

N I G A R V E L I Y E V A

COMMUNICATIVE-PRAGMATIC PARADIGM

of ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY

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A Linguistic Approach

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P R E F A C E

This book is devoted to the fundamentals of the word theory and of the main problems associated with English vocabulary, its characteristics and subdivisions. This course of Lexicology which forms a part of the curriculum for the English sections of linguistic departments of teacher-training colleges is intended not only for students of the third year of the day department, but also for home study school. It includes 12 chapters which cover the main themes of 30 lectures of Modern English lexicology: wordbuilding, semantic changes, phraseology, borrowings, semasiology, neology, lexicography. The material includes topics to be discussed, test questions and lexical units to be analyzed. Lexical units for the analysis were chosen mainly among neologisms. There is also a brief list of recommended literature.

The aim of the course is to teach students to be word-conscious, to be able to guess the meaning of words they come across from the meanings of morphemes, to be able to recognize the origin of this or that lexical unit.

Each chapter contains both theory and exercises for seminar and independent work. The book is intended for English language students at Pedagogical Universities (3rd year of studies) taking the course of English Lexicology and fully meets the requirements of the programme in the subject.

It may also be of interest to all readers, whose command of English is sufficient to enable them to read texts of average difficulty and who would like to gain some information about the vocabulary resources of Modern English (for example, about synonyms and antonyms), about the stylistic peculiarities of English vocabulary, about the complex nature of the word's meaning and the modern methods of its investigation, about English idioms, about those changes that English vocabulary underwent in its historical development and about some other aspects of English Lexicology.

One can hardly acquire a perfect command of English without having knowledge of all these things, for a perfect command of a language implies the conscious approach to the language's resources and at least a partial understanding of the "inner mechanism" which makes the huge language system work.

This book is the first attempt to embrace both the theory and practical exercises in the one volume, the two parts being integrated.

We tried to establish links between the theory of lexicology and the reality of living speech, on the one hand, and the language-learning and language-teaching process, on the other, never losing sight of the fact that the majority of intended readers of the book are teachers and students of Pedagogical Universities. The authors tried to present the material in an easy and comprehensible style and, at the same time, to meet the reader on the level of a half-informal talk.

With the view of making the book more vivid and interesting, we have introduced extracts from humorous authors, numerous jokes and anecdotes and extracts from books by outstanding writers, aiming to show how different lexicological phenomena are used for stylistic purposes.

INTRODUCTION

*“... every science, especially its systematization, ordering and at the same time simplification, is some kind of digestion for the spirit of what is hard to digest” **Hermann Hesse.***

Lexicology is a branch of linguistics, the study of words.

The term “Lexicology” is of Greek origin derived from “lexis” which means “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 “vocabulary” is used to denote the system of words and word-groups that the language possesses.

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”.

For some people studying words may seem uninteresting. But if studied properly, it may well prove just as exciting and novel as unearthing the mysteries of Outer Space. It is significant that many scholars have attempted to define the word as a linguistic phenomenon. Yet none of the definitions can be considered totally satisfactory in all aspects. It is equally surprising that, despite all the achievements of modern science, certain essential aspects of the nature of the word

still escape us. Nor do we fully understand the phenomenon called “language”, of which the word is a fundamental unit. We do not know much about the origin of language and, consequently, of the origin of words.

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.

It is true that there are several hypotheses, some of them no less fantastic than the theory of the divine origin of language. We know nothing or almost nothing about the mechanism by which a speaker’s mental process is converted into sound groups called “words”, or about the reverse process whereby a listener’s brain converts the acoustic phenomena into concepts and ideas, thus establishing a two-way process of communication.

We know very little about the nature of relations between the word and the referent (i.e. object, phenomenon, quality, action, etc. denoted by the word). If we assume that there is a direct relation between the word and the referent which seems logical, it gives rise to another question: how should we explain the fact that the same referent is designated by quite different sound groups in different languages. We do know by now, though with vague uncertainty, that there is nothing accidental about the vocabulary of the language; that each word is a small unit within a vast, efficient and perfectly balanced system. But we do not know why it possesses these qualities, nor do we know much about the processes by which it has acquired them. The list of unknowns could be extended, but it is probably high time to look at the brighter side and register some of the things we do know about the nature of the word.

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

communication. Secondly, the word can be perceived as the total of the sounds which comprise it. Third, the word, viewed structurally, possesses several characteristics.

The modern approach to word studies is based on distinguishing between the external and the internal structures of the word. By the vocabulary of a language is understood the total sum of its words. Another term for the same is the stock of words.

By external structure of the word we mean its morphological structure. For example, in the word “post-impressionists” the following morphemes can be distinguished: the prefixes “post-, im-”, the root “press”, the noun-forming suffixes “-ion, -ist”, and the grammatical suffix of plurality “-s”. All these morphemes constitute the external structure of the word “post-impressionists”. The external structure of words, and also typical word-formation patterns, are studied in the section on word-building. The internal structure of the word, or its meaning, is nowadays commonly referred to as the word’s semantic structure. This is certainly the word’s main aspect. Words can serve the purposes of human communication solely due to their meanings, and it is most unfortunate when this fact is ignored by some contemporary scholars who, in their obsession with the fetish of structure tend to condemn as irrelevant anything that eludes mathematical analysis. And this is exactly what meaning, with its subtle variations and shifts, is apt to do. The area of lexicology specialising in the semantic studies of the word is called Semantics.

Another structural aspect of the word is its unity. The word possesses both external (or formal) unity and semantic unity. Formal unity of the word is sometimes inaccurately interpreted as indivisibility. The example of “post-impressionists” has already shown that the word is not, strictly speaking, indivisible. Yet, its component morphemes are permanently linked together in opposition to word-groups, both free and with fixed contexts, whose components possess a certain structural freedom, e. g. “bright light, to take for granted”.

The formal unity of the word can best be illustrated by comparing a word and a word-group comprising identical constituents. The difference between a “blackbird” and “a black bird” is best explained by their relationship with the grammatical system of the language. The word “blackbird”, which is characterised by unity, possesses a single grammatical framing: “blackbird/s”. The first constituent black is not subject to any grammatical changes. In the word-group a black bird” each constituent can acquire grammatical forms of its own: “the blackest birds I’ve ever seen”. Other words can be inserted between the components which is impossible so far as the word is concerned as it would violate its unity: “a black night bird”.

The same example may be used to illustrate what we mean by semantic unity. In the word-group a “black bird” each of the meaningful words conveys a separate concept: “bird” - a kind of living creature; “black” - a colour. The word blackbird conveys only one concept: the type of bird. This is one of the main features of any word: it always conveys one concept, no matter how many component morphemes it may have in its external structure.

A further structural feature of the word is its susceptibility to grammatical employment. In speech most words can be used in different grammatical forms in which their interrelations are realised. So far we have only underlined the word's major peculiarities, but this suffices to convey the general idea of the difficulties and questions faced by the scholar attempting to give a detailed definition of the word. The difficulty does not merely consist in the considerable number of aspects that are to be taken into account, but, also, in the essential unanswered questions of word theory which concern the nature of its meaning.

All that we have said about the word can be summed up as follows. The word is a speech unit used for the purposes of human communication, materially representing a group of sounds, possessing a meaning, susceptible to grammatical employment and characterised by formal and semantic unity.

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

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

On the paradigmatic level, the word is studied in its relationships with other words in the vocabulary system. So, a word may be studied in comparison with other words of similar meaning (e.g. work, n. - labour, n.; to refuse, v. - to reject v. - to decline, v.), of opposite meaning (e. g. busy, adj. - idle, adj.; to accept, v. - to reject, v.), of different stylistic characteristics (e. g. man, n. - chap, n. - bloke, n.-guy, n.). Consequently, the main problems of paradigmatic studies are synonymy, antonymy, and functional styles.

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

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

CHAPTER I

LANGUAGE UNITS

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

A word, however, can be divided into smaller sense units - morphemes. The morpheme is the smallest meaningful language unit. The morpheme consists of a class of variants, allomorphs, which are either phonologically or morphologically conditioned, e.g. "please, pleasant, pleasure".

Morphemes are divided into two large groups: lexical morphemes and grammatical (functional) morphemes. Both lexical and grammatical morphemes can be free and bound.

Free lexical morphemes are roots of words which express the lexical meaning of the word; they coincide with the stem of simple words. Free grammatical morphemes are function words: articles, conjunctions and prepositions (the, with, and).

Bound lexical morphemes are affixes: prefixes (dis-), suffixes (-ish) and also blocked (unique) root morphemes (e.g. Fri-day, cran-berry). Bound grammatical morphemes are inflexions (endings), e.g. -s for the Plural of nouns, "-ed" for the Past Indefinite of regular verbs, "-ing" for the Present Participle, "-er" for the Comparative degree of adjectives.

In the second half of the twentieth century the English wordbuilding system was enriched by creating so called splinters which scientists include in the affixation stock of the Modern English wordbuilding system. Splinters are the result of clipping the end or the beginning of a word and producing a number

of new words on the analogy with the primary word-group. For example, there are many words formed with the help of the splinter mini- (apocope produced by clipping the word “miniature”), such as “miniplane”, “minijet”, “minicycle”, “minicar”, “miniradio” and many others. All of these words denote objects of smaller than normal dimensions.

On the analogy with “mini-” there appeared the splinter “maxi-” (apocope produced by clipping the word “maximum”), such words as “maxi-series”, “maxi-sculpture”, “maxi-taxi” and many others appeared in the language.

When European economic community was organized quite a number of neologisms with the splinter Euro- (“apocope” produced by clipping the word “European”) were coined, such as: “Euratom”, “Eurocard”, “Euromarket”, “Europlug”, “Eurotunnel” and many others. These splinters are treated sometimes as prefixes in Modern English.

There are also splinters which are formed by means of aphaeresis that is clipping the beginning of a word. The origin of such splinters can be variable, e.g. the splinter “burger” appeared in English as the result of clipping the German borrowing “Hamburger” where the morphological structure was the stem “Hamburg” and the suffix “-er”. However in English the beginning of the word “Hamburger” was associated with the English word “ham” and the end of the word “burger” got the meaning “a bun cut into two parts”. On the analogy with the word “hamburger” quite a number of new words were coined, such as: “baconburger”, “beefburger”, “cheeseburger”, “fishburger”, etc.

The splinter “cade” developed by clipping the beginning of the word “cavalcade” which is of Latin origin. In Latin the verb with the meaning “to ride a horse” is “cavalcade” and by means of the inflexion “-cade” the corresponding Participle is formed. So the element “cade” is a combination of the final letter of the stem and the inflexion. The splinter “cade” serves to form nouns with the meaning “connected with the procession of vehicles denoted by the first

component", e.g. "aircade" – "a group of airplanes accompanying the plane of a VIP", "autocade" – "a group of automobiles escorting the automobile of a VIP", "musicade" – "an orchestra participating in a procession".

In the seventieths of the twentieth century there was a political scandal in the hotel "Watergate" where the Democratic Party of the USA had its pre-election headquarters. Republicans managed to install bugs there and when they were discovered there was a scandal and the ruling American government had to resign. The name "Watergate" acquired the meaning "a political scandal", "corruption". On the analogy with this word quite a number of other words were formed by using the splinter "gate" ("aphaeresis" of the word "Watergate"), such as: "Irangate", "Westlandgate", "shuttleagate", "milliongate", etc. The splinter "gate" is added mainly to Proper names: names of people with whom the scandal is connected or a geographical name denoting the place where the scandal occurred.

The splinter "mobile" was formed by clipping the beginning of the word "automobile" and is used to denote special types of automobiles, such as: "artmobile", "bookmobile", "snowmobile", "tourmobile", etc.

The splinter "napper" was formed by clipping the beginning of the word "kidnapper" and is used to denote different types of crimesters, such as: "busnapper", "babynapper", "dognapper", etc. From such nouns the corresponding verbs are formed by means of backformation, e.g. "to busnap", "to babynap", "to dognap".

The splinter "omat" was formed by clipping the beginning of the word "automat" (a cafe in which meals are provided in slot-machines). The meaning "self-service" is used in such words as "Laundromat", "cashomat", etc.

Another splinter "eteria" with the meaning "self-service" was formed by clipping the beginning of the word "cafeteria". By means of the splinter "eteria"

the following words were formed: “groceteria”, “booketeria”, “booteteria” and many others.

The splinter “quake” is used to form new words with the meaning of “shaking”, “agitation”. This splinter was formed by clipping the beginning of the word “earthquake”. The following words were formed with the help of this splinter: “Marsquake”, “Moonquake”, “youthquake”, etc.

The splinter “rama(ama)” is a clipping of the word “panorama” of Greek origin where “pan” means “all” and “orama” means “view”. In Modern English the meaning “view” was lost and the splinter “rama” is used in advertisements to denote objects of supreme quality, e.g. “autorama” means “exhibition-sale of expensive cars”, “trouserama” means “sale of trousers of supreme quality”, etc.

The splinter “scape” is a clipping of the word “landscape” and it is used to form words denoting different types of landscapes, such as: “moonscape”, “streetscape”, “townscape”, “seascape”, etc.

Another case of splinters is “tel” which is the result of clipping the beginning of the word “hotel”. It serves to form words denoting different types of hotels, such as: “motel” (motor-car hotel), “boatel” (boat hotel), “floatel” (a hotel on water, floating), “airtel” (airport hotel), etc.

The splinter “theque” is the result of clipping the beginning of the word “apothèque” of Greek origin which means in Greek “a store house”. In Russian words: “библиотека”, “картотека”, “фильмотека” the element “тека” corresponding to the English “theque” preserves the meaning of storing something which is expressed by the first component of the word. In English the splinter “theque” is used to denote a place for dancing, such as: “discotheque”, “jazzotheque”.

The splinter “thon” is the result of clipping the beginning of the word “marathon”. “Marathon” primarily was the name of a battle-field in Greece,

forty miles from Athens, where there was a battle between the Greek and the Persian. When the Greek won a victory a Greek runner was sent to Athens to tell people about the victory. Later on the word “Marathon” was used to denote long-distance competitions in running. The splinter “thon (athon)” denotes “something continuing for a long time”, “competition in endurance” e.g. “dancathon”, “telethon”, “speakathon”, “readathon”, “walkathon”, “moviethon”, “swimathon”, “talkathon”, “swearthon”, etc.

Splinters can be the result of clipping adjectives or substantivized adjectives. The splinter “aholic” (holic) was formed by clipping the beginning of the word “alcoholic” of Arabian origin where “al” denoted “the”, “koh’l” - “powder for staining lids”. The splinter “(a)holic” means “infatuated by the object expressed by the stem of the word”, e.g. “bookaholic, computerholic, coffeeholic, cheesaholic, workaholic” and many others.

The splinter “genic” formed by clipping the beginning of the word “photogenic” denotes the notion “suitable” for something denoted by the stem, e.g. “allergenic, cardiogenic, mediagenic, telegenic”, etc.

As far as verbs are concerned it is not typical of them to be clipped that is why there is only one splinter to be used for forming new verbs in this way. It is the splinter “cast” formed by clipping the beginning of the verb “broadcast”. This splinter was used to form the verbs “telecast” and “abroadcast”.

Splinters can be called “pseudo-morphemes” because they are neither roots nor affixes; they are more or less artificial. In English there are words which consist of two splinters, e.g. “telethon”, therefore it is more logical to call words with splinters in their structure compound-shortened words consisting of two clippings of words.

Splinters have only one function in English: they serve to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech, whereas prefixes and suffixes can

also change the part-of-speech meaning, e.g. the prefix “en-” and its allomorph “em” can form verbs from noun and adjective stems (“embody, enable, endanger”), “be-” can form verbs from noun and adjective stems (“becloud, benumb”), “post-” and “pre-” can form adjectives from noun stems (“pre-election campaign, post-war events”). The main function of suffixes is to form one part of speech from another part of speech, e.g. “-er, -ing, -ment” form nouns from verbal stems (“teacher, dancing, movement”), “-ness, -ity” are used to form nouns from adjective stems (“clannishness, marginality”).

According to the nature and the number of morphemes constituting a word there are different structural types of words in English: simple, derived, compound, compound-derived.

Simple words consist of one root morpheme and an inflexion (in many cases the inflexion is zero), e.g. “seldom, chairs, longer, asked”.

Derived words consist of one root morpheme, one or several affixes and an inflexion, e.g. “derestricted, unemployed”.

Compound words consist of two or more root morphemes and an inflexion, e.g. “baby-moons, wait-and-see (policy)”.

Compound-derived words consist of two or more root morphemes, one or more affixes and an inflexion, e.g. “middle-of-the-roaders, job-hopper”.

When speaking about the structure of words stems also should be mentioned. The stem is the part of the word which remains unchanged throughout the paradigm of the word, for example: the stem “hop” can be found in the words: “hop, hops, hopped, hopping”. The stem “hippie” can be found in the words: “hippie, hippies, hippie’s, hippies”. The stem “job-hop” can be found in the words: “job-hop, job-hops, job-hopped, job-hopping”.

So stems, the same as words, can be simple, derived, compound and compound-derived. Stems have not only the lexical meaning but also

grammatical (part-of-speech) meaning, they can be noun stems (“girl” in the adjective “girlish”), adjective stems (“girlish” in the noun “girlishness”), verb stems (“expel” in the noun “expellee”), etc. They differ from words by the absence of inflexions in their structure; they can be used only in the structure of words.

Sometimes it is rather difficult to distinguish between simple and derived words, especially in the cases of phonetic borrowings from other languages and of native words with blocked (unique) root morphemes, e.g. “perestroika, cranberry, absence”, etc.

As far as words with splinters are concerned it is difficult to distinguish between derived words and compound-shortened words. If a splinter is treated as an affix (or a semi-affix) the word can be called derived, e.g. “telescreen, maxi-taxi, shuttlegate, cheeseburger”. But if the splinter is treated as a lexical shortening of one of the stems, the word can be called compound-shortened word formed from a word combination where one of the components was shortened, e.g. busnapper” was formed from “bus kidnapper”, “minijet” from “miniature jet”.

In the English language of the second half of the twentieth century there developed so called “block compounds” that is compound words which have a uniting stress but a split spelling, such as “chat show, penguin suit”, etc. Such compound words can be easily mixed up with word-groups of the type “stone wall”, so called nominative binomials.

Such linguistic units serve to denote a notion which is more specific than the notion expressed by the second component and consists of two nouns, the first of which is an attribute to the second one. If we compare a nominative binomial with a compound noun with the structure “noun + noun” we shall see that a nominative binomial has no unity of stress. The change of the order of its components will change its lexical meaning, e.g. “vid kid” is “a kid who is a

video fan” while “kid vid” means “a video-film for kids” or else “lamp oil” means “oil for lamps” and “oil lamp” means “a lamp which uses oil for burning”.

Among language units we can also point out word combinations of different structural types of idiomatic and non-idiomatic character, such as “the first fiddle”, “old salt” and “round table”, “high road”. There are also sentences which are studied by grammarians.

Thus, we can draw the conclusion that in Modern English the following language units can be mentioned: morphemes, splinters, words, nominative binomials, non-idiomatic and idiomatic word-combinations, sentences.

Which Formal or Informal Word Should We Choose?

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Vast use of informal words is one of the prominent features of 20th century English and American informal words appear in dialogues in which they realistically reflect the speech of modern people: “You’re at *some sort of* technical college?” she said to Leo, not looking at him “Yes. I hate it though. I’m *not good enough at maths*. There’s a *chap* there *just down from* Cambridge who *puts us through* it. I can’t *keep up*. Were you good at maths?” “Not bad. But I imagine school maths are different”. “Well, yes, they are. I can’t *cope with* this *stuff* at all, it’s the whole way of thinking that’s beyond me... I think I’m going to *chuck it* and take *a job*.” (“The Time of the Angels”, I. Murdoch).

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

“Fred Hardy was a *bad lot*. Pretty women, chemin de fer, and an unlucky *knack* for *backing* the wrong horse had *landed him in* the bankruptcy court by the time he was twenty-fiveif he thought of his past it was with complacency; he *had had a good time*, he had enjoyed his *ups and downs*; and now, with good health and a clear conscience, he was prepared to settle down as a country gentleman, *damn it*, bring up the *kids* as kids should be brought up; and when the *old buffer* who sat for his *Constituency* *pegged out*, by *George*, go into Parliament himself.” (“Rain and Other Short Stories”, W. S. Maugham).

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

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

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

Literary colloquial words are to be distinguished from familiar colloquial and low colloquial. The borderline between the literary and familiar colloquial is not always clearly marked. Yet the circle of speakers using familiar colloquial is more limited: these words are used mostly by the young and the semi-educated. This vocabulary group closely verges on slang and has something of its coarse flavour. E.g. “doc (for doctor), hi (for how do you do), ta-ta (for good-bye), goings-on (for behaviour, usually with a negative connotation), to kid smb. (for tease, banter), to pick up smb. (for make a quick and easy acquaintance), go on with you (for let me alone), shut up (for keep silent), beat it (for go away)”.

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

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

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

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

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

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

The Oxford English Dictionary defines slang as “language of a highly colloquial style, considered as below the level of standard educated speech, and consisting either of new words or of current words employed in some special sense”. This definition is inadequate because it equates slang with colloquial style. The qualification “highly” can hardly serve as the criterion for distinguishing between colloquial style and slang. Yet, the last line of the definition “current words in some special sense” is important and we shall have to return to this a little later.

Here is another definition of slang by the famous English writer G.K. Chesterton: “The one stream of poetry which in constantly flowing is slang. Every day some nameless poet weaves some fairy tracery of popular language. ...All slang is metaphor, and all metaphor is poetry. ...The world of slang is a kind of topsy-turvydom of poetry, full of blue moons and white elephants, of men losing their heads, and men whose tongues run away with them — a whole chaos of fairy tales”.

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

As to the author's words "all slang is metaphor", it is a true observation, though the second part of the statement "all metaphor is poetry" is difficult to accept, especially if we consider the following examples: mug (for face), saucers, blinkers (for eyes), trap (for mouth, e. g. Keep your trap shut), dogs (for feet), to leg (it) (for to walk). All these meanings are certainly based on metaphor, yet they strike one as singularly unpoetical.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Then one can think why do people use slang? It happens for a number of reasons:

to be picturesque, arresting, striking and, above all, different from others;

to avoid the tedium of outmoded hackneyed “common” words;

to demonstrate one’s spiritual independence and daring;

to sound “modern” and “up-to-date”.

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

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

Dialect Words. H.W.Fowler defines a dialect as “a variety of a language which prevails in a district, with local peculiarities of vocabulary, pronunciation and phrase”. England is a small country, yet it has many dialects which have their own distinctive features (e.g. the Lancashire, Dorsetshire, Norfolk dialects). So, dialects are regional forms of English. Standard English is defined by the Random House Dictionary as the English language as it is written and spoken by literate people in both formal and informal usage and that is universally current while incorporating regional differences.

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

A snobbish attitude to dialect on the part of certain educationalists and scholars has been deplored by a number of prominent linguists. E.Partridge writes: “The writers would be better employed in rejuvenating the literary (and indeed the normal cultured) language by substituting dialectal freshness, force, pithiness, for standard exhaustion, feebleness, long-windedness than in attempting to rejuvenate it with Gallicisms, Germanicisms, Graecisms and Latinisms”.

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

For example: “Na Jess!” - said the acquaintance, taking an imitation calabash pipe out of his mouth and then winking mysteriously. “Na, Jim!”-

returned Mr. Oakroyd. This “Na” which must once have been “Now”, is the recognised salutation in Bruddersford, and the fact that it sounds more like a word of caution than a word of greeting is by no means surprising. You have to be careful in Bruddersford. “Well”, said Jim, falling into step, “what did you think on “em?” “Think on “em!” Mr. Oakroyd made a number of noises with his tongue to show what he thought of them. Bruddersford, the scene of the extract, is easily recognizable as Bradford, Priestley’s birthplace”...

“Ah tell that what it is, Jess,” - said his companion, pointing the stem of his pipe and becoming broader in his Yorkshire as he grew more philosophical. If t’ United¹ had less brass² to lake³ wi’, they’d lake better football. “His eyes searched the past for a moment, looking for the team that had less money and had played better football. Tha can remember when t’ club had niwer⁴ set eyes on two thousand pahnds, when t’ job lot wor not worth two thahsand pahnds, pavilion and all, and what sort of football did they lake then? We know, don’t we? They could gi’ thee¹ summat⁵ worth watching then. Nah, it’s all nowt,⁶ like t’ ale an’ baccy⁷ they ask so mich⁸ for — money fair thrawn away, ah calls it. Well, we mun⁹ ‘a’ wer teas and get ower it. Behave thi-sen/¹⁰ Jess!” And he turned away, for that final word of caution was only one of Bruddersford’s familiar good-byes. (‘Ay’¹¹, replied Mr. Oakroyd dispiritedly. “So long, Jim!”). It is quite natural that their approached a farmer who was standing nearby and asked: “Can we take this road to Sheffield?” The farmer eyed the car and its contents sourly, then: “Aye, you mun as well, you’ve takken nigh everything else around here”.

For explanation: ¹ United - the name of a football team; ¹ tha (thee) - the objective case of thou; ² brass - money; ³ to lake - to play; ⁴ nivver - never; ⁵ summat - something; ⁶ nowt - nothing; ⁷ baccy - tobacco; ⁸ mich - much; ⁹ тип - must; ¹⁰ thi-sen (= thy-self) - yourself; ¹¹ ay(e) - yes.

Formal Style. We have already pointed out that formal style is restricted to formal situations. In general, formal words fall into two main groups: words

associated with professional communication and a less exclusive group of so-called “learned words”.

Learned Words. These words are mainly associated with the printed page. It is in this vocabulary stratum that poetry and fiction find their main resources. The term “learned” is not precise and does not adequately describe the exact characteristics of these words. A somewhat out-of-date term for the same category of words is “bookish”, but, as E.Partridge notes, “book-learned and bookish are now uncomplimentary. The corresponding complementaries are “erudite, learned, scholarly”. “Book-learned” and “bookish” connote “ignorant of life”, however much book-learning one may possess”.

The term “learned” includes several heterogeneous subdivisions of words. We find here numerous words that are used in scientific prose and can be identified by their dry, matter-of-fact flavour (e.g. “comprise, compile, experimental, heterogeneous, homogeneous, conclusive, divergent”, etc.).

To this group also belongs so-called “officialise” (cf. with the Russian “канцеляризмы”). These are the words of the official, bureaucratic language. E.Partridge in his dictionary “Usage and Abusage” gives a list of officiales which he thinks should be avoided in speech and in print. Here are some words from Partridge’s list: assist (for help), endeavour (for try), proceed (for go), approximately (for about), sufficient (for enough), attired (for dressed), inquire (for ask).

In the same dictionary an official letter from a Government Department is quoted which may very well serve as a typical example of officiales. It goes: “You are authorized to acquire the work in question by purchase through the ordinary trade channels”. Which, translated into plain English, would simply mean: “We advise you to buy the book in a shop”.

Probably the most interesting subdivision of learned words is represented by the words found in descriptive passages of fiction. These words, which may

be called “literary”, also have a particular flavour of their own, usually described as “refined”. They are mostly polysyllabic words drawn from the Romance languages and, though fully adapted to the English phonetic system, some of them continue to sound singularly foreign. They also seem to retain an aloofness associated with the lofty contexts in which they have been used for centuries. Their very sound seems to create complex and solemn associations. Here are some examples: “solitude, sentiment, fascination, fastidiousness, facetiousness, delusion, meditation, felicity, elusive, cordial, illusionary”.

There is one further subdivision of learned words: modes of poetic diction. These stand close to the previous group many words from which, in fact, belong to both these categories. Yet, poetic words have a further characteristic - a lofty, high-flown, sometimes archaic, colouring: “Alas! - they had been friends in youth; But whispering tongues can poison truth And *constancy* lives in *realms* above; And life is thorny; and youth is vain; And to be *wroth* with one we love, *Doth* work like madness in the brain...” (Coleridge).

Though learned words are mainly associated with the printed page, this is not exclusively so. Any educated English-speaking individual is sure to use many learned words not only in his formal letters and professional communication but also in his everyday speech. It is true that sometimes such uses strike a definitely incongruous note as in the following extract: “You should find no difficulty in obtaining a secretarial post in the city”. Carrel said “obtaining a post” and not “getting a job”. It was part of a bureaucratic manner which, Muriel noticed, he kept reserved for her”. (“The Time of the Angels”, I. Murdoch).

Yet, generally speaking, educated people in both modern fiction and real life use learned words quite naturally and their speech is certainly the richer for it. On the other hand, excessive use of learned elements in conversational speech presents grave hazards. Utterances overloaded with such words have pretensions

of “refinement” and “elegance” but achieve the exact opposite verging on the absurd and ridiculous.

Writers use this phenomenon for stylistic purposes. When a character in a book or in a play uses too many learned words, the obvious inappropriateness of his speech in an informal situation produces a comic effect. When Lady Bracknell in Oscar Wilde’s “The Importance of Being Earnest” recommends Jack “to make a definite effort to produce at any rate one parent, of either sex, before the season is over”, the statement is funny because the seriousness and precision of the language seems comically out-of-keeping with the informal situation. The following quotations speak for themselves. (The “learned” elements are italicized.)

Gwendolyn in the same play declaring her love for Jack says: “The story of your *romantic origin as related* to me by mamma, with *unpleasing comments*, has naturally *stirred* the deepest *fibres* of my nature. Your Christian name has an *irresistible fascination*. The simplicity of your nature makes you *exquisitely incomprehensible* to me...”

Eliza Doolittle in “Pygmalion” by B. Shaw engaging in traditional English small talk answers the question “Will it rain, do you think?” in the following way: “*The shallow depression* in the west of these islands is likely to move slowly *in an easterly direction*. There are no *indications* of any great change in *the barometrical situation*”.

Freddie Widgeon, a silly young man in *Fate* by Wodehouse, trying to defend a woman whom he thinks unduly insulted, says: “You are *aspersing* a woman’s name”, - he said. “What?! - Don't *attempt to evade the issue*,” said Freddie... “You are aspersing a woman’s name, and what makes it worse you are doing it in a bowler-hat. Take off that hat”, said Freddie.

However any suggestion that learned words are suitable only for comic purposes would be quite wrong. It is in this vocabulary stratum that writers and

poets find their most vivid paints and colours, and not only their humorous effects. Here is an extract from Iris Murdoch describing a *summer* evening: "... A bat had noiselessly *appropriated* the space between, a flittering weaving almost *substanceless fragment* of the *invading* dark. ... A collared dove groaned once in the *final* light. A pink rose *reclining* upon the big box hedge *glimmered* with contained electric *luminosity*. A blackbird, trying to *metamorphose* itself into a nightingale, began a long *passionate complicated* song". ("The Sacred and Profane Love Machine", I. Murdoch).

This piece of modern prose is rich in literary words which underline its stern and reserved beauty. One might even say that it is the selection of words which makes the description what it is: serious, devoid of cheap sentimentality and yet charged with grave forebodings and tense expectation.

As far as passive recognition is concerned, the answer is clear: without knowing some learned words, it is even impossible to read fiction (not to mention scientific articles) or to listen to lectures delivered in the foreign language.

It is also true that some of these words should be carefully selected and "activated" to become part of the students' functional vocabulary.

However, for teaching purposes, they should be chosen with care and introduced into the students' speech in moderation, for, as we have seen, the excessive use of learned words may lead to absurdities.

Professional Terminology. Hundreds of thousands of words belong to special scientific, professional or trade terminological systems and are not used or even understood by people outside the particular speciality. Every field of modern activity has its specialised vocabulary. There is a special medical vocabulary, and similarly special terminologies for psychology, botany, music, linguistics, teaching methods and many others.

Term, as traditionally understood, is a word or a word-group which is specifically employed by a particular branch of science, technology, trade or the arts to convey a concept peculiar to this particular activity. So, “bilingual, interdental, labialization, palatalization, glottal stop, descending scale” are terms of theoretical phonetics.

There are several controversial problems in the field of terminology. The first is the puzzling question of whether a term loses its terminological status when it comes into common usage.

Today this is a frequent occurrence, as various elements of the media of communication (TV, radio, popular magazines, science fiction, etc.) ply people with scraps of knowledge from different scientific fields, technology and the arts. It is quite natural that under the circumstances numerous terms pass into general usage without losing connection with their specific fields.

There are linguists in whose opinion terms are only those words which have retained their exclusiveness and are not known or recognised outside their specific sphere. From this point of view, words associated with the medical sphere, such as “unit” (“dərman dozası”), “theatre” (“əməliyyat otağı”), “contact” (“infeksiyanın daşıyıcısı”) are no longer medical terms as they are in more or less common usage. The same is certainly true about names of diseases or medicines, with the exception of some rare or recent ones only known to medical men.

There is yet another point of view, according to which any terminological system is supposed to include all the words and word-groups conveying concept peculiar to a particular branch of knowledge, regardless of their exclusiveness. Modern research of various terminological systems has shown that there is no impenetrable wall between terminology and the general language system. To the contrary, terminologies seem to obey the same rules and laws as other vocabulary strata.

Therefore, exchange between terminological systems and the “common” vocabulary is quite normal, and it would be wrong to regard a term as something “special” and standing apart.

Two other controversial problems deal with polysemy and synonymy.

According to some linguists, an “ideal” term should be **monosemantic** (i. e. it should have only one meaning).

Polysemantic terms may lead to misunderstanding, and that is a serious shortcoming in professional communication. This requirement seems quite reasonable, yet facts of the language do not meet it. There are, in actual fact, numerous polysemantic terms.

The linguistic term “semantics” may mean both the meaning of a word and the branch of lexicology studying meanings. In the terminology of painting, the term “colour” may denote hue (“rəng”) and, at the same time, “stuff” used for colouring (“boya”).

The same is true about synonymy in terminological systems. There are scholars who insist that terms should not have synonyms because, consequently, scientists and other specialists would name the same objects and phenomena in their field by different terms and would not be able to come to any agreement.

This may be true. But, in fact, terms do possess synonyms. In painting, the same term “colour” has several synonyms in both its meanings: “hue, shade, tint, tinge” in the first meaning “rəng” and “paint, tint, dye” in the second “boya”.

Now we investigate **basic vocabulary**. These words are stylistically neutral, and, in this respect, opposed to formal and informal words described above. Their stylistic neutrality makes it possible to use them in all kinds of situations, both formal and informal, in verbal and written communication.

Certain of the stylistically marked vocabulary strata are, in a way, exclusive: professional terminology is used mostly by representatives of the professions; dialects are regional; slang is favoured mostly by the young and the uneducated. Not so basic vocabulary. These words are used every day, everywhere and by everybody, regardless of profession, occupation, educational level, age group or geographical location.

These are words without which no human communication would be possible as they denote objects and phenomena of everyday importance, for example: “house, bread, summer, winter, child, mother, green, difficult, to go, to stand”, etc.

The basic vocabulary is the central group of the vocabulary, its historical foundation and living core. That is why words of this stratum show a considerably greater stability in comparison with words of the other strata, especially informal.

Basic vocabulary words can be recognised not only by their stylistic neutrality but, also, by entire lack of other connotations, i.e. attendant meanings. Their meanings are broad, general and directly convey the concept, without supplying any additional information.

For instance, the verb “to walk” means merely “to move from place to place on foot” whereas in the meanings of its synonyms “to stride, to stroll, to trot, to stagger” and others, some additional information is encoded as they each describe a different manner of walking, a different gait, tempo, purposefulness or lack of purpose and even length of paces.

Thus, “to walk”, with its direct broad meaning, is a typical basic vocabulary word, and its synonyms, with their elaborate additional information encoded in their meanings, belong to the periphery of the vocabulary.

The basic vocabulary and the stylistically marked strata of the vocabulary do not exist independently but are closely interrelated. Most stylistically marked words have their neutral counterparts in the basic vocabulary.

Terms are an exception in this respect. On the other hand, colloquialisms may have their counterparts among learned words, most slang has counterparts both among colloquialisms and learned words. Archaisms, naturally, have their modern equivalents at least in some of the other groups.

The table gives some examples of such synonyms belonging to different stylistic strata.

Basic vocabulary	Informal	Formal
begin	start, get started	commence
continue	go on, get on	proceed
end	finish, be through, be over	terminate
child, baby	kid, brat, beam (dial.)	infant, babe (poet.)

In teaching a foreign language, the basic vocabulary words comprise the first and absolutely essential part of the students' functional and recognition vocabularies. They constitute the beginner's vocabulary.

Yet, to restrict the student to the basic vocabulary would mean to deprive his speech of colour, expressive force and emotive shades, for, if basic vocabulary words are absolutely necessary, they also decidedly lack something: they are not at all the kind of words to tempt a writer or a poet.

Actually, if the language had none other but basic vocabulary words, fiction would be hardly readable, and poetry simply non-existent.

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

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

Exercises:

I. Consider your answers to the following:

- 1) In what way can one analyse a word a) socially, b) linguistically?
- 2) What are the structural aspects of the word?
- 3) What is the external structure of the word “irresistible?”
- 4) What is the internal structure of this word?
- 5) What is understood by formal unity of a word?
- 6) Why is it not quite correct to say that a word is indivisible?
- 7) Explain why the word “blackboard” can be considered a unity and why the combination of words “a black board” doesn’t possess such a unity.
- 8) What is understood by the semantic unity of a word? Which of the following possesses semantic unity - “a bluebell” in the meaning “zəngçiqəyi” in Russian “колокольчик” or “a blue bell” – “çançiqeyi” in Russian “синий бубенчик”.
- 9) Give a brief account of the main characteristics of a word.
- 10) What are the main problems of lexicology?
- 11) What are the main differences between studying words syntagmatically and paradigmatically?

II. Answer to the questions giving examples:

- 1) What determines the choice of stylistically marked words in each particular situation?
- 2) In what situations are informal words used?
- 3) What are the main kinds of informal words? Give a brief description of each group.

III. Make up a dialogue using colloquial words from your lists and from the extracts given in the chapter:

- a) In the first dialogue, two undergraduates are discussing why one of them has been expelled from his college. (Don't forget that young people use both literary and familiar colloquial words.)
- b) In the second dialogue, the parents of the dismissed student are wondering what to do with him. (Older people, as you remember, are apt to be less informal in their choice of words.)

IV. Consider your answers to the following:

- 1) Where are formal words used?
- 2) Are learned words used only in books? Which type of learned words, do you think, is especially suitable for verbal communication? Which is least suitable and even undesirable?
- 3) What are the principal characteristics of archaic words?
- 4) What are the controversial problems connected with professional terminology?
- 5) Do you think that students of English should learn terms? If it is so, for which branch or branches of knowledge?
- 6) What is understood by the basic vocabulary?
- 7) Which classes of stylistically marked words, in your opinion, should be included in the students' functional and recognition vocabularies in 1) junior and 2) senior school vocabularies?
- 8) What role do learned words play in the language-learning and language-teaching process? Should they be taught?
- 9) Should they be included in the students' functional and recognition vocabularies?

V. The italicized words and word-groups in the following extracts belong to formal style. Describe the stylistic peculiarities of each extract in general and say whether the italicized represents learned words, terms or archaisms. Look up unfamiliar words in the dictionary: “in re” Miss Ernestina Freeman. (Usually in modern correspondence you will find the form *re* [ri:] without the in.)

a) We are *instructed* by Mr. Ernest Freeman, father of the *above-mentioned* Miss Ernestina Freeman, to *request* you to *attend* at these *chambers* at 3 o'clock this coming Friday. Your failure to attend will be regarded as an acknowledgement of our client's right *to proceed*." (From *The French Lieutenant's Woman* by J. Fowles).

b) "I have, with *esteemed* advice ..." Mr. Aubrey bowed briefly towards the sergeant, "... prepared *an admission of guilt*. I should *instruct* you that Mr. Freeman's decision not to proceed immediately is most strictly *contingent* upon your client's signing, on this occasion and in our presence, and witnessed *by all present*, this document".

c) R o m e o ... So shows a snowy dove trooping with crows, As *yonder* lady o'er her fellows shows. The *measure* done, I'll watch her place of stand, And, touching hers, make blessed my rude hand. Did my heart love till now? *Forswear* it, sight! For I ne'er saw true beauty till this night. (Measure (here) – dance).

