

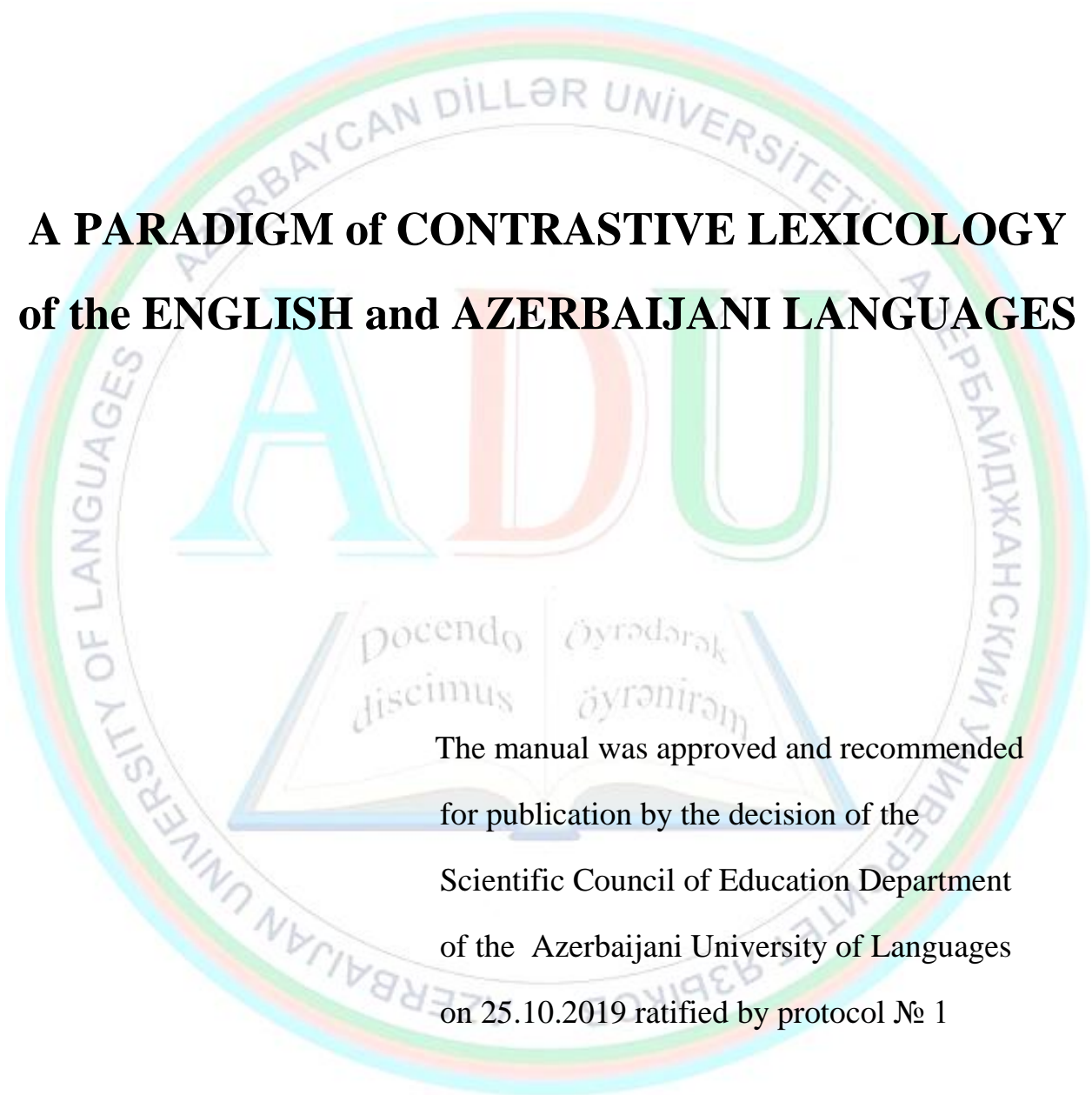
NIGAR VALIYEVA

**A PARADIGM of
CONTRASTIVE LEXICOLOGY
of the ENGLISH and AZERBAIJANI
LANGUAGES**



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A Resource Book for Masters of the Azerbaijan University of Languages

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A Paradigm of Contrastive Lexicology of the English and Azerbaijani Languages is very actual and useful for research as English is Global language together with the Azerbaijani language as it is our native and state language.

Contrastive Lexicology may equally treat dominant or common features only, as well as divergent features only, which are found in languages of the different structural types: synthetic and analytical, agglutinative and incorporative.

Contrastive Lexicology, as the notion itself reveals, represents a linguistic subject of Lexicology and Typology based on the method of comparison. Like typology proper Contrastive Lexicology is a new type studies aimed at establishing differences and similarities between languages in the course of their systematic description. It is concerned with the analysis of language vocabularies and lexical items in respect of their structural, semantic and functional features.

This book draws a parallel between the English and Azerbaijani vocabularies. The view considers both elements of their macro- and micro-structural representations. Different in their culture and history as the English and Azerbaijani are, their languages reveal numerous similarities in terms of word formations, foreignisms and word relationships. Each of these is described in several chapters. It is a book, which even if not specifically emphasized, celebrates 100-th anniversary of Diplomatic Service Agencies.

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P R E F A C E

Everything is relative.

Həyatda hər şey müqayisə ilə ölçülür.

Dear Students of the Azerbaijan University of Languages, presented to your attention “A Paradigm of Contrastive Lexicology of the English and Azerbaijani Languages” in former times was the Compulsory Subject, but nowadays it is selective subject and appropriately it is a Resource Book today.

The present-day research in Linguistics, reverting to the theoretical prerequisites of comparative and historical studies, suggests a new methodology for comparing languages, determining the priority of a contrastive approach towards the analysis of lexical items.

The purpose of the approach is to reveal and establish correspondences, i.e. similarities and differences, of those items within the lexico-semantic systems of related and non-related languages.

The contrastive analysis of lexico-semantic systems of non-related languages such as English and Azerbaijani is characterized by significance and topicality, as it contributes to profound understanding of each nation’s worldview, aiming to reveal similarities and differences in the ways the world of discourse is construed in their lexicons.

The textbook outlines the trends, goals and targets of Contrastive Linguistics, determines the principles, parameters and aspects of Contrastive Lexicology, provides with the methods for lexical contrastive analysis in English and Azerbaijani. It is intended for student philologists and translators, as well as for Contrastive and Typological Linguistics admirers.

The course of “A Paradigm of Contrastive Lexicology of the English and Azerbaijani Languages” is intended for student philologists and translators, and its objective is to:

- a) Acquaint with a newly-developed branch of linguistics – Contrastive Linguistics and its part Contrastive Lexicology;
- b) Provide with the basic notions of Contrastive Lexicology;
- c) Supply with the methods of contrastive analysis;
- d) Present the fundamental aspects of contrastive description of lexical items in English and Azerbaijani;
- e) Form the conception of similarities and differences, i.e. isomorphic and allomorphic features of lexico-semantic systems of the contrasted languages.

The aim, having been raised, provides for students’ mastering the complex of knowledge and skills. That will allow them to:

- 1) Study the trends, goals and targets of Contrastive Linguistics;
- 2) Master the principles, parameters and aspects of Contrastive Lexicology;
- 3) Acquire competency in the theoretical prerequisites of Contrastive Lexicology;
- 4) Make practical use of the gained knowledge at contrastive analysis of the English and Azerbaijani lexicons, revealing similarities and differences in the lexico-semantic systems of the contrasted languages.

The monograph is written for the modern foreign language teachers, linguists, students, masters, postgraduates, respondents, scientists and all people who is interested in foreign languages’ learning due to the intercultural communication while the process of globalization and its influence on the national language, culture and consciousness. It is also useful mean for the specialists of the

Lexicology, Grammar, Stylistics, Pragmatics, Comparative Typology of the non-cognate languages, Logic, Pedagogics, Psychology, Linqviculturology, Psycholinguistics, Sociolinguistics, Linqvodidactics.

Up to now the various comparative historic and comparative typological monographs were brought out. But we must point out the difference between typological, historic and comparative linguistics.

Historical Linguistics, is also called Diachronic Linguistics, is the study of language change. It has five main concerns:

- a) To describe and account for observed changes in particular languages;
- b) To reconstruct the pre-history of languages and determine their relatedness, grouping them into language families (comparative linguistics);
- c) To develop general theories about how and why language changes;
- d) To describe the history of speech communities;
- e) To study the history of words.

Typological Linguistics is a subfield of Linguistics that studies and classifies languages according to their structural features. Its aim is to describe and explain the structural diversity of the world's languages; a wide range of the directions of Linguistic typology; the peculiarities of the language universals; the phonological, lexical and syntactical typologies.

We distinguish between Comparative Linguistics and Contrastive Linguistics.

Comparative Linguistics compares and contrasts genetically-related languages diachronically, whereas **Contrastive Linguistics** compares and contrasts languages which are genetically or culturally related. Comparative Linguistics looks for commonalities and similarities. Contrastive Linguistics looks at divergence and differentiation.

It is necessary to mention that we need Contrastive Linguistics for Language Learning and Language Teaching as well as Translation. **Contrastive Linguistics** is a part of **Applied Linguistics**.

Both Comparative and Contrastive Linguistics compare and contrast languages, but the scope, goals, and methods of each are different. The goals of Comparative Linguistics and Contrastive Linguistics are different.

Comparative Linguistics makes a synchronic and diachronic comparison between two or more languages which are “genetically” similar. Comparative Linguistics is more concerned with comparing languages especially from a historical perspective.

Contrastive Linguistics contrasts the structures of two or more non-cognate languages in order to pick all the relevant differences. Contrastive Linguistics has pedagogical goals in the field of translation and second language acquisition. Contrastive Linguistics is then part of Applied Linguistics.

Language typology aims at mapping out the space and limits of variation between languages irrespective of their genetic affiliation. Even though the scope of this enterprise is in principle all-embracing, it is usually a representative sample of the world’s (7000 or so) languages that is taken as an empirical basis for a typological study.

Comparative Linguistics, originally **Comparative Philology**, is a branch of Linguistics that is concerned with comparing languages to establish their historical relatedness. Comparative Linguistics is that branch of one, which deals with the study of languages in terms of their history, relatedness, and families and constructs new forms.

It aims to construct Language Families, to reconstruct proto-languages and specify the changes that have resulted in the documented languages. To maintain a clear distinction between attested and reconstructed forms, comparative linguists prefix an asterisk to any form that is not found in surviving texts.

A number of methods for carrying out language classification have been developed, ranging from simple inspection to computerised hypothesis testing. Such methods have gone through a long process of development.

Lexicology is a branch of Linguistics. It studies various lexical units. Closely connected with the Historical Lexicology is Contrastive and Comparative Lexicology whose aims are to study the correlation between the vocabularies of two or more languages and find out the correspondences between the vocabulary's units of the languages under comparison.

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. Thus, the aim of the lectures is to lead the students to a deeper understanding of the Modern English and Azerbaijani lexical systems.

The list of bibliographical references will serve as a guide to those who would like to attain a more complete view of the topics discussed.

Summarizing all the above-said it is necessary to emphasize that the modern teaching of the Contrastive Lexicology of the English and Azerbaijani languages during intercultural communication in the globalist world is very actual today.

Presented to Your attention material is Lectures on the Contrastive Lexicology of the English and Azerbaijani which are non-cognate languages.

Course Description:

Classification of the main essential features of the non-kindred languages, the most important characteristics and regularities are the subject of Contrastive Lexicology. The final aims of Contrastive Lexicology are: to identify and classify accordingly the main isomorphic and allomorphic features characteristic of

languages under investigation; to draw from these common or divergent features respectively the isomorphic regularities and the allomorphic singularities in the languages contrasted; to establish on the basis of the obtained isomorphic features the typical language structures and the types of languages; to perform on the basis of the obtained practical data a truly scientific classification of the existing languages of the world; to establish on this basis the universal features - phenomena, which pertain to each single language of the world.

Course Outline:

The course consists of twenty three topics, which represent four distinct blocks of the morphological, syntactic and lexical systems.

Course Overview:

This syllabus provides a general outline proposal for creating courses for the II-year Masters to provide them with comprehensive knowledge of the Contrastive Lexicology of English and Azerbaijani languages.

Contrastive Lexicology of English and Azerbaijani languages is intended to help you think strategically about not only common and different features in the compared non-cognate languages, but also communication and aid you in improving your writing, presentation, and interpersonal communication skills. 45 hours total comprised of theoretical and practical applications.

Course Objectives:

Through significant lexicology that combines both formal and communicative approaches, we aim for students:

* To improve students' linguistic and communicative competence that relates to their knowledge of structural language units and their functioning in speech.

* To increase understanding of language resources and structures.

* To investigate the typology of the lexical systems in the non-related languages.

* To learn the word structure, word-derivation, the phenomena of conversion, correlation, reduplication, word formation, the etymology of the words in the non-cognate languages.

* To identify archaisms, neologisms, international words, euphemisms, taboos, synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, metaphors, idioms in the contexts.

* To investigate word-building, semantic changes, phraseology, borrowings, semasiology, neology, lexicography.

* To develop and integrate such linguistic skills as oral expression and written expression.

* To be able to edit one's own writing for generally accurate use of commas, semi-colons, apostrophes, etc.

* To come to class having done the assignments. Besides, they will demonstrate mastery of class material through a variety of exercises and quizzes.

Individual Works:

Students will acquire and use the knowledge and techniques necessary for the typological analysis of the languages, i.e. find and interpret language phenomena of different levels of the language structure, which carry some additional information of the emotive, logical or evaluative types, all serving to enrich, deepen, and clarify the language; likewise analyze the English and Azerbaijani

writers' individual style separately, i.e. selection, or deliberate choice of language, and the ways the chosen elements are treated, in the form of presentation.

Learning Outcomes:

By the end of the course the students should be able to:

- * know various approaches to typological investigations of the English and Azerbaijani languages as non-cognate;
- * discuss the concepts of various different typological approaches critically;
- * define the different typological classifications of the unrelated languages;
- * choose units of different levels of the language in accordance with appropriate linguistic contexts;
- * be philologically competent to apply linguistic, especially typological analysis to different levels of the language.

Instructional Methods:

Methods of instruction might include the following:

1. Drills and question-answer sessions.
2. Frequent quizzes and objective tests which help students to build skills and understanding in the areas of greatest need.

GENERAL NOTES on the CONTRASTIVE LEXICOLOGY of the ENGLISH and AZERBAIJANI LANGUAGES

The modern world is developing towards globalization. In this regard, the issues about the role and the place of intercultural communication become an integral part of life both the humankind in general, as well as for the individual. Intercultural communication between peoples is an integral attribute of the human society development. Not a single country, even the one considered most powerful in political and economic aspect, can meet cultural and aesthetic requests and needs of the humankind without applying to the world cultural heritage, spiritual heritage of other countries and peoples.

Contrastive Linguistics is a practice-oriented linguistic approach that seeks to describe the differences and similarities between a pair of languages, hence it is occasionally called **Differential Linguistics**.

The adjective “contrastive” means “showing the difference between two things when you compare them”. In language contrastive words show contrast between two parts of a sentence; words like “but” and “though” are examples.

As we know, English and Azerbaijani belong to different language families. It means that these languages genetically aren't related. With some other below mentioned, English is a Germanic one, it has three subgroups:

- 1) North Germanic or Scandinavian, here belong Spanish, Swedish, Norwegian;
- 2) West Germanic includes English spoken today in Great Britain and abroad, Netherlands, and Dutch.
- 3) East Germanic, which has left no trace.

Being a language of Altayic group, Azerbaijani forms Oghuz group. This group includes several sub-groups:

- 1) Oghuz – Turkman, includes mainly modern Turkman;

2) Oghuz - Bulgar, here belong Gagauz, Bulgarian, Turkish;

3) Oghuz – Saljuk, Azerbaijani, and Osmanli Azerbaijani is spoken by more than 40 million people in the world. Approximately 10 million people live and speak Azerbaijani. The rest of the population lives in Iran, Iraq, Russia, etc.

According to the morphological classification they belong to different system English being analytic, Azerbaijani is agglutinative one.

Suffice to compare some sentences to understand what those language systems mean. In “yazılmış” the suffix “-ıl” expressing voice, “-miş” tense, “-dır” signifies person. But in English the sentence is expressed by different relations of the words, no suffixes are used. Ideas they are expressed analytically.

In some cases to find agglutination in English and analetism in Azerbaijani is possible. For example: in Azerbaijani “Sabah çalış daha tez gəl” we can’t find a suffix between words. Even English word “earlier” is expressed by two words “daha tez”. In English we can find some retains of the synthetic elements in different grammatical categories. Compare: third person, singular, degrees of adjectives, etc.

Therefore, it’s imposiible say that English is purely analytic. While including English into analytic type, Azerbaijani into agglutinative we mean the former is richer in analitism than the later and vice-versa.

In English analytical forms are proper to words. To express some analytical forms in Azerbaijani we use agglutinative word-structure. Morphology deals with the parts of speech, their inflexions. Though grammarian being studied it for 2000 years, the criteria used aren’t yet agreed upon.

In the compared languages notional parts of speech are the same. In other word, they coincide. Functional parts of speech are the conjunction, the preposition, an article and the particle. In Azerbaijani they are the conjunction, the particle, modal words, and the postposition.

Some scholars consider modal words and interjections (some include words of affirmation and negation) to be free part of speech. Connective “-imizi, idi, isə, ikən” coincide with different parts of speech in English. For instance: “He was a

good man”. The difference between “idi” and “imiz” is that the forms express certainty, the later probability, such as: “This girl turned to be a teacher”.

The syntactic function of “idi” and “imiz” in Azerbaijani and “was” / “were” in most cases is the same in compared languages, link-verb – to a predicative. “İkən” being considered the connective and given center the title with “imizi, idi” coincide with English conjunction “while”. For example: “While we dined, the band was playing”.

“İsə” pining some interrogative pronouns like “kim, nə” and adverb “hara, haçan, necə” form in the first case – indefinite pronouns. In the second case, compound pronominal adverbs as “hara isə” – “somewhere”, “necəsə”- “somehow”.

The next problem is the functional parts of speech, the postposition. Postpositions which require a word in the Nominative case are equal to English prepositions. “İkə, üçün, haqqında” can be given as examples of the postpositions. In English the preposition is placed before the word with which it is connected. In Azerbaijani postpositions always stand after the word which they are connected. As Azerbaijani has a developed case system, postposition serves to make precise the meanings expressed by case inflexions.

One of the problems in English is the part of speech – the adlink. In Azerbaijani we don’t have it. Some grammarians, such as **M.Y.Blokh**, **L.A.Barmina**, don’t recognize adlink as separate parts of speech.

B.A.Ilyish, **B.S.Khaimovich** and **B.I.Rogovskaya** consider them to be a separate part of speech with prefix “a-”. English adlink coincides with Azerbaijani participle, such as: “the wounded is alive”. Besides this part of speech we can dwell on the words affirmation and negation in both languages.

Being an adapted system the vocabulary is constantly adjusting itself to this changing demands and conditions of human communication and cultural and other needs. We’ll give a presentation. This process of self-regulation of the lexical system is the result of overcoming contradictions between the state of the system and the demands it has to meet. The speaker chooses from the word-stock such

words that in his opinion can express his thought. The development isn't confined to coming new words on the existing patterns but in adapting the very structure of the system to its changing functions. The new meaning of word formation changes their states. This is manifest in the set of combined forms.

In the past there were only bound forms of borrowing from Latin and Greek mostly used to form technical terms. Some of them turn into free changing word. When some word becomes frequent element in compounds, the discrimination of compounds, the difference between affixes and semi-affixes is blind. On the morphological level words are divided into the groups, the number of morphemes which compose them. There are:

- 1) Root or morpheme words; their stem contains one free morpheme, such as: “dog, hand”;
- 2) Derivatives contain no less than two morphemes of which at least one is bound; for example: “handful”;
- 3) Compound words consist of not less than two free morphemes, the presence of bound morphemes is possible; for instance: “dog-cheap” (very cheap); “dog-days” (hottest part of the year); “hand-book”;
- 4) Compound derivatives consist of not less than two free morphemes and one bound morpheme referring to their whole combination; Pattern – Stem + Stem + Suffix, for example: “dog-breeding; left-handed”.

We can show the analysis on the word formation level showing not only the morphemic constituents of the word but also the structural pattern on which it's built. This may be carried out of term of proportional oppositions, for example:

“un-” + adjective (uncertain, uneasy); “n-” + “ly” (manly, womanly); “r-” (masterly, mannerly); adjective + man (gentleman, barman, bondsman, churchman, penman).

We can arrive at a conclusion that in Contrastive Lexicology the analysis of words may be grouped not according to their root-morphemes, but to affixes as well. The next step is classifying words not in isolation, but taking them within actual utterances.

Here, the first contrast to consider is the contrast between notional words and form or functional words. Actually, the definition of the word as a minimum free holds good for notional words only. It's only notional words that can stand alone and yet have meaning and form a complete utterance. They can make a different object of reality and actions or the process in which they take part.

In sentences they function syntactically as some primary or secondary member. Even extended sentences are possible which consist of notional words; they can also express the attitude of speaker towards reality.

The form words are lexical units which are called words, although they don't conform to the definition of the words because they are used in combination with notional words. This group comprises auxiliary verbs, prepositions, conjunctions and relative adverbs in English.

Primarily, they express grammatical relationship between words; these don't imply that they have no lexical meaning of their own. The border-line is not very clear and doesn't correspond to that various parts of speech. Thus, most verbs are notional, but auxiliary verbs are formed words. Whether link verbs should be treated as form-words?

Personal, demonstrative and interrogative pronouns testify are notional words. Reflexive pronouns seem to be form words, building up such analytical verb-forms as "I want myself," but this is open to discussion as to prop-word (determiners - one, those) some think that they are separate third group.

It is typical of the English language the boundary between notional and functional words lies within the semantic structure of one and the same word so that they appear.

As notional words and form words are in both languages the systematic use of form words is one of the main device of English and Azerbaijani languages structures surprised in importance only by fixed word-order. Form words are studied in Contrastive Lexicology which concentrate their attention upon notional words.

The classes suggested by *Charles Fries* are based on distribution. In other words, they are syntactic position. The bulk of word utterances constitutes by classes. Except numbers to give no names: 1) “water; sugar; ink”; 2) “felt; arranged; sees”; 3) “general; good; better; young”; 4) “their; here; now; first”.

The percentage of total vocabulary in four classes is over 93 per cent, but the remaining 7 per cent are constituted by 154 form-words. This though few in number, occur very frequently. Observing the semantic structure of words of this group we find a deal of semantic likeness not only in denotative meaning, but also in the ways meanings are combined.

In the Contrastive Lexicology word-building means a new way of forming words. One of the useful way is the type Noun-Verb (work - to work; dream - to dream).

There are some other productive ways of forming new words in English (Adjective - Noun, round – dairəvi, round - yumru); Verb - Noun (to try – a try). However, in Azerbaijani one can find out the following types: Verb - Noun (gəzmək-gəzinti); Noun - Verb (çağırış-çağırmaq); Adjective - Noun (soyunma-otağı).

Besides, those ways of forming new words, there are non-productive ways in both languages.

Chapter I. Fundamentals of Contrastive Lexicology Research.

- 1. Contrastive Linguistics: A General Outline.**
- 2. Contrastive Lexicology as a Cross-Linguistic Discipline.**
- 3. Aspects of Contrastive Lexicology.**
- 4. Units of Contrastive Lexicology.**
- 5. Parameters for Contrastive Analysis.**
- 6. Word as a Primary Unit of Contrastive Analysis.**
- 7. Correspondences of Words in English and Azerbaijani.**
- 8. Methods in Contrastive Lexicology.**

1. Contrastive Linguistics: A General Outline.

A General Outline Go to, let us go down, and there confound their language, that they may not understand one another's speech (Genesis 11: 7) The implication of this famous verse from Holy Scripture is that languages are likely to have been compared just after Babel, though this fact having rather a figurative background than bidding for a scientific explanation.

Having their feet on the ground, contemporary researchers acknowledge the linguistic conditionality of contrastive description of languages, considering Panini's grammar to have already had some elements of comparison between Sanskrit and the colloquial Prakrit languages.

It should be borne in mind that the idea of comparison of languages was regarded to be alien to most linguistic traditions. Such an approach goes back to extreme antiquity, when every culture believed their language to be unique, of full

value and superior to other languages. On this basis, the ascertainment of isomorphic features of various languages was very often or even totally ignored, with some of the differences having been distinguished only in the linguistic realm inside a particular ethnic group.

The ancient Greeks, for example, ignoring barbarian languages, drew much attention to numerous differences within their own language, trying to draw the line of demarcation between its various dialects. Only in the late ancient period was observed an attempt to systematically compare languages such as Greek and Latin.

In medieval Spain there even emerged Contrastive Grammar of Hebrew and Spanish. The tendency for comparison continued with European grammars of the Renaissance period, the first grammars of modern languages that were written as if being compared to those of Greek and Latin. However, such findings were rare and one-sided, considering the comparison of two or more languages in the light of a native language, which was believed to be the only human or even divine one. Changes to such an approach started to be observed only in the transition from the Middle Ages to the New Time – the latter being considered the period of Comparative, in a broad sense, Linguistics forming and developing.

According to the aim and object of investigation there are three branches of Linguistics that deal with comparison:

1) Comparative-Historical Linguistics the aim of which is to study phylogenic relations of languages in their development.

2) Areal Linguistics that focuses on a secondary affinity of languages, linguistic unions, relationship of linguistic phenomena, irrespective of the degree of their phylogenic relations.

3) Contrastive Linguistics and Typological Linguistics or Linguistic Typology that try to establish similarities and differences between languages,

irrespective of the degree of their phylogenic relations. It should be borne in mind that the difference between Contrastive and Typological Linguistics wholly depends on the targets each of the disciplines aims at.

The main task of Linguistic Typology is to determine the linguistic similarity, or typical phenomena that can be observed mainly in the related languages, whereas Contrastive Linguistics aims to determine and explain linguistic contrasts, or rather different features against available similarities.

Generally speaking, Linguistic Typology takes as basis for comparison the discrete components of a language system (phonemes, morphemes, words, etc.), and studies them in a large number of languages, whilst Contrastive Linguistics compares, as a rule, two languages by all components.

In its turn, Lexicology is the part of Linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of the language. The term “lexicology” is derived from Greek words “lexis”, which means “word, phrase”, and “logos”, which means “teaching, learning”. Thus, “Lexicology” is “the science of words”. It learns vocabulary in the process of history of a language. Both English and Azerbaijani languages study words. All lexical and phraseological units are included in the vocabulary of the language.

Its aim is to study all words and their equivalents that the language possesses as a system. The aim of lexicology is to identify the essence of words.

The words as “yazı, dava, var” were used as homonyms and synonyms to their origins in Azerbaijani. For example: “var-get, mövcud; yazı-çöl, yazılan – yazılmaq; dava-dərman, dalaşmaq, dalaşma”, etc.

The vocabulary of the Azerbaijani language also replenished its vocabulary with new words. If we analyse the vocabulary of the Azerbaijani language we shall see that the word “gümrah” was used in the Persian language in the following meanings: - azgın, yolunu azmış (azan), dindən dönən, etc. But now this word is used in Azerbaijani in the meaning of “sağlam – healthy”. For example: “Bağçada

uşaqlar şən və gümrah böyüyürdülər”.

There are two kinds of lexicology: general and special lexicology. The general study of words and vocabulary irrespective of the specific features of any particular language is known as **General Lexicology**.

Special Lexicology devotes its attention to the description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language. Every special lexicology is based on the principles of general lexicology, and the later forms a part of general linguistics.

According to the theoretical basis of the vocabularies of different languages there are three types of them: contrastive, historical and descriptive lexicology. If the vocabularies of different languages are compared, this branch of study is called contrastive lexicology.

The evolution of any vocabulary, as well as of its single elements forms the object of **Historical Lexicology** or **Etymology**.

Descriptive Lexicology deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a period of time. It studies the functions of words and their specific structure as a characteristic inherent existing a a natural and permanent part in the system.

Historical and Descriptive Lexicology are connected with each other closely, because it is impossible not to know the lexical system of a language, the evolution and history of vocabulary, because historical lexicology involves the development of words not only of one period, but some periods.

The object of our study will be the vocabulary of Modern English and Azerbaijani, but sometimes it will be necessary to go into the history of the English language and the English people, because without it some phenomenon concerning the language cannot be understood.

Modern English Lexicology investigates the problems of word-structure and

word-formation in Modern English, the semantic structure of English words, the main principles of the classification of vocabulary units into various groupings, the laws governing the replenishment of the vocabulary.

Lexicology also deals with Lexicography, that is the art of compiling dictionaries. The investigator who studies the problems of Lexicology is called a lexicologist.

In that way, Contrastive Linguistics compares language systems at all levels, irrespective of the phylogenic and typological relationships that occur between the systems, aiming to establish structural and functional characteristics of languages that are compared in the light of their sameness and difference.

Contrastive Linguistics as a subject of scientific research dates back to the 60-s of the XX-th century. Its emergence is connected with the publication of the book “Linguistics Across Cultures” (1957) by R.Lado, though the fundamentals of Contrastive Linguistics at a synchronous level are supposed to have been laid by W.von Humboldt.

Some researches within Contrastive Linguistics studies have been carried out by Ch.Bally, E.Sapir and B.Whorf, as well as by the representatives of the Prague School – V.Mathesius, J.Vachek and V.Skalička.

In the Soviet linguistic tradition under the title of Comparison of Languages and Contrastive Grammar the investigations on the problems of Contrastive Linguistics were pursued by L.V.Shcherba, Ye.D.Polivanov, A.I.Smirnitskiy, V.N.Yartseva, V.D.Arakin, V.G.Gak and others.

In Azerbaijan the problems of General Linguistics were tackled by Aghamusa Akhundov, Afad Qurbanov, Abdulazal Damirchizada, Salim Jafarov, Yusif Seyidov and others, but the problems of Contrastive Lexicology of the English, Russian and Azerbaijani were researched by Nigar Valiyeva.

In the last decade, there has been outlined convergence and overlap of Contrastive Linguistics problems with researches conducted within a Cognitive Linguistics approach: A.Wierzbicka, C.Goddard, R.Langacker, G.Lakoff, R.Jackendoff, L.Talmy, G.Fauconnier and others.

The ultimate goal of such researches is to reveal the conceptual entities that represent the national worldview, the specificities of ethnic mentality, and the characteristics of cognitive abilities which belong to different linguistic communities.

As a branch of General Linguistics, Contrastive Linguistics intends to reveal the features of language bringing it into correlation with other languages. The specificity of this correlation is based on the comparison principle, the essence of which is to lay open the “inner” nature of languages that are compared, without establishing the priority of one language over the other.

The object of Contrastive Linguistics investigations is a parallel comparison of two or more linguistic systems at a synchronous level. The main maxim of comparison is keeping to denotative equivalence of linguistic items. The equivalence, being established on the basis of bilingual dictionaries, serves the foundation for establishing correspondence of linguistic items in the contrasted languages. The correspondence is viewed as a relation that reveals the degree of coincidence of linguistic items in the contrasted languages.

The general tasks of Contrastive Linguistics that to some extent determine the subject of its research may be defined as follows:

a) To establish similarities and differences (contrasts) in using language means by the contrasted languages;

b) To reveal the “inner” features (characteristics) of each language that is compared;

c) To supply Linguistic Typology with the material for universal linguistic features to be found;

d) To connect contrastive studies with various branches of Applied Linguistics and Theory of Translation.

The tasks above provide for **five trends of Contrastive Linguistics**, which according to Yu.O.Zhluktenko, determine various approaches to the object of investigation.

There are the following trends:

1) Characterological – initiated in the works by I.O.Baudouin de Courtenay and the linguists of the Prague School, the so-called “analytical comparison of languages”. The target of these investigations is to reveal the systemic features of language by comparing it with other synchronous linguistic systems and on this basis to provide it with a detailed linguistic description.

2) Typological – aims at revealing in the contrasted languages isomorphic (common) features that are essential for establishing a language type.

3) Translational – establishes functional correspondence and the degree of linguistic items’ equivalence and congruence in the contrasted languages. The specificity of this approach consists in reducing the comparison to only two languages, the analysis of which is unidirectional – from source to target language.

4) Didactic (Pedagogical) – lays foundation for methods of teaching a foreign language, and reveals correspondences in native and foreign languages. It provides with elaborating an effective strategy for teaching a foreign language and working out preventive measures to avoid L1 interference with L2 learning.

5) Bilingual – investigates the mutual relationships of languages in linguistic contacts and bilingualism.

In that way, the general target of Contrastive Linguistics is to establish the most essential convergences and divergences (contrasts) in language as a whole and at its discrete levels, their classification, systematization and, as the result, the elaboration of optimal recommendations as to the practical mastering of language: typological investigations, rendering from source into target language, language teaching, etc.

Language as a system traditionally includes the following main levels: phonological, morphological, lexico-semantic and syntactical. The contrastive analysis of languages at those levels is accomplished based on two independent approaches:

1) **Microlinguistic contrastive analysis**, aiming to proceed with investigations at the levels of phonology, grammar and lexicon.

2) **Macrolinguistic contrastive analysis**, intending to carry out a complex study at the level of text. In a broader sense, contrastive studies are associated not only with the structural (level) categories of contrastivity, but also with the semantic and functional categories, which correlate with the semasiological and onomasiological aspects, the latter being chiefly considered within the discipline of Contrastive Lexicology.

2. Contrastive Lexicology as a Cross-Linguistic Discipline.

Contrastive Lexicology is a new branch of Contrastive Linguistics that aims to perform a contrastive description of lexico-semantic systems of languages that are compared. A complete contrastive analysis includes the comparison at all levels of the lexico-semantic system: the level of meanings, designations, lexico-semantic groups, lexico-semantic fields, etc.

The analysis is considered to be based on a “taxonomy” principle, i.e. the principle that takes into account the relations occurring between lexical units of the

contrasted languages: paradigmatic relations between words and groups of words based on the similarities and differences of their meanings; syntagmatic relations (linear, contextual relations of words); epidigmatic relations within a word, or between its formal characteristics.

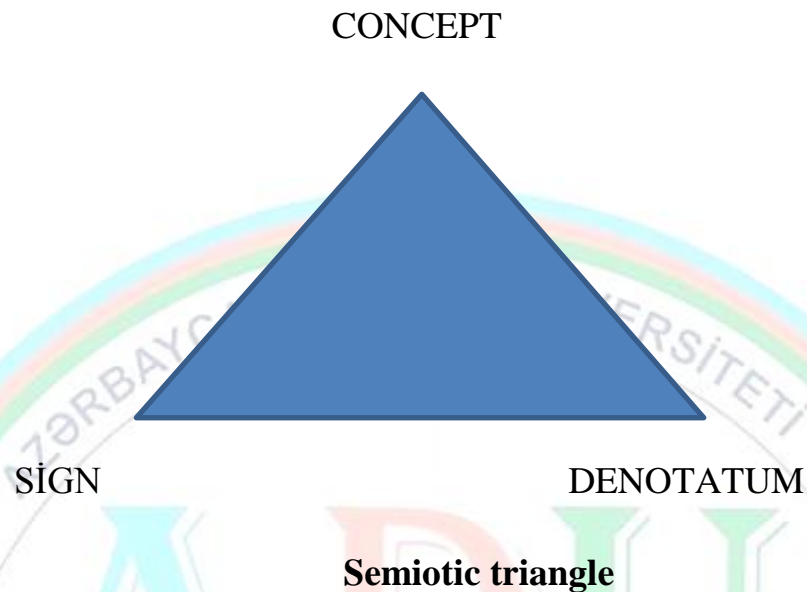
Taking into consideration the relations contrastive analysis is based on, the following stages might be singled out:

- a) Ways of designation in the contrasted languages (words' inner forms and onomasiological structures);
- b) Characteristics of semantic structures of words in the contrasted languages (denotative and significative meanings);
- c) Stylistic and associative features of words in the contrasted languages (expressive, evaluative, conceptual, etc. connotations);
- d) Intrafield (synonymic, antonymic, hyponymic, etc.) relations of words in the contrasted languages;
- e) Interfield relations (semantic shifts) of words in the contrasted languages;
- f) Linear, contextual relations of words in the contrasted languages (distribution, context, valence). In that way, the ultimate target of contrastive analysis of lexicosemantic systems reduces to establishing similar and different features in vocabulary and semantics of the contrasted languages.

Contrastive Lexicology is based on the existent linguistic aspects of modern lexicology, the essence of which results in establishing certain relations between a certain object of the outer world, its concept and symbol.

The nature of these relations is traditionally represented in C.K.Ogden and I.A. Richards' "semiotic triangle", whose summits stand for denotatum or referent (i.e. an object referred to by a sign), concept or designate (i.e. an abstract or

generic idea of a denotatum or class of denotata), and sign or symbol (i.e. a fundamental linguistic item that represents a denoted object):



Depending on the element (of the triangle), being brought to a focus of contrastive analysis, the following aspects of Contrastive Lexicology are singled out: onomasiological, semasiological, epidigmatic, paradigmatic and syntagmatic.

3. Aspects of Contrastive Lexicology.

The onomasiological aspect aims at establishing formal and structural similarities and differences of lexical units in the contrasted languages. The procedure of such a comparison provides for sorting out words that denote the same object in the contrasted languages.

The ultimate purpose of the study is to establish congruence of words from the viewpoint of their performing a designative function. It should be borne in mind that congruence of lexical items provides for establishing the degree of their coincidence by designates.

For example, the word “table” in English is “masa, stol” in Azerbaijani, denoting the same object, represent different designates, i.e. they differ in their

inner-form, compare: table “board, slab, plate” from Old French table “board, square panel, plank”, from Latin tabula “a board, plank; writing table; list, schedule; picture, painted panel” originally “small flat slab or piece” usually for inscriptions or for games vs. from IE st(h)ā- “to lay”.

The semasiological aspect aims at establishing similarities and differences in the semantics of the contrasted words. It provides for the equivalence at the level of words contents, i.e. their denotative and significative meanings, stylistic functions, connotations, etc. For example, the word “table” – “masa, stol” is equivalent in the meanings:

1. “A piece of furniture consisting of a smooth flat slab of wood”, etc. supported by legs or a pedestal, and is used to sit at for meal, for working, for playing games” etc.;
2. “The food served at a meal”, however, the English equivalent reveals a broader extension of its semantic structure, as it includes into its scope entities from other conceptual fields:
 - a) Geological: a tableland;
 - b) Architectural: a stringcourse;
 - c) Anatomic: the internal or external layer of the bony tissue of the skull;
 - d) An orderly arrangement of facts set out for easy reference (a table of contents);
 - e) An arrangement of numerical values etc. in vertical columns (logarithmic tables)”.

In that way, the semasiological approach towards comparison shows the equivalence asymmetry of the words “table” and “masa, stol”, that being provided for the inconsistencies in their semantic structures.

The epidigmatic aspect aims at establishing similarities and differences at the level of inner structures of words (intra-word relations) in the contrasted languages.

The contrastive analysis within the epidigmatic approach aims to ascertain correspondences in relations that determine the semantic structure of a polysemous word, i.e. semantic shifts that occur between the lexico-semantic variants of the contrasted words.

The epidigmatic aspect is considered in terms of semantic derivation – phenomenon that represents “variation of meaning of a given word is it synchronic or diachronic, i.e., the relation between two different meanings of a polysemous word or the relation between two meanings of a word in the course of semantic evolution” (Zalizniak, 2008: 217).

For example, in the English word “mouth” –

- 1) “The opening through which food passes” the meanings are related both metaphorically;
- 2) The place where a river enters a sea, lake;
- 3) The opening of a cave, volcano, harbour;
- 4) The opening of a container, and metonymically;
- 5) “An individual requiring food”, whilst counterpart’s meanings imply only metonymic relations.

The paradigmatic aspect reveals similarities and differences within different kinds of verbal microsystems, i.e. thematic or lexicosemantic groups, lexico-semantic categories (synonyms, antonyms, and hyponyms), word-building paradigms, etc.

For example, in English and Azerbaijani the micro-field with the archeseme of “highland” – “dağlıq” includes such words as: “mountain” – “dağ”, “hill” –

“təpə”, “hillock” – “dik təpə”, “cliff” – “sıldırım qaya”, “plateau” – “yayla, yaylaqlıq”, “precipice” – “uçurum”, “promontory” – “dağlıq burun”, “range” – “uzaqlıq”, “tableland” – “yayla” and others.

In the contrasted languages those words form a hierarchical cluster with a distinct core and periphery delimited to minor subgroups.

Within those subgroups words are related to each other and one another: synonymically: “plateau” – “a large flat area of land that is high above sea level” and “tableland”, “a plateau” – “yayla, yaylaqlıq”; antonymically in English: “promontary” – “a narrow area of high land that sticks out into the sea” and “tableland” – “a broad level area of land elevated on all sides”, whereas in Azerbaijani the two words belong to different lexico-semantic fields: “yayla” belongs to the semantic field of highland, whereas the word “yaylaqlıq” is the element of the lexico-semantic field of land, rather manifesting hyponymic relations; metonymically (“the part for the whole” relations) in both languages: “cliff” – “a high area of rock with a very steep side” and “precipice” – “a very steep side of a cliff”, “sıldırım qaya” and “uçurumdan qaya”, though the word “qaya” has a broader extension.

The syntagmatic aspect aims at establishing similarities and differences in the words’ collocations, i.e. relations words reveal within a certain speech segment – word-combination or sentence. For example, the English word “long” is equivalent to the Azerbaijani word “uzun”, however, when collocating with the word “face” in “long face”, it conforms to a different word in Azerbaijani, like: “uzunsov sifət”.

The syntagmatic approach studies different types of contexts (lexical, grammatical, extra-linguistic), contextual associations, semantic and syntactic valences in the contrasted languages.

The aspects described above do not exhaust all varieties of contrastive description of vocabulary. Of a paramount importance are also contrastive

investigations of cross-linguistic correspondences between derived and compound words, phraseological units, sayings and proverbs and many others.

4. Units of Contrastive Lexicology.

The key notion of Contrastive Lexicology in general is a notion of language contrast (V.P.Neroznak) or category of contrastivity (V.G.Gak). Language contrast is a specific feature of the structure of language A in comparison to the one of language B.

In other words, the same phenomenon may be represented as a specifically contrastive category at comparing one language with the other, however, when being confronted with another language (a third one) the source language may lose its contrastivity. For example, the English word “coup d’etat” reveals contrastive features within the lexico-semantic systems of English and Azerbaijani; however, it loses its contrastivity at comparing English and French, the language from which the word was borrowed.

In that way, language contrast is considered as a linguistic variable that changes, depending on a linguistic pair chosen for the analysis. The choice of the pair grounds in selecting proper lexical items for a reliable comparison.

The units of Contrastive Lexicology are determined by the aspect of comparison, namely by the parameters, those aspects are based on. In that way, within the onomasiological aspect there might be such items as inner-form and onomasiological structure (for derivatives and compounds), both representing the ways the objects of the reality are designated in the contrasted languages; within the semasiological approach it could be seme or sememe (or lexico-semantic variant), which being correlative with a concept, reveal the characteristics of words’ semantic structures; the epigrammatic approach might reveal associative and derivational relations of meanings, which constituting the inner structure of

polysemous words in the contrasted languages, represent a hierarchy of lexico-semantic variants and a degree of their dependence; within the paradigmatic approach there might be semantic (conceptual) fields, thematic, or lexico-semantic groups that reveal similarities and differences between the lexico-semantic microsystems of the contrasted languages; within the syntagmatic aspect it could be collocability that provides for establishing correspondences based on words' distributions, contexts and valences.

5. Parameters for Contrastive Analysis.

The parameters for contrastive description of lexicons are values that provide for establishing correspondences between lexico-semantic systems of the contrasted languages. There might be:

- a) Languages;
- b) Spelling of the word;
- c) Accent in the word;
- d) Parts of speech;
- e) Wordbuilding means;
- f) Grammatical gender and many other parameters.

However, not all those features might be necessary for contrastive analysis. The characteristics relevant for Contrastive Lexicology research are grouped within the mentioned above five aspects.

Hence, we might differentiate between the onomasiological, semasiological, paradigmatic, syntagmatic and epidigmatic parameters.

1. The onomasiological parameters:

a) Contrasts in the designation: – source of designation (native / borrowed words); motivation (phonetical / morphological / semantic); word-building type (affixation / compounding / conversion, etc.);

b) Contrasts in the inner-form;

c) Contrasts in the onomasiological structure (total congruence / partial congruence / total incongruence / incongruence).

2. The semasiological parameters:

a) Contrasts in the cognitive meaning (extension / contension);

b) Contrasts in the pragmatic meaning (emotive / evaluative / expressive / stylistic components);

c) Contrasts in the semantic marks (semes);

d) Contrasts in the semantic equivalence (coincidence / inclusion / overlap / exclusion);

3. The epidigmatic parameters:

a) Contrasts in the words' semantic shifts (direct / transferred meanings);

b) Contrasts in the hierarchy of lexico-semantic variants of polysemous words;

c) Contrasts in the type of semantic change (metaphor / metonymy);

d) Contrasts in the type of polysemy (concatenation / radiation / mixed);

e) Contrasts in the semantic developments of a denotatum (generalization / specialization) and connotation (elevation / degradation);

f) Contrasts in the type of homonymy (absolute / etymological / wordbuilding / semantic);

g) Contrasts in the type of paronyms (synonymic / antonymic / semantically close / thematic).

