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Lecture 1

What is Lexicology?

I. The Subject of Lexicology

The term lexicology is of Greek origin (from lexis – word and logos - science). Lexicology is the part of linguistics which deals with the vocabulary and characteristic features of words and word-groups.

The term word denotes the main lexical unit of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning. This unit is used in grammatical functions characteristic of it. It is the smallest unit of a language which can stand alone as a complete utterance.

The term word-group denotes a group of words which exists in the language as a ready-made unit, has the unity of meaning, the unity of syntactical function, e.g. the word-group as loose as a goose means clumsy and is used in a sentence as a predicative (He is as loose as a goose).

Lexicology can be general and special. General lexicology is the lexicology of any language, part of General Linguistics. It is aimed at establishing language universals – linguistic phenomena and properties common to all languages.

Special lexicology is the lexicology of a particular language (English, German, Russian, etc.).

Lexicology can study the development of the vocabulary, the origin of words and word-groups, their semantic relations and the development of their sound form and meaning. In this case it is called historical lexicology.

Another branch of lexicology is called descriptive and studies the vocabulary at a definite stage of its development.
II. What is a Word?

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

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

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

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

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

The external structure of the word, and also typical word-formation patterns, are studied in the framework of *word-building*.

The internal structure of the word, or its meaning, is nowadays commonly referred to as the word’s semantic structure. This is the word’s main aspect.

The area of lexicology specialising in the semantic studies of the word is called *semantics*.

One of the main structural features of the word that it possesses both external (formal) unity and semantic unity.

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

Thus, the *word* is a speech unit used for the purposes of human communication, materially representing a group of sounds, possessing a meaning, susceptible to grammatical employment and characterized by formal and semantic unity.
III. The Problem of Word-Boundaries

The difference between words and other two-facet units is not always clear. There are:

1. Form words. On the one hand, they fuse with notional words phonetically and do not function as sentence-members. On the other hand, they are positionally mobile, e.g. *a*, *to*, *and*.

2. Loose compounds, e.g. *speech sound*, *stone wall*. On the one hand, they are built in speech. On the other hand, they have one lexical stress.

3. Phrasal words: *his I-love-you’s*. On the one hand, they are built in speech and are not reproducible. On the other, they have one lexical stress.

The difference between variants of the same word and different words is also not always clear. Within the language system the word is a lexeme – an abstract unit which unites all its variant:

   a) lexico-semantic variants – different meanings of the same polysemantic word: *to give a pen*, *to give a smile*, *to give an answer*;

   b) phonetic variants – different pronunciation of the same word: *neither*, *either*, *often*;

   c) orthographic variants – different spelling of the same word: *jail* – *gaol*;

   d) morphological variants – different morphemic structure of the same word: *learned* – *learnt*, *geographic* – *geographical*.

IV. Lexicology and its Connection with Other Linguistic Disciplines

Lexicology is closely connected with other branches of linguistics:

1. It is connected with *Phonetics* because the word’s sound form is a fixed sequence of phonemes united by a lexical stress.

2. Lexicology is connected with *Morphology and Word-Formation* as the word’s structure is a fixed sequence of morphemes.
3. It is connected with *Morphology* because the word's content plane is a unity of lexical and grammatical meanings.

4. The word functions as part of the sentence and performs a certain syntactical function that is why it is also connected with *Syntax*.

5. The word functions in different situations and spheres of life therefore it is connected with *Stylistics, Socio- and Psycholinguistics*.

But there is also a great difference between lexicology and other linguistic disciplines. Grammatical and phonological systems are relatively stable. Therefore they are mostly studied within the framework of intralinguistics.

Lexical system is never stable. It is directly connected with extralinguistic systems. It is constantly growing and decaying. It is immediately reacts to changes in social life, e.g. the intense development of science and technology in the 20th century gave birth to such words as *computer, sputnik, spaceship*. Therefore lexicology is a sociolinguistic discipline. It studies each particular word, both its intra- and extralinguistic relations.

Lexicology is subdivided into a number of autonomous but interdependent disciplines:

1. *Lexicological Phonetics*. It studies the expression plane of lexical units in isolation and in the flow of speech.

2. *Semasiology*. It deals with the meaning of words and other linguistic units: morphemes, word-formation types, morphological word classes and morphological categories.

3. *Onomasiology or Nomination Theory*. It deals with the process of nomination: what name this or that object has and why.

4. *Etymology*. It studies the origin, the original meaning and form of words.

5. *Praseology*. It deals with phraseological units.

6. *Lexicography*. It is a practical science. It describes the vocabulary and each lexical unit in the form of dictionaries.

7. *Lexical Morphology*. It deals with the morphological stricture of the word.
8. *Word-formation.* It deals with the patterns which are used in coining new words.

Lecture II

**Meaning. Concept**

I. Approaches to Lexical Meaning

There are two main approaches to lexical meaning: referential and functional. The referential approach studies the connection between words and things or concepts they denote. Functional approach studies relations between words.

The referential model of meaning is the so-called basic semantic triangle. it consists of:
1. The sound-form (Sign) of the word: [bɔːd].
2. The referent (Denotatum) – the object which the word names: the actual bird.
3. The concept (Designatum) – The essential properties of this object which are reflected in human mind: “a feathered animal with wings“.

Meaning is closely connected with all parts of the semantic triangle but cannot be equated with any of them. Generally speaking, meaning can be described as a component of the word through which a concept is communicated, in this way endowing the word with the ability of denoting real objects, qualities, actions and abstract notions.

The functional approach assumes that the meaning of a linguistic unit can be studied only through its relation to other linguistic units and not through its relation to concept or referent, e.g. we know that the meaning of “bird n“ and “bird v“ is different because they function in speech differently. Analysing various contexts in which these words are used we can observe that they have different distribution. As the distribution of the two words is different, their meanings are different too.
The same is true of a polysemantic word: *Look at me – You look tired.* Consequently, semantic investigation is confined to the analysis of the difference or sameness of meaning. the functional approach is a valuable complement to the referential theory.

II. Lexical Meaning and Concept

Meaning and concept are very closely associated but not identical. Meaning is a linguistic category. Concept is a logical and psychological category, a unit of thinking.

Meaning and concept coincide only in scientific terms that have no general meanings (*morpheme, phoneme, amoeba*) and in terminological meanings of polysemantic words, e.g. legal, medical or grammatical usages of the word *case*. In other aspects meaning and concept do not coincide:

1. Concept is emotionally and stylistically neutral. Meaning may include non-conceptual parts: *kid, gorgeous, birdie*.
2. One and the same concept can be expressed differently: *die – pass away, kick the bucket*.
3. The number of concepts does not correspond to the number of words and meanings. One concept may be expressed by several synonymous words: *child, kid – infant*. One polysemantic word may express several concepts: *draw – “move by pulling”* (*draw a boat out of the water*), *“obtain from a source”* (*draw water from a well*), *“make with a pen, pencil or chalk“* (*draw a straight line*). Some words do not express concepts at all: *well, must, perhaps*.
4. Concepts are mostly international. Meanings are nationally specific.

Words expressing identical concepts may have different meanings and different semantic structures in different languages: *house – дом; blue - синий, голубой.*
The content plane of words includes denotative and connotative meanings.

Denotative or referential meaning, the basic type of lexical meaning, is the word’s reference to the object. This reference may be individual (The dog is trained) or general (It’s not a dog). That is why denotative meaning is subdivided into demonstrative and significative.

The type of denotative meaning varies in different groups of words.

The meaning of situational words is relative – it depends on the situation and context: here, son, my, this, now.

Pronominal words do not name the referent, they only point to it: he, she, they. Their meaning in isolation is very general: he – any male. but in speech their reference is always individual: he – this particular male.

The referent of proper names is always an individual object or person. They refer to each member of a particular class: London, Paris (cities), John, Bob (men).

Specific and generic terms differ in the size of the referent group: rose – flower; flower – plant. General terms have a wider meaning and can substitute for any specific term: dog – English bulldog, French poodle, cocker spaniel.

The referent of abstract words can be perceived by the mind and not by the senses: miracle, polite, to manage.

Connotative meaning includes various additional meanings: emotional, evaluative intensifying and expressive, e.g. hillock, to devour. As a rule, connotation co-exists with denotation. However, sometimes it comes to the fore and weakens the word’s denotative meaning.

Words also may have a certain stylistic value. It means that they refer to this or that situation or functional style: science, everyday life, business: get – obtain – procure; child – kid – infant.
IV. Lexical and Grammatical Meaning

The word is a lexical-grammatical unity. Its content plane includes two types of meaning: lexical and grammatical.

Lexical meaning is individual, unique. It does not belong to any other word in the same language: bicycle – a vehicle with two wheels, handle-bars to guide it with, a seat, and two pedals to make it go. Grammatical meaning is general, standard. It belongs to a whole class of words and word-forms: bicycle – a noun in the common case, singular.

At the same time lexical and grammatical meanings co-exist in the word and are interdependent:

1. Lexical meaning affects grammatical meaning: abstract or mass nouns have no plural form (joy, sugar), relative adjectives have no degrees of comparison (watery), statal verbs are not used in progressive tenses (see, understand).

2. Grammatical meaning affects lexical meaning. Different meanings of the polysemantic word go have their own grammatical peculiarities: He has gone to China – moved (go + adverb of place); They are going to get married soon – are planning (be going + to-infinitive); The children went wild with excitement – became (go + adjective).

3. Combinability of the word depends both on its lexical and grammatical (part-of-speech) meaning, e.g. the noun tea combines with strong but not with strongly.

4. Grammatical form may be isolated from the paradigm and become lexicalized: works – factory.

5. Lexical meaning may be grammaticalized, e.g. some notional verbs may be used as link-verbs: give a smile, turn red.
Lecture III

Semantic Changes

I. The Causes of Semantic Changes

The meaning of a word can change in the course of time. Transfer of the meaning is called lexico-semantic word-building. In such cases the outer aspect of a word does not change.

The causes of semantic changes can be extra-linguistic and linguistic: the change of the lexical meaning of the noun pen was due to extra-linguistic causes. Primarily pen comes back to the latin word penna (a feather of a bird). As people wrote with goose pens the name was transferred to steel pens which were later on used for writing. Still later any instrument for writing was called a pen.

