sup>th</sup> century was purely diachronistic, i.e. attention was concentrated on the process of semantic change.

In the 20<sup>th</sup> century the progress of semasiology was uneven. In the 1930's were said to be the most crucial time in its whole history, Jost Trier, a German philologist, offered his theory of 'semantic field' treating semantic phenomena not historically but within a definite language system at a definite period of its development, i.e. synchronically.

'Semantic field' is a term that can be understood in both a wide and narrow sense. In the wide understanding, it means the semantic division of reality suggested by this or that language, the 'semantic net' thrown upon the reality, showing the world in its own way. The 'semantic net' of a language is original, peculiar and each language has its own 'semantic net' that is not reproduced in any minute group in other languages. In the narrow meaning, the term can be used in relation to a class of words, to a group of words or sometimes to a single word. Even in the narrow sense, the 'semantic field' of one language is not equal to the 'semantic field' of another language (cf. 'table' and 'стол' – the semantic field, i.e. the semantic structure of the English word is wider, not equal to that of the Kiiiv.lun word.). The conclusion made on the basis of this theory is as follows: **you think in the way your native language allows you to**, i.e. your view of reality depends on the 'net of reality' suggested by your native language. You cannot leave the "net" of your native language, as your way of thinking was formed in connection with the semantic structure of your native language and it cannot be changed. You are doomed to always think in the way your native language dictates you to and you cannot change the situation. Some scientists went even further to formulate a racist point of view: if you were born in a backward country speaking a primitive language, you are doomed to think in a primitive way, but if you were born in a civilized country speaking a developed language, you will think in a civilized way. The facts show a different situation: foolish and clever people live both in backward and civilized countries, and people can study foreign languages and so can leave the 'net' of their native language and they can absorb and understand new ideas reproduced by a foreign language. This is connected with the fact that humanity has the same notions that are reproduced differently by different languages and if the differences are explained, then the notions, which are common for humanity, are understood. So the racist, nationalist conclusion is not true as the linguistic and psychological approach shows. But the idea of the 'semantic field' is linguistically

true, i.e. every language divides the reality semantically in its own way, although the notions that are reproduced by the semantic structure of words are common for the whole humanity.

The tremendous work on the Oxford dictionary carried out by a group of English researchers, headed by Dr. Trench and Dr. Murray made semasiology a part of English lexicography. These scientists proved that the complete meaning of a word is always contextual, and no study of meaning apart from a context can be taken seriously. Since that time on, the change of meaning was always found by comparing different contexts, beginning with the oldest written records up to modern contexts.

Not so long ago, a new stage was entered. In the light of current ideas, stress is being laid upon synchronistic analysis with the help of structured procedures combined with mathematical statistics and symbolic logic.

It should be pointed out that just as lexicology is beginning to absorb a major part of the effort of linguists, semasiology is coming to the fore as the central problem of linguistic investigation at all levels of language structure, i.e. semasiology studies not only the lexicon, but also morphology, syntax and sentential semantics. Words, however, play such a crucial part in the structure of the language that when we speak of semasiology without any qualification, we usually refer to the study of word-meaning proper. In lexicology at least we are mostly concerned with the word-meaning, although sometimes we investigate the meaning of phraseological units or of parts of words, i.e. suffixes, prefixes, etc.

The stock of meanings in a language reflects the state of the development of the society speaking it.

## **2. Word-Meaning**

What is meaning? At first sight the understanding of this term shows no difficulty. It is widely used, but the scientific definition of 'meaning' has been the issue of numerous discussions. There are **two approaches** to the problem in contemporary linguistics: the referential approach and the functional approach.

### **2.1. Referential Approach**

The main feature of the referential approach is that it distinguishes between the three components closely connected with meaning: **the sound-form, the concept and the actual referent.**

The best known referential model of meaning is the so-called '**basic triangle**' suggested by linguists Ogden and Richards.

The common feature of the referential approach is that the meaning in some way is connected with the referent.

To distinguish meaning from the referent, i.e. from the thing denoted by the linguistic sign, is of the utmost importance. We have to remember that meaning and referent cannot be equated: meaning is linguistic, while the denoted object is beyond the sphere of language.