4. The paradigmatic parameters:

a) Contrasts in discrete microsystems (lexico-semantic field / lexicosemantic group / thematic group);

b) Contrasts in fundamental paradigmatic relations: – hyponymy (taxonomic depth); – synonymy (synonymic connotations / synonymic groups); – antonymy (semantic / derivational).

5. The syntagmatic parameters:

a) Contrasts in the collocability (distribution / context / valency);

b) Contrasts at the level of phraseological units (phraseological equivalents / phraseological analogues / phraseological non-equivalents).

6. Word as a Primary Unit of Contrastive Analysis.

The element intrinsic to all linguistic levels according to its symbolic status is a word. Consisting of phonemes and morphemes, a word is also a constituent of word-combinations, sentences and texts.

The central role of a word considers the lexico-semantic level to be of paramount importance for contrastive analysis. A word may be defined as a sign that represents the interrelations of denotatum, concept and symbol in language (system) and speech (communication).

A word is a versatile and multidimensional unit. There intersect, forming the whole, however, not coinciding with each other and one another phonological, grammatical and semantic features in it. Those features not only determine the

criteria, underlying word identification, but also pretend to be basic characteristics for contrastive analysis of the English and Azerbaijani lexicons.

It should be pointed out that the contrasted words, even being characterized by the same criteria, might possess different features, constituting the category of contrastivity of languages that are compared.

In this way, the phonological criterion manifests itself in the accentuation differences, the accent being a feature that stands for the category of contrastivity. English and Azerbaijani words, though being identical in form may reveal contrasts in meaning because of the wordstress: “tibbi” – “medical, doctor’s” and “dərman” – “medicinal (herb, plant)”; “present” – “hədiyyə, töhfə, sovqat, bəxşiş, ərməğan” and “pre`sent” – “təqdim”.

The feature that determines the morphological criterion of a word in the contrasted languages is its formal unity. From this viewpoint, the category of contrastivity manifests itself in the word’s orthography.

It should be borne, however, in mind that a Azerbaijani word is characterized by a lexico-grammatical reference, unlike the English word, where, with its scarce morphology, the lexico-grammatical reference is considered a secondary feature, like: “red-eye” - “qırmızı göz” and “red eye” - “acı pomidor sousu”; “grey-bearded” - “having a grey beard” and “greybeard” - “gil qab, küpə” and “yaşlı, təcrübəli insan” – “a wise, much experienced man” - “greybeard”.

However, in English, unlike the Azerbaijani language, the orthographic form of a word very often is not a relevant feature, like: “looking-glass”, “lookingglass” and “looking glass”, though having different orthography, the three words possess the identical meaning “mirror”.

The Azerbaijani language, in this case, is characterized by a fixed spelling of compounds. Another manifestation of the category of contrastivity within the morphological criterion is observed at the level of the grammatical context. Being

defined as a minimal stretch of speech, the grammatical context determines the individual meanings of the contrasted words according to a certain grammatical structure (distributional pattern).

For example, the English word *stop*, depending on the grammatical structure of the context (it may be followed either by the gerund or the infinitive), reveals different meanings, and therefore correlates with different Azerbaijani words, either “*dayandırmaq*” (stop doing smth.) or “*durmaq*” (stop to do smth.).

The semantic criterion takes into account a word’s two-facedness (the expression “*plane*” and the content “*plane*”), the latter standing for the word’s onomasiological and semasiological criteria.

Within the onomasiological criterion, it is the inner-form of a word that counts as the category of contrastivity. Being “the image of a name”, the inner-form represents the way the reality object is designated in the contrasted languages, like: “*ana*” and “*analıq*”, literary “*mother*” and “*stepmother*”, “*çoxillik bitki, yarpaqları yumşaq və tüklü*” (hence the co-association with a mother), “*üstən yaşıl, toxunanda soyuq*” (hence the co-association with a stepmother)” – “*coltsfoot*” – literary “*мать-и-мачеха, камчужная трава*” - “*dəvədabanı*” – “a common weed in waste or clayey ground, with large spreading cordate leaves downy beneath, and yellow flowers appearing in early spring before the leaves”.

The semantic components (sememes and semes) constitute the category of contrastivity within the semasiological criterion. A sememe as an elementary unit of word meaning manifests itself at the communicational level, and corresponds to a lexico-semantic variant in speech, for example: in the Azerbaijani word-combination “*blue-red-green flag*”, the word “*blue-red-green*” may foreground either of the two meanings: 1) “*mavi, qırmızı və yaşıl rəngləri birləşdirir*”; 2) “*Azərbaycan xalqının milli, dövlət simvoludur*” independently, whereas its English counterpart “*blue-red-green*” (flag) foregrounds the transferred meaning only within the reference to the Azerbaijanian nation.

For example: “The blue-red-green republican flag of Azerbaijan was raised over the Government House building in place of the Azerbaijanian Soviet flag, to the delight of demonstrators outside”.

The category of contrastivity of the above-mentioned equivalents also manifests itself at the level of a seme. Being the smallest, ultimate unit of the meaning, and the simplest constituent of a sememe, the seme is a feature that differentiates between words’ meanings. In that way, the potential seme “symbolic (of a colour)” changes for the differential seme “pertaining to the Azerbaijanian state, or nation”.

Thus, **word-building** or word-formation is the process the coining of new words out of the morphemes and stems. There are various types and ways of building words. The English language used to mention morphological (or word-derivation), syntactic and lexico-semantic (or word-composition) types of word-building.

Word-Derivation: Affixation. It is generally defined as the formation of words by adding derivational affixes to different types of basis. Affixation is the development of the vocabulary. They have different sources of origin. Some of them are native “-hood, -ly, -less, -some”, some are Greek “anti-, ex-, un-”, some are Latin “sub-, dis-, com-, inter-”, some are French “-ment, -ance, -age”, etc. Many affixes were once separate words, such as: “-dom” in the meaning of “sentence, judgement”, “-hood” in the meaning of “state, condition”, “-ship” in the meaning of “shape”, etc.

The most ancient affixes were derived from Old English. They are of Germanic origin. Affixes which are added to the end of the words are mostly native Azerbaijani suffixes and the suffixes which have been borrowed from the foreign languages.

As a rule, affixation is subdivided into suffixation, prefixation and infixation. We should distinguish productive suffixes, suffixes of narrow usage, non-productive

and dead suffixes.

Suffixation. Productive suffixes and suffixes of narrow usage are used at the given stage of the development of the language and can be used when occasion demands. Distinction is usually made between **dead** and **living** suffixes. Dead suffixes are described as those which are no longer left in Modern English as the component parts of words: “-d” = dead, seed; “-le” = bundle; “-l” = sail; “-el” = havel; “-ock” = hillock; “-t” = flight; “-ie” = birdie, etc.

Living suffixes may be easily singled out from a word: “-ness, -hood, age”, etc. Some suffixes usually transfer a word into a different semantic group. For example: concrete noun becomes an abstract one, as: “child – childhood, friend – friendship”, etc.

Chains of suffixes are called as compound suffixes: “-ably” = “-able” + “-ly”, like in the words “profitably, unreasonably”; “-ically” + “-ic” + “-al” + “-ly”, like in the words “musically, critically”; “-ation” = “-ate” = “-tion”, like in the words “formation, information”.

There are suffixes in Azerbaijani: “-ıçılıq” = “-ıçı” + “-lıq”, “-ıçılıq” = “-ıçı” + “-lıq”, like in the words “sağıcılıq, güzərançılıq, yazıçılıq”, etc.

Classification of Suffixes. There are different classifications of suffixes in linguistic literature. The first principle of the classification is the part of speech formed: noun-forming suffixes; adjective -forming suffixes; verb-forming suffixes; adverb-forming suffixes; numeral-forming suffixes.

Prefixation. There are 51 prefixes in the Modern English word-building. The greatest number are verbs 42 per cent, adjectives comprise 33,5 per cent, nouns make up 22 per cent. As a rule prefixes do not change the part of speech of the word to which they are added. They modify the lexical meaning of the stem. Therefore both the simple word and its prefixed derivative mostly belong to the same part of speech. But there are two prefixes in English which change the part of

speech of words to which they are added. For instance: “en-” = large – enlarge, rich – enrich; “be-” = little – belittle.

There are two types of prefixes: a) those correlated with independent word: “un-, dis-, re-, pre-”, etc.; b) those correlated with functional word: prepositions and prepositions like adverbs: “out-, over-, up-, under-”, etc.

The second type of prefixes are qualified as semibound morphemes. They occur in speech both as independent words and as derivational affixes, for example: to look up (independent) – upstairs (semibound morpheme); over the table (independent) – overshoe (semibound).

The absence of forms characterizing the parts of speech make it possible to form one part of speech from another where the form of the word itself is a wordbuilding element. This way of forming new words is called **conversion**.

It is variously called **conversion, zero derivation, root formation or functional change**. The essence of the phenomenon may be illustrated by the following example: “His voice silenced everyine else”. The word “silence” exists in the English language as a noun, and a verb may be formed from the same stem without adding any suffix or prefix or without changing the stem in any other way, so that both basic forms are homonymous.

In English:

eye – to eye

water – to water

empty – to empty

clean – to clean

In Azerbaijani:

ov – ovlamaq

su – sulamaq

boş – boşaltmaq

təmiz – təmizləmək

In Azerbaijani each word has a special form to indicate its part of speech. But there are some cases which are exceptions to this rule. For example: “Yaxşı tələbə yaxşı oxuyar”. Here the first word *yaxşı* is an adjective, but the second word

“yaxşı” is an adverb.

In Azerbaijani such kind of word building is called as **substantivləşmə, verballaşma, adyektivləşmə, adverbiallaşma** and so on. For example: “Oxuyan bülbüldür, dinləyən qazdır, Qırmızı yaxşı rəngdir”.

Compound Words or Word-Composition is the process of forming a new word by combining two or more words is known as word composition which occurs in the language as free forms.

A compound word forms a single idea, but the merging of two parts is not always complete and it is not always possible to differ compound words from syntactical groups, for example: a strong-box = a compound word in the meaning of “seyf”; a strong box = syntactical group in the meaning of “möhkəm qutu”.

Compound Words and Free Phrases are two important peculiarities distinguishing compounds in English from free phrases. Firstly, both of the English and Azerbaijani compounds are free forms, i.e. they can be used as independent words with a distinct meaning of their own. As the English and Azerbaijani compounds consist of free forms, it is difficult to distinguish them from phrases.

Separating compounds from phrases and also from derivatives is no easy task. For instance: starlit (ulduzlu) = star + light (lit) cannot be a phrase because its second element is the stem of a participle (lit), and a participle cannot be syntactically modified by a noun.

Differences of Compound Words and Phraseological Units.

1. It is impossible to insert any word between compound words: blackboard, wastepaper; but in phraseological units it is possible: to break one’s heart = to break his kind heart (ph. Un.), but “heart-break” (CW);

In Azerbaijani: qəlbi sınmaq (ph. Un.), qəlbisınıq (CW);

2. As compound words belong to the concrete meaning, they have no other variant; but phraseological units sometimes have their variants. For example:

to keep level head = to keep cool / cold head (təmkinini saxlamaq);

touch the wood = touch the soft / hard wood (göz dəyməsin), etc.

Grammatical Types of Compound Words are various grammatical types of compounds: they are compound nouns, compound adjectives, compound verbs, compound adverbs and compound pronouns.

Compound nouns are the following types of compound nouns:

1) The stem of a noun preceded by the stem of another noun: “steam-ship, fountain-pen”, etc.

2) The stem of a noun preceded by the stem of an adjective: “sweet-heart”.

Compound nouns in Azerbaijani are follows: “Hüseynqulu, Rəcəbəli, Gülbahar, Məmmədhüseyn, Şah İsmayıl, Sultanəli, Molla Nəsrəddin, Xanımbacı, Məhsəti xanım, Ağabacı, Fətəli xan, ağacdələ, taxılbiçən, ayaqqabı, quzuqulağı, dəvədabarı”, etc.

The most common ways of forming **compound adjectives** are the followings: “skyblue, coalblack”, etc.

In Azerbaijani compound adjectives are divided into two groups: a) by the repetition of the adjectives: balaca-balaca (uşaqlar), uzun-uzun (yollar), etc.; b) by the repetition of two synonymous adjectives derived from nouns: güllü-çiçəkli (bağçalar).

There are few **compound verbs** in English. They are: “to fulfill, to broadcast, to waylay”, etc.

In Azerbaijani **compound verbs** are: “göz qoymaq, baş çıxarmaq, əldən düşmək, dildən düşmək, yoldan çıxmaq”, etc.

Composite verbs are: “to go: to go in, to go away, to go out, to go down, to go up, to go by, to go round”.

7. Correspondences of Words in English and Azerbaijani.

Words in English and Azerbaijani reveal the following correspondences:

1) Congruous both in form and meaning, like: (international words) “taxi” vs. “taksi”; (terms) “electron” – “elektron”; (borrowed words) “hot-dog” – “xot-doq”;

2) Congruous in form, but incongruous in meaning, like: aspirant “a candidate” – “namizəd, bir şey üçün iddiaçı”; “rəqib” – “aspirant” – “bir universitetdə və ya bir elmi müəssisədə pedaqoji və ya elmi fəaliyyətə hazırlaşan bir şəxs” (“post-graduate”);

3) Congruous in meaning, but incongruous in form, like: “hard-hearted” (compounding) – “ürəksiz, ruhsuz, sərt adam haqqında” (affixation);

4) Incongruous both in form and meaning, like: “black book” – “a book listing persons that have committed offenses against morality, law, or any set of regulations” – “şantaj” - “sehrli bir gücə malik olan kitablarda cadugərlik”;

5) Incongruous in a structure type, like: “blood-bank” (compound) – “transfüzyon üçün qan və plazma saxlama” (word-combination);

6) Incongruous in connotations, like: blobber-lipped (expressively charged) – “qalın dodaqlı” (neutral);

7) Congruous in meaning, though being a variety, characteristic of a particular group of the language’s speakers, like: “rooster” (American and Australian English for “cock”) – “xoruz” (dialectal variation for a male domestic fowl).

8. Methods in Contrastive Lexicology.

Contrastive Lexicology resorts to numerous methods, apt to provide with contrastive analysis of words in the English and Azerbaijani languages. Of a paramount importance are contrastive and structural, or formalized (distributional, transformational, componential and immediate constituents) methods of vocabulary analysis.

Contrastive Analysis. Its goal is supposed to establish similarities and differences in the lexicons of the English and Azerbaijani languages. This type of analysis is considered the main one, as it reveals the conceptual entities that underlie the contents of lexical items, and those areas of language cognition that represent the national worldview, the specificities of ethnic mentality, and the characteristics of cognitive abilities which belong to different linguistic communities.

Distributional Analysis. By term distribution is understood the occurrence of a lexical item, relative to other lexical items within the same level (words relative to words / morphemes relative to morphemes). In other words, this method of analysis establishes the characteristics of the positions that lexical items occupy in a text.

As one of the methods of Contrastive Lexicology research, it determines the contextual meaning of a word due to its collocability. The analysis results are considered in terms of the distributional patterns – abstract structures, realized at a syntagmatic level, for instance:

“I treated him to an ice-cream” (noun + verb + pronoun + preposition to + noun) – to treat somebody to something vs. “Ona dondurma ilə müalicə etdim” (pronoun + noun + verb) – bir kəsi bir şey ilə müalicə et;

“We treat them kindly” (noun + verb + pronoun + adverb) – to treat somebody in some manner vs. “Onlara yaxşı davranırıq” (pronoun + adverb + verb) – “bir kəsə hər hansı bir şəkildə müalicə etmək”.

Immediate Constituents Analysis. This type of analysis is based on a binary division of a word into its constituents, aiming to discover the word’s ultimate constituents. Within Contrastive Lexicology research the immediate constituents (ICs) analysis attempts to determine morphemic or derivational structures of words in the contrasted languages: incorruptibility > incorrupt > in (prefix) + corruptibility > corruptible (adjective) + ity (suffix) > corrupt (verb) + ible (suffix) – satılmamalıq > satılmama > ma (suffix) + satılmaq > satılan (adjective) + ma > satılmayan (adjective) + maq (suffix) > satış (noun) + l (suffix) + ma (suffix) + maq (suffix) + sat (the root of the verb “satılmamalıq”).

Transformational Analysis provides for a re-patterning of distributional structures to establish similarities and differences between the meanings of practically identical distributional patterns.

Within Contrastive Lexicology research this type of analysis is very often used to establish the syntactic and semantic relations between the components of the contrasted compound words, like: “qırmızıbaş” > “qırmızı başı olan” vs. red-headed > having a red head, or the constituents of the contrasted derived words: submissive > inclined to submit vs. itaət edən > hər şeyə itaət edən.

Componential Analysis. The essence of this method of analysis consists in splitting or decomposing the meaning into its elementary senses that are called semantic features – basic conceptual components of meaning characteristic of any lexical item.

Contrastive Lexicology resorts to this kind of analysis in order to establish similarities and differences at the level of semantic fields, lexico-semantic and thematic groups, synonymic, antonymic, hyponymic and other semantic relations

in the contrasted languages. Very often, in this respect, componential analysis is used to find a translational equivalent in the target language.

The procedure of componential analysis within cross-linguistic investigations is based on singling out and arranging semantic features of the contrasted words, with further determining the contrasts between their meanings.

The meaning of the word may comprise the following varieties of semantic features:

a) Classeme, or categorical seme is the most generalizing semantic feature that corresponds to the meaning of a certain part of speech: the seme of “substance”, as in the nouns: “door” – “qapı”; of “quality”, as in the adjectives: “deep” – “dərin”; of “action”, as in the verbs: “go” – “getmək”, etc.

b) Archeseme is a generic integrating semantic feature common for the lexical items belonging to a certain class, i.e. semantic field or thematic group, like: “go, walk, step, run” – “getmək, gəzmək, addımlamaq, qaçmaq” – the archeseme of “movement”.

c) Differential seme, or distinguisher is a semantic feature, which is not found in the meaning of other words, i.e. the feature that distinguishes the words’ meanings, like: “walk” - “to move along (along – “forward”) by putting one foot in front of the other, allowing each foot to touch the ground before lifting the next” – “gəzmək” - (insan və heyvan haqqında), “gəzmək” (bir yerə ayaq qoymaq, ayaq basmaq), “hərəkət etmək” (müxtəlif istiqamətlərə hərəkət etmək) – the differential semes of “surface” and “direction”.

In English the same of “surface” correlates with the semantic component of “ground, which represents the idea of the earth, surface, whereas in Azerbaijani the concept of surface is characterized by a much broader extension. Respectively, the seme of “direction” correlates with the idea of a forward movement in English, and a multi-directional movement in Azerbaijan. Hence, we may say in Azerbaijani:

“dənizin o tərəfinə getmək; dənizçilər üzgüçülüyə gedir; pul dövriyyədə gəzir; şayiələr gəzir (var)”.

d) Integral seme is a semantic feature common for two or more meanings, like: “gəzmək” - (insan və heyvan haqqında), “hərəkət etmək” (müxtəlif istiqamətlərə hərəkət etmək) and “qaçmaq” (sürətlə ayaqla hərəkət etmək, tələsik getmək) – the integral seme of “direction” vs. “walk” - “to move along by putting one foot in front of the other, allowing each foot to touch the ground before lifting the next” and run “to go at a speed faster than a walk, with only one foot on the ground at any time” – the integral seme of ‘regularity of touching the ground with a foot’.

e) Potential seme is a semantic feature which manifests itself in a certain context. For example, the contrastive ethno-psycholinguistic analysis on national semantic idiosyncrasies of Azerbaijani and English phytonyms showed that the English word thorn is associated with such semantic features as “Jesus”, “trial”, “pain”: “A relentless campaigner, he was a thorn in the government’s side for a number of years”, whilst its Azerbaijani counterpart “tikan” reveals the components of “çarmıxma”, “ağrı”, “çətinlik”: “Yüngülləşdirmək asan olardı”; whereas the English word lilac – that one of “Easter”.

f) Gradual seme is a semantic feature that reveals the idea of some degree, or intensity in the meaning of the word, like: breeze > wind > gale > hurricane – meh > külək > tufan > qasırğa.

Being opposed to each other in the feature of “intensity of wind blowing”, the English words are distinguished by the gradual seme, unlike their Azerbaijani counterparts, which (in case of “güclü külək”) represent the idea of intensity by lexical means.

Chapter II. Onomasiological Aspect of Contrastive Lexicology.

- 1. Onomasiological Approach to Contrastive Analysis.**
- 2. Motivation of Lexical Items in English and Azerbaijani. Inner-Form of the Word. Demotivation and Pseudomotivation of Lexical Items.**
- 3. Onomasiological Structure as a Criterion for Contrastive Analysis.**
- 4. Types of Onomasiological Congruence in English and Azerbaijani.**
- 5. Onomasiological Category and its Contrastive Representation.**
- 6. Borrowings in English and Azerbaijani.**
- 7. Word-Formation in English and Azerbaijani.**
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- 10. Folk Etymology. Etymological Characteristics of the English and Azerbaijani Vocabulaires.**

1. Onomasiological Approach to Contrastive Analysis.

From the viewpoint of onomasiology, lexicons of the contrasted languages represent different divisions of the reality, revealing different worldviews of nations on it.

The onomasiological aspect of Contrastive Lexicology aims at studying formal and structural differences of lexical items in the contrasted languages. In a broader sense, the onomasiological parameters of comparison are those features of

contrast that represent various ways of designation of the same objects in the contrasted languages.

In English and Azerbaijani, one may mark differences in:

a) Sound-imitation, like: “bow-wow” – “qav-qav”, “cock-a-doodle-do” – “kukareku”, “quack-quack” – “krya-krya”;

b) Functionality, like: “bedroom” > the room with beds – “yataq otağı” > yatmaq üçün otaq, “sailor” > somebody who sails (travels by the action of wind on sails) a ship – “dənizçi” > dənizdə gəzən > gəmiçi.

There might also be arbitrary features of the object selected for designation, like: “the eye of a needle” - “bir iynənin gözü”; “bluegrass” – nazik örgü; “soft music” – sakit (xəzin) musiqi.

2. Motivation of Lexical Items in English and Azerbaijani. Inner-Form of the Word. Demotivation and Pseudomotivation of Lexical Items.

The interrelation between the structural pattern of a word and its lexical meaning is called **motivation**. According to the way the structural pattern correlates with the content, all words may be divided into motivated and non-motivated or etymologically motivated.

In non-motivated words the connection between form and meaning is arbitrary, like: “swan” – “qu quşu”. One can trace their motivation only etymologically, for example: “swan” from Middle High German “swan”, akin to Latin “sonus” - “sound” – “qu quşu” from Latin “albus” - “white” akin to the Indo-European root “elb” - “white”.

In motivated words the connection between form and meaning is not arbitrary, but determined: “betrayor” (somebody who betrays) – “xain” (xəyanət edən bir kəs).

There are three main types of motivation: phonetical, morphological and semantic.

1) Phonetical motivation (lexical onomatopoeia) is observed in words, whose sound-clusters imitate the sounds they denote, for instance: “hiss” – “fısıltı”, “bubble” – “lıqqıltı”, “buzz” – “vızıltı”.

This type of motivation in both languages is comparatively small and is reduced to about 1,09 per cent of words in English and to only 0,9 per cent in Azerbaijani.

The most characteristic contrastive feature of onomatopoeic words in the languages is a frequent use of the sound [r] in Azerbaijani, for example: “bağırıtı, buralı, burcutmaq, bürc, qıraət, qırıcı, qırmızı, qırtıltı, qıvrıq, qurultu, hopdurucu, hönkürtü, hörmət, unlike English, where sibilants prevail, like: “splash, chuffle, whiz, jingle”, etc.

2) Morphological motivation is marked in derived words and non-idiomatic compounds, whose components “prompt” the meaning of a lexical item within a word-formation pattern, like: “worker” – “işçi”; “chairbed” – “kreslo-yataq”. There are about 88,7 per cent of such words in English 91,9 per cent in Azerbaijani.

3) Semantic motivation is the relationship between the direct and transferred meanings of a word, for instance: “green” – 1) colour of grass; 2) inexperienced, like: “greenhorn” – yaşıl – 1) otun rəngi; 2) təcrübəsiz, like: gənc və naşı”. There are approximately 12 per cent of such words in English and 7,7 per cent in Azerbaijani.

Inner-Form of the Word. The essential notion for determining the ways and means of designation within the form and meaning relations is the inner-form of the word. Being a feature that underlies a name, the inner-form represents the property by which an object was designated. The innerform motivates a sound shape of the word, indicating the reason for which the meaning is expressed by it,

for instance: “masa” (süfrə açmaq, stol açmaq, süfrə düzəltmək) – “table”, from Latin “tabula” – “board, tablet, list”.

Demotivation of Lexical Items. In functioning, the inner-form of the word may totally or partially be lost, this process being called demotivation. The reasons for losing the inner-form are various:

a) Phonetical changes, like: in Azerbaijani the word “bəy” was in Old Turkic “beg” > primitive Turkic “beğ” > “bəy”, the last consonant [g] changed into vowel [y]; in English “bear” < Middle English “bere” from Old English “bera” akin to Old English “brun” – “brown”;

b) Loss of the feature by which the object was designated: from Russian “çernil” < “çernilli”, however, “yazmaq, rəsm çəkmək üçün qara və ya göy maye”; in English the word ink originates from the Greek word enkaustos “burned in”, like: “encaustic” – “a coloured fluid used for writing, drawing or printing, or a paint made from pigment mixed with melted beeswax and fixed by heat after application”, however, “ink” – “a coloured liquid”;

c) Loss or complete change of the meaning, like: “arvad” < “qadın” (qadın cinsi) / “həyat yoldaşı” / “can yoldaşı” / “ömür-gün yoldaşı” / “uşaqlarımın anası” – motivated with the meaning of “helpmate”, “bedfellow” – “woman” < Old English “wifman” < “wif” – “wife” + man “human being, man”.

Pseudomotivation, or folk etymology is the mistaken motivation due to the fancied analogy of borrowings with well-known native words. In Theory of Translation such words are called **pseudo-internationalisms**, or “**translator’s false friends**”.

Pseudomotivation is a motivation by a first arbitrary consonance, without the phonetical laws, morphological structure or its changes being taken into account. It is the reinterpretation of an unknown or little known word with the known one by a random similarity, this leading to the false establishment of the inner-form and

very often to the phonetical “disfiguration” of the word, like: “red-shortness” < “red-short”, by folk etymology from Swedish “rödskört”, from “röd” – “red” + “skör” – “brittle”, the quality or state of being “brittle” - “easily broken” or “cracked” when “redhot” – “qızgın” və “kövrək”, yəni “yüksək keyfiyyətli güclü araq”, by folk etymology from Latin “aqua vitae”- “su həyatı”.

3. Onomasiological Structure as a Criterion for Contrastive Analysis.

The criterion that conforms to the targets of contrastive analysis within the onomasiological aspect is the onomasiological structure of the word. The onomasiological structure represents the structure of a derived or compound word as the process and result of naming. In other words, it motivates the choice of name, fixing its connection with the whole complex about the denotatum, lexical meaning, and grammatical structure.

According to P.Štekauer, the onomasiological structure represents the conceptual basis of the process of naming within three constituents: onomasiological base, onomasiological mark, and onomasiological connective.

The onomasiological base denotes a class, gender, species, etc., to which the object belongs. The onomasiological mark functions as a specifier of the base. The onomasiological connective represents the logical-semantic relations between the onomasiological base and the onomasiological mark.

The onomasiological structure is the result of motivation that represents a concept by correlating it with the form and meaning of a motivator (onomasiological mark) and a word-building affix (onomasiological base) of a derived or compound word, they being mediated by a logical-semantic relation (onomasiological connective), for example: “printer” – “a person whose job it is to print books, newspapers and magazines” > “person” (onomasiological base – word-building suffix “-er”) who “does” (onomasiological connective) “printing”

(onomasiological mark) – “çap edən, mətbəəçi, çapçı, tipograf” – “çap istehsalı üzrə mütəxəssis” > “çap” (onomasiological base – word-building suffix “-çi”), “-çi” (onomasiological connective) “mətbəə” (onomasiological mark).

The comparison at the level of the onomasiological structure provides for the following parameters:

- a) The order of the onomasiological marks, like: “snow-white” – “qar kimi ağ”;
- b) Onomasiological bases and their semantics, like: “çağırışçı” by means of “-çi” - “hərbi xidmətə çağırılan biri” – “draftee” / “inductee” by means of “-ee” – “a person who is called to army”;
- c) Onomasiological marks and their semantics, like: “ağbaş” – “saçları ağaran şəxs” – “white-haired” / “white-headed” – “having white hair”;
- d) Associative connections between the onomasiological marks (for compounds), like: “əlyazma” – “handwriting”; “göygüzlü” / “mavi-gözlü” – “blue-eyed”; “resemble” – “swordfish” – “kılıçbalığı”; “ot biçən” – “hay-drier”.
- e) Onomasiological connectives and their semantics, like: “xizəkçi” - “xizək sürən şəxs” – “skier” – “one who uses or travels on skis”. The interpretation of the onomasiological structure provides for the semantics identification of congruous words that differ in their designation.

4. Types of Onomasiological Congruence in English and Azerbaijani.

The onomasiological structure as a criterion for contrastive analysis is considered from the viewpoint of designation strategies the contrasted lexical items reveal. The strategies determine a certain type of onomasiological congruence – correspondence established between the constituents of the onomasiological structures of the contrasted lexical items.

There are three main types of onomasiological congruence: total congruence, partial congruence and total incongruence. Besides, there are non-equivalent lexical items in both languages, they forming the so-called onomasiological lacunas, i.e. lack of designative means for naming an object.

Total congruence is characterized by a complete identification of semantically identical components of the onomasiological structures in the contrasted languages, like: “blackshirt” / “blackberry” / “blackcurrant” – “böyürtkan”; “neighbourhood” – “qonşuluq”; “grey-eyed” – “alagözlü”, etc. Totally congruous words are usually borrowings, for example: “xot-doq” – “hot-dog”, or international words, like: in German “Braunhemd”, in English “brownshirt”, in Russian “коричневорубашечник” (фашист, гитлеровец), in Azerbaijani “qəhvəyiköynəkli” (faşist), “yarçı” (Yeni Azərbaycan Partiyasının üzvü), “naxçık” (Naxçıvanlı), “yeraz” (İrəvanlı), etc.

Partial congruence of the onomasiological structures is characterized by:

a) The identity of an onomasiological mark and non-identity of the other in the couples: “compound – derivative”, like: “purplefish” – “qırmızı balıq” “багрянка”; “compound – compound”, for instance: “orange-root” – “sarıkök”, “yellow-beaked” – “sarı-dimdikli”; “compound – word combination”, like: “black-beetle” – “qara tarakan” – “white fish” – “ağ balıq”.

b) The inversion of the onomasiological marks, for example: “golden-yellow” – “qızıllı”; “ağappaq” – “snow-white”.

Total incongruence is characterized by a complete incongruity of all components of the onomasiological structure in the couples: “compound – compound”, for example: “blacksnake” – “Yamaylı qara ilan” - “полоз-удав”, “столяр-краснодеревщик” – “qırmızı ağacla işləyən dülgər” – “cabinetmaker”; “compound – derivative”, like: “brown-nose” - “yaltaq” – “incandescent”; “compound – word combination”, like: “yellow-boy” – “qızıl sikkə” – “золота

монета”, “whitebeam” – “rovan” – “рябина ария”, French “merigold” – “böyürtkən” .

Non-equivalent words are lexical items that are characterized by the absence of equivalents in the other language. Non-equivalence is determined by:

a) Worldview each ethnic group reveals in naming an object, phenomenon or process. The choice of a motivator, in this case, wholly depends on a designator’s mentality, psyche, spirits, etc. For example: “blackbirds” - “amphetamine capsules” - “не разлей вода” – “bir qəlbli olmaq”.

b) Historical events, such as: “bluecoat” - “a soldier esp. of the U.S. during the Civil War” – “şimalda olan göy rəngli əsgər paltarı”, “ağşalvarlılar” or “toyuqeyənlər” – “XIX-XX əsrlərdə İçəri şəhərdə yaşayan nəsilərin adları”.

c) Social practices or cultural phenomena that occur within a certain ethnic group, such as: “brown-bag(ging)” - “to have a meal in the middle of the day especially with other people, to which you take your own food”, “greenmail” - “the practice of purchasing enough shares in a firm or trading company to threaten a take-over, thereby forcing the owners to buy them back at a premium in order to retain control of the business”, in Azerbaijani: “xarı bülbül” - “xalq mahnı festivalı”, “Bülbül festivalı” – “opera ifaçıların müsabiqəsi”.

d) Natural phenomena typical for a certain region, such as: “whitetop” - “a grass of northwestern North America that is an important source of food for wild birds”, yalnız Azərbaycan üçün xarakterik olan çilələr: “böyük çilə” – qış mövsümündə 40 gün və “kiçik çilə” – 20 gün davam edir, bundan sonra bir ay “boz ay” olur. Kiçik çilədə daha kəskin soyuq hava müşahidə olunur. Kiçik çilənin birinci on günlüyündə Xıdır Nəbi bayramı keçirilir, çünki Xıdır Nəbi - bərəkət rəmzidir. “Novruz bayramı” - “baharın gəlişi, gündüzün gecə ilə bərabər olmağı” qeyd edilir. – It is typical only for the Azerbaijan Republic: in winter 40 days is called “böyük çilə” and 20 days is called “kiçik çilə”, after which a month becomes “gray month” as there is a sharp cold weather in this period of time. In the first

decade of the “kiçik çilə” Khidir Nabi Holiday is celebrated because Khidir Nebi is a symbol of blessing, abundance, profusion. “Novruz Bayram” is celebrated as “the arrival of spring, as the daytime equals to night”.

5. Onomasiological Category and its Contrastive Representation.

One of the basic notions of onomasiology, on a par with the onomasiological structure, is the notion of onomasiological category. Onomasiological categories are defined as different types of structuring the concept in view of its expression in the given language, i.e., the essential conceptual structures establishing the basis for the act of naming (M.Dokulil).

The conceptual structure may manifest itself within the so-called predicate-and-actant structure, the latter being a pre-lexical structure that represents the connection of a predicate with one of its actants (participants) which is attributed to a certain semantic role, i.e.:

“Agent” (the “doer” or instigator of the action denoted by the predicate),

“Patient” (the “undergoer” of the action or event denoted by the predicate),

“Theme” (the entity that is moved by the action or event denoted by the predicate),

“Experiencer” (the living entity that experiences the action or event denoted by the predicate),

“Goal” (the location or entity in the direction of which something moves),

“Benefactive” (the entity that benefits from the action or event denoted by the predicate),

“Source” (the location or entity from which something moves),

“Instrument” (the medium by which the action or event denoted by the predicate is carried out),

“Locative” (the specification of the place where the action or event denoted by the predicate is situated), and others.

The contrastive analysis may reveal differences and similarities in the ways the onomasiological category is represented at the level of the predicate-and-actant structure. For example, the representation of the onomasiological category of career (occupation) reveals both similar and different configurations of the predicate-and-actant structures, like:

“Təşkilatçı” (agent) – organizer “one who organizes” (agent);

“Pianoçu” – “fortepianoda çalan musiqiçi” (Instrument) - “pianist” – “a person who plays the piano” (Instrument);

“Dənizçi” / “donanmaçı” – “dənizdə işləyən şəxs” (Locative) - “seaman” – “one whose occupation or business is on the sea” (Locative), but,

“Əczaçı” / “aptekçi” (Locative) – “druggist” - “somebody who deals in or dispenses drugs and medicines” (Object).

The onomasiological category may also reveal correspondences at the level of the associative (either metaphorical or metonymical) relations, as these types of relations are considered to determine the connections between various concepts like:

Structural metaphor – a concept is metaphorically structured in terms of the other concept, such as: “burmalı boru” - “səthi istilik ötürülməsi üçün nəzərdə tutulmuş bir spiral və ya spiral şəklində əyri boru” - “worm-pipe” - “something helical”, for instance, “a spiral pipe”.

Diffusive metaphor – diffusive integration of concepts, when it is difficult to establish the essence of the connections between the concepts, such as: “göydələn”

- “çox hündür çoxmərtəbəli bina” - “skyscraper” - “a very tall many-storeyed building”.

Gestalt – the connection of concepts is based on some perception images, ideas, sensations, etc., like: “zəngçiçəyi” - “mavi, çəhrayı, bənövşəyi və digər rənglərdə çiçəkləri olan, xırda zənglər şəklində olan ot və ya bitki növü” - “bluebell(s)” - “a plant of the lily family bearing blue bellshaped flowers”.

6. Borrowings in English and Azerbaijani.

Words can be classified from the point of view of their origin. They can be native and borrowed. A specific layer of vocabulary from the viewpoint of designation is constituted by the so-called **borrowed words**. Having been taken from the source language, borrowings fill in designative lacunas in the target language. The linguistic factors that stimulate the emergence of borrowings in the target language are the following:

1) To avoid polysemy, with fixing different meanings in the native and borrowed words, such as: “**cem**”, “mürəbbə”, “povidlo”, “varenya” - “şəkər siropu, bal və ya su ilə giləmeyvə və ya meyvə bişirilir” – in English “**jam**” - “jele kimi mürəbbə”; “səfər” – “daimi yaşayış yerindən uzaq yerlərdə gəzinti, “**kruiz**” – in English “**cruise**” - “gəmi ilə suda gəzinti”.

2) To use a single word instead of a word combination, such as: “**snayper**” in English “**sniper**”; “**sprint**” – “qısa məsafəli qaçış” in English “**sprint**”.

There are the following types of borrowings: lexical borrowings, calques (translation-loans) and semantic borrowings.

Lexical borrowings are foreign words that penetrate into the native language without changing their meaning and form, such as: “meeting” – “mitinq”, “görüş”.

Translation-loans or **calques** are borrowings which do not retain their original form, but undergo the process of translation, such as: “surplus value” – “izafı dəyər, əlavə dəyər”.

Beside calques there are **semi-calques**, in which one part of the word is borrowed and the other one is translated, such as: “television” – “televiziya”.

Semantic borrowings are borrowed meanings from a foreign word. For instance: the English word “red” is likely to have acquired the meaning of “communist” from the word “qırmızı” with the meaning of “inqilabi fəaliyyətə aid olan, Sovet sosialist sistemi ilə əlaqəli”, like: “red” - “Bolshevik, communist; pertaining to the U.S.S.R.; red revolution, a socialist or communist revolution”.

The Azerbaijani word “yaşıl” is likely to have acquired the meaning “təbii mühitin qoruyucusudur” under the influence of the English counterpart “green” “relating to or beneficial to the natural environment; concerned about environmental issues and supporting policies aimed at protecting the environment”.

In Azerbaijani the words “Allah, rəbb, ilahi, islam, peyğəmbər, məscid, müsəlman, həcc, inam, insan, axirət, amel, cənnət, namaz, oruc, iftar, səcdə, molla, şeytan, ad, adət, ağıl, əlifba, məktəb, məktub, kitab, katib, dərs, tədris, mədrəsə, sinif, elm, təhsil, cəvvad (əliaçıqlıq), cihad, dünya, dəlil, əhval, ədalət, əkslik, əxlaq, əhali, fəhm (ağıl, təfəkkür), fəna, fəal, füzuli (boş, mənasız), ifrat, irşad (doğru yol tapmaq), ilham” are of **Arabic origin**.

In Azerbaijani the words “gül, bülbül, bahar, bağ, payız, dilbər, nigar (gözəl, yaraşlıq, sədaqətli mənasında, ordu, boran, boşqab, bəhanə)” are of **Persian origin**.

In Azerbaijani the words “direktor, respublika, konstitusiya, abstraksiya, aksidensiya, adekvat, alqoritm, altruizm, deduksiya, determinizm, didaktika,

dialektika, koqnisiya, disfunksiya, distinksiya (şüür aktı), eqo, eqoizm, ekvivalent, element, emotivizm, futurologiya, illuziya, induksiya” are of **Latin origin**.

In Azerbaijani the words “kosmos, kosmologiya, kosmopolitizm, kriteriya, aksiologiya, anarxizm, animizm, antaqonist, antropomorfizm, antropologiya, antilogizm, antinomiya, apatiya, astronomiya, aksiom, cins, demoqrafiya, demokratiya, deontologiya, dramatism, entuziazm, ideya, genesisiz, geopolitika, mif, mifologiya, matriarxat” are of **Greek origin**.

In Azerbaijani the words beginning with two consonants are of **European origin**, for example: “plan, prospekt, şkof, trampin, informasiya, instinkt, instrumentalizm, humanizm, hipotez”.

In Azerbaijani the words “samovar, paraxod, zavod, vedrə” are of **Russian origin**.

In Azerbaijani the words “vayner, stendapçı, tok-şou, praym-şok, marker, post-terminal, turniket, çip, modem, ayfon, aypod, makbuk, aymak, votsap, feysbuk, sayt, instaqram, imo, viber, selfi, alternativ, logistika mərkəzi, biznes forum, prioritet, investisiya, inteqrasiya, akkreditasiya, kompüter, piknik, skrin etmək, folover, spam, feyxoa, klub, mitinq, trolleybus, rels, keks, futbol, basketbol, voleybol, adaptasiya, akkulturasiya” are of **English origin**.

In Azerbaijani the words “absurd, affekt, aksiya, akt, aktual, alternativ, idol, funksiya, veksəl, konkret, kurort, qalstuk, şayba” are of **German origin**.

In Azerbaijani the words “burjuaziya, bürokratiya, büro, elita, ideal, intellektualizm, intuisiya, inteligensiya, kapital, maksim, franşiza” are of **French origin**.

Thus, borrowings or loan words are the following:

Celtic loan words. Celtic tribes inhabited in the British Isles when Angles and Saxons came from the continent and settled there. Early Celtic words in the

English vocabulary are not so many. They are: down (hill), dun (colour), brook, avon (river Avon), etc.

Latin loan words began to penetrate into the English vocabulary at an early stage of the English history. So, these Latin words refer to the objects of trade. For instance: butter, wine, paper, pear, peach, plum, kitchen, cook, cheese, etc.

Latin borrowings. The borrowings are connected with the spreading of Christianity. As Latin was the language of Christianity many religious terms entered the English vocabulary. They are: monk, priest, angel, candle, clerk, hymn, minister, dean, etc.

The Third layer of Latin Borrowings is connected with the epoch of renaissance (XV-XVI centuries).

They were borrowed from books, not through personal intercourse, as it was the case with the words of the first and second layers and are called **scientific** or **bookish**, or **learned** words. For example: minimum, maximum, genius, datium, memorandum, antenna, etc.

Latin words have the following features:

a) All the verbs of the English language ending in “-ate” and “-ute” are of Latin origin. For instance: “to exaggerate, to narrate, to translate”, etc.

b) All the adjectives ending in “-ior” are of Latin origin, such as: “superior, senior, junior”, etc.

Greek loan words. The morphological features of Greek words are:

ch [k] – school, character

ph [f] – morphology, phonetics

y (in the root) – style, system, type, rhythm, etc.

Scandinavian loan words. Many of Scandinavian words begin with the following letters: “sk” = skin, sky, skirt; “sc” = scream, screen; “st” = stream,

stem, etc.

French Words continued entering the English language after the XVI-th century as well. The words which entered in the XVI-th century kept their French character. They are called aliens.

These words have the following features. For instance: “ch-” is pronounced as [ʃ] in the words “machine, chauffeur, champagne”, etc.; “g” – is pronounced [ʒ] in the words “mirage, regime, garage”, etc.

The stress falls on the last syllable as: “barri`cade”, “fa`tigue”, “ca`price”, “canno`nade”, etc.

Italian loan words are “balcony, bust, opera, soprano, baritone, sonato, piano” etc.

Spanish loan words are “quinine, potato, tomato, tobacco, apricot”, etc.

Portuguese loan words are not all numerous: “veranda, tank, cobra”, etc.

Arabic loan words are the followings: “emir, harem, khalifa, simoom”, etc.

French loan words are the following words: “caravan, algebra, magazine (it is used as journal in French), cipher, admiral, coffee, syrop”, etc.

Persian loan words are “divan, chess, check-mate, shawl, lilac”, etc.

Dutch loan words. The Dutch were the teachers of the English people in nautical matters. That’s why the words which entered the English vocabulary are mostly nautical terms, such as: “deck, reef, yacht, skipper”, etc.

7. Word-Formation in English and Azerbaijani.

The problems associated with the definition of the word have always been most complex and remain disputable. Determining the “word” involves

considerable difficulties for the criteria employed in establishing it are of different character and each language presents a separate system with its own patterns of vocabulary items, its specific types of structural units and its own ways of distinguishing them. The matter is that the simplest word has many different aspects. It has a sound form because it is a certain arrangement of phonemes.