On the other hand, causes may be linguistic, e.g. the conflict of synonyms when a perfect synonym of a native word is borrowed from some other language one of them may specialize in its meaning. The noun tide in Old English was polysemantic and denoted time, season, hour. When the French words time, season, hour were borrowed into English they ousted the word tide in these meanings. It was specialized and now means regular rise and fall of the sea caused by attraction of the moon. The meaning of a word can also change due to ellipsis: the word-group a train of carriages had the meaning of a row of carriages, later on of carriages was dropped and the noun train changed its meaning, it is used now in the function and with the meaning of the whole word-group.

Semantic changes have been classified by different scientists. The most complete classification was suggested by a German scientist Herman Paul. It is based on the logical principle. He distinguishes two main ways where the semantic change is gradual (specialization and generalization), two momentary conscious
semantic changes (metaphor and metonymy) and secondary ways: gradual (elevation and degradation), momentary (hyperbole and litotes).

II. Specialization

It is a gradual process when a word passes from a general sphere to some special sphere of communication, e.g. *case* has a general meaning *circumstances in which a person or a thing is*. It is soecialized in its meaning when used in law (*a lawsuit*), in grammar (*a form in the paradigm of a noun*), in medicine (*a patient, an illness*). The difference between these meanings is revealed in the context.

The meaning of a word can specialize when it remains in general usage. The English verb *starve* was specialized in its meaning after the Scandinavian word *die* was borrowed into English. *Die* became the general verb with this meaning. *Starve* got the meaning *to die of hunger*.

The third way of specialization is the formation of proper names from common nouns. It is often used in toponymics: *the City – the business part of London*.

The fourth way of specialization is ellipsis. in such cases primarily we have a word-group of the type *attribute + noun*, which is used constantly in a definite situation, e.g. the meaning of the word *room* was specialized because it was often used in the combinations: *dining room, sleeping room* which meant *space for dining, space for sleeping*.

III. Generalization

It is the transfer from a concrete meaning to an abstract one, e.g. *journey* was borrowed from French with the meaning *one day trip*, now it means a trip of any duration (*jour* means *a day* in French).

All auxiliary verbs are cases of generalization of their lexical meaning because they developed a grammatical: *have, be, do, shall, will* when used as
auxiliary verbs are devoid of their lexical meaning which they have when used as notional verbs or modal verbs, c.f. *I have several books by Austin* and *I have read some books by Austin.*

IV. Metaphor

It is a transfer of the meaning on the basis of comparison. Metaphor can be based on different types of similarity:

a) similarity of shape: *head (of a cabbage), bottleneck, teeth (of a saw, a comb);*

b) similarity of position: *foot (of a page, of a mountain), head (of procession);*

c) similarity of function, behaviour: *a whip (an official in the British Parliament whose duty is to see that members were present at the voting), a bookworm (a person who is fond of books);*

d) similarity of colour: *orange, hazel, chestnut.*

A special type of metaphor is when proper names become common nouns, e.g. *philistine – a mercenary person, vandals – destructive people.*

V. Metonymy

It is a transfer of the meaning on the basis of contiguity. There are different types of metonymy:

a) the material of which an object is made may become the name of the object: *a glass, boards;*

b) the name of the place may become the name of the people or of an object placed there: *the House – members of Parliament, the White House – the Administration of the USA;*

c) names of musical instruments may become names of musicians when they are united in an orchestra: *the violin, the saxophone;*
d) the name of some person may become a common noun, e.g. *boycott* was originally the name of an Irish family who were so much disliked by their neighbours that they did not mix with them.

e) names of inventors very often become terms to denote things they invented, e.g. *watt, om, roentgen*;

f) some geographical names can also become common nouns through metonymy, e.g. *holland (linen fabrics), Brussels (a special kind of carpets), china (porcelain).*

VI. Secondary Ways of Semantic Changes

There are the following secondary ways of semantic changes:

1. Elevation. It is a transfer of the meaning when it becomes better in the course of time: *knight* originally meant *a boy,* then *a young servant,* then *a military servant,* then *a noble man.* Now it is a title of nobility given to outstanding people.

2. Degradation. It is a transfer of the meaning when it becomes worse in the course of time, e.g. *villain* originally meant *working on a villa,* now it means *a scoundrel.*

3. Hyperbole. It is a transfer of the meaning when the speaker uses exaggeration, e.g. *to hate (doing something), not to see somebody for ages.* hyperbole is often used to form phraseological units, e.g. *to split hairs.*

4. Litotes. It is a transfer of the meaning when the speaker expresses the affirmative with the negative or vice versa, e.g. *not bad (it is good), no coward, not half as important.*
I. What is a Word-Combination? Lexical and Grammatical Combinability

The word-combination (WC) is the largest two-facet lexical unit observed on the syntagmatic level of analysis. By the degree of their structural and semantic cohesion WCs are classified into three WCs and phraseological units, cf.: *at least*, *point of view*, *by means of*, *to take place*.

Lexical combinability (collocation) is the aptness of a word to appear in certain lexical contexts, e.g. the word *question* combines with certain adjectives: *delicate*, *vital*, *important*.

Each word has a certain norm of collocation. Any departure from this norm is felt as a stylistic device: *to shove a question*.

The collocations of correlated words in different languages are not identical, e.g. both the English *flower* and its Russian counterpart *цветок* can be combined with a number of words denoting the place where the flowers are grown: *garden-flowers*, *hot-house flowers*; *садовые цветы*, *оранжерейные цветы*. But the English word cannot enter into combination with the word *room* to denote flowers growing in the rooms, cf.: *комнатные цветы* – *pot flowers*.

Grammatical combinability (colligation) is the aptness of a word to appear in certain grammatical contexts, e.g. the adjective *heavy* can be followed by a noun (*heavy storm*), by an infinitive (*heavy to lift*). Each grammatical unit has a certain norm of colligation: nouns combine with pre-positional adjectives (*a new dress*), relative adjectives combine with pre-positional adverbs of degree (*dreadfully tired*).

The departure from the norm of colligation is usually impossible: *mathematics at clever* is a meaningless string of words because English nouns do not allow of the structure *N + at + A*. 
II. Meaning of Word-Combinations

Meaning of WCs is analysed into lexical and grammatical (structural components).
Lexical meaning of the WC is the combined lexical meanings of its component words: \textit{red flower} – \textit{red} + \textit{flower}. But in most cases the meaning of the whole combination predominates over the lexical meaning of its constituents, e.g. the meaning of the monosemantic adjective \textit{atomic} is different in \textit{atomic weight} and \textit{atomic bomb}.

Polysemantic words are used in WCs in one of their meanings: \textit{blind man (horse, cat)} – \textit{blind type (print, handwriting)}. Only one meaning of the adjective \textit{blind (unable to see)} is combined with the lexical meaning of the noun \textit{man (human being)} and only one meaning of \textit{man} is realized in combination with \textit{blind}. The meaning of the same adjective in \textit{blind type} is different.

Structural meaning of the WC is conveyed by the pattern of arrangement of the component words, e.g. the WCs \textit{school grammar} and \textit{grammar school} consist of identical words but are semantically different because their patterns are different. The structural pattern is the carrier of a certain meaning \textit{quality-substance} that does not depend on the lexical meanings of the words \textit{school} and \textit{grammar}.

III. Interdependence of Structure and Meaning in Word-Combinations

The pattern of the WC is the syntactic structure in which a given word is used as its head: \textit{to build} + \textit{N (to build a house)}; \textit{to rely} + \textit{on} + \textit{N (to rely on sb)}. The pattern and meaning of head-words are interdependent. The same head-word is semantically different in different patterns, cf.: \textit{get+N (get a letter)}; \textit{get+to+N (get to Moscow)}; \textit{get+N+inf (get sb to come)}.

In these patterns notional words are represented in conventional symbols whereas form-words are given in their usual graphic form. The reason is that
individual form-words may change the meaning of the word with which it is combined: anxious+for+N (anxious for news), anxious+about+N (anxious about his health).

Structurally simple patterns are usually polysemantic: the pattern take+N represents several meanings of the polysemantic head-word: take tea (coffee), take measures (precautions). Structurally complex patterns are usually monosemantic: the pattern take+to+N represents only one meaning of take – take to sports (to sb).

IV. Motivation in Word-Combinations

Motivation in WCs may be lexical or grammatical (structural). The WC is motivated if its meaning is deducible from the meaning, order and arrangement of its components: red flower – red+flower – quality+substance – A+N. Non-motivated WCs are indivisible lexically and structurally. They are called phraseological units.

The WC is lexically non-motivated if its combined lexical meaning is not deducible from the meaning of its components: red tape – bureaucratic methods. The WC represents a single indivisible semantic entity.

The WC is structurally non-motivated if the meaning of its pattern is not deducible from the order and arrangement of its components: red tape – substance – N. The WC represents a single indivisible structural entity.

V. Categories of Word-Combinations

The study of WCs is based on the following set of oppositions each constituting a separate category:

1. Neutral and stylistically marked WCs: old coat – old boy;
2. Variable and stable WCs: take a pen – take place;
3. Non-idiomatic and idiomatic WCs: to speak plainly – to call a spade a spade;
4. Usual and occasional WCs: blue sky – angry sky;
5. Conceptually determined and conceptually non-determined WCs: clean dress – clean dirt;
6. Sociolinguistically determined and sociolinguistically non-determined WCs: cold war – cold soup.

Lecture 5

**Phraseology**

Phraseological units are word-groups that cannot be made in the process of speech, they exist in the language as ready-made units. They are compiled in special dictionaries. Like words, phraseological units express a single notion and are used in a sentence as one part of it. American and British lexicographers call such units *idioms*.

Phraseological units can be classified according to the ways they are formed, according to the degree of motivation of their meaning, according to their structure and according to their part-of-speech meaning.

I. Ways of forming phraseological units.

A.V. Koonin classified phraseological units according to the way they are formed. He pointed out primary and secondary ways of forming phraseological units.