Ogden and Richards regard meaning as the interrelation of the three points of the triangle within the framework of the given language, i.e. the interrelation of the sound-form, the concept and the referent, but not as an objectively existing part of the linguistic sign. Some linguists proceed from the basic assumption of the objectivity of language and meaning and understand the linguistic sign as a two-facet unit. They consider meaning as a certain reflection in our mind of objects, phenomena or relations that makes part of the linguistic sign – its so-called inner facet, whereas the sound-form functions as its outer facet.

## **2.2. Functional Approach**

The functional approach means that a linguistic study of meaning is only the investigation of the relation of sign to sign

In a simplified way, this point of view may be illustrated as follows: the two words 'look' and 'to look' are different because they function in speech differently, i.e. they occupy different positions in relation to other words. 'To look' can be followed by a noun or a pronoun with a preposition (to look at the picture, to look at him), it can be preceded by a pronoun (we looked at him). The position occupied by the word 'look' is different: it may be preceded by an adjective (a grave look), may be followed by a noun or a pronoun with the preposition (a look of pleasure, there was an ugly look in his eye – he appeared dangerous or threatening, that look of hers).

Hence, 'meaning' in the functional aspect may be defined as the function of distribution (the latter is the position of a linguistic sign in relation to other linguistic signs, the connection of a linguistic sign with other linguistic signs).

It follows that in the functional approach, semantic investigation is confined to the analysis of meaning understood essentially as the function of the use of linguistic units. When comparing the two approaches we see that the functional approach should not be considered an alternative, but rather a valuable complement to the referential theory.

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## Лекция 14.

### SEMASIOLOGY. TYPES OF MEANING.

#### Список вопросов

#### 1. Components of Meaning.

##### 1.1. Lexical Meaning.

##### 1.1.1. Stylistic Reference.

##### 1.2. Lexical Meaning and Sound Form.

##### 1.3. Lexical Meaning and Notion.

#### 2. Terms Used to Denote Different Types of Meanings.

#### Список терминов и определений

1. **Semasiology** (Gr. 'semasia' – signification) studies the problems of meaning and its changes.

**2. Lexical meaning** the word meaning is the interrelation of the sound-form, the notion and the referent and it is the function of distribution of the word (or another linguistic sign) in the language.

**3. The grammatical meaning** is the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words (e.g. the tense meaning in the word-forms of verbs (took, formed, bought) or the case meaning in the word-forms of various nouns (Pete's, nephew's)).

**4. The denotative meaning** is the component of the lexical meaning that makes the communication possible.

**5. The connotative meaning** is the emotive charge and the stylistic value of the word.

**6. The emotive implication of the word** is subjective as it depends on the personal experience of the speaker.

**7. The term 'standard literary colloquial'** denotes the vocabulary used by educated people in the course of ordinary conversation or when writing letters to intimate friends, e.g.: chap, old chap, pal, to pal up with.

**8. Barbarisms** are unassimilated foreign words, for which there are corresponding English equivalents.

**9. Slang words** are words that are often regarded as a violation of the norms of Standard English.

**10. Professionalisms** are words used in narrow groups bound by the same occupation.

**11. Jargon words** are words marked by their use within a particular social group and bearing a secret character.

**12. Vulgarisms** are coarse words that are not generally used in public.

**13. Homonyms** are different words having different meanings but the same sound form.

**14. Notion** is the reflection in the mind of real objects and phenomena in their relations.

## Содержание лекции

### 1. Lexical and Grammatical Components of Meaning

The word-meaning consists of two main meanings: the grammatical meaning and the lexical meaning.

The difference between the lexical and grammatical components of meaning is not to be sought in the difference of the concepts underlying the two types of meaning but in the way they are conveyed, e.g. the concept of 'possessive case' may be expressed by the lexical meaning of the term 'possessive case', and it may also be expressed in the forms of various words irrespective of

their lexical meaning (*master's, girl's, children's*), i.e. here we deal with grammatical meaning of 'possessive case'. So, the difference is in the type of abstraction.

Both the lexical and the grammatical meanings make up the word-meaning as neither can exist without the other.

### **1.1. Lexical Meaning**

It may be analyzed as including **denotative** and **connotative components**.

One of the functions of words is to denote things, concepts and etc. It is the denotative function (from 'to denote'). This function makes communication possible.