CHAPTER II

WORDBUILDING

Word–Formation

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

Shortening and Minor Types of Word Formation

Clipping - curtailment – Shortening is not a productive of forming new words. It is changing old words without changing their meaning: biz- business, bus-omnibus. But sometimes a word which has been formed by shortening acquires- receives a new meaning. For example: “cab” was originally a shortened pronunciation of “cabriolet” but now it denotes a quite different kind of vehicle-equipage: “miss and mrs” are quite different in meaning from each other and from the word ‘mistress’ although both are shortened forms from that word.

Word formed by shortening can be divided into 4 groups:

1) words shortened at the beginning: (tele) phone, (aero) plane. They are called aphaeresis- from Greek aphaeresis “a taking away”;

2) words shortened at the end: photo (graph), taxi (motor), bike (bicycle), col(lege) specs(tacles). They are so called “apocope”- Greek word “apokoptein” - cut off. A number of phrases have been made into one word in this way, for instance been shortened at both ends, for example: “Zoo” from “zoological Garden”, “rubbers” - from “rubber - shoes”, “flu” from “influenza” the word which has it exists in the English language as far back as the 15th century newly shortened

words appear continuously; in number of neologisms such as: “demo-demonstration, frig-refrigerator, mike-microphone, telly-TV. In nursery language many shortened words have the diminutive suffix ‘y’ nightly (nightgown), tummy (stomach), hanky (handkerchief)”;

3) shortening is characteristic of college slang. College-slang is rich in clipped words, but the tendency to shorten is by no means limited to college students; tri (gonometry), lab(oratory), prof (essor), exam (ination)”. There are cases when we feel the omission of a letter or unstressed syllable from the middle of a words; it’s “syncope” from Greek “syncope” - “a cutting up”;

4) to the 4th group belong abbreviations when only letters or syllables are taken from words; M.P (member of parliament), T.U (trade union), G.P.O. (General post office), P.S. (Post scriptum).

Affixation

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

Suffixation

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

1) Part-of-speech classification. Suffixes which can form different parts of speech are given here:

a) noun-forming suffixes, such as: -er (criticizer), -dom (officialdom), -ism (ageism);

b) adjective-forming suffixes, such as: -able (breathable), -less (symptomless), -ous (prestigious);

c) verb-forming suffixes, such as -ize (computerize), -ify (micrify);

d) adverb-forming suffixes, such as : -ly (singly), -ward (tableward);

e) numeral-forming suffixes, such as -teen (sixteen), -ty (seventy).

2) Semantic classification. Suffixes changing the lexical meaning of the stem can be subdivided into groups, e.g. noun-forming suffixes can denote:

a) the agent of the action, e.g. -er (experimenter), -ist (taxist), -ent (student);

b) nationality, e.g. -ian (Russian), -ese (Japanese), -ish (English);

c) collectivity, e.g. -dom (moviedom), -ry (peasantry), -ship (readership), -ati (literati);

d) diminutiveness, e.g. -ie (horsie), -let (booklet), -ling (gooseling), -ette (kitchenette);

e) quality, e.g. -ness (copelessness), -ity (answerability).

3) Lexico-grammatical character of the stem. Suffixes which can be added to certain groups of stems are subdivided into:

a) suffixes added to verbal stems, such as : -er (commuter), -ing (suffering), -able (flyable), -ment (involvement), -ation (computerization);

b) suffixes added to noun stems, such as : -less (smogless), -ful (roomful), -ism (adventurism), -ster (pollster), -nik (filmnik), -ish (childish);

c) suffixes added to adjective stems, such as : -en (weaken), -ly (pinkly), -ish (longish), -ness (clannishness).

4) Origin of suffixes. Here we can point out the following groups:

a) native (Germanic), such as: “-er,-ful, -less, -ly”;

b) Romanic, such as: “-tion, -ment, -able, -eer”;

c) Greek, such as: “-ist, -ism, -ize”;

d) Russian, such as: “-nik”.

5) Productivity. Here we can point out the following groups:

a) productive, such as: “-er, -ize, -ly, -ness”;

b) semi-productive, such as: “-eer, -ette, -ward”;

c) non-productive, such as: “-ard (drunkard), -th (length)”.

Suffixes can be polysemantic, such as: “-er” can form nouns with the following meanings: agent, doer of the action expressed by the stem (speaker), profession, occupation (teacher), a device, a tool (transmitter). While speaking about suffixes we should also mention compound suffixes which are added to the stem at the same time, such as: “-ably, -ibly” (terribly, reasonably), -ation” (adaptation from adapt).

There are also disputable cases whether we have a suffix or a root morpheme in the structure of a word, in such cases we call such morphemes semi-suffixes, and words with such suffixes can be classified either as derived words or as compound words, e.g. “-gate (Irangate), -burger (cheeseburger), -aholic (workaholic)”, etc.

Prefixation

Prefixation is the formation of words by means of adding a prefix to the stem. In English it is characteristic for forming verbs. Prefixes are more

independent than suffixes. There are about 51 prefixes in the system of Modern English word-formation.

Prefixes can be classified according to the nature of words in which they are used: prefixes used in notional words and prefixes used in functional words.

Prefixes used in notional words are proper prefixes which are bound morphemes, e.g. “un- unhappy”.

Prefixes used in functional words are semi-bound morphemes because they are met in the language as words, e.g. “over- overhead”, confer: over the table.

The main function of prefixes in English is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech.

But the recent research showed that about twenty-five prefixes in Modern English form one part of speech from another: “bebutton, interfamily, postcollege”, etc.

Prefixes may be classified into several groups on different principles: in accordance with their:

- 1) origin;
- 2) meaning;
- 3) function;
- 4) according to the parts of speech formed.

According to **diachronical classification** there are:

native prefixes, for example: be - beset, mis - misdeed, un - unable, out - outlet, under - undergo, over - overall, after - afterthought.

foreign prefixes, for example: pre - predominate, post - postwar, co - coordinate, inter - interchange, super - superstar, sub - subdivide, pro – proproctor, extra - extraofficial, anti - antiwar, ultra - ultramodern.

Many of the native prefixes were originally independent words, gradually they lost independence and turned into prefixes “out-, under-, over-”.

Prefixes “mis-, un-” have always functioned as prefixes.

In the course of time English has adopted a great many prefixes from foreign languages. One must bear in mind that prefixes are borrowed not separately, but as constituent parts of borrowed words.

Quite a number of borrowed prefixes have become of international currency: “extra-, inter-, sub-, anti-, counter-, super-”.

According to **synchronical classification** we distinguish:

1) according to the meaning:

a) negative prefixes: un - unemployed, non - nonproductive, in - incorrect, dis - disarmament, a - amoral;

b) reversative prefixes: un - unfasten, de - deform, dis - disconnect;

c) prefixes of time and order: fore - foretell, pre - prewar, post - postwar, ex - expresident;

d) prefix of repetition: re - reread;

e) locative prefixes: super - supersonic, sub - subway, inter - intercontinental, trans - transatlantic, over - overcoat;

f) pejorative prefixes: (mənfi mənə çaları ilə): mal - maltreat (insana qarşı özünü köbud, qəddar aparmaq), pseudo - pseudoscientific.

2) according to the part of speech formed, for example: be - belittle, de - deface, detrain, en - entrap, enslave;

3) according to stylistic reference:

a) stylistically neutral (native, Latin),

b) stylistically coloured (some Greek ones).

4) according to productivity: productive “re-, un-, dis-”, nonproductive “a-, for-, with-, forth-”.

There is another view point. Prefixes can be classified according to different principles:

1) Semantic classification:

a) prefixes of negative meaning, such as: “in - invaluable, non- nonformals, un- unfree”;

b) prefixes denoting repetition or reversal actions, such as: “de- decolonize, re- revegetation, dis- disconnect”;

c) prefixes denoting time, space, degree relations, such as: “inter - interplanetary , hyper - hypertension, ex – ex-student, pre - pre-election, over – overdrugging”.

2) according to origin of prefixes:

a) native (Germanic), such as: “un-, over-, under-”;

b) Romanic, such as : “in-, de-, ex-, re-”;

c) Greek, such as: “sym-, hyper-”.

When we analyze such words as: adverb, accompany where we can find the root of the word (verb, company) we may treat “ad-, ac-” as prefixes though they were never used as prefixes to form new words in English and were borrowed from Romanic languages together with words. In such cases we can treat them as derived words. But some scientists treat them as simple words.

Another group of words with a disputable structure are such as: “contain, retain, detain” and “conceive, receive, deceive” where we can see that “re-, de-, con-” act as prefixes and “-tain, -ceive” can be understood as roots.

But in English these combinations of sounds have no lexical meaning and are called **pseudo-morphemes**. Some scientists treat such words as simple words, others as derived ones. There are some prefixes which can be treated as root morphemes by some scientists, e.g. “after-“ in the word “afternoon”. American lexicographers working on Webster dictionaries treat such words as “compound words”. British lexicographers treat such words as “derived” ones.

Composition

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

- a) the unity of stress,
- b) solid or hyphenated spelling,
- c) semantic unity,
- d) unity of morphological and syntactical functioning.

Compound words

These are characteristic features of compound words in all languages. For English compounds some of these factors are not very reliable. As a rule English compounds have one uniting stress (usually on the first component), e.g. hard-cover, best-seller. We can also have a double stress in an English compound, with the main stress on the first component and with a secondary stress on the second component, e.g. blood-vessel. The third pattern of stresses is two level stresses, e.g. snow-white, sky-blue. The third pattern is easily mixed up with word-groups unless they have solid or hyphenated spelling.

Spelling in English compounds is not very reliable as well because they can have different spelling even in the same text, e.g. war-ship, blood-vessel can be spelt through a hyphen and also with a break, insofar, underfoot can be spelt solidly and with a break. All the more so that there has appeared in Modern English a special type of compound words which are called block compounds, they have one uniting stress but are spelt with a break, e.g. “air piracy, cargo module, coin change, penguin suit”, etc.

The semantic unity of a compound word is often very strong. In such cases we have idiomatic compounds where the meaning of the whole is not a sum of meanings of its components, e.g. to ghostwrite, skinhead, brain-drain etc. In non-idiomatic compounds semantic unity is not strong, e. g. “airbus, to bloodtransfuse, astrodynamics”, etc.

English compounds have the unity of morphological and syntactical functioning. They are used in a sentence as one part of it and only one component changes grammatically, e.g. “These girls are chatter-boxes”. “Chatter-boxes” is a predicative in the sentence and only the second component changes grammatically. There are two characteristic features of English compounds:

a) Both components in an English compound are free stems that are they can be used as words with a distinctive meaning of their own. The sound pattern will be the same except for the stresses, e.g. “a green-house” and “a green house” whereas, for example, in Russian compounds the stems are bound morphemes, as a rule;

b) English compounds have a two-stem pattern, with the exception of compound words which have form-word stems in their structure, e.g. “middle-of-the-road, off-the-record, up-and-doing”, etc. The two-stem pattern distinguishes English compounds from German ones.

Compound words in English can be formed not only by means of composition but also by means of:

a) reduplication, e.g. too-too, and also by means of reduplication combined with sound interchange , e.g. rope-ripe;

b) conversion from word-groups, e.g. to micky-mouse, can-do, makeup, etc.;

c) back formation from compound nouns or word-groups, e.g. to bloodtransfuse, to fingerprint, etc.;

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

Classifications of English compounds.

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

a) nouns, such as : baby-moon, globe-trotter;

b) adjectives, such as : free-for-all, power-happy;

c) verbs, such as : to honey-moon, to baby-sit, to henpeck;

d) adverbs, such as: downdeep, headfirst;

e) prepositions, such as: into, within;

f) numerals, such as : fifty-five.

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

a) neutral, which are formed by joining together two stems without any joining morpheme, e.g. ball-point, to windowshop;

b) morphological where components are joined by a linking element: vowels “o” or “I” or the consonant “s”, e.g. “astro-space, handicraft, sportsman”;

c) syntactical where the components are joined by means of form-word stems, e.g. here-and-now, free-for-all., do-or-die .

3. According to their structure compounds are subdivided into:

a) compound words proper which consist of two stems, e.g. to job-hunt, train-sick, go-go, tip-top;

b) derivational compounds, where besides the stems we have affixes, e.g. ear-minded, hydro-skimmer;

c) compound words consisting of three or more stems, e.g. cornflower-blue, eggshell-thin, singer-songwriter;

d) compound-shortened words, e.g. boatel, tourmobile, VJ-day, motocross, intervision, Eurodollar, Camford.

4. According to the relations between the components compound words are subdivided into:

a) subordinate compounds where one of the components is the semantic and the structural centre and the second component is subordinate; these subordinate relations can be different;

b) with comparative relations, e.g. honey-sweet, eggshell-thin, with limiting relations, e.g. breast-high, knee-deep, with emphatic relations, e.g. dog-cheap, with objective relations, e.g. gold-rich, with cause relations, e.g. love-sick, with space relations, e.g. top-heavy, with time relations, e.g. spring-fresh, with subjective relations, e.g. foot-sore, etc.;

c) coordinative compounds where both components are semantically independent. Here belong such compounds when one person (object) has two functions, e.g. secretary-stenographer, woman-doctor, Oxbridge etc. Such compounds are called additive. This group includes also compounds formed by means of reduplication, e.g. fifty-fifty, no-no, and also compounds formed with the help of rhythmic stems (reduplication combined with sound interchange) e.g. “criss-cross, walkie-talkie”.

5. According to the order of the components compounds are divided into compounds with direct order, e.g. kill-joy, and compounds with indirect order, e.g. nuclear-free, rope-ripe.

Conversion

Conversion is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. It is also called affixless derivation or zero-suffixation. The term “conversion” first appeared in the book by Henry Sweet “New English Grammar” in 1891. Conversion is treated differently by different scientists. For example, A.I.Smirntitskiy treats conversion as a morphological way of forming words when one part of speech is formed from another part of speech by changing its paradigm, e.g. to form the verb “to dial” from the noun “dial” we change the paradigm of the noun (a dial, dials) for the paradigm of a regular verb (I dial, he dials, dialed, dialing).

A.Marchand in his book “The Categories and Types of Present-day English” treats conversion as a morphological-syntactical word-building because we have not only the change of the paradigm, but also the change of the syntactic function, e.g. I need some good paper for my room. The noun “paper” is an object in the sentence. I paper my room every year. The verb “paper” is the predicate in the sentence

Conversion is the main way of forming verbs in Modern English. Verbs can be formed from nouns of different semantic groups and have different meanings because of that, for example:

a) verbs have instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting parts of a human body e.g. to eye, to finger, to elbow, to shoulder, etc. They have

instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting tools, machines, instruments, weapons, e.g. “to hammer, to machine-gun, to rifle, to nail”;

b) verbs can denote an action characteristic of the living being denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, e.g. “to crowd, to wolf, to ape”;

c) verbs can denote acquisition, addition or deprivation if they are formed from nouns denoting an object, e.g. “to fish, to dust, to peel, to paper”;

d) verbs can denote an action performed at the place denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, e.g. “to park, to garage, to bottle, to corner, to pocket”;

e) verbs can denote an action performed at the time denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, e.g. “to winter, to week-end”.

Verbs can be also converted from adjectives, in such cases they denote the change of the state, e.g. “to tame (to become or make tame), to clean, to slim”, etc.

Nouns can also be formed by means of conversion from verbs. Converted nouns can denote:

a) instant of an action e.g. a jump, a move;

b) process or state e.g. sleep, walk;

c) agent of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. a help, a flirt, a scold;

d) object or result of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. a burn, a find, a purchase;

e) place of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. a drive, a stop, a walk.

Many nouns converted from verbs can be used only in the Singular form and denote momentary actions. In such cases we have partial conversion. Such

deverbal nouns are often used with such verbs as: to have, to get, to take - to have a try, to give a push, to take a swim.

Abbreviations

In the process of communication words and word-groups can be shortened. The causes of shortening can be linguistic and extra-linguistic. By extra-linguistic causes changes in the life of people are meant. In Modern English many new abbreviations, acronyms, initials, blends are formed because the tempo of life is increasing and it becomes necessary to give more and more information in the shortest possible time.

There are also linguistic causes of abbreviating words and word-groups, such as the demand of rhythm, which is satisfied in English by monosyllabic words. When borrowings from other languages are assimilated in English they are shortened. Here we have modification of form on the basis of analogy, e.g. the Latin borrowing “fanaticus” is shortened to “fan” on the analogy with native words: man, pan, tan, etc.

There are two main types of shortenings: **graphical and lexical**.

Graphical abbreviations are the result of shortening of words and word-groups only in written speech while orally the corresponding full forms are used. They are used for the economy of space and effort in writing.

The oldest group of graphical abbreviations in English is of Latin origin. In Russian this type of abbreviation is not typical. In these abbreviations in the spelling Latin words are shortened, while orally the corresponding English equivalents are pronounced in the full form, e.g. for example (Latin example gratia), a.m. - in the morning (ante meridiem), No - number (numero), p.a. - a year (per annum), d - penny (dinarius), lb - pound (libra), i. e. - that is (id est), etc.

Some graphical abbreviations of Latin origin have different English equivalents in different contexts, e.g. p.m. can be pronounced “in the afternoon” (post meridiem) and “after death” (post mortem).

There are also graphical abbreviations of native origin, where in the spelling we have abbreviations of words and word-groups of the corresponding English equivalents in the full form. We have several semantic groups of them:

- a) days of the week, e.g. Mon - Monday, Tue – Tuesday, etc.
- b) names of months, e.g. Apr - April, Aug – August, etc.
- c) names of counties in UK, e.g. Yorks - Yorkshire, Berks –Berkshire, etc.
- d) names of states in USA, e.g. Ala - Alabama, Alas – Alaska, etc.
- e) names of address, e.g. Mr., Mrs., Ms., Dr., etc.
- f) military ranks, e.g. capt. -captain, col. - colonel, sgt – sergeant, etc.
- g) scientific degrees, e.g. B.A. - Bachelor of Arts, D.M. - Doctor of Medicine. (Sometimes in scientific degrees we have abbreviations of Latin origin, e.g., M.B. - Medicinae Baccalaurus).
- h) units of time, length, weight, e.g. f. / ft -foot/feet, sec. - second, in. -inch, mg. – milligram, etc.

The reading of some graphical abbreviations depends on the context, e.g. “m” can be read as: male, married, masculine, metre, mile, million, minute, “l.p.” can be read as long-playing, low pressure.

Initial abbreviations, initialisms are the bordering case between graphical and lexical abbreviations. When they appear in the language, as a rule, to denote some new offices they are closer to graphical abbreviations because orally full forms are used, e.g. J.V. - joint venture. When they are used for some duration of time they acquire the shortened form of pronouncing and become closer to lexical abbreviations, e.g. BBC is as a rule pronounced in the shortened form.

In some cases the translation of initialisms is next to impossible without using special dictionaries. Initialisms are denoted in different ways. Very often they are expressed in the way they are pronounced in the language of their origin, e.g. ANZUS (Australia, New Zealand, United States) is given in Russian as АНЗУС, SALT (Strategic Arms Limitation Talks) was for a long time used in Russian as СОЛТ, now a translation variant is used (ОСВ - Договор об ограничении стратегических вооружений). This type of initialisms borrowed into other languages is preferable, e.g. UFO - НЛО, СП - JV etc.

There are three types of initialisms in English:

- a) initialisms with alphabetical reading, such as UK, BUP, CND etc
- b) initialisms which are read as if they are words, e.g. UNESCO, UNO, NATO etc.
- c) initialisms which coincide with English words in their sound form, such initialisms are called acronyms, e.g. CLASS (Computer-based Laboratory for Automated School System).

Some scientists unite groups b) and c) into one group which they call acronyms. Some initialisms can form new words in which they act as root morphemes by different ways of wordbuilding:

- a) affixation, e.g. AWALism, ex-rafer, ex- POW, to waafize, AIDSophobia, etc.
- b) conversion, e.g. to raff, to fly IFR (Instrument Flight Rules),
- c) composition, e.g. STOLport, USAFman, etc.
- d) there are also compound-shortened words where the first component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical reading and the second one is a complete word, e.g. A-bomb, U-pronunciation, V -day etc. In some cases the first component is a complete word and the second component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical pronunciation, e.g. Three -Ds (Three dimensions) – stereofilm.

Abbreviation of words consists in clipping a part of a word. As a result we get a new lexical unit where either the lexical meaning or the style is different from the full form of the word. In such cases as “fantasy” and “fancy”, “fence” and “defence” we have different lexical meanings. In such cases as “laboratory” and “lab”, we have different styles.

Abbreviation does not change the part-of-speech meaning, as we have it in the case of conversion or affixation, it produces words belonging to the same part of speech as the primary word, e.g. “prof.” is a noun and professor is also a noun. Mostly nouns undergo abbreviation, but we can also meet abbreviation of verbs, such as to rev from to revolve, to tab from to tabulate etc. But mostly abbreviated forms of verbs are formed by means of conversion from abbreviated nouns, e.g. “to taxi, to vac”, etc. Adjectives can be abbreviated but they are mostly used in school slang and are combined with suffixation, e.g. “comfy, dilly, mizzly”, etc. As a rule pronouns, numerals, interjections, conjunctions are not abbreviated. The exceptions are: fif (fifteen), teen-ager, in one’s teens (aphaeresis from numerals from 13 to 19).

Lexical abbreviations are classified according to the part of the word which is clipped. Mostly the end of the word is clipped, because the beginning of the word in most cases is the root and expresses the lexical meaning of the word. This type of abbreviation is called apocope. Here we can mention a group of words ending in “o”, such as disco (discotheque), expo (exposition), intro (introduction) and many others.

On the analogy with these words there developed in Modern English a number of words where “o” is added as a kind of a suffix to the shortened form of the word, e.g. combo (combination) – balaca estrada ansamblı, Afro (African) – afrikanlı kimi saç düzüümü, etc. In other cases the beginning of the word is clipped. In such cases we have aphaeresis, e.g. chute (parachute), varsity (university), copter (helicopter), thuse (enthuse), etc.

Sometimes the middle of the word is clipped, e.g. mart (market), fanzine (fan magazine) maths (mathematics). Such abbreviations are called syncope. Sometimes we have a combination of apocope with aphaeresis, when the beginning and the end of the word are clipped, e.g. tec (detective), van (avant-garde), etc.

Sometimes shortening influences the spelling of the word, e.g. “c” can be substituted by “k” before “e” to preserve pronunciation, e.g. mike (microphone), Coke (coca-cola), etc. The same rule is observed in the following cases: fax (facsimile), teck (technical college), trunk (tranquilizer), etc. The final consonants in the shortened forms are substituted by letters characteristic of native English words.

Criteria of Semantic Derivation

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

1) If the lexical meaning of the root morpheme and the lexico-grammatical meaning of the stem coincide the word is primary, e.g. in cases pen - to pen, father - to father the nouns are names of an object and a living being.

Therefore in the nouns “pen” and “father” the lexical meaning of the root and the lexico-grammatical meaning of the stem coincide. The verbs “to pen” and “to father” denote an action, a process therefore the lexico-grammatical meanings of the stems do not coincide with the lexical meanings of the roots. The verbs have a complex semantic structure and they were converted from nouns.

2) If we compare a converted pair with a synonymic word pair which was formed by means of suffixation we can find out which of the pair is primary. This criterion can be applied only to nouns converted from verbs, e.g. “chat” n. and “chat” v. can be compared with “conversation” - “converse”.

3) The criterion based on derivational relations is of more universal character. In this case we must take a word-cluster of relative words to which the converted pair belongs.

If the root stem of the word-cluster has suffixes added to a noun stem the noun is primary in the converted pair and vice versa, for instance in the word-cluster: hand n., hand v., handy, handful the derived words have suffixes added to a noun stem, that is why the noun is primary and the verb is converted from it. In the word-cluster: dance n., dance v., dancer, dancing we see that the primary word is a verb and the noun is converted from it.

Reduplication

Some words have been produced by the repetition of a stem or some combinations of letters. Such words are not numerous but they can be found almost in every language and they are usually very expressive having some emotional coloring, for example:

talky - talky

murmur - to pooh, pooh

Very often reduplication is combined with sound interchanges:

ship- shape

slip-slap

pell –mile

harm- scarum

tell-tale

All these words used in conversation to make a person's speech rather colorful and expressive.

Sentence – Condensation

It is characteristic of English that whole expressions (sentence) can be substantivized, for example: forget-me-not; kiss-in-the-ring = sıçan-pişik, merry – go-round. These words are often used jocularly for stylistic purposes.

The Creation of New Roots

It is a very rare case that new words produced out of sounds. For example: the word “gas” was invented by the Dutch Chemist; the word “blatant”- “səs-küylü” by Spencer. The latest invention of this kind is “nylon”.

Substantivization of Adjectives

Some scientists (Jespersen, Kruisinga) refer substantivization of adjectives to conversion. But most scientists disagree with them because in cases of substantivization of adjectives we have quite different changes in the language. Substantivization is the result of ellipsis (syntactical shortening) when a word combination with a semantically strong attribute loses its semantically weak noun

(man, person etc), e.g. «a grown-up person» is shortened to «a grown-up». In cases of perfect substantivization the attribute takes the paradigm of a countable noun , e.g. a criminal, criminals, a criminal's (mistake) , criminals' (mistakes). Such words are used in a sentence in the same function as nouns, e.g. I am fond of musicals (musical comedies).

There are also two types of partly substantivized adjectives:

a) those which have only the plural form and have the meaning of collective nouns, such as: sweets, news, empties, finals, greens;

b) those which have only the singular form and are used with the definite article. They also have the meaning of collective nouns and denote a class, a nationality, a group of people, e.g. the rich, the English, the dead.

Exercises:

Consider your answers to the following:

- 1) How many main ways of word building in Modern English do you know?
- 2) What is the shortening? Give some examples.
- 3) Speak about affixation, suffixation and prefixation.
- 4) The classification of suffixes. Origin of suffixes.
- 5) Diachronical and synchronical classifications of prefixes.
- 6) What does it mean “pseudo-morphemes”?
- 7) What do you know about composition?
- 8) Describe the main specific characteristic features of compound words in Modern English.

- 9) Conversion as the main way of forming verbs in Modern English.
- 10) Explain the difference between graphical and lexical abbreviations.
- 11) The main criterion of semantic derivation.
- 12) Characterize the process of “reduplication”.
- 13) Expose “sentence – condensation” in Modern English.
- 14) Speak about causes of the creation of new roots.
- 15) Disclose the essence and peculiarities of the phenomenon of “substantivization”.

CHAPTER III

SECONDARY WAYS OF WORDBUILDING

Sound – Interchange

Sound interchange is the way of word-building when some sounds are changed to form a new word. It is non-productive in Modern English. It was productive in Old English and can be met in other Indo-European languages.

The causes of sound interchange can be different. It can be the result of Ancient Ablaut which cannot be explained by the phonetic laws during the period of the language development known to scientists, e.g. to strike - stroke, to sing - song etc. It can be also the result of Ancient Umlaut or vowel mutation which is the result of palatalizing the root vowel because of the front vowel in the syllable coming after the root (regressive assimilation), e.g. hot - to heat (hotian), blood - to bleed (blodian), etc.

In many cases we have vowel and consonant interchange. In nouns we have voiceless consonants and in verbs we have corresponding voiced consonants because in Old English these consonants in nouns were at the end of the word and in verbs in the intervocal position, e.g. bath - to bathe, life - to live, breath - to breathe, etc.

It's an old way of word building (it is no productive now) and doesn't serve to enrich the English vocabulary. The interchange of vowels is called gradation. Some verbs more formed in this way from nouns and adjectives:

food - feed

blood - to bleed

full - to fill

In the some way some causative verbs were formed from the intransitive ones:

to lie (action) - to lay

to sit - to set

to rise – raise

Gradation

Sometimes gradation is accompanied by affixation vowels mutation sincere (adjective), for example:

sincerity long - length

strong - strength

Gradation is characteristic of Germanic language but in some words of Romantic origin, which have entered the English vocabulary we also find this phenomenon (nature - natural, notion - notional) sometimes the interchange of consonants is found in the formation of some verbs from nouns use(n) - to use, house - to house. Sometimes it is reflected in spelling:

belief (n) - to believe (v)

advice (n) - to advise (v)

loss (n) - to lose (v)

Sound – Interchange

Stress interchange can be mostly met in verbs and nouns of Romanic origin: nouns have the stress on the first syllable and verbs on the last syllable, e.g. `accent - to ac`cent. This phenomenon is explained in the following way: French verbs and

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

The Imitation of Sounds Words

This is the formation of new words on the basis of imitating the sounds of nature. This method does not give many words but it is known in many languages. For instance: “cuckoo, to buzz, to hiss, to moo, to whiz, to bang”, these examples show that the reduplication of sounds differ in different languages. But there are some direct imitations which coincide, for example: “to cuckoo, to miau, to giggle, to rub-a-dub”. Clatter of dishes, jangling of bells roar of the storm swish of waves.

It is the way of word-building when a word is formed by imitating different sounds. There are some semantic groups of words formed by means of sound imitation:

a) sounds produced by human beings, such as : to whisper, to giggle, to mumble, to sneeze, to whistle, etc.

b) sounds produced by animals, birds, insects, such as : to hiss, to buzz, to bark, to moo, to twitter, etc.

c) sounds produced by nature and objects, such as : to splash, to rustle, to clatter, to bubble, to ding-dong, to tinkle, etc.

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

Blends or Portmanteau Words

Blends are words formed from a word-group or two synonyms. In blends two ways of word-building are combined: abbreviation and composition. To form a blend we clip the end of the first component (apocope) and the beginning of the second component (aphaeresis). As a result we have a compound- shortened word. One of the first blends in English was the word «smog» from two synonyms: smoke and fog which means smoke mixed with fog. From the first component the beginning is taken, from the second one the end, “o” is common for both of them.

Blends formed from two synonyms are: slanguage, to hustle, gasohol etc. Mostly blends are formed from a word-group, such as: acromania (acronym mania), cinemadict (cinema addict), chunnel (channel, canal), dramedy (drama comedy), detectifiction (detective fiction), faction (fact fiction) (fiction based on real facts), informecial (information commercial), Medicare (medical care), magalog (magazine catalogue) slimnastics (slimming gymnastics), sociolite (social elite), slanguist (slang linguist), etc.

Blendings or Portmanteau Words as Lewis Carroll called them (“Alice in Wonderland”, “Through the Looking Glass” and “The Hunting of the Shark”) are words made of two words. The noun “smog” is made of the noun “smoke” and “fog”. Thus blending is in fact compounding by means of clipped (shortened) words:

flush = flash+ blush

brunch= breakfast + lunch

slanguage = slang + language

smaze = smoke + haze

transistor = transfer + resistor

Back-Formation

Back-formation or **Reversion** is a process when short words are formed out of words. The process of back-formation has been a source of short words in the past and is an active process of the present time. There are words in English which own being mistaken for some derivative suffix or more rarely a prefix. For example: “to edit” from the noun “editor”. Very often the ending “y” is omitted for example: from “greedy” the noun “greed” is formed, from “lazy” – “laze”, from “easy” – “ease”, “to enthuse” from “enthusiasm”, “to sculpt-sculptor”.

It is the way of word-building when a word is formed by dropping the final morpheme to form a new word. It is opposite to suffixation that is why it is called back formation. At first it appeared in the language as a result of misunderstanding the structure of a borrowed word.

V.N.Yartseva explains this mistake by the influence of the whole system of the language on separate words. E.g. it is typical of English to form nouns denoting the agent of the action by adding the suffix “-er” to a verb stem “speak” – “speaker”. So when the French word “beggar” was borrowed into English the final syllable “-ar” was pronounced in the same way as the English “-er” and Englishmen formed the verb “to beg” by dropping the end of the noun.

The earliest examples of this type of word-building are the verb “to beg” that was made from the French borrowing “beggar”, “to burgle” from “burglar”, “to cobble” from “cobbler”. In all these cases the verb was made from the noun by

subtracting what was mistakenly associated with the English suffix “-er”. The pattern of the type “to work - worker” was firmly established in the subconscious of English-speaking people at the time when these formations appeared, and it was taken for granted that any noun denoting profession or occupation is certain to have a corresponding verb of the same root.

So, in the case of the verbs “to beg, to burgle, to cobble” the process was reversed: instead of a noun made from a verb by affixation as “in painter” from “to paint”, a verb was produced from a noun by subtraction. That is why this type of word-building received the name of “back-formation” or “reversion”.

Later examples of back-formation are “to butle” from “butler”, “to baby-sit” from “baby-sitter”, “to force-land” from “forced landing”, “to blood-transfuse” from “blood-transfusing”. For instance:

“My room is up in a tower. There are *three* other *girls* on the same floor of the tower — a *Senior* who wears spectacles and is *always* asking us please to be a little more quiet, and two *Freshmen* named Sallie McBride and Julia Rutledge Pendleton. Sallie has *red* hair and a *turn-up nose* and is quite *friendly*; Julia comes from one of the first families in New York and hasn't noticed me yet. *They room* together and the Senior and I have *singles*”.

“*Usually* Freshmen can't get singles; they are very few, but I got one without even asking. I suppose the register didn't think it would *be* right to ask a *properly* brought up girl to room with a *foundling*. You see there are *advantages*”.

(“Daddy-Long-Legs”, J.Webster)

Other examples of back formation are: “to accreditate” from “accreditation”, “to bach” from “bachelor”, “to collocate” from “collocation”, “to enthuse” from “enthusiasm”, “to compute” from “computer”, “to emote” from “emotion”, “to reminisce” from “reminiscence”, “to televise” from “television”, etc.

As we can notice in cases of back formation the part-of-speech meaning of the primary word is changed, verbs are formed from nouns.

“Stone wall” combinations

The problem whether adjectives can be formed by means of conversion from nouns is the subject of many discussions.

In Modern English there are a lot of word combinations of the type, e.g. “price rise, wage freeze, steel helmet, sand castle”, etc.

If the first component of such units is an adjective converted from a noun, combinations of this type are free word-groups typical of English (adjective + noun). This point of view is proved by O. Jespersen by the following facts:

- 1) “stone” denotes some quality of the noun “wall”;
- 2) “stone” stands before the word it modifies, as adjectives in the function of an attribute do in English;
- 3) “stone” is used in the Singular though its meaning in most cases is plural, and adjectives in English have no plural form;
- 4) there are some cases when the first component is used in the Comparative or the Superlative degree, e.g. the bottomest end of the scale;
- 5) the first component can have an adverb which characterizes it, and adjectives are characterized by adverbs, e.g. a purely family gathering;
- 6) the first component can be used in the same syntactical function with a proper adjective to characterize the same noun, e.g. lonely bare stone houses;
- 7) after the first component the pronoun “one” can be used instead of a noun, e.g. I shall not put on a silk dress, I shall put on a cotton one.

However Henry Sweet and some other scientists say that these criteria are not characteristic of the majority of such units. They consider the first component of such units to be a noun in the function of an attribute because in Modern English almost all parts of speech and even word-groups and sentences can be used in the

function of an attribute, e.g. the then president (an adverb), out-of-the-way villages (a word-group), a devil-may-care speed (a sentence).

There are different semantic relations between the components of “stone wall” combinations. E.I. Chapnik classified them into the following groups:

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

Exercises:

Consider your answers to the following:

- 1) Name secondary ways of wordbuilding in Modern English.
- 2) Can you analyse sound-interchange?
- 3) What is gradation?
- 4) What do you know about stress interchange?
- 5) What is the imitation of sound words?
- 6) What are blends or portmanteau words?
- 7) What is understood by “back formation”?
- 8) Why is it not quite correct to say that a word is indivisible?
- 9) Explain why the “stone wall” combinations.
- 10) Describe the difference of O.Jespersen’s and E.I. Chapnik’s classifications of “stone walls” combinations.

CHAPTER IV

SEMANTIC CHANGES

The meaning of a word changes over time. If the history of semantic change had to be summed up as one process, it would be that of specialization. The Anglo Saxons 1500 years ago made do with perhaps 30.000 words in their complete vocabulary, while Modern English has anywhere from 50.000 to a million words, depending on whether or not scientific vocabularies are included.

“In the beginning was the Word, and the Word was God, and the Word was with God”. It could be argued that originally there was one word, from which all others have sprung. The origins of language will never be known, but the first language probably had a vocabulary of a few hundred words, providing a rich enough vocabulary for a primitive people who had few materials and fewer abstract concepts. Many of the words of the first languages had very broad senses of meaning.

For instance, the word “inspire” is from the Latin “inspirare”, which literally means “to breathe into”. Its archaic meaning is “to breathe life into”, with newer meanings like “to be the cause of”, “to elicit”, “to move to action”, “to exalt” and “to guide by the divine influence”. Now if a minister were to speak of Adam as dust inspired, he might mean by that not just that the dust is having life breathed into it (the original etymological meaning), but also that the dust is being exalted and given form, that it is being moved to action, and that it is being divinely guided (these are the metaphorical or extended meanings). In other words, this minister might not mean just one of the definitions of inspired but all of them simultaneously.

Changes of lexical meanings can be proved by comparing contexts of different times. 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 can 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, e.g. 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, e.g. 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.

The example everyone knows is “gay”, which originally meant “merry”, but because some people are a little too merry came to mean “wanton”, and because some people are a little too wanton came to mean “homosexual”, which is the sense almost exclusively used now.

Semantic changes have been classified by different scientists. The most complete classification was suggested by a German scientist Herman Paul in his work “Prinzipien der Sprachgeschichte”. 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 also secondary ways: gradual (elevation and degradation), momentary (hyperbole and litote).

At the simplest level, words do undergo only two types of meaning change, not amelioration and pejoration, but generalization (a word's meaning widens to include new concepts) and specialization (a word's meaning contracts to focus on fewer concepts).

Generalization

Also known as extension, generalization is the use of a word in a broader realm of meaning than it originally possessed, often referring to all items in a class, rather than one specific term. For instance, "place" derives from Latin "platea", "broad street", but its meaning grew broader than the street, to include "a particular city", "a business office", "an area dedicated to a specific purpose" before broadening even wider to mean "area". In the process, the word "place" displaced the Old English word "stow" and became used instead of the Old English word "stede" (which survives in *stead*, *steadfast*, *steady* and, of course, *instead*).

Generalization or broadening of meaning is a process contrary to specialization in such cases the meaning of a word becomes more general in the course of time.

Sometimes, the process of transference may result in a considerable change in range of meaning. For instance, the verb "to arrive" French borrowing began its life in English in the narrow meaning "to come to shore, to land".

In Modern English it has greatly widened its combinability and developed the general meaning "to come" for instance: "to arrive in a village, town, city, country, at a hotel, hostel, college, theatre, place", etc.). The meaning developed

through transference based on contiguity (the concept of coming somewhere is the same for both meanings), but the range of the second meaning is much broader.

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

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

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

In Middle English it had the meaning of “a small child of either sex”. Then the word underwent the process of transference based on contiguity and developed the meaning of “a small child of the female sex”, so that the range of meaning was somewhat narrowed. In its further semantic development the word gradually broadened its range of meaning.

At first it came to denote not only a female child but, also, a young unmarried woman, later, any young woman, and in modern colloquial English it is practically synonymous to the noun “woman”. For example: “The old girl must be at least seventy”, so that its range of meaning is quite broad.

The history of the noun “lady” somewhat resembles that of “girl”. In Old English the word (OE *hlæfdiZe*) denoted “the mistress of the house”, i. e. any married woman. Later, a new meaning developed which was much narrower in range: “the wife or daughter of a baronet” (aristocratic title).