It has its morphological structure, being a certain arrangement of morphemes. Being the central element of any language system, the word is a sort of focus for the problems of phonology, lexicology, syntax, morphology and also some other sciences that have to deal with language and speech, such as philosophy, psychology and probably quite a few other branches of knowledge.

All attempts to characterise the “word” are necessarily specific for each domain of science and are considered one-sided by the representatives of all the other domains and criticised for incompleteness.

The definition of the word from the point of view of philosophy: “Words are not mere sounds but names of matter” (T.Hobbes).

The definition of the word from the point of view of physiology: “A word is a universal signal that can substitute any other signal from the environment in evoking a response in a human organism” (I.Pavlov).

The definition of the word from the point of view of Machine Mathematical Linguistics: “A word is a sequence of graphemes between two blanks”.

The definition of the word from the point of view of syntax: “A word is a minimum sentence” (H.Sweet). “A word is a minimum free form” (L.Bloomfield).

The definition of the word from the point of view of semantics: “Words are meaningful units” (S.Ullmann).

The definition of the word from the point of view of syntax and semantics: A word is one of the smallest completely satisfying bits of isolated units into which the sentence resolves itself (E.Sapir).

The definition of the word from the point of view of semantics and phonology: “A word is an articulate sound-symbol in its aspect of denoting something which is spoken about” (A.Gardiner).

The definition of the word from the point of view of semantics, phonology and grammar: “A word is the association of a given meaning with a given group of sounds susceptible to a given grammatical employment” (A.Meillet).

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. The definition which is a bit extended but takes into account different aspects and hence can be considered optimal is the definition of the word given by I.Arnold: “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”.

Word-formation or word-building is the process of constructing new words from the existing resources of language. Being a part of onomasiology in providing with the process of designation, word-formation focuses on derivative words and the process of creating new words from the material available in language following certain structural and semantic patterns.

The task of contrastive word-formation is to reveal correspondences between the contrasted words in the aspect of the following criteria:

a) **Derivativeness / non-derivativeness**, such as: “motel” > “mot” (or) + (hot) el (blending) – “motel”, “hotel” (borrowing); “unikal” (affixation) – “unique” (simple word);

b) **Derivational affix correspondences**, such as: “teach” + “-er”, “work” + “-er”, “read” + “-er” – “öyrədən”, “müəllim” “öyrət/d” + “-ən”, “iş” + “-çi”, “oxu” + “yan”.

c) **Availability / unavailability** of a morphemic linking element, such as: “black-a-vised” – “qaradərili”, “yarpaqlı, yarpağa bənzər” – “leaf-like”;

d) **Correspondences in a word-building type**, such as: “greenfinch”, “yellowcup” (compounding) > Noun = Adjective + Noun.

8. Types of Word-Formation and their Contrastive Description. Derivation, Compounding, Conversion, Abbreviation, Shortening, Clipping, Blending, Back-Formation, Reduplication in English and Azerbaijani.

The main units of word-building are derived words, or derivatives. Derived words are secondary linguistic units that are structurally and semantically dependent on some other simpler lexical units (derivational words) that motivate them, such as: “use” > “useful” – “fayda” > “faydalı”.

Both derived and derivational words are not totally identical. There exist structural similarities and differences between them. The relations between these units are called the relations of word-building derivativeness.

The trace of the derivational word preserved by any form in the derived word is called the derivational base, such as: UNO < United Nations Organization – BMT < Birləşmiş Millətlər Təşkilatı; univ. < university – uni. < universitet.

Besides, there are derived words that preserve the so-called derivational affixes, the latter performing the function of repatterning a derivational base and building a lexical unit different from a source one, like: “yekun + laş + dır + ma” – “re + capitula + tion”.

Word-building or word-formation is the process the coining of new words out of the morphemes and stems. There are various types and ways of building words. The English language used to mention morphological (or word-derivation), syntactic and lexico-semantic (or word-composition) types of word-building.

If viewed structurally, words appear to be divisible into smaller units which are called **morphemes**. Like a “word” a “morpheme” is an association of a given meaning with a given group of sounds. But unlike a word it is not autonomous. Morphemes occur as constituents of words. But there are quite a lot of words which contain only one morpheme.

The word “morpheme” is of the Greek origin. “Morphe” means “form”, the suffix “-eme” means the smallest unit.

Morphemes can be divided into two main types: **free**, those that can occur alone and **bound**, those which cannot occur alone. The word “wool”, for instance, has one free morpheme, the word “woolen” consists of two morphemes: “wool”, which is free and “-en”, which is bound. The word “yarpaqlamaq” consists of the free morpheme “yarpaq” and the bound morpheme “-la”.

A word has at least one lexical morpheme represented by a root by which we mean the ultimate constituent element which remains after the removal of affixes and it does not admit any further analysis. It is the common element of words within a word-family. It is the primary element of the word, its basic part conveys its fundamental lexical meaning. There are many root-morphemes which can stand alone as words: “table, car chair, room”. It is one of the specific features of the English language. Free morphemes can be found only among roots. But not all roots are free morphemes. Only productive roots are free.

Unlike roots affixes are usually bound morphemes. According to their function and meaning prefixes and suffixes are divided into derivational and functional. There are several differences between them. Derivational affixes are those by means of which new words are formed: to “teach” - a “teacher”.

Functional are those by means of which new forms of words are formed: “teach” – “teaches”.

Derivational affixes permit the substitution of one word by another without this affix. Functional affixes do not permit such substitution without violating grammar rules. Derivational affixes permit further derivation: “teach - teaching - teaching-room”. Functional affixes do not permit such derivation. Derivational affixes do not combine freely. Functional affixes combine more or less freely. The suffix “-s” can be added practically to any noun to form the plural form.

The major types of word-formation are the following: derivation, compounding, conversion, clipping, abbreviation, back-formation, blending, and reduplication.

Derivation is a type of word-formation in which a word is derived from another word by adding an affix. Derivation includes suffixation and prefixation. Suffixation underlies the formation of new words with the help of suffixes, the latter being affixes which follow the material (root morpheme) they are added to, such as: “biş” + “-mə” + “-miş”, “yetiş” + “-mə” + “-miş” (sütül, təcrübəsiz adam) – “нов + -ич + -ок” – “green” + “-er”; “trick” + “-ery” – “fırıldaq” + “-çılıq”, “əməl” + “-baz” + “-lıq”, “fənd” + “-gir” + “-lik”, “hiylə” + “-gər” + “-lik”.

In English and Azerbaijani, suffixes may be compared based on their origin and meaning. By origin, the contrasted suffixes are divided into native and borrowed ones.

In **English**, native suffixes are primarily Germanic in origin, like:

a) **Noun-suffixes**: -er (rider), -ling (firstling), -ness (goodness), -ie (birdie), -hood (manhood), -ship (friendship), -ier (cashier), -yer (lawyer), -ster (roadster), -th (breadth), -dom (dukedom), -ing (feeling), -y (aunty);

b) **Adjective-suffixes**: -fold (twofold), -ful (hopeful), -less (powerless), -ish (greyish), -like (warlike), -ly (womanly); -some (troublesome), -y (mighty);

c) **Adverb-suffixes:** -ly (newly), -long (headlong), -wise (crosswise); -ward(s) (backwards);

d) **Verb-suffixes:** -en (blacken).

In **Azerbaijani**, native suffixes are primarily of Proto-Turkic origin, such as:

a) **Noun-suffixes:**

I group “-lıq, -lik, -luq, -lük” (insanlıq, rəhbərlik, qohumluq, gözlük); “-laq”, (yaylaq, otlaq); “-ça, -çə”, (dəftərçə, meydança); “-çı, -çi, -çu, -çü” (arabaçı, əməkçi, omonçu, traktorçu, güclü); “-cıq, -cik, -cuq, -cük”, “-cığaz, -ciyəz, -cuğaz, -cüyəz” (evcik, gözlük, qızcığaz, evciyəz, uşaqcığaz, quşcuğaz, gülciyəz, daxmacıq); “-lı, -li, -lu, -lü” (dağlı, şəhərli, atlı); “-daş” (yoldaş, vətəndaş, əməkdaş);

II group “-iyyət” (şəxsiyyət); “-iyyət” (ədəbiyyət); “-dar” (tərəfdar); “-keş” (zəhmətkeş); “-at, -ət” (məlumat, mühacirət); “-stan” (Dağıstan); “-iyyə” (nəzəriyyə); “-i, -vi” (Nizami Gəncəvi, Fizuli); “-zadə” (Ağzadə); “-şünas” (hüquqşünas);

III group “-izm” (materializm); “-ist” (realist);

IV group “-ıq, -ik, -uq, -ük, -q” (tapşırıq, minik, buruq, bölük); “-ış, -iş, -uş, -üş, -yış, -yiş” (çağırış, gəliş, buruş, gülüş, yaşayış); “-ma, -mə” (uydurma, gəlmə); “-aq, -ək” (dayaq, ələk); “-caq, -cək” (yelləncək); “-ım, -im, -um, -üm” (yığım, ölüm); “-gə” (süpürgə, döngə); “-ar, -ər” (açar, yetər); “-tı, -ti, -tu, -tü” (bağırıtı, göyərti); “-qı, -qu, -ğı, -ğu, -ki, -kü, -gi, -gü” (çalğı, vurğu, sevgi, seçki, bölgü); “-qın, -ğın, -qun, -ğun, -gin, -kin, -gün, -kün” (başqın, qırqın, qaçqın, uçqun); “-ın, -in” (biçin, axın); “-id, -üd” (keçid, öyüd); “-ı, -i, -u, -ü” (yazı, qorxu, çəki, ölü); “-ıçı, -ici, -ucu, -ücü” (atıcı, qurucu, sürücü); “-ınc, -inc” (qaxınc, sevinc); “-acaq, -əcək” (yanacaq, gələcək); “-cə” (əyləncə); “-gəc” (sürgəc); “-ir, -ır” (gəlir-mədaxil, yatır-xəzinə); “-ıç” (ayrıç); “-ıntı, -inti, -untu, üntü” (qazıntı, yeyinti, çöküntü, ovuntu).

b) **Adjective-suffixes:** “-lı, -li, -lu, -lü” (ağıllı, düşüncəli, duzlu, güclü); “-sız, -siz, -suz, -süz” (dadsız, prinsipsiz, susuz, üzümsüz); “-k1, -ki, -ku, -kü” (axşamk1, səhərki, çoxdank1); “-cıl, -cil, -cul, -cül” (qabaqcıl, ardıcıl, işcil, ölümcül); “-lıq, -lik, -luq, -lük” (həftəlik, aylıq, onluq); the prefixes “bi”- bivəfa, bihal, bisavad; “na”- namərd, namünasib, nanəcib, naxoş, nakişi; “ba”- basəfa, baməzə; the words from Arabic and Persian languages: “-kar, -baz, -pərəst, -pərvər, -dar”.

c) **Adverb-suffixes:** - “-lı, -li, -lu, -lü” (maraqlı, gəzməli, görməli, pullu, dözümlü); “-sız, -siz, -suz, -süz” (maraqsız, gəzməksiz, pulsuz, dözümsüz) “-an, -ən” (baxmadan, görmədən)

d) **Verb-suffixes:** the verbal category of negation is built by means of the suffixes “-ma, -mə, -m” (oxuma, oynama, durma, zəng eləmə, gəlmə, getmə, etməm, evlənməm); the suffixes “-sız, -siz, -suz, -süz” are added to the word “yox” in the category of negation.

Mukhtar Huseynzadə in the book “Müasir Azərbaycan dili” distinguishes 8 forms of the category of mood. They are:

1. Əmr - we name it the Imperative, it has the following suffixes:

I person singular “-ım,-im,-um,-üm”, I person plural “-aq,-ək,-alım, -əlim”, II person plural “-ın,-in,-un,-ün”, III person singular “-sın,-sin,-sun,-sün”, III person plural “-sınlar,-sinlər,-sunlar,-sünlər”;

2. Şərt – we name it the Conditional, it has the following suffixes: “-isə (ədatı), -sa, -sə”;

3. Xəbər - we name it the Indicative, it has the following suffixes: the Past Indefinite “-dı, -di, -du, -dü”, the Past Perfect “-miş, -miş, -muş, -müş, -ıb, -ib, -ub, -üb”, the Present tense “-ır, -ir, -ur, -ür”, the Future Indefinite tense:

a) Qəti “-acaq, -əcək”,

b) Qeyri-qəti “-ar, -ər”;

4. Davam - we name it the Continuous, it has the following suffixes: “-maqda, -məkdə, -sa, -sə” (oxumaqdayamsa, işləməkdəsənsə);

5. Lazım - we name it the Obligatory, it has the following suffixes: “-ası, -əsi”;

6. Arzu - we name it the Desirative, it has the following suffixes: “-idi, -imis”, “gərək, barı, təkı, nola” (ədatları), “-a, -ə”, (gərək yaza idim);

7. Bacarıq - we name it the Ability, it has the following suffixes: “-a, -ə”;

8. Vacib - we name it the Necessity, it has the following suffixes: “-idi, -imiş, -isə” (yazmalı idim, bilməliidilər).

In Azerbaijani according to its structure the verbs are divided into:

1) Simple (yaz, oxu, gəl, qaç);

2) Derivative (yazmaq, oxumaq, gəlmək, qaçmaq; hirslə, başla, fikirləş, ayaqlaş, dillən, maraqlan, sağal, dincəl, bozar, göyər, oyna, yaşa, ələ, acı, turşu, bərk susamışdı, sonra qəribsədi, mənimsə, gülümsə, pıçılda, cingildə, hırıldda, darıx, gecik, pisik, yanaş, toqqaş, çaqqış, gücən, hıqqan);

3) Compound: a) hazır ol, daxil et, qəbul elə, yaxşı olar; b) ot otlamaq, su sulamaq, ov ovlamaq; c) vurub-çatmaq, bəzənib-düzənmək, çalib-çapmaq, deyib-gülmək, saralib-solmaq, gəlib-çixmaq, donub qalmaq, gəlib çatmaq, atılıb-düşmək, qurub-yaratmaq; d) atıb-tutmaq, küsüb-barışmaq, oturub-durmaq, ölçüb-biçmək, çalışıb-vuruşmaq.

e) There are in Azerbaijani (fellərin törəmələri) **verbal derivations-suffixes**.

Here belong:

the verbal noun – feli isim (məktəbə getmə, dərsin başlanması, qovurma, dondurma, çığirtma, bozartma, qızdırma, vurma, döymə, qazma, əsaslandırma, həll olunma, idarə etmə, qalma, girmə, təkmilləşdirmə),

the infinitive – məsdər(-maq,-mək),

the participle – feli sifət (danışan, görüləsi, oxuduğum, yazdığım, görünən (kənd), yerinə yetirilən (tapşırıq): “-an, -ən,-miş,-miş,-muş,-müş”; “-ar,-ər”; “-acaq, -əcək”; “-malı,-məli”; “-c(ığım),-dığın, -dığı, -dığımız, -dıqları”,

the adverbial participle – feli bağlama – деепричастие (soyunmadan uzandı, görüb..., gələndə..., böyüyüb..., qalxıb).

Both English and Azerbaijani borrowed suffixes are mainly of Romanic and Greek origins. In English:

a) noun-suffixes of Romanic origin: -ee, -ey, -ess, -let, -ry, -ery, -tion, -ade (blockade), -age (passage), -ence (obedience), -ance (guidance), -ancy (vacancy), -ency (emergency), -ant (merchant), -cy (curacy), -ent (student), -ard (coward), -art (braggart), -ice (service), -in (bulletin), -ion (union), -ence (existence), -ment (amazement), -mony (ceremony), -or (actor), -eur (amateur), -ory (dormitory), -eer (engineer), -o(u)r (behaviour), -tude (attitude), -ty (liberty), -ure (culture), -an (dean), -ate (curate), -at (diplomat), -ian (guardian); of Greek origin: -ic (cleric), -ist (artist), -oid (colloid), -asm (enthusiasm), -ast (gymnast), -ics (physics), -ine (heroine), -y (academy);

b) adjective-suffixes of Romanic origin: -able (eatable), -al (comical), -an (Roman), -ean (European), -ary (contrary), -ese (Japanese), -esque (picturesque), -ic (Celtic), -ine (infantine), -ive (native), -ous (glorious);

c) verb-suffixes of Romanic origin: -ate (graduate), -fy (terrify); of Greek origin: -ize, -ise (organize).

In Azerbaijani **Noun suffixes**

of **Greek** origin: -ad(a) (olimpiada), -id(a) (piramida), -ik (elektrik, sintetik), -iz (analiz), -ez (sintez);

of **Latin** origin: -a (antena, angina, vena, villa), -ium (moratorium, akvarium), -at (advokat, deputat), -iya (akvatoriya, aqlomerasiya, assimilyasiya, dissimilyasiya), -tm (alqoritm), -d (hibrid, absurd), -en (aborigen), -r (litr), -n (rezin, termin);

of **Romanic** origin: -aj (ajiotaj, in English: “agiotage”), -ant (leytenant), -ans (reverans), -at (derivat(iv)), -asiya (informasiya, kommunikasiya, dissertasiya), -ent (student), -er (şofer, sürücü), -iy (moratoriy), -ist (medalist, medalçı), -izm (nihilizm), -on (batalyon), -tor (diktör, avtor), -tur(a) (aspirantura, doktorantura, dissertantura), -us (virus);

of **Arabic and Persian** origin: -ak (kazak, mayak), -an (ataman), -ık (yarlık) and also:

1) Tərkibində yanaşı saıtlər işlənmiş: -aa (saat, maaş), - eə (maneə), -if (zəif), -üa (müalicə, müavin), -əa (səadət), -ai (şair), -əə (təəccüb, təəssüf), -ai (ailə), -əi (zəif), -əa (səadət), -üə (müəllim), -ua (sual), -ii (bədi), -əə (mətbəə);

2) Qoşa “yy” samitli sözlərin hamısı: kəmiyyət, keyfiyyət, şəxsiyyət, ezamiyyət;

3) Uzun tələffüz olunan saıtın işlənməsi: aləm, mənə, elan, xüsusi, səliqə;

4) Təkhəcalı sözlərin sonunda eyni samitlərin işlənməsi: sırr, həll, hiss, xətt, tıbb, hədd;

5) Ahəng qanunu pozulmuş sözlər: aşıq, vəfa, məktub, ticarət, fani, alim, dünya, əlifba;

6) Əvvəlində iki samit yanaşı olan sözlər: kran, flora, traktor, ekskavator, qrafin;

7) “r” samiti ilə başlayan sözlər: rahat, rayon, rəsm, rəfiqə, retro, rezin, ruhani, real, rəssam, rəf, rəndə;

8) “j” samiti olan sözlər: jaket, janr, jilet, jurnal, mesaj, masaj, montaj, əjdaha, müjdə, qaraj; – istisna: qiji, qijilti;

9) “o, ö, e” saıtləri ilə bitən sözlər: büro, retro, metro, depo, kino, piano, təvazö, sənaye, mane, qane, forte;

10) Tərkibində uzun sait işlənmiş (keçmişdə apostrofla yazılan sözlər): şölə, şöbə, tacir, mahir, mənə, zəka, klinika, xəzinə, arif, nadir, etiraf, etibar, və s.

11) Vurğusu son hecaya düşməyən sözlər: ancaq, bayaq, bildir, dünən, necə, sanki, yalnız;

12) Tərkibində “q” samitinin qarşılığı “k” səsi olan sözlərin çoxu: kolxoz, klub, tank, xalq, şəfəq, əxlaq;

13) Fleksiyaya uğrayan (kökü içəridən dəyişən) sözlər: nəsr – nasir – mənsur, şəkil – təşkil – mütəşəkkil;

14) Sonu “-at” şəkilçisi ilə bitən sözlər: məlumat, hesabat, mühasibat, tələbat.

Adjective suffixes of Romanic origin: -al (unikal, universal, radikal).

The correspondence of the suffixes is established due to the source they originate from. The suffixes borrowed from the same source are supposed to establish the reciprocal correspondence. Those which originate from different sources are supposed to establish the onesided correspondence.

The reciprocal correspondence of suffixes in English and Azerbaijani:

a) **Greek** origin, like: -id (pyramid), -ida (piramida), -ada (universiada);

b) **Romanic** origin, like: -ism (Hinduism) and -izm (induizm); -ist (journalist) and -ist (jurnalist); -al (nominal, actual) and -al (nominal, aktual); -ate (nitrate) and -at (nitrat); -tion (information) and -asiya (informasiya); -ent (incident) and -ent (insident, hadisə); -er (rejissor) and -or (director, rektor).

The one-sided correspondence of suffixes in English and Azerbaijani:

a) **Persian** origin, **Germanic** origin, like: -ər (şəkər) and -ar (sugar);

b) **Romanic** origin, **Germanic** origin, like: -ant (desant) and -ing (landing); -er (şofer) and -er (driver);

In the contrasted languages suffixes may also be compared by their meanings, i.e. from the viewpoint of the functions they perform in repatterning the derivational bases of the words.

Considering the onomasiological aspect of comparison, the correspondence between suffixes is established in the aspect of their representing a certain concept. It should be borne in mind that suffixal designation is usually realized in one-to-many correspondence, i.e. a suffix in the source language may have several equivalents in the target one and vice versa.

The list of suffixes in both languages is quite numerous; therefore, we shall focus on those, correlating with some major concepts:

Agent suffixes, like: “-er” (farmer, miner, teacher, singer, milker) – “-er” (fermer), “-çi” (mədənçi, qəzetçi, bələdçi, ticarətçi, təvəqqeçi); “-or” (actor, director) – “-or” (aktyor), “-er” (rejissor); “-ent” (student) – “-ent” (student, tələbə); “-ant” (claimant, merchant, pedant) – “-çi” (iddiaçı, xırdaçı); “-eer” (auctioneer) – “-çi” (hərracçı), there are also such words as: “-əgər” (sövdəgər, tacir), “-fürüş” (məlumatfürüş, bürokrat, xırdaçı), etc.;

Suffixes, denoting abstract notions: “-ness” (goodness), “-ty” (fraternity, cruelty) “-lıq” (yaxşılıq, qardaşlıq, qəddarlıq);

Suffixes, denoting the object of an action (the one to whom the action is done), such as: “-ee” (employee, refugee, trustee, assignee), “-daş” (əməkdaş, qardaş), “-ın” (qaçqın), “-um” (qəyyum, əmanətdar), “-muş” (olunmuş);

Diminutive suffixes, such as: “-et” (eaglet, booklet, kinglet); “-ette” (kitchenette); “-y/-ie” (sissy, birdie, auntie); “-ling” (duckling, firstling, underling); “-ock” (hillock) – bir heyvanın balası or “-cik, -çik” (ərköyüncik, təpəcik);

Gender suffixes (feminine), such as: -ess (actress, tigress, poetess, goddess) and “-isa” (aktrisa, poetesa); “-ə” (şairə, ilahə, rəqqasə), “-ine” (heroine – qadın qəhrəmanı).

The contrastive analysis of suffixes according to their meaning reveals the following types of correspondence in English and Azerbaijani:

a) Totally equivalent suffixes, like: “goatling” – “**bambalaca, cıqqılı, dıqqılı, dinqılı, dimbıllı**” the meaning of “diminutiveness”; “ignorance” – “**cəhalət, nadanlıq, cahillik, nabelədlük, naşılıq, avamlıq**” the meaning of “quality”; “reading” – “**mütaliə, oxu**” the meaning of “act, art of doing”;

b) Partially equivalent suffixes, for example: -ish (greyish) – the meaning of “to some degree; partly; quite” – “**boz, bozarmış kimi**” the meaning of “deficient degree of manifestation (of a feature)”;

c) Non-equivalent suffixes, for instance: “hopeless” – “**ümitsiz, çarəsiz, əlacsız, gümansız**”; “large stone”.

Prefixation underlies the formation of new words with the help of prefixes, the latter being affixes which precede the material (root morpheme) they are added to: “post-” + “war” – “**müharibədən sonrakı**”; “over-” + “expenditure” – “**artıq məsarif, xərc**”.

In English and Azerbaijani, **prefixes**, like the suffixes, may be compared based on their origin (native or borrowed) and meaning. The native prefixes of Germanic origin found in English are: a- (arise), be- (beflag), after- (afternoon), all- (always), by- (byroad), for- (forsay), fore- (forehead), forth- (forthright), in- (insight), mis- (miscarry), off- (offspring), on- (onset), out- (outside), over- (overtake), un- (unable), under- (undertake), up- (upshot), with- (withdraw).

In Azerbaijani we find the **prefixes**

of **Arabic** and **Persian** origin: bi- (bisavad, bimar, bikef, biqərar, biqəm), zi- (ziqiymət, zişərəf, zişüür – “çox” mənasında), na- (namərd, nadinc, nakişi, naxoş, narahat, naşükür, naməlum, naçar, nagüman), la- (laməkan, laqeyd), ba- (baməzə - məzəli), qeyri- (qeyri-etik, qeyri-müəyyən);

of **Indo-European** languages origin: a- (anormal), aero- (aeroport, aerovağzal “hava” mənasında), anti- (antitürk), avto- (avtomobil, avtoqələm), bila- (bilavasitə, bilafərq, bilaixtiyar, bilatəxir), ultra- (ultra-bənövşəyi “olduqca” mənasında), mono- (monoqrafiya “tək” mənasında), poli- (polifonik “çox” mənasında), infra- (infra-qırmızı “aşağı” mənasında), mikro- (mikro-klimat “kiçik” mənasında), makro- (makro-iqtisadi “böyük” mənasında), samo- (samovar).

The correlations between these prefixes are not numerous, “forerunner” – “carçı”; “forefather” – “əcdad”. The borrowed prefixes **in English**:

a) of **Romanic origin**: ab- (abnormal), ad- (admit), ante- (antechamber), bis- (biscuit), bi- (bicarbonate), bin- (binocular), circum- (circumfuse), circu- (circuit), con- (configuration), co- (cooperate), contra- (contradistinction), counter- (counter-attack), de- (degrade), dis- (distract), duo- (duodecimal), ex- (ex-minister), extra- (extraordinary), in- (incapable), il- (illogical), ir- (irregular), en-/em- (enclose), inter- (interlace), intro- (introduce), mis- (mischief), non- (nonsense), op- (oppress), per- (perennial), post- (postpone), pre- (prepare), re- (rewrite), retro- (retrospective), sub- (submarine), super- (supernatural), trans- (transcontinental), ultra- (ultraviolet), vice-/vis- (viscount);

b) of **Greek origin**: a- (atheist), amphi- (amphitheatre), anti- (antithesis), ant- (antarctic), dis- (dissyllable), di- (diphthong), poly- (polyglot), epi- (epical, epicentrum, epigraph, epilogue, episodic, epidemic, epiphyses, epilepsy, epigram, epithet), epo- (eponym, epos, epoch, epepee).

In Azerbaijani:

a) of **Romanic origin**: vitse- (vitse-prezident), de- (demobilizasiya), eks- (eksqumasiya – məzardan çıxartma, eks-prezident), im- (immiqrasiya – köç etmək), in- (inversiya), inter- (intervensiya), kontr- (kontrobanda), re- (rekonstruksiya), sub- (subkultur - yarım), ultra- (ultrabənövşəyi);

b) of **Greek origin**: a- (apatiya), an-/ana- (anabioz), anti- (antiseptik, antisiklon, antistatik, antivirus), anto- (antologiya), epi- (episentri, epiqraf, epiloq, epizodik, epidemiya, epifiz, epilepsiya, epiqram, epitet), epo- (epos, epoxa, epopeya).

The reciprocal correspondence of prefixes in English and Azerbaijani:

a) Greek origin, such as: anti- (antiseptics) – anti- (antiseptik); a- (apathy) – a- (apatiya);

b) Romanic origin, such as: vice- (vice-president) - vitse- (vitse-prezident); ex- (ex-champion) – eks- (eks-çempion); im- (immigration) - im- (immiqrasiya).

The one-sided correspondence of prefixes in English and Azerbaijani:

a) Romanic origin and Germanic origin, such as: sub- (subarenda) – under- (under-lease);

b) Romanic origin and Slavic origin, like: re- (reanimation, resuscitation) – re- (reanimasiya); sub- (subspecies) – yarım- (yarımnöv); ab- (abnormal) – a- (anormal, qeyri-təbii).

Considering the onomasiological aspect of comparison the prefixes in English are used to denote:

Closeness, proximity, such as: “con-” – “constellation”; “ad-” – “admixture”;

Priority, such as: “fore-” – “foreword, forerunner”; “ante-” – “antechamber”; “pre-” – “pre-war”;

Negation and **opposition**, such as: “non-” – “non-believer”; “in-” – “incapable”; “counter-” – “counterattack”; “anti-” – “antipersonnel”; “dis-” – “disconnect”;

Failure, such as: “mis-” – “miscount”.

The analysis of prefixes according to their meaning reveals the following types:

- a) Totally equivalent prefixes, like: “foresee” – the meaning of “before”; “intergalactic” – the meaning of “between”; “sub-species” – the meaning of “a smaller part of a larger whole”;
- b) Partially equivalent prefixes, like: “op-” – “opponent” – the meaning of “against”; “sub-” – “subarctic” – the meaning of “below”;
- c) Non-equivalent prefixes, like: “boundless; floor”.

Thus, **Word-Derivation: affixation, prefixation, suffixation, conversion.**

Affixation is the creation of a word by modifying its root with an affix. It is a very productive type of word formation. In conformity with the division of derivational affixes into suffixes and prefixes affixation is subdivided into suffixation and prefixation. A careful study of a great many suffixal and prefixal derivatives has revealed an essential difference between them.

First of all in modern English suffixation is characteristic of noun and adjective formation. Prefixation is typical of verb formation. Prefixes modify the lexical meaning of stems to which they are added. A prefixal derivative usually joins the part of speech the unprefixated word belongs to, for example: “definite – indefinite”; “convenient – inconvenient”.

In a suffixal derivative the suffix does not only modify the lexical meaning of the stem it is affixed to, but the word itself is usually transferred to another part of

speech, for example: “care” (noun) – “careless” (adjective), “good” (adjective) – “goodness” (noun).

A suffix closely knit together with a stem forms a fusion retaining less of its independence than a prefix which is, as a general rule, more independent semantically, for example: “writing” – “əl yazma” - the act of one who writes; the ability to write; to “rewrite” - to write again.

In the English language there prevails either suffixation or prefixation, in the Azerbaijani language they can be used in the same word. English suffixes usually transfer a word from one part of speech into another, Azerbaijani affixes never do it. Thus, it is generally defined as the formation of words by adding derivational affixes to different types of basis. Affixation is the development of the vocabulary. They have different sources of origin.

Some of them are native “-hood, -ly, -less, -some”, some are Greek “anti-”, “ex-”, “un-”, some are Latin “sub-“, “dis-“, “com-“, “inter-“, some are French “-ment”, “-ance”, “-age””. Many affixes were once separate words, such as: “-dom” in the meaning of “sentence, judgement”, “-hood” in the meaning of “state, condition”, “-ship” in the meaning of “shape”, etc.

The most ancient affixes were derived from Old English. They are of Germanic origin. Affixes which are added to the end of the words are mostly native Azerbaijani suffixes and the suffixes which have been borrowed from the foreign languages.

As a rule, affixation is subdivided into suffixation, prefixation and infixation. We should distinguish productive suffixes, suffixes of narrow usage, non-productive and dead suffixes.

Prefixation. Derivational morphemes affixed before the stem are called prefixes. They modify the lexical meaning of the stem, but in doing so they seldom affect its basic lexico-grammatical component. Unlike suffixation, which is usually

bound up with a paradigm of a certain part of speech, prefixation is considered to be neutral in this respect. The only exceptions are the prefixes “be-, en-, a-, pre-, post-”, for example: little (adjective) - belittle (verb); friend (noun) - befriend (verb); able (adjective) - enable (verb); courage (noun) - encourage (verb); sleep (noun) - asleep (word of the category of state); foot (noun) - afoot (adverb); war (noun) - prewar (adjective); war (noun) - postwar (adjective).

But usually prefixes do not change a part of speech.

There are 51 prefixes in the Modern English word-building. The greatest number are verbs - 42 per cent, adjectives comprise 33,5 per cent, nouns make up 22 per cent. As a rule prefixes do not change the part of speech of the word to which they are added. They modify the lexical meaning of the stem. Therefore both the simple word and its prefixed derivative mostly belong to the same part of speech. But there are two prefixes in English which change the part of speech of words to which they are added. For instance: “en-” = large – enlarge, rich – enrich; “be-” = little – belittle.

There are two types of prefixes:

- 1) those correlated with independent word: un-, dis-, re-, pre-, etc.
- 2) those correlated with functional word (prepositions and prepositions like adverbs): out-, over-, up-, under-, etc.

The second type of prefixes are qualified as semibound morphemes. They occur in speech both as independent words and as derivational affixes, for example: to look up (independent) – upstairs (semibound morpheme); over the table (independent) – overshoe (semibound).

Prefixes originated from notional words, which in the course of time lost their independent meanings and became prefixes, for instance: “re-” (Lat. Adv.) - once again or back; “under-” (OE Adv., Prep.) - under; “fore-” (OE Adv., Prep) - foresee.

Nowadays this process continues. In Modern English there exist the so-called semi-prefixes - words which are losing their meanings, for instance: “stone-blind, stone-deaf, ill-tempered, ill-fated”.

The Classification of Prefixes. Prefixes can be classified from the point of view of their meanings. Among them we can single out prefixes of the negative meaning, like: “un-, in-, dis-, mis-”, for example: comfortable - uncomfortable, convenient - inconvenient, satisfied - dissatisfied, understand - misunderstand.

Prefixes denoting reversal or repetition of an action: “un-, dis-, re-”, for example: lock - unlock, regard - disregard, consider – reconsider.

In the English language this prefix corresponds to the suffix -less: “defenceless”. In the Azerbaijani language the prefixes “de-, dis-, a-” are used as parts of borrowed words and they are unproductive: “desentralizasiya, disbalans, asimetric”.

Prefixes denoting space and time relations: “fore-, pre-, post-, over-, super-”, for instance: “tell - foretell, war - prewar, war - postwar, spread - overspread, structure – superstructure”.

Prefixes can be international: “anti-” – “antifascist”; “counter-” – “countermarch”; “sub-” – “submarine”.

Some prefixes can have a semantic identity only, but no linguistic similarity, for example: “foresee” – “предвидеть”; “extranatural” – “ekstranatural”.

There can be semantically alien prefixes pertaining to one of the contrasted languages: “de-” – “decamp”; “mis-” – “misstate”.

Suffixation is the formation of words with the help of suffixes. Suffixes usually modify the lexical meaning of stems and transfer words to a different part of speech. There are suffixes, however, which do not shift words from one part of speech into another. A suffix of this kind usually transfers a word into a different

semantic group, for example, a concrete noun becomes an abstract one: “child – childhood”.

Productive suffixes and **suffixes of narrow usage** are used at the given stage of the development of the language and can be used when occasion demands.

Some scientists' distinction is usually made between **dead** and **living suffixes**. Dead suffixes are described as those which are no longer left in Modern English as the component parts of words: “-d” = dead, seed; “-le” = bundle; “-l” = sail; “-el” = havel; “-ock” = hillock; “-t” = flight; “-ie” = birdie, etc.

Living suffixes may be easily singled out from a word: “-ness”, “-hood”, “-age”, etc.

Some suffixes usually transfer a word into a different semantic group, for example, a concrete noun becomes an abstract one, as: “child – childhood, friend – friendship”, etc.

Chains of suffixes are called as compound suffixes: “-ably” = -able + ly (profitably, unreasonably); “-ically” + -ic + -al + -ly (musically, critically); “-ation” = -ate = -tion (formation, information),

In Azerbaijani: -ıçılıq=ıçı+lıq, ıçılıq=ıçı+lıq “sağıcılıq, güzərançılıq, yazıçılıq”, etc.

Classification of Suffixes. There are different classifications of suffixes in linguistic literature. The first principle of the classification is the part of speech formed: noun-forming suffixes; adjective -forming suffixes; verb-forming suffixes; adverb-forming suffixes; numeral-forming suffixes.

Suffixes can be classified according to their ability to form a new part of speech, to their origin, productivity.

Noun-forming suffixes: “-er” – “teacher, worker”; “-ing” – “living, reading”; “-ness” – “kindness, tenderness”.

These suffixes are productive, such as: “-age” – “voyage, courage”; “-ard” – “coward, drunkard”; “-ment” – “agreement, employment”; “-th” – “strength, length”. These suffixes are non-productive.

Adjective-forming suffixes: -able (movable, readable); -ful (powerful, delightful); -ish (whitish, bookish); -less (useless, hopeless); -y (noisy, sunny).

These are productive suffixes: -en (golden, woollen) - non-productive.

Some suffixes are homonymous. For example, the suffix “ful-” can form adjectives and nouns: “careful” (adjective) – “handful” (noun).

Numeral-forming suffixes: “-teen” – “thirteen, fifteen”; “-ty” – “sixty, seventy”; “-th” – “seventh, eighth”. These are non-productive suffixes.

Pronoun-forming suffixes: “-s” – “ours, yours”. The suffix is non-productive.

Verb-forming suffixes: “-ate” – “complicate, navigate”; “-en” – “darken, strengthen”; “-fy” – “signify, simplify”; “-ute” – “attribute, execute”. These suffixes are non-productive.

Adverb-forming suffixes: “-ly” – “quickly, lately”; “-long” – “sidelong, headlong”; “-ward(s)” – “forward, toward(s)”; “-ways”, “-wise” – “clockwise, otherwise, crabways”. Of all these suffixes only the suffix: “-ly” is productive.

From the point of view of semantics suffixes can be classified in the following way:

1) Agent suffixes: “-ist” – “journalist”, “artist”; “-ar” – “scholar”; “-ier” – “cashier”;

2) Suffixes denoting abstract notions: “-ism” – “socialism”; “-tion” – “demonstration”; “-dom” – “kingdom”; “-hood” – “brotherhood”.

3) Evaluative suffixes: “-ette” – “kitchenette”; “-y”/ “-ie”/ “-ey” – “sissy”; “-ling” – “duckling”. In English the suffixes “-ie” / “-ey”, “-ette” are productive.

4) Gender / sex expressing suffixes. English gender suffixes are only sex expressing suffix, such as: “-ess” – “stewardess”, “waitress”, “hostess”, “topless”, “actress”; there are not in Azerbaijani.

5) International suffixes: “-er” / “-or” – “conductor”; “-ist” “socialist”; “-tion” – “revolution”; “-able” – “readable”.

In both languages there are semi-affixes. In English these are the elements: “loadsa-, friendly, -something”.

Suffixation-and-Prefixation is the formation of new words by means of both prefixes and suffixes, like: in-sensibil-e – his-siz, duyğu-suz, qeyri-məntiqi, possibility – mümkün-at, mümkün-lük.

There are three varieties of this phenomenon in English. They are based on a number of prefixes or suffixes, constituting the derivational pattern of the contrasted words:

- a) Prefix + root morpheme + suffix, such as: “un-employ-ment”;
- b) Two or more prefixes + root morpheme + suffix, like: “re-in-carnation”;
- c) Prefix + root morpheme + two or more suffixes, like: “pro-portionate-ly”.

Compounding, or word-composition underlies the formation of new words by combining two or more existing words. Compound words in English and Azerbaijani may be compared on the basis of their structure and semantics. Structurally, compounds are considered within their immediate constituents (ICs).

Composition can be defined as the formation of a lexical unit out of two or more stems, usually the first differentiating, modifying or qualifying and the second identifying. The last element expresses a general meaning, whereas the prefixed element renders it less generally. Any compound word has at least two semantic centres but they are never equal in their semantic value. Thus a compound word is characterised by both structural and semantic unity. It makes

them function in a sentence as a separate lexical unit.

Compound words are unusually graphic. They often come into existence by popular demand. They are formed simply by combining two words that are in current usage.

There are two major types of compound words according to the structure of their immediate constituents in English and Azerbaijani:

a) Compounds proper, formed by ICs, occurring in language as free forms, such as: “ear-pick” – “qulaqtəmizləyən”, “ağır çəkili pəhləvan” – “heavy-weight”;

b) Derivational compounds, formed by a (derivational) suffix added to a phrase, the second component not occurring as a free form, like: honey-mouthed > (noun) “honey” + (noun) “mouth” + “-ed” and şirindilli > (noun) “şirin” + (noun) “dil” + “-li”.

However, sometimes derivational compounds in Azerbaijani may have no derivational suffix. In this case, the onomasiological base is determined grammatically, i.e. by a compound belonging to a certain part of speech, like: broad-shouldered > (adjective “broad” + noun “shoulders”) + “-ed” – the onomasiological base is set by a suffix, and enlikürəkli > (adjective “enli” + noun “kürək”) + “-li” – the onomasiological base is set by the adjectival paradigm. Both compounds proper and derivational compounds’ structures may be considered within their ICs links.

Compounds in both languages may be linked:

a) By juxtaposition, such as: dining-car – yemək-avtomobili; uzun sırğa – ear-drop; major-general – general-mayor;

b) Morphologically (with a linking element), like: black-a-vised – qarabuğdayı; Çin-Tibet – Sino-Tibetan;

c) Syntactically: whole phrases with prepositions or conjunctions, like: Frankfurt-on-the-Main – Frankfurt-Mayn üzərində; dövədabanı – coltsfoot.

From the viewpoint of semantics compound words in English and Azerbaijani are compared on the basis of correlations of the compounds' meanings and the meanings of their ICs.

If the meaning of a compound is inferred from the meanings of its ICs, it is a case of non-idiomatic compounds, such as: snow-white “white as snow” – qar kimi ağ; mavigözlü, alagözlü – blue-eyed “having blue eyes”.

If the meaning of a compound is not inferred from the meanings of its ICs, then it is a case of idiomatic compounds, like: greenhorn “an inexperienced or unsophisticated person” – sūdəmər “gənc, təcrübəsiz şəxs haqqında”; arvadbaz “qadınların dalınca qaçan” – lady-killer “a man who captivates women”.

Compounds in English and Azerbaijani can also be differentiated on the basis of their meaning, being identified with one of its ICs. Depending on an immediate constituent being or not being the head (the element which determines the nature of a lexical item) of a compound, endocentric and exocentric compounds are singled out.

The endocentric compound denotes a particular type of what is denoted by its head, such as: “dark-yellow” – “tünd-sarı” – it is the type of the yellow colour; “rəssam-dekurator” – “scene-painter” – it is the type of a painter.

The exocentric compound, or headless compound is a type of a compound word in which neither element is a head, like: blackshirt “a member of a fascist organization having a black shirt as a distinctive part of its uniform”; red-eye “a European fish, the rudd, *Leuciscus erythrophthalmus*”.

Compounds that denote a human being or creature by a conspicuous feature or features that are expressed by a compound's ICs are called **bahuvrihi**, form Sanscrit having much rice, “bahú” - much' + “vrīhí” - rice.

Thus, the process of forming a new word by combining two or more words is known as word-composition which occurs in the language as free forms.

A compound word forms a single idea, but the merging of two parts is not always complete and it is not always possible to differ compound words from syntactical groups. For instance:

A strong-box = a compound word in the meaning of “seyf”;

A strong box = syntactical group in the meaning of “möhkəm qutu”.

There are three types of compound words:

- Compound words with the solid representation: “spacecraft, hardtop”.
- Hyphenated compound words: “sit-in, freeze-dry”.
- Compound words represented by a phrase: “cold war, free flight”.

Compound words can be further classified: from the functional point of view, from the point of view of the way the components of the compounds are linked together, from the point of view of different ways of composition.

Functionally compounds are viewed as words belonging to different parts of speech. The bulk of modern English compounds belong to nouns and adjectives: “hot-dog, slow-coach, worldold”. Adverbs and connectives are represented by an insignificant number of words: outside. Composition in verbs is not productive either: “to rough-house, to backbite”.

In the English language compound words can be graded according to frequency in the following way: nouns - adjectives - verbs. In the Azerbaijani language the scheme will be the following; adjectives - nouns - verbs.

According to the type of relationship between the components compound words can be coordinative and subordinative.

Coordinative are the compounds in which neither of the components

dominates the other, both are structurally and semantically independent: “secretary-stenographer, actor-manager”. The constituent stems belong to the same part of speech. They are divided into three groups: additive, reduplicative and those formed by joining the phonetically varied rhythmic forms.

Additive compounds denote a person or an object that is two things at the same time: actor-manager is an actor and a manager at the same time.

Reduplicative compounds are the result of the repetition of the same stem: fifty-fifty, tick-tick.

Compounds which are formed by joining the phonetically varied rhythmic forms of the same stem are: drip-drop, ding-dong, helter-skelter.

Coordinative compounds of the last two groups are mostly restricted to the colloquial layer and are characterised by a heavy emotive charge.

Subordinative compounds are the words in which the components are not equal either semantically or structurally. The second component is the structural centre, the grammatically dominant part of the word, which imparts its part-of-speech meaning to the whole word: stone-deaf, age-long, wrist-watch, baby-sitter.

According to the order of components subordinative compounds are divided into syntactic and asyntactic.

Syntactic are the words the components of which are placed in the order of words in free phrases: bluebell, slow-coach, know-nothing.

Asyntactic are the words whose stems are not placed in the order that resembles the order of words in a free phrase: red-hot, tear-stained, oil-rich.