Primary ways of forming phraseological units are those when a unit is formed on the basis of a free word-group:

a) the most productive in Modern English is the formation of phraseological units by means of transferring the meaning of terminological word-groups, e.g. in cosmic terminology we can point out the following
phrases: launching pad – in its direct meaning стартовая площадка in its transferred meaning – отправной пункт;
b) a large group of phraseological units was formed from free word groups by transferring their meaning (simile, contrast, metaphor), e.g. granny farm – пансионат для престарелых, as old as the hills – старый как мир, Trojan horse – компьютерная программа предварительно составленная для повреждения компьютера;
c) phradeological units can be formed by means of alliteration, e.g. a sad sack – несчастный случай, culture vulture – человек, интересующийся искусством;
d) by means of rhyming, e.g. by hook or by crook - by any possible means, high and dry – left without help;
e) by using synonyms, e.g. to pick and choose – to be terribly choosy, really and truly – quite honestly;
f) by means of expressiveness, e.g. My aunt! Hear, hear!
g) by means of distorting a word group, e.g. odds and ends was formed from odd ends;
h) by using archaisms, e.g. in brown study means in gloomy meditation where both components preserve their archaic meanings;
i) by using a sentence in a different sphere of life, e.g. that cock won’t fight can be used as a free word-group when it is used in sports (cock fighting) but it becomes a phraseological unit when it is used in everyday life;
j) when we use some unreal image, e.g. to have butterflies in the stomach – испытывать волнение;
k) by using expressions of writers or politicians in everyday life, e.g. corridors of power (Snow);

Secondary ways of forming phraseological units are those when a phraseological unit is formed on the basis of another phraseological unit:
a) conversion, e.g. to vote with one’s feet was converted into vote with one’s feet;
b) changing the grammar form, a sentence, e.g. *Make hay while the sun shines* was transferred into *Make hay while the sun shines*;

c) analogy, e.g. *Curiosity killed the cat* was transferred into *Care killed the cat*;

d) contrast, e.g. *thin cat – a poor person* was formed by contrasting it with *fat cat – a rich person*;

e) shortening of proverbs or sayings, e.g. by means of clipping the middle of the proverb *You can’t make a purse out of a sow’s ear* the phraseological unit *to make a sow’s ear* was formed with the meaning *to make a mistake*;

f) borrowing phraseological units from other languages, either as translation loans, e.g. *living space* (German), or as phonetic borrowings *sotto voce* (Italian).

II. Semantic classification of phraseological units

Phraseological units can be classified according to the degree of motivation of their meaning. This classification was suggested by acad. V.V. Vinogradov for Russian phraseological units. He pointed out three types of phraseological units:

a) fusions where the degree of motivation is very low, we cannot guess the meaning of the whole from the meanings of its components, e.g. *on Shank’s mare (on foot)*; in Russian: *быть баклуши*;

b)unities where the meaning of the whole can be guessed from the meanings of its components, but it is transferred (metaphorically or metonymically), e.g. *to play the first fiddle (to be a leader in something)*, *old salt (experienced sailor)*;

c) collocations where words are combined in their original meaning but their combinations are different in different languages, e.g. *cash and carry – self-service shop, in a big way (in great degree).*
III. Structural classification of phraseological units

Prof. A.I. Smirnitsky worked out a detailed structural classification of phraseological units, comparing them with words. He points out one-top units which he compares with affixed words because affixed words have only one root morpheme. He points out two-top units which he compares with compound words because in compound words we usually have two root morphemes.

Among one-top units he points out three structural types:

a) units of the type *to give up* (verb + postposition type);

b) units of the type *to be tired*;

c) prepositional-nominal phraseological units. These units are equivalents of unchangeable words: prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, e.g. *on the doorstep – quite near, on the nose – exactly, in the course of – during.*

Among two-top units A.I. Smirnitsky points out the following structural types:

a) attributive-nominal, e.g. *a month of Sundays, grey matter;*

b) verbal-nominal, e.g. *to read between the lines; to speak BBC;*

c) phraseological repetitions, e.g. *now or never, part and parcel*

IV. Syntactical classification of phraseological units

Phraseological units can be classified as parts of speech. This classification was suggested by I.V. Arnold. Here we have the following groups:

a) noun phraseological units denoting an object, a person, a living being, e.g. *bullet train, a latchkey child;*

b) verb phraseological units denoting an action, a state, a feeling, e.g. *to break the log-jam, to get on somebody’s coattails, to be on the beam;*

c) adjective phraseological units denoting a quality, e.g. *loose as a goose, dull as lead;*

d) adverb phraseological units, e.g. *with a bump, in the soup;*
e) preposition phraseological units, e.g. in the course of, on the stroke of;
f) interjection phraseological units, e.g. Catch me! Well, I never!

In I.V. Arnold classification there are also sentence equivalents: proverbs, sayings and quotations, e.g. The sky is the limit, What makes him tick, I am easy. Proverbs are usually metaphorical, e.g. Too many cooks spoil the broth, while sayings are, as a rule, non-metaphorical, e.g. Where there is a will there is a way – Кто хочет, тот добьется.

Lecture 6

Morpheme. Word-Structure

I. Morpheme

Morphemes are the smallest indivisible two-facet units composite words are made of, e.g. teach-er, kill-joy. A morpheme can occur in speech only as a constituent part of the word. It may have different phonetic variants (allomorphs): decision – attention; inactive – illegal. Its meaning varies too: childish – reddish; encircle – enrich.

Morphemes form an autonomous subsystem of language units. Each morpheme has its norm of combinability with certain other morphemes, cf.: break-age, develop-ment – break-ment, develop-age. Morphemes may be homonymous (motherly - quickly), synonymous (inactive - unhappy), antonymous (useful - useless).

Affixal morphemes carry lexical and grammatical meaning. Functional affixes belong to grammar, they build word-forms: ask-ed, long-er. Lexicology is mainly interested in derivational affixes, as they build words: boy-hood, boy-ish, boy-like. Lexical morphology deals with two different problems: word-structure
(segmentation of words into morphemes) and word-formation (making new words with the help of morphemes).

II. Meaning in Morphemes

Lexical meaning of morphemes may be analysed into denotational and connotational components. The denotational meaning in affixes is more generalized than in root-morphemes, e.g. –er carries the meaning the doer of the action: reader, teacher, singer. All endearing and diminutive suffixes bear a heavy emotive charge: -ie (girlie, dearie); -ette (kitchenette). Many stylistically marked affixes are bookish or scientific: a- (amoral); -oid (rhomboid).

All suffixes and some prefixes possess grammatical (part-of-speech) meaning: -ness (emptiness) carries the nominal meaning of thingness. Root-morphemes do not possess any grammatical meaning: in the root-morpheme man- (manly) there is no grammatical meaning of case and number observed in the word man.

Grammatical and lexical meaning in suffixes are blended: -er (teacher) carries the meaning thingness (noun) and the doer of the action.

In all polymorphemic words their constituent morphemes possess two more types of meaning: differential and distributional. Differential meaning distinguishes a word from all others containing identical morphemes: in the word teacher the root teach- differentiates it from other words beginning in teach (teaching). Distributional meaning is the meaning of the order and arrangement of the constituent morphemes: ring-finger, singer. A different arrangement of the same morphemes will change the meaning of the word or make the word meaningless: finger-ring, er-singer.
III. Classification of Morphemes

By the degree of their independence morphemes are classified into free and bound. Free morphemes may occur alone and coincide with word-forms or immutable words: *at*, *by*, *water*- (*water*, *watery*). Bound morphemes occur only in combination with other morphemes: *dis*- (*dislike*), *-y* (*watery*). Most roots are free but some are bound: *cran-* (*cranberry*). Affixes are always bound. Some morphemes occupy an intermediate position between free and bound:

1. semi-affixes: *-man* (*postman*), *half-* (*half-eaten*);
2. combining forms: *tele-* (*television*), *graph* (*autograph*);

By their frequency morphemes are classified into recurrent and unique. Recurrent morphemes are found in a number of words: *sing-ing* = *sing-* (*singer, sing-song*) + *-ing* (*walking*, *drawing*). Unique morphemes are found only in a given word: *pock* (*pocket*).

By their activity in the language affixes are subdivided into productive and non-productive. Productive affixes are used to build new words: *-ism* (*escapism*), *-ize* (*nationalize*). Non-productive affixes do not build new words: *-th* (*growth*), *-ous* (*monotonous*).

By their position in the word affixes are subdivided into prefixes and suffixes. A prefix stands before the root and modifies its lexical meaning: *kind* – *unkind*. In some cases it changes the word’s grammatical or lexico-grammatical meaning: *sleep* (*noun*) – *asleep* (*stative*). A suffix follows the root, modifying its lexical meaning and changing the word’s grammatical or lexico-grammatical meaning: *appear* (*verb*) – *appearance* (*noun*). The suffix renders a very general meaning and is often fused with the root semantically.
Lecture 7

Word-Building

I. Types of Word-Building

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

Sound-interchange is the way of word-building when some sounds are changed to form a new word, e.g. *to strike* – *stroke*, *to sing* – *song*.

Stress interchange can be mostly met in verbs and nouns of Romanic origin: nouns have the stress on the first syllable and verbs on the last syllable, e.g. *accent* – *to accent*.

Sound imitation is the way of word-building when a word is built by imitating different sounds:

a) sounds produced by human beings: *to whisper*, *to mumble*;

b) sounds produced by animals, birds, insects: *to moo*, *to hiss*, *to buzz*;

c) sounds produced by nature and objects: *to splash*, *to bubble*, *to clatter*.

Blends are words formed from a word-group or two synonyms, e.g. *hustle* (*hurry and bustle*), *cinemaddict* (*cinema addict*).

Backformation (disaffixation) is the way of word-building when a word is formed by dropping the final morpheme to form a new word, e.g. *to bach* (*from bachelor*), *to televise* (*from television*). The part-of-speech meaning of the primary word is changed, verbs are formed from nouns.
II. Affixation

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

III. Suffixation

The main function of suffixes in Modern English is to form one part of speech from another, the secondary function is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech, e.g. *educate* v – *educatee* n.

There are different classifications of suffixes.

1. Part-of-speech classification. Suffixes which can form different parts of speech are given here:
   a) noun-forming suffixes: *-er criticize, -ism ageism*;
   b) adjective-forming suffixes: *–able breathable, -less symptomless, -ous prestigious*;
   c) adverb-forming suffixes: *-ly singly, -ward tableward, -wise jet-wise*;
   d) numeral-forming suffixes: *-teen sixteen, -ty seventy, -fold twofold*.