In Modern English the word “lady” can be applied to any woman, so that its range of meaning is even broader than that of the OE hlæfdiZe. In Modern English the difference between “girl” and “lady” in the meaning of “woman” is that the first is used in colloquial style and sounds familiar whereas the second is more formal and polite. Here are some more examples of narrowing of meaning:

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

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

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

The transfer from a concrete meaning to an abstract one is most frequent, e.g. “ready” (a derivative from the verb “ridan – ride”) meant “prepared for a ride”, now its meaning is “prepared for anything”. “Journey” was borrowed from French with the meaning “one day trip”, now it means “a trip of any duration”.

All auxiliary verbs are cases of generalization of their lexical meaning because they developed a grammatical meaning: “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. Confer: “I have several books by this writer” and “I have read some books by this author”. In the first sentence the verb “have” has the meaning “possess”, in the second sentence it has no lexical meaning, its grammatical meaning is to form Present Perfect.

It should be pointed out once more that in all these words the second meaning developed through transference based on contiguity.

Specialization

The opposite of generalization, specialization is the narrowing of a word to refer to what previously would have been but one example of what it referred to.

For instance, the word meat originally referred to “any type of food”, but came to mean “the flesh of animals as opposed to the flesh of fish”. The original sense of meat survives in terms like “mincemeat” – “chopped apples and spices used as a pie filling”; “sweetmeat”, “candy”; and “nutmeat”, “the edible portion of a nut”. When developing your model language, it is meet to leave compounds untouched, even if one of their morphemes has undergone specialization (or any other meaning change).

Word	Old Meaning
Affection	emotion
Deer	animal
Forest	countryside
Girl	a young person
Starve	to die

Specialization or narrowing of meaning 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 specialized in its meaning when used in law (a law suit), 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 the general usage. It happens in the case of the conflict between two absolute synonyms when one of them must specialize in its meaning to remain in the language, e.g. the native word “meat” had the meaning “food”, this meaning is preserved in the compound “sweetmeats”. The meaning “edible flesh” was formed when the word “food”, its absolute synonym, won in the conflict of absolute synonyms (both words are native). The English verb “starve” was specialized in its meaning after the Scandinavian verb “die” was borrowed into English. “Die” became the general

verb with this meaning because in English there were the noun “death” and the adjective “dead”. “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 toponyms, e.g. the City - the business part of London, Oxford - university town in England, the Tower -originally a fortress and palace, later -a prison, now - a museum.

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. Due to it the attribute can be dropped and the noun can get the meaning of the whole word-group, e.g. “room” originally meant “space”, this meaning is retained in the adjective “roomy” and word combinations: “no room for”, “to take room”, “to take no room”. 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”.

The word undertaker originally meant “one who undertakes a task, especially one who is an entrepreneur”. This illustrates **contextual specialization**, where the meaning of a word is reshaped under pressure from another word that had frequently co-occurred with it: thus undertaker acquired its meaning from constant use of the phrase “funeral undertaker”; eventually, under the pressure towards euphemism, the word “funeral” was dropped.

Another example of contextual specialization is “doctor”, which originally meant “a teacher” and then later “an expert”, where it came to be used in the phrase “medical doctor”; now of course this is redundant and medical is omitted, with the primary sense of doctor having become more specialized.

Pejoration

Pejoration is a process by which a word's meaning worsens or degenerates, coming to represent something less favorable than it originally did. Most of the words in Suffield's poem have undergone pejoration.

For instance, the word "silly" begins Suffield's poem and meant in Old English times "blessed", which is why Suffield calls his poem a beatitude (Christ's beatitudes begin with "blessed are the..."). How did a word meaning "blessed" come to mean "silly"? Well, since people who are blessed are often innocent and guileless, the word gradually came to mean "innocent".

And some of those who are innocent might be innocent because they haven't the brains to be anything else. And some of those who are innocent might be innocent because they knowingly reject opportunities for temptation. In either case, since the more worldly-wise would take advantage of their opportunities, the innocents must therefore be foolish, which of course is the current primary meaning of the word "silly".

Amelioration

Amelioration is the process by which a word's meaning improves or becomes elevated, coming to represent something more favorable than it originally referred to.

In what for Suffield is the greatest example of amelioration, the early Old English word "hlōfweard", which if translated using its descendant words would be rendered "loaf ward", meant "the keeper of the bread" and was applied to the head of a household. Although "keeper of the bread" might bear witness to the importance of that most basic of foodstuffs to early Anglo-Saxons, alternatively

one might argue that it had no more literal sense than “bread” does in the modern word “breadwinner”. The word “hlōfweard” has been shortened over time “hlōford” and then to “lord”. Over time, the word has been used of not just any head of household but of princes and nobility; this sense was extended to include “the Prince of Light, God”.

Metaphor

Metaphor is a transfer of the meaning on the basis of comparison. Metaphorical extension is almost a natural process undergone by every word. We don't even think of it as meaning change.

George Lakoff, Michael Johnson said: “We live our lives on the basis of inferences we derive via metaphor”.

Metaphor is defined as the substitution of one idea or object with another, used to assist expression or understanding. Metaphor is hidden comparison, where we combine the powers of lexical meanings by transferring properties from one concept to another.

Sheldon Kopp states: “A metaphor is defined as a way of speaking in which one thing is expressed in terms of another, whereby this bringing together throws new light on the character of what is being described”.

The essence of metaphor is understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another.

Metaphor is a natural element of language that helps us understand new and / or abstract concepts and construct new conceptual domains. For example: the word “memory” in the meaning “a device in a computer designed to accept, store and recall information; storage capacity of a computer, a disk, etc.” help us understand (probably in a very approximate way) how it works.

Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature. Conceptual metaphor is a natural part of human thought, and linguistic metaphor is a natural part of human language. We make connections between things by finding some form of commonality they may have. This simple process starts at an early age in life, usually with physically similar terms, for example: a child may use a box as a house, or a cat may use a ball of yarn as a mouse. They tend to be pre-linguistic and make basic assumptions regarding space, time, moving, controlling and other core elements of human experience.

The processes which are involved in the generation and comprehension of metaphor arise naturally out of the workings of the cognitive system as a whole. Metaphor is central to the workings of both our language and general cognitive faculties. Metaphor is at the root of our creative powers, serving a cognitive function. It organizes our memories and shapes our experience.

A great deal of everyday conventional language is metaphorical. For example: “I’m crazy about her. She drives me out of my mind. Love is madness”.

Metaphorical extension is extension of meaning in a new direction through popular adoption of an originally metaphorical meaning. The crane at a construction site was given its name by comparison to the long-necked bird of the same name. When the meaning of the word “daughter” was first extended from that of “one’s female child” to “a female descendant” (as in daughter of Eve), the listener might not have even noticed that the meaning had been extended.

In its less obvious instances, we don’t even see it as extending the meaning change.

Herman Paul points out that metaphor can be based on different types of similarity:

a) similarity of shape, e.g. head (of a cabbage), bottleneck, teeth (of a saw, a comb);

b) similarity of position, e.g. foot (of a page, of a mountain), head (of a procession);

c) similarity of function, behaviour e.g. a whip (an official in the British Parliament whose duty is to see that members were present at the voting);

d) similarity of colour, e.g. orange, hazel, chestnut, etc.

In some cases we have a complex similarity, e.g. the leg of a table has a similarity to a human leg in its shape, position and function.

Many metaphors are based on parts of a human body, e.g. “an eye of a needle, arms and mouth of a river, head of an army”.

A special type of metaphor is when Proper names become common nouns, e.g. philistine - a mercenary person, vandals - destructive people, a Don Juan - a lover of many women, etc.

Metaphor allows us to view one concept through the lens of another, and thereby structure and understand one domain in terms of another. It is necessary because some spheres of experience are better manifested in language and are easier to understand. Very often metaphors relate conceptual structures to sensory experience of the world.

Metaphors arise from correlations in our embodied experience. Giving names to abstract domains we use the logic of our sensory-motor experience. George Lakoff and Michael Johnson explain that the metaphor “Affection is Warmth” (warm feelings) arise from the common experience of a child being held affectionately by a parent.

A structure of metaphor according to I.A.Richards in “The Philosophy of Rhetoric” (1936), consists of two parts: **the tenor and vehicle**. The tenor is the subject to which attributes are ascribed. The vehicle is the subject from which the attributes are borrowed.

For example: All the world's age. And all men and women merely players.
They have their exits and their entrance. (W. Shakespeare, "As You Like It").

Thus, well known quote is a good example of a metaphor. In this example "the world" is compared to a stage, the aim being to describe the world by taking well-known attributes from the stage. In this case, "the world" is the tenor and "the stage" is vehicle. "Men and women" are a secondary tenor and "players" is the vehicle for this secondary tenor.

The metaphor is sometimes further analyzed in terms of the ground and the tension. The ground consists of the similarities between the tenor and the vehicle. The tension of the metaphor consists of the dissimilarities between the tenor and the vehicle. In the above example, the ground begins to be elucidated from the third line: "They all have their exits and entrances". In the play, Shakespeare continues this metaphor for another twenty lines beyond what is shown here – making it a good example of **an extended metaphor**.

The corresponding terms to "tenor" and "vehicle" in George Lakoff's terminology are target and source. In this nomenclature, metaphors are named using the convention "target IS source", with the word "is" always capitalized, in this notation, the metaphor discussed above would state that "humankind IS theater".

Empirical research gives evidence of systematic polysemy in language. Because the metaphoric concept is systematic, the language we use to talk about that aspect of the concept is systematic. For example:

Time is money.

This gadget will save you hours.

I don't have the time to give you.

How do you spend your time these days?

I've invested a lot of time in her.

You need to budget your time.

He's living on borrowed time.

Is that worth your while?

A mapping is the systematic set of correspondences that exist between constituent elements of the source and the target domain. Many elements of target concepts come from source domains and are not preexisting. To know a conceptual metaphor is to know the set of mappings that applies to a given source-target pairing. The same idea of mapping between source and target is used to describe analogical reasoning and inferences.

Radiation

Radiation is metaphorical extension on a grander scale, with new meanings radiating from a central semantic core to embrace many related ideas. The word "head" originally referred to that part of the human body above the rest. Since the top of a nail, pin or screw is, like "the human head", "the top of a slim outline", that sense has become included in the meaning of "head". Since the bulb of a cabbage or lettuce is round like the human head, that sense has become included in the meaning of "head". Know where I'm headed with this? The meaning of the word "head" has radiated out to include "the head of a coin" (the side picturing the human head), "the head of the list" (the top item in the list), "the head of a table", "the head of the family", "the head of cattle", \$50 a head. But I'll stop while I'm ahead.

Metonymy

Metonymy is a transfer of the meaning on the basis of contiguity. Creating metonymy we use one entity to refer to another that is related to it. Metonymy is using one entity to refer to another that is related to it. Metonymic concepts allow us to conceptualize one thing by means of its relation to something else.

When we think of a Picasso we are not just thinking of a work of art alone. We think of it in terms of its relation to the artist, that is, his conception of art, his technique, etc. Thus, like metaphors, metonymic concepts structure not just our language but our thoughts, attitudes, and actions.

Metaphor's primary function is understanding. The function of metonymy is referential; it allows us to use one entity to stand for another. But it also serves the function of providing understanding. Which part of the whole we used determines which aspect of the whole we are focusing on.

Metonymic concepts: are also systematic. For example: "The part for the whole" – synecdoche.

We need some good heads on the project.

Producer for product.

He bought a Ford.

The place for the institution.

The White House isn't saying anything.

Object for the user.

The buses are on the strike.

The grounding of metonymic concepts in our experience is even more obvious: it involves direct physical or causal associations. Cultural and religious symbolisms are special cases of metonymy. For instance: “Dove for Holy Spirit”.

There are different types of metonymy:

a) The material of which an object is made may become the name of the object , e.g. a glass, boards, iron etc;

b) The name of the place may become the name of the people or of an object placed there, e.g. the House - members of Parliament, Fleet Street - bourgeois press, the White House - the Administration of the USA, etc;

c) Names of musical instruments may become names of musicians, e.g. 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, “sandwich” was named after Lord Sandwich who was a gambler. He did not want to interrupt his game and had his food brought to him while he was playing cards between two slices of bread not to soil his fingers;

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) , Astrachan (a sheep fur)”, etc.

Metonymy is a stylistic device for replacing a word with another based on the connection of their adjacent meanings. This word in two logical meanings is like metaphor, but their relationship is akin to an association between two concepts represented by these values, or akin to the relationship of two things.

Elevation

It is a transfer of the meaning when it becomes better in the course of time, e.g. “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; “marshal” originally meant “a horse man” now it is the highest military rank, etc.

Degradation

It is a transfer of the meaning when it becomes worse in the course of time. It is usually connected with nouns denoting common people, e.g. “villain” originally meant “working on a villa” now it means “a scoundrel”.

Hyperbole

Hyperbole is an exaggeration of sizes and phenomena. Hyperbole is a stylistic device in which emphasis is achieved through deliberate exaggeration. Hyperbole is a deliberate overstatement or exaggeration of a feature essential (unlike periphrasis) to the object or phenomenon. It does not signify the actual state of affairs in reality, but presents the latter through the emotionally coloured perception and rendering of the speaker.

Deliberate exaggeration is used sparingly, as hyperbole effectively draws the attention to a message that you want to emphasize. Hyperbole is a trope which

consists in a deliberate exaggeration of a feature essential to an object or phenomenon.

For example: “Her family is one aunt about a thousand years old”. “My vegetable love should grow faster than empires. (A.Marvell). “I was so hungry, I could eat an elephant”. “I have told you a thousand times”. “I was scared to death when he entered the room” (J.D.Salinger).

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 make a mountain out of a molehill, to split hairs”, etc.

Hyperbole is a stylistic device of explicit and intentional exaggeration, in order to enhance expressiveness and emphasize the thought said.

Litote

Litote is diminution (simplicity) which denies the characteristic untypical subject (weakening of approval). Litotes is a form of understatement which uses the denied opposite of a word to weaken or soften a message. Litotes, as a variant of periphrasis, is a figure of speech which consists in the affirmation of the contrary by negation.

For example: “The wedding was no distant event”. “That’s not bad”. – Instead of - “That’s good / great”. “Boats aren’t easy to find in the dark”. - Instead of “Boats are hard / difficult to find in the dark”. It is a transfer of the meaning when the speaker expresses affirmative with the negative or vice versa, e.g. “not bad, no coward”, etc.

Litotes mean to trivialize, i.e. the expression which is the opposite of exaggeration; the sign of the subject is presented in a smaller way than it actually is.

Exercises:

Consider your answers to the following:

- 1) Explain the main reasons of semantic changes. Why had happened changes of lexical meanings?
- 2) Which extra-linguistic and linguistic causes help along various semantic changes?
- 3) Describe the process of specialization.
- 4) Reveal the essence of generalization.
- 5) Unfold the specific features of metaphor. Give some examples.
- 6) Analyse metonymy. Give some examples.
- 7) What do you know about the “elevation”? Give some examples.
- 8) Speak about degradation in English Lexicology?
- 9) What does it mean a stylistic device – hyperbole?
- 10) What is litote? Give some examples.

CHAPTER V

PHRASEOLOGY

The term “phraseology” was first used by the Swiss linguist Ch. Bally who is known as the founder of the theory of phraseology is French by birth (1865-1947). In 1905 he wrote two books on style. One of the chapters was called phraseology. Ch.Bally was the first who worked out the theory of phraseology. He treated phraseology not as expressions like certain linguists. He was the first who analyzed the phraseological units. But he approached the problem from the stylistical angle. He never thought of it as independent science.

It was Ch. Bally who systematized phraseological units in his books “French Stylistics” and “Article of Stylistics” (1905, 1909). Ch. Bally included the chapter of phraseology in his books on Stylistics. In England, USA and Japan was published number of English phraseological dictionaries. Problems of phraseology as a linguistic discipline was put forward by world-known Soviet linguists E.D. Polivanov, V.V.Vinogradov, B.A.Larin and A.A.Bulahovsky. Being an independent branch of linguistics phraseology studies the phraseological system of linguistics.

“Phraseology” this term is of Greek origin which means “phrases” and “logos” -learning. This very term is polysemantic. It means: 1) the branch of linguistics dealing with set-expressions; 2) the stock of set-expressions of any national language; 3) sometimes this term is used speaking of an author to combine or use words.

Thus, we speak of Dreiser’s phraseology, Galsworthy’s and so on our object is the phraseology of English. It’s common known that words become a means of communication only when they are used in combinations.

There are two kinds of combinations:

1) Free, that's constructing sentences in the process of speech according to Grammar rules of the given language;

2) Bound, or set-expressions in English they are also called stock-phrases or ready-made expressions.

Phraseological units exist in a language in ready form and reproduced but not constructed in the process of speech. They are taken as separate words and inserted in sentences, proverbs, saying aphorisms. Every national language possess such expressions, they are also called winged expression. Because of being created by a people or by well-known writers they usually enjoy common love, because they express some deep and exact thoughts so they are often used in oral and written speech, this making it vivid and colorful.

The vocabulary of a language is enriched not only by words but also by phraseological units. 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. The same as words phraseological units express a single notion and are used in a sentence as one part of it.

The problem of phraseology has not been completely solved up to now. It's extremely difficult to classify the phraseological units because they can be and must, be classified to various view points, semantic, grammatical and etymological.

As well as the different branches of linguistics phraseology is also divided into two main spheres: 1) general phraseology 2) special phraseology.

The investigation and a number of their results are studied of referring to a definite language are studied it's commonly known that language is a social-historical event and that's why the phraseology of any language should be investigated and studied (diachronically and synchronically).

The problem of phraseology recently not language attracted of Azerbaijan scholars attention too. The first scholar was M.Huseyinzade who gave information about this branch in his manual. S.Cafarov followed him. H.Bayramov was one of them.

Modern Azerbaijani scholars deal with the contrastive learning of Phraseology of non-cognate languages, such as: English, Azerbaijani, Russian, German and French. N.Ch.Veliyeva, A.Hajiyeva, H.Baxshiyev, G.Yusifov and so on.

Attempts have been made to approach the problem of phraseology in different ways. But no two authors agree upon the terminology they use. The word phraseology, for instance, has a very different meaning in our country and abroad.

In our linguistic literature the term has come to be used for the whole set of expressions where the meaning of one element is dependent on the other irrespective of the structure and properties of the word, with other authors it denotes only such phrases which are distinguished from idioms not possessing expressiveness or emotional colouring.

V.V.Vinogradov has classified Russian phraseological units taken as criteria the degree of semantic fusion of their component-parts. His classification has been found applicable has been found applicable to the English phraseological units. According to this classification all set-expressions are divided into 3 groups:

There is much useful information about English idioms, such as “English idioms” by James Main Dixon, Word and Idioms by L.P.Smith; Anglo-Russian Dictionary of idioms and phrases by A.Koonin and others. None of them is of all complete.

Phraseological units, or **idioms**, as they are called by most western scholars, represent what can probably be described as the most picturesque, colourful and expressive part of the language’s vocabulary.

If synonyms can be figuratively referred to as the tints and colours of the vocabulary, then phraseology is a kind of picture gallery in which are collected vivid and amusing sketches of the nation's customs, traditions and prejudices, recollections of its past history, scraps of folk songs and fairy-tales.

American and British lexicographers call such units “idioms”. We can mention such dictionaries as: L.Smith “Words and Idioms”, V.Collins “A Book of English Idioms”, etc. In these dictionaries we can find words, peculiar in their semantics (idiomatic), side by side with word-groups and sentences. In these dictionaries they are arranged, as a rule, into different semantic groups.

Quotations from great poets are preserved here alongside the dubious pearls of philistine wisdom and crude slang witticisms, for phraseology is not only the most colourful but probably the most democratic area of vocabulary and draws its resources mostly from the very depths of popular speech.

And what a variety of odd and grotesque images, figures and personalities one finds in this amazing picture gallery: dark horses, white elephants, bulls in china shops and green-eyed monsters, cats escaping from bags or looking at kings, dogs barking up the wrong tree and men either wearing their hearts on their sleeves or having them in their mouths or even in their boots.

Sometimes this parade of funny animals and quaint human beings looks more like a hilarious fancy-dress ball than a peaceful picture gallery and it is really a pity that the only interest some scholars seem to take in it is whether the leading component of the idiom is expressed by a verb or a noun.

The metaphor “fancy-dress ball” may seem far-fetched to sceptical minds, and yet it aptly reflects a very important feature of the linguistic phenomenon under discussion: most participants of the carnival, if we accept the metaphor, wear masks, are disguised as something or somebody else, or, dropping metaphors, word-groups known as phraseological units or idioms are characterised by a double sense: the current meanings of constituent words build up a certain picture, but the

actual meaning of the whole unit has little or nothing to do with that picture, in itself creating an entirely new image.

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

The imagery of a “bull in a china shop” lies very much on the surface: the idiom describes a clumsy person (confer with the Russian “слон в посудной лавке”). “A white elephant”, however, is not even a person but a valuable object which involves great expense or trouble for its owner, out of all proportion to its usefulness or value, and which is also difficult to dispose of.

“The green-eyed monster” is jealousy, the image being drawn from “Othello”. For example: “O, beware, my lord, of jealousy;

It is the green-eyed monster, which doth mock

The meat it feeds on ...” (Iago’s words from Act III, Sc. 3).

“To let the cat out of the bag” has actually nothing to do with cats, but means simply “to let some secret become known”. In “to bark up the wrong tree” (Amer.), the current meanings of the constituents create a vivid and amusing picture of a foolish dog sitting under a tree and barking at it while the cat or the squirrel has long since escaped. But the actual meaning of the idiom is “to follow a false scent; to look for somebody or something in a wrong place; to expect from somebody what he is unlikely to do”.

The idiom is not infrequently used in detective stories: “The police are barking up the wrong tree as usual”, i.e. they suspect somebody who has nothing to do with the crime.

The ambiguousness of these interesting word groups may lead to an amusing misunderstanding, especially for children who are apt to accept words at their face value. For example:

Little Johnnie (crying): “Mummy, mummy, my auntie Jane is dead”.

Mother: “Nonsense, child! She phoned me exactly five minutes ago”.

Johnnie: “But I heard Mrs. Brown say that her neighbours cut her dead”.

“To cut somebody dead” means “to rudely ignore somebody; to pretend not to know or recognise him”.

Puns are frequently based on the ambiguousness of idioms: “Isn’t our Kate a marvel! I wish you could have seen her at the Harrisons’ party yesterday. If I’d collected the bricks she dropped all over the place, I could build a villa”.

“To drop a brick” means “to say unintentionally a quite indiscreet or tactless thing that shocks and offends people”.

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

V.H.Collins writes in his “Book of English Idioms”: “In standard spoken and written English today idiom is an established and essential element that, used with care, ornaments and enriches the language”.

“Used with care” is an important warning because speech overloaded with idioms loses its freshness and originality.

Idioms, after all, are ready-made speech units, and their continual repetition sometimes wears them out: they lose their colours and become trite clichés. Such idioms can hardly be said to “ornament” or “enrich the language”.

Idioms are distinguished from phrases by the idiomaticity of the whole word-group (e.g. red-tape)-bureaucratic methods and the impossibility of attaching meaning to the members of the group taken in isolation. Idioms are semantically and grammatically inseparable units.

They may comprise unusual combinations of words which when understood in their literal meaning are normally uncolloquial as e.g. “mare’s nest (a mare-a female horse; a mare’s nest (a hoax – mistifikasiya - a discovery which proves false or worth less”).

On the other hand, oral or written speech lacking idioms loses much in expressiveness, colour and emotional force. In modern linguistics, there is considerable confusion about the terminology associated with these word-groups. Most Russian and Azerbaijani scholars use the term “phraseological unit” (“frazеoloji vahid”) which was first introduced by V.V.Vinogradov whose contribution to the theory of phraseology cannot be overestimated.

The term “idiom” widely used by western scholars has comparatively recently found its way into Russian phraseology but is applied mostly to only a certain type of phraseological unit as it will be clear from further explanations.

There are some other terms denoting more or less the same linguistic phenomenon: “set-expressions, set-phrases, phrases, fixed word-groups, collocations”.

The confusion in the terminology reflects insufficiency of positive or wholly reliable criteria by which phraseological units can be distinguished from “free” word-groups.

It should be pointed out at once that the “freedom” of free word-groups is relative and arbitrary. Nothing is entirely “free” in speech as its linear relationships are governed, restricted and regulated, on the one hand, by requirements of logic and common sense and, on the other, by the rules of grammar and combinability.

One can speak of “a black-eyed girl” but not of “a black-eyed table” (unless in a piece of modernistic poetry where anything is possible). Also, to say “the child was glad” is quite correct, but a glad child” is wrong because in Modern English “glad” is attributively used only with a very limited number of nouns, e.g. “glad news”, and names of persons are not among them.

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

Set-expressions can be also classified from the point of view of syntactical functions which they perform in a sentence, thus:

1) They can be equivalents of nouns, for example: “a thorn in the flesh, the apple of one’s eyes”. In a sentence they can be subject object or predicative. One must not forget that set-expressions are more complex units than separate words. So they always fully coincide with the latter in their syntactical functions.

2) They can be equivalents of adjectives for example: “good for nothing plain as a bi be staff”. Some of them have become compound words of syntactical type, for example: “happy-go-lucky-devil -may-care-out-of-the-way-give and take”.

3) They can be equivalent of verbs. They are very numerous, for example: “to put a spoke in the wheel; to find fault with; to put foot in the fire; to make up one’s mind; to make a clean breast of”.

4) They can be equivalent of adverbs in the twinkling of eyes, for example: “full steam ahead on the alert”.

5) Some of set-expressions are widened into clauses, for example: “In the best comes to the worst-as ill luck would have”. Set-expressions as well as separate words can be polysemantic, though they are not many, for example: “to feed the fish - to drown; to be seasick - to be ill, to take the road - to leave; to become a vagrant (avara)”.

Set expressions may be synonymous; to breathe one’s last = to pass away = to join the great majority = to die, to point the lily = to heat the air = to draw water with sieve = to waste time; as full = at large = at length = in detail.

Like words set-expression can be synonyms either ideographically or stylistically. The following are ideographical synonyms: “to keep baby and soul together = to make both ends meet. Semantic-stylistic features contrasting set expressions into units of fixed context are simile, contrast, metaphor and synonymy: “as like as two peas, from beginning to end as old as the hills and older than the hills from beginning to end as old as the hills and older than the hills (simile), from beginning to end (contrast), a lame duck (metaphor) by leaps and bound” (synonymy).

Proverbs and sayings are also set exp-s whose peculiarity lies in the fact that they have a finished syntactical structure. A proverb is people’s saying having some in structures: Look before you leap. - No pain, no gain. - İşləməyən dişləməz.

A proverb is a short familiar epigrammatic saying expression popular wisdom, a truth or a moral lesson in a course and imaginative way proverbs have much in common with set-expressions because their lexical components are also constant, their meaning is traditional and mostly figurative and they are introduced into speech readymade. That’s why some scholars following V.V.Vinogradov think proverbs must be studied together with phraseological units. N.N.Amosova thinks that there is no more reason to consider them as part of phraseology than for example riddles, children’s counts.

Another reason why proverbs must be taken into consideration together with set expressions is that they often form the basis of set expressions, for instance: The last straw breaks, the camel’s back, the last straw. A drawing man will catch at a straw.

Both set expressions and proverbs are sometimes split and changed for humorous purposes, for example: All is not gold that glitters.

A saying differs from a proverb in that it has no instruction, but it simply states the fact. For example: The game is not worth the candle. It would make even a cat laugh.

Some set expressions are shortened e.g. Birds of a feather. A silver lining. Those shortened expressions have meaning of their own.

The sources from which set expressions are derived are various:

- 1) It may be some historical facts or situations: “Hobson’s choice”; “to burn one’s boats” - means “to make a decisive step after which it is impossible to retreat”. This is an expression said by Julius Caesar who ordered to burn all the boats after his soldiers had landed on the bank of the river, so that they could not run away.
- 2) Literary sources, which are also called aphorisms: “to be or not to be”. These are expressions of some well - known authors: “to be or not to be, that is a question (Shakespeare); murder will out (J.Chaucer)); How goes the enemy? What is the time? (Ch.Dickens), etc.
- 3) National customs, traditions and English reality: “to fulfill the slightest wish of smb.” This phraseological unit appeared in connection with the English custom that the bride had to fulfill every wish for her bridegroom. The expression “to carry coal to Newcastle” means “to do useless thing”. Newcastle is the centre of the coal industry of Great Britain as “Duzu Naxçıvana aparmaq”. “To cut off with a shilling” means “to disinherit” – *vərəsəlikdən məhrum etmək*.
- 4) Professional expressions. They have become metaphorical because of being used figuratively: “to sugar the pill” (*şirnikləndirmək*).
- 5) Folk- sayings. For example: “ağzının xörəyi deyil – it is no concern of yours / it’s none of your business / it’s not his (her) funeral / it is too hard for one / it is too tough for one / it is a hard nut to crack for one / it is above one’s head / it is beyond one’s depth / it is out of one’s depth – не твоего ума дело / не по зубам”;

Ağrımayan baş yastığa gəlməz. – *Lit.* Good health never needs doctor. –
Здоровому врач не надобен. / В добром здоровье и хворать хорошо. / От
здоровья не лечатся. / Здоровье врача не ищет.

Bağ belə, bostan belə, tənəkləri şələ-şələ. – One talks small, flirting with someone, making advances to someone. – Языком кружева плетёт. / Языком, что решетом, так и сеет. / Шила и мыла, гладила и катала, пряла и лошила, а всё языком.

Bağ satıb, dağ alıb. – One makes a senseless swap. – Променял кукушку на ястреба. / Променял шило на свайку. / Променял сапоги на лапти. / Променял шило на мыло. / Променял быка на индюка. / *Ср.* Выменял слепой у глухого зеркало на гусли.

Bağda ərik var idi - salaməleyk var idi, bağda ərik qurtardı - salaməleyk qurtardı. – *Cf.* It never rains but it pours. / Misfortunes never come alone (singly). – Был Филя в силе - все в други к нему валили... / Есть пирожки - есть и дружки, не стало пирожков, не стало и дружков. / Пришла беда - все прочь, как вода.

Xımr-xımr - həmişə. – Enough is as good as feast. – Хорошенького - понемножечку.

Zərrəcə eşqi olanın dəryaca tabı gərək. – *Lit.* Where is love, there is misfortune. – Где любовь, там и напасть. / Нельзя не любить, да нельзя и тужить. / Любить тяжело, не любить - тяжелее того. / *Ср.* От того терпят, кого больше любят.

Zibillikdə oturub, gülüstandan dəm vurur. – *Lit.* He lays on the straw, but speaks - on the carpet. – Лежит на соломе, а говорит с ковра. / Сидит на рогоже, а о соболях рассуждает.

Zimistan çəkməyən bülbül (aşiq) baharın qədrini bilməz. – He knows best what good is that has endured evil. / Adversity is a good discipline. / Adversity is a great schoolmaster. – Кто кручины не видал (не знал), тот и счастья не знает. / Кто нужды не видал, тот и счастья не знает. / Не узнав горя, не узнаешь и радости. / Кто не пробовал горького, не знает, что такое сладкое.

How to Distinguish Phraseological Units from Free Word-Groups

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

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

Compare the following examples:

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

“To carry coals to Newcastle” means “to take something to a place where it is already plentiful and not needed. Confer: with the Russian – “Ехать в Тулу со своим самоваром” and in Azerbaijani – “Naxçıvana duz aparmaq”.

b) This cargo ship is carrying coal to Liverpool.

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

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

The semantic shift affecting phraseological units does not consist in a mere change of meanings of each separate constituent part of the unit. The meanings of the constituents merge to produce an entirely new meaning, for example: “to have a bee in one’s bonnet” means “to have an obsession about something; to be eccentric or even a little mad”.

The humorous metaphoric comparison with a person who is distracted by a bee continually buzzing under his cap has become erased and half-forgotten, and the speakers using the expression hardly think of bees or bonnets but accept it in its transferred sense: “obsessed, eccentric”.

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

It is this feature that makes phraseological units similar to words: both words and phraseological units possess semantic unity. Yet, words are also characterised by structural unity which phraseological units very obviously lack being combinations of words.

Most Russian and Azerbaijani scholars today accept **the semantic criterion** of distinguishing phraseological units from free word-groups as the major one and base their research work in the field of phraseology on the definition of a phraseological unit offered by A.V.Koonin, the leading authority on problems of English phraseology in our country: “A phraseological unit is a stable word-group characterised by a completely or partially transferred meaning”.

The definition clearly suggests that the degree of semantic change in a phraseological unit may vary “completely or partially transferred meaning”. In actual fact the semantic change may affect either the whole word-group or only one of its components.

The following phraseological units represent the first case, for example:

to skate on thin ice - to put oneself in a dangerous position; to take risks;

to wear one's heart on one's sleeve - to expose, so that everyone knows, one's most intimate feelings;

The origin of the phrase is in a passage in “Othello” where Iago says:

... 'tis not long after But I will wear my heart upon my sleeve

For dew to peck at. (Act I, Sc. 1);

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

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

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

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

a wolf in a sheep's clothing - a dangerous enemy who plausibly poses as a friend (The allusion is to a fable of Aesop).

The second type is represented by phraseological units in which one of the components preserves its current meaning and the other is used in a transferred meaning: “to lose (keep) one's temper, to fly into a temper, to fall ill, to fall in love

(out of love), to stick to one's word (promise), to arrive at a conclusion, bosom friends, shop talk (also: to talk shop), small talk”.

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

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

The structural criterion also brings forth pronounced distinctive features characterising phraseological units and contrasting them to free word-groups. Structural invariability is an essential feature of phraseological units, though, as we shall see, some of them possess it to a lesser degree than others. Structural invariability of phraseological units finds expression in a number of restrictions.

First of all, restriction in substitution. As a rule, no word can be substituted for any meaningful component of a phraseological unit without destroying its sense. “To carry coals to Manchester” makes as little sense as “Ехать в Харьков со своим самоваром” – “Masazira duz aparmaq”.

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

At the same time, in free word-groups substitution does not present any dangers and does not lead to any serious consequences. In “The cargo ship is

carrying coal to Liverpool” all the components can be changed: “The ship / vessel / boat carries / transports / takes / brings coal to (any port)”.

The second type of restriction is the restriction in introducing any additional components into the structure of a phraseological unit. In a free word-group such changes can be made without affecting the general meaning of the utterance: “This big ship is carrying a large cargo of coal to the port of Liverpool”.

In the phraseological unit “to carry coals to Newcastle” no additional components can be introduced. Nor can one speak about “the big white elephant” (when using “the white elephant” in its phraseological sense) or about somebody “having his heart in his brown boots”. Yet, such restrictions are less regular.

In “Vanity Fair” by W. M. Thackeray the idiom “to build a castle in the air” is used in this way: “While dressing for dinner, she built for herself a most magnificent castle in the air of which she was the mistress ...”

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

The third type of structural restrictions in phraseological units is grammatical invariability. A typical mistake with students of English is to use the plural form of “fault” in the phraseological unit to “find fault with somebody”, for example: “The teacher always found faults with the boy”.

Though the plural form in this context is logically well-founded, it is a mistake in terms of the grammatical invariability of phraseological units. A similar typical mistake often occurs in the unit “from head to foot”, for example: “From head to foot he was immaculately dressed”.

Students are apt to use the plural form of “foot” in this phrase thus erring once more against the rigidity of structure which is so characteristic of phraseological units. Yet again, as in the case of restriction in introducing

additional components, there are exceptions to the rule, and these are probably even more numerous.

One can “build a castle in the air”, but also “castles”. A shameful or dangerous family secret is picturesquely described as “a skeleton in the cupboard”, the first substantive component being frequently and easily used in the plural form, as in: “I’m sure they have skeletons in every cupboard!”

“A black sheep” is a disreputable member of a family who, in especially serious cases, may be described as “the blackest sheep of the family”.

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) 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 technique we can point out the following phrases: «launching pad» in its terminological meaning is “start üçün meydança” , in its transferred meaning – “gediş yeri”, “to link up” – “kosmik gəmilərin birləşməsi” in its transformed meaning it means – “təniş olmaq”;

b) a large group of phraseological units was formed from free word groups by transforming their meaning, e.g. “granny farm” – “qocalar üçün ev, pansionat”, “Trojan horse” – “virus xarakterli kompüter proqramı”;

c) phraseological units can be formed by means of alliteration , e.g. “a sad sack” – “xoşagəlməyən hadisə”, “culture vulture” – “incəsənətlə maraqlanan insan”, “fudge and nudge” – “boyun qaçırtmaq”;

d) they can be formed by means of expressiveness, especially it is characteristic for forming interjections, e.g. “My aunt!”, “Hear, hear!”;

e) they can be formed by means of distorting a word group, e.g. “odds and ends” was formed from “odd ends”;

f) they can be formed by using archaisms, e.g. “in brown study” means “in gloomy meditation” where both components preserve their archaic meanings;

g) they can be formed 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), it becomes a phraseological unit when it is used in everyday life, because it is used metaphorically;

h) they can be formed when we use some unreal image, e.g. “to have butterflies in the stomach” – “həyacanlanmaq”, “to have green fingers” – “bağban-həvəskar kimi uğur əldə etmək”;

i) they can be formed by using expressions of writers or politicians in everyday life, e.g. “corridors of power” (Snow), “American dream” (Alby), “locust years” (Churchil) , “the winds of change” (Mc Millan).

Secondary ways of forming phraseological units are those when a phraseological unit is formed on the basis of another phraseological unit; they are:

a) conversion, e.g. “to vote with one’s feet” was converted into “vote with one’s feet”;

b) changing the grammar form, e.g. “Make hay while the sun shines” is transferred into a verbal phrase – “to 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. “cold surgery” – “a planned before operation” was formed by contrasting it with “acute surgery”, “thin cat” – “a poor person” was formed by contrasting it with “fat cat”;

e) shortening of proverbs or sayings e.g. from the proverb “You can’t make a silk purse out of a sow’s ear” by means of clipping the middle of it the phraseological unit “to make a sow’s ear” was formed with the meaning “səhv etmək”;

f) borrowing phraseological units from other languages, either as translation loans, e.g. “living space” (German), “to take the bull by the horns” (Latin) or by means of phonetic borrowings “meche blanche” (French), “corpse d’elite” (French), “sotto voce” (Italian), etc.

Phonetic borrowings among phraseological units refer to the bookish style and are not used very often.

Principles of classification

It would be interesting now to look at phraseological units from a different angle, namely: how are all these treasures of the language approached by the linguistic science?

The very miscellaneous nature of these units suggests the first course of action: they must be sorted out and arranged in certain classes which possess identical characteristics.

But which characteristics should be chosen as the main criteria for such a classification system? The structural? The semantic? Those of degree of stability? Of origin?

It should be clear from the previous description that a phraseological unit is a complex phenomenon with a number of important features, which can therefore be approached from different points of view.

Hence, there exist a considerable number of different classification systems devised by different scholars and based on different principles.

The traditional and oldest principle for classifying phraseological units is based on their original content and might be alluded to as “thematic”, although the term is not universally accepted. The approach is widely used in numerous English and American guides to idiom, phrase books, etc.

On this principle, idioms are classified according to their sources of origin, “source” referring to the particular sphere of human activity, of life of nature, of natural phenomena, etc.

So, L.P.Smith gives in his classification groups of idioms used by sailors, fishermen, soldiers, hunters and associated with the realia, phenomena and conditions of their occupations. In Smith’s classification we also find groups of idioms associated with domestic and wild animals and birds, agriculture and cooking. There are also numerous idioms drawn from sports, arts, etc.

This principle of classification is sometimes called “**etymological**”. The term does not seem appropriate since we usually mean something different when we speak of the etymology of a word or word-group: whether the word (or word-group) is native or borrowed, and, if the latter, what is the source of borrowing.

It is true that Smith makes a special study of idioms borrowed from other languages, but that is only a relatively small part of his classification system. The general principle is not etymological.

L.P.Smith points out those word-groups associated with the sea and the life of seamen are especially numerous in English vocabulary. Most of them have long since developed metaphorical meanings which have no longer any association with the sea or sailors. Here are some examples:

“How can I be a judge in a situation in which I am all at sea? I’m afraid I’m all at sea in this problem”. “To be all at sea” - to be unable to understand; to be in a state of ignorance or bewilderment about something.