According to the degree of motivation compound words can be motivated, partially motivated and non-motivated.

Motivated compounds are those whose meanings are the sum of meanings of their components: blackboard, classroom. Partially motivated compounds are those

in which one of the components has changed its meaning: chatter-box, lady-killer. Non-motivated compounds are those in which neither of the elements preserves its meaning: ladybird, tallboy.

Structurally compounds can be classified into neutral, morphological and syntactic.

Neutral compounds that are formed without any linking elements are called simple neutral: sun-flower, shop-window. Neutral-derived compounds are formed by means of some affix: blue-eyed, new-comer. Neutral contracted compounds are those in which one of the parts is contracted: TV-set, V-day. Morphological compounds are formed by means of some linking element: Anglo-Saxon, spokesman, handicraft. Syntactic compounds are formed from segments of speech: Jack-of-all-trades, pick-me-up, go-between, Jack-in-the-box, stay-at-home.

It should be mentioned that among compound words the group of bahuvrihi is pointed out. The term “bahuvrihi” is borrowed from the grammarians of ancient India. Its literal meaning is “much-riced”. These are the compounds consisting of A+N stems and naming a thing metonymically: “big wig, green-horn, lazy-bones”. Semantically the bahuvrihi are almost invariably characterised by a depreciative, ironical, emotional tone.

In the English language there are many words which were compounds though just now they are not treated as such: window (vind + auga), daisy (day’s eye), always (all+way+s), woman (wif+man), breakfast (break+fast). Such compounds are called hidden or disguised.

Compound Words and Free Phrases. There are two important peculiarities distinguishing compounds in English from free phrases. Firstly, both Ics of the English and Azerbaijani compounds are free forms, i.e. they can be used as independent words with a distinct meaning of their own.

As the English and Azerbaijani compounds consist of free forms, it is difficult

to distinguish them from phrases.

Separating compounds from phrases and also from derivatives is no easy task, for example: “starlit” – “ulduzlu” = “star” + “light” (lit) cannot be a phrase because its second element is the stem of a participle “-lit”, and a participle cannot be syntactically modified by a noun.

Differences of Compound Words and Phraseology.

3. It is impossible to insert any word between compound words: blackboard, wastepaper; but in phraseological units it is possible: to break one’s heart = to break his kind heart (ph. Un.), but “heart-break” (CW);

In Azerbaijani: qəlbi sınmaq (ph. Un.), qəlbisınıq (CW);

4. As compound words belong to the concrete meaning, they have no other variant; but phraseological units sometimes have their variants. For example:

to keep level head = to keep cool / cold head (təmkinini saxlamaq);

touch the wood = touch the soft/hard wood (göz dəyməsin), etc.

There are various grammatical types of compound words: they are compound nouns, compound adjectives, compound verbs, compound adverbs and compound pronouns.

In English there are the following types of **compound nouns**:

1) The stem of a noun preceded by the stem of another noun, such as: steamship, fountain-pen, etc.

2) The stem of a noun preceded by the stem of an adjective, such as: sweetheart.

Compound nouns in Azerbaijani are follows: Hüseynqulu, Rəcəbəli, Gülbahar, Məmmədhüseyn, Şah İsmayıl, Sultanəli, Molla Nəsrəddin, Xanımbacı, Məhsəti xanım, Ağabacı, Fətəli xan, ağacdələ, taxılbiçən, ayaqqabı, quzuqulağı, dəvədabanı, etc.

In English the most common ways forming compound adjectives are the followings: skyblue, coalblack, etc.

In Azerbaijani compound adjectives are divided into two groups:

a) By the repetition of the adjectives: balaca-balaca (uşaqlar), uzun-uzun (yollar), etc.

b) By the repetition of two synonymous adjectives derived from nouns: güllü-çiçəkli (bağçalar).

There are few **compound verbs** in English. They are: to fulfill, to broadcast, to waylay, etc.

In Azerbaijani compound verbs are: göz qoymaq, baş çıxarmaq, əldən düşmək, dildən düşmək, yoldan çıxmaq, etc.

Composite verbs are: to go: to go in, to go away, to go out, to go down, to go up, to go by, to go round.

Conversion or **zero-derivation** is a type of word-formation in which the word is shifted from one part of speech onto another without any morphological additions or changes. It is the word's paradigm that changes.

The absence of forms characterizing the parts of speech make it possible to form one part of speech from another where the form of the word itself is a word-building element. This way of forming new words is called **conversion**.

It is variously called conversion, zero derivation, root formation or functional change. The essence of the phenomenon may be illustrated by the following example: "His voice silenced everyone else".

The word "silence" exists in the English language as a noun, and a verb may be formed from the same stem without adding any suffix or prefix or without changing the stem in any other way, so that both basic forms are homonymous.

In English:	In Azerbaijani:
Eye – to eye	ov – ovlamaq
Water – to water	su – sulamaq
Empty – to empty	boş – boşaltmaq
Clean – to clean	təmiz – təmizləmək

In Azerbaijani each word has a special form to indicate its part of speech. But there are some cases which are exceptions to this rule. For example: “Yaxşı tələbə yaxşı oxuyar”. Here the first word “yaxşı” is an adjective, but the second word “yaxşı” is an adverb.

In Azerbaijani such kind of word building is called as **substantivləşmə**, **verballaşma**, **adyektivləşmə**, **adverbiallaşma** and so on. For example: “*Oxuyan* bülbüldür, *dinləyən* qazdır, *Qırmızı* yaxşı rəngdir”.

Conversion (zero derivation, root formation, functional change) is the process of coining a new word in a different part of speech and with different distribution characteristics but without adding any derivative element, so that the basic form of the original and the basic form of derived words is homonymous. This phenomenon can be illustrated by the following cases: “work - to work, love - to love, water - to water”.

If we regard these words from the angle of their morphemic structure, we see that they are root words. On the derivational level, however, one of them should be referred to a derived word, as having the same root morpheme they belong to different parts of speech. Consequently the question arises here: “What serves as the word-building means in such cases?”

It would appear that the noun is formed from the verb or vice versa without any morphological change, but if we probe deeper into the matter, we inevitably come to the conclusion that the two words differ only in the paradigm. Thus, it is

the paradigm that is used as a word-building means. Hence, we can define conversion as the formation of a new word through changes in its paradigm.

The change of the paradigm is the only word-building means of conversion. As the paradigm is a morphological category, conversion can be described as a morphological way of forming words.

As a type of word-formation conversion exists in many languages. What is specific for the English vocabulary is not its mere presence, but its intense development.

The main reason for the widespread development of conversion in present-day English is no doubt the absence of morphological elements serving as classifying signals, or, in other words, of formal signs marking the part of speech to which the word belongs. The fact that the sound pattern does not show to what part of speech the word belongs may be illustrated by the word *back*. It may be a noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb.

Many affixes are homonymous and therefore the general sound pattern does not contain any information as to the possible part of speech, for example: “maiden” (noun), “darken” (verb), “woollen” (adjective), “often” (adverb).

O. Jespersen points out that the causes that made conversion so widely spread are to be approached diachronically. The noun and verb have become identical in form firstly as a result of the loss of endings. More rarely it is the prefix that is lost (*mind* < *gemynd*). When endings had disappeared phonetical development resulted in the merging of sound forms for both elements of these pairs, for example: OE “*carian*” (verb) and “*caru*” (noun) merged into “*care*” (verb, noun); OE “*drinkan*” (verb) and “*drinca*”, “*drinc*” (noun) merged into “*drink*” (verb, noun).

A similar homonymy resulted in the borrowing from French of pairs of words of the same root but belonging in French to different parts of speech. These words lost their affixes and became phonetically identical in the process of assimilation.

A. Smirnitsky is of the opinion that on a synchronic level there is no difference in correlation between such cases as listed above, i.e. words originally differentiated by affixes and later becoming homonymous after the loss of endings (sleep - noun :: sleep - verb) and those formed by conversion (pencil - noun :: pencil - verb).

I. Arnold is of the opinion that A.I. Smirnitsky is mistaken. His mistake is in the wish to call both cases conversion, which is illogical if he, or any of his followers, accepts the definition of conversion as a word-building process which implies the diachronistic approach. I. Arnold states that synchronically both types sleep (noun) - sleep (verb) and pencil (noun) - pencil (verb) must be treated together as cases of patterned homonymy. But it is essential to differentiate the cases of conversion and treat them separately when the study is diachronistic.

Conversion has been the subject of a great many discussions since 1891 when H. Sweet first used the term in his *New English Grammar*. Various opinions have been expressed on the nature and character of conversion in the English language and different conceptions have been put forward.

The treatment of conversion as a morphological way of forming words was suggested by A.I. Smirnitsky and accepted by R.Z. Ginzburg, S.S. Khidekel, G.Y. Knyazeva, A.A. Sankin.

Other linguists sharing, on the whole, the conception of conversion as a morphological way of forming words disagree, however, as to what serves here as a word-building means. Some of them define conversion as a non-affixal way of forming words pointing out that its characteristic feature is that a certain stem is used for the formation of a categorically different word without a derivational affix being added (I.R. Galperin, Y.B. Cherkasskaya).

Others hold the view that conversion is the formation of new words with the help of a zero-morpheme (H. Marchand).

There is also a point of view on conversion as a morphological-syntactic word-building means (Y.A.Zhluktenko), for it involves, as the linguists sharing this conception maintains, both a change of the paradigm and of the syntactic function of the word, for instance: “I need some paper for my room :: He is papering his room”.

Besides, there is also a purely syntactic approach commonly known as a functional approach to conversion. In Great Britain and the United States of America linguists are inclined to regard conversion as a kind of functional change. They define conversion as a shift from one part of speech to another contending that in modern English a word may function as two different parts of speech at the same time.

The two categories of parts of speech especially affected by conversion are the noun and the verb.

Verbs made from nouns are the most numerous among the words produced by conversion, for instance: “to hand, to face, to nose, to dog, to blackmail”.

Nouns are frequently made from verbs: “catch, cut, walk, move, go”.

Verbs can also be made from adjectives: “to pale, to yellow, to cool”.

A word made by conversion has a different meaning from that of the word from which it was made though the two meanings can be associated. There are certain regularities in these associations which can be roughly classified. In the group of verbs made from nouns some regular semantic associations are the following:

- A noun is a name of a tool - a verb denotes an action performed by the tool: “to knife, to brush”.

- A noun is a name of an animal - a verb denotes an action or aspect of behaviour typical of the animal: “monkey - to monkey, snake - to snake”. Yet, to

fish does not mean to behave like a “fish” but “to try to catch fish”.

- A noun denotes a part of a human body - a verb denotes an action performed by it: “hand - to hand, shoulder - to shoulder”. However, to face does not imply doing something by or even with one’s face but turning it in a certain direction.

- A noun is a name of some profession or occupation - a verb denotes an activity typical of it: “a butcher - to butcher, a father - to father”.

- A noun is a name of a place - a verb denotes the process of occupying this place or putting something into it: “a bed - to bed, a corner - to corner”.

- A noun is the name of a container - a verb denotes an act of putting something within the container: “a can - to can, a bottle - to bottle”.

- A noun is the name of a meal - a verb denotes the process of taking it: “supper - to supper, lunch - to lunch”.

The suggested groups do not include all the great variety of verbs made from nouns by conversion. They just represent the most obvious cases and illustrate the great variety of semantic interrelations within the so-called converted pairs and the complex nature of the logical associations which underlie them.

In actual fact, these associations are more complex and sometimes even perplexing.

Thus, we distinguish several **types of conversion**.

Partial conversion is a kind of a double process when first a noun is formed by conversion from a verbal stem and next this noun is combined with such verbs as “to give, to make, to take” to form a separate phrase: “to have a look, to take a swim, to give a whistle”.

There is a great number of idiomatic prepositional phrases as well: “to be in the know, in the long run, to get into a scrape”. Sometimes the elements of these expressions have a fixed grammatical form, as, for example, where the noun is

always plural: “It gives me the creeps” (jumps).

In other cases the grammatical forms are free to change.

Reconversion is the phenomenon when one of the meanings of the converted word is a source for a new meaning of the same stem: cable (kabel) - to cable (kabel qurmaq) – cable (kəndir; kanat); help (kömək, yardım, imdad) - to help (kömək etmək) - help (köməkçi), deal (sövdə, düzəlişmə) - to deal (bəhs etmək, divan tutmaq, hesablaşmaq, məşğul olmaq) - deal (məşğul).

Substantivation can also be considered as a type of conversion. Complete substantivation is a kind of substantivation when the whole paradigm of a noun is acquired: “a private - the private - privates - the privates”. Alongside with complete substantivation there exists partial substantivation when a feature or several features of a paradigm of a noun are acquired: “the rich”.

Besides the substantivized adjectives denoting human beings there is a considerable group of abstract nouns: the Singular, the Present. It is thus evident that substantivation has been the object of much controversy. Those who do not accept substantivation of adjectives as a type of conversion consider conversion as a process limited to the formation of verbs from nouns and nouns from verbs. But this point of view is far from being universally accepted.

Thus, conversion is a very productive way of word-formation in English. Widely distributed patterns of conversion in English are: noun > verb (a chairman > to chairman), verb > noun (to look > a look), noun > adjective (Azerbaijan > Azerbaijani; gözəl > gözəl; kifir > kifir), noun > adjective (maiden > maiden), adverb > verb (down > to down).

In Azerbaijani very close to conversion is substantivization – the process in which adjectives (or participles) acquire the paradigm and syntactic functions of nouns, such as: kifir (adjective): “Kifir oğlan məclisə daxil oldu” > kifir (noun): “Kifir gəldi”.

In English it is so: (adjective): “A wounded soldier was carried away from the battle zone with blood streaming from his head” > wounded (noun): “There was a temporary ceasefire to evacuate the wounded”.

It should be borne in mind that substantivization from other parts of speech in Azerbaijani is often collocationally and grammatically restricted, like: adverbs: “Bu tədbir gözəl keçirildi”, functional words and interjections: “Gözəl!”, syntactical constructions.

Abbreviation, or initial shortening is a brief way of writing a word or a phrase that could also be written out in full, using only the letters of the alphabet and possibly full stops. In English and Azerbaijani, this type of word-formation is very productive, such as: Prof. for “Professor”; e.g. - for “for example” – məs. for “məsələn”; VAT for “value-added tax” – ƏDV for “əlavə dəyər vergisi”.

It should be pointed out that the so-called **compound abbreviations**, which are sometimes referred to as contracted compounds, are salience (characteristic) of English, like: V-type “cuneiform” – “клиноподобный”; L-square; D-day – “day of operation beginning”.

The term “abbreviation” is extended to include acronyms and initialisms. **Acronym** is a word, constructed by combining the initial letters of the principle words in a phrase to produce something which can be pronounced as a word and which has the same meaning as the original phrase, like: AIDS [eidz] - QİÇS; NATO [ˈneitou] (North Atlantic Treaty Organization) – NATO (Şimali Atlantika Müqaviləsi Təşkilatı); UNO [ˈju:nou] – BMT.

Initialism is a word, constructed by taking the initial letters in a phrase, producing something which cannot be pronounced as a word, but must be spelled out letter by letter, like: FBI (Federal Bureau of Investigation) – FTB (Federal Təhqiqat Bürosu); IMF (International Monetary Fund) – BVF (Beynəlxalq Valyuta Fondu); in Azerbaijan MTN (Milli Təhlükəsizlik Nazirliyi) – MNS (Ministry of

National Security); ÜMM (Ümumi Milli Məhsul) – GNP (Gross National Product).

The contrastive analysis reveals some incongruence between these types of abbreviation in English and Azerbaijani, such as: ABŞ (acronym) – USA (initialism); SDI (Snappy Driver Installer) (initialism) – SSQ (acronym).

Word-building processes involve not only qualitative but also quantitative changes.

Shortening is one of the ways of word-formation in which part of the original word is taken away. Newly shortened words appear continuously. They are neologisms: demo-demonstration, telly-television, ltd-limited, biz-business, bus-omnibus, etc.

The reasons why words are shortened are different. Sometimes it is done for the sake of economy. For ex.: the shortened word “ad” requires less place or time than the word “advertisement”. Many borrowings are shortened in Modern English, and they have got new meanings. Such as the French word “despote” which means “əyləncə, əyləndirmə, əyləndirilmə” is shortened in English as “sport” and has the meaning of “idman”.

Among shortenings distinction should be made between lexical abbreviations and clippings. Lexical abbreviations are formed by a simultaneous operation of shortening and compounding. Distinction should be made between shortening of words in written speech and in the sphere of oral intercourse. Shortening of words in written speech results in graphical abbreviations which are, in fact, signs representing words and word groups of high frequency in various spheres of human activity: RD for road, St for street on envelopes. English graphical abbreviations include rather numerous shortened variants of Latin and French words and word groups: a.m. (Lat. ante meridiem) - in the morning, before noon; p.m. (Lat. post meridiem) - in the afternoon; i.e. (Lat. id est) - that is.

The characteristic feature of graphical abbreviations is that they are restricted in use to written speech, occurring only in various kinds of texts, articles, books. In reading many of them are substituted by the words and phrases that they represent: Mr (Mister), Oct. (October). It is natural that some graphical abbreviations should gradually penetrate into the sphere of oral intercourse: SOS (Save our Souls), MP (Member of Parliament).

The words formed from the initial letters of each of the successive or major parts of a compound term are called acronyms: the USA (United States of America), the NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organisation), WASP (Women's Air Force Service Pilots). They are used as words and if an abbreviation that has a wide currency is inconvenient for articulation, it is sometimes altered: W.R.N.S. (Women's Royal Naval Service) was difficult to pronounce, so it was changed to WRENS.

There are two possible ways of reading acronyms in the English language. If the abbreviated written form can be read as though it were an ordinary English word it will be read like one: the NATO, the UNESCO, the UNO. The second way of reading acronyms is reading according to the ABC: BBC (the British Broadcasting Corporation), G.I. (Government Issue).

The second group of shortened words is represented by clippings. Clipping consists in the cutting off of one of several syllables of the word. It can be of three types: aphaeresis, syncope, apocope.

Aphaeresis is the omission of the initial part of the word. In many cases the shortened word differs from its source only stylistically: telephone - phone, omnibus - bus. Sometimes, however, the shortened word is somewhat modified in meaning or even altered: acute (sharp) - cute (pretty, clever), espy (see at a distance) - spy (to try to get secret information).

Some words owe their historical development to aphaeresis as, for instance, down from a down, which in its turn developed from the Anglo-Saxon of dune

(from the hill, from the down).

Many first names were shortened the aphaeresis way: Bess (Elisabeth), Becky (Rebecca) etc.

Syncope is the omission of an unstressed middle syllable: fantasy - fancy, courtesy - curtsy. Syncopated words used to be popular with poets (e'en - even, ne'er - never) because of purely rhythmical considerations. Modern poetry seldom if ever resorts to syncope. There are some graphical abbreviations of this type: Mr, Mrs, LP.

Apocope is the omission of the final part of the word. It is the most productive type of shortening. It is mostly through apocope that stylistic synonyms are coined. It is the colloquial layer that profits from apocope: gym (gymnasium), specs (spectacles), croc (crocodile). Proper names are also apocoped: Nick (Nicholas), Ed (Edward). There are some words that are seldom if ever used in their unapocoped form, such as: "pub" for "public house", "brig" for "brigantine".

Apocope and syncope are not characteristic of the Azerbaijani language. Though apocope is used in Azerbaijani slang: "univer, labi". Apocope is often used with compounding: "prokuratura, doktorantura". There are not so many words of this type in English: Internet, Eurobank.

Cases of a combination of several shortening devices are also possible: perambulator - pram (syncope + apocope); refrigerator - fridge (aphaeresis + apocope).

Shortening brings new words in the same part of speech. Most lexical units of this type are nouns. Shortened verbs like rev from revolve, tab from tabulate are very rare. Such verbs as to phone, to tot up (to sum up, total), to taxi, to vac come to look like clipped words but are in fact, denominal verbs made through conversion. Clipped adjectives are also few in numbers: comfortable - comfy, awkward - awk, impossible - imposs.

It is a well-known fact that in the course of time a good many slang clippings have found their way into Standard English. Some of them occur both in spoken and written English, others keep only colloquial tinge.

The coining of clipped word-forms may result either in the ousting of one of the words from the vocabulary or in establishing a clear semantic differentiation between the two units. In a few cases the full words become new roots: chapman - chap, brandywine - brandy.

But in most cases a shortened word exists in the vocabulary together with the longer word from which it is derived and usually has the same lexical meaning differing only in stylistic reference. The question naturally arises whether the shortened and original forms should be considered separate words. Though it is obvious that in the case of semantic difference between a shortened unit and a longer one from, which it is derived they can be termed as two distinct words: “cabriolet – cab”.

Some linguists hold the view that as the two units do not differ in meaning but only in stylistic application, it would be wrong to apply the term word to the shortened unit. In fact, the shortened unit is a word-variant.

Other linguists contend that even when the original word and the shortened form are generally used with some difference in style, they are both to be recognised as two distinct words. If this treatment of the process of word-shortening is accepted, the essential difference between the shortening of words and the usual process of word-formation should be pointed out.

- Words built by affixation, for example, are of a more complex character both structurally and semantically. Shortened words are structurally simple words and in most cases have the same lexical meaning as longer words from which they are derived.

- There are no structural patterns after which new shortened words could be

coined. At any rate, linguistic research has failed to establish any so far.

Lexical abbreviations and clipped words possess some peculiarities. They are the following:

- When performing syntactical functions of ordinary words they take on grammatical inflections: exams, MPs.
- They may be used with articles: a bike, the BBC.
- They may be combined with derivational affixes and used in compounding: M.Pess (woman - member of Parliament), hanky from handkerchief
- Clipped words are characteristic of colloquial speech, lexical abbreviations are used in written speech.

Types of Shortening. There are three types of shortenings in English. Words formed by shortening can be divided into initial (apheresis), final (apocope) and middle (syncope).

1) Words that have been shortened at the beginning is called initial clipping (apheresis). For example, story (history), car (motor-car), cycle (bicycle), versity (university), etc.

2) Words that have been shortened at the end is called final clipping (apocope). For example, taxi (taximeter), col (college), piano (pianoforte), etc.

3) If the omission of a letter or unstressed syllable occurs in the middle of the word, it is called middle clipping (syncope). For example, fancy (fantacy), maths (mathematics), specs (spectacles), pants (pantaloons), etc.

Clipping or contraction is a type of word-formation in which a short piece is extracted from a longer word and given the same meaning. A word formed in this way is a clipped form, like: blog, from Web log – a personal Web site-based log of events, comments, and links. A clipped form is a real word, but not an abbreviation.

As a type of word-building shortening of spoken words also called clipping, curtailment or contraction, is recorded in the English language as far back as XV-th century. It is another fairly productive way of vocabulary enrichment. The moving force behind it is economy of effort expressed in the trend towards monosyllabism that has always been characteristic of the English vocabulary.

There are the following types of clipping:

a) Initial clipping (apheresis) – the omission of the fore part of the word, like: telephone > phone; airplane > plane. In Azerbaijani this type of contraction is characteristic of dialectal words, like: history > story, emigrant (mühicir) > migrant. Apheresis is typical of a dialectal speech.

b) Medial clipping (syncope) – the omission of the middle part of the word, like: ra[diostan]siya > rasiya; math[ematic]s > maths.

The contrastive analysis also reveals some incongruence in the use of syncope, like: litr (clipping) – lit. (abbreviation); as in Russian физ[ическая культура]-ра (clipping) vs. phys-ed (clipping) vs. PT or PE (abbreviation).

In Azerbaijani, this type of contraction frequently occurs as “idman dərsi”.

c) Final clipping (apocope) – the omission of the final part of the word, like: avtomaşın > avto – automobile > auto, mummy > mum – mama > (ay) ma.

The contrastive analysis also reveals some incongruence in the use of apocope, like: prinsipial > prin. (clipping) – principal > princ. (shortening); universitet > univer (clipping) – university > uni. (shortening).

In Azerbaijani this type of contraction frequently occurs in a colloquial speech.

d) Mixed clipping – where the fore and the final parts of the word are clipped (the conformity is observed only in some proper names), like: Elisabeth > Liz – Yelizaveta > Liza, however, flu – qrip; tec (detective) – detektiv.

Blending is a kind of word-formation in which a word is constructed by combining arbitrary parts of two or more existing words. A word constructed in such a way is a blend or portmanteau, like: “piramein – piramidon + coffe”; “askofen – aspirin + kofein”; English “paramedic – parachute + medic”; “spam – spiced + ham”; “chunnel (for the underwater link between Britain and the continent) – channel + tunnel”.

The term “blending” is used to designate the method of merging parts of words (not morphemes) into one new word. The result of it is a blend, also known as a portmanteau word. It was Lewis Carroll, the author of the well-known book “Alice in Wonderland”, who called such creations portmanteau words and described them as words into which two meanings are packed like in a portmanteau.

We always look for a way of saving time. This explains the growing popularity of blends. Why use two words if one will do? If, for example, you get up too late for “breakfast” and too early for “lunch” you can “have brunch”. If a state decides to execute a criminal with the aid of electricity it electrocutes him. A “telegram” sent by “cable” is a “cablegram”. The astronaut has a tool, a “space hammer”, which is known as “spammer”. News that is broadcast is a “newscast”. In Russian, for instance, if “фрукт” is added to “йогурт” you will get “фруктурт”.

Many blends are short-lived. A fair proportion has become established in the vocabulary. In most cases blends belong to the colloquial layer of the vocabulary sometimes bordering on slang: slanguage = slang + language, pollutician = pollute + politician.

The process when the final part of one word and the initial part of another coincide is called telescoping because the words seem to slide into one another like sections of a telescope: infanticipate = infant + anticipate.

Being very productive in English, blending has become “popular” in Azerbaijani only in the last decade, like: Frençlis (ingilis dilində çox sayda söz və

ifadələr olan fransız dili – from Franglais (français “French” + anglais “English”); Oksbric (imtiyazlı ali təhsil müəssisəsi) from Oxbridge (Oxford + Cambridge); exploitation - cinsi istismar from (sex + exploitation).

It should be pointed out that blending in English might have another type of word-formation equivalent in Azerbaijani, such as: brunch (breakfast + lunch) – (səhər yeməyi + nahar) compounding.

Back formation or **back derivation** is a term of Diachronistic Linguistics. It implies the inferring of a short word from a long one. If we take, for example, the word speaker we reasonably connect it with the verb to speak. The existence of a derivative speaker suggests that the basic word speak also exists. Now, if speaker is correlated to speak, then editor must have the basis, edit too. But historically speaking, things are different.

Back-formation means “əks sözdüzəltmə” – “обратное словообразование”. For example: “beg is a backformation of beggar, edit is a backformation of editor, act is a backformation of actor, housekeep is a backformation of housekeeper, revise – is a backformation of revision, televise – is a backformation of television”.

There are words in English which owe their origin to one part of a word being mistaken for some derivative suffix or more rarely a prefix. A word of this kind has often been supposed to imply the existence of a primary word from which it has been derived. Similarly, the new verb to burgle has been created from burglar, evidently through reinterpretation on the analogy to the lie from liar. Further examples of back formation are: “to hush” from “husht”, “to pettifog” from “pettifogger”, “to audit” from “auditor”, “to peeve” from “peevish”. These examples show that simple, derived words were formed from other root lexical units by means of splitting the root.

Back formation may be also based on the analogy of inflectional forms as testified by the singular nouns pea and cherry. Pea (Plural peas) is from ME pese < OE pise < Lat. pisa, Plural pesum. The ending “-s” being the most frequent mark of

the plural in English, English speakers thought that “sweet peas(e)” was a plural and “turned peas(e)” – “soup” into “pea soup”. “Cherry” is from OFr. “cherise” and the “-se” was dropped for exactly the same reason.

At the present time back formation is applied intentionally. At the beginning of the XIX-th century to diddle appeared by means of back formation from the surname Jeremy Diddler, the character in J.Kenney’s work “Raising the Wind”.

At the beginning of the XX-th century the verb to maffick appeared under the influence of the spirit which was in London during Anglo-boerish war after the town Mafeking yielded.

Back formation is held due to the rules of the development of the English language. It is not by chance that such words as “to beg, to peeve, to resurrect” were formed on the analogy of the existing word-building pattern.

Thus, **back-formation**, or **reversion** is the derivation of new words by means of removing a suffix or other element resembling it. In backformation we take an existing word and remove from it a piece that “looks” like an affix, but really is not, in order to obtain a new word, for example, the English words “burglar” – “one who is guilty of burglary”, “sculptor” – “one who practises the art of sculpture; chiefly, an “artist” – who produces works of statuary in stone (especially: marble) or “bronze”, and “editor” – “one who prepares the literary work of another person, or number of persons for publication, by selecting, revising, and arranging the material; also, one who prepares an edition of any literary work”, borrowed from Old French or Latin, “sound” as though they contained the familiar agent suffix -er(-or), as in “writer”, “singer” or “actor”, and so this apparent suffix has been removed to obtain the previously non-existent verbs burgle “to steal (goods)” or “rob (a place) as a burglar”; “to commit a burglary”; sculpt “to practise the art of sculpture” and edit “to prepare an edition of (a literary work or works by an earlier author)”.

In Azerbaijani back-formation is a non-productive type of word-formation and is reduced to the cases of gender differentiations, occurring within the same part of speech, like: “sağıcı” (kişi və qadın) – “dairyman” and “milkmaid”, and is usually traced back to word-forming phenomena at the diachronic approach: historically, such as: zontik > zont (çətir).

Reduplication is a type of word-formation in which the word is constructed by totally or partially doubling a stem, like: “ding-dong” – “ding-dong” (səsi); “higgledy-piggledy” – “qarış-quruş” (qarmaqarışiq); “willy-nilly” – “haqq-nahaq”, “çarnaçar” (istər-istəməz); “hurry-scurry” – “tələsik-tələs” (acele etmə), etc.

There are the following types of reduplication in English and Azerbaijani:

a) Sound-imitating (onomatopœic), such as: “çiq-çiq, tık-tık, tup-tup” – “plop-plop, ha-ha, bow-wow”;

b) Emotive, like: “vay-vay-vay, bəh-bəh-bəh, paho, bıy, oxqay, afərin, ay can, ura”, also “aman!, ay haray!” (warning), ey!, ah səni! (reproach), no-no! (prohibition or failure), go-go! (excitement);

c) Rhyming (expressive), like: “vallah-billah, vallahi, vallah-tallah, super-puper” – “hokey-pokey, razzle-dazzle (qamaşdırmaq), super-duper, boogie-woogie, teenie-weenie, walkie-talkie, hoity-toity (özünü bəyənmiş), easy-peasy, hurdy-gurdy”;

d) Schm-reduplication, like: “aldı-çaldı, düşpərə-müşpərə, qoqal-moqal” – “baby-schmaby, fancy-schmancy, cancer-schmancer”;

e) Contrastive focus reduplication, or lexical cloning (found in English) – used to contrast “real” or “pure” things against imitations or less pure forms. For example, at a coffee shop one may be asked, “Do you want soy milk?” and respond, “No, I want MILK milk”. This gives the idea that they want “real” milk.

9. Minor Types of Word Formation. Sound interchange. Stress interchange. Sound imitation.

Sound interchange is the gradation of sounds occupying one and the same place in the sound form of one and the same morpheme. Sound interchanging may be defined in the phonemic composition of the root. The change may affect the root vowel, or root consonant as: speak-speech, such as:

- a) full (adj) – to fill (v), song (n) – to sing (v), food (n) – to feed (v), etc.
- b) to sit – to set, to lie – to lay, to fall – to fell, etc.

Consonant interchange means by which one part of speech is formed from another by shifting the final consonant. For instance: house – to house, use – to use, bath – to bathe, breath – to breathe, life – to live.

Thus, another term for “sound interchange” is “gradation”. It is the feature that is characteristic of all Indo-European languages. In English sound interchange used to play a certain role in word-building: sit - sat, fall - fell. Vowel interchange is the most widespread case: food - feed, tooth - teeth.

Consonant interchange is a more rare case: advice - advise. In other cases both vowel and consonant interchange takes place: bath - to bathe, grass - to graze. Sometimes sound interchange is accompanied by affixation: deep - depth, long - length.

Stress interchange. Many English verbs of Latin, French origin are distinguished from the corresponding nouns by the position of stress. For instance: to pre`sent = `present, to ob`ject = `object, to ex`port = `export, to im`port = `import, `conduct – to con`duct, etc. Stress interchange is not restricted to pair of words consisting of a noun and a verb.

Adjectives and adverbs can undergo this process: 'frequent - to fre'quent, 'absent - to ab'sent. Stress distinction is, however, neither productive nor regular. There are many denominal verbs that are forestressed and thus homonymous with

the corresponding nouns: 'figure - to 'figure, 'programme - to 'programme. There is a large group of disyllabic loan words that retain the stress on the second syllable both in nouns and verbs: ac'count - to ac'count, de'feat - to de'feat.

In the Azerbaijani language homonyms can also be formed by means of stress interchange: al'ma - 'alma, gəl'mə - 'gəlmə.

It is worth noting that stress alone, unaccompanied by any other differentiating factor, does not seem to provide a very effective means of distinguishing words and that is, probably, the reason why oppositions of this kind are neither regular nor productive.

Sound Imitation. Other terms for sound imitation are onomatopoeia and echoism. Words coined by this type of word building are made by imitating different kinds of sounds that may be produced by animals, birds, human beings and inanimate objects. Dogs bark, cocks cock-a-doodle-doo, ducks quack, frogs croak, cats mew (miaow, meow), cows moo (low).

There is a hypothesis that sound imitation as a way of word building should be viewed as something much wider than just the production of words by the imitation of purely acoustic phenomena.

Some scholars suggest that words may imitate through their sound form certain acoustic features and qualities of inanimate objects, actions or that the meaning of the word can be regarded as the immediate relation of the sound group to the object.

If a young chicken or kitten is described as fluffy there seems to be something in the sound of the adjective that conveys softness. To glance, to glide, to slide, to slip convey the meaning of an easy movement over a slippery surface. To rush, to dash, to flash render the meaning of brevity, swiftness.

Some scholars have given serious consideration to this theory. However, it has not yet been properly developed.

10. Folk Etymology. Etymological Characteristics of the English and Azerbaijani Vocabularies.

Folk Etymology is usually used in borrowed words. This is a mistaken motivation and is called folk etymology. For instance: the international radio-telephone signal “may-day”. It has nothing to do with the “May Day”. It is a phonetic rendering of French “m’aidez” – help me.

There are some words, such as “onbarmaq” instead of “univermaq, başbilet” instead of “pasport, əyriplan” instead of “aeroplan, yelsəbet” – instead of “velosiped, fitilberq” instead of “Peterburq” and so on, are used among the Azerbaijani people.

Etymology is a branch of Linguistics concerned with the facts relating to the origin, formation and primary meaning of words. The term “etymology” is derived from the Greek word “etymon” which means “the true, original meaning of a word”.

The most characteristic feature of English is usually said to be its mixed character. Many linguists consider foreign influence, especially of French, to be the most important factor in the history of English. This wide-spread viewpoint is supported only by the evidence of the English word-stock, as its grammar and phonetic systems are very stable and not easily influenced by other languages.

To comprehend the nature of the English vocabulary and its historical development it is necessary to examine the etymology of different layers, the historical causes of their appearance, their volume and role and the comparative importance of native and borrowed elements in enriching the English vocabulary.

According to their origin words can be native and borrowed. A native word is a word which belongs to the original English stock as known from the earliest available manuscripts of the Old English period.

Native words are further subdivided into the words of the Indo-European stock and those of the Common Germanic origin. The words having cognates in the vocabularies of different Indo-European languages form the oldest layer. It has been noticed that they readily fall into definite semantic groups. Among them we find terms of kinship “mother, father, son, daughter”, names of animals and birds “cat, wolf, goose”, parts of human body “arm, eye”. Some of the most frequent verbs belong to this word stock: “come, sit, stand”. Most numerals are also of the Indo-European origin.

A bigger part of the native vocabulary consists of the words of the Common Germanic word stock. Such nouns as “summer, winter, rain, ice, hat”; the verbs “to bake, to buy, to make, to meet; the adjectives deaf, dead, deep are of the Common Germanic origin. Most adverbs and pronouns also belong here.

Together with the words of the Common Indo-European stock the Common Germanic words form the bulk of the most frequent elements used in any style of speech.

Characteristic features of the native vocabulary are the following:

The words are monosyllabic, such as: “sun, wood, break”. Some of them are polysemantic, like: “hand” – 1) part of the human body; 2) power, possession, by a responsibility; 3) influence; 4) person from whom news comes; 5) skill in using one's hands; 6) person who does what is indicated by the context, performer; 7) workman; 8) share in activity; 9) pointer, indicator; 10) position or direction; 11) handwriting; 12) signature; 13) number of cards held by a player; 14) unit of measurement; 15) applause by clapping.

They are characterised by high frequency. Native words are usually found in set-expressions. Verbs with post-positions are usually native: to look for, to look after. They are characterised by a wide range of lexical and grammatical valency.

If the words begin with “wh, wr, tw, dw, sw, sh. Th”; if at the end they have

“dge, tch, nd, ld”; if the roots have “ng, aw, ew, ee, oo” they are native.

According to the etymological principle the English vocabulary is usually derived into the following groups: 1) native words; 2) denizens; 3) aliens.

The native words from the main body of the English language. In linguistic literature the term native is used to denote words of Anglo-Saxon origin.

Words of native origin consist of very ancient elements – Indo-European, Germanic and West Germanic cognates, Anglo-Saxon word-stock is about 25-30 per cent. Almost all words of Anglo-Saxon origin belong to very important semantic groups. There include most of the auxiliary and modal verbs (shall, will, must, can, may), pronouns (I, you, he, my, his, who), prepositions (in, out, on, under), numerals (one, two, three) and conjunctions (and, but, till, as).

National words of Anglo-Saxon origin include such groups as words denoting parts of body (head, hand, arm, heart), members of the family and the closest relatives (father, mother, son, wife), natural phenomena and planets (snow, rain, wind, sun, star), animals (horse, cow, sheep), qualities and properties (old, young, cold, hot, long), common actions (do, make, go, hear).

In Azerbaijani native words have the following characteristic features:

a) If the initial letter of a word is a consonant it follows the vowel sound or vice versa: qanad, burun, un, odun, ərik, etc.

b) Azerbaijani words are mainly onesyllabic and twosyllabic: papaq, barmaq, at, qum, etc.

c) Stress falls on the last syllable: qar`pız, ba`dam, etc.

d) Vowels and consonants follow each other: bazar, qazan, etc.

e) Two vowels cannot be used at the beginning of the words;

f) Two consonants cannot be used together in the middle of the words and at

the beginning of the words, but the word: srağagün.

Denizens are words of foreign origin which have been accommodated to the English language by the substitution of English sounds for the unusual foreign ones. They are usually associated by the words, and sometimes oust them and become, indistinguishable from the native element. For example: leg – leggs (Iceland); sign for signe (French); surndler [swindl] for schwindler (German), etc.

Aliens are words which borrowed from foreign languages without change of the foreign spelling and which are immediately recognised as foreign words. They have kept their spellings and pronunciation. For instance: fiancée, garage, mirage, champagne, leisure, pleasure, etc.

Causes and ways of borrowing into English. In its XV-th century long history recorded in written manuscripts the English language happened to come in long and close contact with several other languages, mainly Latin, French, Old Norse. The great influx of borrowings from these sources can be accounted for by a number of historical causes. Due to the great influence of the Roman civilisation Latin was for a long time used in England as the language of learning and religion. Old Norse was the language of the conquerors, which brought with them a lot of new notions of a higher social system - developed feudalism - it was the language of upper classes, of official documents from the middle of the XI-th century to the end of the XIV-th century.

In the study of the borrowed element in English the main emphasis is as a rule placed on the Middle English period. Borrowings of the later periods became the object of investigation only in recent years. These investigations show that the flow of borrowings has been steady and uninterrupted. The greatest number of them has come from French. A large portion of them is scientific and technical terms.

The number and character of borrowings do not only depend on the historical conditions, on the nature and length of contacts but also on the degree of the genetic and structural proximity of the languages concerned. The closer the

languages the deeper and more versatile is the influence. Thus under the influence of the Scandinavian languages, which were closely related to Old English, some classes of words were borrowed that could not have been adopted from non-related or distantly related languages.

Borrowings enter the language in two ways: through oral and written speech. Oral borrowing took place chiefly in the early periods of history, whereas in recent times written borrowing gained importance. Words borrowed orally are usually short and they undergo more changes in the act of adoption. Written borrowings preserve their spelling.

Borrowings can be borrowed through transcription (football, trailer, jeans), transliteration (cruise, motel, club). Besides there can be loan words (blue stocking, collective farm).

Criteria of borrowings in English. Though borrowed words undergo changes in the adopting language, they preserve some of their former peculiarities for a comparatively long period. This makes it possible to work out some criteria for determining whether the word belongs to the borrowed element. In some cases the pronunciation of the word, its spelling and the correlation between sounds and letters are an indication of the foreign origin of the word: waltz (German), psychology (Greek). The initial position of the sounds [v], [dz], [z] or of the letters “x, j, z” is a sure sign that the word has been borrowed: “vase” (French), “jungle” (Hindi), “gesture” (Latin).

The morphological structure of the word and its grammatical forms may also show that the word has been borrowed. The suffixes in the words neurosis (Greek), violoncello (Italian) betray the foreign origin of the words. The same is true of the irregular plural forms “bacteria, media, phenomena”. The lexical meaning of the word can show the origin of the word. Thus, the concept denoted by the words “pagoda” (Chinese), “kangaroo” (Australian) make us suppose that we deal with borrowings.

These criteria are not always helpful. Some early borrowings have become so thoroughly assimilated that they are unrecognisable as adoptions without a historical analysis: chalk (Latin), ill (Scandinavian), car (French).

Sometimes the form of the word and its meaning in Modern English enable us to tell the immediate source of borrowing. Thus, if the digraph “ch” is sounded as [ʃ] the word is a late French borrowing (echelon); if it is sounded as [k] the word came from the Greek language (archaic); if it is pronounced as [t] it is either an early borrowing or a word of the Anglo-Saxon origin.

The Celtic element in the English vocabulary. When the invading Anglo-Saxon tribes came to the British Isles and encountered the aboriginal population, the latter did not influence Anglo-Saxon to any serious extent - these were not more than some 10-12 Celtic words, besides not all of them were originally Celtic. No historian as yet has explained the reason why the Celtic traces in the English vocabulary have been so slight. One of the explanations may be that before the Anglo-Saxons came Britain had been under Roman oppression for about four centuries and the native Celtic population must have been greatly reduced by the Roman invaders. The Roman legions left Britain to defend their capital from the advancing Goths. At the approach of the new invaders the Britons fled to Wales and Cornwall, the Celtic tribes of Ireland accepted the English language and the Celtic tribes of Scotland were influenced in their speech by the Northern form of English. Now the Celtic tongues exist in the form of Welsh, Irish, Gaelic and Highland Scotch and exercise their influence upon the local dialects.

The Celtic element includes such words as “crag (rock), dun (greyish-brown), down (hill)”. There are some geographical names like Kent, Avon (river), Dover (water). Celtic elements are found in such place names as Duncombe, Helcombe (cum - canyon), Llandaff (llan - church), Inverness (inver - river mouth). Some of the early Latin, French, Spanish borrowings came through Celtic (cloak, car, clock, carry). On the whole, Celtic borrowings in the English language can be considered of the least importance.

The Classical element in the English language. By the classical element we mean Latin and Greek. Lexicographers have estimated that approximately a quarter of the Latin vocabulary has been taken over by English. But Latin words are not a homogeneous layer. We must distinguish between those borrowed through the immediate contact at the early stages of the development of the language and those later borrowings that came through writing. The first are mostly monosyllabic and denote things of everyday importance while the latter are mostly polysyllabic bookish words. The first are completely assimilated: pea, wine, cup, line.

Borrowings of the V-th century have a military favour about them for the Romans built fortifications, military camps and roads: “port, street, wall”. All these words got completely assimilated in the English language. Many of the Latin borrowings of this period did not survive but they are sometimes retained in English place-names: Manchester (castra - camp), Greenwich, Harwich (vicus - village).

Taken together these two periods form the first stratum of Latin borrowings. The second great stratum of Latin words came into English at the end of the VI-VII-th centuries when the people of England were converted to Christianity. Since Latin was the language of the church many Latin words denoting religious concepts came into English: “abbot, bishop, candle, mass, temple”.

Some words changed their meanings. Many Latin words borrowed at that period can be referred to other spheres of life, such as things of everyday life (cap, chest), names of vegetables and plants (beet, plant). Since monasteries were also cultural centres where books were written and translations made such words as school, verse were borrowed.

Another great influx of Latin words came through French after the Norman Conquest. They are generally referred to as the third stratum of Latin borrowings. Their original source is Latin and their immediate source is French.

The greatest stream of Latin borrowings poured into the English vocabulary

during the period of Renaissance. At that time words belonging to the following spheres were borrowed: terms of philosophy, mathematics, physics (fundamental, vacuum), terms of law and government (alibi, veto), terms of botany (mallow, petal), topographical terms (equator, tropical).

Nowadays when there appears a need to coin some term it is coined from the existing Latin or Greek elements.