2. Semantic classification. Suffixes changing the lexical meaning of the stem can be subdivided into groups, e.g. noun-forming suffixes can denote:
   a) the agent of the action: *-er teacher, -ist taxist, -ent student*;
   b) nationality: *–ian Russian, -ese Japanese, -ish English*.
   c) collectivity: *-dom kingdom, -ry peasantry, -ship readership*;
   d) diminutiveness: *-ie horsie, -let booklet, -ette kitchenette*;
   e) quality: *-ness copelessness, -ity answerability*;
   f) feminine gender: *-ess actress, -ine heroine, -ette cosmonette*;
   g) abstract notion: *-hood childhood, -ness politeness, -ence/ance tolerance*;
   h) derogatory meaning: *-ard drunkard, -ster gangster*. 
3. Lexico-grammatical character of the stem. Suffixes added to certain groups of stems are subdivided into:
   a) suffixes added to verbal stems: -er commuter, -ing suffering;
   b) suffixes added to noun stems: -less smogless, -ism adventurism;
   c) suffixes added to adjective stems: -en weaken, -ish longish.
   a) native (Germanic) suffixes: -er teacher, -ful careful, -less painless, -ly swiftly, -dom, -ed, -en, -hood, -ing, -ish, -ness, -ship, -teen, -ty, -ward;
   b) Romanic suffixes: -tion attention, -ment development, -able/-ible terrible, moveable, -age, -ard, ance/ence, -ate;
   c) Greek suffixes: -ist taxist, -ism capitalism, -ize organize;
   d) Russian suffixes: -nik filmnik.
5. Productivity of suffixes:
   a) productive: -er dancer, -ize specialize, -ly wetly, -ness closeness;
   b) semi-productive: -ette kitchenette, -ward sky-ward;
   c) non-productive: -ard drunkard, -th length.
   a) simple: -er speaker, -ist taxist;
   b) compound –ical, ironical, -ation formation, -manship sportsmanship, ably/ibly terribly, reasonably.

IV. Prefixation

Prefixation is the formation of words by means of adding a prefix to the stem. In English it is characteristic for forming verbs. The main function of prefixes in English is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech, e.g. happy- unhappy, head – overhead. Prefixes can be classified according to different principles:
1. Semantic classification:
   a) negative prefixes, e.g. in-, un- invaluable, unhappy;
b) prefixes denoting repetition or reversative actions: *de-*, *re-*, *dis-* decolonize, *revegetation*, *disconnect*;

c) prefixes denoting time, space, degree relations: *inter-*, *hyper-*, *ex-*, *pre-*, *over-*, *interplanetary*, *hypertension*, *ex-student*, *preelection*, *overdrugging*.

2. Origin of prefixes:
   a) native (Germanic): *un-*, *over-*, *under-* unhappy, overfeed, undernourish;
   b) Romanic: *in-*, *de-*, *ex-*, *re-* inactive, ex-student, rewrite;
   c) Greek: *sym-* sympathy, *hyper-* hypertension.

3. The function of prefixes. According to their function prefixes may be convertive and non-convertive:
   a) convertive prefixes transfer derivatives to a different part of speech in comparison with their original stem: *em-*, *de-* bronze – to embronze, *bus* – to *debus*;
   b) non-convertive prefixes: *dis-*, *under-*, *un-* to agree - to disagree, to go – to undergo, *easy* – *uneasy*.

4. Stylistic value:
   a) stylistically neutral: *un-*, *over-*, *re-* unnatural, oversee, resell;
   b) literary-bookish: *ultra-* ultra-viole, *bi-* bifocal;

5. The grammatical type of the stem prefixes combine with:
   a) deverbal: *re-* rewrite, *over-* overdo, *out-* outstay;
   b) denominial: *ex-* ex-wife, *un-* unbutton, *de-* detrain;
   c) deadjectival: *in-* inactive, *un-* uneasy, *bi-* annual.
Lecture 8

Compounding. Conversion. Shortening

I. Composition. Compound words

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

a) A unity of stress. As a rule, English compounds have one uniting stress, e.g. 'best-seller. We can also have a double stress in an English compound: 'blood-,vessel. The main stress may be on the second component: 'sky-'blue.

b) Solid or hyphenated spelling. Spelling in English compounds is not very reliable because they can have different spelling even in the same text, e.g. war-ship, blood-vessel can be spelt through a hyphen and also with a break. Insofar, underfoot can be spelt solidly and with a break.

c) Semantic unity. It is often very strong. In such cases we have idiomatic compounds where the meaning of the whole is not a sum of meanings of its components, e.g. to ghostwrite, skinhead, brain-drain. In non-idiomatic compounds semantic unity is not strong, e.g. airbus, astrodynamics.

d) Unity of morphological and syntactical functioning. They are used in a sentence as one part of it and only one component changes grammatically: These girls are chatter-boxes.

There are two characteristic features of English compounds:

a) both components in an English compound can be used as words with a distinctive meaning of their own, e.g. a 'green-house and a 'green 'house;
b) English compounds have a two-stem pattern, with the exception of compound words which have form-word stems in their structure, e.g. *middle-of-the-road, off-the-record*.

II. Ways of Forming Compound Words

English compounds can be formed not only by means of composition but also by means of:

a) reduplication: *too-too – sentimental*;

b) partial conversion from word-groups: *to micky-mouse, can-do*;

c) back formation from compound nouns or word-groups: *to fingerprint (fingerprinting), to baby-sit (baby-sitter)*;

d) analogy: *lie-in (on the analogy with sit-in)*;

e) contrast: *brain-gain (in contrast to brain-drain)*.

III. Classification of English Compounds

1. According to the parts of speech compounds are subdivided into:

   a) nouns: *baby-moon*;
   
   b) adjectives: *power-happy*;
   
   c) adverbs: *headfirst*;
   
   d) prepositions: *into, within*;
   
   e) numerals: *fifty-five*.

2. According to the way components are joined together compounds are subdivided into:

   a) neutral, which are formed by joining together two stems without any joining morpheme: *ball-point*;
   
   b) morphological where components are joined by a linking element: *astrospace, handicraft, sportsman*;
c) syntactical where components are joined by means of form-word stems, e.g. do-or-die.

3. According to their structure compounds are subdivided into:
   a) compound words proper which consist of two stems: to job-hunt, train-sick;
   b) compound-affixed words, where besides the stems we have affixes: ear-minded, hydro-skimmer, astrophysical;
   c) compound words consisting of three or more stems: cornflower-blue, singer-songwriter;
   d) compound-shortened words, e.g. V-day, Eurodollar, Camford.

4. According to the relations between the components compounds are subdivided into:
   a) subordinative compounds where one of the components is the semantic centre and the structural centre and the second component is subordinate: honey-sweet, gold-rich, love-sick, Tom-cat;
   b) coordinative compounds where both components are semantically independent. Here belong such compounds when one person (object) has two functions. Such compounds are called additive: Anglo-Saxon, woman-doctor. There are also tautological compounds. They are formed by means of reduplication: no-no, fifty-fifty or with the help of rhythmic stems: criss-cross, walkie-talkie.

5. According to the meaning of the whole compound we can point out idiomatic and non-idiomatic compounds. Idiomatic compounds are very different in meaning from the corresponding free phrase: a blackboard is quite different from a black board. Non-idiomatic compounds are not different in their meaning from corresponding free phrases: airmail, speedometer.

IV. Conversion
Conversion is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. It is also called affixless derivation or zero suffixation. Conversion is the main way of forming verbs in Modern English. Verbs can be formed from nouns of different semantic groups and have different meanings because of that:

a) verbs can have instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting parts of a human body, tools, machines, instruments, weapons: *to eye, to hammer, to machine-gun, ti rifle;*
b) verbs can denote an action characteristic of the living being: *to crowd, to wolf, to ape;*
c) verbs can denote acquisition, addition, deprivation: *to fish, to dust, to paper;*
d) verbs can denote an action performed at the place: *to park, to bottle, to corner.*

Verbs can be converted from adjectives, in such cases they denote the change of the state: *to tame, to slim.*

Verbs can be also converted from other parts of speech: *to down* (adverb), *to pooh-pooh* (interjection).

Nouns can also be converted from verbs. Converted nouns can denote:

a) instant of an action: *a jump, a move;*
b) process or state: *sleep, walk;*
c) agent of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted: *a help, a flirt;*
d) object or result of the action: *a find, a burn;*
e) place of the action: *a drive, a stop.*

Sometimes nouns are formed from adverbs: *ups and downs.*

V. Disputable Cases of Word-Formation

There exist syntagmas which are intermediate between compounds and word-combinations: complexes of the “give up”, “stone wall” and “mother-in-law” type.
1) Complexes of the “give up” type are highly productive. The first component is a simple verb. The status of the second one is disputable: an adverb, a postpositive, etc. The units are often polysemantic and idiomatic: come off (to take place), fall out (to quarrel). They are more colloquial than their synonyms of Romance origin: give up (abandon).

2) Complexes of the “stone wall” type are very productive in bookish style: office management, steel production. The second element is a noun. The status of the first one is disputable: an adjective, a noun, a noun-stem. The units are motivated and correlate with prepositional phrases. his life story – the story of his life. their spelling is inconsistent: haircut, crime report, arm-chair.

3) Complexes of the “mother-in-law” type are phrases that are used as one word. they are mostly occasional units coined in speech: Some people are do-it-nowers, others do-it-some-other-timers. These complexes are usually hyphenated in writing and are pronounced with one heavy stress like many compound words.

VI. Shortening

Shortenings (or contracted words) are produced in two different ways. The first is to make a new word from a syllable of the original word. The letter may lose its beginning (phone from telephone, fence from defence), its ending (hols from holidays) or both the beginning and ending (flu from influenza).

The second way of shortening is to make a new word from the initial letters of a word group: U.N.O., B.B.C., M.P. This type is called initial shortenings (acronyms). They are found not only among formal words but also among colloquialisms and slang: g.f. (girl-friend).

Here are some more examples of informal shortenings. movie (moving-picture), specs (spectacles), I.O.Y. (I owe you), metrop (metropoly), posish (position).
Lecture 9

Polysemy. Homonymy

I. Polysemy

The word *polysemy* means *plurality of meanings*. It exists only in the language, not in speech. A word which has more than one meaning is called polysemantic.

There are two processes of the semantic development of a word: radiation and concatenation. In cases of radiation the primary meaning stands in the centre and the secondary meanings proceed out of it like rays. Each secondary meaning can be traced to the primary meaning, e.g. *face* (the front part of the human head - the primary meaning; the front part of a building, the front part of a watch, the front part of a playing card; expression of the face, outward appearance - secondary meanings).

In cases of concatenation secondary meanings of a word develop like a chain, e.g. *crust* – 1. hard outer part of bread, 2. hard part of anything (a pie, a cake), 3. harder layer over soft snow, 4. sullen gloomy person, 5. impudence. Here the last meanings have nothing to do with primary ones. In such cases homonyms appeare in the language. This phenomenon is called the split of polysemy.

II. Semantic Structure of Polysemantic Words

Synchronically, the problem of polysemy ie the problem of interrelation and interdependence of different meanings of the same word. The semantic structure of
a polysemantic word is the sum total of relations between its lexico-semantic variants.