V. H. Collins remarks that the metaphor is that of a boat tossed about, out of control, with its occupants not knowing where they are.

“I don’t like you much, but seeing that we’re in the same boat I’ll back you all I can”. “To be in the same boat with somebody” - to be in a situation in which people share the same difficulties and dangers.

“It is a case of sink or swim. All depends on his own effort”. “To sink” or “swim” - to fail or succeed. “In deep water” - in trouble or danger. “In low water, on the rocks” - in strained financial circumstances.

The metaphor is that of passengers in the life-boat of a sunken ship.

“To sail under false colours” - to pretend to be what one is not; sometimes, to pose as a friend and, at the same time, have hostile intentions. The metaphor is that of an enemy ship that approaches its intended prey showing at the mast the flag (“colours”) of a pretended friendly nation.

“To show one’s colours” - to betray one’s real character or intentions. The allusion is, once more, to a ship showing the flag of its country at the mast.

“To strike one’s colours” - to surrender, give in, admit one is beaten. The metaphor refers to a ship’s hauling down its flag (sign of surrender).

“To weather (to ride out) the storm” - to overcome difficulties; to have courageously stood against misfortunes.

“To bow to the storm” - to give in, to acknowledge one's defeat.

“Three sheets in(to) the wind” (sl.) - very drunk.

“Half seas over” (sl.) - drunk.

Though, as has been said, direct associations with seafaring in all these idioms have been severed, distant memories of the sea romance and adventure still linger in some of them. The faint sound of the surf can still be heard in such phrases as “to ride out the storm” or “breakers ahead!” (= Take care! Danger!).

Such idioms as “to sail under false colours”, “to nail one’s colours to the mast” - to be true to one’s convictions, to fight for them openly; bring to mind the distant past of pirate brigs, sea battles and great discoveries of new lands.

It is true, though, that a foreigner is more apt to be struck by the colourfulness of the direct meaning of an idiom where a native speaker sees only its transferred meaning, the original associations being almost fully forgotten.

And yet, when we Azerbaijani use or hear the idiom “birinci qaranquş” doesn’t a dim image of the little bird flash before our mind, though, of course, we really mean something quite different?

When we say “ourluq qırx gün çəkir” are we entirely free from the picture built up by the direct meanings of the words? If it were really so and all the direct associations of the idioms had been entirely erased, phraseology would not constitute one of the language’s main expressive resources.

Its expressiveness and wealth of colour largely if not solely depend on the ability of an idiom to create two images at once: that of a ship safely coming out of the storm and that of a man overcoming his troubles and difficulties (“to weather/ride out the storm”); that of a ship’s crew desperately fighting against a pirate brig and that of a man courageously standing for his views and convictions (“to nail one’s colours to the mast”).

The thematic principle of classifying phraseological units has real merit but it does not take into consideration the linguistic characteristic features of the phraseological units.

The considerable contribution made by Russian scholars in phraseological research cannot be exaggerated. We have already mentioned the great contribution made by V.V.Vinogradov to this branch of linguistic science.

The classification system of phraseological units devised by this prominent scholar is considered by some linguists of today to be outdated, and yet its value is beyond doubt because it was the first classification system which was based on **the semantic principle**.

It goes without saying that semantic characteristics are of immense importance in phraseological units. It is also well known that in modern research they are often sadly ignored. That is why any attempt at studying the semantic aspect of phraseological units should be appreciated.

V.V.Vinogradov's classification system is founded on the degree of semantic cohesion between the components of a phraseological unit. It is a fact that units with a partially transferred meaning show the weakest cohesion between their components. The more distant the meaning of a phraseological unit from the current meaning of its constituent parts, the greater is its degree of semantic cohesion. Accordingly, V.V.Vinogradov classifies phraseological units into three classes: "phraseological combinations, unities and fusions" - фразеологические сочетания, единства и сращения. A.M.Qurbanov called them "frazеoloji vahidlər, birləşmələr, uyşmalar" in Modern Azerbaijani.

Phraseological combinations are word-groups with a partially changed meaning. They may be said to be clearly motivated, that is, the meaning of the unit can be easily deduced from the meanings of its constituents. For example: "to be at one's wits' end, to be good at something, to be a good hand at something, to have a bite, to come off a poor second, to come to a sticky end (coll.), to look a sight

(coll.), to take something for granted, to stick to one's word, to stick at nothing, gospel truth, bosom friends”.

Phraseological unities are word-groups with a completely changed meaning, that is, the meaning of the unit does not correspond to the meanings of its constituent parts. They are motivated units or, putting it another way, the meaning of the whole unit can be deduced from the meanings of the constituent parts; the metaphor, on which the shift of meaning is based, is clear and transparent. For example: “to stick to one's guns - to be true to one's views or convictions - the image is that of a gunner or gun crew who do not desert their guns even if a battle seems lost; to sit on the fence - in discussion, politics, etc. refrain from committing oneself to either side; to catch/clutch at a straw/straws - when in extreme danger, avail oneself of even the slightest chance of rescue; to lose one's head - to be at a loss what to do; to be out of one's mind; to lose one's heart to smb. - to fall in love; to lock the stable door after the horse is stolen - to take precautions too late, when the mischief is done; to look a gift horse in the mouth - to examine a present too critically; to find fault with something one gained without effort; to ride the high horse - to behave in a superior, haughty, overbearing way - the image is that of a person mounted on a horse so high that he looks down on others; the last drop/straw - the final culminating circumstance that makes a situation unendurable; a big bug/pot, sl. - a person of importance; a fish out of water - a person situated uncomfortably outside his usual or proper environment”.

Phraseological fusions are word-groups with a completely changed meaning but, in contrast to the unities, they are demotivated, that is, their meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of the constituent parts; the metaphor, on which the shift of meaning was based, has lost its clarity and is obscure. For example: “to come a cropper - to come to disaster; neck and crop - entirely, altogether, thoroughly, as in: He was thrown out neck and crop. She severed all relations with them neck and crop.; at sixes and sevens - in confusion or in disagreement; to set one's cap at smb. - to try and attract a man; spoken about girls and women. The

image, which is now obscure, may have been either that of a child trying to catch a butterfly with his cap or of a girl putting on a pretty cap so as to attract a certain person. In *Vanity Fair*: “Be careful, Joe, that girl is setting her cap at you”; to leave smb. in the lurch - to abandon a friend when he is in trouble; to show the white feather - to betray one’s cowardice. The allusion was originally to cock fighting. A white feather in a cock’s plumage denoted a bad fighter; to dance attendance on smb. - to try and please or attract smb.; to show exaggerated attention to smb.”

It is obvious that this classification system does not take into account the structural characteristics of phraseological units. On the other hand, the border-line separating unities from fusions are vague and even subjective. One and the same phraseological unit may appear motivated to one person (and therefore be labelled as a unity) and demotivated to another (and be regarded as a fusion). The more profound one's command of the language and one's knowledge of its history, the fewer fusions one is likely to discover in it.

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

a) verbal, for instance: “to run for one’s (dear) life, to get (win) the upper hand, to talk through one’s hat, to make a song and dance about something, to sit pretty” (Amer. sl.);

b) substantive, for instance: “dog’s life, cat-and-dog life, calf love, white lie, tall order, birds of a feather, birds of passage, red tape, brown study;

c) adjectival, for instance: “high and mighty, spick and span, brand new, safe and sound”.

In this group the so-called comparative word-groups are particularly expressive and sometimes amusing in their unanticipated and capricious associations: “(as) cool as a cucumber, (as) nervous as a cat, (as) weak as a kitten,

(as) good as gold (usu. spoken about children), (as) pretty as a picture, as large as life, (as) slippery as an eel, (as) thick as thieves, (as) drunk as an owl (sl.), (as) mad as a hatter/a hare in March”;

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

e) interjectional, for instance: “my God/ by Jove! by George! goodness gracious! good Heavens! sakes alive!” (Amer.).

A.I. Smirnitsky offered a classification system for English phraseological units which is interesting as an attempt to combine the structural and the semantic principles.

Phraseological units in this classification system are grouped according to the number and semantic significance of their constituent parts. Accordingly two large groups are established:

a) one-summit units, which have one meaningful constituent, for instance: “to give up, to make out, to pull out, to be tired, to be surprised”; it should be pointed out that most Russian scholars do not regard these as phraseological units; so this is a controversial point;

b) two-summit and multi-summit units which have two or more meaningful constituents, for instance: black art, first night, common sense, to fish in troubled waters”.

Within each of these large groups the phraseological units are classified according to the category of parts of speech of the summit constituent. So, one-summit units are subdivided into:

a) verbal-adverbial units equivalent to verbs in which the semantic and the grammatical centres coincide in the first constituent, for instance: “to give up”;

b) units equivalent to verbs which have their semantic centre in the second constituent and their grammatical centre in the first, for instance: “to be tired”;

c) prepositional-substantive units equivalent either to adverbs or to copulas and having their semantic centre in the substantive constituent and no grammatical centre, for instance: “by heart, by means of”.

Two-summit and multi-summit phraseological units are classified into:

a) attributive-substantive two-summit units equivalent to nouns, for instance: “black art”;

b) verbal-substantive two-summit units equivalent to verbs, for instance: “to take the floor”;

c) phraseological repetitions equivalent to adverbs, for instance: “now or never”;

d) adverbial multi-summit units, for instance: “every other day”.

A.I.Smirnitsky also distinguishes proper phraseological units which, in his classification system, are units with non-figurative meanings, and idioms, that is, units with transferred meanings based on a metaphor.

A.V.Koonin, the leading Russian authority on English phraseology, pointed out certain inconsistencies in this classification system. First of all, the subdivision into phraseological units (as non-idiomatic units) and idioms contradicts the leading criterion of a phraseological unit suggested by A.I.Smirnitsky: it should be idiomatic.

A.V. Koonin also objects to the inclusion of such word-groups as “black art, best man, first night” in phraseology (in Smirnitskiy’s classification system, the two-summit phraseological units) as all these word-groups are not characterised by a transferred meaning. It is also pointed out that verbs with post-positions, for instance: “give up”, are included in the classification but their status as phraseological units is not supported by any convincing argument.

The classification system of phraseological units suggested by A.V.Koonin is the latest out-standing achievement in the Russian theory of phraseology. The classification is based on the combined structural-semantic principle and it also considers the quotient of stability of phraseological units.

Speaking about phraseology we must stress that a valuable contribution to the study of Azerbaijani phraseology was made by H.A.Bayramov, M.Tagiyev. He has devoted many articles and his doctoral thesis to various problems of Azerbaijani phraseology.

N.Ch.Veliyeva has devoted a great deal of scientific articles on the contrastive English, Russian and Azerbaijani phraseology. In these articles and monographs various problems of the English, Russian and Azerbaijani phraseology are investigated and she gave a valuable contribution to the study of the phraseology of these languages. These works are of great importance.

One of the main scientific works is “The Typological Analysis of Verbal Word-Combinations in Non-Cognate Languages”. This monograph is devoted to specific features of word-combinations in the whole, and the phraseological units in the investigated English, Russian and Azerbaijani languages.

On the whole at present there are different phraseological theories and various approaches to the study of problems of phraseological units and we are not able to speak about all of them.

Phraseological units are subdivided into the following four classes according to their function in communication determined by their structural-semantic characteristics.

Nominative phraseological units are represented by word-groups, including the ones with one meaningful word, and coordinative phrases of the type “wear and tear, well and good”.

The first class also includes word-groups with a predicative structure, such as “as the crow flies”, and, also, predicative phrases of the type “see how the land lies, ships that pass in the night”.

Nominative-communicative phraseological units include word-groups of the type “to break the ice - the ice is broken”, that is, verbal word-groups which are transformed into a sentence when the verb is used in the Passive Voice.

Phraseological units which are neither nominative nor communicative include interjectional word-groups.

Communicative phraseological units are represented by proverbs and sayings.

These four classes are divided into sub-groups according to the type of structure of the phraseological unit. The sub-groups include further rubrics representing types of structural-semantic meanings according to the kind of relations between the constituents and to either full or partial transference of meaning.

The classification system includes a considerable number of subtypes and gradations and objectively reflects the wealth of types of phraseological units existing in the language. It is based on truly scientific and modern criteria and represents an earnest attempt to take into account all the relevant aspects of phraseological units and combine them within the borders of one classification system.

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

Structural - Semantic Classification of Phraseological Units

Phraseological units can be classified according to the degree of motivation of their meaning. This classification was suggested by 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, they are highly idiomatic and cannot be translated word for word into other languages, e.g. “on Shank’s mare - on foot, at sixes and sevens - in a mess”, etc;

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

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”, etc.

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 phraseologism denoting an object, a person, a living being, e.g. “bullet train, latchkey child, redbrick university, Green Berets”;

b) verb phraseologism 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, to nose out , to make headlines”;

c) adjective phraseologism denoting a quality, e.g. “loose as a goose, dull as lead”;

d) adverb phraseological units, such as: “with a bump, in the soup, like a dream , like a dog with two tails”;

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!”, etc.

In I.V.Arnold’s 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”.

N.N.Amosova’s classification is based on the criterion of context (minimum discourse which is sufficient for identifying a word’s meaning). Free word combinations make up variable contexts, whereas set phrases are non-variable or fixed contexts. Fixed context is interrelated with the new meaning that is attached to the components. If only one of the components acquires a new specific meaning dependent on the other component, the set phrase is classified as a phraseme: “a blind date, the teacher’s pet”. If both components have acquired new meaning, the phrase is an idiom: “straight from the horsed mouth” (from a reliable source), “eager beaver” (a person who does something above what is necessary to win a favor).

Proverbs, Familiar Quotations, Clichés

Most modern scholars consider proverbs as the phraseological units. A proverb is a short familiar epigrammatic saying expressing truth or a moral lesson in a concise and imaginative way. Proverbs have much in common with phraseology because their lexical components are also constant, their meaning is traditional and mostly figurative, and they are introduced into speech ready-made. Consider the following examples of proverbs: “We never know the value of water till the well is dry. You can take the horse to the water, but you cannot make him drink. Those who live in glass houses shouldn’t throw stones”.

Even these few examples clearly show that proverbs are different from those phraseological units which have been discussed above. The first distinctive feature that strikes one is the obvious structural dissimilarity.

Phraseological units, as we have seen, are a kind of ready-made blocks which fit into the structure of a sentence performing a certain syntactical function, more or less as words do. For example: “George liked her for she never put on airs. Big bugs like him care nothing about small fry like ourselves”.

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

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

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

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

A. V. Koonin includes proverbs in his classification of phraseological units and labels them communicative phraseological units. From his point of view, one of the main criteria of a phraseological unit is its stability. If the quotient of phraseological stability in a word-group is not below the minimum, it means that we are dealing with a phraseological unit.

The structural type - that is, whether the unit is a combination of words or a sentence is irrelevant. The criterion of nomination and communication cannot be applied here either, says A.V.Koonin, because there are a considerable number of verbal phraseological units which are word-groups (i.e. nominative units) when the verb is used in the Active Voice, and sentences (i.e. communicative units) when the verb is used in the Passive Voice, for example: “to cross (pass) the Rubicon - the Rubicon is crossed (passed); to shed crocodile tears - crocodile tears are shed”.

Hence, if one accepts nomination as a criterion of referring or not referring this or that unit to phraseology, one is faced with the absurd conclusion that such word-groups, when with verbs in the Active Voice, are phraseological units and belong to the system of the language, and when with verbs in the Passive Voice, are non-phraseological word-groups and do not belong to the system of the language.

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

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

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

As to **familiar quotations**, they are different from proverbs in their origin. They come from literature but by and by they become part and parcel of the language, so that many people using them do not even know that they are quoting, and very few could accurately name the play or passage on which they are drawing even when they are aware of using a quotation from Shakespeare. They are about love, friendship and so on: “I don’t want to live, I want to love first, and live incidentally” (Zelda Fitzgerald); “There is a battle that goes on between men and women. Many people call it love” (Edvard Munch).

Some quotations are so often used that they come to be considered **clichés**. The term comes from the printing trade. The cliché is a metal block used for printing pictures and turning them out in great numbers. The term is used to denote such phrases as have become hackneyed and stale. Being constantly and mechanically repeated they have lost their original expressiveness and so are better avoided. Clichés and hackneyed (избитые, банальные) phrases are phraseological unities. With these it is not figurative use that is the motivating force in their becoming phraseological units but it is rather the other way round. Although such phrases might have been figurative they lose their emotional connotation, on

becoming clichés. Figurativeness completely fades away and the only emotion they provoke is infinite boredom. In this type of phrases an interesting kind of desemantization is to be observed, a desemantization of the whole phrase as a unit. Such phrases are not taken at their own value which makes them different from the free combinations. They become phraseological units because they are on the way to desemantization. The phrase *how do you do* has gone furthest in this respect. When two strangers are introduced they pronounce this formula which does not mean anything at all. Very probably it is used to mean something, i.e. as a free combination. But times have changed and people too. Today *how do you do* is a phrase pronounced out of civility in order to cover the gap of silence which naturally may set in between two persons who meet for the first time.

Proverbs are often elliptical in their structure: “No smoke without fire”. Some of them are formed by alliteration: “No pains, no gains; so many men, so many minds”; “Don’t trouble trouble, until trouble troubles you”. Sayings are less than proverbs.

Most of the sayings carry colloquial characteristic features. They mean concrete meaning and hit the target. They can express either negative or affirmative colorings: “May your shadow never grow less!” – Allah ömrünü uzun elesin; “His word is as good as his bond”. – O, sözünün ağasıdır.

Exercises:

I. Consider your answers to the following:

- 1) What do we mean when we say that an idiom has a “double” meaning?
- 2) Why is it very important to use idioms with care? Should foreign-language students use them? Give reasons for your answer.

- 3) The term “phraseological unit” is used by most Russian, Azerbaijani scholars. What other terms are used to describe the same word-groups?
- 4) How can you show that the “freedom” of free word-groups is relative and arbitrary?
- 5) What are the two major criteria for distinguishing between phraseological units and free word-groups?
- 6) How would you explain the term “grammatical invariability” of phraseological units?
- 7) How do proverbs differ from phraseological units?
- 8) Can proverbs be regarded as a subdivision of phraseological units? Give reasons for your answer.

II. What is the source of the following idioms? If in doubt consult your reference books.

The Trojan horse, Achilles heel, a labour of Hercules, an apple of discord, forbidden fruit, the serpent in the tree, an ugly duckling, the fifth column, to hide one's head in the sand.

III. Substitute phraseological units with the noun “heart” for the italicised words. What is the difference between the two sentences?

1. He is not a man who *shows his feelings openly*. 2. She may seem cold but she *has true, kind feelings*. 3. I learned that piece of poetry *by memory*. 4. When I think about my examination tomorrow I *feel in despair*. 5. When I heard that strange cry in the darkness I *was terribly afraid*. 6. It was the job I *liked very much*. 7. I didn't win the prize but I'm *not discouraged*.

IV. Show that you understand the meaning of the following phraseological units by using each of them in a sentence.

1. Between the devil and the deep sea; 2. to have one's heart in one's boots; 3. to have one's heart in the right place; 4. to wear one's heart on one's sleeve; 5. in the

blues; 6. once in a blue moon; 7. to swear black is white; 8. out of the blue; 9. to talk till all is blue; 10. to talk oneself blue in the face.

V. Substitute phraseological units incorporating the names of colours for the italicised words.

1. I'm *feeling* rather *miserable* today. 2. He spends all his time on *bureaucratic routine*. 3. A thing like that happens very *rarely*. 4. You can *talk till you are tired of it* but I shan't believe you. 5. The news was a great shock to me. It came quite *unexpectedly*. 6. I won't believe it unless I see it *in writing*. 7. You can never believe what he says, he will *swear anything* if it suits his purpose.

VI. Read the following jokes. Why do little children often misunderstand phraseological units? Explain how the misunderstanding arises in each case.

"Now, my little boys and girls," said the teacher. "I want you to be very still - so still that you can hear a pin drop." For a minute all was still, and then a little boy shrieked out: "Let her drop". "You must be pretty strong", said Willie, aged six to the young widow who had come to call on his mother.

"Strong? What makes you think so?"

"Daddy said you can wrap any man in town around your little finger".

S.Tom: What would you do if you were in my shoes?

Tim: Polish them!

4. Little Girl: Oh, Mr. Sprawler, do put on your skates and show me the funny figures you can make.

Mr. Sprawler: My dear child, I'm only a beginner. I can't make any figures.

Little Girl: But Mother said you were skating yesterday and cut a ridiculous figure.

VII. Read the following jokes. Explain why the italicised groups of words are not phraseological units.

Warning: The little boy whose father was *absorbed in reading* a newspaper on the bench *in the city park*, exclaimed: "Daddy, look, a plane!"

His father, still reading the paper, said: "All right, but don't *touch it*".

Great Discovery: A scientist rushed into the ops room of the space mission control centre: "You know that new gigantic computer which was to be the brain of the project? We have just *made a great discovery!*" "What discovery?"

“It doesn’t work!”

VIII. Explain whether the semantic changes in the following phraseological units are complete or partial. Paraphrase them.

To wear one’s heart on one’s sleeve; a wolf in a sheep’s clothing; to fly into a temper; to stick to one’s word; bosom friend; small talk; to cast pearls before swine; to beat about the bush; to add fuel to the fire; to fall ill; to fall in love; to sail under false colours; to be at sea.

IX. Say what structural variations are possible in the following phraseological units. If in doubt, consult the dictionaries.

To catch at a straw; a big bug; the last drop; to build a castle in the air; to weather the storm; to get the upper hand; to run for one’s life; to do wonders; to run a risk; just the other way about.

CHAPTER VI

ETYMOLOGY of ENGLISH WORDS

Are All English Words Really English?

By “etymology” of words is understood their origin. As a matter of fact, they are - if we regard them in the light of present-day English. If, however, their origins are looked into, the picture may seem somewhat bewildering. A person who does not know English but knows French (Italian, Latin, Spanish) is certain to recognise a great number of familiar-looking words when skipping through an English book.

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

The first century B.C. Most of the territory now, known to us as Europe is occupied by the Roman Empire. Among the inhabitants of the continent are Germanic tribes, “barbarians” as the arrogant Romans call them. Theirs is really a rather primitive stage of development, especially if compared with the high civilisation and refinement of Rome. They are primitive cattle-breeders and know almost nothing about land cultivation. Their tribal languages contain only Indo-European and Germanic elements. The latter fact is of some importance for the purposes of our survey.

Now comes an event which brings an important change. After a number of wars between the Germanic tribes and the Romans these two opposing peoples come into peaceful contact. Trade is carried on, and the Germanic people gain

knowledge of new and useful things. The first among them are new things to eat. It has been mentioned that Germanic cattle-breeding was on a primitive scale. Its only products known to the Germanic tribes were meat and milk. It is from the Romans that they learn how to make butter and cheese and, as there are naturally no words for these foodstuffs in their tribal languages, they are to use the Latin words to name them (Lat. butyrum, caseus). It is also to the Romans that the Germanic tribes owe the knowledge of some new fruits and vegetables of which they had no idea before, and the Latin names of these fruits and vegetables enter their vocabularies reflecting this new knowledge: cherry (Lat. cerasum), pear (Lat. pirum), plum (Lat. prunus), pea (Lat. pisum), beet (Lat. beta), pepper (Lat. piper). It is interesting to note that the word plant is also a Latin borrowing¹ of this period (Lat. planta).

Here are some more examples of Latin borrowings of this period: cup (Lat. cuppa), kitchen (Lat. coquina), mill (Lat. molina), port (Lat. portus), wine (Lat. vinum). By a borrowing or loan-word we mean a word which came into the vocabulary of one language from another and was assimilated by the new language.

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

The fifth century A.D. Several of the Germanic tribes (the most numerous amongst them being the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes) migrated across the sea now known as the English Channel to the British Isles. There they were confronted by the Celts, the original inhabitants of the Isles. The Celts desperately defended their lands against the invaders, but they were no match for the military-minded

Tetons and gradually yielded most of their territory. They retreated to the North and South-West (modern Scotland, Wales and Cornwall). Through their numerous contacts with the defeated Celts, the conquerors got to know and assimilated a number of Celtic words in Modern English: “bald, down, glen, druid, bard, cradle”.

Especially numerous among the Celtic borrowings were place names, names of rivers, hills, etc. The Germanic tribes occupied the land, but the names of many parts and features of their territory remained Celtic. For instance, the names of the rivers Avon, Exe, Esk, Usk, Ux originate from Celtic words meaning “river” and “water”.

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

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

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

Additionally, in a class were educational terms. It was quite natural that these were also Latin borrowings, for the first schools in England were church schools, and the first teachers-priests and monks. So, the very word “school” is a

Latin borrowing (Lat. schola, of Greek origin) and so are such words as “scholar” (Lai. scholar(-is) and “magister” (Lat. ma-gister).

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

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

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

The Old English “dream” which meant “joy” assimilated the meaning of the Scandinavian “draum” (confer with the German “Traum” – “dream” and the Russian “дрѣма”).

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

Administrative words: “state, government, parliament, council, power”.

Legal terms: “court, judge, justice, crime, prison”.

Military terms: “army, war, soldier, officer, battle, enemy”.

Educational terms: “pupil, lesson, library, science, pen, pencil”.

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

The Renaissance Period. In England, as in all European countries, this period was marked by significant developments in science, art and culture and, also, by a revival of interest in the ancient civilisations of Greece and Rome and their languages. Hence, there occurred a considerable number of Latin and Greek borrowings. In contrast to the earliest Latin borrowings (1st century B.C.), the Renaissance ones were rarely concrete names.

They were mostly abstract words, e.g. “major, minor, filial, moderate, intelligent, permanent, to elect, to create”. There were naturally numerous scientific and artistic terms: “datum, status, phenomenon, philosophy, method, music”. The same is true of Greek Renaissance borrowings, e.g. “atom, cycle, ethics, aesthete”. Phenomenon, philosophy, method, music, etc. were borrowed into English from Latin and had earlier come into Latin from Greek.

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

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

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

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

I. Latin Affixes

noun	The suffix –ion	communion, legion, opinion, session, union, etc.
	The suffix –tion	relation, revolution, starvation, temptation, unification, etc.
Verb	The suffix -ate [eit]	appreciate, create, congratulate, etc.
	The suffix -ute [ju:t]	attribute, contribute, constitute, distribute, etc.
	The remnant suffix –ct	act, conduct, collect, connect, etc.
	The remnant suffix -d(e)	applaud, divide, exclude, include, etc.
	The prefix dis-	disable, distract, disown, disagree, etc.
Adjectiveness	The suffix –able	detestable, curable, etc.
	The suffix -ate [it]	accurate, desperate, graduate, etc.
	The suffix –ant	arrogant, constant, important, etc.
	The suffix –ent	absent, convenient, decent, evident, etc.
	The suffix –or	major, minor, junior, senior, etc.
	The suffix –al	cordial, final, fraternal, maternal, etc.
	The suffix –ar	lunar, solar, familiar, etc.

II. French Affixes

Nouns	The suffix -ance	arrogance, endurance, hindrance, etc.
	The suffix -ence	consequence, intelligence, patience, etc.
	The suffix -ment	appointment, development, experiment, etc.
	The suffix -age	courage, marriage, passage, village, etc.
	The suffix -ess	tigress, lioness, actress, adventuress, etc.
Adjectives	The suffix -ous	curious, dangerous, joyous, serious, etc.
Verbs	The prefix en-	enable, endear, enact, enfold, enslave, etc.

Note 1. The tables represent only the most typical and frequent structural elements of Latin and French borrowings.

Note 2. Though all the affixes represented in the tables are Latin or French borrowings, some of the examples given in the third column are later formations derived from native roots and borrowed affixes (e.g. “eatable, lovable”).

Note 3. By remnant suffixes are meant the ones that are only partially preserved in the structure of the word (e.g. Lat. -ct < Lat. -ctus).

It seems advisable to sum up what has been said in a table.

The Etymological Structure of English Vocabulary

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

Native Words

Germanic settler tribes (Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frisians) entered Britain in AD 449 onwards and displaced the original Celtic-speaking inhabitants. If we can assume that the lexicon reflects the preoccupations of the language users, we would not be surprised that the original Anglo-Saxon lexicon is concerned about basic, down-to-earth matters. The Anglo-Saxons were originally not a settled group; there was a settled civilization, but not very liberate or sophisticated.

Many of the words are still used today. Some are grammatical words (such as: “be, in, that”) while others are lexical words (such as: “sing, live, go”). Anglo-Saxon words are usually short and concrete. Although Anglo-Saxon lexemes form only a relatively small proportion of the modern lexicon, in any passage of English, there is a relatively high density of Anglo-Saxon derived lexemes, and indeed the hundred most frequently used items are almost all Anglo-Saxon (D.Crystal, 1995, p.125).

There are number of items that pertain to down-to-earth, everyday matters. Many of the words that we described as “core” earlier seem to be from Anglo-Saxon. These words are of parts of the body (arm, bone, chest, ear, eye, foot, hand, heart), the natural environment (field, hedge, hill, land, meadow, wood), the domestic life (door, floor, home, house), the calendar (day, month, moon, sun, year), animals (cow, dog, fish, goat, hen, sheep, swine), common adjectives (black, dark, good, long, white, wide) and common verbs (become, do, eat, fly, go, help, kiss, live, love, say, see, sell, send, think) (H.Jackson & Ze Amvela, 2000, p. 31). This is not to say that the Germanic settlers were without poetry, music and culture; there were also some heroic components to Anglo-Saxon vocabulary.

Borrowings

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

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

adoption of Christianity, Scandinavian and Norman conquests of the British Isles, the development of British colonialism and trade and cultural relations served to increase immensely the English vocabulary. The majority of these borrowings is fully assimilated in English in their pronunciation, grammar, spelling and can be hardly distinguished from native words.

English continues to take in foreign words, but now the quantity of borrowings is not as abundant as it was before. All the more so, English now has become a «giving» language; it has become Lingua franca of the twentieth century. Borrowings can be classified according to different criteria:

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

In this classification only the main languages from which words were borrowed into English are described, such as Latin, French, Italian. Spanish, German and Russian.

Loan Words

The term “loan-word” is equivalent to “borrowing”. By translation-loans we indicate borrowings of a special kind. They are not taken into the vocabulary of another language more or less in the same phonemic shape in which they have been functioning in their own language, but undergo the process of translation. It is quite obvious that it is only compound words (i.e. words of two or more stems) which can be subjected to such an operation, each stem being translated separately: “masterpiece” from German “Meisterstück”, “wonder child” from German

“Wunderkind”, “first dancer” from Italian “prima-ballerina”, “collective farm” from Russian “колхоз”, “five-year plan” from Russian “пятилетка”.

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

The case is not unique. During the 2nd World War the German word “Blitzkrieg” was also borrowed into English in two different forms: the translation-loan “lightning-war” and the direct borrowings “blitzkrieg” and “blitz”.

Classification of borrowings according to the borrowed aspect

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

Phonetic borrowings are most characteristic in all languages, they are called loan words proper. Words are borrowed with their spelling, pronunciation and meaning. Then they undergo assimilation, each sound in the borrowed word is substituted by the corresponding sound of the borrowing language. In some cases the spelling is changed. The structure of the word can also be changed. The position of the stress is very often influenced by the phonetic system of the borrowing language. The paradigm of the word, and sometimes the meaning of the borrowed word are also changed.

Such words as: “labour, travel, table, chair, people” are phonetic borrowings from French; “apparatchik, nomenclature, sputnik” are phonetic borrowings from Russian; “bank, soprano, duet” are phonetic borrowings from Italian, etc.

Translation loans are word-for-word (or morpheme-for-morpheme) translations of some foreign words or expressions. In such cases the notion is borrowed from a foreign language but it is expressed by native lexical units, “to

take the bull by the horns” (Latin), “fair sex” (French), “living space” (German) etc. Some translation loans appeared in English from Latin already in the Old English period, e.g. “Sunday” – “solis dies”.

There are translation loans from the languages of Indians, such as: “pipe of peace”, “pale-faced”, from German “masterpiece, homesickness, superman”.

Semantic borrowings are such units when a new meaning of the unit existing in the language is borrowed. It can happen when we have two relative languages which have common words with different meanings.

There are semantic borrowings between Scandinavian and English, such as the meaning “to live” for the word “to dwell” which in Old English had the meaning “to wander”. Or else the meaning “дар, подарок” for the word “gift” which in Old English had the meaning “выкуп за жену”, confer in Azerbaijani “süd pulu”.

Semantic borrowing can appear when an English word was borrowed into some other language, developed there a new meaning and this new meaning was borrowed back into English, e.g. “brigade” was borrowed into Russian and formed the meaning “a working collective, бригада”. This meaning was borrowed back into English as a Russian borrowing. The same is true of the English word “pioneer”.

Morphemic borrowings are borrowings of affixes which occur in the language when many words with identical affixes are borrowed from one language into another, so that the morphemic structure of borrowed words becomes familiar to the people speaking the borrowing language, e.g. we can find a lot of Romanic affixes in the English word-building system, that is why there are a lot of words - hybrids in English where different morphemes have different origin, “goddess, beautiful”, etc.

Classification of borrowings according to the degree of assimilation

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

- a) from what group of languages the word was borrowed, if the word belongs to the same group of languages to which the borrowing language belongs it is assimilated easier;
- b) in what way the word is borrowed: orally or in the written form, words borrowed orally are assimilated quicker;
- c) how often the borrowing is used in the language, the greater the frequency of its usage, the quicker it is assimilated;
- d) how long the word lives in the language, the longer it lives, the more assimilated it is.

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

Completely assimilated borrowings are not felt as foreign words in the language, confer the French word “sport” and the native word “start”. Completely assimilated verbs belong to regular verbs, e.g. correct - corrected. Completely assimilated nouns form their plural by means of s-inflexion, e.g. gate - gates. In completely assimilated French words the stress has been shifted from the last syllable to the last but one.

Semantic assimilation of borrowed words depends on the words existing in the borrowing language, as a rule, a borrowed word does not bring all its meanings into the borrowing language, if it is polysemantic, for instance, the Russian borrowing “sputnik” is used in English only in one of its meanings.

Partly assimilated borrowings are subdivided into the following groups:

a) borrowings non-assimilated semantically, because they denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from the language of which they were borrowed, e.g. “sari, sombrero, taiga, kvass”, etc.

b) borrowings non-assimilated grammatically, e.g. nouns borrowed from Latin and Greek retain their plural forms “bacillus - bacilli, phenomenon - phenomena, datum -data, genius – genii”, etc.

c) borrowings non-assimilated phonetically. Here belong words with the initial sounds /v/ and /z/, e.g. “voice, zero”. In native words these voiced consonants are used only in the intervocal position as allophones of sounds /f/ and /s/ “loss - lose, life – live”.

Some Scandinavian borrowings have consonants and combinations of consonants which were not palatalized, e.g. /sk/ in the words: “sky, skate, ski”, etc. (in native words we have the palatalized sounds denoted by the digraph “sh”, e.g. shirt); sounds /k/ and /g/ before front vowels are not palatalized e.g. “girl, get, give, kid, kill, kettle”. In native words we have palatalization , e.g. “German, child”.

Some French borrowings have retained their stress on the last syllable, e.g. “police, cartoon”. Some French borrowings retain special combinations of sounds, e.g. /a:3/ in the words: “camouflage, bourgeois”, some of them retain the combination of sounds /wa:/ in the words: “memoir, boulevard”.

d) borrowings can be partly assimilated graphically, e.g. in Greek borrowings “y” can be spelled in the middle of the word (symbol, synonym), “ph” denotes the sound /f/ (phoneme, morpheme), “ch” denotes the sound /k/(chemistry, chaos), “ps” denotes the sound /s/ (psychology).

Latin borrowings retain their polysyllabic structure, have double consonants, as a rule, the final consonant of the prefix is assimilated with the initial consonant of the stem, (accompany, affirmative).

French borrowings which came into English after 1650 retain their spelling, e.g. consonants “p, t, s” are not pronounced at the end of the word (buffet, coup, debris), Specifically French combination of letters “eau /ou” can be found in the borrowings: beau, chateau, trousseau.

Some of digraphs retain their French pronunciation: “ch” is pronounced as /sh/, e.g. “chic, parachute”, “qu” is pronounced as /k/ e.g. “bouquet”, “ou” is pronounced as /u:/, e.g. “rouge”; some letters retain their French pronunciation, for instance: “i” is pronounced as /i:/, in the words “chic, machine”; “g” is pronounced as /ʒ/, e.g. “rouge”.

Modern German borrowings also have some peculiarities in their spelling: common nouns are spelled with a capital letter e.g. “Autobahn, Lebensraum”; some vowels and digraphs retain their German pronunciation, e.g. “a” is pronounced as /a:/ “Dictat”, “u” is pronounced as /u:/ “Kuchen”, “au” is pronounced as /au/ “Hausfrau”, “ei” is pronounced as /ai/ “Reich”; some consonants are also pronounced in the German way, e.g. “s” before a vowel is pronounced as /z/ “Sitzkrieg”, “v” is pronounced as /f/ “Volkswagen”, “w” is pronounced as /v/ , “ch” is pronounced as /h/ “Kuchen”.

Non-assimilated borrowings (barbarisms) are borrowings which are used by Englishmen rather seldom and are non-assimilated, e.g. “addio” (Italian), “tete-a-tete” (French), “dolce vita” (Italian), “duende” (Spanish), “an homme a femme” (French), “gonzo” (Italian), etc.

Classification of borrowings according to the language from which they were borrowed

Celtic Borrowings

Celtic Words. By the 5th - 6th century several of the Germanic tribes (the

Angles, the Saxons and Jutes) migrated across the sea to the British Isles. There they were confronted by the Celts, the original inhabitants of the Isles. The Celts desperately defended their lands against the invaders. Through numerous contacts with the defeated Celts, the conquerors borrowed a number of Celtic words “bald, down, bard, cradle, valley”. Especially many words among the Celtic borrowings were place names, names of rivers, hills, etc. The names of rivers “Avon, Devon, Thames, Cornwell Exe, Ux” originate from Celtic words meaning “river” and “water”. Later on some Celtic words came through French. For example: “car, career, cloak”, etc. In the XIII century some Celtic words came from Scotland and Ireland. E.g. “clan” (klan) , “tory” (“Tori” partiyası), plaid, etc. The word “tory” originally meant “robber”, but now it is the name of a political party. The Celtic element in the English vocabulary is quite insignificant.

Greek Borrowings

Greek Words. Many Greek words entered the English language through Latin and French (Renaissance period). Some Greek words entered during the 2nd layer of Latin words (we have already mentioned them). Some of them entered through French: “fancy, idea, catalogue, chronicle, atmosphere, autograph, catastrophe, climax, comedy, critic”, etc. Many of them came into English during the renaissance. They mostly refer to science, art and literature, for example: “Geology, Lexicology, Geography, Etymology, Homonym”, etc. Almost all of the lexicological terms and many theatre terms are of Greek origin: “epilogue, comedy, tragedy, drama”, etc. The morphological features of Greek words are: ch[k] – “school, character, chemistry, chaos”, etc.; ph [f] - “morphology, phonetics, phoneme, morpheme”, etc.; y (in the root) – “style, system, type, rhythm, symbol, synonymy”, etc.

Romanic Borrowings (Latin, French, Italian, Spanish)

Latin borrowings. Among words of Romanic origin borrowed from Latin during the period when the British Isles were a part of the Roman Empire, there are such words as: street, port, wall etc. Many Latin and Greek words came into English during the Adoption of Christianity in the 6-th century. At this time the Latin alphabet was borrowed which ousted the Runic alphabet. These borrowings are usually called classical borrowings. Here belong Latin words: alter, cross, dean, and Greek words: church, angel, devil, anthem.

Latin and Greek borrowings appeared in English during the Middle English period due to the Great Revival of Learning. These are mostly scientific words because Latin was the language of science at the time. These words were not used as frequently as the words of the Old English period, therefore some of them were partly assimilated grammatically, e.g. formula - formulae. Here also belong such words as: memorandum, minimum, maximum, veto, etc.