Greek borrowings are recognised by their specific spelling, such as: “ch-” - character, “ph-” - philosophy, “pn-” - pneumonia, “rh-” - rhetoric, “-ist” - socialist, “-ics” - mathematics, “-osis” - neurosis. To a certain extent Greek borrowings were latinized in form with the change of the Greek “u” into Latin “y”, the Greek “k” into the Latin “c”. When the Latin “c” changed its pronunciation before “e, i, y” many Greek words were changed beyond recognition: “kuriakon - church, kyklos – cycle”. Some Greek proper names are widely used in Great Britain (Margaret, Sophia, Irene).

Many Greek words were borrowed during the period of Renaissance. They belong to the following lexico-semantic fields: literature and art (poet, comedy), lexicology (antonym, dialect, philosophy and mathematics (theory, thesis, diagram), medicine (diagnosis, rheumatism), physics (pneumatic, thermometer).

The Scandinavian element in the English vocabulary. The Scandinavian invasion of England which proved to be of linguistic importance began in the VIII-th century. In 1017 the Danes conquered the whole of England and reigned over up to 1042. The Danish settlers intermingled with the native population. The fact of both languages being Germanic facilitated mutual understanding and word borrowings. That is why it is difficult sometimes to say whether a word is native or borrowed from Scandinavian. Words are sometimes considered to be of the Scandinavian origin if they were not met in Anglo-Saxon written documents up to the XI-th century. Some examples of Scandinavian borrowings are the following: anger (OSc. angr - sorrow); gate (OSc. gata); sky (OSc. sky - cloud); want (OSc.

vant - lacking); to hit (OSc. hitta - not to miss); ill (OSc. illr - bad); ugly (OSc. uggligr - frightful).

In distinguishing Scandinavian words we may sometimes apply the criterion of sound such as [sk] - skill, scare, scream. The hard [g] and [k] sounds before i and e speak for the Scandinavian origin of the word since English words started having the palatalised [j] and [t] sounds before i and e already in Old English. But these features are not always sufficient because sometimes we find [sk] in words of Latin, Greek or French origin or in Northern dialects.

Some English words changed their meanings taking on the meanings of the corresponding Scandinavian words: OSc. draurm - dream (OE dream - joy), OSc.-brauth - bread (OE bread - crumb, fragment). Scandinavian settlements in England left their toponymic traces in a great number of place names: OSc. byr - village (Derby, Rugby); OSc. foss - waterfall (Fossbury, Fossway); OSc. toft - cite, plot of land (Brimtoft, Langtoft).

The Norman-French element in the English vocabulary. The French layer rates second to Latin in bulk. It has been estimated that English owes one fourth of its vocabulary to French. French borrowings penetrated into English in two ways: from the Norman dialect (during the first centuries after the Norman Conquest of 1066) and from the French national literary language beginning with the XV-th century.

The Normans who conquered England in 1066 were of Scandinavian origin and their French differed somewhat from the central dialect of France. During two centuries after the Norman Conquest the linguistic situation in England was rather complicated; the feudal lords spoke the Norman dialect of the French language, the people spoke English, scientific and theological literature was in Latin, the court literature was in French. Latin and French were used in administration and school teaching. Still English was in common use and therefore the Norman dialect was to a certain extent influenced by English in some phonetical and lexical points.

Gradually English assimilated many French words that either ousted their Saxon equivalents (OE *unhope* - despair; OE *tholemodness* - patience), brought new concepts (*exchequer*, *parliament*) or became synonyms to native words (*to help* = *to aid*; *weak* = *feeble*).

Before the Norman Conquest only a few words were borrowed: *proud*, *market*. French words borrowed during the period of the XII-XIV-th centuries show the social status of the Norman invaders and their supremacy in economic, cultural and political development. At that time a lot of terms were borrowed into the English language: terms of rank: *duke*, *prince*, *baron*; law terms: *prison*, *jury*, *judge*; military terms: *army*, *peace*, *soldier*; religious terms: *pray*, *faith*, *saint*; terms of art: *art*, *beauty*, *paint*; terms of architecture: *pillar*, *palace*, *castle*.

In most cases such words were completely assimilated. Later French borrowings can be easily identified by their peculiar form and pronunciation: *garage*, *technique*, *machine*.

Various other elements in the English vocabulary. Quite a number of words were borrowed from other languages: Dutch, Italian, Spanish. England was in commercial contact with the Netherlands during the Middle ages. There lived and worked many skilful Dutch artisans in England (*weavers*, *shipbuilders*). Hence, the terminology of some professions owes much to Dutch and Flemish: *cruise*, *dock*, *reef*. Among borrowings there are also weaving terms: *rock*, *spool*. Dutch art terms came to English as a result of the influence of Dutch art (*landscape*, *easel*).

The Italian language began to contribute to the English vocabulary in the XVI-th century. Many Italian words such as military terms entered through French. During the period of Renaissance Italian culture greatly influenced the cultural life of England. Many musical terms were borrowed at that time: *piano*, *opera*, *sonata*. Among borrowings we find artistic terms (*studio*, *fresco*), literary terms (*stanza*, *canto*), business terms (*bank*, *traffic*), words denoting realities of Italian life

(gondola, macaroni).

Spanish brought some words as well. Many words belonging to various languages of the native population of America came through Spanish: banana, canyon, cargo, potato, Negro.

Some Portuguese words came through French, Spanish and Dutch: caste, fetish. There are not many words borrowed immediately from Portuguese: tank, cobra, port (wine), emu.

There are borrowings from the German language: cobalt, quartz, leitmotiv, kindergarten, rucksack.

Some other languages contributed to the English vocabulary as well. Arabian gave some terms: algebra, Moslem, mufti, sherbet.

With the beginning of England's colonial expansion in the XVI-XVII-th centuries many words penetrated into the English vocabulary from the languages of colonial countries: cashmere, jungle, rupee (Hindi), ginseng, serge (Chinese), hara-kiri, rickshaw (Japanese).

The Russian language also contributed to the English vocabulary: rouble, kopeck, taiga, sable, sarafan, tsar.

Words borrowed from the English language are partially assimilated (футбол, хоккей). Some borrowings in the Azerbaijani language are restricted in word-formation. Such words as “ноу-хай, от кутюр, бренд” have no derivatives.

International words are used in both languages: organisation, telephone, judo, banana. Some international words can coincide only in one of the meanings: the words stress, faculty, data. They are called pseudointernationalisms.

False Etymology. The historical development of borrowed words often brings about an indistinctness of the word's etymological meaning. The words are then wrongly associated with their ultimate source whereas actually the word may have

come through some intermediate language. The word “debt” comes not from the Latin word “debit” but from the French “dette” while “doubt” comes not from the Latin word “dubitare”, but from the French word “doute”. But scientists wrongly attributed them directly to the Latin source and consequently introduced the missing “b” which never came to be pronounced.

In many cases words lose their etymological clarity. The word buttery (larder) which came from the Latin word botaria (Latin bota - barrel, bottle) was wrongly associated with the English word butter. Such instances of the so-called “folk etymology” are not very rare in the English language. In some cases folk etymology leads to the appearance of compound words which are tautological. In the word “greyhound” the first element of which comes from the Scandinavian “grey” (сoбaкa) was associated with “grey” meaning colour. Sometimes under the influence of folk etymology the spelling of the word is changed. The word “hiccough” was written “hicket” but it was associated with the word “cough” and a new spelling was introduced.

Types of borrowings:

- 1) Aliens - words like eau-de-Cologne, phenomenon - phenomena, retaining their foreign look, their phonetical and grammatical peculiarities.
- 2) Denizens - loan-words that received the “right of citizenship” in English and are not easily recognised as borrowings (wine, table).
- 3) Barbarisms - words usually having synonyms among the completely assimilated or native words limited to official, literary, bookish usage (en regale, tete-a-tete).
- 4) Translation loans - a word-for-word or element--for-element translation of a unit of the lexical source language (blue stocking, collective farm).
- 5) Semantic borrowings - the words which changed their meanings under the influence of a foreign language: cadres.

Chapter III. Semasiological Aspect of Contrastive Lexicology.

1. Semasiological Approach to Contrastive Analysis.

2. Typology of Meanings.

3. Epistemological Approach to Meaning. Cognitive Meaning. Pragmatic Meaning. Stylistic Components of Pragmatic Meaning.

4. Semantic Equivalence. Types of Semantic Equivalence.

5. Prototypical Semantics and Its Contrastive Representation.

1. Semasiological Approach to Contrastive Analysis.

Being adjacent to onomasiology, semasiology focuses on the inner structure of a lexical item, i.e. on its meaning. The meaning is considered as a lexical item's content that represents the idea of an object, feature, process, phenomenon, etc. Consequently, the basis for contrastive semasiological analysis is information about the world of discourse (a certain situation or its fragment) encoded in the semantics of a lexical item.

The branch of the study of language concerned with the meaning of words and word equivalents is called **semasiology**. Semasiology is a branch of Linguistics. The name comes from the Greek word "semasia" meaning signification. As semasiology deals not with every kind of meaning but with the lexical meaning only, it may be regarded as a branch of Lexicology. This does not mean that a semasiologist need not pay attention to the grammatical meaning. On the contrary, the grammatical meaning must be taken into consideration in so far as it bears a specific influence upon the lexical meaning.

If 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.

Sometimes the words “semasiology” and “semantics” are used indiscriminately. They are really synonym, but the word “semasiology” has one meaning, the word “semantics” has several meanings.

Academic or pure semantics is a branch of mathematical logic originated by Carnap. Its aim is to build an abstract theory of relationships between signs and their referents. It is a part of semiotics - the study of signs and languages in general, including all sorts of codes (traffic signals, military signals). Unlike Linguistic Semantics which deals with real languages, pure semantics has as its subject formalised language.

Semasiology is one of the youngest branches of linguistics, although the objects of its study have attracted the attention of philosophers and grammarians since the times of antiquity. A thousand years before our era Chinese scholars were interested in semantic change. We find the problems of word and notion relationship discussed in the works of Plato and Aristotle and the famous grammarian Panini.

For a very long period of time the study of meaning formed part of philosophy, logic, psychology, literary criticism and history of the language.

Semasiology came into its own in the 1830's when a German scholar Karl Reisig, lecturing in classical philology, suggested that the studies of meaning should be regarded as an independent branch of knowledge. Reisig's lectures were published by his pupil F.Heerdegen in 1839 some years after Reisig's death.

At that time, however, they produced but little stir. It was Michel Breal, a Frenchman, who played a decisive part in the creation and development of the new science. His book “Essai de Semantique” (Paris, 1897) became widely known and

was followed by a considerable number of investigations and monographs on meaning not only in France, but in other countries as well.

The treatment of meaning throughout the XIX-th century and in the first decade of the XX-th was purely diachronistic. Attention was concentrated upon the process of semantic change and the part semantic principles should play in Etymology.

Semasiology was even defined at that time as a science dealing with the changes in word meaning, their causes and classification. The approach was “atomistic”, i.e. semantic changes were traced and described for isolated words without taking into account the interrelation of structures existing within each language. Consequently, it was impossible for this approach to formulate any general tendencies peculiar to the English language.

As to the English vocabulary, the accent in its semantic study, primarily laid upon philosophy, was in the XIX-th century shifted to Lexicography. The Golden age of English Lexicography began in the middle of the XIX-th century, when the tremendous work on the many volumes of the Oxford Dictionary of the English Language on Historical Principles was carried out.

The English scholars R.C.Trench, J.Murray, W.Skeat constantly reaffirmed the primary importance of the historical principle, and at the same time elaborated the contextual principle. They were firmly convinced that the complete meaning of a word is always contextual, and no study of meaning apart from a complete context can be taken seriously.

Since that time indications of semantic change were found by comparing the contexts of words in older written records and in contemporary usage, and also by studying different meanings of cognate words in related languages.

In the XX-th century the progress of semasiology was uneven. The 1930's were said to be the most crucial time in its whole history. After the work of F.de

Saussure the structural orientation came to the forefront of semasiology when Jost Trier, a German philologist, offered his theory of semantic fields, treating semantic phenomena historically and within a definite language system at a definite period of its development.

Thus, Semasiology is the branch of Linguistics that is devoted to the study of meaning is known as semasiology. The general principles of semantics are equal in both languages, but its specific peculiarities associated with concrete conditions of language development.

The main objects of semantical study are: semantic developments of words, its causes and classification, types of lexical meaning, polysemy and semantic structure of words, semantic grouping in the vocabulary system, i.e. synonyms, antonyms, etc.

Analyzing the semantic structure of the words it is necessary to mention that every word has two aspects: the outer aspect – sound form, and the inner aspect – meaning. The interrelation between the two aspects shows that they may develop differently. In Azerbaijani the word “palıd” has different meanings depending on the context. It can be used as “colour” (palıd rəngli paltar) and in the meaning of “oak tree”. For example: “Palıdı onun ən çox sevdiyi rəngdir; Meşədəki ağacların arasında palıd ən qocasıdır”.

On the whole, contrastive analysis provided within the semasiological approach intends to reveal the characteristics of a lexical item’s content within two types of Semantics: referential and lexical.

The **referential semantics** considers the meaning of a word as its capacity to represent the world of discourse. The **lexical semantics**, for its part, considers the meaning of a word as an entity that encodes information about the world of discourse. It should be borne in mind that a word describes not just a mere physical world, but a conceptualized one, i.e. the conceived and interpreted reality. There might be four possible types of relationship between the two semantics at

contrastive analysis what concerns the way a concept is represented. The concept may be the entity of:

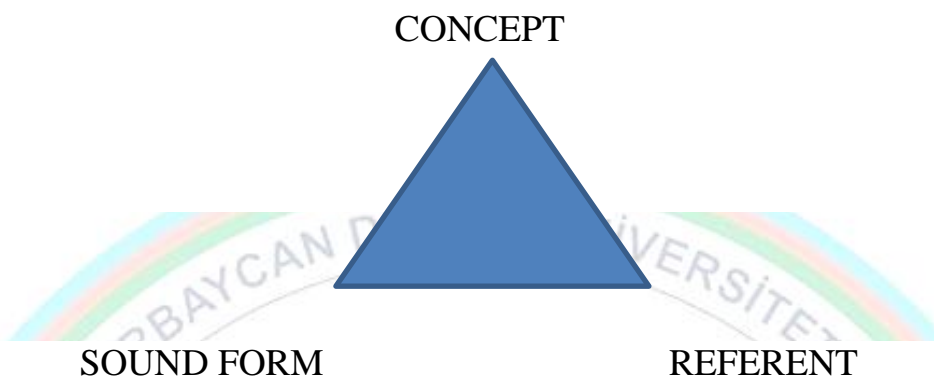
- a) The referential semantics, but not of the lexical one, like: in Russian “дядя” - брат отца или матери – “uncle” - a brother of one’s father or mother;
- b) Both referential and lexical semantics, like: “əmi” – atanın qardaşı, “dayı” – ananın qardaşı, “bibi” – atanın bacısı, “xala” – ananın bacısı;
- c) The lexical semantics, but not of the referential one: in reality there are no uncles in general, but there are brothers of one’s fathers or mothers, nevertheless, the concept may be generalized, like: “əmi” or “day-day” – qohum olmayan yaşlı bir şəxsə müraciət formasıdır (“ay qardaş, qaqa, qaqaş, qaqulya” – qohum olmayan bir kişiyyə müraciət forması) – “uncle” is used as a form of address to non-relatives, especially to elderly men;
- d) Neither the referential, nor the lexical semantics, like: the words “uncloaunt” or “əmi-bibi / dayı-xala” are not the elements of the lexico-semantic systems of the contrasted languages yet.

2. Typology of Meanings.

There are broadly speaking two schools of thought in present-day linguistics representing 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 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.

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 referent, i.e. that part or that aspect of reality to which the linguistic sign refers. The best known referential model of meaning is the so-called “basic triangle”:



As can be seen from the diagram the sound form of the linguistic sign, like [teibl], is connected with our concept of the piece of furniture which it denotes and through it with the referent, i.e. the actual table. The common feature of any referential approach is the implication that meaning is in some form or other connected with the referent.

Meaning and Sound Form.

The sound form of the word is not identical with its meaning, like: [d], [v] is the sound form used to denote “a pearl-grey bird”. There are no inherent connections, however, between this particular sound cluster and the meaning of the word dove. The connections are conventional and arbitrary. This can be easily proved by comparing the sound forms of different languages conveying the same meaning: “stol - стол- table – tisch”.

It can also be proved by comparing almost identical sound forms that possess different meanings in different languages, like: [ni:s] - a daughter of a brother or a sister (English); нос - a part of a face (Russian).

For more convincing evidence of the conventional and arbitrary nature of the connection between sound form and meaning all we have to do is to point to

homonyms. The word “case” means something that has happened and “case” also means “a box, a container”.

Besides, if meaning were inherently connected with the sound form of a linguistic unit, it would follow that a change in the sound form of the word in the course of its historical development does not necessarily affect its meaning.

Meaning and Concept. When we examine a word we see that its meaning though closely connected with the underlying concept or concepts is not identical with them.

Concept is the category of human cognition. Concept is the thought of the object that singles out its essential features. Our concepts reflect the most common and typical features of different objects. Being the result of abstraction and generalisation all concepts are thus almost the same for the whole of humanity in one and the same period of its historical development. That is to say, words expressing identical concepts in English and Azerbaijani differ considerably.

The concept of the physical organism is expressed in English by the word “body”, in Azerbaijani by “bədən”, but the semantic range of the English word is not identical with that of Azerbaijani. The word “body” is known to have developed a number of secondary meanings and may denote: a number of persons and things, a collective whole (the body of electors) as distinguished from the limbs and the head; hence, the main part as of an army, a structure of a book (the body of a book). As it is known, such concepts are expressed in Azerbaijani by other words.

The difference between meaning and concept can also be observed by comparing synonymous words and word-groups expressing the same concepts but possessing a linguistic meaning which is felt as different in each of the units under consideration, like: “to fail the exam, to come down, to muff”; “to be ploughed, plucked, pipped”.

Meaning and Referent. Meaning is linguistic, whereas the denoted object or the referent is beyond the scope of language. We can denote the same object by more than one word of a different meaning, like: “a table” can be denoted by the words “table, a piece of furniture, something”, this as all these words may have the same referent.

Meaning cannot be equated with the actual properties of the referent. The meaning of the word water cannot be regarded as identical with its chemical formula H_2O as water means essentially the same to all English speakers including those who have no idea of its chemical composition.

Among the adherents of the referential approach there are some who hold that the meaning of a linguistic sign is the concept underlying it, and consequently they substitute meaning for concept in the basic triangle. Others identify meaning with the referent. Meaning is closely connected but not identical with the sound form, concept or referent. Yet, even those who accept this view disagree as to the nature of meaning.

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

Functional Approach to Meaning. The functional approach maintains that a linguistic study of meaning is the investigation of the relation of sign to sign only. In other words, they hold the view that the meaning of a linguistic unit may be studied only through its relation to either concept or referent.

We know that the meaning of the two words “a step” and “to step” is different because they function in speech differently. “To step” may be followed by an adverb, “a step” cannot, but it may be preceded by an adjective.

The same is true of the different meanings of the same word. Analysing the function of a word in linguistic contexts and comparing these contexts, we conclude that meanings are different (or the same): “to take a tram, taxi” as opposed to “to take to somebody”. Hence, meaning can be viewed as the function of distribution.

When comparing the two approaches described above we see that the functional approach should not be considered as alternative, but rather a valuable complement to the referential theory. There is absolutely no need to set the two approaches against each other; each handles its own side of the problem and neither is complete without the other.

The two main types of meaning are the grammatical and lexical meanings.

Grammatical Meaning. We notice, for example, that word-forms such as tables, chairs, bushes though denoting widely different objects of reality have something in common. This common element is the grammatical meaning of plurality.

Thus, grammatical meaning may be defined as the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words. The tense meaning in the word-forms of verbs (asked, spoke) or the case meaning in the word-forms of various nouns (the girl’s, the night’s).

In modern linguistic science it is commonly held that some elements of grammatical meaning can be identified by their distribution. The word-forms “asks, speaks” have the same grammatical meaning as they can all be found in identical distribution, only after the pronouns “he, she”, but before such adverbs and phrases as “yesterday, last month”, etc.

It follows that a certain component of the meaning of a word is described when you identify it as a part of speech, since different parts of speech are distributionally different. The part-of-speech meaning of the words that possess but one form, as prepositions, is observed only in their distribution, for example: “to come in (here) and in (on, under) the table”.

Lexical Meaning. Unlike the grammatical meaning this component of meaning is identical in all the forms of the word, for example: the words “write - writes - wrote – written” possess different grammatical meanings of tense, person but in each of these forms we find the same semantic component denoting the process of putting words on the paper. This is the lexical meaning of the word, which may be described as a linguistic unit recurrent in all the forms of the word and in all possible distributions of these forms.

The difference between the lexical and the grammatical component of meaning is not to be sought in the difference of the concepts underlying the two types of meaning rather in the way they are conveyed. The concept of plurality, for example, may be expressed by the lexical meaning of the word plurality. It may also be expressed in the forms of different words irrespective of their lexical meaning (girls, boards).

The interrelation of the lexical and the grammatical meaning and the role played by each varies in different word classes and even in different groups of words within one and the same class.

In some parts of speech the prevailing component is the grammatical type of meaning. The lexical meaning of prepositions is, as a rule, relatively vague “to think of somebody, independent of somebody, some of the students”. The lexical meaning of some prepositions is however comparatively distinct “in, on, under the table”.

The lexical meaning of the word can be of two types: denotational and connotational.

One of the functions of the words is to denote things, concepts, etc. Users 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. There is no doubt that a doctor knows more about pneumonia than a dancer does but they use the word and understand each other.

The second component of the lexical meaning is the connotational component which has some stylistic value of the word, the emotive charge. Words contain an element of emotive evaluation as part of the connotational meaning. The word *hovel* denotes a small house or cottage and besides implies that it is a miserable dwelling place, dirty, in bad repair and unpleasant to live in.

Many connotations associated with names of animals, birds, insects are universally understood and used. For example: “calf” (*dana*) - a young inexperienced person; “donkey” (*eşşək*) - a foolish person; “monkey” (*meymun*) - a mischievous child; “serpent” (*ilan*) - a treacherous, malicious person.

But it should be mentioned here that different peoples structure the world differently. The word “bug” has such figurative meanings in the English language as a “crazy, foolish person and an enthusiast”, the word “shark” means “a swindler”.

In the Azerbaijani language the words “*toyuq*” and “*dovşan*” do not have such meanings. Sometimes words in different languages can have different meanings. For example: the word “gull” means a “fool, a swindler”, in the Azerbaijani language the word “*göyərçin*” can be applied to a woman or a girl. The word “hawk” possesses a negative meaning in the English language (a deceiver), the word “*tarlan*” is applied to a handsome and strong young man.

Metals possess well-established connotations, derived from their individual qualities. The word “gold” is associated with great worth. “Iron” and “steel” connote strength, “brass” - audacity, “lead” - sluggishness or weight.

Words may also contain an element of emotive force as part of the connotational meaning. This is in fact one of the objective semantic features proper to some words as linguistic units and forming part of the connotative value. Such are, for example, stylistically coloured words synonymous with their neutral counterparts: “child - kid – kiddie”; “girl - lass - girlie – lassie”. In interjections this meaning is known “to prevail”.

We must naturally distinguish between the emotive element as inherent in some words forming part of the connotation and the subjective use of words that are not otherwise emotionally coloured.

In actual speech expressive nuances may be obtained in different ways. In various contexts, linguistic or situational, words devoid of any emotive element may be endowed with a distinct expressive function depending on the speaker’s attitude towards his interlocutor or to the thing spoken about.

There are some other types of lexical meaning. They are abstract and concrete “hope, love - window, book”; primary and secondary “wall of the room - wall of misunderstanding”; bookish and colloquial “young man - chap, lad”.

It is necessary to mention that in any language we can find words with only one meaning and words with only two or more meanings. Words with only one meaning are called **monosemantic words**. Words with many meanings are called **polysemantic words**. Polysemantic words are more than monosemantic words. In short, a word that has more than one meaning in the language is called polysemantic. Its meanings form its semantic structure. It is an organised set of recurrent variants and shades of meaning a given sound complex can assume in different contexts, together with their emotional colouring, stylistic peculiarities and other typical connotations, if any.

The semantic structure of the word is a fact of language, not of speech. It is developed and fixed in the course of the history of the language. Since the number of lexical units is not necessarily increased with the appearance of new ideas and objects it is usually achieved by making an already existing word do this work. Change of meaning is a commonplace and indeed it would appear to be fundamental in the living language.

Examples to illustrate the statement are not far to seek. When watches were invented no new words were invented to denote this object and its parts. The word “face” meaning front part of a human head was made to serve as the name of the front part of the watch where all the changes of time were shown; the word “hand” meaning part of a human body used to work and indicate things with was made to serve as the name of the indicator; the word “açar” meaning “a small piece of shaped metal with incisions cut to fit the wards of a particular lock, which is inserted into the lock and rotated to open or close it or to operate a switch”. This word also has the meanings of “aparıcı”, “klaviş”, “dil”, “əsas” as “a set of answers to exercises or problems”; “a word or system for solving a cipher or code”, “the first move in the solution of a chess problem”; “the tone or pitch of someone’s voice”.

In polysemantic words we are faced not with the problem of the analysis of different meanings but primarily with the problem of interrelation and interdependence of the various meanings in the semantic structure of the same word.

Some questions can arise in this connection: Are all meanings equally representative of the semantic structure of the word? Is the order in which the meanings are enumerated in dictionaries purely arbitrary or does it reflect the comparative value of individual meanings, the place they occupy in the semantic structure of the word?

The most objective criterion of the comparative value of individual meanings seems to be the frequency of their occurrence in speech.

Of great importance is the stylistic stratification of meanings of a polysemantic word as not only words but individual meanings too may differ in their stylistic reference. The stylistic status of monosemantic words is easily perceived, for example: “daddy” can be referred to the colloquial stylistic layer, the word “parent” - to bookish.

Polysemantic words as a rule cannot be given any much restrictive labels. There is nothing colloquial or slangy about the word “jerk” in the meaning of a sudden movement or stopping of movement. But when “jerk” is used in the meaning of an “odd person”, it is slangy.

Stylistically neutral words are more frequent.

It should be mentioned that some meanings are representative of the word in isolation, i.e. they invariably occur to us when we hear the word or see it written. Other meanings come to the fore only when the word is used in certain contexts. The meaning or meanings representative of the semantic structure of the word and least dependent on context are described as free or denominative meanings.

By the word “context” we understand the minimal stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word. The meaning or meanings of polysemantic words observed only in certain contexts may be viewed as determined either by linguistic (lexical and grammatical or verbal) or extralinguistic (non-verbal) contexts.

In lexical contexts of primary importance are the lexical groups combined with the polysemantic word under consideration, for instance: The verb “to take” in isolation has the meaning “to lay hold of with the hands, grasp, seize”.

When combined with the lexical group of words denoting some means of transportation (to take a bus, a train) it acquires the meaning synonymous with the

meaning of the verb “to go”. The meanings determined by lexical contexts are sometimes referred to as lexically or phraseologically bound meaning, which implies that such meanings are to be found only in certain lexical contexts.

In grammatical contexts it is the grammatical (mainly the syntactic) structure of the context that serves to determine various individual meanings of a polysemantic word. One of the meanings of the verb “to make” (to force, to induce) is found only in the grammatical context possessing the structure “make + noun + infinitive” in the “to make somebody do something”. Another meaning “to become” is observed when make is followed by an adjective or noun in the “to make a good teacher”. Such meanings are sometimes described as grammatically or structurally bound meanings.

In a number of contexts, however, we find that both the lexical and the grammatical aspect should be taken into consideration. If, for example, we compare the contexts of different grammatical structures “to take + noun” and “to take to + noun” we can assume that they represent different meanings of the verb to take, but it is only when we specify the lexical context, i.e. the lexical group with which the verb is combined in the structure “to take + noun” in the “to take tea, books, a bus” that we can say that the context determines the meaning.

The same pattern “to take + noun” may represent different meanings of the verb “to take” dependent mainly on the lexical group of the nouns with which it is combined.

There are cases when the meaning of the word is ultimately determined not by linguistic factors but by the actual speech situation in which this word is used. The meaning of the phrase “I’ve got” it is determined not only by the grammatical or lexical context but by the actual speech situation. “To get” may mean “to possess” or “to understand”.

Monosemantic words are comparatively rare in the English language. These are pronouns and numerals. The greatest number of monosemantic words can be

found among terms, the very nature of which requires precision. But even here we must mention that terms are monosemantic only within one branch of science, for example: “to dress” – “to bandage a wound” (medical terminology); “to dress” – “to prepare the earth for sowing” (terminology of agriculture); “to dress” – “to decorate with flags” (naval terminology).

Words belonging to the most active, vitally important and widely used part of the English vocabulary are generally polysemantic.

Thus, linguists distinguish **direct** or **nominative** meaning and **figurative** meaning in a word. The meaning is nominative when it nominates the object without the help of context.

The meaning is figurative when the object is named and at the same time characterized through its similarity with another object.

It is argued that in the formation of lexical meaning there participate three interrelated elements of the epistemological situation – a cognizer (a designator), a cognized object (the external world, i.e. reality) and a linguistic sign (lexical item). In this way, lexical meaning is assumed to “take into account” those elements as basis for its typology. In the content of a lexical item the following aspects or types of meaning may be singled out:

1) **Referential** or denotative aspect of lexical meaning is determined by the word’s reference to an object (denotatum, referent). It is usually referred to as the ostensive or demonstrative meaning. According to this approach, there is a certain relationship between a word and an object, represented and denoted by the word. The relation of the word to the object is interpreted as the referential meaning. In a pure sense, we may observe this type of meaning in some proper names, the so-called **specific reference**, such as: Altay - the Altay; Norfolk - Norfolk, etc.;

2) **Conceptual** or significative aspect of lexical meaning is determined by the word’s reference to a mental entity (concept, image, idea, conception, etc.). This

aspect is considered within the so-called conceptual theory of meaning. Within this approach, lexical meaning is treated as a concept (an abstract or generalized idea of particular objects, processes and other phenomena) denoted by a word.

The relation of the word to the concept is interpreted as the conceptual meaning. The concept comprises the minimum of typical features that characterize the object of designation and distinguish it from other objects. It should be borne in mind that the process of generalization may provide for the selection of various features to represent the typicality of an object.

Depending on a designator's intention (and some other factors) in selecting those typical features, lexical meanings may reveal different degrees of equivalence in the contrasted languages, such as: "apple" - "a round fruit with red or green skin and crisp white flesh" – "alma" - "alma ağacının barı".

Taking into account the fact that both types of meanings represent the relation of a word to an object itself and to the concept of this object, it is expedient to refer to these types of meanings with a generic term the cognitive meaning;

3) **Pragmatic** or connotative aspect of lexical meaning is determined by the communicative situation the word is used in, i.e. the conditions of its application. This aspect also includes the speaker's attitude towards a denoted object, the relations between an addresser and addressee, communication environment, the goal an interlocutor intends to achieve, and many other parameters.

The information about these states of affairs is contained in lexical meaning in the form of various components: evaluative, emotive, expressive, associative, ideological, stylistic, etc.

Those components, being additional to the cognitive meaning, constitute the basis of the pragmatic meaning of a word, suchn as: "at" – "dördayaqlı perissodaktil, möhkəm nallı (Equus caballus), gözəl yal və quyruğa malik olan, səsi – kişnərtidir" and "cade" - "bir at üçün alçaq bir ad" – "horse" - "a solid-

hoofed perissodactyl quadruped (*Equus caballus*), having a flowing mane and tail, whose voice is a neigh” and jade “a contemptuous name for a horse; a horse of inferior breed, for example, a “cart” or “draught-horse as opposed to a riding horse”; a “roadster”, a “hack”; “a sorry, ill-conditioned, wearied, or wornout horse”; “a vicious, worthless, ill-tempered horse”;

4) **Systemic**, or differential aspect of lexical meaning; syntactic or relational aspect of lexical meaning.

Defining meaning as a concept captivated (bound) with a sign, M.V.Nikitin vectors an **epistemological** or **cognitive approach** towards semasiological studies. It is posited that lexical meaning consists of two components: cognitive, encoding information on the ways the world of discourse is conceptualized, and pragmatic, informing of the subjective (individual) opinions of a person about various phenomena, his / her personal experience and attitude towards the things that surround the person.

We distinguish the several **ways of classifying the vocabulary**. The whole of the word-stock of the English language can be divided into three main layers: the literary layer, the neutral layer and the colloquial layer. The literary and colloquial layers contain a number of subgroups each of which has a property it shares with all the subgroups within the layer.

I.Galperin calls this common property the aspect. The aspect of the literary layer is its markedly bookish character. It makes the layer more or less stable. The aspect of the colloquial layer is its lively spoken character which makes the layer unstable. The aspect of the neutral layer is its universal character. That means it is unrestricted in its use. It can be used in all styles of the language.

It is this feature that makes the layer the most stable of all. The subgroups of the special literary vocabulary are the following: terms, poetical words, foreignisms and barbarisms, archaic words, nonce-words. The subgroups of the

special colloquial layer are such: dialectical words, vulgarisms, slang, jargon, professionalisms, and nonce-words.

The common literary, neutral and common colloquial words are grouped under the term “Standard English Vocabulary”. Other groups in the literary layer are regarded as special literary vocabulary and those in the colloquial layer are regarded as special colloquial vocabulary.

According to M.V.Nikitin, the **cognitive meaning** of the word includes two components: **contensional** and **extensional**. The **contensional** component or **contension** represents the content of a notion, i.e. totality, or structure of features represented in the notion (meaning, name).

The **extensional** component, or **extension** represents the extent of a notion, i.e. totality of things (denotata), the notion (meaning, name) correlates with; it is a totality of objects that can be designated by a lexical item. For example, the **contension** of the direct meaning of the word “cup” - “a small round container, usually with one handle and used for drinking tea, coffee”, etc. includes the features of “container”, “small”, “round”, “with one handle”, “for drinking tea (coffee)”, whilst its Azerbaijani equivalents “çaşka, fincan”- “çay, qəhvə və digər içkilər içmək üçün çini, saxsı qablardan hazırlanmış kiçik bir qulplu qab” – the features of “qab”, “kiçik”, “saxsı”, “qulplu”, “içki istifadəsi üçün”.

The **extensions** of the words would be all cups as a multitude of things (denotata) that reveal common features attributed to what is called “a cup”. In that way, **extension** indicates the range of applicability by naming the particular objects it denotes.

Thus, the **extension** embraces such notions as “plastic cup, paper cup, solo cup, measuring cup, sippy cup, fuddling cup, spa cup, sake cup, coffee cup”, etc. The **contension** of a word includes another important component called “**intension**” – the entity that constitutes a stable core of lexical meaning; it is a feature expressed by a name, such as: “cup” is derived from Latin “cupa” - “tub” <

Sanskrit “kupa” - “cave” – “çaşka, fincan” is derived from Proto-Slavic “čaša” < Old Persian “kiosi” “кубок”, or Lithuanian “kiáušas”.

The intension of the contrasted words would be “a drinking container”, such as: “tub”, “cave”, “bowl”, “skull” are hollow objects like all containers are. It should be pointed out that the stability of intension does not exclude the variability of contension which, depending on the context, may manifest itself in the contextual meaning, represented by its two varieties: denotative and significative meanings.

The **significative meaning** comprises general features of a class of denoted objects, such as: “There were cups on the table” – “Masanın üstündə çaşkalar (fincanlar) var idi”, whereas the denotative meaning comprises some other features (besides the features of a class) that are characteristic of a denoted object and which differ it from other objects of the class, like: “Where are the cups, we’ve ordered?” – “Sifariş etdiyimiz çaşkalar (fincanlar) hardadır?”

The semantic features that constitute the periphery of the lexical meaning core constitute its implication. Implication may be **strong features** that are sure to be characteristic of an object, like: “small”, “round”, “with one handle”, “for tea (coffee)” – “kiçik”, “qulplu”, “saxsı”, “içki istifadəsi üçün qab”, **weak features** that are likely to be characteristic of an object, like: “made of china (faience)”, “used for scooping or watering” – “dəyirmi”, “çiçəklərin sulunması üçün istifadə olunur” and **negative features** that are unlikely to be characteristic of an object, for instance, various metaphorical transfers, like: “çiçək formalı fincan” – “the cup of a flower” – “a plant or body part, resembling a cup”.

Pragmatic Meaning. The meaning of the word is not just reduced to its cognitive component. The matter is that objects of the external world are very often evaluated and estimated. People, depending upon circumstances, try to express their attitude towards objects, approving or disapproving of them, this being the basis for various additional senses (associations), or connotations that

attend the content of a word, constituting its pragmatic meaning. The English and Azerbaijani words:

a) may coincide in connotations, for example: the characteristics of “slyness” is attributed to a “fox”, like: “cunning as a fox” - “tülkü kimi bic”, “tülkü”; of “the largest part of something” – to a “lion”, like: “the lion’s share” – “aslan payı”; of “someone who is dangerous or cruel, but appears to be gentle and harmless” – to a “wolf”, such as: “a wolf in sheep’s clothing” – “qoyun cildində (paltarında) canavar”; of “a person or thing that have changed from being respectable to being worthless” – to a “dog”, like: “go to the dogs” – “it günündə olmaq” (hörmətli olmaqdan dəyərsiz omağa dəyişən bir kəs və ya bir şey);

b) may not coincide in connotations, for example: the characteristics of “being drunk” in English is attributed to an elephant, like: “to see pink elephants”, whereas in Azerbaijani – “heyvan (eşşək) kimi içmək”; of “being very hungry” in English – “to a horse”, like: “I’m so hungry I could eat a horse”, but “it (canavar) kimi ac olmaq” in Azerbaijani, like: “Elə acam kimi dana (qoyun) yeyərəm”; of “advice to be careful to examine something properly before deciding to buy it” in English – “to a pig”, like: “a pig in a poke”, but in Azerbaijani, like: “torbada pişik almaq”; of “the suggestion that a certain event is just possible, though unlikely, that person is saying they do not believe it will happen” in English – “to a pig”, like: “pigs might fly, but to a bear” in Azerbaijani, like: “dəvəyə qanad verəndə...”.

The pragmatic meaning is not homogeneous and includes the components, which represent human being’s attitude towards the objects, denoted by the word from the viewpoint of his / her personal opinions, feelings, associations, etc.

In this way, there are traditionally singled out four such components: emotive, evaluative, expressive and stylistic. It should be born in mind that in English and Azerbaijani those components may reveal various pragmatic characteristics.

The **emotive component** reveals the emotional layer of cognition, expressing emotion or feeling (joy, satisfaction, anger, surprise, hatred, respect, affection, love

etc.), like: “hurray!” is used to express excitement, pleasure or approval – “ura!” sevinc, həyəcan, məmnunluq hisslərini bildirmək üçün; “however, ox!” – müxtəlif emosiyaları (təəccübü, məyusluğu və məmnunluğu) bildirmək üçün istifadə olunur – “oh!” is used to express a variety of emotions, such as surprise, disappointment and pleasure, often as a reaction to something someone has said.

The Azerbaijani word, unlike the English one, designates more negative emotions; “uf!” xoşagəlməz bir şeydən güclü iyrənciliyini bildirmək üçün istifadə edilir – “ugh!” is used to express a strong feeling of disgust at something very unpleasant – the Azerbaijani equivalent has a broader extension.

The **evaluative component** expresses a negative or positive attitude towards the denoted object, its approval or disapproval, like: “brown-nose” - “a servile and flattering person” – “bədxah” - “yaltaq bir şəxs”; economical “thrifty” - marked by careful, efficient, and prudent use of resources” – “qənaətcil” - “ehtiyatlı, imkanını səmərəli istifadə edən bir kəs”.

Sometimes in English and Azerbaijani we find some inconsistency by having two words with polar meanings in one language and a single word in the other one, like: “inquiring” - “of someone, asking about something” (a positive connotation) :: “inquisitive” - “unduly curious about the affairs of others” (a negative connotation) – “araşdıran” and “burnunu hər yerə soxan, həyasızcasına hər şeylə maraqlanan”.

The first meaning of the Azerbaijani word has a broader extension: “inadkar” – hər şeyi özünəməxsus şəkildə etməyə çalışan, özündən təkid edən, bəzən ümumi düşüncəyə zidd olan, davamlı tədqiqat aparan; barışqsız; “obstinate” - “clinging stubbornly to an opinion, decision, or course of action; unyielding” (a negative connotation) :: determined “firm, resolute; showing determination” (a positive connotation) – there are polar meanings in the Azerbaijani word.

Considering these examples, we may infer that the evaluative component of lexical meaning of the Azerbaijani words is drawn to the polar concepts within the scope of denotation of a single word.

The **expressive component** aims at representing the image of an object, intensifying what is denoted by the word, like: “slave” - “to work very hard; to toil” – “həmbəlliq edən; qul kimi çox işləyən”; “arvadağız, tryapka, iradəsiz adam, nakişi”; “totuq-motuq” – “milksop” - “an unmanly man”; “mollycoddle” (любит чтобы с ним цацкались).

The **stylistic component** indicates “the register”, or communication environment, showing the word’s belonging to a certain functional style, such as: başa düşmək (neutral) :: anlamaq (bookish) :: çatmaq - dərk etmək (colloquial) – understand (neutral) :: comprehend (bookish) :: get (colloquial).

Stylistic Components of Pragmatic Meaning. From the viewpoint of their stylistic differentiation, all English and Azerbaijani words are divided into two major groups:

Stylistically neutral, i.e. words that are characteristic of all language styles, either official, scientific, publicist, colloquial or belles-lettres. They are words that designate general notions: objects, natural phenomena, as well as numbers (numerals), deixis (pronouns), etc. like: “papa (ata) – father”; “sun- günəş; “five - beş”; “onlar - they”;

Stylistically charged, i.e. words that are characteristic of some definite, selective styles of language, like: “müqavilə - covenant” – official style; “synthesis - sintez” – scientific style; “suverenitet - sovereignty” – publicist style; “boşboğaz, çərənçi - chatterbox” – colloquial style.

The use of language (lexicon) in various social spheres is predetermined by its stylistic and functional differentiation. The stylistic classification is based on the

word's reference (place, time, etc.). It is the reference that determines a stylistic value of a word.

The functional classification of vocabulary regards the social prestige of the word, viewed as the result of “stylistic”, or rather “functional” evaluation, i.e. the word's belonging to a certain style.

The “stylistic” group vocabulary includes words that are marked by a certain feature of reference.

In English and Azerbaijani, we may find divergences marked by:

Temporal reference. Language is never stable. In the course of time the vocabulary changes by being supplemented with new words which come into being with the development of science and culture. A certain number of obsolete words usually drop out of the vocabulary of the language. Obsolete words pass out of use completely or remain in the language as elements performing purely historical descriptive functions. The disappearance of old occupations causes the disappearance of their old names. The names of such old occupations can be preserved as family names: “chandler” (candle maker), “webster” (weaver), “wright” (worker).

a) **Archaisms** – words that are out of use in present day language and are considered to be obsolete, recalling bygone eras, like: “eke” (obsolete) – “həmçinin” (modern); “mere” (obsolete) – “göl” (modern); “səs” (obsolete) – “voice (modern); “student” (obsolete) – “student (modern).

Archaic words can be preserved in proverbs: “Many a little makes a mickel”. The verb “to read” in the old meaning “to interpret, to guess” survived in “to read a riddle”. An old sense of “favour” (features, looks) survived in hard-favoured, ill-favoured, well-favoured. The preposition “on” was once common in the meaning because “of”. This meaning survives in “on purpose, on compulsion”. The preposition “with” originally meant “against” and “now” this meaning is preserved

in “withdraw, withstand”. Archaic are the following adverbs: “therefore, therefrom, wherein, thereon”. Archaic are the participles ending in “-en”: “drunken, gotten, washen”.

Archaisms surviving in compounds, phraseological units are only partly understood as archaisms. Oft is not archaic when combined with present and past participles as in oft-recurring. Told is a survival of the Old English word “tellan” – “to count” in all told.

In colloquial speech the word “ought” survives in for “ought”, “I know” as far as “I know”.

Archaisms can be classified into lexical and grammatical. Lexical archaisms are words: “woe” (sorrow), “nigh” (near), “aught” (anything). Grammatical archaisms are old grammatical forms: “thou” (you), the “-est” inflexion for the second person singular, “-th” for the third person singular, the plural form of “brother” (brethren), tense forms like “wilt, spake, builded”.

Historisms belong to obsolete words. The causes of their appearance are extralinguistic. It is the denotatum that is outdated. They are very numerous as names for social relations and institutions and objects of material culture of the past. The names of ancient weapons, types of boats, types of carriages, instruments belong to historisms: battle axe, battering ram.

Archaisms differ from historisms in this respect that they are obsolete names for existing objects. Archaisms always have synonyms: “to deem - to think, glee – joy”.

Obsolete words survived as parts of compound words. The word gar, an old word for spear, survives in garlic, garfish. The word “mara” (incubus, an evil spirit) survives in nightmare.