The analysis of the semantic structure of a polysemantic word is based on the following set of oppositions:

1. Direct-derived meaning: *rat* – animal like, but larger than a mouse; *rat* – cowardly person; strike-breaker.
2. Extended-restricted meaning: *to knock* – strike, hit; *to knock* – of a petrol engine – make a tapping or thumping noise.
3. Free-bound meaning: *hat* – cover for the head; *hat* – nonsense (to speak through one’s hat).
4. General-specialized meaning: *case* – instance or example of the occurrence of smth; *case* – (med.) person suffering from a disease.
5. Neutral-emotional meaning: *nut* – fruit consisting of a hard shell enclosing a kernel that can be eaten; *nut* – (slang) head of a human being.

III. Homonyms. Causes and Sources of Homonymy

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

Homonyms can appear in the language not only as a result of split of polysemy, but also as a result of levelling of grammar inflexions, when different parts of speech become identical in their outer aspect: *care* from *caru* and *care* from *carian*.

They can also be formed by means of conversion: *slim* – to slim.

They can be formed with the help of the same suffix from the same stem: *reader* – a person who reads and a book for reading.

They can be the result of forming splinters, completives and lexical abbreviations: *bio* – a splinter with the meaning biology, biological as in the word biometrics; *bio* – a combining form with the meaning life as in the word biology;
bio – a lexical shortening of the word biography with the meaning a short biography.

Homonyms can also appear in the language accidentally when two words coincide in their development, e.g. two native words can coincide in their outer aspects: to bear from beran (to carry) and bear from bera (an animal). A native word and a borrowing can coincide in their outer aspects, e.g. fair from Latin feria and fair from native fager (blond). Two borrowings can coincide, e.g. base from the French base (Latin basis) and base (low) from the Latin bas (Italian basso).

Homonyms can develop through shortening of different words: COD from Concise Oxford Dictionary and cash on delivery.

IV. Classification of Homonyms

Walter Skeat classified homonyms according to their spelling and sound forms and he pointed out three groups: perfect homonyms, words identical in sound and spelling: school – косяк рыбы and школа; homographs, words with the same spelling but pronounced differently: bow – поклон and bow – лук; homophones, words pronounced identically but spelled differently: night - ночь and knight - рыцарь.

Another classification was suggested by A.I. Smirnitsky. He added to Skeat’s classification one more criterion: grammatical meaning. He subdivided the group of perfect homonyms into two types:

a) perfect homonyms which are identical in their spelling, pronunciation and their grammar form: spring in the meanings the season of the year, a leap, a source;

b) homoforms which coincide in their spelling and pronunciation but have different grammatical meaning: reading – Present Participle, Gerund, Verbal noun; to lobby-lobby.

I.V. Arnold pointed out the following groups of homonyms:
a) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings, basic forms and paradigms and different in their lexical meanings: board – a council and board – a piece of wood sawn thin;
b) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings and basic forms, but different in their lexical meanings and paradigms: to lie – lied – lied, and to lie – lay – lain;
c) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, paradigms, but coinciding in their basic forms: light (lights) - light (lighter, lightest);
d) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, in their basic forms and paradigms, but coinciding in one of the forms of their paradigms: a bit and bit (from to bite);
e) patterned homonyms differ from other homonyms, having a common component in their lexical meanings. They are formed either by means of conversion, or by levelling of grammar inflexions. These homonyms are different in their grammatical meanings, in their paradigms, but identical in their basic forms: warm – to warm.

Lecture 10

Synonymy. Paronymy. Antonymy

I. Synonyms

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

Sometimes one of the absolute synonyms is specialized in its usage and we get stylistic synonyms: *to begin* (native) – *to commence* (borrowing). Here the French word is specialized.

Stylistic synonyms can also appear by means of abbreviation: *exam* (colloquial), *examination* (neutral).

Among stylistic synonyms we can point out euphemisms: *the late* (dead), *to perspire* (to sweat).

On the other hand, there are slang synonyms. They are expressive, mostly ironical words serving to create fresh names for some things that are frequently used: *mad* – *daft, potty, balmy, loony, bonkers, touched, nutty*.

There are also phraseological synonyms, these words are identical in their meanings and styles but different in their combinability with other words in the sentence: *to visit museums* but *to attend lectures; teachers question their pupils*, *judges interrogate witnesses*.

There are also contextual synonyms which are similar in meaning only under some specific distributional conditions: *buy* and *get* are not synonyms out of context but they are synonyms in the following examples: *I’ll go to the shop and buy some bread* and *I’ll go to the shop and get some bread*.

In each group of synonyms there is a word with the most general meaning, which can substitute any word in the group. Such words are called synonymic dominants: *piece* is the synonymic dominant in the group *slice, lump, morsel*.

Very many compound nouns denoting abstract notions, persons and events are correlated with phrasal verbs. We have such synonymous pairs as: *arrangement – layout, reproduction – playback*. 
Conversion can also serve to form synonyms. *laughter* – *laugh*.

There are also cases of different affixation: *effectivity* – *effectiveness*. It can be treated as a lexical variant but not a synonym. Variants can also be phonetical (*vase* [veɪz] - [vaːz]) and graphical (*to-morrow* - *tomorrow*).

The peculiar feature of English is the contrast between simple native words which are stylistically neutral, literary words borrowed from French and learned words of Greko-Latin origin, e.g.:

- *to ask*    *to question*    *to interrogate*
- *belly*    *stomach*    *abdomen*
- *to end*    *to finish*    *to complete*

## II. Paronyms

Paronymy is an intermediate phenomenon between homonymy (identical sound-form) and synonymy (similar meaning).

Paronyms are words which are partially similar in form but different in meaning and usage: *proscribe*–*prescribe*. The coinciding parts are not morphemes but meaningless sound-clusters. Pairs like *historic*–*historical* (words containing the same root-morpheme) are usually treated as synonyms. Yet words of both groups are easily confused in speech even by native speakers: *sensible*–*sensitive, prudent*–*prudish*.

Improper usage of learned and sonorous language results in the so-called malapropisms. *to have a supercilious (superficial) knowledge in accounts*. This kind of word confusion is due to ignorance and produces a humorous effect. Malapropisms may be viewed as a kind of paronyms. The words are attracted to each other because of their partial phonetic similarity.
Antonyms are words belonging to the same part of speech, identical in style, expressing contrary or contradictory notions.

V.N. Comissarov classified antonyms into two groups: absolute (root) antonyms (*late* - *early*) and derivational antonyms (*to please* – *to displease, honest* - *dishonest*). Absolute antonyms have different roots and derivational antonyms have the same roots but different affixes. In most cases negative prefixes form antonyms (*un-, dis- non-*). Sometimes they are formed by means of antonymous suffixes: *-ful* and *–less* (*painful* - *painless*).

The difference between derivational and root antonyms is also in their semantics. Derivational antonyms express contradictory notions, one of them excludes the other: *active-inactive*. Absolute antonyms express contrary notions. If some notions can be arranged in a group of more than two members, the most distant members of the group will be absolute antonyms: *ugly, plain, good-looking, pretty, beautiful*, the antonyms are *ugly* and *beautiful*.

Leonard Lipka in the book *Outline of English Lexicology* describes three types of oppositeness:

a) complementarity: *male – female*. The denial of the one implies the assertion of the other, and vice versa;

b) antonyms: *good – bad*. It is based on different logical relationships;

c) converseness: *to buy – to sell*. It is mirror-image relations or functions: *husband-wife, above-below, pupil-teacher*.

L. Lipka also gives the type which he calls directional oppositions: *up-down*, consequence opposition: *learn-know*, antipodal opposition: *North-South, East-West*.

L. Lipka also points out non-binary contrast or many-member lexical sets. In such sets of words we can have outer and inner pairs of antonyms: *excellent, good, average, fair, poor*. 
Not every word in a language can have antonyms. This type of opposition can be met in qualitative adjectives and their derivatives: beautiful-ugly, to beautify-to uglify. It can be also met in words denoting feelings and states: to respect-to scorn, respectful-scornful and in words denoting direction in space and time: here-there, up-down, before-after.

If a word is polysemantic, it can have several antonyms, e.g. the word bright has the antonyms dim, dull, sad.

Lecture 11

Vocabulary Classifications

I. Morphological and Functional Grouping

By their morphemic structure words may be simple (hand, dog), derivative (handful, doggie), compound (handbook, dog-cheap), compound derivative (left-handed, dog-legged).

Words are also classified into word-families: dog, doggish, doglike, doggy, to dog, dog-cart. the number of word-families is equal to that of root-morphemes.

Words may be grouped by their common affix: troublesome, lonesome, tiresome, handsome. Groups with productive affixes constitute open sets, since new words are constantly created.

By their function words are grouped into notional, functional and semi-functional. Notional words can be used alone. They name objects of reality, qualities, actions or processes. Functional words are used only in combination with notional words or in reference to them: auxiliary verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, relative adverbs. They express relations between words. Semi-functional words point to or stand for objects of reality: here, then, this, one, he, how.
By their meaning, syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships words are divided into parts of speech and lexico-grammatical groups. Among nouns we find personal names, animal names, collective, abstract, proper names. The members of each group have a common lexico-grammatical meaning and paradigm, the same substituting elements and a set of suffixes. Personal nouns denote animate objects and express notions, have two number forms and two case forms, regularly combine with the indefinite article, are substituted by he or she and may have suffixes -er, -or, -ist, -ee, -eer, -man.

II. Thematic and Ideographic Groups. Semantic Fields.

A thematic group is a subdivision of a lexico-grammatical group: kinship terms, names for parts of the human body, colour terms. The basis of grouping is both linguistic and extra-linguistic: the words are associated because their referents are connected. The words may be connected by the logical relationship or inclusion: sheep – ram, ewe, lamb. The generic term (hyperonym) is the superordinate of specific terms (hyponyms).

An ideographic grouping includes thematically related words of different parts of speech: light n, bright a, shine v. Grammatical meaning is disregarded. words are classed according to the systems of logical notions.

A semantic field embraces interrelated words covering a certain conceptual area. The member-words are semantically interdependent. They delimit and determine each other’s meaning. The meaning of the captain is only understood if we know whether his subordinate is called lieutenant (the army), commander (the navy), mate or first officer (the merchant service).