Classical borrowings continue to appear in Modern English as well. Mostly they are words formed with the help of Latin and Greek morphemes. There are quite a lot of them in medicine (appendicitis, aspirin), in chemistry (acid, valency, alkali), in technique (engine, antenna, biplane, airdrome), in politics (socialism, militarism), names of sciences (zoology, physics). In philology most of terms are of Greek origin (homonym, archaism, lexicography).

Investigating the history of Latin borrowings and Latin influences on Old English it should be noted that Latin was not the language of a conquered people. It was the language of a higher civilization, a civilization from which the Anglo-Saxons had much to learn. It began long before the Anglo-Saxons came to England and continued throughout the Old English period. For several hundred years, while the Germanic tribes who later became the English were still occupying their

continental homes, they had various relations with the Romans through which they acquired a considerable number of Latin words.

Latin influence of the Zero Period (First Layer). Latin words began to penetrate into the English vocabulary at an early stage of the English history. They were brought by Anglo-Saxons from the continent and some of them existed in the language of local population of the British Isles because Romans had been there in the I century and left some traces of their civilization (it was mentioned before). So, these Latin words refer to the objects of trade: “butter, dish, wine, pepper, pear, peach, plum, kitchen, kettle, cook, cheese”, etc. Due to Roman invasion Germanic tribes had to come into contact with Romans. Romans built roads, bridges, military camps. Trade is carried on and the Germanic people gain knowledge of new and useful things. The first among them are new things to eat. It has been mentioned that Germanic cattle-breeding was on a primitive scale. Its only products were meat and milk. It is from the Romans that they learned how to make butter and cheese. As there are naturally no words for these foodstuffs in their tribal languages, they had to use the Latin words to name them. It is also the Romans that the Germanic tribes owe the knowledge of some new fruits and vegetables of which they had no idea before and the Latin names of these fruits and vegetables entered their vocabularies: “cherry, pear, plum, pea, beet, pepper, cup, kitchen, mill, port, wine” and so on. Romans built some fortresses and camps there. So, such kind of Latin words entered the English vocabulary, for example: “strata (street), wall, campus (camp), castra (castle-Latin origin), colony (Latin - colonia)”, etc.

Latin influence of the Second Period. The greatest influence of Latin upon Old English was occasioned by the introduction of Christianity into Britain in 597. This date marks the beginning of a systematic attempt on the part of Rome to convert the inhabitants and makes England a Christian country. This layer was significant for the Christianization of England. These words express religious notions. They came to Britain in the 6th and 7th centuries when the English people

were converted to Christianity. English people were heathens at that time. As Latin was the language of Christianity many religious terms entered the English vocabulary. They are: “monk, priest, angel, anthem, candle, canon, clerk, hymn, minister, dean, abbot, pope, apostle, bishop, circle, martyr, mass, master(magister), noon, offer, organ, palm, paper, rule, shrift”, etc. Among the Latin words there are many Greek words “minister, dean, anthem, devil, church”, etc. It was natural that educational terms were also Latin borrowings, for the first schools in England were church schools, and the first teachers were priests and monks. So the word “school” is a Latin borrowing (Lat. “schola” of Greek origin), and so are such words as “scholar” and “magister”. Some words of general meaning were also borrowed at that time. E.g. “plant, chalk, spade, lion, tiger”, etc.

The Third Layer of Latin Borrowings. This layer of Latin borrowings includes words which came into English due to two historical events: the Norman Conquest and the epoch of Renaissance (XV – XVI centuries). The Renaissance was the epoch of geographical discoveries of the development of literature and art. That’s why these borrowed words are connected with science, literature and art. They were borrowed from books, not through personal intercourse, as it was the case with the words of the first and second layers. The words of the third layer are often called scientific or bookish, or learned words. Many of them have retained their Latin aspects. For example: “minimum, maximum, genius, datum, antenna, memorandum”, etc. Latin words have the following features:

1) all the verbs of the English language ending in “-ate” and “-ute” are of Latin origin, for example: “to exaggerate, to narrate, to persecute, to execute, to translate”, etc.;

2) all the adjectives ending in “-ior” are of Latin origin, for example: “superior, senior, junior”, etc.;

3) some of the English nouns have two adjectives: a) Latin; b) Anglo-Saxon.

A n g l o – S a x o n L a t i n

Noun	Adjective	Adjective
Sun	sunny	solar
Moon	moony	lunar
Father	fatherly	paternal
Mother	motherly	maternal
Brother	brotherly	fraternal

There are some nouns which have only Latin adjectives:

English Nouns	English Adjectives	Latin Adjectives
Eye	-----	ocular
Mind	-----	mental
Tooth	-----	dental

Some of Latin shortened words are used in the written language. For example: e.g. (exempli gratia) – for example; etc. (et cetera) – and the rest; i.e. (id est) – that is; a.m. (ante meridiem) – before noon; p.m. (post meridiem) – after noon; id (idem) – the same; P.S. (post script) - after what had been written; A.D. (anno domini) – in the year of the Lord; B.A. (Baccalaureus Artium) – Bachelor of Arts; B.L. (Baccalaureus Legum) – Bachelor of Law and others. Together with the words of the third layer some Latin affixes (prefixes and suffixes) were borrowed. For example: 1) inter- – international; 2) super- (over) –superhuman; 3) - ist – socialist, capitalist; 4) -ism – socialism, capitalism.

The main morphological features of Latin words are:

1) many Latin words are polysyllabic, for example: “examination,

commencement”;

2) very often they have prefixes ending in consonants, for example: “adventure, abnormal, correspondence”;

3) double consonants are very often met in these words, for example: “communicate, collaborate, narrate”. There are some Latin Sayings and Quotations, too.

French borrowings. There was the influence of French on the English spelling. The largest group of borrowings is French borrowings. Most of them came into English during the Norman Conquest.

French influenced not only the vocabulary of English but also its spelling, because documents were written by French scribes as the local population was mainly illiterate, and the ruling class was French.

Runic letters remaining in English after the Latin alphabet was borrowed were substituted by Latin letters and combinations of letters, e.g. “v” was introduced for the voiced consonant /v/ instead of “f” in the intervocal position “lufian – love”, the digraph “ch” was introduced to denote the sound /ch/ instead of the letter “c” / chest/ before front vowels where it had been palatalized, the digraph “sh” was introduced instead of the combination “sc” to denote the sound /sh/ “ship”, the digraph “th” was introduced instead of the Runic letters “0” and “ts” “this, thing”, the letter “y” was introduced instead of the Runic letter “3” to denote the sound /j/ /yet/, the digraph “qu” substituted the combination “cw” to denote the combination of sounds /kw/ “queen”, the digraph “ou” was introduced to denote the sound /u:/ “house”. The sound /u:/ was later on diphthongized and is pronounced /au/ in native words and fully assimilated borrowings.

As it was difficult for French scribes to copy English texts they substituted the letter “u” before “v, m, n” and the digraph “th” by the letter “o” to escape the combination of many vertical lines “sunu - son”, “luvu - love”.

Borrowing of French words. There are the following semantic groups of French borrowings:

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

Words were borrowed from French into English after 1650, mainly through French literature, but they were not as numerous and many of them are not completely assimilated. There are the following semantic groups of these borrowings:

- a) words relating to literature and music: belle-lettres, conservatoire, brochure, nuance, pirouette, vaudeville;
- b) words relating to military affairs: corps, echelon, fuselage, manouvre;
- c) words relating to buildings and furniture: entresol, chateau, bureau;
- d) words relating to food and cooking: ragout, cuisine.

Italian borrowings. Cultural and trade relations between Italy and England brought many Italian words into English. The earliest Italian borrowing came into English in the 14-th century, it was the word “bank” from the Italian “banko - bench”. Italian money-lenders and money-changers sat in the streets on benches. When they suffered losses they turned over their benches, it was called “banco rotta” from which the English word «bankrupt» originated. In the 17-th century some geological terms were borrowed: volcano, granite, bronze, lava. At the same time some political terms were borrowed: manifesto, bulletin.

But mostly Italian is famous by its influence in music and in all Indo-European languages musical terms were borrowed from Italian: alto, baritone, basso, tenor, falsetto, solo, duet, trio, quartet, quintet, opera, operette, libretto, piano, violin.

Among the 20-th century Italian borrowings we can mention: gazette, incognito, autostrada, fiasco, fascist, dilettante, grotesque, graffito, etc.

Spanish borrowings. Spanish borrowings came into English mainly through its American variant. There are the following semantic groups of them:

- a) trade terms: cargo, embargo;
- b) names of dances and musical instruments: tango, rumba, habanera, guitar;
- c) names of vegetables and fruit: tomato, potato, tobacco, cocoa, banana, ananas, apricot etc.

Germanic borrowings (Scandinavian, German, Holland)

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

Scandinavian borrowings. By the end of the Old English period English underwent a strong influence of Scandinavian due to the Scandinavian conquest of the British Isles. Scandinavians belonged to the same group of peoples as Englishmen and their languages had much in common. As the result of this conquest there are about 700 borrowings from Scandinavian into English.

Scandinavians and Englishmen had the same way of life, their cultural level was the same, they had much in common in their literature therefore there were many words in these languages which were almost identical, e.g.

syster sweoster sister

fiscr fisc fish

felagi felawe fellow

However there were also many words in the two languages which were different, and some of them were borrowed into English, such nouns as: “bull, cake, egg, kid, knife, skirt, window”, etc, such adjectives as: “flat, ill, happy, low, odd, ugly, wrong”, such verbs as: “call, die, guess, get, give, scream” and many others.

Even some pronouns and connective words were borrowed which happens very seldom, such as: “same, both, till, fro, though”, and pronominal forms with “th”: “they, them, their”.

Scandinavian influenced the development of phrasal verbs which did not exist in Old English, at the same time some prefixed verbs came out of usage, e.g. “ofniman, beniman”. Phrasal verbs are now highly productive in English: “take off, give in”.

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

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

Holland borrowings. Holland and England have constant interrelations for many centuries and more than 2000 Holland borrowings were borrowed into English. Most of them are nautical terms and were mainly borrowed in the 14-th

century, such as: freight, skipper, pump, keel, dock, reef, deck, leak and many others.

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

Russian borrowings

There were constant contacts between England and Russia and they borrowed words from one language into the other. Among early Russian borrowings there are mainly words connected with trade relations, such as: ruble, kopeck, pood, sterlet, vodka, sable, and also words relating to nature, such as: taiga, tundra, steppe.

There is also a large group of Russian borrowings which came into English through Russian literature of the 19-th century, such as: “Narodnik, moujik, duma, zemstvo, volost, ukase”, etc, and also words which were formed in Russian with Latin roots, such as: “nihilist, intelligenzia, Decembrist”.

After the Great October Revolution many new words appeared in Russian connected with the new political system, new culture, and many of them were borrowed into English, such as: “collectivization, udarnik, Komsomol”, etc. and also translation loans, such as: “shock worker, collective farm, five-year plan”.

One more group of Russian borrowings is connected with perestroika, such as: “glasnost, nomenklatura, apparatchik”.

Other Borrowings

As a result of empire and trade contacts, the lexicon of English continued to acquire terms from other languages including the following:

American, for example: “raccoon, coyote, prairie, wigwam”;

Australian, for example: “wallaby, kangaroo, boomerang”;

Arabic, for example: “saffron, sequin, tamarind, alchemy, zenith”;

Persian, for example: “naphtha, jasmine, chess, lilac”;

Japanese, for example: “samurai, kimono”;

Other Asian regions, for example: “avatar, yoga, stupa, karma, curry, bangle, chop, catamaran, mandarin, ketchup, kowtow”.

For users of English in England, America, the rest of Europe, etc., these settle around periphery, not as learned words but as “exotica”.

International Words

It is often the case that a word is borrowed by several languages, and not just by one. Such words usually convey concepts which are significant in the field of communication.

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

It is quite natural that political terms frequently occur in the international group of borrowings: “politics, policy, revolution, progress, democracy, communism, anti-militarism”.

20th c. scientific and technological advances brought a great number of new international words: “atomic, antibiotic, radio, television, sputnik”. The latter is a Russian borrowing, and it became an international word (meaning a man-made satellite) in 1961, immediately after the first space flight by Yury Gagarin.

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

Fruits and foodstuffs imported from exotic countries often transport their names too and, being simultaneously imported to many countries, become international: “coffee, cocoa, chocolate, coca-cola, banana, mango, avocado, grapefruit”.

It is important to note that international words are mainly borrowings. The outward similarity of such words as the English “son”, the German “Sohn” and the Russian “сын” should not lead one to the quite false conclusion that they are international words. They represent the Indo-European group of the native element in each respective language and are cognates, i.e. words of the same etymological root, and not borrowings.

Etymological doublets

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

Latino-French doublets. Latin English from Latin English from French; uncia inch ounce; moneta mint money; camera camera chamber; Franco-French doublets; doublets borrowed from different dialects of French.

Norman Paris: canal channel; captain chieftain; catch chaise; Scandinavian-English doublets; Scandinavian English; skirt shirt; scabby shabby.

There are also etymological doublets which were borrowed from the same language during different historical periods, such as French doublets: gentil - любезный, благородный, etymological doublets are: “gentle - yumşaq, nəzakətli” and “genteel – alicənab”. From the French word gallant etymological doublets are: “gallant – mərəd” and “ga’llant – qalant, diqqətçil”.

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

Exercises

I. Consider your answers to the following:

- 1) Which conditions stimulate the borrowing process?
- 2) Why are words borrowed?
- 3) What stages of assimilation do borrowings go through?
- 4) In what spheres of communication do international words frequently occur?
- 5) What do we understand by etymological doublets?
- 6) What are the characteristic features of translation-loans?
- 7) How are the etymological and stylistic characteristics of words interrelated?

II. Explain the etymology of the following words. Write them out in three columns: a) fully assimilated words; b) partially assimilated words; c) unassimilated words. Explain the reasons for your choice in each case.

Pen, hors d'oeuvre, ballet, beet, butter, skin, take, cup, police, distance, monk, garage, phenomenon.

III. Consider your answers to the following:

- 1) How can you account for the fact that English vocabulary contains such an immense number of words of foreign origin?
- 2) What is the earliest group of English borrowings? Date it.
- 3) What Celtic borrowings are there in English? Date them.
- 4) Which words were introduced into English vocabulary during the period of Christianization?
- 5) What are the characteristic features of Scandinavian borrowings?
- 6) When and under what circumstances did England become a bi-lingual country?
- 7) What imprint features were left in English vocabulary by this period?
- 8) What are the characteristic features of words borrowed into English during the Renaissance?
- 9) What suffixes and prefixes can help you to recognize words of Latin and French origin?
- 10) What is meant by the native element of English vocabulary?

IV. Subdivide all the following words of native origin into:

a) Indo-European, b) Germanic, c) English proper.

Daughter, woman, room, land, cow, moon, sea, red, spring, three, I, lady, always, goose, bear, fox, lord, tree, nose, birch, grey, old, glad, daisy, heart, hand, night, to eat, to see, to make.

V. Read the following jokes. Explain the etymology of the italicized words. If necessary consult a dictionary. (Skeat W. A Concise

Etymological Dictionary of the English Language. Oxford, 1961; Weckley E. An Etymological Dictionary of Modern English. V. I-II. No 4, p.19).

1 . He dropped around to the *girl's house* and as he ran up the steps he was confronted by her *little brother*. "Hi, Billy". "Hi", - said the brat. "Is your *sister* expecting me?" "Yeah". "How do you know that?" "She's gone out".

2. A *man* was at a theatre. He was sitting behind *two women* whose continuous chatter became more than he could bear. Leaning forward, he tapped *one* of them on the *shoulder*. "Pardon me, madam," - he said, "but I can't *hear*." "You are not supposed to this is a private conversation", - she hit back.

3. Sonny: *Father*, what *do* they *make* asphalt roads of?

Father: That makes a *thousand* question you've asked today. Do give me a *little* peace. What do you *think* would happen if I had asked my father so *many* questions?

Sonny: You might have learnt how to answer some of mine.

CHAPTER VII

SEMASIOLOGY

The branch of Lexicology which deals with the meaning is called Semasiology. The name comes from the Greek “semasia” “signification” (from sema – sign; semantic as “significant” and logos – “learning”). For its subject matter not only the study of lexicon, but also of morphology, syntax and sentential semantics meaning is one of the most controversial terms in the theory of language of first sight the understanding of this term seems to present no difficulty of all - it is freely used in teaching, interpreting and translation:

a) The lexical meaning of the word. The study of meaning is a permanent interest of scholarship. It has been pursued in all the languages of the major civilizations and in ancient times, especially in Sanskrit, Greek and Latin. There are many other ways of applying the word meaning in English. The use of the word meaning is subject to the general rule that each word when used in a new context is a new word. The disciplines and techniques of linguistics are directed to assist us in making statements of meaning. Even in a dictionary, the lexical meaning of any given word is achieved by multiple statements of meaning at different levels. First, of the orthographic level the group of letters, peer is distinguished from the group. Pier and both of these from pear and pare. Next, by means of some kind of phonetic notation, the pronunciation is stated, and new identities arise. At last two grammatical designations are possible for peer-noun, substantive or verb. Formal and etymological meaning may be added, together with social indications at usage such as colloquial, slang, vulgar, practical.

b) The term “notion” (concept) is introduced info-linguistic from logic and psychology. It denotes the reflection in the mind of real objects and phenomena in their essential features and relations. Each notion is characterized by its scope and content. The content of the notion is made up of all the features that distinguish it from other notions. The distinction between the scope and the content of a notion

lies of the basis of such terms as identifying and significative functions of the word. The identifying function may be interpreted as denoting the objects covered by the scope of the notion expressed in the word and significative function is the function of expressing the content of the respective notion. The function of rendering an emotion or an attitude is termed the expressive function.

The first essential point is that the relationship between notion and meaning varies. The problem of proper names is particularly complicated. They do not convey any generalized notion at all, that they only name human beings, countries, cities, animals, rivers, etc. and yet names like Moscow, The Thames, Italy, and Byron Evoke notions. The clue, as ST. Ullmann convincingly argues, lies in the specific function of proper names which is identification and not signifying.

Secondly, notions are always emotionally neutral as they are a category of thought. Language, however, expresses all possible aspects of human consciousness. Emotionally charged words can cover the whole scale of both positive and negative emotions: admiration, respect, tenderness and other positive feelings on the one hand and scorn, irony, loathing etc. on the other. Two or more words having the same denotative meaning may differ in emotional tone as: baby and kid: child.

Thirdly, the absence not only of identity, but even of regular one-to-one correspondence between meaning and notion is clearly seen in words belonging to some specific stylistic level.

The stylistic coloring should not be mixed with emotional tone.

The linguistic nature of lexical meaning has very important consequences. Every word may be said to have paradigmatic ties relating it to other words and forms, and giving it a differential quality.

The lexical meaning of every word depends upon the parrot speech to which the word belongs.

Word – Meaning

Every word has two aspects: the outer aspect (its sound form) and the inner aspect (its meaning). Sound and meaning do not always constitute a constant unit even in the same language. E.g. the word “temple” may denote “a part of a human head” and “a large church” In such cases we have homonyms. One and the same word in different syntactical relations can develop different meanings, e.g. the verb “treat” in sentences:

- a) He treated my words as a joke.
- b) The book treats of poetry.
- c) They treated me to sweets.
- d) He treats his son cruelly.

In all these sentences the verb “treat” has different meanings and we can speak about polysemy.

On the other hand, one and the same meaning can be expressed by different sound forms, e.g. “pilot”, and “airman”, “horror” and “terror”. In such cases we have synonyms.

Both the meaning and the sound can develop in the course of time independently. E.g. the Old English “lufian” is pronounced /l[^]v / in Modern English. On the other hand, “board” primarily means “a piece of wood had sawn thin” It has developed the meanings: “a table, a board of a ship, a stage, a council”, etc.

Every word may be used in a limited set of syntactical functions, and with a definite valency.

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

Unlike the grammatical meaning this component is identical in all the forms of the word. Thus, for instance, the word-forms “go, goes, went, going, gone” possess different grammatical meanings of tense, person and so on, but in each of these forms we find one and the same semantic component denoting the process of movement. This is the lexical meaning of the word.

The lexical meaning of a word is the realization of a notion by means of a definite language system. A word is a language unit, while a notion is a unit of thinking. A notion cannot exist without a word expressing it in the language, but there are words which do not express any notion but have a lexical meaning. Interjections express emotions but not notions, but they have lexical meanings, e.g. “Alas!” means disappointment, “Oh, my buttons!” means surprise, etc. There are also words which express both notions and emotions, e.g. “girlie, a pig” when used metaphorically.

The term “notion” was introduced into lexicology from logics. A notion denotes the reflection in the mind of real objects and phenomena in their relations. Notions, as a rule, are international, especially with the nations of the same cultural level while meanings can be nationally limited.

Grouping of meanings in the semantic structure of a word is determined by the whole system of every language. E.g. the English verb “go” and its Russian equivalent “идти” have some meanings which coincide: “to move from place to place, to extend” – “the road goes to London”, “to work” - “Is your watch going?”

On the other hand, they have different meanings: in Russian we say: “Odur gəlir”, in English we use the verb “come” in this case. In English we use the verb “go” in the combinations: “to go by bus”, “to go by train”, etc. In Azerbaijani in these cases we use the verb “gəlmək”.

The number of meanings does not correspond to the number of words, neither does the number of notions. Their distribution in relation to words is peculiar in every language. The Azerbaijani has two words for the English “man”:

“kişi” and “insan, adam”. In English, however, “man” cannot be applied to a female person. We say in Russian: “Она хороший человек”, in Azerbaijani “O yaxşı adamdır”. In English we use the word “person” in the sentence “She is a good person”.

Development of lexical meanings in any language is influenced by the whole network of ties and relations between words and other aspects of the language.

The concept of plurality e.g. may be expressed by the lexical meaning of the word plurality it may also be expressed in the forms of their lexical meaning e.g. “boys, girls, joys”, etc.

It is generally assumed that one of the semantic features of some morphemes which distinguish them from words is that they do not possess grammatical meaning.

Many English words consist of a single root-morpheme, so when we say that most morphemes possess lexical meaning we imply mainly the root-morphemes in such words. It may be easily observed that the lexical meaning of the word boy and the lexical meaning of the root-morpheme boy – in such words as “boyhood, boyish” and others is very much the same.

Just as in words lexical meaning in morphemes may be analyzed into denotational and connotational components. The connotational component of meaning may be found not only in root-morphemes but in affixational morphemes as well. Endearing and diminutive suffixed, e.g. “-ette” – kitchenette; “-ie” – dearie, girlie.

Proceeding with the semantic analysis we observe that the lexical meaning is not homogenous either and connotational components. As was mentioned above one of the functions of words is to denote things, concepts and so on. The leading semantic component in the semantic structure of a word is usually termed denotative component or denotation (also, the term referential component may be used) of a language cannot have any knowledge or thought of the objects or

phenomena of the real world around them unless this knowledge is ultimately embodied in words which have essentially the same meaning for all speakers of that language. This is the denotational meaning i.e. that component of the lexical meaning which makes communication possible. Now we shall analyze these in greater detail. In most cases the denotative meaning is essentially cognitive.

The denotative component expresses the conceptual (national) content of a word. There is no doubt, that a physicist knows more about the atom than a singer does, or that an arctic explorer possesses a much deeper knowledge of what arctic ice is like than a man who has never been in the North. Nevertheless they use the words atom, Arctic, etc. and understand each other.

The second component of the lexical meaning is the connotational component, i.e. the emotive charge and the stylistic value of the word. The expressive function of the language with its orientation towards the speakers' feelings, and the pragmatic function dealing with the effect of words upon listeners are rendered in connotations. Unlike the denotative meaning connotations are optional – x compulsory.

The description of the denotative meaning or meanings is the duty of lexicographers in unilingual explanatory dictionaries. The task is a difficult one because there is no clear-cut demarcation line between the semantic features, strictly necessary for each definition, and those that are optional. A glance at the definitions given in several dictionaries will suffice to show how much they differ in solving the problem. A cat, for example, is defined by Hornby as “a small, fur-covered animal often kept as a pet in the house”, Longman in his dictionary goes greater detail. A cat is “a small animal with soft fur and sharp teeth and claws”, often kept or in buildings to catch mice.

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

Denotative components:

lonely, adj. - alone, without company

notorious .adj. - widely known

celebrated, adj. - widely known

to glare, v. - to look

to glance, v. - to look

to shiver, v. - to tremble

to shudder v. - to tremble

The definition given in the right column only partially and in completely describe the meanings of their corresponding words. To give a more or less full picture of the meaning of the word, it is necessary to include in the scheme of analysis additional semantic components which are termed connotations or connotative components. Let us complete the semantic structure of the words given above introducing connotative components into the schemes of their semantic structures

Denotative components		Connotative components	
lonely (adj.) - alone, without company	+	melancholy, (emotive connotation)	
to glare, v. - to look in anger, rage	+ steadily lastingly	1) connotation of duration	2) emotive connotation

It the denotative meaning exists by virtue of what the word refers to, connotation is the pragmatic communicative value the word receives by virtue of where, when, how, by whom, for what purpose and in what contexts it is or may be used. Four main types of connotations are described below. They are stylistic, emotional, evaluative and expressive or intensifying.

When association of work concern the situation in which the word is uttered, the social circumstances (formal, familiar, etc, the social relationships between the

interlocutors (polite, rough) the type and purpose of communication (learned, poetic, official, etc) the connotation is stylistic an effective method of revealing connotations is the analysis of synonymic groups, where the identify of denotational meanings makes it possible to separate the connotational overtones ex; the noun horse and its synonyms is a classical example for showing stylistic connotations. The word horse is stylistically neutral, its synonym steed is poetic, nag is a word of slang and gee-gee is baby language.

The emotional or effective connotation is acquired by the word as a result of its frequent use in contexts corresponding to emotional situations or because the referent conceptualized and named in the denotative meaning is associated with emotions. Ex; the verb “beseech” means “to ask eagerly and also anxiously” e.g. he besought a favour of the judge.

Evaluative connotation – express approval or disapproval.

A fourth type of connotation is the intensifying connotation (also expressive, emphatic). Thus, “magnificent, splendid, superb” are all used colloquially as terms of exaggeration. Sometimes emotion or evaluation is expressed in the style of the utterances.

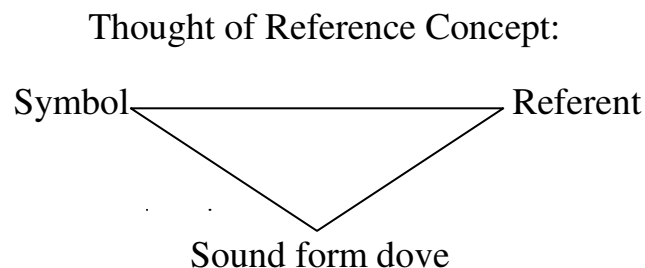
The Referential and Functional Approaches to Meaning

There are two schools of thought in present-day linguistics. They represent the main lines of contemporary thinking on the problem the referential approach, which seeks to formulate the essence of meaning by establishing the interdependence between words and the things or concepts they denote; and the functional approach, which studies the functions of a word in speech and is less concerned with what meaning is than with how it works.

Generally speaking, meaning can be more or less described as a component of the word through which a concept is communicated, in this way endow the word with the ability, actions and abstract notions.

All major works on semantic theory have so far been based on referential concepts of meaning. The essential feature of this approach is that it distinguishes between the three components closely connected with meaning; the sound form of the linguistic sign, the concept underlying this sound- form, and the actual referent.

The complex and somewhat mysterious relationships between referent (object, etc. denoted by the word) concept and word are traditionally represented by the following triangle:



By the “symbol” here is meant the word; thought or reference is concept.

The dotted line suggest that, there is no immediate relation between word and referent; it is established only through the concept. Let us now examine the place of meaning in this model. It is easily observed that the sound- form of the word is not identical with its meaning e.g. [dʌv] is the sound form used to denote a peal- grey bird. There is a hypothesis that concepts can only find their realization through words. The mechanisms by which concepts are converted into a kind of mental picture are not yet understood or described.

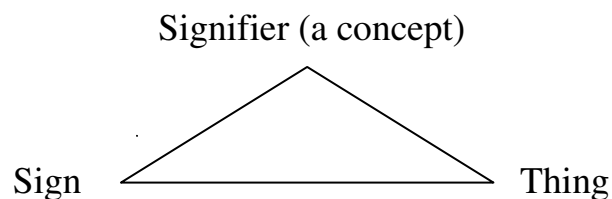
When we examine a word we see that its meaning though closely connected with underlying concept or concepts is not identical with them.

Concept is a category of “human” cognition. Concept is the thought of the object that singles out its essential features. The meanings of words are different in different languages.

To distinguish meaning from the referent, i. e. from the thing denoted by the linguistic sign is of the utmost importance. To begin with, meaning is linguistic whereas the denoted object or the referent is beyond the scope of the language. We can denote one and the same object by more than one word of a different meaning. For instance, in a speech situation an apple can be denoted by the words apple, fruit, something, this, etc. as all of these words may have the same referent meaning cannot be equated with the actual properties of the referent, e.g. the meaning of the word water cannot be regarded as identical with its chemical formula H₂O as water means essentially the same to all English speakers including those who have no idea of its chemical composition.

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

The account of meaning given by Ferdinand De Saussure implies the definition of a word as linguistic sign. He calls it “signifier” (signifier) and what it refers to- “signified” (that which is signified). The situation may be represented by a triangle:



Here according to F. De Saussure, only the relationship shown by a solid line concerns linguistics and the sign is not a unity of form and meaning.

Originally this triangular scheme was suggested by the German mathematician and philosopher Gotlieb Frege (1848-1925) well-known English scholars C.K.Ogden and I.A.Richards adopted thus three cornered pattern with considerable modifications. There are several general with considerable modifications. Several generations of writers, following C.K.Ogden and I.A.

Richards, have in their turn taken up and modified this diagram. It is known under several names: the semantic triangle, triangle of signification. Frege semantic triangle, Ogden and Richard's basic triangle or simply basic triangle.

In the modification of triangle given here we have to understand that the referent belongs to extra- linguistic reality, it is reflected in our mind in several stages.

Functional approach to meaning is known and has begun to take shape in linguistics and especially in structural linguistics. The functional approach maintains that the meaning of a linguistic unit may be studied only through its relation to other linguistic units and not through its relation to either concept or referent.

In the functional approach semantic investigation is confined to the analysis of the difference or sameness of meaning. Meaning is understood essentially as the function of the use of linguistic units. One thing is known that when comparing the two approaches described above in terms of methods of linguistic analysis we see that the functional approach should not be considered an alternative, but rather a valuable complement to the referential theory. There is absolutely no need to see the two approaches against each other; each handles its own side of the problem and neither is completed without the other.

To prove our thought we should give such an example. In a very simplified form this view may be illustrated by the following for instance: we know the meaning of the two words move and movement is different because they function in speech differently.

They occupy different positions in relation to other words, for example: (to) move, etc. The position occupied by the word movement is different: it may be followed by a preposition (movement of smth.), preceded by an adjective (slow movement) and so on.

How Words Develop New Meanings?

It has been mentioned that the system of meaning of polysemantic words evolve gradually. The older a word is, the better developed is its semantic structure. Here we shall have a closer look of the complicated process by which words acquire new meanings. There are two aspects to this problem. Which can be generally described in the following way:

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

b) How does it happen? What is the nature of the very process of development of new meanings? Set us deal with each of these questions in turn.

New meanings can also be developed due to linguistic factors (the second group causes). Meaning is one of the controversial terms in the theory of language.

“Semaphere” is a science of meaning and the term had been used in English a few years earlier, this translation (semantics) played a decisive role in the diffusion of the new science and its name.

The word itself is defined, in Bloomfield’s classic formula, as a minimum free form, which may consist of one or more morphemes. It follows that semantic problems will arise not only of the word level, but also below and above it; below of the level of bound morphemes (suffixes, prefixes, non-independent roots, etc) and above it of the level of phrases and the higher combinations into which they enter.

Y.K.Firth especially indicates that the study of meaning is a permanent interest of scholarship. It has been perused in all the languages of the major civilizations and in ancient times, especially in Sanskrit, Greek and Latin. There are many other ways of applying the word meaning in English, including the usages of logicians, physiologists, sociologists, lexicographers.

Even in dictionary, the lexical meaning of any given word is achieved by multiple statements of meaning of different levels.

The development and change of the semantic structure of a word is always a source of qualitative and quantitative development of the vocabulary.

The order in which various types are described will follow more or less closely diachronic classification of M.Breal and CH. Paul, M.Breal was probably the first to emphasize the fact that in passing from general usage into some special sphere of communication a word as rule undergoes some sort of specialization of its meaning. The word *case*, for instance, alongside its general meaning ‘circumstances in which a person or a thing is “possesses special meaning”’.

The general, not specialized meaning is also very frequent in present-day English. Words connected with illnesses and medicine in the first example, and words connected with law and court procedures in the second determine the semantic structure or paradigm of the word *case*.

One of the most fruitful concepts evolved so far in structural semantics is that of the lexical field, closely associated with Fast Frier and his school. So much has been written of late on this subject that it is unnecessary to go into details.

It will be sufficient to resale that lexical fields are highly organized and integrated conceptual spheres whose elements mutually delimit each other and derive their significance from system as a whole. Examples of lexical fields are; the system of colors, the network of family relations; or among many abstract experiences, the terms for intellectual qualities, ethical and Aesthetical values, religious and mystical experiences.

It treated diachronically, semasiology studies the change in meaning which words undergo. Descriptive synchronic approach demands a study not of individual words but of semantic structures typical of the language studied, and of its general semantic system. So, all the lexical and lexico-grammatical variants of a word taken together form its semantic structure or semantic paradigm.

Thus, in the semantic structure of the word youth three lexico-grammatical variants may be distinguished; the first is an abstract uncountable noun, as in the friends of one's youth, the second is a countable personal noun, young man (plural youths) that can be substituted by the pronoun he in the singular and they in the plural third is a collective noun 'young men women' having only one form, that of the singular, substituted by the pronoun they within the first lexico grammatical variant two shades of meaning can be distinguished with two different, one denoting the state of being young and the other the time of being young.

These two shades of meaning are recognized due to the lexical peculiarities of distribution and sometimes are blended together as in to feel that one's youth has gone, where both the time and the state can be meant. These variants form a structured set because they are expressed by the same sound complex and are interrelated in meaning all contain the semantic component 'young' and can be explained by means of one another.

No general or complex scheme of types lexical meaning as elements of a word's semantic structure has so far been accepted by linguists. Linguistic literature abounds in various terms reflecting various points of view. The following terms may be found with different authors; the meaning is direct when it nominates the referent without the help of a context, in isolation i.e. in one word sentences. The meaning is figurative when used figuratively a word, while naming an object.

The Development and Change of Meaning of Words

There are causes of development of new meanings. The first group of causes is traditionally termed historical or extra – linguistic. There are different kinds of changes in a nation's social life, in its culture in the vocabulary which beg to be filled. Newly created objects, new nations and phenomena must be named.

Thus, the branch of Linguistic which deals with the meaning of words is called semasiology. It is suggested that semasiology has for its subject matter not only the study of lexicon, but also of morphology, syntax and semantics meaning is and of the most controversial- terms in the theory of language. At first sight the understanding of this term seems to present no difficulty at all - it is freely used in teaching, interpreting and translation. The scientific definition of meaning however just the definition of some other basic linguistic terms, such as word, sentence etc. has been the issue of interminable discussions.

The problem of meaning of words is very important because it is directly connected with the problem of interrelation of language and thought. Many of the bourgeois linguistic assert that there is no such thing as an objective meaning of a word, what quite wrong. Such a point of view reveals the idealistic essence of those bourgeois linguistic and they are called semanticists. They consider the meanings of words are subjective and the words acquire their meanings only when they are uttered by the speaker. The basic thesis of Marxist linguistics is the connection of language and thought.

The (interchange of thoughts and correct understanding of words is possible only if the words of a language) express notions understandable, common to all the people speaking the given language. Being the reflection of reality words cannot remain unchanged in their meaning. Their meanings develop; get new shades and some words change their meanings, which mean that they lose their etymological meaning. Under the etymology of a word we mean its origin and first meaning, that's the meaning with which word appeared and began to function. The development of meaning might go so far that original meaning is not known to those people who use the word.

The analysis of the word "revolution" shows that originally when this word first appeared in Middle English its meaning was "rotation" or "the return of a point or a period of time". Later the word acquired other meaning and among them

“a complete over throw of the established government or regime” which now becomes the primary and central.

The etymological meaning of the word “to surprise” was “to seize”; “to investigate”- to follow smb’s traces; -sled “town” - həyatyanı sahə, “glamour”- Greek “grammatike” - skilful in grammar, deep knowledge, then it became and now “cadugarlıq” and now “обояние”.

Sometimes people make mistakes in their explanation of the origin of some words and distort them. This is called Folk Etymology and is the substitution of what is unknown by what is known and clear to ordinary. For example: people gravelblind - stone blind; etiquette - quite the ticket (quite right).

There are cases of false etymology when scientists attempt to give some words with complicated spelling and pronunciation. This is called “Etymological tricks” for example: “Khyme” comes from old English “rim” (measure) and would naturally be “rime” in Modern English but scholars attempted to explain this word as if came from the Greek “rhythms” and that’s why the spelling of the word is not “rime” but “rhyme”. The words “debt” and “doubt” are taken from French words “dette” and “doute”. But these words were corrected and “t” was changed into “b” in order to show their relation to Latin words “debitum”, “debitare”. To avoid mistakes while researching into the origin of words one must be very careful.

Another linguistic development of synonyms which can be illustrated by the semantic development of a number of words. The word “land” e.g. in O.E. land meant both “solid part of earth’s surface” and “the territory of nation” when in the Middle English period the word country (Old Fr) was borrowed as its synonym, the meaning of the word land was somewhat altered and “the territory of a nation” came to be denoted mainly by the borrowed word country.

Generally speaking, a necessary condition of any semantic change is some connection between the old and the new meaning.

There are two kinds of association involved as a rule in various semantic changes namely a) similarity of meanings b) contiguity of meanings.

Similarity of meanings or metaphor may be described as a semantic process of associating two referents, one of which in some resembles the other. The word hand e.g. acquired in the 16th century the meaning of ‘a pointer of a clock or a watch’ because of the similarity of one of the functions performed by the hand. The word ‘worm’ and ‘cold’ began to denote certain qualities of human voices because of some kind of similarity between these qualities and warm and cold temperature. It is also usual to perceive similarity between colours and emotions.

Contiguity of meanings or metonymy may be described as the semantic process of associating two referents one of which makes part of the other or is closely connected with it.

Metonymy- Greek word which means “meta”- “substitution” and “onyma”- “name”. It is a transference of name from one object or phenomenon to another on the basis of some constant connection existing between them; e. g ; Madeira (wine), China(ware), Brussels (carpet), Holland (linen), Astrakhan (fur).

This can be perhaps best illustrated by the use of the word tongue – “the origin of speech” in the meaning of “language” (as in mother tongue cf. Confer also L. lingua. Курс-язык).

Similarity of Meaning or Metaphor

What words are used for metaphor? They are: parts of the body, words describing mental states or qualities which in their earlier use were purely physical low (man, fellow) sharp temper, names of animals are often used metaphorically to denote human qualities: a man can be called “a tiger, a fox, a dog, a goose”.

There are great many idiomatic phrases and proverbs or sayings containing the names of animals, birds, insects used metaphorically: “a snake in the grass, to make mountains out of molehills, trot in the throat (hoarse voice): it is raining cats and dogs, to take a bee line” (düz yolla getmək).

Related to metaphor is simile whereas metaphor is an implied comparison, the simile is an implied comparison; the simile is a direct comparison. The moon is a silver coin. The moon like a silver coin (simile).