One can also speak about obsolete meanings not only about obsolete words. Thus, “to come” used to mean “to be seemly” or “becoming”, “to fall” was used in

the meaning of “to move quickly”. But these meanings are practically forgotten now.

Thus, some words may drop out of the language altogether and they are called **archaic words**, such as: “ere” – before; “save” – except, “lists” – arena, “visor” – dəbilqə, “shield” – qalxan, etc.

In the Azerbaijani words also disappeared and some other words substituted them, such as: “ayıtmaq – demək, iraq – uzaq, yağı – düşmən, dan – səhər, çağ – vaxt, arı – təmiz, yazı – çöl, varmaq – getmək, tanuq – şahid”, etc.

In ancient times, in Azerbaijani those who played on the musical instrument (saz) and sang songs were called “ozan”.

Some examples will illustrate this statement: aught – anything whatever, betwixt (prep) – between, chide (v) – scold, damsel (n) – a noble girl, hark (v) – listen, lone (a) – lonely, morn (n) – morning, etc.

b) **Neologisms** are words and expressions used for new concepts that appear in the course of the language development, new meanings of the already existing words and new names of old concepts.

Neologisms appear all the time. The words “table, sky” once were neologisms. But soon they became vital and widespread to be felt neologisms. Names of different fruit, species were new names of new concepts (pea, cherry, pepper).

The introduction of Christianity brought with it a great number of new concepts and words (church, candle). The Norman Conquest also contributed to the enrichment of the English vocabulary (army).

The development of industry, the development of technology, new inventions caused the appearance of new words (film, television, self-starter). A great number of neologisms appeared during the periods of great social upheavals (machine,

bank, investment). After the Bourgeois Revolution in France there appeared such words as bureaucracy, revolution, regime, terrorism. After World War I such neologisms as “blackout, camouflage, air-raid” appeared. After World War II such words as “H-bomb, the UNO, cold war” entered the language.

In the 70-s of the XX-th century neologisms were connected with all spheres of life: computerization (multi-user, neurocomputer, liveware, telepost, telebanking, finger-print); exploration of space (space-bike, cargo-module, link-up); development of the arts (soft art, action painting, kinetic art; development of cinema, TV, video (inflight videosystem, satellite-delivered show, kidvid); theatrical art (theatre of absurd, son et lumiere, revolve); social development (the Lib movement, libbie).

In the 70s libbies declared that the English language discriminated women. As a result of it the names denoting occupations and containing the element man underwent some changes. The word cameraman was substituted by operator, fireman - fire-fighter, chairman - chairperson, policeman - police officer. Even in church the word mankind was substituted by people.

At the same time the names of women's professions were changed: stewardess - flight attendant, nurse - male nurse, male secretary. “He/she” in written speech is used when both sexes are meant. “He/she” variant is less frequently used.

In the 80-s - 90-s of the XX-th century neologisms were connected with lifestyles (belonger, ladies who lunch, theme pub); computerisation (laptop, to back up, to toggle); economics (sunrise industry, sunset industry, dawn raid); music (acid house, MTV, New Age music); mass media (video nasty, video piracy, tabloid television); art (crossfader, body-popping); medicine (to burn out, PWA, ME); education (baker day, City technology college; fashion (body conscious, leisure wear); cookery (jacket crisp, tapas, yarg).

New semi-affixes were registered: “-driven/led” (market-led, design-driven);

“-friendly” (environment-friendly, student-friendly); “-something” (thirty-something, fifty-something); “-ware” (software, hardware, wetware); “-wise” (power-wise, money-wise); “loadsa-” (loadsamoney, loadsabonuses).

Neologisms can be divided into three groups: neologisms proper in which the novelty of the form is combined with the novelty of the contents (audiotyping, bio-computer, thought-processor); transnominations which combine the novelty of the form with the meaning which was already rendered by another form (sudser, big C, bail-out); semantic innovations in which a new meaning is rendered by a form which already exists in the language (bread, drag, gas).

The English language enriches its vocabulary at the expense of borrowings but it happens not as frequently as it was in the Middle Ages or during the period of Renaissance. From the receiving language it turned into the language that gives. It is connected with the fact that it became the language of international communication. Borrowings constitute about 7,5 per cent of all neologisms. The main source of borrowings is French (cinematheque, petit dejeuner). But there appeared a new tendency to borrow words from Japanese (zazen), Yiddish (nudge, zoftig, shlep).

Neologisms are the words and word groups that designate new concepts, like: “wellness” (new) – “sağlamlıq” (old); “diler” (new) – “dealer” (old).

Sometimes we may observe some inconsistency in the contrasted languages between lexical neologisms (new words in meaning and form) and semantic ones (new meanings in available words), like: “internet” – “kompüter və ya digər elektron sistemlərinin cəlb edilməsi” (lexical neologism) – “electronic” - “involving computers or other electronic systems” (semantic neologism);

Thus, the vocabulary of any language doesn't remain the same, but changes constantly. New notions come into being, requiring new words to name them.

In epochs of social upheaval neologisms came into the language in large

numbers. Such neologisms make up semantic groups connected with various spheres of social-political life, culture, science, technology, etc.

We can come across with such words of neologisms in the Azerbaijani language, which are formed by means of suffixes and merging into words making up coming words: “gündəlik, beşmərtəbəli, şəhəryanı, neftayran” and so on.

c) **Historical words** – words that denote no-longer existing objects, like: “musket” – “a gun with a long barrel, used in the past” – “muşket” – “köhnə böyük silahdır”; “alebarda” – “xüsusilə XV və XVI əsrlərdə istifadə olunan nizə və döyüş baltasını özündə cəmləşdirən silah növü” – “halberd” – “a long-handled weapon combining a spear and battle axe, used especially in the XV-th and XVI-th centuries”.

Sometimes, historical words reveal incoincidence in temporal reference, like: “günlük” (historical word) – “visor” (both historical and contemporary word).

Ethical reference:

a) **Taboo words** – words or phrases the use of which is avoided for religious or social or other reasons, like: instead of the word “God” in English and “Allah” in Azerbaijani the following expressions might be used:

In English: dad; Gad; Gar; garden seed; gattings; Gawd; Gawsh; godalmighty; Godfrey; Gol; Golly; gorra; Goshen; Gott; gub; gum; gummy; gun; in Azerbaijani: Tanrı, Yaradan, Pərvərdigar, Rəbb, Fələk, gözəgörünməz, nicatverən;

b) **Euphemisms** – words or phrases that are mild, indirect, or vague substitutes for offensive or unpleasant ones, like: “ölmək” – “rəhmətə getmək, dünyasını dəyişmək, son nəfəs vermək, ömürlük dincəlmək, o biri dünyaya getmək, əbədiyyətə getmək” – “to be no more; to lose one’s life; to breathe one’s last; to join the majority; to pass away; to be gone” – expressions that render the concept of “death” in a milder form.

Functional: **Local reference:** dialectal words, or dialecticisms (words spoken in a particular part of the country). It is hardly worth looking for any similarities between dialectal words in English and Azerbaijani, considering their numerous varieties in both languages and besides, their designating local customs, and characteristics of social life and of natural phenomena.

Nevertheless, for the purpose of an adequate translation (to render a stylistic equivalence) one may find dialectal equivalents, or rather near equivalents. For example, for designating “squirrel” in the English dialects the word “squirren” may be used, whereas in Azerbaijani we find the words “dələ” or “ağappaq”; the meaning of “beautiful” may be rendered with the Scottish “bonny” or “braw” – South-Western Azerbaijani “gözəl qız haqqında” – “can, canan, ceyran, maral, çəpiş”; within the same dialects the meaning “crazy, silly” may be rendered with the words “daffy” – “sərsəm, səfeh, əbləh, sarsaq, dəngüş, gic, gicbəsər, gictəhər, kəmsər, axmaq, dəli”.

Functional: The “functional” group vocabulary includes words of two evaluative layers: superneutral that comprise elevated lexicon (words mostly used in high-flown, belles-lettres, official and scientific styles), such as: “prevail” – “üstələmək”; “xas, məxsus, daxili” – “inherent”, and subneutral, embracing degraded lexicon: words primarily used in a colloquial style, like: “dılğır” – “good-for-nothing”; hang about” – “avaralanmaq, sülənmək”.

The **elevated lexicon** is represented by:

a) **Folklore vocabulary** are the words found in folk songs, ballads, elegies, like: “əsir-yesir” – “captive”; “köhnə bayatı” – “beaten track”;

b) **Scientific vocabulary** are the words found in articles, monographs, theses and other scientific and academic publications, like: “deduksiya” – “deduction”; “endüksiyon” – “induction”; “valence” – “valentlik”; “variation” – “variasiya”;

c) **Officialese** are the words of business and legal correspondence, like: “protokol” – “official act”; “credit” – “kredit”; “creditor” – “kreditor”;

d) **Publicist vocabulary** are the words found in essays, feature articles, public speeches, like: “adversary of war” – “müharibənin əleyhdarı”; “mass-media sahəsi” – “mass media sphere”; “flag-waving” – “şovinizm, ura-patriotizm”; “evil empire” – “bədəməl imperiyası”;

e) **Terms** are the special words or phrases which serve to denote the object of a certain branch of science, like: (sözün) “kökü” – “root” (of the word) – linguistics; “icarə” – “rent” – economics; “substance” – “substansiya”; “fəlsəfə” – “philosophy”; “alibi” – “alibi” – legal; “bildiriş, avizo” – “letter of advice” – finance.

“A term” is a very peculiar type of a word. A term can obtain a figurative or emotionally coloured meaning only when taken out of its sphere and used in literary or colloquial speech. It goes without saying that there are terms for all the different specialists. Their variety is very great, such as: “amplitude (physics), antibiotic (medicine), arabesque (ballet), feedback (cybernetics), fission (biology), frame (cinema)”;

f) **Professionalisms** are the unofficial terms of a special domain, like: “tutorial” – “konsultasiya” (elmi rəhbərlə praktik məşğələ) – university; “kiriş ketqutu” – “catgut” – medicine; “trawl” – “trol” (balıq tutmada) – fishery; “təzəgələn əsgər, çağırışçı” – “newfer”, “rookie” – military;

g) **Barbarisms, or foreign words** are the words or expressions that are borrowed from other languages, but to some extent “adjusted” to the norms of the target language, like: “de facto” – “de fakto”; “nota bene” – “diqqət et”; “postscript” – “postskriptum”, but “ad lib” – “improvizasiya edərək, hazırlaşmamış”, “coup d’état” – “dövlət çevrilişi”; “bon mot” – “hazırcavab, məzhəkəli”.

In all the languages of the world we find a greater or smaller of foreign elements and many people think they are their own words. In English words “wall, street, chalk” and many others have become fully assimilated. They are mostly of Latin and Greek origin, for example: “democracy, proletariat, socialism, telephone, telegraph, soviet, combine, geography”, etc.;

h) **Exotic words** are the foreign words, being a part of the target language system, though denoting the concepts that are characteristic of the source language, such as: “çalma” – “turban”, “corrida” – “korrida”;

i) **Poetic words** (found in poetry), such as: “göy qurşağı” – “concave”; “kaman” – “brow”; “taxt” – “couch”; “pəhləvan, əsgər, döyüşçü” – “warrior”;

j) There are many terms among the **international words**. There is a tradition of forming scientific and technical terms on the basis of Latin and Greek roots. Such words become international words, such as: “telephone, telegraph, television”, etc. The suffixes “-ist, -ism” are also international, for example: communist, specialist, telegraphist, etc.

Semantically the international words mostly coincide special term, as: psychology, geography, geology, oncologist, etc. Besides them, we can come across with some international words in the Azerbaijani language. They are: “konstitusiya, integral, differensial, meridian, rejissor, simfoniya, not”, etc.

International words generally entered the Azerbaijani language during the XIX century.

l) By this figure we speak in gentle and favourable terms of some person, object or event, which is ordinarily seen in a less pleasing light. The origin of **euphemism** is to be sought in in the remotest past, at early stage of civilization, when religious taboo dictated the avoidance of certain terms. For example: the names of dead persons. People refuse to utter the name of a person, who is no longer living, or to give it to a child, so that name actually becomes obsolete

among the tribe. It was believed that the name of a person or a thing had the force of producing disasters.

The same feature of language is familiar in Modern English, such as: “to decease, to join the majority, yield up the ghost, to go to one’s reckoning, to expire, to pass away, to breathe one’s last, to go west, to be no more, to be gathered to one’s fathers” and so on. They are used instead of “die”.

Instead of “to kill” – “to finish, away with, to put away, to remove, to settle”, etc. Instead of “dead” they say “late, departed, deceased”. “My better half” instead of “my wife”.

Euphemisms are also widely used in the Azerbaijani language. Thus, instead of “ölmək” – vəfat etmək, dünyasını dəyişmək, əbədiyyətə qovuşmaq, etc. Instead of “qocalmaq” – saqqalına dən düşmək, yaşa dolmaq; instead of “ilan” – “lənətə gəlmiş”, instead of “canavar” – “ağzıqara” are used.

The **degraded lexicon** is represented by:

a) Literary colloquial words (everyday speech lexicon), such as: “rubbish” – “hədyan, tartan-partan, zir-zibil”; “tel” – “bang”; “donuz, lehməsi axan” – “piggy-wigg”;

b) Popular language (common parlance lexicon), such as: “beetle-head” – “pıspısı”; “velik, ped, bayk” (velosiped) – “bike”; “Aussie” – “avstraliyalı”; “yeraz” – “comers from Irevan khanate”; “naxçik” – “comers from Nakhchivan”;

c) Slang words (highly informal words not accepted for dignified use, sometimes expressing humorous attitude towards a denoted object), such as: “lələ, əcdad” (father) – governor; skirt (girl) – “ətək, don” (hər donun dalınca qaçan); “upper story” (past) – “köhnə söhbət” (öncədən baş verən hadisələr); “upper storey” (head) – “kəllə, təpə” (“baş” mənasında); “fins” (hands) – “üzgəclər” (“əllər” mənasında);

d) Jargon words (unofficial substitutes for professional terms), such as: “maths” – “riyaziyyat” stand for “mathematics” – students’ jargon; “minomyot” – “minnie stand” for “mortar” – military jargon, but “sükan” – driver’s jargon – “steering-wheel” – a stylistically neutral word; “ringer” – military jargon – “tələyə düşən” stylistically neutral;

e) Vituperative words or vulgarisms (swear words of abusive character), such as: “mug” – “morda”; “bicbala” – “bastard”;

f) Argot (thieves’ jargon) – special words and phrases typical to a certain social stratum used for being cryptic.

In English it is, first of all, the so-called “Cockney rhyming slang” – a code of speaking wherein a common word can be replaced by the whole or abbreviated form of a wellknown phrase which rhymes with that word, for example: “apples and pears” – “stairs”; “plates of meat” – “feet”; “butcher’s hook” – “look”; “rabbit and pork” – “talk”; “pork pies” – “lies”.

In Azerbaijani, argot words were primarily used by beggars, furriers, lirnyky (lyrists) to designate natural phenomena or household articles, for instance: “çətrbaz” – “adaxlı oğlan”; “sut” – “açıq-saçıq qız”; “alma” – “kişinin anasına qadınlar deyir”; “zudpəz” – “baldız”, “əfəl” – “tənbəl”; “əngo” – “çox danışan müəllim”; “tükan” – “şagird müəllimi xoşlamayanda”; “oraxlamaq” – “ucuz malı baha satmaq”; “itələmək” – “baha satmaq”; “fitdəmək” – “malı baha satmaq”; “abğuştluq” – “əlüm vaxtı çatan”; “dərməli” – “çox qocalan, ölüm halında olan”; “yağ yandırır” – “çox yaşlı və xəstə adam haqqında”; “burunu dönmək” – “qorxmaq”; “beş gedər” – “güclü hərəkət”; “tətil” – “zəif rəqib”; “qırağın çırmaq” – “qorxmaq”; “təkərə düşmək” – “başa düşməmək”; “tormoz” – “key”; “özüvə” – “özünə kart vermək”; “endirmə quş ” – “oğurluq quş”; “dülfür halfıra gelfirmişdin?” – “dünən haraya getmişdin?”; “balfırım gilə gelfirdim” – “bacım gilə getdim”; “əlfirin bilfirdi?” – “ərin bildimi?”; “yolfur ...olfura delfirməmişdim” – “yox ...ona deməmişdim”.

There is some coincidence of argot words in English and Azerbaijani that designate parts of the body, such as: “loaf of bread” - “head” – “bulka çörək” - “baş”.

One more phenomenon of thieves’ jargons is the back jargon – encryption that provides for using numerals in their reversed form, such as: “ano” – “one”; “owt” – “two”; “erth” – “three”; “boyaqçı” – “ikiüzlü, aravuran, riyakar”; “cazlamaq” – “oğurlamaq”; “cazlamaq, xırdalamaq” – “oğurlamaq”.

It should be pointed out that rhyming slang, unlike Azerbaijani argot words, is widely used in English nowadays.

Since the 1980s there has been a resurgence in the popularity of rhyming slang, with numerous new examples popping up in everyday speech, for example: Ayrton Senna – “tenner” (a monetary unit); Claire Rayners – “trainers” (the footwear); Dammon Hill – “pill”; David Gower – “shower”; Tony Blair – “hair”.

Stylistic Differentiation of the English Vocabulary. There are words equally fit to be used in a lecture, a poem or when speaking to a child. These are said to be **stylistically neutral**.

The English nouns “horse, steed, gee-gee” have the same denotational meaning in the sense that all refer to the same animal, but the stylistic colouring is different in each case.

Stylistically words can be roughly subdivided into literary, neutral and colloquial layers. We may single out various specific subgroups: terms or scientific words; poetic words and archaisms, such as: “whilome” – formal; “aught” – anything; barbarisms and foreign words, like: “bon mot” – a clever and witty saying. Besides there is slang and argot, such as: “job” – a place got by protection; “chit” – a short letter, message; “tiffin” – lunch, etc.

In Azerbaijani: alverçilər: “kalan, yağlı müştəri”; tələbələr: “quyruq, baxmaq, demək, sevişmək” (creep out), “köçürmək” which serve to denote a special

vocabulary and idioms used by a particular social or age group.

There are many slang words denote a new and necessary notion, they may prove an enrichment of the vocabulary and be accepted into Standard English, on the other hand, they make just another addition to a cluster of synonyms and have nothing but novelty to back them, they die out very quickly.

Jargonisms. In the non-literary vocabulary of the English language there is a group of words that are called jargonisms. Jargon is a recognized term for a group of words that exist in almost every language and the aim of which is to preserve secrecy within one or another social group. Jargonisms are generally old words with entirely immaterial, only the new, improvised meaning is of importance.

Thus, the word “grease” means money; “leaf” = head; “a lexic” = a student preparing for a law course; “a tiger hunter = a gambler”, etc.

In the Azerbaijani language dialectisms generally differ from literary language according to their phonetic characters, such as: phonetic dialectisms which have been formed according to sound interchange (vowel and consonant interchange):

ə -a: ərəbə < araba, Bəki < Bakı, qərdəş < qardaş;

a -ə: ada < ədə, dana < dənə, taxsır < təqsir;

ə - e: əyib < eyib, dəyil < deyil, həyif < heyif;

ö – e: öv < ev, döyül < deyil, söyündürmə < sevindirmə;

j – c: həjı < hacı, arxaj < arxac, bəjı < bacı, geje < gecə, etc.

Professionalisms are special words in the non-literary layer of the English vocabulary, whereas terms are a specialized group belonging to the literary layer of words. Professionalisms generally remain in circulation within a definite community, as they are linked to a common occupation and common social interests. The semantic structure of the term is usually transparent and is therefore

easily understood like terms. Professionalisms do not allow any polysemy, they are monosemantic. Here are some professionalisms used in different trades, for example: tim-fish – submarine; block-buster – a bomb especially designed to destroy blocks of big buildings; outer – a knock out blow, etc.

In Azerbaijani there are also rough and non literal words which are called vulgarisms or vulgar words, such as: veyillənmək (“gəzmək”), goplamaq (danışmaq), kaftar (qoca), donquldamaq (deyinmək), etc.

4. Semantic Equivalence.

The word “equivalence” is derived from Latin “æguus” – “equal” + valentis “having meaning, value”, is viewed as equality of value, force, importance, significance, etc.

The units A and B are supposed to be semantically equivalent, under the condition that they completely coincide by all marks of their semantic structure, and between them the identity relations are established: $A = B$.

In order to establish the semantic equivalence of two contrasted words, the following equation of the equivalent relations degree is used:

$$E = \frac{2C}{A' + B'}$$

where C stands for a number of general semantic features of words A and B. A' and B' stand for a number of semes in the structure of lexical meanings of the words A and B. E stands for the equivalence coefficient.

The equivalence coefficient (EC) is a factor that determines the semantic equivalence of the contrasted words within a zero-to-one scale: if the EC approximates to a “zero” mark, the contrasted words are considered less

semantically close to each other, if there prevails the approximation to a “one” mark, then the equivalents are regarded more semantically close.

If $E = 1$, the structures of lexical meanings are considered total equivalent.

0 _____ 1 < less semantically close more semantically close >

Semantic Equivalence Coefficient

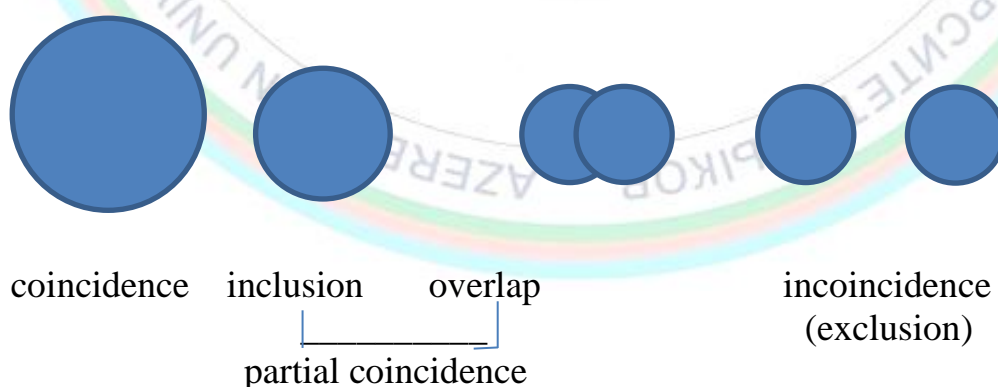
For example English “stork” – “a large mostly white bird with very long legs which walks around in water to find its food”; Azerbaijani “leylək” – “uzun boylu uzun-ayaqlı ağır fakturalı və ağ-qara tüklü böyük bir quş”.

$A' = 9$ (large, white, bird, long, leg, walk, water, find, food); $B' = 9$ (böyük, köçəri, quş, uzun, boylu, ayaq, ağ, qara, tüklü).

Conclusion: the words “stork” and “leylək” are partial equivalents.

5. Types of Semantic Equivalence.

The semantic equivalence of the contrasted words in English and Azerbaijani is determined by three types of equivalence: (total) coincidence, partial coincidence (inclusion and overlap), incoincidence (Fig. 3.2.).



Types of Semantic Equivalence

Coincidence, or identity ($A = B$ – class A and class B reveal the same membership) provides for complete, or total coincidence of lexical meanings of the contrasted words.

This type of relations is very often observed: in terms, such as: “atom” – “the smallest unit of any chemical element, consisting of a positive nucleus surrounded by negative electrons” – “atom” – “mənfi elektronlarla əhatə olunmuş müsbət bir nüvədən ibarət olan hər hansı bir kimyəvi elementin ən kiçik vahididir”, and borrowings, like: “import” – “something imported, especially “merchandise from abroad” – “idxal” – “malların gətirilməsi”.

Partial coincidence is characterized by incomplete coincidence of lexical meanings.

The incompleteness may be represented by means of inclusion, or of intersection. Inclusion ($A \subset B$ – class B is wholly included in class A) is partial coincidence that is based on the hyponymic relations revealed between lexical meanings of the contrasted words, like: “rose” – “a widely cultivated prickly shrub with showy fragrant flowers” – “roza, qızılgül” – “xoş ətirli çiçəklərlə geniş becərilən tikanlı kol” – the extension of the English equivalent is much wider, than that of the Azerbaijani one.

Overlap, or heteronymy ($A \cap B$ – class A and class B reveal a common membership, however each has the elements not found in the other) is partial coincidence that is based on an incomplete intersection of lexical meanings of the contrasted words, confer the words stork and лелека (vide supra).

When the boundaries of semantic intersections become vague, words start revealing the features of cross-linguistic homonyms, such as: “hymn” – “a song of praise to God” – “himn” – “Allaha tərif məzmunlu mahnı”.

Exclusion, or disjunction ($A \neq B$ – class A and class B reveal no common membership) is (total) incoincidence of lexical meanings, when each non-overlapping part preserves its own, unique set of semantic features.

Exclusion is observed in the so-called **nationally biased lexicon**, i.e. lexical items that designate some specific (not found in the other language) phenomena, for example, names of some dishes: “keçəri” – “düyü, hisə verilmiş balıq və doğranmış bərk qaynadılmış yumurta olan yemək”; “həgis” – “doğranmış yağlı qoyun və ya buzovun əti ədviyyatlarla və düyü”; “kedgeree” - “a dish containing rice, flaked smoked fish, and chopped hard-boiled eggs”; “haggis” - “a Scottish dish that consists of minced sheep’s or calf’s offal with suet, oatmeal, and seasonings, and traditionally boiled in the stomach of the animal”, etc.

6. Prototypical Semantics and Its Contrastive Representation.

The semantic equivalence of words in English and Azerbaijani is established, proceeding from the assumption that the nature of meaning and its origin are common for both languages. The cases of semantic equivalence that may be monitored in contrastive analysis are mostly determined by differences in a set of prototypical characteristics that constitute the meanings of the contrasted words.

A linguistic sign, being arbitrary in its relation to a designated object, is not arbitrary what regards its meaning. Establishing the content of a lexical meaning, we, first of all, take into account those typical features which are common to the class of objects denoted by the sign.

It is a cognitive approach towards semantic analysis carried out within the so-called prototype theory. Prototype Theory (B.Berlin, P.Kay, G.Lakoff, E.Rosch, Ch. Fillmore et al.) provides an explanation for the way word meanings are organized in the mind.

It is argued that words are categorized on the basis of a whole range of typical features. For example, a prototypical bird has feathers, wings, a beak, the ability to fly and so on. In other words, we differentiate between birds and other animals because we know some specific features and properties of a bird (it has a beak, wings, lays eggs, etc.).

Those characteristic features are prototypical, as they form the prototype of a bird. Decisions about category membership are then made by matching the features of a given concept against a prototype. Therefore, in order to establish similarities and differences between word meanings, we are likely to know those prototypical features that constitute words' meanings in the contrasted languages.

The experiments, carried out by E. Rosch showed that features are not the basis on which people categorize. Rather, they categorize on the basis of how close something is to the "prototype" or ideal member of the category. The scholar concludes:

- 1) When people categorize, they cannot tell you what features they use;
- 2) When people categorize, they usually find some members of categories more "typical" or "better" than others, for example: "a robin is a better member of the category of "bird" than an ostrich".
- 3) When people categorize, they categorize more typical members more quickly than less typical ones.

What is the nature of category? The category may be viewed as entity that comprises some discrete "senses", the salience of which provides for their being denoted by people.

In this way, we have a set of words, the meanings of which represent those "senses", i.e. typical features that constitute the category, but under the name, which is the best representative of this category.

There is, in fact, a strong agreement about what counts as the best exemplar of a particular category. For example, most people in England and Azerbaijani consider the colour terms “red” – “qırmızı, qızıl” to be the most typical instances.

It is the way the categories may be represented in English and Azerbaijani: category “red” (vermilion, scarlet, carmine, crimson, raspberry red, oriental red, poppy red, Indian red, madder crimson, signal red, fire red, French red, tomato red, cardinal red, saturn red, bright red, vivid red).

Category “qırmızı, qızıl” (qırmızı, tünd qırmızı, tünd çəhrayı, qanlı, bənövşəyi, çuğundur rəngi, moruq rəngi, ənlük, haşhaş, alovlu).

There may be observed some similarities and differences in the categorization of this colour spectrum. The equivalence grounds in similar conceptualization of the colour intensity, such as: “bright-red” – “parlaq qırmızı”, or some natural phenomena, like: “raspberry red” – “moruq qırmızı rəngli”; “poppy red” – “al-əlvən qırmızı”; “fire red” – “alovlu qırmızı”.

Partial equivalence, in its turn, is determined by different conceptualization of some cultural phenomena in English and Azerbaijani, for instance: “oriental red, Indian red, French red, cardinal red” – “şərq qırmızı, hindli qırmızı, fransızsayığı qırmızı, zəfəran rəngli qırmızı”.

Thus, analyzing the results of semantic change we have to remember the following. According to the types of change there are four major tendencies: extension of meaning (generalization); narrowing of meaning (specialization); degradation of meaning (pejoration); elevation of meaning (amelioration).

Extention of meaning (Generalization). Extention of meaning means widening of the word. For example: *Manuscript* is a word that now refers to any author’s copy, whether written by hand or typed, but originally it meant only something written by hand. But the word *manufactured* now applies generally to all sorts of mechanical process.

In Azerbaijani we can come across the words which have widened their meanings, for example: We can observe the extension of the word “göy” in Modern Azerbaijani language in the monument of Gültəkin (VII-VIII centuries) instead of “səma” (sky), was used not “göy”, but “tanrı” in Mahmud Kashgari’s dictionary (XI century), the word “göy” (sky), was used in the meanings of “rəng” (colour) and “səma” (sky). The second meaning “səma” (sky) was used later. In Modern Azerbaijani language this word “göy” acquired a new meaning “göyərli” (greens).

If the word “fəqir” was used in the meaning of “poor” in old Azerbaijani language, but in Modern Azerbaijani it is generalized and used in the meanings of “sakit” (quiet), “yazıq” (poor), “zərərsiz” (uninjured), etc.

Thus, extension of meaning means extension of the word range. In most cases it is naturally combined with a higher degree of abstraction than implied in the earlier meaning of the word. Most words begin as specific names for things. However, this precise denotation is lost and the meaning of the word gets extended and generalised.

For instance: “Season” once had the meaning spring, time for sowing. Now it embraces all parts of the year. “Salary” once had the meaning the money to buy salt for. Now it means money to buy anything. “Thing” once meant anything that can be agreed on in trade. Now it has a generic meaning. “Town” once meant fence. Now it denotes a settlement. “Arrive” once meant to land, to reach the shore. Now any place of destination is presupposed.

“Free” once meant dear. Then according to the process of generalisation it acquired the meaning free. At first it was used in regard to someone from the family of a slave-owner, who he loved and respected. Then it was applied to any relative of a slave-owner. The opposition - free and slave - brought to the extension and change of meaning of the word.

Narrowing of meaning (Specialization). If a word begins to be applied to a

narrower (or a less) number of objects or phenomena its meaning is narrowed. It is one of the tendencies – narrowing of meanings or restriction.

In early times, a human or animal body, living or dead, was called “corpse”. Now this general term has been specialized to mean “a dead body”, usually that of “human being”. Or the word “meat” originally meant “any kind of food”, but now it means only “flesh of some animals”.

In Azerbaijani in the period of M.Kashgari (XI century) all the animal flocks (sürü) were called “ilxı”, now we say only “a herd of horses”;

All kinds of meals were called “aş”, but now it is specialized into “plov”. In the expression onun aşının suyunu vermək, aşını bişirmək the component “aş” retains its previous meaning.

Thus, narrowing of meaning is the process when a word acquires a specialised sense in which it is applicable only to some of the objects it had previously denoted or a word of wide usage is restricted in its application and comes to be used only in a special sense. For example: In Shakespeare’s “King Lear” there is a reference made to mice and rats and such small deer. In Old English deer meant any beast. “Coffin” once meant a box. Then it began to mean a special box for the dead.

These are the cases in which narrowing took place due to the concretization of meaning. Sometimes narrowing takes place due to the differentiation of concepts. This is the case when two words were synonyms once and then they acquired different meanings. For instance: “Stool” once meant “taburet, stul, kətil”. After the word “chair” was borrowed from French, the word “stool” began to be used only for “taburet”. Attributes when used continuously with a word may lead to the narrowing of meaning: corn (Indian corn), private (private soldier).

Narrowing can take place when the name of the material is transferred onto the thing made of this material: iron, kids.

It is a well-known fact that people tend to specialise and thus to narrow the

meanings of words connected with their special activities, such as: the word “operation” - “operasiya, əməliyyat” has quite different meanings to a financial worker, to a mathematician, to a military man and to a physician.

Degradation of meaning (Pejoration). Along with elevation of meaning there exists one more process of meaning, i.e. degradation. Degradation is such a process that a word falls into disrepute for some reasons.

The word “knave” in Old English meant “a boy, a servant boy”. But as from the point of view of the master most of the servant boys were rouses, the word “knave” descended to the meaning “rascal”, which means originally meant “yaramaz, dələduz”; “mood – moody” (of bad temper) = məyus, qəmgin; “scheme-schemer” = fitnəkar.

The following words are examples of degradation of meanings: “churl” (qanacaqsız) - in OE meant “a man”; “boor” (tərbiyəsiz) - in OE meant “a farmer”.

In M.Kashgari’s dictionary the word “alçaq” (ignoble, scounderal, villioan, rascal) was used in the meanings of “good natured, tender, tender natured”. This meaning shows itself in the following sentence: Biz alçaq könüllü peyğəmbərlərdəniz (H.Cavid)

Thus, degradation of meaning is the process whereby for one reason or another a word falls into disrepute. Words once respectable may become less respectable. Some words reach such a low point that it is considered improper to use them at all. For example: “Idiot” meant private in Greek and uneducated in Latin. Now it has a negative meaning of a “fool” in both languages. “Greedy” meant “hungry”. Now it means “stingy”. “Villain” meant a person living in the country. Now it means a “scoundrel”.

Elevation of meaning (Amelioration). In the course of time some words have completely changed their meanings. It happened because people’s attitude to some things or phenomena has changed. The process known as elevation or amelioration

is opposite of degradation.

Lord – Christian word; the lord – God; Lord knows. “The Lord’s day” – bazar günü; “to lord” – idarə etmək, “lord” – inzibati vəzifə tutan şəxs;

Queen – 1) kraliça, şahzadə; 2) ilahə, mələikə; 3) gözəllik, bəzək; 4) sevgili, canan;

Duke – hersoq (Qərbi Avropada yüksək zadəgan rütbələrindən biri);

Tory – 1) İngiltərədə indiki konservativlər (mühafizəkarlar, köhnəlik tərəfdarları) partiyasının əsasını təşkil edən siyasi partiyanın adı; 2) konservativlər partiyası

In the Azerbaijani language we can see the elevation of meaning in the word “Sibir” (Siberia). In ancient times it was used in the meanings as “arest, excile, punishment” because who was punished hardly was sent to Siberia at that time. Now at presenty the word “Siberia” is not used in the above mentioned meanings.

Thus, elevation of meaning presupposes the following thing. Words often rise from humble beginnings to positions of greater importance. Such changes are not always easy to account for in detail, but, on the whole, we may say that social changes are of the very first importance with words that acquire better meanings.

Some highly complimentary words were originally applied to things of comparatively slight importance, for example: “Fame” meant news (good or bad). Now it means “glory”. “Nice” meant “foolish”. The word was gradually specialised in the sense foolishly particular about trifles. Then the idea of folly was lost and particular about small things, “accurate” came into existence. “To adore” had the meaning to speak with “to greet, to address”. Now it means “to love, to worship”. The words “ofis, menejment, direksiya, kuryer” are considered to have better meanings than “idarə, müdiriyyət, direksiya, çapar”.

Chapter IV. Epidigmatic Aspect of Contrastive Lexicology.

1. Epidigmatic Relations.

2. Types of Meanings of a Polysemous Word.

3. Semantic Structure of a Polysemous Word.

4. Types of Polysemy and their Contrastive Representations.

5. Causes of Semantic Change in English and Azerbaijani.

6. Types of Semantic Change in English and Azerbaijani: Metaphor and Metonymy.

7. Processes of Development and Change of Meaning: Specialization and Generalization, Elevation and Degradation, Enantiosemy in English and Azerbaijani.

8. Homonymy in English and Azerbaijani.

9. Paronyms in English and Azerbaijani.

1. Epidigmatic Relations.

The onomasiological and semasiological aspects of Contrastive Lexicology focus on the similarities and differences either at the level of the formal characteristics of a word, or at the level of its meaning, without taking into account the associative or the so-called **epidigmatic relations** that may exist either within the word, or between its formal features. The relations of this type suggest the former aspects being supplemented with one more aspect – the epidigmatic one.

Being defined as a “third dimension” of the lexico-semantic system, the epidigmatic relations determine the lexical meaning by its interrelation with other

meanings, constituting a pattern, or framework of the semantic structure of a polysemous word, i.e. word having several connected meanings.

Besides, the paradigmatic relations may determine the interrelations between the words on the basis of their formal characteristics, as in this case with homonyms and paronyms, though this kind of relations is formally associative, i.e. it takes into account a structural or phonological representation of the word. In this case, it is a visual or auditory association that counts.

2. Types of Meanings of a Polysemous Word.

Within a polysemous word one should distinguish the following types of meanings:

a) Direct meaning – directly points out the correlation of the word with the reality phenomena, being fixed in a speaker’s mind, such as: “məhəbbət” – 1) “başqa bir insana güclü bağlılıq, istək” – “love” - 1) “a strong feeling of attachment, tenderness, and protectiveness for another person”;

b) Transferred meaning – a secondary (derived) meaning which characterizes natural phenomena indirectly. It is the result of name transference from one object onto another.

Very often the contrasted languages reveal differences in the realizations of transferred meanings, such as: “məhəbbət” - 2) “cinsi istək əsasında cazibə və sədaqət” – “love” - 2) “attraction or devotion based on sexual desire”; “məhəbbət” – 3) “isti bir maraq və bir şeydən zövq almaq” - 3) “warm interest in and enjoyment of something”; “məhəbbət” – 4) “sevgi obyektı” - 4) “the object of love”; 5) “tenisdə sıfır bir bal” - 5) “a score of zero in tennis, squash, etc.”; 6) “İngiltərədə qeyri-rəsmi ünsiyyət forması kimi istifadə olunur” – 6) “in Britain informal used as a friendly or affectionate form of address”.

Polysemy is a diachronic term. For example: the word “table” has some meanings (lövhə, yemək, qonaqları əyləndirmək, table manner and so on), but the primary meaning is a “flat slab of stone or wood”, the other meanings are secondary meanings, and they derived from the primary meaning of the word.

In Azerbaijani the word “ağac” is used in different meanings. Besides its main meaning we can observe its other meanings: “tir, dirək, taxta, şalban, əsa”, etc. for instance: “ağac” - ələ götürülən əsa; ağac – ölçü vahidi. “Bir ağac yol getmək”.

3. Semantic Structure of a Polysemous Word.

The analysis of relations between the direct and transferred meanings in English and Azerbaijani determines the hierarchy of lexicosemantic variants, degree of their dependence – sometimes the direct meaning in the target language corresponds to a transferred meaning in the source language, such as:

“land” – 1) “the solid part of the earth’s surface, as distinct from seas, lakes, rivers, etc.; 2) ground owned as property or attached to a building; 3) a particular country, region, or state” – “yer, quru, diyar, ölkə, yurd, məmləkət, el” – 1) günəşdən sonra üçüncüsü öz oxu ətrafında fırlanan planet; 2) yerin üst qatı; 3) yer kürəsinin tərkibində olan tünd qəhvəyi rəngdə maddə; 4) su sahəsindən fərqli olan torpaq; 5) bitki böyütmək üçün torpaq; 6) ölkə, torpaq, dövlət.

The contrastive analysis gives the opportunity to understand the chain of meanings generation (semantic derivation) in each language, the characteristics of their arrangement, such as:

“tea” – 1) “a drink made by pouring hot water onto, dried and cut leaves and sometimes flowers, especially the leaves of the tea plant; 2) a small meal eaten in the late afternoon, usually including cake and a cup of tea; 3) meal which is eaten early the evening and which is usually cooked” – “çay” – 1) “xüsusi müalicə üçün qurudulmuş yarpaqlarından ətirli içki hazırlamaq üçün cənub yaşıl bir bitki, ağac,

kol”; 2) “ləzzətli bir içki hazırlamaq üçün istifadə olunan bir bitkinin qurudulmuş yarpaqları”; “bitki yarpaqlarından ibarət olan ətirli, əsasən isti, içki”.

The given example viewed in terms of the prototype theory reveals some nationally determined specificities of the meanings arrangement. For the British the process of tea-drinking is a socially predetermined fact, which reduces to communication, pastime, or a fling.

Not without reason, there are so many collocations and idioms with a “tea”-component in English:

“for all the tea in China” = nothing would persuade me to do it;

“tea chest” = a large wooden box used first for storing tea after that for other things, especially when someone is moving from one house to another;

“tea party” = occasion when people meet in the afternoon to drink tea and eat a small amount of food, etc.

For the Azerbaijanis the prototypic meaning “a drink made from the leaves” is likely to be the most relevant, as for maintaining a conversation we prefer during the day most of all other drinks only tea (black and green). For example:

“can dərmanı” (çay) – the cup that cheers, but not inebriates – напиток веселящий, но и пьянящий (чай);

“çay gəlməmiş çırmanmaq” – to do smth. before the proper time / to be in a hurry to do smth. (to do smth. prematurely) – действовать преждевременно / торопиться в своих действиях;

“çauxor olmaq” – to be a tea-lover (to sit long over one’s tea) – много выпивать чай (сидеть долго, выпивая чай);

“Çayın biri qaydadır, ikisi cana faydadır, üçü nəsdır, dördü bəsdır, o ki keçdi beşə vur on beşə ...” – The first one sticks in your throat but the next just slips down. (of drinks) / *Lit.* The first glass sticks in the throat, the second flies down

like a hawk, but after the third they're like tiny little birds. – Первая чарка колом, вторая соколом, а остальные мелкими пташками. / Чарку пить - здоровью быть, повторить - ум развеселить, утроить - ум устроить, много пить - нестройну быть. / Первая рюмка - колом, вторая - соколом, а третья - мелкими пташечками. (Каждая следующая рюмка спиртного легче пьётся);

“çaypulu vermək” – to tip someone / to give someone a tip / to get a tip – на чай (давать, получать как вознаграждение за услуги) / оставлять чаевые деньги за обслуживание в ресторане.

4. Types of Polysemy and their Contrastive Representations.

According to the arrangement (dependence, motivation) of the lexicosemantic variants in a polysemous word, three types of polysemy are singled out: concatenation, radiation, and mixed (concatenation and radiation) type.

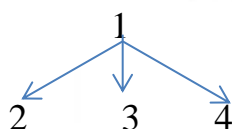
A concatenation type is characterized by a single-dimensional arrangement of meanings which relate with each other successively, forming a single chain, such as: “green” – 1) “of a colour between blue and yellow in the spectrum; 2) covered with herbage or foliage; 3) not yet ripe or mature (of fruit); 4) immature, unskilled, inexperienced” – “yaşıl” – 1) spektrdə mavi və sarı arasında olan bir rəng; 2) ot bitkisi və ya yarpaq ilə örtülən; 3) hələ yetişməmiş meyvə; 4) qeyri-kamil, bacarıqsız, təcrübəsiz cavan bir kəs.

1
↓
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Concatenation type of polysemy

A radiation type is determined by an immediate relationship of the transferred meanings of a word with a direct one and, are motivated by it, such as:

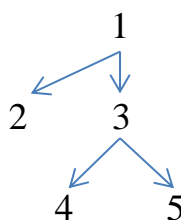
“it” – 1) “müxtəlif cinsdə olan ətyeyən dördayaqlı ev heyvanı”; 2) “qeyri-rəsmi yoldaş”; 3) “ifrat dərəcəsində cəlbedici olmayan kifir qadın”; 4) “çoxsaylı levret cinsindən yarış iti” – “dog” – 1) “a four-legged flesh-eating domesticated mammal occurring in a great variety of breeds; 2) informal fellow; 3) derogatory unattractive woman; 4) plural greyhound racing”.



Radiation type of polysemy

A mixed type may have various configurations, depending on the meanings' immediate relations, such as:

“root” – 1) “the underground part of a flowering plant that anchors and supports it and absorbs and stores food”; 2) “the part of a tooth, hair, the tongue, etc. by which it is attached to the body”; 3) “something that is an underlying cause or basis”; 4) “in grammar, the base element from which a word is derived”; 5) “a number which produces a given number when multiplied by itself an indicated number of times” – “kök” – 1) “çiçəklənən bitkinin, onu bərkidən, saxlayan, qidanı qəbul edən və ona ötürən yeraltı hissəsi”; 2) “dişin, tükün, dilin və s. hissəsi, onun vasitəsilə o bədənə birləşir”; 3) “əsas səbəb və ya dəlil, motiv olan bir şey”; 4) “qrammatikada əsas sözdüzəldici element”; 5) “riaziyyatda göstərilən saydan bir neçə dəfə çoxaldıqda verilmiş bir rəqəm”.



Mixed type of polysemy

5. Causes of Semantic Change in English and Azerbaijani.

In the course of the historical development of language, the word meaning is liable to change. The factors accounting for semantic change may be roughly subdivided into two groups: extra-linguistic and linguistic.