Words contain an element of emotive evaluation, i.e. **emotive charge**, as a part of the connotative meaning, e.g. 'a hovel' denotes 'a small house' (it is its denotative meaning) and additionally implies that it is a miserable dwelling place, dirty, in bad repair and in general unpleasant to live in (that is its emotive charge).

The emotive charge as a component of lexical meaning does not depend on the feeling of an individual speaker but is true for all speakers (e.g. 'tremendous' and 'large' – the emotive charge of 'tremendous' is heavier for all speakers of English).

The emotive charge is one of the objective semantic features proper to words as linguistic units and forms a part of the connotative component of meaning. It should not be confused with emotive implications that words may acquire in speech. The emotive implication of the word is subjective as it depends on the personal experience of the speaker, e.g. the word 'school' which is devoid of any emotive element may possess in the case of individual speakers subjective emotive implications (e.g. a pupil who does not like going to school and a pupil who likes it will feel different emotional attitude to the referent and this emotive attitude forms emotive implications when the word is used.) While emotive charge is a part of meaning, emotive implications are not a part of the semantic structure of the word.

#### **1.1.1. Stylistic Reference**

Words differ not only in their emotive charge but also in their stylistic reference. Stylistically words can be roughly subdivided into **literary** and **non-literary layers**.

**Literary bookish words** are divided into three groups:

- 1) terms or scientific words (e.g. *ozone, pacifism*);
- 2) poetic words and archaisms (e.g. *array, billow, thee*);
- 3) barbarisms (*addio, affiche*).

**The non-literary words** may be subdivided into the following groups:

- 1) slang (*money – beans, brass, dibs, dough, chink*);
- 2) professionalisms (*buster*);
- 3) jargon, (to *rap, shiv*);



4) vulgarisms (*shut up, damn, bloody*).

Stylistic reference and emotive charge of words are closely interconnected and to a certain degree interdependent. Mostly, stylistically coloured words, i.e. words belonging to all stylistic layers except the neutral style, are observed to possess a considerable emotive charge.

### **1.2. Lexical Meaning and Sound Form**

Lexical meaning and sound form are not equal: one and the same meaning is reproduced by different sound forms in different languages. But even in the same language the same sound form can have different meanings, e.g. *'temple'* may denote *'висок'* and *'храм'*, the word *'school'* – *'школа'* and *'косяк рыбы'*, etc.

Both the meaning and the sound form can develop independently in the course of time. In English many words changed their sound form almost beyond recognition but retained their lexical meaning, e.g. OE *'lufian'* became *'to love'* in ME.

### **1.3. Lexical Meaning and Notion**

The lexical meaning of a word is the realization of a notion by means of a definite language system. A word and a notion are not identical: a word is a language unit, while a notion is a unit of thinking.

The term *'notion'* was introduced into lexicology from logic. Notions are mostly international, especially for nations with the same level of culture, the same cultural traditions whereas meanings can be nationally limited.

The number of notions does not correspond to the number of words, nor does the number of meanings. Their distribution in relation to words is peculiar in every language. Russian has two separate words for the notions: *'мужчина'* and *'человек'*. In English both notions are expressed by the word *'man'*, however, for the Russian *'Она хороший человек'* we cannot use the word *'man'*, but instead *'She is a good person'*.

Thus, the lexical meaning of a word may be defined as the realization or naming of a notion, emotion or object by means of a definite language system. The development of the lexical meaning is influenced by the whole network of ties and relations between the words in a given vocabulary and between the vocabulary and other aspects of the language.

## **2. Terms Used to Denote Different Types of Meanings**

The meaning is **direct** when it names the object without the help of any context or situation, in isolation, in one-word sentences, e.g. *'Rain'* – a story by S. Maugham (we are not analysing the structure of associations of the word, its implications).

The meaning is **figurative** when the object is named and at the same time characterized, described in a certain context or a situation, e.g.: *'You are a news-hound, Joe'*, he said. *'A newspaper reporter'*, I answered.

When the same word is used attributively in such combinations as: 'a screen star', 'a screen version', etc. with the meaning 'pertaining in the cinema' we have an **abstract** meaning in comparison with the first meaning which is **concrete**.

All these meanings reflect relationships existing between different meanings of a word.

There is also a type of meaning which is not purely lexical, it unites characteristics of lexical and grammatical meanings. It is **part-of-speech meaning**.

There are some other types of meanings which are given in the analysis of the polysemantic structure of words and in the description of types of meaning.

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