The development of abstract meanings from concrete also takes place on the basis of metaphor, for instance: “to grasp” meant “to size” now it means “to understand”. Some proper names have become common on basis of metaphor, Romeo, Don Juan.

It is generally held that metaphor plays a more important role in the change of meaning than metonymy. The names of some colours have a metonymic origin, for example: violet.

Exercises

Consider your answers to the following:

- 1) What is Semasiology?
- 2) What is the Meaning?
- 3) Is lexical meaning – notion?
- 4) Open the essence of the referential and functional approaches.
- 5) Describe the development of meaning of the words.
- 6) Explain the process of changing the meaning of the words.
- 7) What is a metaphor? Open the structure of metaphor.
- 8) Which types of metaphor do you know?

9) Which processes are involved in the generation and comprehension of metaphor?

10) George Lakoff said: “The most fundamental values in the culture will be coherent with the metaphorical structure of the most fundamental concepts in the culture”. Do you agree with this opinion? Give the foundation to it.

CHAPTER VIII

SEMANTICS

The branch of linguistics which specializes in the study of meaning is called Semantics. Though the problem of polysemantic words and change of meaning attracted attention of a group of scholars long ago, namely (Chinese and Indian, Greek scientists A.A) – only in 1839 German scholar Karl Ruying in his lectures on Latin philology suggested to pay special attention to meaning of words as an independent science which was named semasiology by him. Surely his lectures remained unknown to everybody. A great contribution in the development of the very new science was made by the French scholar Mishel Breal who suggested the term “Semantics”. Surely it is suitable to call it semasiology but not semantics. In Russia especially the following scholars worked too much A.A.Potebnya, M.M Pokrovskiy, at present number of scholars make their contribution to the evolution.

Types of Semantic Components

The leading semantic component in the semantic structure of a word is usually termed denotative component or denotation (also, the term referential component may be used). The denotative component expresses the conceptual (national) contents of a word. The following list presents denotative components of some English adjective and verbs.

Denotative components

lonely, adj - alone, without company

notorious, adj - widely known

celebrated, adj – widely known

to glare - to look

to glance - to look

to shiver – to tremble

to shudder – to tremble

The definitions given in the right column only partially and incompletely describe the meaning of their corresponding words. To give a more or less full picture of the meaning of a word, it is necessary of analysis additional semantic components which are termed connotations or connotative.

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

Lonely adj. - denotative component + connotative components.

Melancholy, sad, alone, without company - emotive connotation

Celebrated adj. - widely known + for special achievement in science, art, etc. – evaluative connotative positive

to glare - to look + steadily / lastingly 1) connection of duration

to loch + in anger rage, 2) emotive connotation.

to shiver - to tremble + lastingly 1) connection of duration

(usually) with the cold 2) condition of cause

The above examples show how by singling out denotative and connotative components one can get a sufficiently clear picture of what the word really means. More detailed classification of connective components of meaning can be found in synonyms.

Semantics is used too, but in soviet linguistics preference is given to semasiology as the word semantics is often used to designate one of them scholars of modern idealistic philosophy and is also found as a synonym of meaning. As lexicology is beginning to absorb a major part of the efforts to linguistic scientists,

semasiology is coming to the fore as the central problem of linguistic investigation of all levels of language structure.

Now we'll speak about the elements of the semantic structure. The branch of lexicology that is devoted to the study of meaning is as semasiology. Sometimes the term "semantic" is used too. But in Soviet Linguistics preference is given to semasiology as the word semantics is often used to designate one of the schools of modern idealistic philosophy and is also found as a synonym of meaning.

It may safely be said that semantics as concerned with the meanings of words is the basic of lexicology. There is no need to stress the importance of studying semantics, its value in linguistics makes itself quite evident.

The processes by which words change in meaning are varied. There are a number of recognized ways in which words change in meaning, a knowledge of the nature these changes help us master the language.

The meaning of a word implies not only the reflection of reality but the attitude of the speaker towards reality. Semantics is the meaning of words, expressions or grammatical forms. Meaning is the most important characteristics of the word. It is suggested that semasiology has for its subject matter not only the study of lexicon, but also of morphology, syntax and sentential semantics. We already know of two ways for providing new names for newly created notions; making new words(word-building)and borrowing foreign ones one more way of filling such vocabulary gaps is by applying some old word to a new object or nation.

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

by horses but, with the first appearance of railways in England it received a new meaning that of “a railway car”.

It must be noted that one of the most pervasive phenomena in natural language is that of ambiguity. Ambiguity describes the linguistic phenomenon whereby expressions are potentially understood in two or more ways; an ambiguous expression has more than one interpretation in its context: “Fine for parking”. There are three types of lexical ambiguity: polysemy, homonymy and categorial ambiguity. Any practical natural language understanding system must be able to disambiguate words with multiple meanings, and the method is used to do this must necessarily work with the methods of semantic interpretation and knowledge representation used in the system.

Polysemy

Polysemy comes from Neo-Latin “polysemia”, which comes from Greek “polusemous” (“poly” many – “sema”- sign) giving us a linguistic term, “having many meanings” or multiple meanings. The words “polysemy” and “polysemous” are defined as “having or characterized by many meanings; the existence of several meanings for a single word or phrase”.

As said earlier, these terms refer to “words” or other “items of languages with two or more senses”; for example “walk” as in “The child started to walk” and “They live at 217 Meadow Walk”. Such senses may be more or less distant from one another: “walk” in the meaning of action and “walk” in the meaning of street – are relatively close, but “crane” in the meaning of bird and “crane” in the meaning of machine – are much further apart.

It is generally agreed that in each case only one word is being discussed, not two that happen to have the same form (to which the name “homonym” is given). Senses of the same word are seldom ambiguous in context, but the less specific the

context, the greater the possibility of ambiguity; for example, if someone who is looking at a picture says “What big cranes” it may not be immediately clear to someone who cannot see the picture whether the comment refers “to birds” or “machines”.

The existence of polysemy has obvious dangers; it can make language rather slippery, so that in the course of a piece of reasoning we may be led astray because a key word in our argument is used with different meanings in different places. This often happens in political or moral disputes, where words like “freedom” and “natural” get thrown around in ill-defined and shifting senses. On the other hand, the kind of “play” that polysemy gives to language makes it easier to use: communication would really be too difficult if, in every utterance, we had to practice the strictness of definition demanded by mathematics or by symbolic logic. Of course, reasoned demonstration is only one of the many functions of language: on some uses polysemy plays an essential part, enabling us to achieve a complexity and a compression that would otherwise be impossible. The kind of impact Shakespeare produces in his major works would be impossible without the richness given to the language by polysemy because every word is clustered around with associations, derived from the different types of context in which it can be used.

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

Most English words are polysemantic. For example: “dull”- uninterested, monotonous, boring- a dull book, a dull filer; “slow” in understanding, stupid a

dull student; “not clear” or “bright”, dull weather, colour; “not loud” or “distinct”-dull sound; “not sharp” a dull knife.

Different meanings of a polysemantic word may come together due to the proximity of notions which they express. E.g. the word “blanket” has the following meanings: a woolen covering used on beds, a covering for keeping a horse warm, a covering of any kind, a blanket of snow, covering all or most cases used attributively, e.g. we can say “a blanket insurance policy”.

There are some words in the language which are monosemantic, such as most terms “synonym, molecule, bronchitis”, some pronouns “this, my, both”, numerals.

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. For instance, in the word “face” the primary meaning denotes “the front part of the human head” connected with the front position the meanings: the front part of a watch, the front part of a building, the front part of a playing card were formed; connected with the word “face” itself the meanings: expressions of the face, outward appearance are formed.

In cases of concatenation secondary meanings of a word develop like a chain. In such cases it is difficult to trace some meanings to the primary one. E.g. in the word “crust” the primary meaning “hard outer part of bread” developed a secondary meaning “hard part of anything - a pie, a cake”, then the meaning “harder layer over soft snow” was developed, then “a sullen gloomy person”, then “impudence” were developed. Here the last meanings have nothing to do with the primary ones. In such cases homonyms appear in the language. It is called **the split of polysemy**.

In most cases in the semantic development of a word both ways of semantic development are combined.

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

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

Let us deal with both these questions together.

Polysemy is certainly not an anomaly. Most English words are polysemantic. It should be noted that the wealth of expressive resources of a language largely depends on the degree to which polysemy has developed in the language. Sometimes people who are not very well informed in linguistic matters claim that a language is lacking in words if the need arises for the same word to be applied to several different phenomena.

In actual fact, it is exactly the opposite: if each word is found to be capable of conveying, let us say, at least two concepts instead of one, the expressive potential of the whole vocabulary increases twofold. Hence, a well-developed polysemy is not a drawback but a great advantage in a language.

On the other hand, it should be pointed out that the number of sound combinations that human speech organs can produce is limited. Therefore at a certain stage of language development the production of new words by morphological means becomes limited, and polysemy becomes increasingly important in providing the means for enriching the vocabulary. From this, it should be clear that the process of enriching the vocabulary does not consist merely in adding new words to it, but, also, in the constant development of polysemy.

The system of meanings of any polysemantic word develops gradually, mostly over the centuries, as more and more new meanings are either added to old ones, or oust some of them. So the complicated processes of polysemy

development involve both the appearance of new meanings and the loss of old ones. Yet, the general tendency with English vocabulary at the modern stage of its history is to increase the total number of its meanings and in this way to provide for a quantitative and qualitative growth of the language's expressive resources.

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

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

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

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

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

It would hardly be possible to establish any logical associations between some of the meanings of the noun "bar" except through the main meaning (we give only a fragment of the semantic structure of "bar", so as to illustrate the point:

I	II	III
Bar, noun - any kind of barrier to prevent people from passing	The profession of barrister, law e.g. go to the Bar, read for the Bar	In a public house or hotel a counter or room where drinks are served; e.g. They went to the bar for a drink.

Meanings II and III have no logical links with one another whereas each separately is easily associated with meaning I: meaning II through the traditional barrier dividing a court-room into two parts; meaning III through the counter serving as a kind of barrier between the customers of a pub and the barman.

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

The word “dull”, adjective, means:

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

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

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

I. Uninteresting - deficient in interest or excitement.

II. Stupid - deficient in intellect.

III. Not bright - deficient in light or colour.

IV. Not loud - deficient in sound.

V. Not sharp - deficient in sharpness.

VI. Not active - deficient in activity.

VII. Seeing badly - deficient in eyesight.

VIII. Hearing badly - deficient in hearing.

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

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

Each separate meaning seems to be subject to structural analysis in which it may be represented as sets of semantic components. In terms of “componential analysis”, one of the modern methods of semantic research, the meaning of a word is defined as a set of elements of meaning which are not part of the vocabulary of the language itself, but rather theoretical elements, postulated in order to describe the semantic relations between the lexical elements of a given language.

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

Therefore, the semantic structure of a word should be investigated at both these levels:

- a) of different meanings,
- b) of semantic components within each separate meaning.

For a monosemantic word (i.e. a word with one meaning) the first level is naturally excluded.

Dictionaries treat cases of multiple meanings either as polysemy or as homonymy, but in fact it is not always easy to decide which we are dealing with, and dictionaries sometimes differ in their decisions. Are “table” – “furniture” and “table” “arrangement of data” two different words or the same word with two meanings?

Dictionaries usually go for the latter solution, on the grounds of a shared etymology. On the other hand, “pupil” - “in the school” or “of the eye” are usually listed as different words; although in fact they have the same historical origin.

In Cognitive Linguistics, polysemy is regarded as a categorizing phenomenon; i.e. related meanings of words form categories centering on a prototype and bearing family resemblance relations to one another. Under this polysemy - categorization view, the scope of investigation has been gradually broadened from categories in the lexical and lexico-grammatical domain to morphological, syntactic and phonological categories.

As you can see, there is often a conflict between historical criteria and present-day intuition when sorting out cases of polysemy and homonymy.

Homonyms

Homonyms are the words which have the same orthographic and phonetic form but unrelated meaning. If they only differ in one way they are called **homophones** and **homographs** respectively. In derivation “homonym” means “has the same name”; “homophone” means “has the same sound”; “homograph” – “written the same”.

The word “homonym” is derived from “homos”- “the same” and “onoma” - “name”. 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 the result of the split of polysemy, but also as the result of leveling of grammar inflexions, when different parts of speech become identical in their outer aspect, e.g. “care” from “caru” and “care” from “carian”. They can be also formed by means of conversion, e.g. “to slim” from “slim, to water” from “water”. They can be formed with the help of the same suffix from the same stem, e.g. “reader - a person who reads and a book for reading”.

There is a fish called a “fluke”, a part of a whale – “balina, kit” called a “fluke” and a stroke of luck called a “fluke”, but these are three separate lexemes with separate etymologies that all happen to share one form. Similarly, “a river bank, a savings bank, a bank of switches” shares only a spelling.

The first homonyms we ever learn are probably “to, too, two” – homophones, but the sentence “Too much to do in two days” would confuse no one “there, their, they’re” are familiar examples as well “lead” the metal and “lead” the verb, or “moped” the motorized bicycle and “moped” the past tense of “mope” are examples of homographs.

In some accents, various sounds have merged in that they are no longer distinctive, and thus words that differ only by those sounds in an accent that maintains the distinction (a minimal pair) are homophonous in the accent with the

merger. Some examples are “pin” and “pen” in many southern American accents, and “merry”, “marry”, and “Marry” in many western American accents. The pairs “do - due” and “forward - foreword” are homophonous in most US accents but not in most British accents. Similarly, “affect - effect” are distinguished in some careful or cultivated speech.

Homograph disambiguation is critically important in Speech synthesis, but otherwise, homonyms are mostly curiosities, of limited linguistic interest compared to the strong functional roles of antonyms and synonyms.

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” or Italian “basso”.

Homonyms can develop through shortening of different words, e.g. “cab” from “cabriolet, cabbage, cabin”.

There are two types of homonyms:

1) full or perfect which are the same in spelling but different in meaning; e.g. case- hadisə (n) – smth, that has happened; case- qutu (n) - a box, container.

2) partial homonyms – which are divided into homographs or heteronyms and homophones.

Homographs are words identical in spelling, but different in pronunciation and meaning, for example: 1) bow (n) - a piece of wood, curved by a string and for used for shooting arrows; 2) bow(n) – the blending of the head or body; 3) bov-gəminin burnu; tear (n) – a drop of water that comes from the eye, tear (n)- to full

apart by force; lead (n) [lid]: lead [led]; wind (n) [wind], wind [waɪnd]; row(n) [raʊ] – scandal, raw(n) [raʊ] – sıra.

So, homophones are words with the same pronunciation but different in spelling and meaning, for example: sea- see; sent – scent – cent; son- sun; steel- steal; meat-meet; right - wright, rite. They are commonly confused in the English language: accept – except; addition – edition; affect – effect; it's – its; know – no; sight – site; their – there; to – too – two; won't – want; your – you're; cache – cash.

Homonyms appear as a result of the following:

1) The disintegration of polysemy that is when one meaning of a polysemantic word tears itself away from the polysemantic word and becomes an independent word, because semantically it cannot be traced back to its primary meaning; e. g. “board” is “a blank of wood”. Then it became “side of a ship”; later on it acquired the meaning of “council” - şura, sovet, “capital” – “city, letter, fortune”.

2) As a results of phonetical and morphological changes sometimes they originated from different roots and having different form come to coincide in form, e.g. “Ear – A.S. eare.; Ear - A.S. ear”;

3) As a result of conversion; e. g. “stuff = to stuff, water- to water; love- to love; brief- to brief”.

4) As a result of shortening (abbreviation): “prop - proposition; the add - advertisement; exam- examination; laboratory; frig- refrigerator”.

5) Sometimes borrowed words are homonyms to the native ones, e.g. “ball” (Eng.); “ball” - (Fr.) bas; Match (Eng.) - match(Fr); “mean” - aşığı (O.E. – sadə); “mean – orta”.

But we must mention that borrowing is another source of homonyms. The above described sources of homonym have one important feature in common. In all the mentioned cases the homonyms developed from two or more different

words and their similarity is purely accidental. Accordingly, A.I. Smirnitsky classified homonyms into two large classes: full homonyms and partial homonyms.

Full lexical homonyms are words which represent the same category of parts of speech and have the same paradigm, for example: match – a game, a contest; match – a short piece of wood used for producing fire, partial homonyms are subdivided into three subgroups.

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

Complex lexico-grammatical partial homonyms are words of different categories of part of speech which have one identical form of their paradigms: rose (n) – rose (v).

Homonyms come into being because of the process of development of the language.

Now speak about the classifications of homonyms. Walter Skeat classified homonyms according to their spelling and sound forms and he pointed out three groups: perfect homonyms that is words identical in sound and spelling, such as: “school” – “bəliq sürüsü” and “məktəb” ; homographs, that is words with the same spelling but pronounced differently, e.g. “bow” - /bau/ - “səcdə” and /bou/ - “təzim” and “bant”; homophones that is words pronounced identically but spelled differently, e.g. “night” – “gecə” and “knight” – “cəngavər”.

Another classification was suggested by A.I Smirnitsky. He added to Skeat’s classification one more criterion: grammatical meaning. He subdivided the group of perfect homonyms in Skeat’s classification into two types of homonyms: perfect which are identical in their spelling, pronunciation and their grammar form, such as: “spring” in the meanings: “the season of the year, a leap, a source”, and **homofoms** which coincide in their spelling and pronunciation but have different

grammatical meaning, e.g. “reading” - Present Participle, Gerund, Verbal noun., to lobby - lobby .

A more detailed classification was given by I.V.Arnold. She classified only perfect homonyms and suggested four criteria of their classification: lexical meaning, grammatical meaning, basic forms and paradigms.

According to these criteria I.V.Arnold pointed out the following groups:

a) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings, basic forms and paradigms and different in their lexical meanings, e.g. “board” in the meanings “a council” and “a piece of wood sawn thin”;

b) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings and basic forms, different in their lexical meanings and paradigms, e.g. “to lie - lied - lied, and to lie - lay – lain”;

c) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, paradigms, but coinciding in their basic forms, e.g. “light - lights – light – lighter – lightest”;

d) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, in their basic forms and paradigms, but coinciding in one of the forms of their paradigms, e.g. “a bit” and “bit” (from “to bite”).

In I.V.Arnold’s classification there are also patterned homonyms, which, differing from other homonyms, have a common component in their lexical meanings. These are homonyms formed either by means of conversion, or by leveling of grammar inflexions.

These homonyms are different in their grammar meanings, in their paradigms, identical in their basic forms, e.g. “warm - to warm”. Here we can also have unchangeable patterned homonyms which have identical basic forms, different grammatical meanings, a common component in their lexical meanings, e.g. “before” an adverb, a conjunction, a preposition. There are also homonyms

among unchangeable words which are different in their lexical and grammatical meanings, identical in their basic forms, e.g. “for” – “ötrü” and “zira”.

Thus, homonyms are words that sound alike but have different semantic structure. Homonymy of words and homonymy of individual word-forms may be regarded as full and partial homonymy. Cases of full homonymy are generally observed in words belonging to the same part of speech. Partial homonymy is usually to be found on word- forms of different parts of speech.

Homonymy words and word-forms may be classified by the type of meaning that serves to differentiate between identical sound- forms. Lexical homonyms differ in lexical meaning, lexico-grammatical meanings are those that differ in grammatical meaning only.

Lexico-grammatical homonyms are not homogeneous. Homonyms arising from conversion have some related lexical meanings in their semantic structure.

If the graphic form of homonyms is taken into account, they are classified on the basis of the three aspects: sound-form, graphic-form and meaning into three big groups; homographs (identical graphic form), homophones (identical sound- form) and three perfect homonyms (identical sound- form and graphic form).

The two main sources of homonymy are:

- 1) diverging meaning development of a polysemantic word;
- 2) convergent sound development of two more different words.

The most denotable problem of homonymy is the demarcation line between homonymy and polysemy i.e. between different meanings of one word and the meanings of two or more phonemically different words.

The criteria used in the synchronic analysis of homonymy are:

- 1) the semantic criterion of related or unrelated meanings;

2) the criterion of spelling;

3) the criterion of distribution.

The problem of discriminating between polysemy and homonymy in theoretical linguistics is closely connected with the problem of the basis unit of the semantic level of analysis.

Synonyms

Synonyms are words different in their outer aspects, but identical or similar in their inner aspects. In English there are a lot of synonyms, because there are many borrowings, e.g. “hearty – native – cordial – borrowing”.

After a word is borrowed it undergoes desynonymization, because absolute synonyms are unnecessary for a language. However, there are some absolute synonyms in the language, which have exactly the same meaning and belong to the same style, e.g. to moan, to groan; homeland, motherland etc. In cases of desynonymization one of the absolute synonyms can specialize in its meaning and we get semantic synonyms, e.g. “city” borrowed, “town” - native. The French borrowing “city” is specialized. In other cases native words can be specialized in their meanings, e.g. “stool” - native, “chair” - French.

Sometimes one of the absolute synonyms is specialized in its usage and we get stylistic synonyms, e.g. “to begin” - native, “to commence” - borrowing. Here the French word is specialized. In some cases the native word is specialized, e.g. “welkin” - bookish, “sky” - neutral.

Stylistic synonyms can also appear by means of abbreviation. In most cases the abbreviated form belongs to the colloquial style, and the full form to the neutral style, e.g. “examination”, exam”.

Among stylistic synonyms we can point out a special group of words which are called euphemisms. These are words used to substitute some unpleasant or offensive words, e.g. “the late” instead of “dead”, “to perspire” instead of “to sweat”, etc.

There are also phraseological synonyms, these words are identical in their meanings and styles but different in their combining with other words in the sentence, e.g. “to be late for a lecture” but “to miss the train”, “to visit museums” but “to attend lectures”, etc.

In each group of synonyms there is a word with the most general meaning, which can substitute any word in the group, e.g. “piece” is the synonymic dominant in the group “slice, lump, morsel”. The verb “to look at” is the synonymic dominant in the group “to stare, to glance, to peep”. The adjective “red” is the synonymic dominant in the group “purple, scarlet, crimson”.

When speaking about the sources of synonyms, besides desynonymization and abbreviation, we can also mention the formation of phrasal verbs, e.g. “to give up - to abandon”, “to cut down - to diminish”.

Semantic Grouping of Words

Synonyms are words expressing one and the same notion. They differ in some shades of meaning that's why there are very few synonyms which coincide in meaning and stylistically and can substitute each other in any text they are: word formation - word building, airman – flyer - flying man, wireless - radio.

As synonyms differ from each- other this difference can be:

1) Semantic, that's the difference in some shade of meaning. Such synonyms are called ideographical: clever - intelligent; empty - vacant; to shut - to lock, town - city, to realize - to understand, to expect - to wait.

2) Synonyms can differ stylistically that means that they express exactly the same meaning but are used in different styles of speech: to begin - to commence; horse steed; girl - maiden, courage - boldness.

3) The difference between synonyms can be phraseological. That's means that they can be used with certain words only grit – callouts - rough and rude. For example: the words “to get” and “to rise” in some combinations can substitute each other: “to get up early = to rise early”, but when we speak about the sun only “to rise” is used. The verbs “to throw - to cast- to fling - to loss” in some cases they may stand for each other, but in set expressions “to cast a glance” cannot be substituted by its synonyms. In set expression “I beg your pardon” we can't say “I ask your pardon”.

4) Synonyms can differ in intensity or degree: to want - to wish - to desire - to long for - to yearn, to ask – beg – pray – plead – appeal - crave, to fade-wither-decay. Here the first word is neutral and general but the last word is the strongest one. In a synonymic row there is usually a word which is broader in meaning and the most neutral stylistically than the others due to which it can be used for (stand for) all the other members of the group, though sometimes because of that the whole expression may lose its colorfulness and exactness.

Such a word is called synonymic dominant or the leading member of the group: to look – stare – gaze – glance – eye – examine – observe - to peep, rich – wealthy – prosperous – well - to - do.

In most cases synonymic dominant is of Angle- Saxon, origin, but it is not always so. There are rather many words of French origin which have become very popular in English and that's why they are the synonymic dominants in some groups of words: enemy - foe, rich - wealthy, army - here.

The synonymic dominant belongs to the B.V.S. while the other members of the group may belong to it or not, i.e. stylistic synonyms never belong to the B.W.S.

A word is polysemantic; it naturally has several synonyms which will not be synonymous to each other. For example: to close - to shut - to finish; bright - 1) brilliant, radiant, beaming, luminous (about light), 2) gifted + capable - intelligent (about capability of a person), 3) vivid, lively, fresh (about colour); to cry - to shout - to shed tears, to sob.

The use of synonyms is of great importance as they help us to express our thoughts more exactly and vividly and to avoid monotony created by repetition of one and the same word. Sometimes synonyms are used for the sake of emphasis e. i. he spoke to me strictly and severely. She is a clever and intelligent girl. Some of such pairs of synonyms (rough and rude) have become set expressions: “by hook or by crook; really and truly; by fits and starts” (sometimes). Some of such pairs of synonyms have become set- expressions on the basis of alliterating; that is the repetition of one and same sound for the sake it uniform: “calm and quiet, safe and sound, thrill and tremble, hag- hag gage”. In such pairs all the shades, semantic or stylistic, are lost and they are used to emphasize the meaning and serve stylistic purposes.

The Dominant Synonym

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

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

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

Here are examples of other dominant synonyms with their groups:

to surprise - *to astonish* - *to amaze* - *to astound*;

to shout - *to yell* - *to bellow* - *to roar*;

to shine - *to flash* - *to blaze* - *to gleam* - *to glisten* - *to sparkle* - *to glitter* - *to shimmer* - *to glimmer*;

to tremble - *to shiver* - *to shudder* - *to shake*;

to make - *to produce* - *to create* - *to fabricate* - *to manufacture*;

angry - *furious* - *enraged*;

fear - *terror* - *horror*.

The dominant synonym expresses the notion common to all synonyms of the group in the most general way, without contributing any additional information as to the manner, intensity, duration or any attending feature of the referent.

So, any dominant synonym is a typical basic-vocabulary word. Its meaning, which is broad and generalised, more or less “covers” the meanings of the rest of the synonyms, so that it may be substituted for any of them. It seems that here, at last, the idea of interchange ability of synonyms comes into its own. And yet, each such substitution would mean an irreparable loss of the additional information supplied by connotative components of each synonym.

So, using “to look” instead of “to glare, to stare, to peep, to peer” we preserve the general sense of the utterance but lose a great deal in precision, expressiveness and colour.

Summing up what has been said, the following characteristic features of the dominant synonym can be underlined: a) high frequency of usage; b) broad

combinability, i.e. ability to be used in combinations with various classes of words;
c) broad general meaning; d) lack of connotations.

This goes for stylistic connotations as well, so that neutrality as to style is also a typical feature of the dominant synonym.

Euphemisms

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

The question of the change of meanings includes the problem of euphemisms. This is a Greek word meaning “well + I speak”, speaking “weel”. They are words and expressions which are used to substitute some other words or expressions that for some reasons seem rude or inconvenient to be pronounced. The origin of this tradition can be traced back to early stages of civilization when religion forbids pronouncing some words. Thus instead “God” they said “Lord”; by “God” = by “George”, by “Heaven” = “Goodness, gracious”.

Instead of “Devil” they said “Dickens” “old Harry” (Because their thought was “speak of the Devil and he will appear”).

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

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

The influence of euphemism is most evident in the words connected with death: “to die - to pass away, to join the greater majority, to breathe one’s last” instead of “dead” such words as late, departed and diseased were used.

The desire of the upper classes to avoid the “unpleasant” words lead to the use of such funny words as: unspeakables, unmentionables (trousers) “my better half” instead of “my wife”, “to tell tales - to lie, to put in mild, drunkenness-intoxication”.

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

There are also graphic euphemism, such as: d----d (damned).

In Modern English there appeared such euphemisms as: a written off= a killed, a forgotten man --- unemployed, side by side with euphemisms. There exist the so called dysphemisms, that’s colloquial or jargon words which are synonymic to the literary ones: “kick the bucket - to drop off - to die, o.k. all correct o’key - all right, bosh, rubbish – nonsense”.

A landlady who refers to her lodgers as “paying guests” is also using a euphemism, aiming at half-concealing the embarrassing fact that she lets rooms.

The love of affectation, which displays itself in the excessive use of euphemisms, has never been a sign of good taste or genuine refinement. Quite the

opposite. Fiction writers have often ridiculed pretentious people for their weak attempts to express themselves in a delicate and refined way. For example:

“... Mrs. Sunbury never went to bed, she retired, but Mr. Sunbury who was not quite so refined as his wife always said: “Me for Bedford” ...” (“The Kite”, W. S. Maugham). To “retire” in this ironical passage is a euphemistic substitute for “to go to bed”.

Another lady, in “Rain” by the same author, easily surpasses Mrs. Sunbury in the delicacy of her speech. She says that there are so many mosquitoes on the island where the story is set that at the Governor’s parties “all the ladies are given a pillow-slip to put their - their lower extremities in”.

The speaker considers the word “legs” to be “indelicate” and substitutes for it its formal synonym “lower extremities” (confer with the Russian “нижние конечности”). The substitution makes her speech pretentious and ridiculous.

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

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

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

The following brief quotation from P.G. Wodehouse gives two more examples of words belonging to the same group: “Motty was under the surface. Completely sizzled”. (“Pight-Ho, Jeeves”, P.G.Wodehouse).

In the following extracts from P.G.Wodehouse we find slang substitutes for two other “unpleasant” words: “prison” and “to imprison”. “Oh, no, he isn’t ill”, I said, “and as regards accidents, it depends on what you call an accident. He’s in choky”. “In what?” “In prison.” “... And now Mr. Sipperley is in the jug... He couldn’t come himself, because he was jugged for biffing a cop on Boat-Race Night”.

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

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

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

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

So, a dangerous animal might be described as “the one-lurking-in-the-wood” and a mortal disease as “the black death”. Euphemisms are probably the oldest type of synonyms, for it is reasonable to assume that superstitions which caused real fear called for the creation of euphemisms long before the need to describe

things in their various aspects or subtle shades caused the appearance of other synonyms.

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

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

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

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

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

A clinic for such patients can also be discreetly referred to as, for instance, “an asylum, sanitarium, sanatorium, (mental) institution, and, less discreetly, as a nut house (sl.), booby hatch (sl.), loony bin” (sl.), etc.

In the story by Evelyn Waugh “Mr. Loveday’s Little Outing” a clinic of this kind, treating only very rich patients, is described as “large private grounds suitable for the charge of nervous or difficult cases”. This is certainly the peak of euphemistic “delicacy”.

The great number of humorous substitutes found in such groups of words prove particularly tempting for writers who use them for comical purposes. The following extracts from a children’s book by R. Dahl are, probably, not in the best of taste, but they demonstrate the range of colloquial and slang substitutes for the word “mad”. For example:

“He’s gone off his rocker!” shouted one of the fathers, aghast, and the other parents joined in the chorus of frightened shouting. “He’s crazy!” they shouted. “He’s balmy! He’s nutty! He’s screwy! He’s batty! He’s dippy! He’s dotty! He’s daffy! He’s goofy! He’s bean! He’s buggy! He’s wacky! He’s loony! No, he is not!” - said Grandpa Joe. (“Charlie and the Chocolate Factory”, R.Dahl).

... “What did I tell you! - cried Grandma Georgina. “He’s round the twist! He’s bogged as a beetle! He’s dotty as a dingbat! He’s got rats in the roof!...”

All the above examples show that euphemisms are substitutes for their synonyms. Their use and very existence are caused either by social conventions or by certain psychological factors. Most of them have stylistic connotations in their semantic structures.

One can also assume that there is a special euphemistic connotation that can be singled out in the semantic structure of each such word. Let us point out, too, that euphemistic connotations in formal euphemisms are different in “flavour” from those in slang euphemistic substitutes. In the first case they are solemn and

delicately evasive, and in the second rough and somewhat cynical, reflecting an attempt to laugh off an unpleasant fact.

Euphemisms and Dysphemisms are stylistically synonyms. The first are used in a refined speech, the latter are colloquial vulgarisms.

Word meaning is liable to change in the course of the historical development of language. Changes of lexical meaning may be illustrated by a diachronic semantic analysis of many commonly used English words. The word “fond” used to mean “foolish”, glad had the meaning of “bright, shining and soon”. Discussing the causes of semantic changes we concentrate on the factors bringing about this change we concentrate on the factors bringing about this change and attempt to find out why the word changes its meaning. The factors accounting for semantic changes may be roughly subdivided into 2 groups: a) extra – linguistic; b) linguistic causes.

By extra-linguistic cause we mean various changes in the life of the speech community, changes in economic and social structure, and changes in ideas, scientific concepts and other spheres of human activities as reflected in word meaning. The word ‘car’ e.g. ultimately goes back to Latin “carrus” which meant “a four wheeled wagon” (Modern English “carriage”) but now that other means of transport are used it denotes “a motor car”, “a railway carriage”. The verb “to starve”, e.g. in (old English “steorfan”) had the meaning ‘to die’ and was habitually used in collocation with the word hunger (M.E. Stewen of hunger). Already in the 16th century the verb itself acquired the meaning “to die of hunger”.

Antonyms

Antonyms are words belonging to the same part of speech, identical in style, expressing contrary or contradictory notions. Antonyms are words opposite in meaning: big - small, long - short, dark - light.

We use the term antonyms to indicate words of the same category of parts of speech which have contrasting meanings, such as “hot - cold, happiness - sorrow, to accept - to reject, up – down”.

Antonymy is not evenly distributed among the categories of parts of speech. Not all the words have antonyms but only those whose meaning can be opposed.

Most antonyms are adjectives which is only natural because qualitative characteristics are easily compared and contrasted: high - low, wide - narrow, strong - weak, old - young, friendly – hostile, clean - dirty, bad - good, broad - narrow.

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

Nouns are not rich in antonyms, but even so some examples can be given: friend – enemy. There are also antonyms among abstract nouns: hatred - love, beauty – ugliness, joy - grief, good - evil, heaven - earth, love - hatred.

Antonymic adverbs can be subdivided into two groups:

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

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

Polysemantic words can have several antonyms: to close - to open, old – new or young, to end - to begin.

As to their forms antonyms can be divided into:

1) those of different roots: narrow wide, reason wide, kind cruel;

2) derivational: useful – useless, happy – unhappy, lucky – unlucky, visible - invisible.

Some of the words may have 2 antonyms: one of the different roots and one derivational: happy – unhappy - miserable.

The antonyms of the different root are always stronger in meaning: useful - useless - harmful. One must be careful when defining derivational antonyms because some of the affixes are polysemantic or have homonyms: locate – отнести с местности - ərazidən uzaqlaşdırmaq, dislocate – распределить – paylaşdırmaq.

There are also pairs of antonyms which have become set – expressions: up down, day night, first- last, cold or warm, difficult or easy, old or young, from top to toe [tou], neither here nor there.

V.N. Comissarov in his dictionary of antonyms classified them into two groups: absolute or root antonyms “late – early” and derivational antonyms “to please - to displease”. Absolute antonyms have different roots and derivational antonyms have the same roots but different affixes. In most cases negative prefixes form antonyms “un-, dis-, non-”. Sometimes they are formed by means of suffixes “-ful” and “-less”.

The number of antonyms with the suffixes “-ful-“ and “-less” is not very large, and sometimes even if we have a word with one of these suffixes its antonym is formed not by substituting “-ful” by “-less-”, e.g. “successful - unsuccessful, selfless – selfish”. The same is true about antonyms with negative prefixes, e.g. “to man” is not an antonym of the word “to unman”, “to disappoint” is not an antonym of the word “to appoint”.

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

Leonard Lipka in the book “Outline of English Lexicology” describes different types of oppositeness, and subdivides them into three types:

- a) complementary, e.g. male -female, married -single,
- b) antonyms, e.g. good -bad,
- c) converse, e.g. to buy - to sell.

In his classification he describes complementarity in the following way: the denial of the one implies the assertion of the other, and vice versa. “John is not married” implies that “John is single”. The type of oppositeness is based on yes/no decision. Incompatibility only concerns pairs of lexical units.

Antonymy is the second class of oppositeness. It is distinguished from complementarity by being based on different logical relationships. For pairs of antonyms like “good - bad, big – small” only the second one of the above mentioned relations of implication holds.

The assertion containing one member implies the negation of the other, but not vice versa. “John is good” implies that “John is not bad”, but “John is not good” does not imply that “John is bad”. The negation of one term does not necessarily imply the assertion of the other.

An important linguistic difference from complementaries is that antonyms are always fully gradable, e.g. “hot, warm, tepid, cold”.

Converse is mirror-image relations or functions, e.g. “husband - wife, pupil - teacher, precede - follow, above - below, before – after”, etc.

“John bought the car from Bill” implies that “Bill sold the car to John”. Mirror-image sentences are in many ways similar to the relations between active and passive sentences. Also in the comparative form: “Y is smaller than X, then X is larger than Y”.

L. Lipka also gives the type which he calls directional opposition “up - down, consequence opposition “learn – know”, antipodal opposition “North - South, East – West”, it is based on contrary motion, in opposite directions. The pairs “come - go, arrive – depart” involve motion in different directions. In the case “up – down” we have movement from a point P. In the case “come – go” we have movement from or to the speaker.

L. Lipka also points out non-binary contrast or many-member lexical sets. Here he points out serially ordered sets, such as “scales - hot, warm, tepid, cool, cold; colour words - black, grey, white; ranks - marshal, general, colonel, major, captain, etc.

There are gradable examination marks - excellent, good, average, fair, poor. In such sets of words we can have outer and inner pairs of antonyms. He also points out cycles, such as units of time - spring, summer, autumn, winter. In this case there are no “outermost” members.

Not every word in a language can have antonyms. This type of opposition can be met in qualitative adjectives and their derivatives, e.g. “beautiful - ugly, to beautify - to uglify, beauty – ugliness”. It can be also met in words denoting feelings and states, e.g. “respect - scorn, to respect - to scorn, respectful - scornful, to live - to die, alive - dead, life – death”.

It can be also met among words denoting direction in space and time, e.g. “here - there, up - down , now - never, before - after, day - night, early – late”, etc.

If synonyms form whole, often numerous, groups, antonyms are usually believed to appear in pairs. Yet, this is not quite true in reality. For instance, the adjective “cold” may be said to have “warm” for its second antonym, and “sorrow” may be very well contrasted with “gaiety”.

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

On the other hand, a polysemantic word may have an antonym (or several antonyms) for each of its meanings. So, the adjective “dull” has the antonyms “interesting, amusing, entertaining” for its meaning of “deficient in interest”, “clever, bright, capable” for its meaning of “deficient in intellect”, and “active” for the meaning of “deficient in activity”, etc.

Not so many years ago antonymy was not universally accepted as a linguistic problem, and the opposition within antonymic pairs was regarded as purely logical and finding no reflection in the semantic structures of these words. The contrast between “heat” and “cold” or “big” and “small”, said most scholars, is the contrast of things opposed by their very nature.

In the previous chapter dealing with synonymy we saw that both the identity and differentiations in words called synonyms can be said to be encoded within their semantic structures. Can the same be said about antonyms?

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

It should be stressed once more that we are speaking only about those antonyms which are characterised by common occurrences, that is, which are regularly used in pairs. When two words frequently occur side by side in numerous

contexts, subtle and complex associations between them are not at all unusual. These associations are naturally reflected in the words' semantic structures. Antonymic connotations are a special case of such "reflected associations".

Together with synonyms, antonyms represent the language's important expressive means. The following quotations show how authors use antonyms as a stylistic device of contrast. For example:

"How far that little candle throws his beams! So shines a good deed in a naughty world. ("Merchant of Venice", W.Shakespeare, Act V, Sc.I). ("naughty" in the meaning of "wicked, evil").

... But then my soul's imaginary sight Presents thy shadow to my sightless view, Which like a jewel hung in ghastly night, Makes black night beauteous and her old face new. (Sonnet XXVII, W.Shakespeare).