By extra-linguistic factors there are meant:

a) Various changes in the life of a community, changes in economic, social and other spheres of human activities. Those changes generate the necessity of new designations, such as:

“key” – 1) “a metal instrument by which the bolt of a lock is turned; 2) “a small button on a keyboard, for example, of a computer or typewriter”; 3) “a small switch for opening or closing an electric circuit”; 4) “a means of gaining or preventing entrance, possession, control” – “açar” – 1) “istənilən kilidin açmaq üçün istifadə edilən metaldan bir alət”; 2) “klaviaturada kiçik bir düymə, misal üçün, kompüterdə və ya çap maşınında”; 3) “elektrik dövrəsini açmaq və ya bağlamaq üçün kiçik bir keçid”; 4) “giriş-çıkış, mal-mülk, nəzarət etmək üçün bir vasitə”.

b) Psychological causes – they are vetos or taboos, arising from fear, religious beliefs, over-delicacy, or when talking on unpleasant topics (diseases, death, sex, human body functions, etc.).

In this case, one uses words that in the course of time, having acquired new meanings, become euphemistic, such as:

“fable” – 1) “a fanciful, epigrammatic story, usually illustrating a moral precept or ethical observation > 2) “a falsehood” – “əfsanə” – 1) “adətən bir əxlaqi qaydanı və ya etik müşahidəni əks etdirən fantastik, epigramatik bir hekayə” > 2) “yalan, xilaf, yalançı”.

“natəmiz” – 1) “çirk, murdar, napak, kirli” > 2) qara qüvvə: “cin, şeytan, iblis” – “unclean” – 1) “dirty, filthy” > 2) “unclean spirit: demon, devil, satan”.

By linguistic factors there are meant changes of meaning, occurring within the system of language:

a) Ellipsis: the phrase made up of two words, one of which being omitted and its meaning being transferred to its partner, such as: weekly < weekly paper - həftəlik < həftəlik nəşr (qəzet);

b) Semantic analogy: within a group of words referring to a common concept, one of the words may acquire a new meaning under the condition that another word of this group has already acquired it.

Thus, the members of the group develop analogous meanings. This phenomenon finds its embodiment in Sperber’s Law: If at a certain time a given complex of representations is so heavily charged with emotions that it drives one word beyond its original meaning and forces it to adopt a new meaning, we can expect with certainty that this same complex of representations will also force other expressions that belong to it to transgress their sphere of use and thus develop new meanings (Sperber, 1923: 67). For example, the English verbs get and grasp acquired the new meaning “to grasp with the sense or the mind” after their synonym catch “to take hold of smth.” had acquired it, the Azerbaijani words “tutmaq” – 1) “(bir kəs) qaçanda”; 2) “qavramağa çalışmaq, dərk etmə, nəşə udmaq”.

6. Types of Semantic Change in English and Azerbaijani: Metaphor and Metonymy.

It becomes clear that there are associative relations that underlie a secondary designation, based on names transferences. Those relations are reflexions of our concepts and ideas about the relations the reality phenomena reveal.

Linguists distinguish direct or nominative meaning and figurative meaning in a word. The meaning is nominative when it nominates the object without the help of the context (in isolation).

The main semantic processes or the most frequent transfers are based on associations of similarities or of contiguity. These types of transfer are well-known as figures of speech and called metaphor, metonymy, hyperbole, euphemism, litotes, irony, synecdoche and zoosemy.

Depending on the basis of associative relations – either contiguity of phenomena, or their similarity – the metonymic and metaphoric transferences are distinguished, as well as their varieties – synecdoche; functional or synaesthetic transferences.

The term “metaphor” is derived from Greek which means “meta” – “change over” and “pherein” – “to bear, to carry”. So, a metaphor is a transfer of name based on the association of similarity and it is actually a hidden comparison.

Metaphor is a transfer of name based on the association of similarity and thus is actually a hidden comparison. It presents a method of description which likens one thing to another by referring to it as if it were some other one. In actual usage the motivation of the word meaning may be obscured or completely lost. The last leads to the development of the so-called **fossilised** or **trite** metaphors by origin.

Fossilised metaphors belong to the vocabulary of a given language as a system. In such cases the connection between the original and transferred word meaning is lost. Such transpositions may lead to a complete semantic change of a word, wherein the secondary figuratively derived meaning becomes, in fact, primary. The word “metaphor” itself is a metaphor, meaning to carry over, across a term or expression from its normal usage to another.

Metaphors may be created on the similarity of different physical properties, such as:

- a) Similarity of shape, like: “needle’s eye, tables leg”;
- b) Similarity of size, like: “midget, elephantine”;
- c) Similarity of colour, like: “orange, violet”;
- d) Similarity of function, like: “hand, finger-post”;
- e) Similarity of position, like: “back of the chair, foot of the mountain”;
- f) Similarity of firmness, like: “egg-shell china, steel resolution”.

It must be borne in mind that linguistic metaphor is different from metaphor as a literary device. When the latter is offered and accepted both the author and the reader are to a greater or lesser degree aware that this reference is figurative, that the object has another name.

The relationship of the direct denotative meaning of the word and the meaning it has in the literary context in question is based on the similarity of some features in the objects compared.

The **poetic metaphor** is the result of the author’s creative imagination. In a linguistic metaphor, especially if it is dead as a result of long usage, the thing named often has no other name.

In a dead metaphor the comparison is completely forgotten. The meaning of such expressions as a sun beam or beam of light is not explained by allusions to a tree, although the word is actually derived from Old English “beam” (tree).

One can speak of different degrees of deadness as it were taking for illustration such metaphors as to ruminant (to think), originally applied to a cow’s cud chewing or, say, such metaphors as “time flies, a cold look” which are quite faded. Such adjective metaphors as “orange, violet” are no longer felt as figurative.

In English and Azerbaijani **metaphor** (similarity of meanings) may be described as a semantic process of associating two denotata, one of which in some way (in shape, colour, appearance, etc.) resembles the other, such as:

“neck” – 1) “the part of a person or animal that connects the head the head with the body”; 2) “a relatively narrow part shaped like a neck” – “boyun” – 1) “başı bədənlə bağlayan şəxsin və ya heyvanın hissəsi”; 2) “nisbətən dar bir hissə, boyun şəklində”;

“tülkü” – “it ailəsindən ətyeyən, iri dik qulaqları və uzun tüklü quyruğu sahib olan bir heyvan növü”; 2) “ağıllı məkrli bir adam”; 3) Amerika ingiliscəsində: qeyri-rəsmi cəlbedici bir qadın – “fox” – 1) “a flesh-eating mammal of the dog family with a pointed muzzle, large erect ears, and a long bushy tail; 2) a clever crafty person; 3) American English: informal a physically attractive woman”.

In case the name of an object or phenomenon is transferred onto the other object or phenomenon as the result of their functional unity, we register functional transference, such as:

“shuttle” – 1) “a spindle-shaped device that holds a bobbin and is used in weaving for passing the thread of the weft between the threads of the warp; 2) a sliding thread holder that carries the lower thread in a sewing machine through a loop of the upper thread to make a stitch” – “məkik” – 1) “arğac kimi işlədilmək üçün iplik sarınan uzunsov oval qutuvə ya qəlib şəklində alət, dəzgahın məkiki, bir çubuq tutan və toxunuşun ipini çubuqun ipləri arasında keçməsi üçün istifadə olunan bir milli formalı cihaz”; 2) “bir dikiş etmək üçün yuxarı ipin bir döngəsi vasitəsi ilə bir tikiş maşınının alt hissəsini daşıyan sürüşən bir ip tutucusu”.

Going further with the functional transference, the words have acquired new meanings recently, such as: 3) “a vehicle or aircraft that travels regularly between two places”, like: “The American (space) shuttle can be used many times to put payloads in space” – 3) “mütəmadi şəkildə iki yer arasında səyahət edən bir

nəqliyyat vasitəsi və ya təyyarə, məsələn: Amerika (kosmik) nəqliyyat vasitəsinin boş yeri dəfələrlə kosmosa yük daşımaq üçün istifadə edilə bilər”.

The same transference is observed in the English phrase shuttle diplomacy “discussions to try and make peace between two or more opposed countries, in which someone travels between the countries involved, carrying messages and suggesting ways of dealing with problems”, such as:

“The Secretary General of the United Nations was involved in weeks of shuttle diplomacy” – “Birləşmiş Millətlər Təşkilatının Baş Katibi həftəlik “servis diplomiyasında” iştirak edib”.

“Hüseynağa Musa oğlu Sadıqov dəfələrlə “servis diplomiyasında” iştirak edib”.

Other cases of this kind of functional transference are observed in compounds and special word combinations, such as:

“shuttlecock” – “the game (more fully battledore and shuttlecock, now played only by children) in which the shuttlecock is hit with the battledore backwards and forwards between two players, or by one player into the air as many times as possible without dropping it”;

“shuttle bombing” – “bombing carried out by planes taking off from one base and landing at another”;

“shuttle service” – “a service of shuttle-trains; more widely, any transport service in which vehicles or aircraft travel to and fro between fixed points at frequent intervals”, etc.

The Azerbaijani language also reveals numerous cases of occasional meanings, such as:

“Halbuki “servis” qaçaqmalçıların qazancı üçün əgər biz gələcəkdə turizmin inkişafını dayandırmaq qərarına gələsək də, kiçik sərhəd trafikinə dair

razılaşma burada heç nəyi dəyişməyəcəkdir. Vergi ödəməsinin minimuma endirməyin bir yolu “məkikli servisdir”. Müəyyən vaxt ərzində ponton döyüşçüləri, hər biri 170 ton tutumlu iki PMM-2M bərə təchiz etdi, bu da əsgər və hərbi texnikanın qarşı tərəfə təhvil verilməsini servis vasitəsilə həyata keçirdi.

Another type of metaphor, found mainly amid adjectives, is **synaesthesia** – transference from one kind of sensory experience to another, such as:

“soft” – 1) “yielding to physical pressure (a soft ground, sand, pillow); 2) pleasing or agreeable to the senses (soft music, voice, sound)” – “yumşaq” – 1) “fiziki təzyiqə meylli (yumşaq torpaq, qum, yastıq)”; 2) “xoşagələn və hisslərə uyğun (sakit musiqi, səs, səda)”.

The adjectival vocabulary includes the names of various types of physical properties: temperature, size, taste, light, etc. They are used to designate various types of conceptual domains. For example, the contrastive analysis of the tactile words, like:

“sharp” – “well-adapted to cutting or piercing, usually by having a thin keen edge or fine point” (a sharp knife) – “iti” – “kəsmə və pirsinq üçün uyğun, ümumiyyətlə nazik iti ucu var (iti bıçaq)” has shown that in English prevails the transference onto the domains of physical appearance:

- a) Characterized by hard lines and angles (sharp features);
- b) Clear in outline or details; distinct (a sharp image);
- c) Informal stylish or dressy (a sharp dresser),
- d) Of physical activities: sudden and vigorous or violent (a sharp tap),
- e) Of sense perception: able to perceive clearly and distinctly (a sharp sight, nose);
- f) Causing intense usually sudden anguish (sharp pain);

g) Affecting the senses or sense organs intensely especially in flavour (sharp wine),

h) Of intellectual activities: quick to notice; clever (a sharp mind / a sharp intellect),

i) Of natural phenomena: biting cold; icy (a sharp frost, sharp wind),

j) Of music: of a musical note: raised one semitone in pitch (the key of C sharp), whilst for the Azerbaijani language those are the domains

a) Of physical appearance: (şiddətli görünüş),

b) Of physical activities: (düşüncəli görüntü, itidilli (acıdil) olmaq, kəsərli söz, iti getmək (tələsmək), iti gedən çəkmələr, iti qələmi var),

c) Of intellectual activities: (açıqgözlü şəxs, kəlləli adam, huşlu bəndə, sərt xüsusiyyətlər, subyektiv mülahizəli məsələ, iti ağıl, iti balta kimi başına enmək (gözlənilməyən bir hadisə haqqında)),

d) Of sense perception: (iti göz (müşahidə qabiliyyəti), kəskin baxış, iti baxış),

e) Of psychological state: (sərt baxış, itiuclu burun, iti bıçaq (ürəkbulandıran bir şey və ya zəhləmgetmiş bir kəs haqqında)).

Thus, metaphors may be simple and complex.

Simple metaphors are based on the resemblance between physical properties, appearance of objects, such as: “colour, form, movement, position”, etc. For example: a bridge = 1) körpü; 2) bənd; 3) xərək; 4) burunun üst hissəsi (eynəkdə)

Complex metaphors are based on various complicated images defying classification, such as: the key to a mystery, the light of knowledge, etc.

There are many set expressions, proverbs that contain the names of animals,

bird, etc. used metaphorically. For instance: “a snake in the grass” – gizli düşmən, “to make mountains out of molehills” – qarışqadan fil düzəltmək, şişirtmək; “to take a bee line” – kəsə yolla getmək.

As it is in English, in Azerbaijani metaphors may be simple and complex too. Let us see how vivid and pictorial metaphors in Azerbaijani are, how they make for clearness and beauty, such as: “İnsan gülür – dəniz gülür, adam gəlir – səs gəlir, adamın gözü – səhərin gözü” və s.

In Azerbaijani metaphors are also based on the resemblance between physical properties, such as: colour, form, movement, position, etc.

The cognitive approach towards metaphor reveals its integrality into language and understanding. Linguist *George Lakoff* and philosopher *Mark Johnson* in “Metaphors We Live By” argue that “metaphor is pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action. Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature” (Lakoff, Johnson, 1980: 3).

The scientists adopt a broad definition of metaphor, examine common phrases for metaphorical interpretation, and offer a classification system of metaphors. For example, orientational metaphors are found in our ordinary language and are part of the spatial organization of our lives.

When one says, “He dropped dead” – Biri deyəndə: “öldü” or “He’s in top shape” – “Ən yaxşı formadadır”, one uses the orientational metaphor that we live by: “Health and life are up; sickness and death are down” – “Sağlamlıq və həyat yaxşılaşır, xəstəlik və ölüm azalır”.

This orientation is not arbitrary. The scientists point out that one lies down when one is ill. Just as the basic experiences of human spatial orientations give rise to orientational metaphors, so our experiences with physical objects provide the basis for an extraordinarily wide variety of ontological metaphors.

That is, ways of viewing events, activities, emotions, ideas, etc. as entities and substances. For example, take the experience of rising prices, which can be metaphorically viewed as an entity via the noun “inflation”. This gives us a way of referring to the experience, for instance:

“Inflation is an entity. Inflation is lowering our standard of living. If there’s much more inflation, we’ll never survive”.

“We need to combat inflation. Inflation is backing us into a corner. Inflation makes me sick”.

In these cases, viewing inflation as an entity allows us to refer to it, quantify it, identify a particular aspect of it, see it as a cause, act with respect to it, and perhaps even believe that we understand it (Lakoff, Johnson, 1980: 26).

The contrastive analysis of **cognitive metaphor** in the English and Azerbaijani languages may reveal not only designation strategies in the contrasted languages, but also ways the English and Azerbaijanis think and interpret the reality.

One of the procedures that underlies the contrastive analysis of cognitive metaphor grounds in using lexical units to establish the characteristics of analogical mapping between the source and target domains, they being the basis for metaphorical concepts.

The target domain is usually an abstract concept such as “life”, whereas the source domain is typically a more concrete concept, such as a “day”. The metaphor allows us to export conceptual structure about the more concrete domain to the more abstract target domain.

Conceptualizing “life” as a “day” allows us to map the various structures comprising a “day” onto aspects of a “life”, understanding our “birth” as the “dawn”, “old age” as the “evening”, and so forth.

These correspondences, called mappings, allow us to make sense of our lives, understand our stage of life, and appreciate that stage, working while “the sun is high, savoring the sunset”, and so on.

The contrastive analysis may reveal similarities and differences in metaphorical concepts, hence, in analogical mapping. Here is the analysis of the concept of “anger” – “hirs, hiddət, acıq, qeyz, qəhər”, based on the English and Azerbaijani phraseological units:

Total Congruence, for example: “to drive somebody mad” – “to make somebody very angry”;

Acıqlı başda ağıl olmaz. / Hirsli başda ağıl verməz. – Anger is a short madness. – Гнев - кратковременное безумие. / Гнев сродни безумию. / Сердито - неумно, а хлопотливо - несбойливо. / Сердит, да бессилен - свинье брат. / Сердитый умрёт - никто его не уймёт. / У огня не бывает прохлады, у гнева – рассудка;

“gnash one’s teeth” – “to express a strong feeling such as extreme anger, pain, or sadness”;

Anger is an acute sound. – Acıqdan dişlərini qıcamaq.

Partial Congruence, for example:

Anger is a hot liquid. – “to seethe with anger (rage)” – “to feel anger without expressing it”;

Anger is fire. – “to add fuel to the fire” – “to aggravate someone’s rage, to make someone still angrier”;

“to burn with anger” – “to feel very hot because of anger”;

Acıği gələn su içər. – If you are angry drink some water. – На сердитых воду возят, а на дутых - кирпичи.

Acığın dövlətə zərəri var. / Acıqlı dilənçinin torbası boş qalar. – Anger is a bad adviser. – Во зле жить - по миру ходить. / Сердитый без ужина спать ложится.

Incongruence, for example:

Anger is qas. / Anger is light. / Anger is a (guided) object. – “to vent “to let loose, pour out, wreak (one’s anger, spleen, etc.) on” or “upon a person or thing”;

Inequivalence, for example:

Anger is an aggressive animal. – “to get one’s hackles up” – “to make somebody angry”;

“to get one’s monkey up” – “to annoy or irritate somebody very much”;

“to ruffle one’s feathers” – “to upset or annoy somebody”.

Metonymy is a device in which the name of one thing is changed for that of another to which it is related by association of ideas as having close relationship to one another. The simplest case of metonymy is **synecdoche**. Synecdoche means giving a part for the whole or vice versa, like: foot (infantry), “town” may be applied to the inhabitants of it. The word “violin” is often used to denote not the instrument but the musician who plays it.

Faded metonymy can be found in the political vocabulary when the place of some establishment is used not only for the establishment itself or its staff but also for its policy: the White House, the Pentagon.

Other examples of metonymy include:

- a) The sign for the thing signified: grey hair (old age).
- b) The instrument for the agent: the best pens of the day (the best writers).
- c) The container for the thing contained: He drank a cup.

d) The names of various organs can be used in the same way: head can be used for brains; heart often stands for emotions. Honey tongue, a heart of gall. A part of species substituted for a whole or genus: He manages to earn his bread (the necessities of life).

e) A whole or genus substitutes for a part or species: He is a poor creature (man).

f) The name of the material which stands for the thing made of this material: iron, kid, in Azerbaijani: “farfor, fayans”.

Due to a great variety of associations there are a lot of cases where metonymy is disguised, such as: “sandwich” is named after John Montague, earl of Sandwich, who invented this kind of meal; “champagne” - a white sparkling wine made in the province of Champagne (France); “nicotine” - a poisonous alkaloid which got its name after Jean Nicot, who introduced tobacco into France.

Metonymy (contiguity of meanings) in English and Azerbaijani is a semantic (conceptual) phenomenon that involves the substitution of the name of one thing for that of another thing and assumes that the two things are somehow associated. These associations are regarded to manifest themselves in “stands for” relations that may hold between two elements A and B, such that one element B may stand for another element A, for instance, cause for effect, container for content, time for action, thing perceived for perception, etc.

This type of relations provides for the so-called **metonymic models**. In general, a metonymic model has the following characteristics: – there is a “target” concept A to be understood for some purpose in some context; – there is a conceptual structure containing both A and another concept B; – B is either part of A or closely associated with it in that conceptual structure; – a metonymic model is a model of how A and B are related in a conceptual structure. Here are the examples of some metonymic models in English and Azerbaijani:

“animal” for flesh of the animal, like:

“fish” – 1) “a cold-blooded aquatic vertebrate with an elongated scaly body, fins (грудные плавники) and gills (жабры); 2) “the flesh of a fish used as food” – “balıq” – 1) “suda yaşayan soyuq-qanlı, onurğalı, uzun-bədənli balıq”; 2) “yemək üçün istifadə olunan bir balıq əti”.

Designating the animal’s flesh, the Azerbaijani language sometimes resorts to word-forming strategies in the form of collective nouns, such. as: qaz > qaz əti, dana > dana əti, qoyun > qoyun əti, donuz > donuz əti or, which is less often, the suppletive forms, in Russian: корова > говядина, телятина.

In English they are the suppletive forms usually borrowed from French, such as: pig > pork, calf > veal, cow > beef; tree for wood of the tree. For example:

“pine” – 1) “an evergreen tree that grows in cooler areas of the world; 2) “the wood of pine tree and fir” – “şam ağacı” – 1) dünyanın soyuq ölkələrində bitən həmişəyaşıl ağac; 2) “şam ağacından düzələn tikinti material”;

“bronze” – 1) “any of various copper-base alloys; 2) “a sculpture or artefact made of bronze” – “bürünc” – 1) “mis bazalı ərintilərindən düzələn bir metal”; 2) “bürüncdən hazırlanmış bir heykəl və ya artefakt”; 3) “bahalı əmlak kimi əmlak predmeti”;

“beauty” – 1) “a quality that gives pleasure to the senses or satisfies the aesthetic demands of the mind”; 2) “a beautiful person or thing, especially, a beautiful woman” – “gözəllik” – 1) “müxtəlif zövqlərə cavab verən və ya aqlın estetik tələblərini təmin edən bir keyfiyyət”; 2) “gözəl insan və ya şey, xüsusən də gözəl qadın”;

“safeguard” – 1) “a precautionary measure or stipulation”; 2) “someone who or something that serves as protection” – “mühafizə” – 1) “ehtiyat tədbiri və ya şərt”; 2) “bir kəsi və ya bir şeyi nədənsə qorumaq üçün vasitə”.

One of the varieties of metonymy is synecdoche – transference from the part onto the whole, such as:

“head” – 1) “the upper or foremost division of the human body”; 2) “a person or individual” – “baş” – 1) “bədənin yuxarı hissəsi”; 2) “şəxs və ya canlı”; or from the whole onto its part, like:

“drink” – 1) “to consume a liquid: I’m thirsty, is there anything to drink?”; 2) “to imbibe alcoholic beverages: He goes out to drink too often” – “içki” – 1) “maye içmək: Susamışam, içməyə bir şey var?”; 2) “spirtli içkilər qəbul etmək: O tez-tez içməyə çıxır”.

Metonymy is a transference of meaning which is based on contiguity. Contiguity of meaning or metonymy may be described as a semantic process of associating into references one of which makes part of the other or is closely connected with it. The transfer may be conditioned by spatial, temporal, causal, symbolic, instrumental, functional and other connections.

Sometimes the semantic connection with place names is concealed by phonetic changes and is revealed by etymological study. The word “jeans” can be traced to the name of the Italian town Genoa, where the fabric of which they are made of, was first manufactured. Jeans is a case of metonymy, in which the name of the material “jean” is used to denote an object made of it.

Metonymy may be based on different relations. The followings are the most common categories:

a) The name of the container is used instead of the thing contained, such as: “The kettle boils” (instead of “the water boils”).

b) Association between instrument and agent, such as: “pen” = 1) qələm, 2) yazıçı. For example: The best pens of the day = The best writers of the day.

In Azerbaijani the word “salon” expresses the “place, room” and “the people

inside the saloon”. For example: “Bütün salon ayağa qalxdı”, not the “saloon”, but the “audience”, or “Kənd ayağa qalxdı” – not the “village”, but the “villagers”.

Within a Cognitive Linguistics approach, metonymy is considered as “a cognitive process in which one conceptual entity, the vehicle, provides mental access to another conceptual entity, the target, within the same idealized cognitive model” (Radden, Kövecses, 1999: 21). The idealized cognitive models (ICMs) are structures that organize our knowledge.

The best way to provide an idea of what ICMs are and how they work in categorization is to go through examples. Take the English word Tuesday. Tuesday can be defined only relative to an idealized model that includes the natural cycle defined by the movement of the sun, the standard means of characterizing the end of one day and the beginning of the next, and a larger seven-day calendric cycle – the week.

In the idealized model, the week is a whole with seven parts organized in a linear sequence; each part is called a day, and the third is Tuesday. Similarly, the concept weekend requires a notion of a work week of five days followed by a break of two days, superimposed on the seven-day calendar. Our model of a week is idealized. Seven-day weeks do not exist objectively in nature. They are created by human beings (Lakoff, 1987: 68).

Here are some ICM configurations that relate conceptual entities, functioning as parts with respect to a whole ICM: Action ICM Agent for Action: to author a new book; to butcher the cow Instrument for Action: to ski; to hammer Object for Action: to blanket the bed; to dust the room Result for Action: to landscape the garden Manner for Action: to tiptoe into the room Perception ICM Organ of Perception for Perception: to eye someone Thing Perceived for Perception: There goes my knee for “there goes the pain in my knee” – “dizindən vurur” Perception for Thing Perceived: sight for “thing seen” – “dədina baxmaq” for “qida keyfiyyəti” Causation ICM Cause for Effect: healthy complexion for “the

good state of health bringing about the effect of healthy complexion” – “sağlam üz rəngi” Effect for Cause: slow road for “slow traffic resulting from the poor state of the road” – “kiçik sürətli yol” Emotion for Cause of Emotion: She is my joy “she makes me be happy” Sound for Event Causing it: The train whistled into the station – “yolda arabaların səsə gəlirdi”, etc.

Within the experiential approach (G.Lakoff), metonymy is treated as a major source of prototype effects: “an asymmetry between typical and non-typical cases” – a situation in which some subcategory is used to comprehend the category as a whole. In other words, these are cases where a part (a subcategory) stands for the whole category.

The contrastive analysis at the level of subcategories may reveal the characteristics of the worldviews of the English and Azerbaijanis, as well as to determine the features of their national mentality and cultural background.

The procedure that underlies the contrastive analysis of these phenomena in English and Azerbaijani is based on involving derivatives, compounds and phraseological units that represent conceptual domains in the contrasted languages. Here is the list of subcategories that may stand for a category as a whole, representing the cases of cognitive metonymy:

1) Stereotypes are used to characterize cultural expectations. The stereotypical “bee” is industrious, active and hard-working, such as: “Allahın arısı kimi gərgin işləmək” – “as busy as a bee” - “to move quickly about doing many things”;

2) Typical examples are used in reasoning, for example: “Apples are typical fruits”, hence we may observe numerous designations with this word in both languages, such as: “nifaqa səbəb olan şey, fikir ayrılığı, mübahisəyə olan səbəb, mübahisə mövzusu” – “apple of discord”; “Adəm alma”, “anatomiyada boğazın görünən hissəsi” – “Adam’s apple”, but “alma düşməyə belə yer yox idi” – “böyük bir izdiham”, “olduqca sıx yer” – “there’s not an inch in room”; “at dərisində

yumru tünd rəngdə olan alma tipli ləkələr (at cinsi)” – “dappled horse”; “almadan alma” - “alma almaya bənzər” / “anasına bax qızını al”/ “anası necə, balası da elə” – “like father like son”; “the apple of someone’s eye” – “göz bəbəyi”, “зрачок глаза, яблочко”; “upset the applecart” – “əl-ələ titdu”; “apple knocker” – “topu əks etdirən beysbolçu” – “beysbol oyunçusu”.

In English some proper names are considered to be typical to represent a nationality, such as: John Bull “he is supposed to personify the typical Englishman”; “Uncle Sam” – “a nickname for the typical American”.

The most typical to represent certain characteristics or activities of people are:

a) Arrogance and pomposity, such as: filankəs cırılır; özündən hoqqa çıxardır; sanki yeri-göyü bu yaradıb, xod gedir;

b) Foolishness and recklessness, such as: Ağıldan yavandır, cibdən yağlı. – One has an empty head, but a tighty purse. – Карман толстый, да ум пустой. / Без башки, зато с мошной. / В голове пусто, а в кармане густо; ağıldan köyrək / ağıldan kasıb / ağıldan kəm / başdan xiyar / başdan xarab – dolt / dunderhead / dullard / numskull / dunce / fat head / someone’s head is stuffed with straw / someone has an empty head on his shoulders – голова соломой набита / дубовая голова / еловая голова / дурья голова / дурья башка / куриная голова / мякинная голова / мякинная башка (бестолковый человек, дурак);

c) Pauperism and opposition to the rich, such as: lüt (yoxsul) – as poor as Job / as poor as a church mouse / as poor as a rat / as poor as charity / as bare as the palm of your hand / as naked as a picked bone / without a penny to bless him – гол как сокол (очень беден, ничего не имеет).

Ideals are used to make judgments of quality. “Heaven is an ideal”, such as: “heaven on earth” – “perfect conditions in which to live or work” – “cənnət” – “yer üzündəki yaşamaq və işləmək üçün gözəl münbit bir məkan”.

Paragons are used to comprehend categories in terms of individual members. “Hercules is the paragon of great physical strength and efforts”, such as: “Herkul – böyük fiziki gücə və gözəl bədən quruluşuna sahib insan”, herculean “requiring or showing immense effort or strength”; Herculean efforts “immense, almost superhuman efforts”. “Croesus is the paragon of wealth”, like: Croesus (Croesus, King of Lydia, famed for his wealth) “a very rich man”; beyond the dreams of Croesus “unimaginable riches” – “Krez – çox böyük sərvətə sahib bir insan”.

Generators are used to comprehend categories in terms of the members that are defined or “generated” by the central members plus some general rules). In English, the category of “female kinship and material filiation” is represented by a group of words that are formed by means of a composition (rule) based on the generator “mother”, such as: mother > mother-in-law > stepmother – ana > qaynana:: qaynana > ögey ana. The congruence may be observed at the level of the category of “colour”, such as: mavi > göy-mavi – blue > sky-blue.

Submodels are used to comprehend categories in terms of various subcategories, those having either a biological basis: the primary colours, the basic emotions, or being culturally stipulated: the seven deadly sins. For example, the phraseological unit the seven deadly sins – “yeddi ölüm günahı” denotes the concept of “cardinal sins” in the Christian religion: pride, envy, anger, lust, sloth, avarice and gluttony.

These kinds of sins are peculiar “cognitive reference points” (E.Rosch), within which we comprehend the relative extent of other minor transgressions, such as: “pride” in the meaning of “arrogance” – “unpleasant pride and behaviour as if you are more important than, or know more than, other people”, conceit “too much pride or too much confidence in your general ability to perform particular actions or to achieve particular aims”) – “qürur” in the meaning of “qürurlu, acınacaqlı, özünə inamlı, özünü başqalarından daha yüksək hesab edən, təkəbbürlü, lovğalıq, özü haqqında artıq yüksək düşüncə, hörmətsizlik”;

Salient examples are used to comprehend categories in terms of a familiar and memorable example. Both languages prefer using colour names to represent salient examples, such as: “red-letter day” – “a special, happy and important day that you will always remember”; Black Monday “Monday 19-th October 1987, the day on which share prices on world stock markets fell dramatically” – “cədvəlin qırmızı hərflərlə yazılan gün” – “həmişə xatırlayacağınız xüsusi, xoşbəxt və vacib bir gündür - bayram”; Qara Bazar ertəsi 1987 ilin 19 oktyabr günü, dünya birjalarında səhm qiymətlərinin kəskin düşdüyü gün.

Hyperbole is another name for an exaggeration, so, it is an exaggerated statement, not meant to be understood literally but expressing an intensely emotional attitude of the speaker to what he is speaking about. By this figure we mean a statement exaggerated fancifully. Familiar examples of hyperbole are:

“A thousand and one care; I haven’t seen you for ages; the waves were mountain high; I’d give the world to see her; Millions of reasons; I beg a thousand pardons; I’ve told you fifty times; A thousand thanks”, etc.

In Azerbaijani: “Min bir dərd / qayğı; dalgalar dağ boyda idi; min dəfə üzr istəyirəm, mən sənə əli dəfə demişəm”, etc.

Litotes. Hyperbole is an exaggerated statement, but the reverse figure is called litotes or understatement. It might be defined as expressing the affirmative by the negative of its contrary; “not bad” for “good”; “not small” for “great”; “no coward” for “brave”, etc.

Litotes or **meiosis** may be easily illustrated by reference to both literary and popular speech. Belittling terms are commonly applied by emphasis to what is most highly valued. Anything ‘highly praised is far from bad’, or “not half bad”.

In Azerbaijani: “Az pis deyil; bir o qədər də pis deyil. Sən bizim başımıza yaxşı oyun açdın. Bizi ağ günə çıxardın”.

Irony. The term “irony” is also taken from rhetoric, it is the expression of

one's meaning by words of opposite sense, especially a simulated adoption of the opposite point of view for the purpose of ridicule or disparagement. One of the meanings of the adjective "nice" is "bad", "unsatisfactory", it is marked off as ironical and illustrated by the example: "You have got us into a nice mess!"

7. Processes of Development and Change of Meaning: Specialization and Generalization, Elevation and Degradation, Enantiosemy in English and Azerbaijani.

In the course of semantic evolution, a word may be subjected to some changes in its cognitive and pragmatic meanings. Those changes provide for quantitative or qualitative modifications of the word's content, resulting in specialization and generalization or elevation and degradation of its semantic scope, respectively.

Specialization and Generalization of Meaning.

The specialization or narrowing of meaning is characterized by the contraction of its semantic scope. This phenomenon is characteristic of terms, where narrowing is viewed as the process of "tapering off" to a certain scientific notion, such as:

"pressure" – 1) "the application of force to something by something else in direct contact with it"; "the force exerted by pressing or squeezing; 2) "in physics, the force or thrust exerted over a surface divided by its area" – "təzyiq" – 1) "birbaşa təmasda olaraq bir şeyə gücün tətbiqi, basmaq və ya sıxmaqla tətbiq olunan qüvvə"; 2) "fizikada sahə ilə bölünmüş səthi hərəkət edən qüvvə və vurma".

The generalization or broadening of meaning underlies the process of extending its semantic scope, resulting in "enriching" the notion, such as:

“dayı” / “əmi” – 1) “xalasının ya bibisinin qardaşı”; 2) “uşaq tərəfindən yetkin bir kişi dostuna sevgi rəmzi kimi istifadə olunur” – “uncle” – 1) “the brother of one’s aunt”; 2) “used by a child as a term of affection for an adult male friend”.

The extension of meaning is typical for proper names, when they tend to function in language as common nouns, such as: “mentor” is derived from Greek “Mentor” – 1) “a friend of Odysseus entrusted with the education of Odysseus’ son Telemachus”; 2) “a trusted counselor or guide” – “müəllim” – 1) “Odisseyin oğlunun tərbiyəsi onun (Odisseyin) dostuna etimad edilib”; 2) “etibarlı məsləhətçi və ya rəhbər”.

Elevation and Degradation of Meaning. Semantic changes at the level of the pragmatic meaning (connotations) may entail “degradation” or “elevation” of the word’s content. Actually, it goes about the transference based on the evaluation of an object (denotatum) within a “good – bad” scale. A preferred scale extreme motivates the development of either ameliorative or pejorative meaning.

The ameliorative meaning (elevation of meaning) – is a result of semantic change by which a derived meaning develops a positive evaluative connotation based on either neutral or negative meanings, such as:

(neutral): “usta” – 1) “başqasının üzərində nəzarət və ya səlahiyyət sahibi olan şəxs; hökmdar və ya qubernator”; 2) “bir şeyin eksponenti, son dərəcə bacarıqlı rəssam, sənətkar, ifaçı, oyunçu” – “master” – 1) “a person having control or authority over another; a ruler or governor”; 2) “an artist, performer, player, exponent of something, etc. who is extremely skilled or accomplished”;

(negative): “rumour” derived from Middle English “rumour”, from Middle French “rumor, clamor, gossip” – 1) “a statement or report current without known authority for its truth”; 2) “talk or report of a notable person or event” – “şayiə, səs-küy, dedi-qodu” – 1) “həqiqi sübütsüz, dəlilsiz cari bəyanat və ya hesabat”; 2) “görməli şəxs və ya hadisə haqqında təsnif və ya müsahibə”.

The pejorative meaning (degradation of meaning) – is a result of semantic change by which a derived meaning develops a negative evaluative connotation based on either neutral or positive meanings, such as:

(neutral): “despot” – 1) “a ruler with absolute power”; 2) “a person exercising power abusively or tyrannically” – “despot, istibdadçı, müstəbid, sitəmkar, zülmkar” – 1) “tam gücə malik olan hökmdar”; 2) “təhqiramiz və qəddar güc tətbiq edən zülmkar”;

(positive): “qəşş, özündəngetmə, hissini itirmək” – 1) “bir şeyin və ya bir kəsin həzzindən, sevgisindən qəşş etmək, özündəngetmək”; 2) “huşunu itirmək” – “swoon” – 1) “to feel a lot of pleasure, love etc. because of something or someone”; 2) “to lose consciousness”.

Enantiosemy is the development of the opposite (polar) meaning within the same polysemous word. This phenomenon is characteristic of both English and Azerbaijani, such as:

“pretty” – 1) “attractive or aesthetically pleasing, especially in delicate or graceful way, but less than beautiful; 2) used ironically: dreadful or terrible” –

“yaraşlıqlı” – 1) “cəlbedici və ya estetik baxımdan xoş, xüsusilə də incə və zərif şəkildə, ancaq gözəldən daha zəif dərəcə”; 2) “istehzal şəkildə istifadə edilir: qorxunc və ya vahiməli, dəhşətli”.

A polysemous word with polar meanings in one language may be distributed between two converses in the other, such as:

“borc almaq” – “öz sahibinə geri qaytarmaq niyyəti ilə borca götürülən” – “borrow” – “to take or receive (something) with the implied or expressed intention of returning it to its owner or the place where it belongs”;

“borc vermək” – “bir kəsə müvəqqəti istifadə üçün şərtlə verilən” – “lend” – “to give (something) to somebody for temporary use on condition that it be returned”.

The polarization of meanings is very often observed in words that correlate with the domains of “emotion”, “senses”, “feelings”, etc. Being realized within the axiological plane, those kinds of words demonstrate the polarization of meanings based on emotional, sensitive or perceptual ambivalence (the state of having two opposing and contradictory attitudes or feelings towards an object, person, etc.), such as:

“red-hot” – 1) “furious, full of scandal: juicy, torrid”; 2) “full of energy or enthusiasm: peppy, vigorous” – “qızğın” – 1) “qəzəbli, qalmaqalla dolu: dadlı-duzlu, dəhşətli”; 2) “enerji və ya coşğunluqla dolu: enerjili, cəlbədicə, güclü, fəal”.

8. Homonymy in English and Azerbaijani.

One should distinguish polysemous words from homonyms – words identical in form, but different in meaning.

The main criterion that differs homonymy from polysemy is the content of a word, its correlation with the reality, availability or unavailability of semantic relations between the consonant words, i.e. words that are deprived of any associative relations between their meanings, though preserving these relations in their forms, such as:

“reef” – 1) “a line of rocks, sand, small stones etc. just above or near the surface of the water”; 2) “a part of a sail which can be rolled up to expose less surface to the wind” – “qaya, sualtı daş” – 1) “suyun üstündə və altında olan qayalar, qum, xırda daşlar və s.”; 2) “küləkə daha az məruz qalması üçün yuvarlana bilən yelkənin bir hissəsi”.

Thus, words identical in sound form, but different in meanings are traditionally termed **homonyms**. For example: “yoke” – “boyunduruq”; figurative: “zülüm, əsarət”; “yolk” (yumurta sarısı); “meat – meet”, etc. The meaning of the given word is determined by the context, for example: Meet my sister; I don’t like meat.

Homonymy in English is wide-spread especially among monosyllables: “I-eye; too-two; right-write; or-ore; steal-steel; toil-tale”, etc.

Homonyms are classified as follows: homographs, homophones and perfect homonyms.

Homographs are words identical in spelling, but different both in their sound form and meaning. For example: “bow” [bou] – a piece of wood curved by a string and used for shooting arrows; “bor” [baw] – the bending of the head or body.

In Azerbaijani homographs differ from homophones. Though they are the same to their spelling, but differ according to their pronunciations and meanings. For example: al`ma – `alma, gə`lin – `gəlin, a`lın – `alın, ə`kin - `əkin, etc.

Being identical both in sound and form, such homonyms are called **absolute homonyms**. Another group of homonyms are partial homonyms which are divided into: homographs and homophones.

We can hardly find any congruence between these kinds of homonyms in English and Azerbaijani, as their contrasting involves non-identity in sound and form, which are very often of a different origin.

Homographs are words with different meanings and origins which have the same spelling, such as: bow /bou/ :: bow /bau/; close /klous/ :: close /klouz/. The pronunciation is usually the same: “We saw a polar bear at the zoo. I just can’t bear the excitement”.

But some homographs differ in their pronunciation, for example: “lead” can be pronounced [led] as in “Gold is heavier as lead” or [li:d] as in “You lead and I’ll follow you”.

Sometimes the pattern of stress is the main difference between homographs, such as: “content” [kən'tent] as in “I won’t be content until you give me an answer” – “content” [ˈkəntent] as in “Meat usually has a protein and fat content”.

In Azerbaijani, homographs are words that differ only in an accent. Here we differentiate between the phonetical homographs, such as: “əlamən etmək – call for help” - əla'man::əlamən', such as in Russian: колос :: колóс, and the grammatical ones, like in Russian: рýки (Nominative case, plural) :: рукú (Genitive case, singular).

Homophones are words with the same pronunciation as another word, but with a different spelling and meaning, like:

“key” – “an instrument, usually of iron, for moving the bolt or bolts of a lock forwards or backwards, and so locking or unlocking what is fastened by it” – “quay” – “an artificial bank or landing-place, built of stone or other solid material, lying along or projecting into a navigable water for convenience of loading and unloading ships”;

“hair” – “one of the numerous fine and generally cylindrical filaments that grow from the skin or integument of animals” – “hare” – “a rodent quadruped of the genus Lepus, having long ears and hind legs, a short tail, and a divided upper lip”.

In Azerbaijani homophones are not numerous, it being determined by specific features of the phonetical system: distinct articulation of the vowels [i], [e] both in an unstressed position, such as:

aksiya (qiymətli kağız) :: aksiya (siyasi iş, çıxış);

aləm (kainat) :: aləm (çoxlu) :: aləm (çox maraqlı);

alışmaq (odlanmaq) :: alışmaq (öyrəşmək);

boks (idman növü) :: boks (palata);

əkmək (basdırmaq) :: əkmək (rədd etmək) :: əkmək (şumlamaq) :: əkmək (səpmək);

görüş (danışiq üçün ayrılan vaxt) :: görüş (fikir);

kor (görməyən) :: kor (xəstəlik) :: kor (küt);

kök (ağacın rişəsi) :: kök (yerkökü) :: kök (sözün mənalı hissəsi) :: kök (nəsil) :: kök (vəziyyət) :: kök (yağlı) :: kök (kefi yüksək olan);

küp (su qabı) :: küp (sap keçirilən yer);

kürəkli (kürəyi enli) :: kürəkli (əлиндə kürək olan);

küt (kəsəri olmayan alət) :: küt (bacarıqsız);

vurulmaq (döyülmək) :: vurulmaq (bənd olmaq).

Homophones are sometimes used humorously in newspaper headlines. For example, “The cent of success” might be the headline of a story, of a successful perfume and cosmetics business.

The reason for homonymy is in a historical development of language system: various phonological, morphological, semantic modifications. The identity of forms of different lexical units may be viewed as the result of sound convergence, i.e. coincidence of primarily different in sound form words. For example, the phonetical changes resulted in the coincidence of a sound form of the in English words: “bore” < Past Simple of “bear” - “to carry” < Old English “beran” and bore < Old Norwegian “bara” - “wave”. Such homonyms are sometimes called **etymological homonyms**, as they differ in their origin.

From the viewpoint of the morphological structure the congruence of homonyms in English and Azerbaijani is observed only between non-derivatives, such as: “” – 1) “krup” – “xüsusilə atın arxa yerinin”; 2) “boğma” – “uşaqlarda və körpələrdə boğaz iltihabından əziyyət çəkmə” – “croup” – 1) “the rump or hindquarters, especially “of a horse” :: “croup” 2) “inflammation of the larynx and trachea in children and babies, causing laboured, rasping breathing”.

The correspondence between word-building homonyms is reduced to the cases of conversion in both languages, such as:

“dairə” – 1) “riaziyyatda sirkulyar, girdə” :: 2) “dairəvi, dövrəvi ” – (the case of suffixation) – “round” – 1) “circular” :: round, 2) “a circular piece” – the case of substantivization.

One of the important sources of homonymy is a split of polysemy, resulting in the loss of relations between the meanings of a polysemous word. For example, in Azerbaijani the word “arm” used to be polysemous, on the basis of the primary meaning “arm” – “the part of body” and “arm” – “weapon”, there developed the secondary meaning, but in the course of time the relations between those two meanings have been lost, thus no associations can be traced between them now.

For instance, “powder” – “toz, pudra, kirşan, xəkə”. Unlike Azerbaijani, the English word “powder” is still treated as a polysemous one, such as: 1) “a solid substance that has been reduced to dry loose particles” – “quru hissəciklərə bölünmüş bərk maddə”; 2) “a substance, especially a cosmetic or a medicine, produced in the form of fine particles” – “incə hissəciklər şəklində istehsal olunan bir maddə, xüsusən də kosmetik və ya dərman”; 3) “gunpowder” – “silah qurğusu”.