There are two formal criteria of semantically related words: co-occurrence and valency potential. The statistical approach (A. Shaikevitch) assumes that they often occur in texts together. The syntactic approach (Y. Apresyan) asserts that they occur in similar patterns.
III. Terminological Systems

Terminological systems are sharply defined. Terms are words or word-groups that name notions of a special field of Knowledge, industry or culture. They have many peculiarities:

1. Terms are monosemantic words. Polysemy is only tolerated if the term has different meanings in different fields of science: The meaning of *word* in linguistics and mathematics.

2. A term has only a denotational free meaning and no figurative, contextual or emotional meanings. But if regularly used in colloquial speech it becomes a non-term.

3. Each term is strictly defined and has a constant meaning until a new discovery changes the referent or the notion.

4. There is one-to-one correspondence between the concept and the term naming it. Synonymous terms cause a great deal of confusion: linguistic terms – *phraseological unit, idiom, set expression.*

5. Terms are created by specialists and never appear as a result of spontaneous language development.

Various disciplines make use of each other’s achievements, therefore some terms belong to several terminological systems: *feedback, entropy, redundancy.* There is a constant interchange between special and general vocabulary. Many terms come to be used by laymen: *vitamin, penocillin, gene, transistor, bionics.* On the other hand, everyday words may develop terminological meanings.

IV. Emotionally Coloured and Emotionally Neutral Vocabulary

Language is used not only to make statements but also to convey or express emotions. In this case lexical meaning acquires additional colouring (connotation). There exist three types of emotional words: emotional proper, intensifying and evaluatory.
Emotional words proper help to release emotions and tension. They include interjections (Hell! Ah!), words with diminutive and derogatory affixes (duckling, daddy), phrasal or converted personal nouns (a bore, a die-hard). Some words are emotional only in their metaphorical meaning. cow, ass, devil, angel (as applied to people).

Intensifying words are used to emphasize what is said: absolute, mere, ever, so, just. Their denotative meaning may be suppressed by their emphatic function: awfully beautiful, terribly nice.

Evaluatory words express a value judgement and specify emotions as good or bad. Their denotative and evaluative meanings co-exist: scheme – a secret and dishonest plan.

Emotional words have some functional peculiarities.
1. They can be used in the emotional syntactic pattern a + (A) + N + of + a + N. - a mere button of a nose.
2. They can be used without any formal or logical connection with the context: There was a rumour in the office about some diamonds. – Diamonds, my eye, they'll never find any diamonds. Here my eye has no denotational meaning and the syntactic function.
3. They can contradict the meaning of the words they formally modify.: awfully glad, damn good.
4. They can lend emotional colouring to the whole sentence and occupy an optional position in it.

V. Stylistically Marked and Stylistically Neutral Words

The basic stylistic division of the vocabulary is stylistically neutral and stylistically marked words. The former can be used in any situation and make up the greater part of every utterance. The latter are found only in specific contexts. horse (neutral) – steed (poetic) – gee-gee (a nursery word).
Stylistically marked words are subdivided into formal and informal. Formal vocabulary includes special terms (morpheme, phoneme), learned words (initial, to exclude), official words (to dispatch, to summon) and poetic words (woe, to behold, lone). Informal vocabulary is subdivided into standard colloquial and substandard: slang, argot, dialectal, familiar and vulgar words. Colloquial vocabulary includes common polysemantic words (thing, get, really, nice), nouns converted from verbs (give a scare, make-up), verbs with postpositives (think out, come on), substantivized adjectives (woolies, daily), emotional units (a bit tired, by God, oh), modal words and expressions (definitely, in a way, rather, by no means). Slang words are fresh and shocking words for usual things: drunk – boozy, cock-eyed, soaked, tight.

VI. Non-Semantic Grouping

Words may be grouped according to their initial letters. Alphabetic organization is the simplest and most universal grouping of written words used in most dictionaries. Grouping according to the words’ final letters is used in inverse dictionaries and helps to make lists of words with similar suffixes or rhyming words.

Grouping according to the length of words (the number of letters they contain) is meant for communication engineering, automatic reading of messages and correction of mistakes. The number of syllables is important theoretically: shorter words occur more frequently and have a greater number of meanings.

Grouping according to the words’ frequency is based on statistical counts. It is used for practical purposes in lexicography, language teaching and shorthand. It is also important theoretically – the most frequent words are polysemantic and stylistically neutral.
Native words, though they constitute only 30% of the English vocabulary, are the most frequently used words.

Native words are subdivided into two groups: Indo-European and Common Germanic.

The oldest layer of words in English are words met in Indo-European languages. There are several semantic groups of them:

a) words denoting kinship: father (Vater, pater), mother (Mutter, mater), son (Sohn), daughter (Tochter);

b) words denoting important objects and phenomena of nature: the sun (die Sonne), water (Wasser);

c) names of animals and birds: cat (Katze), goose (Gans), wolf (Wolf);

d) names of parts of a human body: heart (Herz);

e) some of the most often used verbs: sit (sitzen), stand (stehen);

f) some numerals: two (zwei), three (drei).

A much larger group of native vocabulary are Common Germanic words (German, Norwegian, Dutch, Icelandic). Here we can find the nouns: summer, winter, storm, rain, ice, ground, bridge, house, life, shoe; the verbs: bake, burn, buy, drive, hear, keep, learn; the adjectives: broad, dead, deaf, deep.

Native words have a great world-building capacity, form a lot of phraseological units, they are mostly polysemantic.
II. Borrowings

More than two thirds of the English vocabulary are borrowings. Mostly they are words of Romanic origin (Latin, French, Italian, Spanish). Borrowed words are different from native ones by their phonetic structure, by their morphological structure and also by their grammatical forms. It is also characteristic of borrowings to be non-motivated semantically.

English history is very rich in different types of contacts with other countries, that is why it is very rich in borrowings.

Borrowings can be classified according to different criteria:

a) according to the aspect which is borrowed;
b) according to the degree of assimilation;
c) according to the language from which the word was borrowed.

III. Classification of Borrowings According to the Borrowed Aspect

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

Phonetic borrowings are the most characteristic ones in all languages. They are called loan words proper. Words are borrowed with their spelling, pronunciation and meaning. then they undergo assimilation, each sound in the borrowed word is substituted by the corresponding sound of the borrowing language. In some cases the spelling is changed. The structure of the word can also be changed. The position of the stress is very often influenced by the phonetic system of the borrowing language. The paradigm of the word, and sometimes the meaning of the borrowed word are also changed. Such words as labour, travel, table, chair, people are phonetic borrowings from French; apparatchik, nomenklatura, sputnik are phonetic borrowings from Russian; bank, soprano, duet are phonetic borrowings from Italian; lobby, Ostarbaiter, iceberg are phonetic borrowings from German.
Translation loans are word-for-word (or morpheme-for-morpheme) translations of some foreign words or expressions. The notion is borrowed from a foreign language but it is expressed by native lexical units. *to tale the bull by the horns* (Latin), *fair sex* (French), *collective farm* (Russian).

Semantic borrowings are such units when a new meaning of the unit existing in the language is borrowed: there are semantic borrowings between Scandinavian and English, such as the meaning *to live* for the word *to dwell* which in Old English had the meaning *to wander*.

Morphemic borrowings are borrowings of affixes which occur in the language when many words with identical affixes are borrowed from one language into another, so that the morphemic structure of borrowed words becomes familiar to the people speaking the borrowing language: *goddess* (native root + Romanic suffix -ess), *uneatable* (English prefix un- + English root + Romanic suffix -able).

IV. Classification of Borrowings According to the Degree of Assimilation

The degree of assimilation of borrowings depends on the following factors:

a) from what group of languages the word was borrowed (if the word belongs to the same group of languages to which the borrowing language belongs it is assimilated easier);

b) in what way the word is borrowed: orally or in the written form (words borrowed orally are assimilated quicker);

c) how often the borrowing is used in the language (the greater the frequency of its usage, the quicker it is assimilated);

d) how long the word lives in the language (the longer it lives, the more assimilated it is).

Accordingly, borrowings are subdivided into: completely assimilated, partly assimilated, non-assimilated (barbarisms).

Completely assimilated borrowings are not felt as foreign words in the language. Completely assimilated verbs belong to regular verbs: *correct – correct.*
Corrected. Completely assimilated nouns form their plural by means of s-inflexion: gate – gates. In completely assimilated French words the stress has been shifted from the last syllable to the first one: capital, service.

Partly assimilated borrowings are subdivided into the following groups:

a) borrowings non-assimilated semantically, because they denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from the language of which they were borrowed: sari, sombrero (clothing), taiga, steppe (nature), rickshaw, troika (foreign vehicles), rupee, zloty, peseta (money);

b) borrowings non-assimilated grammatically: some nouns borrowed from Latin and Greek retain their plural forms – bacillus-bacilli, genius-genii;

c) borrowings non-assimilated phonetically, e.g. some French borrowings retained their stress on the final syllable or special combinations of sounds: police, cartoon, camouflage, boulevard;

d) borrowings partly assimilated graphically, e.g. in Greek borrowings ph denotes the sound [f] (phoneme, morpheme), ch denotes the sound [k] (chaos, chemistry).

Non-assimilated borrowings (barbarisms) are borrowings which are used by Englishmen rather seldom and are non-assimilated, e.g. addio (Italian), têt-á- têt (French), duende (Spanish).

V. Classification of Borrowings According to the Language from which They were Borrowed

a) Romanic borrowings (Latin and Greek). They appeared in English during the Middle English period due to the Great Revival of Learning: memorandum, minimum, maximum, veto;

b) French borrowings: words relating to government – administer, empire; words relating to military affairs: soldier, battle; words relating to jurisprudence: advocate, barrister; words relating to fashion: luxury, coat; words relating to jewelry: emerald, pearl; words relating to food and cooking: dinner, appetite;
c) Italian borrowings: bank, bankrupt (the 14th century); volcano, bronze, manifesto, bulletin (the 17th century); various musical terms – falsetto, solo, duet; gazette, incognito (the 20th century);

d) Spanish borrowings: trade terms – cargo, embargo; names of dances and musical instruments – tango, rumba, guitar; names of vegetables and fruit;

e) Scandinavian borrowings. There are 700 of them. they are such nouns as bull, cake, egg, knife; such adjectives as flat, ill, happy; such verbs as call, die, guess; pronouns and connective words same, both, though; pronominal forms they, them, their;

f) German borrowings. There are 800 of them: geological terms – zink, quarts, gneiss; words denoting objects used in everyday life – kindergarten, lobby, rucksack; units borrowed in the period of the Second World War – SS-man, Luftwaffe, Bundeswehr; units borrowed after the period of the Second World War – Ostarbeaiter, Volkswagen;

g) Dutch borrowings. There are about 2000 of them. They were mainly borrowed in the 14th century: freight, skipper, pump (they are mainly nautical terms);

h) Russian borrowings: words connected with trade relations – sterlet, vodka, pood, copeck, rouble; words which came into English trough Russian literature of the 19th century – zemstvo, volost, moujik; words connected with political system – udarnik, collective farm, Soviet power, five-year plan.