Welcome *joy*, and welcome *sorrow*,
Lethe's weed and Hermes' feather,
Come *to-day*, and come *to-morrow*,
I do love you both together!
I love to mark *sad* faces in fair weather;
And hear a *merry* laughter amid the thunder;
Fair and foul I love together.
("A Song of Opposites", J. Keats).

... The writer should seek his reward in the pleasure of his work and in release from the burden of his thought; and indifferent to aught else, care nothing *for praise or censure, failure or success*. ("The Moon and Sixpence", W. S. Maugham).

They [the Victorians] were busy *erecting*, of course; and we have been busy *demolishing* for so long that now erection seems as ephemeral an activity as bubble-blowing. (“The French Lieutenant’s Woman”, J. Fowles).

Hyponymy and Taxonomies

It refers to the notion of inclusion: an X is a kind of Y. For example: “An oak is a kind of tree”.

There are taxonomies of natural, nominal and cultural kinds. Natural taxonomies: animals, birds, etc. (can be different from the scientific classifications). Cultural taxonomies relate to the artefacts created by human beings.

The study of hyponymy has revealed some interesting differences between languages. Let us look at the following example: “teen” is a language spoken in Africa by tenbo people. In Teen the word “gusuko” – (plant) has three co-hyponyms: “diilo” (food plants), “dansu” (plants used for making sauces) and “waro” (wild plants).

Partonymy – part-whole relations: the parts of a human body. The parts of a door include the handle, the lock, the hinge, etc.

Under the notion “**incompatibility**” are grouped sets of lexemes that are mutually exclusive members of the same super ordinate category: a geometric figure cannot be a triangle and rectangle at the same time. A musical instrument cannot be harp and a drum. But to be incompatible words have to belong to the same lexical group (we cannot say that “door” and “flower” are incompatible). One of the ways to analyze the semantic relationships within a field is componential analysis. Let’s analyze the word-group “Human attire”. The semantic markers are:

“Attire” and “Encircle”. The distinguishers are: “Jewellery”, “Waist”, “Wrist”, “Neck”, “Finger”.

Investigating **prototypical categories** we must mention that a “prototype” is an idealized conceptualization of an object, quality or activity. Real life objects and activities are measured against these internalized concepts and are named according to how well approximate the ideal.

A **prototype** approach to semantic “seeks to represent the meaning of a linguistic expression through the analysis of instances of the category in terms of approximation to the prototype”. For example: the category of “bird” is identified in terms of a fixed set of condition, but the best examples are those that are close to an idealization of that category.

Exercises

Consider your answers to the following:

- 1) Which words do we call homonyms? Are they the words of the same form?
- 2) Why can't homonyms be regarded as expressive means of the language?
- 3) What is the traditional classification of homonyms? Illustrate your answer with examples.
- 4) What are the distinctive features of the classification of homonyms suggested by A. I. Smirnitskiy?
- 5) Synonyms: Are Their Meanings the Same or Different?
- 6) Which word in a synonymic group is considered to be the dominant synonym? What are its characteristic features?

7) Can the dominant synonym be substituted for certain other members of a group of synonyms? Is the criterion of interchange ability applicable in this case?

8) Here are some examples of synonyms which are differentiated by stylistic connotations. The word in brackets starting each group shows the denotation of the synonyms.

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

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

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

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

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

9) What are euphemisms? Comment its characteristic features. Speak about social taboos and superstitious taboos.

10) Describe V.N. Comissarov's classification of antonyms. What is the difference between absolute or root antonyms and derivational antonyms? Leonard Lipka's classification of antonyms. Explain different types of oppositeness: a) complementary, b) antonyms, c) converse. Give the examples.

CHAPTER IX

The STYLISTIC DIFFERENTIATION of the ENGLISH VOCABULARY: LITERARY, NEUTRAL and COLLOQUIAL LAYER

Archaisms – historisms (ancient) are called obsolete words. Some words become archaic due to the fact that the object or phenomena which they signify become obsolete or disappeared: “visor, kaftan” or because they are substituted: “woe (bitter grief), wilt (will), doth (does), hath (has), loser (lazy fellow), troth (faith)”. For example: “Perfect love casteth off fear”.

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. Some of them are: “steed /horse/, slay /kill/, behold /see/, perchance /perhaps/, woe /sorrow” etc.

Sometimes a lexical archaism begins a new life, getting a new meaning, then the old meaning becomes a semantic archaism, e.g. “fair” in the meaning “beautiful” is a semantic archaism, but in the meaning “blond” it belongs to the neutral style.

Sometimes the root of the word remains and the affix is changed, then the old affix is considered to be a morphemic archaism, e.g. “beauteous - ous” was substituted by “ful”, “bepaint” “be” was dropped, “darksome” – “some” was dropped, “oft / “en” was added.

A great deal of archaisms survived in the poetry. It was once considered by English writers, poets such as Tennyson, Coleridge that simple everyday words are less capable of creating vivid images than the old ones. So they introduced many of them into poetic diction.

Among the so-called poetic archaisms the following words must be mentioned: “to behold – to see, strain – melody, main – ocean, steed – horse, swain – peasant, maiden – girl, spouse – wife, thou – you, of yore – of ancient time”.

Some of the compound words and set – expressions preserved archaic or obsolete meanings of the words which are now used in a different sense: “to read a riddle, ill-favoured, ugly-looking”.

Some of the prepositions are used in their archaic meanings, e.g. on purpose. Some of the words stay in the language a very long time and do not lose their faculty gaining new meanings and becoming richer and richer polysemantically.

Other words live but a short time and they disappeared leaving no trace of their existence. There are three stages in the aging process of words:

1) The beginning of the aging process when the words become rarely used. Such words are obsolescent, i.e. they are in the stage of gradually passing out of general use: “thy – wilt, ye – you”. Many French borrowings belong to the category of obsolescent words.

2) The second group of archaic words are those that have already gone completely out of use but are still recognized by the English-speaking community, e.g. “me thinks – it seems to me, nay – no”.

3) The third group may be called archaic proper – these are words which are no longer recognizable in modern English, e.g. “troth” (faith), “a losel” (a lazy fellow).

There are historisms too. Historical words have been replaced by modern synonyms. Historisms are customs, material objects. They are very numerous as names for social relations, institutions and objects of material culture of the past. The name of ancient transport means, such as types of boats or types of carriages, ancient clothes, weapons, musical instruments etc. can offer many examples.

Before the appearance of motor-cars many different types of horse-drawn carriages were in use. The names of some of them are: “berlin, calash, diligence, brougham, fly, gig, hansom, and phaeton”.

A great many historicisms denoting various types of weapons occur in historical novels, e.g. “a battering ram” (an ancient machine for breaking walls), “a blunderbuss” (an old type of gun with a wide muzzle), “brougham” (one-seat carriage), “baldric” (belt for a sword).

Archaic and obsolete words stand close to the “learned” words, particularly to the modes of poetic diction. Learned words and archaisms are both associated with the printed page. Yet, as we have seen, many learned words may also be used in conversational situations.

This cannot happen with archaisms, which are invariably restricted to the printed page. These words are moribund, already partly or fully out of circulation, rejected by the living language. Their last refuge is in historical novels (whose authors use them to create a particular period atmosphere) and, of course, in poetry which is rather conservative in its choice of words.

“Thou” and “thy”, “aye” (“yes”) and “nay” (“no”) are certainly archaic and long since rejected by common usage, yet poets use them even today.

We also find the same four words and many other archaisms among dialectisms, which are quite natural, as dialects are also conservative and retain archaic words and structures.

Numerous archaisms can be found in Shakespeare, but it should be taken into consideration that what appear to us today as archaisms in the works of Shakespeare, are in fact examples of everyday language of Shakespeare’s time.

There are several such archaisms in Viola’s speech from “Twelfth Night”:
“There is a *fair* behaviour in *thee*, Captain, And though that nature with a *beauteous* wall *Doth oft* close in pollution, yet of thee I will believe *thou hast* a

mind that suits With this *thy* fair and outward character. I *prithee* — and I'll pay thee *bounteously* — Conceal me what I am, and be my aid For such disguise as *haply* shall become The form of my intent..."(Act I, Sc. 2).

Further examples of archaisms are: "morn (for morning), eve (for evening), moon (for month), damsel (for girl), errant (for wandering, e. g. errant knights)", etc. Sometimes, an archaic word may undergo a sudden revival. So, the formerly archaic "kin" for relatives of one's family is now current in American usage.

The terms "archaic" and "obsolete" are used more or less indiscriminately by some authors. Others make a distinction between them using the term "obsolete" for words which have completely gone out of use.

"The Random House Dictionary" defines an obsolete word as one "no longer in use, especially out of use for at least a century", whereas an archaism is referred to as "current in an earlier time but rare in present usage".

It should be pointed out that the borderline between "obsolete" and "archaic" is vague and uncertain, and in many cases it is difficult to decide to which of the groups this or that word belongs.

There is a further term for words which are no longer in use: **historisms**. By this we mean words denoting objects and phenomena which are things of the past and no longer exist. Historical phrases are mainly used in writing historical works. Obsolete, archaic and historical words are used not only in the bookish style but also in other styles of the language. It should be noted that words like "aforesaid, hereby, therewith, hereinafter" are obsolete words and are widely used in the official language.

Neologisms are new words which appear to fix new notions in the language appearing as a result of the progress of human society. The sources from which these words are taken have already been mentioned (word-formation or word building on one's own roots, the change of meaning of words and borrowings). The vocabulary of any language is in a state of constant change which means that

some words become obsolete (archaic) or simply fell out of the vocabulary and at the same time a greater quantity of words appeared.

Such words of the Russian language as “урядник, жандарм, городской” or of the Azerbaijani language as “nökər, hambal, halət, haça, qodu-qodu” disappeared and now are used only in historical books. It’s because the very phenomena stopped to exist due to the change in social conditions which at the same time created some new words: collective-farm, communist league.

Coinages are the words as a rule a great many new words which appear during the great social changes.

English law was greatly enriched by new words after the Norman Conquest (1066). During the first Imperialist war many new words appeared as aircraft, black-out, dug-out. The World War II was also the source of some new words, such as “anti-aircraft, to comb the forest, partisan (guerilla)”.

In the period after the World War II such words appeared as peace congress, socialist camp, people’s democracy, which clearly show the greatest changes in the world. New words are called neologisms until they become quite stable in the vocabulary. Only such new words remain and become fixed in the vocabulary which expressed necessary notions, and which is created according to the inner laws of the development of a language.

New words and expressions or neologisms are created for new things. They may be all important and concern some social relationships, such as a new form of state: People’s Republic or something threatening for the very existence of humanity, like nuclear war, or again the thing may be quite insignificant and short-lived, like fashions in dancing, clothing, hair do or foot wear, for example: “roll-neck”. Thus, a neologism is a newly coined word or phrase or a new meaning for an existing word, or a word borrowed from another language.

There are cases of individual word-coining creating of some writers as J.K. Jerome, V.V. Mayakovsky. But they not only enter the vocabulary, however some

words created by famous writers are in wide use, such as “окисление” (Lomonosov), “промышленность” (Karamzin).

In the present days in the English vocabulary we find the reflection of the existence of two camps:

- 1) a camp of peace and democracy;
- 2) the camp of imperialism and aggression.

The former manifests itself in the ever increasing number of sovietisms penetrating into the English vocabulary. The latter manifests itself in the appearance of such words as “Tammany politician”, a policeman’s club.

The latest edition of Webster’s Etymological Dictionary has a new words section including all the words which appeared in the period of time since 1917-1941. These words belong to different spheres of human activity: military, technique, agriculture, science, art. Among them there are words which tell us about much vaunted American way of life: “taxi-girl, hot jazz”.

New additions to the English vocabulary are called in addenda to explanatory dictionaries and in special dictionaries of new words. One should consult the supplementary volume of the English-Russian Dictionary edited by I.K.Galperin, the three supplementary volumes of the “Oxford English Dictionary” and the dictionaries of new English which are usually referred to as Barnhart Dictionaries. The first volume covers words and word equivalents that have come into the vocabulary of the English-speaking world during the period 1963-1972 and the second – those of the 70s.

Exercises

Consider your answers to the following:

- 1) What can you tell about the stylistic differentiation of the English vocabulary?
- 2) Speak about literary layer of the English vocabulary.
- 3) What is the difference between literary and neutral layers of the English vocabulary?
- 4) Describe colloquial layer of the English vocabulary?
- 5) What is the archaism?
- 6) What are the historisms?
- 7) What are the major criteria for distinguishing between archaisms and historisms?
- 8) What are the neologisms?
- 9) How can you show that the reasons of forming neologisms?
- 10) What do we mean when we say “coinages”?

CHAPTER X

WORLD ENGLISHES

Standard and Substandard English

Standard English the official language of Great Britain taught of schools and universities, used by the press, the radio and the television and spoken by educated people may be defined as that form of English which is current and literary. Its vocabulary is contrasted to dialect words or dialectics. Local dialects are varieties of the English language peculiar to some districts and having no normalized literary form. Regional varieties possessing a literary form are called variants. Great Britain there are two variant Scottish English and Irish English, and 6 main groups of dialects: Northern, Midland, Lowland, Eastern, Western, and Southern. Every group contains several (up to ten) dialects.

One of the best known Southern dialect is Cockney, the regional dialect of London. According to Eric Partridge and H.C.Wilde, this dialect exists on 2 levels. As spoken by the educated lower middle classes it is a regional dialect marked by some deviations, in pronunciations but few in vocabulary and syntax. as spoken by the uneducated Cockney differs from standard English not only in pronunciation but also in vocabulary, morphology and syntax. G.B.Shaw's play "Pygmalion" clearly renders this level of Cockney.

Cockney has attracted much literary attention, and so we can judge of its past and present on the evidence of literature. As recorded by Ch.Dickens over a century ago Cockney was phonetically characterized by the interchange of the labial and labia- dental consonants [w] and [v] very for very and well for well. This

trait was lost by the end of the 19th century. The voiceless and voiced dental spirants [θ] and [ð] are still replaced- though not very consistently by [f] and [v] respectively: “fing” for “thing” and “farver” for “father”.

Cockney is lively and witty and its vocabulary imaginative and colourful. Its specific feature not occurring anywhere else is the so called rhyming slang, in which some words are substituted by other words rhyming with them: Boots for. Eg; are called loaf of bread, and wife trouble and strife.

Dialects are now chiefly preserved- Recap in rural communities, in the speech of elderly people. Dialects are said to undergo rapid changes under pressure of Standard English taught of school and the speech habits cultivated by radio, t.v. and cinema. The Scottish Tongue and the Irish English have a special linguistic status as compared with dialects because of the literature composed in them. The name of Robert Burns, the great national poet of Scotland, is known all over the world.

Words from dialects and variants may penetrate into Standard English. The contribution of the Scottish dialect is very considerable. Some of the most frequently used Scottishisms are: brain “child”; billy “chum”; bonny “handsome”. A great deal in this process is due to Robert Burns who wrote his poems in Scottish English and to Walter Scott who introduced many Scottish words into his novels.

National Languages, Dialects and Jargons

The vocabulary of a language together with its B.W.S. and the grammar structure constitute national language which (being the mean of communication) equally serves all the classes but if a language is so to say, indifferent in classes. But the classes themselves try to force on it their own terms and expressions, thus creating class dialects or jargons. Such class dialects cannot be considered as

languages since they have neither vocabulary nor grammar (structure) of their own, those are national language.

Language used in different parts of a country and by different social groups usually varies. Dialectology differentiates between geographical and social variations of the same language.

Geographical variations of English can be dialects or variants. The difference between the two types of variations depends on one factor: presence or absence of the standard or literary layer of language.

Standard language is used in literary works and in the mass media. It is based on literary forms fixed in dictionaries and rules fixed by standard grammar.

Dialects are non-literary forms of language. a dialect is used in a certain part of a country. It is opposed to Standard English.

On the territory of Great Britain there are two variants of English: **Irish** and **Scottish**. They are treated as variants because there are literary works created in Irish English and Scottish English.

Variants of English outside the British Isles: American, Australian and Canadian.

In English and American dictionaries there are some words which are marked as slang. Among such words we find colloquial vulgarisms (jocular).

Specific professional words and expressions, jargon words and expressions of declassified elements (thieves).

The words and expressions of the first two above mentioned groups have certain style colouring and are strongly expressive in their own way. They are

called colloquialisms, e.g. rubbish, Tommy – rot to have a bee in one's bonnet (не все дома).

Professional words: the greats (dövlət imtahanı), trig, pot (student's jargon). There are jargon words and expressions which are called "to nim" – oğurluq etmək, "cap" – polis.

Jargons of some social groups are also called by the French word "argot" as a jargon of the upper classes in England we can mention the argot of merchants: a job – a place in parliament got by protection, chit – a letter, Tiffin – lunch, beams – money, to cut one with the shilling – дешево отделаться. Jargon words should be not allowed to penetrate into the literary language as they spoil it.

Linguists and literary men are always struggling against such tendency. In Russian it was M.Gorkiy who struggled for the purity of the national language. In England such tendency was once too strong, i.e. so called "King's English" into which no slangish words were admitted. After the II World War this tendency was greatly weakened and many colloquialisms had got into the literary language. Class jargons must not be confused with the so called local dialects which co-exist in some countries with the national language and serve as a mean of communication to broad masses. They have vocabulary and grammatical structure. The role of the local dialects is different at different stages of history. On the basis of the local dialects many national languages were formed. The English native language was formed on the basis of the London dialect which was mixture of Central and Southern dialects. The Northern dialect developed later into the Scotch language but now it exists as Scotch dialect.

After the national language is formed local dialects have no prospects of development and gradually disappeared. Some of the dialectical words enter the vocabulary of the national language, e.g. Kirk, glamour. What is called now the London dialect is properly speaking the London folk speech called "Cockney". Its characteristic features are:

1) phonetically, the omission of initial “H”, e.g. horse -orse, him -im. The omission of the final “g”, e.g. goin(g), speakin(g);

2) grammatically – the confusion of the first and the third person singular of the Present Tense: 2 says – he go.

So, Cockney words may serve purely stylistic purposes. Many outstanding authors (Dickens, Galsworthy) used them as a mean of characterization of their personages. Sometimes they occur in the author’s speech. Some of them later become established in the national language: lars, lad, fenny.

Local Varieties of English on the British Isles

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

One of the best known dialects of British English is the dialect of London - Cockney. Some peculiarities of this dialect can be seen in the first act of “Pigmalion” by B. Shaw, such as: interchange of “v” and “w” e.g. “very well”; interchange of “f” and “0”, “v”, e.g. “fing, thing”, and “father”; interchange of “h”, e.g. “eart” for “heart” and “hart” for “art”; substituting the diphthong “ai” by “ei” e.g. “day” is pronounced “dai”; substituting “au” by “a:”, “house” is pronounced “ha:s”, “now” – “na:”; substituting “ou” by “o:”, “don’t” is pronounced “do:nt” in unstressed positions, e.g. “window” is pronounced “wind”.

Another feature of Cockney is rhyming slang: “hat” is “tit for tat”, “wife” is “trouble and strife”, “head” is “loaf of bread”, etc. There are also such words as “tanner, sixpence, puckish, hungry”.

Peter Wain in the “Education Guardian” writes about accents spoken by University teachers: “It is a variety of Southern English RP which is different from Daniel Jones’s description”.

The English, public school leavers speak, is called “marked RP”, it has some characteristic features: the vowels are more central than in English taught abroad, e.g. “bleck het”, for “black hat”, some diphthongs are also different, e.g. “house” is pronounced “hais”. There is less aspiration in “p, b, t, d”.

The American English is practically uniform all over the country, because of the constant transfer of people from one part of the country to the other. However, some peculiarities in New York dialect can be pointed out, such as: there is no distinction in words: “ask, dance, sand, bad”, both phonemes are possible. The combination “ir” in the words: “bird, girl, ear” in the word “learn” is pronounced as “oi”, e.g. “boid, goil, loin”. In the words “duty, tune” – “j” is not pronounced “du:ti, tu:n”.

Varieties of English:

Canadian, Australian and Indian Variants

Besides the Irish and Scottish variants there are Canadian English, Australian English and Indian English.

Canadian English is influenced both by British and American English but it also has some specific features of its own. Specifically Canadian words are called Canadianisms. They are not very frequent outside Canada, expert, shock – “a hut” and “fathom out” - “to explain”. The vocabulary of all the variants is characterized by a high percentage of borrowings from the language of the people. Who inhabited the land before the English colonizers came. The level words for new

notions penetrate into the English language and later on may become international. International words coming through the English of India are, for instance: “bungalow (n) khaki, mango, pajamas, and sari”. Similar examples though perhaps fewer in number, such as, boomerang, dingo, and kangaroo are all adopted into English through its Australian variant and become international.

The language spoken in the United States can be regarded as **a regional variety of English**.

Canadian, Australian and Indian can also be considered regional varieties of English with their own peculiarities.

British and American English

British and American English are two main variants of English. Besides them there are: Canadian, Australian, Indian, New Zealand and other variants. They have some peculiarities in pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary, but they are easily used for communication between people living in these countries.

As far as the American English is concerned, some scientists (H.N. Menken, for example) tried to prove that there is a separate American language. In 1919 H.N. Menken published a book called “The American Language”. But most scientists, American ones including, criticized his point of view because differences between the two variants are not systematic.

American English begins its history at the beginning of the 17-th century when first English-speaking settlers began to settle on the Atlantic coast of the American continent. The language which they brought from England was the language spoken in England during the reign of Elizabeth the First.

In the earliest period the task of Englishmen was to find names for places, animals, plants, customs which they came across on the American continent. They

took some of names from languages spoken by the local population - Indians, such as: “chipmuck” - an American squirrel, “igloo” - Escimo dome-shaped hut, “skunk” - a black and white striped animal with a bushy tail, “squaw” - an Indian woman, “wigwam” - an American Indian tent made of skins and bark.

Besides Englishmen, settlers from other countries came to America, and English-speaking settlers mixed with them and borrowed some words from their languages, e.g. from French the words “bureau” - a writing desk, “cache” - a hiding place for treasure, provision, “depot” - a store-house, “pumpkin” - a plant bearing large edible fruit. From Spanish such words as: “adobe” - unburnt sun-dried brick, “bonanza” - prosperity, “cockroach” - a beetle-like insect, “lasso” - a noosed rope for catching cattle, were borrowed.

Present-day New York stems from the Dutch colony New Amsterdam, and Dutch also influenced English. Such words as: “boss, dope, sleigh” were borrowed.

The second period of American English history begins in the 19-th century. Immigrants continued to come from Europe to America. When large groups of immigrants from the same country came to America some of their words were borrowed into English. Italians brought with them a style of cooking which became widely spread and such words as: “pizza, spaghetti” came into English.

From the great number of German-speaking settlers the following words were borrowed into English: “delicatessen, lager, hamburger, noodle, schnitzel” and many others.

During the second period of American English history there appeared quite a number of words and word-groups which were formed in the language due to the new political system, liberation of America from the British colonialism, its independence.

The following lexical units appeared due to these events: “the United States of America, assembly, caucus, congress, Senate, congressman, President, senator, precinct, Vice-President” and many others.

Besides these political terms many other words were coined in American English in the 19-th century: “to antagonize, to demoralize, influential, department store, telegram, telephone” and many others.

There are some differences between British and American English in the usage of prepositions, such as prepositions with dates, days of the week BE requires “on” - I start my holiday on Friday, in American English there is no preposition: “I start my vacation Friday”. In British English we use “by day”, “by night”, “at night”, in AE the corresponding forms are “days” and “nights”.

In British English we say “at home”, in American English – “home” is used. In British English we say “a quarter to five”, in American English “a quarter of five”. In British English we say “in the street”, in American English – “on the street”. In British English we say “to chat to somebody”, in American English “to chat with somebody”. In British English we say “different to something”, in American English “different from something”.

There are also units of vocabulary which are different while denoting the same notions, e.g. BE – “trousers”, AE – “pants”; in BE “pants” are “трусы” – “tuman” which in AE is “shorts”. While in BE “shorts” are outwear. This can lead to misunderstanding. There are some differences in names of places:

BE AE BE AE

passage hall cross-roads intersection

pillar box mail-box the cinema the movies

studio, bed-sitter one-room apartment

flyover overpass zebra crossing Pxing

pavement sidewalk tube, uderground subway

tram streetcar flat apartment

surgery doctor’s office lift elevator

Some names of useful objects:

BE AE BE AE

biro ballpoint rubber eraser

tap faucet torch flashlight

parcel package elastic rubber band

carrier bag shopping bag reel of cotton spool of thread

Some words connected with food:

BE AE BE AE

tin can sweets candy

sweet biscuit cookie dry biscuit crackers

sweet dessert chips french fries

minced meat ground beef

Some words denoting personal items:

BE AE BE AE

fringe bangs/of hair/ turn- ups cuffs

tights pantyhose mackintosh raincoat

ladder run/in a stocking/ braces suspenders

poloneck turtleneck waistcoat vest

Some words denoting people:

BE AE BE AE

barrister, lawyer, staff /university/ faculty

post-graduate graduate chap, fellow guy

caretaker janitor constable patrolman

shopassistant shopperson bobby cop

If we speak about cars there are also some differences:

BE AE BE AE

boot trunk bumpers fenders

a car, an auto, to hire a car to rent a car

Differences in the organization of education lead to different terms. BE “public school” is in fact a private school. It is a fee-paying school not controlled by the local education authorities. AE “public school” is a free local authority school. BE “elementary school” is AE “grade school” BE “secondary school” is AE “high school”. In BE “a pupil leaves a secondary school”, in AE “a student graduates from a high school”. In BE you can graduate from a university or college of education, graduating entails getting a degree.

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

There are differences of spelling. The reform in the English spelling for American English was introduced by the famous American lexicographer Noah Webster who published his first dictionary in 1806. Those of his proposals which were adopted in the English spelling are as follows:

- a) the deletion of the letter “u” in words ending in “our”, e.g. “honor, favor”;
- b) the deletion of the second consonant in words with double consonants, e.g. “traveler, wagon”;
- c) the replacement of “re” by “er” in words of French origin, e.g. “theater, center”;
- d) the deletion of unpronounced endings in words of Romanic origin, e.g.

catalog, program;

e) the replacement of “ce” by “se” in words of Romanic origin, e.g. “defense, offense”,

d) deletion of unpronounced endings in native words, e.g. “tho, thro”.

There are differences in pronunciation. In American English we have “r-” coloured fully articulated vowels, in the combinations: “ar, er, ir, or, ur, our”, etc. In BE before fricatives and combinations with fricatives “a” is pronounced as “a:”, e.g. “class, dance, answer, fast”, etc.

There are some differences in the position of the stress:

BE AE BE AE

add`ress address la`boratory `laboratory

re`cess `recess re`search `research

in`quiry `inquiry ex`cess `excess

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

BE AE BE AE

/ˈfju:tail/ /ˈfju:t l/ /ˈdousail / /dos l/

/kla:k/ /kl rk/ /ˈfig / /figyer/

/ˈleɪ / / li:3 r/ /lefˈten nt/ /lu:tenant/

/ nai / /ni: r/ /shedju:l/ /skedyu:l/

But these differences in pronunciation do not prevent Englishmen and American from communicating with each other easily and cannot serve as a proof that British and American are different languages.

Words can be classified according to the period of their life in the language. The number of new words in a language is always larger than the number of words which come out of active usage. Accordingly we can have archaisms, that are

words which have come out of active usage, and neologisms, that are words which have recently appeared in the language.

Do Americans Speak English or American?

English in America

Some of bourgeois linguists Webster, Menkin proclaim that there exists an independent “American language”. From Marxist teaching we know that the B.W.S. and the grammatical structure of language serve to distinguish the languages and these two sides, the BWS and the grammatical structure are common to both variants of the English language, that of England and American. It is true that they have some distinctions mainly concerning their vocabularies, but those are distinctions of the close variants of one and the same language. Speaking of American English we must remember that English appeared in America in the 17th century, when the first colonists came there in 1620. So it was the English of Shakespearian Age. Being torn away from its native soil and thrown into new surrounding it has naturally undergone some changes on the American soil, e.g.

1) It retained up to now so words and expressions which became obsolete in England: apartment (am) – flat (English). In English “apartment” means “a room”, and only its plural form means “a flat”; to conclude (Am.) – to decide finally (make up one’s mind) – Eng. Conclude (nəticəyə gəlmək) – to conclude a meeting.

2) The meaning of some words and expressions developed in its own way, e.g. to graduate – (Am.) middle school, (Eng.) university; to guess – (Am.) to believe, (Eng.) догадаться.

3) Some new words and expressions were appeared (coined) in America: (Am.) a sidewalk, (Eng.) pavement.

4) Many neologisms arose because Americans are very fond of clipping words and converting them into verbs: (tele) phone – to phone; typewriter – type-to type –typist.

5) Some words and expressions of local population, i.e. Indians and Negroes, were borrowed: squaw, to bury the hatchet- to conclude peace, bango (Negro) piccaninni – a child.

6) There appeared some divergences in pronunciation and spelling:

a) phonetically: “r” is heard in such positions in which not in England: hard, better; “a” is pronounced before the following combinations “st”, “sp”, “ss”, “sk”, “ns”: grass, answer, cast; “ei” is pronounced instead of: neither.

b) as to spelling, it can be said that it has been slightly simplified.

In the 17th century Franklin had a project of introducing a phonetic alphabet but this was not realized. Later Webster followed him saying: “those people spell best who do not how to spell”. But only few of his innovations had taken root namely: color, labor (English – colour, labour); er (center- theatre); ow – ough (plow - plough); ll – l (traveled - travelled). There is also some difference in the usage of prepositions on, at, in: in the street – on picture, institute.

Lexical divergences: druggist – chemist, stairway – staircase, public school – primary school, and “P. School” in English is privileged classes to prepare for university; automobile – motorcar, railroad – railway, baggage – luggage; elevator – lift; gasoline – petrol, ale – beer; movie – cinema, candy – sweets, beach – seaside.

All these divergences do not affect on the main features of the language. Therefore the assertion of the existence of the American language is quite ungrounded.

American English

The variety of English spoken in the USA, has received the name of American English. The term “variant” or “variety” appears most appropriate for, several reasons. American English cannot be called a dialect although it is **a regional variety**, because it has a literary normalized form called Standard American whereas by definition given above a dialect has no literary form.

There were three main factors that determined divergence of American English from British English.

The first factor is the influence of languages which were different from the languages that influenced British English. English colonists in the New World had contacts with other nations and ethnic groups which English people did not have on the Isles.

Borrowings into American English

Languages	Semantic groups	Examples
Indian languages (Algonquian, Iroquoian, Siouan, etc.)	Plants, animals, foods, culture, political terms	Sequoia, squash, raccoon, skunk, pemmican, squaw, wampum, caucus
Spanish	Plants, animals, ranch, life, food and drink, building, etc.	Marijuana, barracuda, lasso, tortilla, tequila, plaza, patio
French	Plants, animals, foods, toponyms, coinage	Pumpkin, gopher, praline, prairie, cent, dime
German	Food and drink, education, social, etc.	Delicateness, hamburger, semester, seminar, Christmas tree
Dutch	Food, social classification, miscellaneous	Cookie, boss, Yankee, dumb, spook

The second factor is called “the colonial lag”. The first colonists spoke the English of Shakespeare. Some words fell out of use in Great Britain but American English retained them. For example: “loan – lend, fall – autumn, quit – stop, apartment – flat”.

The third factor relates to the specific features of American life, to technical, social and other innovations that appeared in the States. For instance: “drive-in, drive-through, fraternity, sorority, alumni, hot dogs”, etc.

Glorification of the commonplace: saloon, undertaker – funeral furnisher, homemaker – housewife, casket – coffin.

In one of these stories Oscar Wilde said that the English “have really every thing in common with America nowadays, except, of course, language”.

Bernard Shaw said that “America and England are two great nations separated by the same language”. Of course both these statements were meant as jokes.

There are scholars, who regard American English as one of the dialects of English language?

The problem may be put in the way: do the English and the Americans speak the same language or two different languages?

Do the United States of America pursue their own language?

There are scholars who regard American English as one of the dialects of the English. The theory can hardly be accepted because a dialect is usually appraised to the literary variety of the language whereas American English possesses a literary variant of its own. American vocabulary is rich with borrowings.

Now we speak about the grammar system of American English. Here we find even fewer divergences than in the vocabulary system: the use of the auxiliary verb will in the first person singular and plural of the future in des-sense: American

substitute the past indefinite for the present perfect tense form especially in oral communication America say: "I saw this movie". - English says: "I have seen this film".

An Americanism may be definite as a word or a set expression peculiar to the English language as spoken in the U.S.A. English cookie - "a biscuit", guess - "think", mail - "post"; store - "shop".

The American variant of the English languages differs from British English in pronunciation, some minor features of grammar, but chiefly in vocabulary. Speaking about the historic diachronic causes of those deviations, it is necessary to mention that America English is based on the language imported to the new continent of the time of the first settlements that is on the English of the 17th century. The first colonies were founded in 1607, so the first colonizers were contemporaries of W. Shakespeare, E. Spenser and J. Milton. Words which have died out in Britain, or changed their meaning may survive in the U.S.A. This, I guess, was used by J. Chaucer for I think. For more than 3 centuries the American vocabulary developed more or less independently of the British Stock and was influenced by the new surroundings.

Many of the foreign elements borrowed into American English from the Indian languages or from Spanish penetrated very soon not only into British English but also into several other languages, Russian not excluded, and so became international due to popularity of G.F. Cooper and H. Longfellow. They are: canoe, moccasin.

The Spanish borrowings like - cafeteria, ranch, and sombrero. As to the toponyms, for instance, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Missouri (all names of Indian tribes), or other names of towns, rivers and states named by Indian words.

The American spelling in some respects simpler than its British counterpart. The suffix - "our" is spelled - or, so that armor and humor are the American variants of armour and humour.

British spelling	American spelling
cosy	cozy
offence	offense
practice	practise
jewellery	jewelry
travelling	traveling

Cinema and T.V are probably the most important channels for the passage of Americanisms into the language of British and other languages as well. The Germans adopted the word teenager and the French speak of [‘automotisation’].

The influence of American advertising is also a vehicle of Americanisms. This is how the British terms were less is replaced by the Americanism radio.

The personal visits of British writers and scholars to the U.S.A. and all forms of other personal contacts bring back Americanisms.

The phrases boy friend and girl friend now widely used everywhere originated in the U.S.A.

Particularly common American English are verbs with the hanging postpositive. They say that in Hollywood you never meet a man: you meet up with him you do not study a subject but study up on it.

With words possessing several structural variants it may happen that some are more frequent in one country and the others in another.

Thus, amid and towards are more often used in the U.S.A. and amid stand towards in Great Britain.

Exercises

Consider your answers to the following:

- 1) What do you know about World Englishes?
- 2) What is the difference between Standard and Substandard English?
- 3) Which Dialects of English in Great Britain do you know?
- 4) Which Dialects of English out of Great Britain do you know?
- 5) Speak about Jargons.
- 6) Characterize National Languages.
- 7) Describe local varieties of English on the British Isles .
- 8) Told about varieties of English: Canadian, Australian and Indian Variants.
- 9) Explain the main differences of British and American English.
- 10) Do Americans Speak English or American?

CHAPTER XI

NEOLOGY

At the present moment English is developing very swiftly and there is so called “neology blowup”. R. Berchfield who worked at compiling a four-volume supplement to NED says that averagely 800 neologisms appear every year in Modern English. It has also become a language-giver recently, especially with the development of computerization.

New words, as a rule, 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 primarily used by university teachers, newspaper reporters, by those who are connected with mass media.

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.

Here we can point out several semantic groups when we analyze the group of neologisms connected with computerization, and here we can mention words used:

a) to denote different types of computers, e.g. PC, super-computer, multi-user, neurocomputer / analogue of a human brain/;

b) to denote parts of computers, e.g. hardware, software, monitor, screen, data, vaporware / experimental samples of computers for exhibition, not for production/;

c) to denote computer languages, e.g. BASIC, Algol FORTRAN etc;

d) to denote notions connected with work on computers, e.g. “computerman, computerization, computerize, to troubleshoot, to blitz out / to ruin data in a computer’s memory”.

There are also different types of activities performed with the help of computers, many of them are formed with the help of the morpheme “tele”, e.g. “to telework, to telecommute” - to work at home having a computer which is connected with the enterprise for which one works”.

There are also such words as “telebanking, telemarketing, teleshopping” when you can perform different operations with the help of your computer without leaving your home, all operations are registered by the computer at your bank / videobank /computerized telephone which registers all information which is received in your absence.

In the sphere of linguistics we have such neologisms as: machine translation, interlingual (an artificial language for machine translation into several languages) and many others.

In the sphere of biometrics we have computerized machines which can recognize characteristic features of people seeking entrance: “finger-print scanner, finger prints, biometric eye-scanner, blood-vessel arrangements in eyes, voice verification, voice patterns. These are types of biometric locks. Here we can also mention computerized cards with the help of which we can open the door without a key.

In the sphere of medicine computers are also used and we have the following neologisms: “telemonitory unit / a telemonitory system” for treating patients at a distance.

With the development of social activities neologisms appeared as well, e.g. “youthquake” – “gənclər arasında narahatçılıq”, “pussy-footer” – “kompromisa gedən siyasətçi”, “Euromarket, Eurodollar, European Parliament, Europol”, etc.

In the modern English society there is a tendency to social stratification, as a result there are neologisms in this sphere as well, e.g. “belonger” – “orta sınıfın nümayəndəsi, konservativ baxışların tərəfçisi”. To this group we can also refer abbreviations of the type yuppie /young urban professional people, such as: “muppie, gruppie, rumpie, bluppie”, etc.

People belonging to the lowest layer of the society are called **survivors**, a little bit more prosperous are called sustainers, and those who try to prosper in life and imitate those, they want to belong to, are called emulators. Those who have prospered but are not belongers are called **achievers**. All these layers of society are called VAL (Value and Lifestyles).

The rich belong also to jet set that is those who can afford to travel by jet planes all over the world enjoying their life. Sometimes they are called “jet plane travelers”.

During Margaret Thatcher’s rule the abbreviation PLU appeared which means “People like us” by which snobbistic circles of society call themselves. Nowadays (since 1989) PLU was substituted by “one of us”.

There are a lot of immigrants now in UK, in connection with which neologisms partial and non-partial were formed.

The word-group “welfare mother” was formed to denote a non-working single mother living on benefit.

In connection with criminalization of towns in UK voluntary groups of assisting the police were formed where dwellers of the neighbourhood are joined. These groups are called “neighbourhood watch, home watch”. Criminals wear “stocking masks” not to be recognized.

The higher society has neologisms in their speech, such as: “dial-a-meal, dial-a-taxi”.

In the language of teen-agers there are such words as: “Drugs!, OK, sweat task – “uzun məsafəli qaçış”, home composition, brunch”, etc.

With the development of professional jargons a lot of words ending in “speak” appeared in English, e.g. “artspeak, sportspeak, medspeak, education-speak, video-speak, cable-speak”, etc.

There are different semantic groups of neologisms belonging to everyday life:

a) food: “starter” instead of “hors d’oeuvres”, “macrobiotics, raw vegetables, crude rice, longlife milk, clingfilm, microwave stove, consumer electronics, fridge-freezer, hamburger, beefburger, cheeseburger, fishburger, vegburger“;

b) clothing: “catsuit” - one-piece clinging suit, slimster , string - miniscule bikini, hipster - trousers or skirt with the belt on hips, tunic - a long sweater for trousers, sweatnik - a long jacket, pants-skirt, bloomers - lady’s sports trousers”;

c) footwear: “winklepickers” - shoes with long pointed toes, “thongs” - open sandals, “backsters” - beech sandals with thick soles;

d) bags: “bumbag” - a small bag worn on the waist, “sling bag” - a bag with a long belt, “maitre” - a small bag for cosmetics.

There are also such words as: “dangledolly” - a dolly-talisman dangling in the car before the windscreen, “boot-sale” - selling from the boot of the car, “touch-tone” - a telephone with press-button.