VI. Etymological Doublets

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

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

International words play an especially important part in different terminological systems including the vocabulary of science, industry and art. The origin of this vocabulary reflects the history of world culture. E.G. the mankind’s debt to Italy is reflected in the great number of words connected with architecture, painting and especially music. Here we can mention Italian words which have become international: allegro, andante, baritone, concert, barcarole.

The international word-stock is also growing due to the words connected with: the development of science – automation, cybernetics, gene; exotic words – kraal, orang-outang, anaconda; the words in the field of sport – football, out, match; the words referring to clothing – sweater, tweed, shorts.
Classification of Language Units According to the Period of Time They Live in the Language

Words can be classified according to the period of their life in the language. We can have archaisms, words which have come out of active usage, and neologisms, words which have recently appeared in the language.

I. Archaisms and Historisms

Archaisms are words which are no longer used in everyday speech, which have been ousted by their synonyms. Archaisms remain in the language, but they are used as stylistic devices to express solemnity.

Most of these words are lexical archaisms and they are stylistic synonyms of words which ousted them from the neutral style: *steed (horse), slay (kill), perchance (perhaps), betwixt (between)*. These lexical archaisms belong to the poetic style.

When the causes of the word’s disappearance are extra-linguistic, e.g. when the thing is no longer used, its name becomes a historism. Historisms are very numerous as names for social relations, institutions, objects of material culture of the past. Here belong such transport means as *brougham, berlin, fly, gig*; also such vehicles as *prairie schooner*, also such boats as *caravel, galleon*, and such weapons as *breastplate, crossbow, arrow, vizor*.

II. Neologisms

At the present moment English is developing very swiftly and there is so called *neology blowup*. The two greatest influences on the formation, adaptation
and use of English words over the last forty years have been the United States of America and the progress of different branches of science and means of communication: television, cinema and printed material.

New words can appear in speech of an individual person who wants to express his idea in some original way. This person is called originator. New lexical units are primary used by university teachers, newspaper reporters.

Neologisms can develop in three main ways. a lexical unit existing in the language can change its meaning to denote a new object or phenomenon. In such cases we have semantic neologisms, e.g. the word umbrella developed the meanings авиационное прикрытие, политическое прикрытие. A new lexical unit can develop in the language to denote an object or phenomenon which already has some lexical unit to denote it. In such cases we have transnomination, e.g. the word slum was first substituted by the word ghetto, then by the word-group inner town. A new lexical unit can be introduced to denote a new object or phenomenon. In this case we have a proper neologism, many of them are cases of new terminology.

III. Semantic Groups of Neologisms

1. We can point out the group of neologisms connected with computerization:
   a) new words used to denote different types of computers: PC, super-computer, multi-user;
   b) new words used to denote parts of computers: hardwear, softwear, monitor, display, key-board;
   c) new words used to denote computer languages: BASIC, Algo, FORTRAN;
   d) new words used to denote notions connected with work on computers: to blitz out, to computerize, computerization.

2. In the sphere of linguistics we have such neologisms as: machine translation, interligual and many others.
3. In the sphere of biometrics we have computerized machines which can recognize characteristic features of people seeking entrance: finger-print scanner, eye-scanner, voice verification.

4. In the sphere of machine computers we have the following neologism teleminatory unit.

5. With the development of social activities neologisms appeared as well. yuthquake, pussy-footer, Euromarket, Eurodollar, Europol.

6. In the modern English society there is a tendency to social stratification, as a result there are phraseologisms in this sphere as well: believer – представитель среднего класса, приверженец консервативных взглядов. There are also abbreviations: muppie (middle-aged urban professional people), gruppie (grown up ...).

7. There are a lot of immigrants now in the UK. As a result neologisms partial and non-partial were formed.

8. In the language of the teenagers there are the following neologisms: Drugs! (OK!), sweat, branch, task.

9. With the development of professional jargons a lot of words ending in speak appeared in English: artspeak, sportspick, video-speak, cable-speak, education-speak.

10. There are semantic neologisms belonging to everyday life: starter, macrobiotics, longlife milk, fridge-freezer, hamburgers (food); catsuit, slimster, string (clothing); thongs, backsters (footwear); bumbag, sling bag, maitre (bags).

IV. Ways of Forming Neologisms

According to the ways neologisms are formed they can be classified into: phonological neologisms, borrowings, semantic neologisms and syntactical neologisms. Syntactical neologisms are divided into morphological (word-building) and phraseological (forming word-groups).
Phonological neologisms are formed by combining unique combinations of sounds. They are called artificial: yeck/yuck (interjections used to express repulsion). These are strong neologisms.

Strong neologisms include also phonetic borrowings: perestroika (Russian), solidarnosc (Polish), geige (Chinese perestroika).

Morphological and phraseological neologisms are usually built on patterns existing in the language, therefore they do not belong to the group of strong neologisms.

Among morphological neologisms there are a lot of compound words of different types: free-fall (резкое падение курса акций), rubber-neck (a tourist who remains in the coach and is not curious about the country), call-and-recall (вызов на диспансеризацию), bioastronomy (search for life on other planets), bugger-mugger (secrecy), x-rated (about films terribly vulgar and cruel), Amerenglish (American English), tycoonography (a biography of a business tycoon).

There are also abbreviations of different types: resto, teen, dinky (dual income no kids yet), HIV, SINK (single independent no kids), nimby (not in my backyard).

There are many neologisms formed by means of affixation: pro-life (prohibiting abortions), slimster, folknik, disimprove.

Phraseological neologisms can be subdivided into phraseological units with transferred meaning: to buy into (to become involved), fudge and dudge (avoidance of definite decisions) and set non-idiomatic expressions: boot trade, pathetic wage, a whizz kid (a very clever and ambitious young man, who makes a quick progress in his career).
Lecture 14

Variants and Dialects of the English Language

I. Regional Variants of the English National Language

There are two types of language territorial varieties: variants and dialects. Regional variants of standard language are used in large areas as means of oral and written communication: British, American, Australian and Canadian English. Dialects are varieties of non-standard language used in small localities for oral communication. The main variants of the English language are British and American. British, American, Australian and Canadian English cannot be regarded as different languages as they have essentially the same vocabulary, phonetic and grammar systems. They also cannot be referred to local dialects: they serve all spheres of verbal communication and have dialectal differences of their own.

Each regional variant has its phonetic, grammatical and lexical peculiarities. Phonetic differences include articulatory-acoustic characteristics and use of some phonemes, peculiar rhythm and intonation. Grammatical differences consist in the preference of this or that grammatical category or form: the preference of Past Indefinite to Present Perfect in American English, the formation of the Future Simple with the auxiliary “will” for all persons in American English, lexical peculiarities are not very numerous. These are mainly divergencies in the semantic structure of words and their usage.

II. Origin of the Regional Variants

American English begins its history at the beginning of the 17th century when first English-speaking settlers began to settle on the Atlantic coast of the American continent. The language which they brought from England was the language spoken in England during the reign of Elizabeth I.
The first settlers took some of the names for local places, animals, plants, customs from languages spoken by the local population – Indians: chipmuck (an American squirrel), squaw (an Indian woman). Besides Englishmen, settlers from France, Spain and other countries came to America. Therefore, some words were borrowed from their languages: bureau, depot, pumpkin (French), bonanza, cockroach, lasso (Spanish). Such words as boss, dope, sleigh were borrowed from Dutch.

The second period of American English history begins in the 19th century. Immigrants continued to come from Europe to America. Italians brought with them a style of cooking which brought with them a style of cooking which became widely spread and such words as pizza, spaghetti came into English. There were words borrowed from German: hamburger, noodle, schnitzel.

During the second period of American English history there appeared quite a number of words and word-groups which were formed in the language due to the new political system, liberation of America from the British colonialism, its independence. the following lexical units appeared due to these events: The United States of America, assembly, Senate, senator, President, Vice-President.

III. Differences between British and American English

There are some differences between British and American English in their usage:

1. Differences in the usage of prepositions: such as prepositions with dates, days of the week. British English (BE) requires on (I start my holiday on Friday). In American English (AE) there is no preposition (I start my vacation Friday). Compare also a quarter to five (BE) and a quarter of five b(AE), in the street (BE) and on the street (AE).

2. There are also differences in vocabulary.
a) There are units of vocabulary which are different while denoting the same notions: *BE trousers – AE pants*; in *BE pants* are трусы which in *AE* is *shorts*. While in *BE shorts* are outwear.
b) There are some differences in names of places: *passage (BE) – hall (AE), pillar box (BE) – mail-box (AE), zebra crossing (BE) – Pxing (AE).*
c) Some names of useful objects are also different: *rubber (BE) – eraser (AE), parcel (BE) – package (AE), tap (BE) – faucet (AE).*
d) Some words connected with food are different: *tin (BE) – can (AE), sweet (BE) – dessert (AE), chips (BE) – french fries (AE).*
e) Some words denoting personal items have different names: *tights (BE) – pantyhose (AE), turn-ups (BE) – cuffs (AE), waistcoat (BE) – vest (AE).*
f) Some words denoting people are also different: *barrister (BE) – lawyer (AE), shop assistant (BE) – shopperson (AE), staff (university) (BE) – faculty (AE).*
g) If we speak about cars there are also some differences: *boot (BE) – trunk (AE), a car (BE) – an auto (AE), to hire a car (BE) – to rent a car (AE).*
h) Differences in the organization of education lead to different terms: *BE public school – a private school, AE public school – a free local authority school; BE secondary school is AE high school.*

3. Differences in spelling. There are some peculiarities typical of American English:
a) the deletion of the letter *u* in words ending in *our: honor, favor*;
b) the deletion of the second consonant in words with double consonants: *traveler, wagon;*
c) the replacement of *re* by *er* in words of French origin: *theater, center;*
d) the deletion of unpronounced endings in words of Romanic origin: *catalog, program;*
e) the replacement of *ce* by *se* in words of Romanic origin: *defense, offense;*
f) the deletion of unpronounced endings in native words: *tho, thro.*
4. Differences in pronunciation. In AE we have r-coloured fully articulated vowels in the combinations: \textit{ar, er, ir, or, ur, our} etc. In BE the sound \textit{[o]} corresponds to the AE \textit{[ʌ]}, e.g. \textit{not}. In BE before fricatives and combinations of consonants with fricatives \textit{a} is pronounced as \textit{[a:] in AE, it is pronounced \textit{[ǽ]:} class \textit{[kl áes]}, fast \textit{[fǽst]}. There are some differences in the position of the stress: \textit{BE add}’\textit{ress} – \textit{AE `address, BE re}’\textit{cess} – \textit{AE `recess}.

IV. Local Dialects on the British Isles

There are six groups of English local dialects: Lowland (Scottish), Northern, Western; Midland, Eastern, Southern. They are used in oral speech by local population. Only the Scottish dialect has its own literature (R. Burns).

One of the best known dialects of British English is the dialect of London - Cockney. There are some peculiarities of it: interchange of \textit{[v]} and \textit{[w]} – \textit{wery vell}; interchange of \textit{[h]} and \textit{[’]} - \textit{´eart} for heart.

As compared with the national literary vocabulary dialectal vocabularies include a limited number of words. They are mainly names for local customs, social life, natural conditions and farming: laird “landed proprietor, kirk “church“. Many dialectisms are emotionally coloured: Scot. \textit{bonny}, \textit{daffy}. National words may have a different meaning in dialects: Scot. \textit{call (to drive)}, \textit{short (rude)}. Some affixes are dialectal. The Irish diminutive suffix –een can be added even to English stems: \textit{girleen, squireen}. Besides, dialectal vocabularies do not include scientific or technical terms.

V. Local Dialects in the USA

There exist a number of local dialects which are divided into three major groups: Northern, Southern and Midland (North Midland and South Midland).
It should be mentioned that the American English is practically uniform all over the country, because of the constant transfer of people from one part of the country to the other. However, some peculiarities in New York dialect can be pointed out, e.g. there is no distinction between [æ] and [a:] in such words as *ask, dance, sand, bad*, both phonemes are possible. The combinations *ir* and *ear* in the words *bird, girl, learn* is pronounced as [oi]. In the words *duty, tune* [j] is not pronounced [ˈduːti], [tuːn].

Lecture 15

**Lexicography**

I. The History of Compiling Dictionaries for English

The theory and practice of compiling dictionaries is called lexicography. The history of compiling dictionaries for English comes as far back as the Old English period, where we can find glosses of religious books (interlinear translations from Latin into English). Regular bilingual dictionaries began to appear in the 15th century (Anglo-Latin, Anglo-French, Anglo-German).

The first unilingual dictionary explaining difficult words appeared in 1604, the author was Robert Cawdry, a schoolmaster.

In 1775 an English scientist Samuel Johnson compiled a famous explanatory dictionary. Every word in his dictionary was illustrated by examples from English literature, the meanings of words were clear from the contexts in which they were used.

In 1884 the first volume of a dictionary including all the words existing in the language was published. It contained words beginning with *A* and *B*. The last volume was published in 1928. The dictionary was called *NED (New English Dictionary)* and contained 12 volumes.
In 1933 the dictionary was republished under the title *The Oxford English Dictionary (OED)*, because the work on the dictionary was conducted at Oxford. The dictionary contained 13 volumes.

The American lexicography began to develop much later, at the end of the 18th century. The most famous American English dictionary was compiled by Noah Webster. He was an active statesman and public man and he published his first dictionary in 1806.

II. Classification of Dictionaries

All dictionaries are divided into linguistic and encyclopaedic dictionaries. Encyclopaedic dictionaries describe different objects, phenomena, people and give some information about them. Linguistic dictionaries describe vocabulary units, their semantic structure, their origin, their usage. Words are usually given in the alphabetical order.

Linguistic dictionaries are divided into general and specialized dictionaries. General dictionaries include explanatory and translation dictionaries. Specialized dictionaries include dictionaries of synonyms, antonyms, collocations, word-frequency, neologisms, slang, pronouncing, etymological, phraseological and others.

All types of dictionaries can be unilingual if the explanation is given in the same language, bilingual if the explanation is given in another language and also they can be polylingual. There are a lot of explanatory dictionaries: *NED (New English Dictionary)*, *SOD (Shorter Oxford Dictionary)*, *COD (Concise Oxford Dictionary)*. In explanatory dictionaries the entry consists of the spelling, transcription, grammatical forms, meanings, examples, phraseology.

Translation dictionaries give words and their equivalents in the other language. There are English-Russian dictionaries by I.R. Galperin (*БАРС - Большой Англо-русский Словарь*) consisting of two volumes, by Y. Apresyan (three volumes) and others.
Specialized dictionaries of synonyms are also widely used. There are unilingual dictionaries: *A Dictionary of English Synonyms and Synonymous Expressions* by R. Soule, *Webster’s Dictionary of Synonyms*. The best known bilingual dictionary is *English Synonyms* compiled by Y. Apresyan.

Phraseological dictionaries describe idioms and colloquial phrases, proverbs. Some of them have examples from literature. The most famous bilingual dictionary of phraseology was compiled by A.V. Koonin. It consists of one volume and contains a lot of data.

Etymological dictionaries trace present-day words to the oldest forms of these words and forms of these words in other languages. One of the best etymological dictionaries was compiled by W. Skeat.

Pronouncing dictionaries record only pronunciation. The most famous is D. Jones‘s *Pronouncing Dictionary*.

Dictionaries of neologisms are: a four-volume *Supplement to NED* by Burchfield, *Beyond the Dictionary* by Brian Locket, *Bloomsary Dictionary of New Words* and others.

Lecture 16

**Methods and Procedures of Lexicological Analysis**

I. Stages of Scientific Research

The process of scientific research consists of the following stages: observation, classification, generalization and verification. Observation is the collection of data. Classification is the orderly arrangement of these data. Generalization is the formulation of a hypothesis, rule or law. Verification seeks the proof for the generalization.
Various methods of lexicological research are used for classification, generalization and verification: contrastive analysis, statistical methods of analysis, Immediate Constituents analysis, distributional analysis, transformational analysis, componental analysis.

II. Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive analysis is a detailed comparison of the structure of a native and a target language. It is the basis of teaching foreign languages: it helps to foresee and prevent recurrent mistakes caused by the interference of the learner’s mother tongue.

Contrastive analysis reveals sameness and difference in the lexical meaning and semantic structure of correlated words. Thus, English kinship terms do not always differentiate between male and female: cousin – двоюродный брат, двоюродная сестра. The semantic structures of correlated polysemantic words do not coincide, e.g. in English the word head is used to denote the head of a person, bed or match, whereas in Russian different words have to be used: голова человека, изголовье кровати, сторона монеты. The number and meaning in the correlated sets differ: pitiful – жалкий, жалостливый – pitiful. Correlated words also differ in their valency: new and новый are correlated only in some collocations: новое платье – a new dress; others have to be specially learnt by Russian students: new potatoes - молодая картошка, new bread - свежий хлеб.

III. Statistical Methods of Analysis

Statistical linguistics deals with the quantitative study of language phenomena. Its results can be used for verification.

Statistical methods are applied in the analysis of different structural types of words, affixes and the vocabularies of great writers. They also help to select the most frequent items for teaching purposes. Statistical regularities can be observed
only if the phenomena are numerous and their occurrence frequent, e.g. it was found that about 1,300 – 1,500 most frequent words make up 85% of the text.

Statistical methods of analysis have been also applied to various theoretical problems of meaning, e.g. G.K. Zipf discovered that the number of the word’s meanings is equal to the square root of its relative frequency.

Statistical approach is quantitative, while most linguistic problems are qualitative. We should know what to count. Even if we just want to count the number of lexical units, we have to define what a lexical unit is – whether we must count the following as one or more units: work n – work v; by chance; at large, etc.

IV. Immediate Constituent Analysis

Immediate Constituents analysis (IC) is used to study the structure and lexical syntagmas. Sentences or word-groups are segmented into hierarchically arranged sets of binary constructions (ICs): a black dress in severe style – a black dress/in severe style. Successive segmentation results in Ultimate Constituents (UCs) – two-facet units that cannot be divided into smaller meaningful units: a/black/dress/in/severe/style. Immediate Constituents analysis depends on the meaning of the whole complex: fat major’s wife – fat major’s/wife – fat/major’s wife.

ICs also represent the word’s derivational structure: denationalize v – de- + nationalize, snow-covered – snow + covered; blue-eyed – blue + eye + -ed. UCs show the word’s morphemic structure: de/nat/ion/al/ize; snow/cover/ed; blue/eye/ed.

V. Distributional Analysis

Distribution is the position which linguistic units may occupy in the flow of speech, or the co-occurrence of units of the same level.
Distributional analysis helps to describe the word’s meaning. The word has different meanings in different patterns: *to treat smb well* (treat + N + Adv) – *to behave towards*; *to treat smb to ice-cream* (treat + N + to + N) – *to supply with sth at one’s own expense*.

The interdependence of distribution and meaning is also observed at the level of word-groups: *water tap – tap water*. A distributional pattern as such has its own meaning: *to coax smb into accepting the suggestion* – *make smb do smth by means of smth*. The pattern retains this meaning no matter what verb is used in the structure *V + N + into + V-ing*: *to coax/talk/kiss/flatter/beat smb into doing smth*.

Productivity depends on the word’s distributional meaning. We can make up and understand any nonce-word whose pattern is familiar to the speaker and the hearer: *smiler, kissable*.

VI. Transformational Analysis

Transformational analysis consists in repatterning identical distributional patterns in order to discover difference or sameness of their meaning. It is used to investigate polysemantic patterns, e.g. compounds which have the same pattern (*n + n*) may have different lexical meanings. This is shown by transformational procedure: *dogfight – a fight between dogs; dogcart – a cart drawn by dogs*.

Transformational analysis is a kind of intralingual translation, a kind of paraphrasing: *his work is excellent – his excellent work – the excellence of his work – he works excellently*.

VII. Componental Analysis

In Componental analysis linguists proceed from the assumption that the smallest units of meaning are sememes (or semes) and that sememes and lexemes (or lexical items) are usually not in one-to-one but in one-to-many correspondence.
For example, in the lexical item *woman* several components of meaning or sememes may be singled out and namely: *human, female, adult.*

The analysis of the word *girl* would also yield the sememes *human* and *female,* but instead of the sememe *adult* we shall find the sememe *young* distinguishing the meaning of the word *woman* from that of *girl.*

**Literature**