Neologisms can be also classified according to the ways they are formed. They are subdivided 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**, e.g. “rah-rah” - a short skirt which is worn by girls during parades, “yeck / yuck” which are interjections to express repulsion produced the adjective “yucky/ yecky”. These are strong neologisms.

Strong neologisms include also **phonetic borrowings**, such as “perestroika” from Russian, “solidarnosc” from Polish, “Berufsverbot” from German, “dolce vita” from Italian, etc.

Morphological and syntactical **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, such as “free-fall” – “aksiyaların kəskin aşağı düşməsi” appeared in 1987 with the stock market crash in October 1987 /on the analogy with free-fall of parachutists, which is the period between jumping and opening the chute.

Here also belong: “call-and-recall” – “dispanserizasiya üçün çağırış”, “bioastronomy” - search for life on other planets, “rat-out” - betrayal in danger, “zero-zero” (double zero) - ban of longer and shorter range weapon, “x-rated” - about films terribly vulgar and cruel, “Ameringlish” - American English, “tycoonography” - a biography of a business tycoon.

There are also abbreviations of different types, such as “resto, teen / teenager, dinky, dual income no kids yet, ARC /AIDS-related condition, infection with AIDS, HIV - human immuno-deficiency virus”.

Quite a number of neologisms appear on the analogy with lexical units existing in the language, e.g. “snowmobile, automobile, danceaholic / alcoholic, airtel, hotel, cheeseburger, hamburger, autocade, cavalcade.

There are many neologisms formed by means of affixation, such as: “decompress, to disimprove, overhoused, educationalist, slimster, folknik”, etc. Phraseological neologisms can be subdivided into phraseological units with transferred meanings, e.g. “to buy into, to become involved, fudge and dudge” - avoidance of definite decisions, and set non-idiomatic expressions, e.g. “electronic virus, Rubic’s cube, retail park, acid rain , boot trade”, etc.

In Modern English there are changes in pronunciation. In Modern British English there is a tendency to change pronunciation of some sounds and combinations of sounds due to the influence of American English and some other factors. These changes are most noticeable in the speech of teachers and students of the universities in the Southern part of England - Oxford, Cambridge, London.

There are the following changes in pronouncing vowels:

a) shortening of long vowels, especially at the end of the word and before voiceless consonants, e.g. “see, keep”;

b) lengthening of short vowels before voiced consonants, e.g. “big, good, come, jam”, etc. In such adjectives which end in “d” lengthening of the vowel is observed all over England, e.g. “bad, sad, glad, mad”, etc.;

c) drawling of stressed syllables and clipping of unstressed syllables;

d) In unstressed syllables / e / is pronounced instead of / i /, e.g. /b `ko:z/, /evid ns, etc.;

e) In the words consisting of three or more syllables there is a tendency to have two main stresses, e.g. /nes `s ri/, /int `restin/;

f) The diphthong “ou” is pronounced “u”, e.g. “home” - h um, “go” - g u;

g) the diphthong “u” is pronounced /o:/, e.g. “sure” -sho:.

Vowels can also change under the influence of consonants:

a) after fricatives and consonants “n” and “m” – [ju:] is pronounced as [u:], e.g. “resume, music, news, enthusiasm”;

b) before fricatives and combinations of fricatives with consonants “a” is pronounced as / ʌ /, e.g. “dance, answer, class, fast”.

The pronunciation of some consonants is also changed:

a) after a vowel “r” is pronounced ,e.g. [ka:r'] , [ha:rt];

b) there appears an intrusive “r” in the combinations where after the final vowel “e” there is a vowel at the beginning of the next word, e.g. “the idea of Asia and Europe”, on the analogy with word combinations “there is, there are”;

c) “p” and “t” are glotalized in the middle of the word, e.g. “matter” is pronounced as [ˈm̥], “happy” as [ˈh̥æpɪ];

d) “s” is used instead of “sh” before “t” in the structure of suffixes, e.g. “social – [ˈsəʊsiəl], “negotiate” – [niˈɡəʊsiət];

e) “l” is vocalized at the end of the word, e.g. “full”- [fʊl] (close to /v/ in sound);

f) “sh” is voiced in the intervocal position in some geographical names, e.g. “Asia, Persia”;

g) combinations of sounds “dj, tj, sj” in such words as duke, tube, issue have two variants of pronunciation: [dʒu:k] and [dju:k], [tʃu:b] and [tju:b], [ˈɪʃu:] and [ˈɪʃju:];

h) pronunciation approaching spelling is being developed, e.g. “often” – [ˈɒftn], “forehead” – [fɔːˈhed], etc;

i) “t” and “d” at the end of words are not pronounced, e.g. “half past five” – [ˈha:f `pa:s `faiv], “old man” – [ˈoul `maen].

Exercises

Consider your answers to the following:

- 1) How many neologisms appear every year?
- 2) Who is “originator”?
- 3) Who are “survivors” and “achievers”?
- 4) What is VAL?
- 5) Explain the process of transnomination.
- 6) Differentiate the semantic groups of neologisms.
- 7) Speak about various spheres of human activity where mostly appeared neologisms.
- 8) There are different semantic groups of neologisms belonging to everyday life. Name them.
- 9) Describe the classification of neologisms according to the ways of its formation.
- 10) How would you explain in Modern English the changes in pronunciation?

CHAPTER XII

LEXICOGRAPHY

Lexicography is the science of dictionary - compiling. This is an important branch of Applied Linguistics. It is closely connected with Lexicology, as they both have the same object of study and deal with the same problem – the form, meaning, usage, and origin of vocabulary units. Both make use of each other's achievements. It is an important branch of applied linguistics. But there are some differences between these two sciences.

Lexicography studies recurring patterns of semantic relations, any formal phonological and grammatical devices by which they may be rendered. It studies characteristic features of words and oppositions concerning the vocabulary of a language. But lexicology cannot claim any completeness as regards units themselves, because the number of units is very great.

As to lexicology it deals with the semantic, formal and functional descriptions of all individual words. It goes without saying that neither Lexicology, nor Lexicography can develop successfully without each other, because they both deal with the same object of reality, that is, with the vocabulary of a language.

One of the debatable problems in the theory and practice of dictionary is compiling the number of vocabulary units in Modern English. Different dictionaries register different number of words. It depends upon basically different approaches to the vocabulary units. In some cases, e.g. the distinction between various meanings of one polysemantic word and the meanings of two homonymous words is not sharp and clear. Thus, in some dictionaries “seal” is regarded as one word, in others as five different words.

Another debatable problem is phraseological units. This term itself is rather vague, and allows different interpretations. From one point of view all kinds of

idiomatic expressions must be regarded in the dictionary as separate vocabulary entries.

The other approach to the problem of phraseology considers that only phraseological units functioning in the language as word equivalents should be treated as individual vocabulary units.

The word stock of Modern English is constantly growing and changing. The words constantly appear in the language, but we don't consider them belonging to the English vocabulary until they are **assimilated**.

At the same time some words disappear in the language or gradually lose their vitality and are not used in present day English, but may be found in poetical works of outstanding English poets of the 19th century. A great number of vocabulary units are used as terms in various branches of science (radio, electronics, statistic are international words).

There is a considerable difference between the vocabulary units a person uses and those who understand. The passive vocabulary of a normally educated person comprises about 30.000 words. But only about 20.000 are used in speech. The number of vocabulary units to be included in the dictionaries also depends on the aims of dictionary-compilers.

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 15-th century /Anglo-Latin, Anglo-French , Anglo-German/.

The first unilingual dictionary explaining difficult words appeared in 1604, the author was Robert Cawdry, a schoolmaster. He compiled his dictionary for schoolchildren. In 1721 an English scientist and writer Nathan Bailey published the first etymological dictionary which explained the origin of English words. It was the first scientific dictionary, it was compiled for philologists.

In 1775 an English scientist compiled a famous explanatory dictionary. Its author was Samuel Johnson. 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. The dictionary was a great success and it influenced the development of lexicography in all countries. The dictionary influenced normalization of the English vocabulary. But at the same time it helped to preserve the English spelling in its conservative form.

In 1858 one of the members of the English philological society Dr. Trench raised the question of compiling a dictionary including all the words existing in the language. The philological society adopted the decision to compile the dictionary and the work started. More than a thousand people took part in collecting examples, and 26 years later in 1884 the first volume was published. It contained words beginning with “A” and “B”. The last volume was published in 1928 that is 70 years after the decision to compile it was adopted. The dictionary was called NED and contained 12 volumes.

In 1933 the dictionary was republished under the title “The Oxford English Dictionary”, because the work on the dictionary was conducted in Oxford. This dictionary contained 13 volumes.

As the dictionary was very large and terribly expensive scientists continued their work and compiled shorter editions of the dictionary: “A Shorter Oxford Dictionary” consisting of two volumes. It had the same number of entries, but far less examples from literature.

They also compiled “A Concise Oxford Dictionary” consisting of one volume and including only modern words and no examples from literature.

The American lexicography began to develop much later, at the end of the 18-th 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. He went on with his work on the dictionary and in 1828 he

published a two-volume dictionary. He tried to simplify the English spelling and transcription. He introduced the alphabetical system of transcription where he used letters and combinations of letters instead of transcription signs. He denoted vowels in closed syllables by the corresponding vowels, e.g. / a/, /e/, / i/, / o/, /u/. He denoted vowels in the open syllable by the same letters, but with a dash above them, e.g. / a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/. He denoted vowels in the position before /r/ as the same letters with two dots above them, e.g. / a/, /o/ and by the letter “e” with two dots above it for the combinations “er”, “ir”, “ur” because they are pronounced identically. The same tendency is preserved for other sounds: /u:/ is denoted by /oo/, /y/ is used for the sound /j/, etc.

We distinguish several classifications of dictionaries. All dictionaries are divided into **linguistic** and **encyclopedic** dictionaries. Encyclopedic dictionaries describe different objects, phenomena, people and give some data 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**.

To general dictionaries two most widely used dictionaries belong: **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** (excepting translation ones) if the explanation is given in the same language, **bilingual** if the explanation is given in another language and also they can be **polilingual**.

There are a lot of **explanatory dictionaries** (NED, SOD, COD, NID, N.G. Wyld's “Universal Dictionary” and others).

In explanatory dictionaries the entry consists of the spelling, transcription, grammatical forms, meanings, examples, phraseology. Pronunciation is given either by means of the International Transcription System or in British Phonetic Notation which is different in each large dictionary, e.g. /o:/ can be indicated as /aw/, /or/, /oh/, /o/. etc.

Translation dictionaries give words and their equivalents in the other language. There are English-Russian dictionaries by I.R. Galperin and others. Among **general dictionaries** we can also mention Learner's dictionaries. They began to appear in the second half of the 20-th century.

The most famous is "The Advanced Learner's Dictionary" by A.S. Hornby. It is a unilingual dictionary based on COD, for advanced foreign learners and language teachers. It gives data about grammatical and lexical valency of words.

Specialized dictionaries of synonyms are also widely used, one of them is "A Dictionary of English Synonyms and Synonymous Expressions" by R.Soule. Another famous one is "Webster's Dictionary of Synonyms". These are unilingual dictionaries.

The best known bilingual dictionary of synonyms is "English Synonyms".

In 1981 "The Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English" was compiled, where words are given in 14 semantic groups of everyday nature. Each word is defined in detail, its usage is explained and illustrated, synonyms, antonyms are presented also. It describes 15000 items, and can be referred to dictionaries of synonyms and to explanatory dictionaries.

Phraseological dictionaries describe idioms and colloquial phrases, proverbs. Some of them have examples from literature. Some lexicographers include not only word-groups but also anomalies among words.

In "The Oxford Dictionary of English Proverbs" each proverb is illustrated by a lot of examples, there are stylistic references as well.

The dictionary by Vizetelli gives definitions and illustrations, but different meanings of polysemantic units are not given. The most famous bilingual dictionary of phraseology was compiled by A.V. Koonin. It is one of the best phraseological dictionaries.

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, "The Longman Register of New Words" (1990), "Bloomsbury Dictionary of New Words" (1996).

In Azerbaijan there different kinds of dictionaries. For instance: A.H.Haciyeva, A.K.Haciyeva, V.V.Eyvazov are the authors of "English – Azerbaijani Phraseological Dictionary" (2006).

The Author of two-volume **"The Great English, Russian and Azerbaijani Phraseological Dictionary"** which contains more than 90.000 phraseological units and is a first original dictionary in the history of Azerbaijani Lexicography (2010), N.Ch.Veliyeva investigates with their equivalents a great deal of idioms.

Varieties of the Vocabulary

As it is said above Lexicography is the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries. The term "dictionary" is used to denote a book listing words of a language with their meanings and often with the data concerning pronunciation, usage or origin. A dictionary is a collection of words in one or more specific

languages, often listed alphabetically, with usage information, definitions, etymologies, phonetics, pronunciations and other information or a book of words in one language with their equivalents in another. English lexicography is considered to be the richest in the world. It has a remarkable history.

The history of dictionary – making for the English language goes as far back as the Old English period. The first explanatory unilingual English dictionary appeared in 1604. It was compiled by Robert Cow dray, a school master. The first etymological dictionary was made by National Bailey in 1721. The entries of a dictionary are usually arranged in alphabetical order, but derivatives, compounds and word combinations are given under the same head-word.

The fundamental paper in lexicographic theory was written by L.V. Scherba as far back as 1940. A complete bibliography of the subject may be found in L.P. Stupin's works. Lexicography has a common object of study with lexicology, both describe the vocabulary of a language. So, it's closely connected with lexicology, both deal with the same problems-the form, meaning usage and origin of vocabulary units. All the words and phraseological units existing in the language are recorded in dictionaries The form dictionary is used to denote a back listing words of a language with their meanings and often with data regarding pronunciation, usage or origin.

Different dictionaries have different number of words (vocabulary units) they are from 500.000 to 600.000.The vocabulary units are arranged mostly in alphabetic order. Words are either explained by our means of the same language so called. "Explanatory Dictionaries" or are translated into some other language, so called "Bilingual Dictionaries"; strict by speaking. The dictionaries are reference books. There are different types of them; etymological, pronouncing, ideological, phraseological, dialectic and those of synonyms and homonyms. Sometimes one book embraces all those aspects as for example: Webster's International Dictionary and they volumes comprising 70000 words. Oxford English Dictionary, consisting of many volumes."

Encyclopedia' is also a kind of dictionary giving not only the explanation of the meaning of words, but also the description of things and phenomena, history and people, the biography of men and so on.

Dictionaries play a great role in the cultural life of people. Since the vocabulary shows the state of the language, level of the culture. That's why great attention is paid to lexicographical work. For dictionaries in which the words and their definitions belong to the same language the term unilingual or explanatory is used whereas bilingual or translation dictionaries are those that explain words by giving their equivalents in another language.

The most important unilingual dictionaries of the English language are "The Oxford English Dictionary", A.S. Hornby's Dictionary, Webster's and so on.

Multilingual or polyglot dictionaries are not numerous; they serve chiefly the purpose of comparing synonyms and terminology in various languages. The encyclopedia in English language is Encyclopedia Britannica or curtailed form is - Britannica. It consists of 24 volumes and published in London, Chicago and Toronto. Lexicology is surely first of all interested in linguistic dictionaries and "Encyclopedia Americana" in 30 volumes very popular in Great Britain and the USA are also "Collier's Encyclopedia" intended for students and school teachers. "Every man's Encyclopedia" designed for all round use notable persons. "Who's Who Dictionary".

As we had already mentioned, both bilingual and unilingual dictionaries can be general and special. General dictionaries represent the vocabulary as a whole with a degree of completeness depending upon the scope and bulk of the book in question.

The group includes the thirteen volumes of "The Oxford English Dictionary" alongside with any miniature pocket dictionary.

Special dictionaries may be further subdivided depending on whether the words are chosen according to the sphere of human activity in which they are used

embraces highly specialized dictionaries of limited scope which may appeal to a particular kind of reader. They register and explain technical terms for various branches of knowledge, art and linguistic, medical terms.

Unilingual books of this type giving definitions of terms are called glossaries. The second subgroup deals with specific language units i.e. with phraseology, abbreviations, neologisms, surnames, toponyms, proverbs and sayings, etc. The third subgroup contains a formidable array of synonymic dictionaries.

Dictionaries recording the complete vocabulary of some author are called **concordances** - for exam; Schmidt's lexicon, Shakespeare Lexicon, a complete dictionary of all English words in 2 volumes Berlin, 1923. There are concordances to the works of G. Chaucer - they should be distinguished from those that deal only with difficult words, i.e. glossaries.

Glossary is a list of explanation to a special words and expressions, coming across in different books, as for instance at the beginning or at the end of books are given technical words and scientific terms used by the author of the book.

Glossary with explanation of archaisms and some realias is given to the words of Shakespeare and other authors. Corresponding American edition is called "The Encyclopedia Americana".

Unilingual	Bilingual or multilingual
Explanatory dictionaries irrespective of their bulk.	English – Russian, Russian – English etc. and multi dictionaries.
Etymological, frequency, phonetically rhyming and thesaurus – treasury.	
Glossaries of scientific and other special terms concordances.	Dictionaries of scientific and other special terms.

Dictionaries of abbreviations, antonyms, borrowings, proverbs, sayings, synonyms, toponyms, surnames and so on. Dictionaries of American English dialect and slang dictionaries.	Dictionaries of abbreviations, phraseology, proverbs, synonyms etc. Dictionaries of old English and middle English with explanations in modern English.
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English lexicography is probably the richest in the world with respect to variety and scope of the dictionaries published. Every year many special, professional (technique, musical) dictionaries are issued.

The 1st English dictionary appeared in the 17thc. In the 18th century S. Johnson's dictionary was issued being based on the historical principles. After that many excellent dictionaries were issued, such as "Fowler, Fowler", "King's English", "An etymological dictionary", "Wright Dialectical Dictionary". There is a special Shakespearean dictionary called "A Shakespearean Glossary".

The selection and number of vocabulary units to be included in the dictionaries depends on the aims. The dictionaries whose object is to present a picture of spoken and written Modern English contain about 75000 units. The number of vocabulary units (items) in the dictionaries for the needs of foreign students of English whose aim is speaking of the language may be from 3000 to 20000 as for example: "The Advanced Learners' Dictionary" by A. Hornby, etc.

Different Types of Dictionaries.

A dictionary is the most widely used reference book in English homes, schools and business offices. The term "dictionary" denotes a book listing words of a language with their meanings, pronunciation, usage and sometimes origin.

All the dictionaries may be divided into two main types: **linguistic and non-linguistic dictionaries**.

Non-linguistic dictionaries give information on all branches of knowledge. They deal not with words, but with facts and concepts. Such dictionaries are called encyclopedic dictionaries. For example: The Encyclopedia Britannica, 24 volumes, London-Chicago -Toronto. 10th edition, 1961.

Linguistic dictionaries deal with words, their meanings, pronunciation, and etymology or give their equivalents in another language. Linguistic dictionaries are divided into: general dictionaries and special dictionaries.

General dictionaries present a wide-range of data about the vocabulary items in ordinary use. General dictionaries are subdivided into the following types:

1) **Explanatory dictionaries** (or unilingual dictionaries). In such dictionaries words and their definitions belong to the same language. Such as:

a) The New English Dictionary on Historical Principles (NED) = also the Oxford English Dictionary (OED) – (ed. by J.A.H.Murray and others volumes, I–XIII, Oxford, 1933);

b) Shorter Oxford Dictionary on Historical Principles (SOD), vol. I-II, 3rd ed., Oxford, 1956;

c) Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language (NID) Springfield Mass., USA, 1981; d) The Concise (краткий) Oxford Dictionary, ed. by H.W.Fowler, Oxford, 1944, etc.

2) **Translation dictionaries** - bilingual dictionaries - parallel dictionaries. Translation dictionaries explain words of a given language by giving their equivalents in another language. E.g. English-Russian dictionary by V.K.Muller; Russian-English Dictionary under A.I.Smirnitsky's general direction; New English-Russian Dictionary edited by I.R.Galperin; Azerbaijanian – English Dictionary by O.I.Musayev, Baku, 1996; English Azerbaijani Dictionary by

O.I.Musayev, Baku, 2003; Azerbaijani – English and English Azerbaijani dictionary by I.M.Rahimov, Baku, 2003;

3) **Learner's Dictionaries** usually contain such words and their meanings which are likely to be used or met by the learner in his studies. Usually the selection of head words and their meanings is based on frequency of current use. Learner's dictionaries are compiled for foreign language learners of different stages of advancement:

a) The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English by A.S.Hornby, Oxford, 1982, and others;

b) The learner's English Russian Dictionary by S.Folomkina and H.Weiser (contains about 3500 words), etc.

Specialized Dictionaries restrict themselves to one particular aspect (e.g. synonyms and antonyms, phraseological units, neologisms, terms, etymology, pronunciation), etc. Specialized dictionaries may be:

1) **Dictionary of synonyms:**

a) A Dictionary of English Synonyms and Synonymous Expressions by R.Soule, Boston, 1938;

b) Webster's Dictionary of Synonyms, USA, 1942;

c) English Synonyms Explained and Illustrated by A.F.Gandelsman, Moscow, 1963; A Dictionary of Synonyms, by I.Mammadov, H.Hasanov, Baku, 1990. Dictionaries of synonyms explain the differences between synonyms in semantic structure, use and style.

2) **Phraseological Dictionaries.** They deal with set-expressions, proverbs, explain their meanings, origin:

a) The Oxford Dictionary of English Proverbs;

b) V.H.Collins, Book of English Idioms;

c) An Anglo-Russian Phraseological Dictionary by A.V.Koonin, M., 1967, in two volumes;

d) English - Azerbaijani and Azerbaijani - English phraseological dictionary, by Kh.Akhmadova, I.M.Rahimov, Baku, 1968;

e) English - Azerbaijani - Russian Proverbial Dictionary, Baku, 1981, by T.Abasquliyev;

f) Azerbaijani – English - Russian Phraseological Dictionary by N.Ch. Veliyeva, Baku, Nurlan, 2006, 460 p., (57,5 ç.v.);

g) English-Azerbaijani Phraseological Dictionary by A.H.Hajiyeva, A.K.Hajiyeva, Baku, 2006;

h) The Great Azerbaijani – English - Russian Phraseological Dictionary by Nigar Ch.Veliyeva, Baku, State Publishing House, I-II volumes, 2010, 1975 p. (123,5 ç.v.).

3) **Dictionaries of Collocations** contain words which freely combine with the given head-word. A Reum's Dictionary of English Style (about 10.000 English words). This dictionary is compiled for German students of English in order to help them to carry English correspondence.

4) **Dictionaries of Word-Frequency.** These reference-books are based on frequency value of words included by numbers stating the occurrence per million words. E.g. The Teacher's Book of 30 000 words by E.L.Thornike and I.Lorge.

We also distinguish **other types of specialized dictionaries:**

1) Usage dictionaries make it their business to pass judgment on what is right or wrong. E.g. N.W.Fowler, Dictionary of Modern English Usage, Oxford, 1940; N.W.Nickolson, A Dictionary of American-English Usage.

2) Etymological Dictionaries. Such dictionaries explain the sources and origin of words. E.g. W.Skeat, Etymological Dictionary of the English Language, Oxford, 1931.

3) Pronouncing Dictionaries. Record contemporary pronunciation of words. E.g. Daniel Jones, English Pronouncing Dictionary (the world-famous dictionary).

4) Idiographic Dictionaries. In idiographic dictionaries words are not arranged in alphabetical order, they are arranged according to a logical classification of notions expressed that is according to the semantic fields, such as kinship terms, colour terms, names for parts of human body, abstract relations, space, etc. But dictionaries of this type always have an alphabetical index attached, which helps to find the necessary word. E.g. “Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases” by P.M.Roget.

This idiographic dictionary is the oldest one in the world. It was first published in 1812. Since then it was reprinted about 80 times. Its last edition appeared in 1962.

Besides above mentioned dictionaries there are also such dictionaries as spelling reference books, hard-words dictionaries, different technical dictionaries, dialect and slang dictionaries, multilingual (or polyglot) dictionaries, etc.

There are different types of dictionaries in the Azerbaijani language as well. They are: Foreign Words Dictionary, Baku, 1960; Arabic and Persian Words Dictionary, Baku, 1981; Orthographic Dictionary, Baku, 1975, Dialect Dictionary, Baku, 1964; Russian - Azerbaijani Dictionary in III volumes, Baku, 1971, 1975, 1978. They were published under the edition by A.A.Orujov; Azerbaijani -Russian Dictionary, Baku, 1965, edited by Kh.A.Azizbayov; A Dictionary of Proverbs, Baku, 1985, edited by H.Gasimzadeh, etc.

Structure of Dictionaries

Most dictionaries have much in common in their structure. They usually have such items as:

- 1) Introduction or Preface (author's explanatory remarks at the beginning of a book) or Foreword.
- 2) Guide to these dictionaries.
- 3) Key to the pronunciation.
- 4) Abbreviations and symbols used in the dictionary.
- 5) A dictionary of the English language (list of words).
- 6) Supplements (geographical names, personal names, foreign words).

English Lexicography is probably the richest one in the world with respect to variety and number of the dictionaries published. The demand for dictionaries is great.

Some Problems of Dictionary Compiling

The work at a dictionary consists of the following stages: the collection of material; the selection of entries and their arrangement; the setting of each entry. At different stages of his work the lexicographer comes across with different problems:

- 1) the selection of lexical units;
- 2) their arrangement;

- 3) the setting of entries;
- 4) the selection and arrangement of word – meaning;
- 5) the definition of meaning;
- 6) illustrative material;
- 7) supplementary material.

The selection is obviously necessary for all dictionaries. First of all the type of lexical units to be chosen for inclusion is to be decided upon. Then the number of items to be recorded must be determined.

Explanatory or translation dictionaries are usually recorded words and phraseological units, some of them also include affixes as separate entries. Synonym books, pronouncing, etymological dictionaries and some others deal only with words. In most dictionaries various types of entries are given in a single alphabetical listing.

In some explanatory and translation dictionaries, entries are grouped in families of words, are arranged in synonymic sets and its dominant member serves as the head-word of the entry. The meanings of words may be defined in different ways:

- a) by means of definitions that are characterized as encyclopedic;
- b) by means of descriptive definitions or paraphrases;
- c) with the help of synonymous words and expressions;
- d) by means of cross-referents (antonyms).

All types of dictionaries may be monolingual (unilingual) - giving information in the same language and translation dictionaries - giving information in another language.

Unilingual dictionaries may be diachronic (Oxford dict.) and synchronic (or

descriptive).

Diachronic dictionaries reflect the historical development of the form and meaning of every word.

The descriptive dictionaries are concerned with present day meaning and usage of words. There are a lot of dictionaries (general, unilingual) compiled in English speaking countries.

Translation and polyglot (multilingual) dictionaries are those that give equivalents in another language or several foreign languages.

The main problem in compiling dictionaries of this type is to give adequate (satisfactory) translation of vocabulary.

Methods of Linguistic Analysis in Word Stock Studies

1) **Distributional analysis.** Vocabulary studies include such methods of linguistic analysis as distributional and transformational analysis, the analysis and so on. In describing distribution, for instance, one uses either part of speech notation or equivalent word classes. The term “distribution” is used to denote the possible variants of the immediate lexical, grammatical and phonetic environment of a linguistic unit.

In the words of Z.Harris, - the distribution of an element is the total of all environments in which it occurs i.e. the sum of all (different) positions (or occurrence) of one element relative to the occurrence of other elements of other elements. The “total” mentioned by Z.Harris is replaced by configurations valency. Defining word classes for distributional analysis depends on the structural use of the word in the sentence.

The technique of analysis has been facilitated by coding. In this words are replaced by conventional word-class symbols. A possible version of notation is N for nouns and words that can occupy in the sentence the same position such as personal pronouns. To indicate the classes to which nouns belong subscripts are used: so that N_p means a personal noun, N_m – a material noun, N_{coll} - a collective noun, etc. V stands for verbs, A – for adjectives and their equivalents, D-for Adverbs and their equivalents. Prepositions and conjunctions are not coded. Thus when studying the verb “wake”, for example: The old man made Henry laugh aloud, may be reduced to the man made Henry laugh.

Until recently the standard context was taken to be the sentence, now it is often reduced to a phrase, so that this example may be rewritten as “to make somebody laugh”. When everything but the head-word of the phrase is coded we obtain the **distributional formula**:

make + N_p + V

The examples collected are arranged according to their distributional formulas, and the analyst receives a complete idea of the environments the language show's for the word in question. The list of structures characteristic of the word's distribution is accompanied by examples:

make + a + N – make a coat, a machine, a decision.

make + (the) + N + V – make the machine go, make smb. work.

make + A – make sure

make + a + A + N – make a good wife, et.

In each of these examples the meaning of “make” is different. Some of these patterns, however, may be used for several meanings of the word “make”, so that the differentiation of meaning is not complete. Compare, for instance, the

following sentences, where the pattern make + N remains unchanged although our intuition tells us that the meaning of “make” is not the same:

60 minutes make an hour

60 people make a decision

A phrase, all elements of which including the headword, are coded, is called a **distributional pattern**, for instance “to make somebody laugh” – to V₁ N_p V₂.

The coding helps us to be **on the alert** for the distinction between classes (e.g. noun, verb), subclasses (e.g. personal noun, transitive verb) and class members or elements (e.g. make somebody laugh). To verify whether our intuition is correct, and whether the language recognizes this difference elsewhere, a substitution test may be used. “To make a decision” can be substituted by “to decide”, so that 60 people make a decision – 60 people decide.

b) The Immediate Constituents Analysis.

The structural types of words may be effectively described in terms of ultimate immediate constituents. Immediate constituents analysis is the process of segmenting a complex construction by successive single cuts.

The principle of immediate constituents was first suggested by L. Bloomfield and was later developed by many linguists. Every complex form is entirely made up, so far as its phonetically definable constituents are concerned of morphemes.

A simple analysis which has become almost classical, being repeated many times by many authors is Bloomfield’s analysis of the word “ungentlemanly”. As the word is convenient we take the same example. Comparing this word with other utterances the listener recognize the morpheme un – as a negative prefix because he has often come across words built on the pattern un + adjective stem uncertain, unconscious, uneasy, etc. One can also come across the adjective “gentlemanly”. This at the first cut we obtain the following immediate constituents: un + gentlemanly.

If we continue our analysis we see that although “gent” occurs as free from in low colloquial usage, no such word as “lemonly” may be found either as a free or as a bound constituent, so this time we have to separate the final morpheme. We are justified in so doing as there are many adjectives following the pattern “noun stem” + “-ly”, such as womanly, masterly with the same semantic relationship of “having the quality of the person denoted by the stem”, we also have come across the noun “gentleman” in other utterances.

The two first stages of analysis resulted in separating a free and a bound form:

1) “un-” + gentlemanly, 2) gentleman + “-ly”. The third one has its peculiarities. The division into gent- + -leman is obviously impossible as no such patterns exist in English, so the cut is gentle + man. A similar pattern is observed in “nobleman” and so we state adjective stem + -man. Now, the element man may be differently classified as a semi-affix or as a variant of the free form “man”. The word “gentle” is open to discussion. It is obviously divisible from the etymological viewpoint: gentle - lat. gentilis, permits to discern the root or rather the radical element “gens” – and the suffix – “il”. But, since we are only concerned with synchronic analysis this division is not relevant.

To sum up: as we break the word we obtain at any level only two IC's one of which is the stem of the given word. All the time the analysis is based on the patterns characteristic of the English vocabulary. As a pattern showing the interdependence of all the constituents segregated at various stages we obtain the following formula; un-+ {[gent-+le) +-man] +-ly}.

The analysis into immediate constituents as suggested in American linguistics has been further developed in the above treatment by combining a purely formal procedure with semantic analysis. A semantic check means, for instance, that we can distinguish the type ‘gentlemanly’ from the type “monthly”, although both follow the structural pattern noun stem + “-ly”. The semantic relation is different, as “-ly” is qualitative in the first case and frequentative in the second, i.e. “monthly”

means occurring every month. This point is confirmed by the following correlations; as adjective built on the pattern personal noun stem + “ly” is equivalent to “characteristic of or having the quality of a person denoted by the stem”.

Gentlemanly-having the qualities of a gentleman.

Masterly-having the qualities of a master.

Womanly-having the qualities of a woman.

Monthly does not sit into this series so we write;

Monthly-having the qualities of a month the other hand adjectives of this group, i.e. words built on the pattern stem of a nouns denoting a period of time+-ly are all equivalent to the formula ‘occurring every period of time denoted by the stem’;

Monthly- occurring every month

Hourly- occurring every hour

Yearly - occurring every year.

Gentlemanly does not show this sort of equivalence, the transform is obviously impossible, so we write gentlemanly-occurring every gentleman.

2) **Transformational Analysis**, by which we mean transformation of linguistic units according to corresponding patterns to show how to derive something from something else by switching; things about putting things on or leaving them out and so on. Transformations are most practical in building semantic relationships between words. We often apply them on different levels of study. Numerous compounds words are best explained by their decomposition to show how they derive from their constituents.

For example, if we compare two compound words “dogfight” and “dogcart”, we shall see that the distributional pattern of stems is identical and may be represented as $n + n$. The meaning of these words broadly speaking is also similar as the first of the stems modifies, describes the second and we understand these compounds as “a kind of fight” and “a kind of cart” respectively.

The semantic relationship between the stems, however, is different and hence the lexical meaning of the words is also different. For example, this can be shown by means of a transformational procedure which shows that a dogfight is semantically equivalent to “fight between dogs”, whereas a dogcart is not “a cart between dogs” but “a cart drawn by dogs”.

The result of transformation is called a transform. An elementary example will show the essence of the procedure. The distributional formula of “make” in the following two sentences is exactly the same, to reveal the difference in meaning a transformation introducing the preposition “for” is attempted as follows: He made the boy a pipe – he made a pipe for the boy. He made the girl a film star – He made a film star for the girl. In the first case transformation is possible and the meaning of the transform does not differ from that of the original utterance. In the second case transformation is impossible. The meaning of the transform is different from that of the original utterance, which shows that we have two different variants of “make” in the examples quoted.

Word-groups of identical distributional structure when repatterned also show that the semantic relationship between them (words) and consequently the meaning of word-groups may be different. For example, in the word-groups consisting of a possessive pronoun followed by a noun, e.g. his car, his failure, his arrest, his goodness, etc., the relationship between “his” and the following nouns is in each instant different which can be demonstrated by means of transformational procedures.

His car (pen, table, etc.) may be repatterned into “he has a car (a pen, a table, etc.)” or in a more generalized form be represented as A possesses B.

His failure (mistake, attempt, etc.) may be represented as “he failed” (was mistaken, attempted) or A performs B which is impossible in the case of his car (pen, table, etc.).

His goodness (kindness, modesty, etc.) may be represented as “he is good” (kind, modest, etc.) or B is the quality of A.

It can also be inferred from the above that two phrases which are transforms of each other (e.g. his car – he has a car, his kindness – he is kind, etc.) are correlated in meaning as well as in form.

3) **Componential analysis** is a very important method of linguistic investigation and has attracted a great deal of attention. It is the analysis of vocabulary into a series of basic identifying features or “components” of meaning.

Componential analysis was proposed by Jerold Katz and Jenny Fodor in the 1960s. According to them semantic features can be classified into the following hierarchy:

grammatical markers, which describe the syntactic behaviour of the item in terms of the system of grammatical categories: noun, abstract noun, etc.

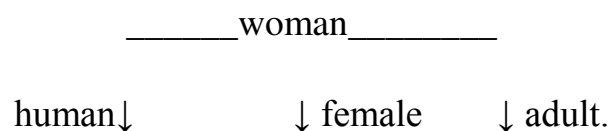
semantic markers describe the semantic features that are common for the items of the lexical semantic group as a structure: male, parent, sibling.

semantic distinguishers give the leftover of the semantic information, the features that make this item unique, for example: stepdaughter – male – parent – *blood relation*.

Words can be analyzed and described in terms of their semantic components, which usually come in pairs called semantic oppositions. “Up” and “down” for example, are related in that they both describe vertical directions, one in one

direction (call it “plus”) and the other in the other (call it “minus”). There are several variations on these pairs, depending on how they related to each other and how they can be used with other words. There are also sets of words that are variations on a single semantic theme, such as “penny, nickel, dime, quarter”, etc.

Linguistics proceeds from the assumption that the smallest unit of meaning are semes and that sememes and lexems 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”. This one – to-many correspondence may be represented as follows:



The analysis of the word “girl” would also yield (express) 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. The comparison of the results of the componential analysis of the words “boy” and “girl” would also show the difference just in one component, i.e. the sememe denoting “male” and “female” respectively.

It should be pointed out that componential analysis deals with individual meanings. Different meanings of polysemantic words have different componential structure. For example, the comparison of two meanings of the noun “boy” (1) a male child up to the age of 17 or 18 and (2) a male servant (any age especially in African and Asian countries) reveals that though both of them contain the semantic components “human” and “male” the component “young” which is part of one meaning is not to be found in the other. As a rule when we discuss the analysis of word-meaning we imply the basic meaning of the word under consideration.

The most inclusive categories are parts of speech - the major word classes are nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs. All members of a major class share a distinguishing semantic feature and involve a certain type of semantic information. More revealing names for such features might be “thingness” or “substantiality” for nouns, “quality” for adjectives, and so on.

The componential analysis of the word, e.g. “spinster” runs; noun, count-noun, human, adult, female, who has never married. Noun, of course, is the part of speech, meaning the most inclusive category; count-noun is a marker it represents a subclass within nouns and refers to the semantic feature which the word “spinster” has in common with all other countable nouns but which distinguishes it from all uncountable nouns, e. g. ”salt”, “bread”, “water”, etc. “human” is also a marker which refers the word “spinster” to a subcategory of countable nouns, i.e. to nouns denoting human beings; “adult” is another marker pointing of a specific subdivision of human beings into adults and young or not grown up.

The word spinster possesses still another marker-female which it shares with such words as “woman”, “widow”, “mother”, etc. and which represents a subclass of adult females. At last comes the distinguisher “who has never married” which differentiates the meaning of the word from other words which have all other common semantic features.

Theory of Frames

According to L.Vygotskiy language and thought merge on the level of meaning. Meaning is an information (conceptual) structure in an individual’s mind. It is a structure imposed on our knowledge about the object designated by the word, on the ideas images, associations, which this word evokes in the minds of language speakers. Meaning is mental representation that may be structured and organized in different ways.

A mental representation is not a copy or mental picture stored as such. Nothing can be ever represented in full and faithful detail. People function and interact with their surroundings. What we learn from experience is organized along several dimensions. Mental representations exist as models: abstract domains (any conceptual complex that functions as a domain for the definition of a higher-order concept), schemas, frames, scenarios (scripts).

Schema is any cognitive structure that specifies the general properties of a type of object or event and leaves out any specification of details that are irrelevant to the type. A schema is an abstraction that allows particular objects or events to be assigned to general categories.

The conceptual schema for apples specifies general information about fruit hood, shape, colour, and so on, but it leaves out many characteristics of individual apples. The schema abstracts away from the details in order to allow categorization. Some forms of schematization are absolutely essential to intelligent information processing.

A frame is a data-structure for representing our knowledge about an object, a stereotyped situation, like being in a certain kind of living room, or an event, like going to a child's birthday party. Attached to each frame are several kinds of information.

A frame is a collection of slots and fillers that describe a stereotypical item. A frame has slots to capture different aspects of what is being represented. The filler that goes into a slot can be an actual value, a default value, an attached procedure, or even another frame.

Exercises

Consider your answers to the following:

- 1) What do we mean when we say “lexicography”?
- 2) What do you know about the varieties of the vocabulary?
- 3) Which types of dictionaries can you name?
- 4) Speak about the structure of dictionaries.
- 5) Which problems of dictionary compiling do you know?
- 6) How many methods of linguistic analysis in word stock studies can you denominate?
- 7) Open the essence of the distributional method.
- 8) Speak about the transformational method.
- 9) Characterize the componential analysis.
- 10) The major common features and specific peculiarities of other methods of linguistic analysis.

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FOR NOTES