The homonyms that emerged as the result of the polysemy disintegration are called **semantic homonyms**. It should be borne in mind that the phenomenon of “homonymy – polysemy” correspondence in English and Azerbaijani is rather frequent, and to some extent regular.

Thus, it is relevant that a criterion for the congruence of polysemous and homonymous words should be introduced. Such a criterion will be intended for establishing the availability or unavailability of semantic relations between the contrasted words from the viewpoint of their semantic ambiguity, hence, semantic ambiguity criterion.

If words are in “homonymy – polysemy” correspondence, then polysemous words are likely to become homonymous in the course of time, i.e. those words may be considered potential homonyms.

Thus, the congruence of homonyms in the contrasted languages may be as follows: total (vide supra absolute homonyms) – homonyms that correspond to each other both in form and meaning, partial (vide supra etymological and word-building homonyms) – homonyms that correspond to each other only in form, and potential (vide supra semantic homonyms) – homonyms that correspond to the lexico-semantic variants of a polysemous word in the other language.

The identity of words in their forms in the contrasted languages is called **cross-linguistic homonymy**.

Such words are often confused in translation, as they look or sound similar, though having different meanings. That is why; these words are sometimes marked as “false friends of a translator”, such as:

“aspirant” – “one who aspires; one who, with steady purpose, seeks advancement to high position, or the acquirement of some privilege or advantage”;

“complexion” – “the appearance of the skin, especially of the face”;

“genial” – “cheerfully good-tempered”;

“magazine” – “an illustrated periodical containing miscellaneous pieces by different authors”;

“herb” – “any aromatic plant used to flavour food or in medicine or perfume”.

9. Paronyms in English and Azerbaijani.

Paronyms are words that are closely related to each other in form, but differ in their meanings. The characteristic feature of paronyms is that they are similar in pronunciation and spelling, but are not identical in form.

What really counts for their similarity is their close objective (physical) correlation, such as: medical (certificate) :: medicinal (plant); emigration :: immigration; addresser :: addressee.

According to semantic relations, paronyms in English and Azerbaijani may be divided into the following groups:

a) Synonymic paronyms, such as:

ilbiz :: çılpaq ilbiz – snail :: slug;

unsteady :: unstable – lax :: qeyri-sabit;

b) Antonymic paronyms, such as: progress :: regress; export :: import;

c) Semantically close paronyms, such as: ceremonial :: ceremonious;

d) The matic paronyms, such as: basket :: bucket.

Thus, words that are kindred in origin, sound form and meaning and therefore liable to be mixed but in fact different in meaning and usage are called **paronyms**. Paronyms are at the same time called false homonyms. They may be etymologically linked words as well as the words approaching in form by accident: bear – beer – bare (dözmək – pivə - çılpaq), cause –course (iş – səbəb – kurs) və s. There are many paronyms in Azerbaijani as well. For example: Onun bu mətləbə heç *daxli* yoxdur. – Onlar ölkənin *daxili* siyasətinə qarışmırlar.

Chapter V. Paradigmatic Aspect of Contrastive Lexicology.

1. Paradigmatic Relations.

2. Comparison of Lexico-Semantic Systems.

3. Lexico-Semantic Field.

4. Structure of Semantic Field.

5. Hyponymic Relations in English and Azerbaijani.

6. Synonymy in English and Azerbaijani.

7. Comparison of Synonyms in English and Azerbaijani.

8. Antonymy in English and Azerbaijani.

9. Correlations of Semantic Derivativeness.

1. Paradigmatic Relations.

The English and Azerbaijani vocabularies are multiple and diverse. Its diversity manifests itself in units of language that very often have different phonation and meaning. The question arises about the way speakers retain such diverse units in their memory. The answer is the units are related to each other and one another in a certain way.

According to the experiments, carried out by cognitive psychologists, semantic organization (i.e. the way the concepts are systematized and structured in our mind) may be represented within four types of models: cluster model, generic model, model of comparative semantic marks, and network model.

In the cluster model concepts are combined in clusters and are reproduced together, for example: the “President” cluster – Nixon :: Carter :: Reagan :: Ford :: Kennedy – Ayaz Mutalibov :: Heydar Aliyev :: Ilham Aliyev.

In the generic model concepts are represented in groups. A group includes:

a) The elements of a certain category, for example: the “bird” category – redbreast :: dove :: blackbird - qızılgerdan:: göyərçin :: qarğa;

b) Attributes, or properties of the category elements, for example: the “bird” group includes such elements as wings :: feathers :: toothless beaked jaws :: able to fly – qanadlar :: tüklülər :: dişsiz çənələr;

The model of comparative semantic marks represents concepts based on:

a) Determinative marks that constitute the essential aspects of a category element;

b) Typical marks that are characteristic of the element, but are not essential to be attributed to the given category, for example,

“robin”: determinative marks – “orange breast”, “face lined with grey”, “brown upperparts”, “a whitish belly” – “robin, mhmətçik” – “narıncı döş”, “üzü boz rəngli”, “qəhvəyi üst hissələr”, “ağarmış qarın hissəsi”; typical marks – “hunts insects”, “migrates”, “build nests” – “həşəratları övləyir”, “köçəri quşdur, köçür”, “yuvalar qurur”.

In the network model concepts are stored in semantic memory and are combined with propositions into a complicated network, being represented by the relationship A is B: “robin is bird”.

Those examples show that concepts and consequently words’ meanings are determined by numerous connections. It is argued that the lexico-semantic system of language is not chaotic, but is accurately and elaborately organized with interdependent lexical items.

The interdependency of vocabulary elements is determined by the so-called **paradigmatic relations**, the latter being defined as relations that hold between

words and groups of words (of the same category) based on similarities and contrasts of their meanings.

2. Comparison of Lexico-Semantic Systems.

The systemic, or differential aspect of word meaning, which is established on the basis of the word's relations to other words within a certain group of lexical units, argues that meaning is not self-sufficient and self-defining, but stands in certain relations with other meanings that specify it.

In this way, we may observe some inconsistency in relations of certain words in English and Azerbaijani:

a) In paradigmatic relations, for example, basic colour terms, “blue” – “mavi” and “göy”, names of kinship, such as: “cousin” – “əmioğlu” / “əmiqızı” or “dayioğlu” / “dayıqızı”, “xalaoğlu” / “xalaqızı”, “bibioğlu” / “bibiqızı”; “mother-in-law” – “qayınana”, names of some parts of the body, like: “əl” – “hand” and “arm”, etc.;

b) In syntagmatic relations, for example, O qaydanı unudub :: O kitabı qoyub getdi (unudub). – He forgot the rule :: He left the book.

The contrastive analysis of lexico-semantic systems gives the opportunity to observe similarities and differences in paradigmatic relations of the contrasted languages. The most important type of paradigmatic relations, determining the vocabulary, is a semantic type. It grounds in various verbal associations that reflect the relations that exist between the reality objects.

The distribution of the corresponding words by their lexical meaning determines the formation of a certain group, the latter having various names in linguistics: verbal field, semantic field, lexico-semantic paradigm, conceptual field, semantic group, lexico-semantic group, thematic group, etc.

A group combines lexical items that are characterized by close semantic relations and interdependency and are united under the name of a certain concept, i.e. cover a certain conceptual domain (hence, semantic field).

3. Semantic Field.

Semantic field is a set of words related in meaning. It includes lexical items with an identifiable semantic affinity, sometimes based on their formal characteristics. The members of semantic fields are not just synonyms.

They are joined together by some common semantic component – a concept, for instance,

“colour”, such as: “blue, red, yellow, indigo, saffron, royal blue”, etc. – “göy, qırmızı, sarı, indigo, zəfəran, kral mavi”, etc.,

“kinship”, such as: “mother, mother-in-law, sister, cross-cousin”, etc. – “ana, qayınana, bacı, xalası oğlu”, etc.,

“movement”, such as: “go, run, jog, creep, shuffle”, etc. – “getmək, qaçmaq, itələmək, dırmaşmaq, qarışdırmaq”, etc.

The semantic component common to all the members of the field is sometimes described as a common denominator of meaning. The members of the field are semantically interdependent as each member helps to delimit and determine the meaning of its neighbours, being semantically delimited and determined by them.

Each word belongs to a certain field, but being polysemous, it may be a part of other fields as well. Hence, for example, we may argue the overlap of the semantic field of “movement” and that of “mental processes”, such as: “nəticəyə gəlmək” – “come to conclusion”; “go out of someone’s head” – “fikrimdən çıxdı”. Semantic field has its core (nucleus) and periphery.

The core is formed by the most significant lexical items, which being related to one another form synonymic, antonymic, and hyponymic groups. At the periphery there are functionally less important words that, as a rule, belong to other semantic fields. Within the semantic field there may also be singled out semantic groups.

Semantic group is a set of words within a certain semantic field. For example, in the semantic field of “time” we may single out:

- a) Names of inexact periods of time, such as: “time” – “vaxt”, “season” – “mövsüm”, “period” – “mərhlə”, “epoch” – “dövr”, “era” – “era, dövr”, etc.;
- b) Names of exact periods of time, such as: “saniyə” – “second”, “dəqiqə” – “minute”, “saat” – “hour”, “həftə” – “week”, “ay” – “month”, “il” – “year”, “əsrlər” – “century”, etc.;
- c) Names of seasons, such as: “spring” – “bahar, yaz”, “summer” – “yay”, “autumn”, American English “fall” – “payız”, “winter” – “qış”;
- d) Names of the day periods, such as: “səhər” – “morning”, “axşam” – “evening”, “gecə” – “night”;
- e) Names of months, such as: “qışın oğlan çağı - yanvar” – “January”, “kiçik çillə - fevral” – “February”, “Novruz vaxtı - mart” – “March”, etc.;
- f) Names of the week, such as: days: “bazar ertəsi - Monday”, “çərşənbə axşamı – Tuesday”, “cümə axşamı - Thursday”, “bazar günü - Sunday”, etc.

4. Semantic Field Structure.

The contrastive analysis at the level of semantic field depends greatly on the type of its structure. Semantic fields are characterized by different types of structures and various correlations within the field itself. In general typology the most known of semantic field structures is a paradigm (Ch.Fillmore).

Paradigm is a set of words that possess one common semantic mark, but differ in other marks, each of which differentiates more than one couple of words. Thus, the relations between the words “man” – “kişi, insan, adam, bəndə, bir kəs” and “woman” – “qadın” are paradigmatic, as their distinction differentiates such words as “boy” – “oğlan” and “girl” – “qız”, “actor” – “aktyor” and “actress” – “aktrisa”, etc.

From this viewpoint, the semantic distinction between the words “wolf” - “qurd, canavar” and “fox” – “tülkü” is not paradigmatic, as it does not differentiate any other couples of words. The six other, though not widely-spread, semantic field structures are the following. According to D.A.Cruise, there are:

a) Chains - pure linear order, such as:

birth :: childhood :: adolescence :: adulthood :: old age :: death – doğulma :: uşaqlıq :: yeniyetməlik :: yetkinlik :: qocalıq :: ölüm.

The chain represents a set of words that are related to each other by means of the subordinate relations.

b) Cycles - a regularly repeated order, such as:

red :: purple :: blue :: green :: yellow :: orange :: red – qırmızı :: mor (tünd qırmızı) :: göy :: yaşıl :: sarı :: narıncı :: qırmızı, etc.

This set does not constitute a hierarchy: the structuring relations do not have the necessary directional properties. There is no top, and no bottom; there is no unique item related in the relevant way to all other items in the set.

c) Helices - a hybrid linear / cyclical ordering.

The sets of lexical items which are termed helices are a subtype of chain. They show the typical characteristics of chains, with a first item, a last item, and a unique ordering in between, such as:

Sunday :: Monday :: Tuesday – Bazar günü :: Bazar ertəsi :: Çərşənbə axşamı, etc.

d) Ranks - a position higher or lower than others. Ranks combine lexical items, which operate on a discontinuous scale, such as:

The United States Marine Corps - private :: private first class :: lance corporal :: corporal :: sergeant :: staff sergeant :: gunnery sergeant :: master sergeant :: first sergeant :: master gunnery sergeant :: sergeant major :: sergeant major of the Marine Corps, etc. – Azərbaycanca Hərbi Dəniz Qüvvələri: Miçman :: Baş Miçman :: Kiçik Leytenant :: Leytenant :: Baş Leytenant :: Kapitan-Leytenant :: Üçüncü Dərəcəli Kapitan :: İkinci Dərəcəli Kapitan :: Birinci Dərəcəli Kapitan :: Kapitan :: Kontr-Admiral :: Vitse-Admiral :: Admiral.

Azərbaycanda Silahlı Qüvvələrində aşağıdakı rütbələr var: Gizir :: Baş Gizir :: Kiçik Leytenant :: Leytenant :: Baş Leytenant :: Kapitan :: Mayor :: Polkovnik-Leytenant :: Polkovnik :: General-Mayor :: General- Leytenant :: General-Polkovnik.

e) Grades - a position of ranks or qualities, such as:

freezing :: cool :: warm, etc. – şaxta :: soyuq :: isti, etc.

The boundaries between grade-terms are typically somewhat vague, but the vagueness is less marked when the terms are explicitly contrasted with one another.

f) Degrees - a position of an amount or measure. Degree-terms represent a more or less linear progression in terms of values of the underlying property, such as:

baby :: child :: adolescent :: adult – körpə :: uşaq :: yetişmə :: yetkin.

One more structure is a network – a system of interconnected similar parts, as in the terms of kinship, where the most typical relations are: “to be married to

someone” – “ərdə olmaq”, “to be one’s father” – “ata olmaq”, “older than” – “ondan böyük”, “younger than” – “ondan kiçik”, etc.

A very important type of the semantic field structure is **metonymy** – a set of words that stand in a “part-whole” relation, such as:

nail :: finger :: hand :: arm – dırnaq :: barmaq :: əl (çiyinə qədər).

However, in Ch.Fillmore’s opinion, the most important type the semantic field structure is frame – a set of lexical items that represent a certain situation. For example, the situation of “examination” – “imtahan” represents an “examinee” that takes an “exam” in a particular subject to an “examiner” or “examining board”.

The words that may describe the situation are as follows: “go in for an exam”, “pass an exam”, “be plucked”, “question card”, “examining board”, “student’s record-book”, “crib”, “cheat”, etc. This type of structure correlates with what is called a thematic group (R.S.Ginzburg).

However, there are semantic field structures that represent the fundamental paradigmatic relations in vocabulary. Those are hyponymic (hierarchical), synonymic and antonymic relations.

5. Hyponymic relations in English and Azerbaijani.

Hyponymic relations are hierarchical relations between words’ general and individual meanings. Hyponymy is based on the notion of inclusion: if the referent of term A, for example, “colour”, includes the referent of term B, for example, “red”, then term B, “red” is a hyponym of hyperonym-term A “colour”.

A hyperonym is a superordinate term that designates a generic concept (genus), expressing a more general notion of a referent, for instance: “plant” – “bitki”, whilst a hyponym is a subordinate, specific term whose referent is included in the referent of a superordinate term, such as:

flower < tulip – gül < lalə.

In this way, the extension of the hyperonym is wider, as comparing to that of the hyponym, though being narrower in the content, such as:

“plant” – “a living thing which grows in earth, in water or on other plants” < “flower” – “the part of a plant which is often brightly coloured with a pleasant smell” < tulip “a bulbous plant of the lily family, with a single richly coloured cup-shaped flower at the top of a straight stem” – “bitki” – “yer üzündə, suda və ya digər yerlərdə bitən bitkilər” < “çiçək” – “əksər hallarda xoş bir qoxuya və parlaq rənglərə malik olan bitki” < “lalə” – “parlaq rəngdə çiçəyi olan zanbaq ailəsinin bulbous bitkisi”.

Within the hyponymic relations there exist the relations of equality that are established between the hyponyms of the same hyperonym. Such hyponyms are called **co-hyponyms**, such as:

tree < birch :: poplar :: oak – ağac < ağcaqayın, tozağacı :: qovaq, ağqovaq :: palıd, etc.

On the basis of hyponymy lexical items are combined into the lexico-semantic and thematic groups. The hyponymic configuration, i.e. the depth and width of the hyponymic structure development is determined by the characteristics of words relations within the semantic field.

Hence, the taxonomic depth of hierarchical relations may be different in the contrasted languages. In this regard, English is characterized by a somewhat deeper taxonomy as compared to that one in Azerbaijani, such as:

bird < songbird < finch < bullfinch – a four-level taxonomy - quş < ötücü quş < fringillidae (вьюрок, зяблик) < şaqraq – a three-level taxonomy;

stay < rest < sit < squat – a four-level taxonomy – qalma < istirahət < oturmaq < çömbəlmə oturmaq (садиться на корточки) – a three-level taxonomy.

6. Synonymy in English and Azerbaijani.

One of the fundamental paradigmatic relations in vocabulary is synonymy. Synonymy is often understood as semantic equivalence, such as:

fısqırıq :: çalпов :: qar çovğunu :: qar burulğanı :: yağıntı :: yağış – snowstorm :: blizzard :: precipitation;

look :: glance :: stare :: gaze :: glimpse :: peep :: sight :: view – baxış :: nəzər :: nəzər-diqqət :: dik-dik baxış :: fikir vermə :: civilti :: (gözündə) mənzərə :: görünüş :: nöqtəyi-nəzər, etc.

Words are said to be synonymous if they mean the same thing. The terms movie, film, flick, and motion picture all have the same set of referents in the real world and are usually taken to be synonymous terms.

To address the notion of synonymy more formally, we can say that term A is synonymous with term B if every referent of A is a referent of B and vice versa. For example, if every movie is a film and every film is a movie, the terms “movie” and “film” are synonymous.

The “vice versa” is important: without it, we would be defining hyponymy. Among the criteria that underlie lexical items’ synonymy are:

a) Identity or closeness of meanings, such as:

cosmos :: universe – kosmos :: kainat;

dekorasiya :: təbiət, landşaft – scenery :: landscape;

b) Interchangeability in a context, such as:

It’s a huge (gigantic) tower. – Nəhəng bir qüllədir.

Words that are totally identical in their meaning and stylistic colouring, being interchangeable in the context are called absolute synonyms. In fact, there are very few true synonyms in lexicon. More often than not, terms that appear to be synonymous have different social and affective connotations.

Even if we restrict meaning to linguistic meaning, words that appear synonymous at first glance often refer to slightly different sets of concepts or are used in different situations. The adjectives “fast”, “quick”, and “rapid” may be used interchangeably in reference to someone’s running speed, but a fast talker (a “slippery or deceptive person”) is different from a “quick talker”; some people live lives in the fast lane, not the “rapid lane”; and quick is the most appropriate term to describe a mind or a glance, while rapid is the usual term when reference is made to a person’s stride, especially metaphorical strides, as in learning to type or do mathematics.

In Azerbaijani, the corresponding synonymous group also reveals restrictions, determined by lexical collocations, such as: sürətli (yeriş), yüksək sürətli (qatar), sürətli (axın), sürətli (danışiq tərzi), sürətli (uçan quş), cəld, zirək (çevik tərpnən qız), təcili (yardım), sürətli (iş), etc.

There are three main types of synonyms:

1) Ideographic (semantic) synonyms – words that designate the same concept, but differ in additional shades of meaning, such as:

yol (cür, üsul, vasitə, tərz, cığır, əncam, sayaq, surət, təhər) :: yol (reyd) – way :: road (way “a route, direction or path”; road “an open way, usually a paved one, for the passage of vehicles, people, and animals”). Some other examples: “demək – danışmaq – söyləmək – izhar etmək – zikr etmək – ərz etmək – nağil etmək – rəvayət etmək” and “say – tell”; town – city;

2) Stylistic synonyms – words that are characterized by emotive or expressive charge, and hence, differ in their stylistic idiosyncrasy (a mode of expression peculiar to an author), such as:

üz (neutral) :: sima :: üz cizgiləri :: üzün ifadəsi :: görünüş :: obraz (literary) :: fizionomiya :: üz-göz :: sifət :: sir-sifət :: baş-göz (colloquial) :: morda :: qiyafə (vulgar) :: qabaq :: rüxsar (vulgar, obsolete) – face (neutral) :: visage (literary) :: countenance (formal) :: physiognomy (formal) :: features :: mug :: phiz (informal).

3) Mixed (ideographic-and-stylistic) synonyms – words that differ in shades of meaning, semantic extension, emotive or expressive charge, such as:

“friend” (neutral) – “a person whom you know well and whom you like a lot, but who is usually not a member of your family”; “associate”, “comrade”, “pal” are characterized by social and emotional relations between the people during a considerable period of time, such as: “associate” – “someone who is closely connected to another person as a companion, friend or business partner”; “comrade” (slightly dated) – “an intimate friend or associate”; “pal” (informal) – “a close friend”.

Those words, unlike the word companion “a person you spend a lot of time with because you are friends or because you are travelling together” cannot denote contacts of short duration, those that can be easily established and broken with, like: “in a game, on a train”, etc.

The word “crony” (informal) “a close friend”, especially “of long standing” denotes “friendship” of many years standing, i.e. old friendship that begins in the childhood or youth age and lasts up to the mature age – “dost” (neutral) “uzun illər ərzində yaxınlıq etdiyən, ülfət saxladığın adam”; “arxadaş”, “həbib” (informal), “brat”, “qardaş” (informal), “qaqa”, “bacı” (dialect); “tanış”, “rəfiqə” (informal), “can qardaşım”, “yar” (informal), “aşna”, “qardaşlığım”, “bacılığım” (informal); “yoldaş”; “həmkar” (informal); “şərik”; “kolleqa”, “iş yoldaşım”; “məktəb yoldaşım”; “tələbə yoldaşım” (informal).

7. Comparison of Synonyms in English and Azerbaijani.

Grouping of words is based upon similarities and contrasts. Taking up similarity of meaning and contrasts of phonetic shape we observe that every language has in its vocabulary a variety of words kindred in meaning but different in morphemic composition, phonemic shape and usage. The more developed the language is, the richer the diversity and therefore the greater the possibilities of lexical choice enhancing the effectiveness and precision of speech.

Synonyms can be defined as two or more words of the same language, belonging to the same part of speech and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical denotational meanings, interchangeable at least in some contexts, without any alteration on the denotational meaning, but differing in the morphemic composition, phonemic shape, shades of meaning, connotations, affective value, style, valency and idiomatic use.

The words “to annoy, to vex, to irk, to bother” are synonyms. “To annoy, to vex” may mean both a non-intentional influence and an intentional one. “To irk, to bother” presuppose only the intentional influence. “To annoy” is a neutral word. “To vex” has a stronger shade. “To bother” presupposes the slightest reaction. The denotational meaning of all these words is the same: “to make somebody a little angry by especially repeated acts”.

As it is seen from the example the synonymic group comprises a dominant element. This is the synonymic dominant, the most general term of its kind potentially containing the specific features rendered by all the other members of the group. Or in the Azerbaijani language the word “murdar” is a synonymic dominant in the synonymic row: “iyrənc, çirkin, pis, xoşagəlməz, təkəbbürlü”.

The majority of English words are polysemantic. The result of it is that one and the same word may belong in its various meanings to several synonymic

groups, for example: “to appear” may have the synonyms, “to emerge, to come into sight and to look, to seem”.

The classification above describes synonyms as words, conveying the same concept, but differing in connotations, i.e. conceptual, associative, emotive, evaluative, expressive, stylistic, etc. shades of meaning that are additional to the denotational meaning of the word.

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

1) Ideographic synonyms refer to the same general concept, but they differ slightly in the denotational meaning adding something to the general notion, as in: look, glance, glimpse, eye, stare, etc.

2) Stylistic synonyms are words of the same meaning but used in different speech styles.

3) The absolute synonyms are rare in the vocabulary.

Ideographic synonyms differ from each other in shades of meaning. Synonyms of this kind are very numerous in the English language. In such synonyms we can easily find the general and the particular. The general connects such synonyms into one group, makes them representatives of one concept whereas the particular allows every synonym of the group to stress a certain feature of the concept. Thus, all the synonyms express the concept in all its many-sided variety and completeness.

Not all ideographic synonyms are of the same kind. We can distinguish between those which are very close in their meanings “horrible – terrible”,

“screech – shriek”, synonyms which differ in meaning considerably. So, “interpreter” and “translator” denote the same concept of a person rendering the expressions of one language into the expressions of another but the oral side of the work is associated with the “interpreter” whereas the “translator” is connected with writing.

Both “ladder” and “stairs” denote a set of parallel bars used for climbing up but “ladder” is associated with a rope contrivance or a “portable” device consisting of two beams crossed by a set of parallel bars while stairs represents a permanent arrangement mostly within a building, of blocks of wood or slabs of marble joined to form a long series of steps, “stairway” or “staircase”.

Among verbs we find ideographic synonyms which differ in the manner of the action expressed by the verb: to look (the synonymic dominant), to glance (to look quickly), to gaze (to look with surprise, curiosity), to stare (to look fixedly), to regard (to look attentively), to view (to look searchingly), to eye (to look from head to foot), to peep (to look stealthily).

Synonyms can differ in the degree of a given quality, in the intensity of the action performed or the intensity of the emotions: to want - to desire - to long for; to ask - to beg - to pray; to work - to toil - to slave.

Synonyms can also differ in the emotional colouring: “big – great”; “boy – lad”.

Synonyms can differ in the volume of the concept they express: “border – frontier”. “Border” is wider in meaning than “frontier” for the latter means mostly a state border whereas border is any limit, edge, etc. “Happy” is wider than “lucky” which implies only happy circumstances attending one’s undertakings.

There are synonyms where one expresses continuity of action or state while the other expresses a momentary action of the same nature: “to speak - to say”; “to remember - to memorise”.

Azerbaijani scholars call such synonyms semantic: “evlilik – ailəlik”; “eyvanlı – balkonlu – seyvanlı”; “eybəcərləşmə – kifirləşmə – çirkinləşmə”; “geyimli-keçimli – bəzənmiş – düzənmiş”; “gerçəklik – maddilik – varlıq – həyat”.

Stylistic synonyms do not differ in shades of their common meaning. They differ in usage and style: doctor (official) - doc (familiar); to commence (official) - to begin (neutral). They also show the attitude of the speaker towards the event, object or process described: to die - to depart, to expire - to kick the bucket; danışmaq – söyləmək – demək – dilinə gətirmək; davamlı – dözümlü – möhkəm – səbatlı – etibarlı – sarsılmaz; sabitləşmə – möhkəmləşmə – daimiləşmə – stabilləşmə – durğunlaşma.

Azerbaijani scholars distinguish between semantic-stylistic synonyms: mavilik – göylük; mazaq – zarafat – oyun.

The criterion for the comparison of synonyms in English and Azerbaijani is the one that reveals similarities and differences in synonyms' connotations, as it traces much subtler distinctive features within the semantic structure of the contrasted words, for example, the synonyms that correlate with the concept of “coward” – “qorxaq”.

In English: coward (neutral, disapproving) :: craven (archaic) :: poltroon (archaic) :: dastard (archaic) :: sissy (informal, disapproving) :: chicken (informal, disapproving) :: scaredy-cat (informal, disapproving) :: yellow-belly (informal).

In Azerbaijani: qorxaq (neutral) :: ağciyər (intensive, informal) :: ürəksiz (informal) :: kölgəsindən qorxan (intensive, informal) :: iradəsiz (intensive, informal) :: ağbağır (intensive, informal) :: arvad (informal, disapproving) :: dızix (dialect) :: pampaq (dialect) :: dızixqulu (dialect) :: quşürək (dialect).

Absolute synonyms are very rare in the language. They are mostly different names for one and the same plant, animal, disease, for example: “luce – pike”, “compounding – composition”, “castor – beaver”, “uca - hündür”, “nazik – incə -

zərif”, “nabələd – xam - naşı”, “nadan - cahil”, “ağzıboş – çərənçi – naqqal – boşbogaz”, “yabanı – vəhşi – yırtıcı”; “ziyan – zərər – afət”.

In the course of time absolute synonyms come to have either a different shade of the meaning or different usage. If two words exactly coincide in meaning and use the natural tendency is for one of them to change its meaning or drop out of the language.

Thus, **synonyms** are two or more words of the same part of speech possessing one or more identical lexical meanings, interchangeable in some contexts.

A group of synonyms is called a **synonymic set / row**. For example: “famous, celebrated, renowned, illustrious, popular, wellknown” and so on, make up a synonymic set.

In Azerbaijani synonyms also form synonymic sets. The quantity of words in synonymic sets consists of two, three, four and more words. They are: acı – zəhər, şil – topal, bərk – möhkəm – qayıq, güc – qüvvət – taqət; üz – sifət – bəniz – camal – çöhrə; el – vətən – diyar – yurd; igid – qoçaq – cəsur – qəhrəman – qorxmaz – şücaətli, etc.

The member of a synonymic group may be of Anglo-Saxon, French or Latin origin. For instance: to ask (A.S.), to question (French), to interrogate (Latin); to finish (Fr.), to end (A.S.), to complete (Latin): to gather (A.S.), to assemble (Fr.), to collect (Latin), etc.

Phraseological synonyms are those which do not necessarily differ materially in their meanings or stylistic value. They differ in their combinative power. Thus, in such groups as few - little, many - much we can speak not so much of any immediate difference in the meanings of words as of their difference in application (much time - little water; many children - much air). We say a sunny day, a moonlit night but we should use the solar system, a lunar eclipse.

Phraseological synonyms can replace each other in some combinations but are

not interchangeable in others. Use and benefit are synonyms in such expressions as public use, public benefit whereas they are no longer synonyms and cannot replace each other in expressions like “I have no use for such books”, or “He was given the benefit of the doubt”.

Contextual synonyms are similar in meaning only under some specific distributional conditions. The verbs to bear, to suffer and stand are semantically different and not interchangeable except when used in the negative form.

One of the **sources of synonymy** is borrowings. In Modern English a great number of synonyms serve to differentiate the meanings of words, their colloquial or bookish character. Most of bookish synonyms are of foreign origin, while popular and colloquial words are mostly native. Many native synonyms were either restricted or ousted by foreign terms, for example: The native word “heaven” has been more and more restricted to the figurative and religious use for the Danish word “sky” began to be used exclusively in the meaning of the “blue” above us though originally “sky” meant only “cloud”. The Danish word call has ousted the Old English word “heitan”, the French word “army” ousted the native word here.

Shifts of meaning can lead to the appearance of synonyms: knave and villain once were not synonyms but their meanings degraded and they became synonyms.

Shortening can result in the appearance of synonyms: advertisement - ad; examination - exam.

Conversion can be a source of synonymy: a corner - to corner.

There are several **criteria of synonymy**.

Notional criterion: Synonyms are words of the same category of parts of speech conveying the same notion but differing either in the shades of meaning or in stylistic characteristics.

Semantic criterion: In terms of componential analysis synonyms may be defined as words with the same denotation or the same denotative component but differing in connotations or in the connotative component.

The criterion of interchangeability: Synonyms are words which are interchangeable at least in some contexts without any considerable alteration in the denotational meaning.

Expressive connotations: In both languages we observe intensive expressiveness, such as: “scaredycat” – “an unduly fearful person” – “pişik” / “toyuq” – “nahaq yerə qorxan adam”.

In English there are cases of figurative expressiveness based on metaphoric transfer, such as: chicken :: yellow-belly – “a coward” – cücə :: sarıağız – “qorxaq”.

Evaluative connotations: Being highly evaluative in English, the Azerbaijani synonyms are reduced to one word, whose connotation is determined by a gender overlap that underlies metaphoric transfer, such as: “arvad” / “ərköyün” – “arvad kimi kişi və ya oğlan, utancaq və qorxaq adam” – “sissy” – “an effeminate man or boy; a timid or cowardly person”.

Other English synonyms demonstrate either a culturally-based approach towards evaluation, such as: cücə :: pişik balası – chicken :: scaredy-cat, or a purely (i.e. not being culturally determined) axiological approach, like: “dastard” – “alçaq” – “a coward, especially one who commits malicious acts”, such as: “malice”, derived from Latin “malus” that means “bad”.

Stylistic connotations: In both languages there are informal colloquial words, though in English prevail archaisms over dialecticisms in Azerbaijani. The connotation of degree or intensity: This type of connotation is characteristic of English, such as: “craven” (ürəksiz) – “extremely cowardly”; “poltroon” (çox qorxaq) – “a complete coward”.

In Azerbaijani the connotation of degree or intensity is only observed in the synonymic dominant “ağciyər” – “asanlıqla qorxan və ya təhlükədən, çətinlikdən və ağrıdan qaçmağa çalışan bir nəfər”, whereas its English counterpart rather reveals the evaluative connotation, such as: “coward” – “disapproving a person who is easily frightened or tries to avoid danger, difficulty or pain”.

The causative connotations: This type of connotation is characteristic of the Azerbaijani word “ağbağır” – “iradəsiz, qətiyyətsiz, gücsüz insan”, whose semantic structure encodes information on “the cause of cowardness”. The English counterpart reveals the features of the evaluative connotation, such as: “milksop” - figurative “an effeminate spiritless man or youth” – “cındır” – “iradəsiz və nakişi”.

Comparison of Synonymic Groups: Within a certain group of synonyms there may be singled out a synonymic dominant – a lexical item that is characterized by the most general meaning of the kind, such as: qələbə :: qalibiyət :: fəth :: uğur :: üstünlük :: ustalıq :: zəfər – victory :: win :: conquest :: triumph :: success :: superiority :: mastery.

A synonymic dominant is a key word of a synonymic group, the latter being defined as a set of words that determine a certain domain, for instance, the domain of “misfortune” – “bədbəxtlik”, such as: misfortune :: mischance :: bad luck :: ill luck :: mishap :: misadventure :: accident :: tragedy :: calamity :: disaster :: adversity :: affliction :: hardship :: trouble :: trial :: tribulation :: blow :: reverse :: setback – bədbəxtlik :: şanssızlıq :: uğursuzluq :: talesizlik :: tərslik :: sədətsizlik :: bəxtiqaralıq :: bədlük :: geriləmə :: qəm :: pislik :: drama :: faciə :: qəza :: müsibət :: bəla :: fəlakət :: gethaget :: möhnət :: qada-bala :: qada :: dərd-bala :: xata-bala :: zaval :: zəlalət :: vay :: əzab :: zərbə .

According to H.A.Hasanov, the differences and similarities of synonyms within a synonymic group are established on the basis of semantic proper, evaluative, associative and logical distinctions.

All those features may be adopted and considered as general types of connotations, determining correspondences of synonyms in the contrasted languages.

Semantic distinctions are established on the basis of semantic marks that correlate with the concepts of “property, cause, subject, purpose, result, place, time, instrument, addresser, addressee, degree, emotion”, etc.

For example, in English the synonyms “beat”, “pummel”, “thrash” and “flog” are distinguished on the basis of the semantic mark that correlates with the concept of “instrument”. The “instrument” used in the process of beating is “a limb or an object”, such as: “beat” – “to hit repeatedly with a hand, stick, or other object”: They saw him beating his dog with a stick.

While pummelling, a “fist” is used as an instrument, such as: “pummel” – “to (someone or something) repeatedly with your fists”: The boxer had pummelled his opponent into submission by the end of the fourth round.

The act of thrashing or flogging involves a “thing” as a punishment instrument, like: “thrash” – “to beat soundly, esp. with a stick or whip”: He thrashed the horse with his whip or flog “to beat very hard with a whip or stick, as a punishment”: Soldiers used to be flogged for disobedience.

The evidence that the English “beating” synonyms’ semantics encode information on a certain ‘instrument’ is the abundance of words, having been converted from the nouns that denote an instrument-object (object used as an instrument), like:

“whip” (verb) < whip (noun) “a piece of leather or rope which is fastened to a stick, used for hitting animals or people”;

“cane” (verb) < “cane” (noun) “a thin stick used for hitting people”;

“cudgel” (verb) < “cudgel” (noun) “a short heavy stick used for hitting people”.

The Azerbaijani synonyms, designating the domain of “olmaq” differ from one another in the semantic marks that correlate with the concept of “qaydada”. The words “vurmaq, çırpmaq, döymək, döşmək, endirmək, ilişdirmək, yapışdırmaq, zərbə endirmək, zollanmaq” are synonyms.

For example, the word “vurmaq” denotes a “neutral” way in which “beating” is done, such as: “Vur, vur ki, gətirməyibdir arpa” (M.Ə.Sabir); “döşmək” – in figurative meaning: “Fərraş sağa-sola döşəyirdi” (Y.V.Çəmənzəminli); “endirmək” – in figurative meaning: “Naznaz əlini qaldırıb Qaraşın təpəsinə endirəndə Qaraş onun biləyindən yapışıb sıxdı” (M.İbrahimov); “ilişdirmək” – “Həmidin əli gicişirdi, az qalırdı ki, Çopur Abdullaya yağlı bir şillə ilişdirsin, küçədəkilərdən ayıb idi” (H.Abbaszaadə); “yapışdırmaq” – colloquial, in figurative meaning: – “Zalım da çəpərdən bir ağac qoparıb, Şükürün peysərinə yapışdıranda Şükür palaz kimi yerə sərildi” (Y.V.Çəmənzəminli); “zərbə endirmək” – “Azər özünü irəli verdi, rəqibə zərbə endirəndə ona elə gəldi ki, həm özü, həm də rəqibi vurur və bundan zövq aldı” (Ə.Kərim); “zollanmaq” – “Dəli şeytan deyir ki, bir dəyənək, Mollanın zolla başına, zirək” (S.Ə.Şirvani).

In Azerbaijani the word “vurmaq”, as polysemantic word, denotes also “oğurlamaq”; “sancmaq”; “döyünmək”; “içmək”; “döymək”; “çalmaq”, etc.

Evaluative distinctions ground in establishing a positive or negative value of concepts that correlate with synonyms in the contrasted languages.

In English the synonyms sharp and keen with the meaning of “affecting the senses or sense organs intensely” differ in their evaluative connotations: sharp is negative, when it collocates with names of sound irritants, such as:

“sharp voice” – “shrill or piercing voice”; the same in Azerbaijani, like: “kəskin səs”, “şiddətli və ya ünlü, sədalı və ya cingiltili səs”;

“keen” is positive when it denotes the property of spice or ability to refresh, as: “keen savour of the roast-beef” – “qovrulmuş acılı mal əti”; “the wind came keen with a tang of frost” – “kəskin külək şaxta və dolu ilə gəldi”.

In Azerbaijani we find the words “ədviyyəli, ətirli, baharatlı, acılı” denoting “spicy food”. The words “ədviyyəli” and “baharatlı” are considered positive in value; on the contrary, the word “acılı” is negative. The meanings of these words show that evaluation is variable and highly depends on the context.

In Azerbaijani the word “əfsanə” have synonyms not only “fantaziya”, “mif”, but also “yalan”, “gop”, “xilaf”. For instance:

“Xalqımızın şüurunu məzhəb və təriqət mübahisələri ilə deyil, xalqların həyat və siyasət tarixini tərif edib əfsanə şəklində salmaq vasitəsi ilə də korlamışlar” (M.S.Ordubadi).

“Canım, səs-küy imiş, əfsanə imiş, Orda da görmədim nə insan, nə iş” (S.Vurğun).

“Yadına Xürrəm müəllimin sözləri düşdü: Nənələrin, xalaların barmaqlarında min sehr var, onların fantaziyasına adam mat qalır” (İ.Məlikzadə).

“Miflər, əfsanələr və nağıllar məhz bu zəmində meydana gəlmişdir” (M.Məmmədov).

“Mənim bu hekayətim yalana oxşayır, amma sizin üçün, sırf həqiqətdir” (Ə.Haqqverdiyev).

“Gop-gop kimi bifaidə əhli-qələm olma, Ol Başıqapazlı, vəli, Bidərdü qəm olma” (M.Ə.Sabir).

“Zeyd, mənim sözüm əmir sözüdür, onda xilaf ola bilməz” (Ü.Hacıbəyov).

Associative distinctions are based on reflecting the cultural conceptions about customs and other extra-linguistic factors in word’s semantics. To reveal those phenomena in English and Azerbaijani, we shall compare the synonyms that

designate the domain of “jump” – “tullanmaq”. The word “jump” – “to spring into the air, using the muscular power of feet and legs” is a synonymic dominant, like: “Ballet dancers can jump very high”.

The Azerbaijani counterpart “tullanmaq, atlanmaq, atılmaq, hoppanmaq” may be associated with an animal (in particular, a lambkin), like:

“Küçədə tullan, ey oğul, sənətin olmur, olmasın!” (M.Ə.Sabir).

“Azər yenə irəli atıldı” (Ə.Kərim). “Zərif geri atıldı” (Ə.Kərim).

“Sənə elə bir meymun havası çalım ki, sıçrayıb dik atlanasan” (S.S.Axundov).

“Sərçə yoldaşlarının sözlərindən utandı, Uçub budaqdan birbaş, Gölməçəyə hoppandı” (M.Rzaquluzadə).

Its synonym “leap” – “to make a large jump or sudden movement, usually from one place to another” describes an extended, light, smooth and quick jump, the one, being associated with a jump of an antelope: “The reporter leapt forward holding out her microphone”.

The words “spring” – “to move quickly and suddenly towards a particular place” and to a lesser degree “bound” – “to move quickly with large jumping movements” designate a powerful, springy jump with a jerky tearing off of the ground, being associated with a jump of a “predatory animal”, like: “The dog sprang at him”.

The synonyms “skip” – “to move with light leaps and bounds” and “hop” – “to make small jumps on one or two feet, or to move along in this way” denote “light”, “graceful” and sometimes “clumsy jumps”, being associated with a jump of a frog, bird, grasshopper etc., for example: “Her left foot hurt so much she had hopped over to the car”. “Several children were skipping in the playground”.

Very close to the word “hop” are the Azerbaijani words “sıçramaq, hoppanmaq, tullanmaq, atılmaq” and “sıçrayış, tullanma, hoppanma”.

The word “at” is associated with hoofed, ungulate animals, for example: “a horse”, for example:

“Göy ot xımırtlardan atların finxırtısından və gecə böcəklərinin həzin səslərindən başqa heç nə eşidilmirdi” (İ.Şıxlı).

“Deyirsən deməli şikəstdir sənin, Məhəbbət yolunda mindiyin səmənd” (Ə.Kürçaylı).

“Oruc ata yanaşmaq, tutmaq istədi. Lakin madyan finxırıb dərhal aralandı” (Q.Xəlilov), whilst its synonym “səmənd”, “madyan” (dişi at) is associated with a nanny-goat: “keçi”.

Logical distinctions underline, or emphasize the meaning core component in the contrasted synonyms. To illustrate this, we shall compare the synonyms that correlate with the domain of “hard” – “ağır, sərt, çətin, bərk, zor, güclü, cod, qalın, məşəqqətli, kəskin, başağrıdıçı, qulağıağır, tərlədici, zillətli, sanballı”.

The English word “hard” – “needing or using a lot of physical or mental effort” underlines the idea of “using effort”, such as: “Go on – give it a good hard push!”

The same in Azerbaijani, like: “bir çox fiziki və ya zehni səy tələb edir”.

The English synonym “difficult” - “hard to do, make, carry out, or understand” focuses our attention on “complication and obstacle”, standing in one’s way to solve a problem, like: “She came across a difficult passage in translation”. “He is a difficult writer”. “It was a difficult problem for a pupil of the fourth class”.

In Azerbaijani we observe it in the word “çətin, ağır, cəncəl”, for instance: “Ağır sandıq seçmə parçalarla dolu idi” (Mir Cəlal). “Ağır yaralanmış bir

müsəlman süvarası Gürcüstan milli xalq qvardiyasının xəstəxanasından müalicə edilməkdədir” (M.Hüseyn). “O, bərk yaralanmışdı” (M.Hüseyn). “Gecəm belə keçdi, səhərim gəlsin! Dadıma sanballı sözlərim gəlsin!” (M.Müşviq).

8. Antonymy in English and Azerbaijani.

The word “antonymy” derives from the Greek root “anti-” “opposite” and denotes “opposition” in meaning. In contrast to synonymy and hyponymy, antonymy is a binary relationship that can characterize a relationship between only two words at a time.

Antonyms have traditionally been defined as words of opposite meaning. Words with diametrically opposite meanings are called antonyms. We find antonyms among words denoting:

- a) Quality: hard – soft; good – bad; ağır – yüngül; yaxşı – pis;
- b) State: clean – dirty; wealth – poverty; dark – light, easy – difficult; təmiz – çirk; dövlətli – kasıb; tünd – açıq; ağır – yüngül;
- c) Manner: quickly - slowly; willingly - unwillingly; tez – yavaş-yavaş; istər – istəmər;
- d) Direction: up - down; here - there; yuxarı – aşağı; orda – burda;
- e) Action or feeling: to smile – to frown; to love – to hate; axtarmaq – tapmaq; gülmək – ağlamaq;
- f) Features: tall - short; beautiful - ugly; uzun – qısa; arıq – kök; hündür – qısa; gözəl – kifir; abdal – ağıllı; isti – soyuq.

Traditionally we can oppose the meaning of any pair of words. But there are the words in the vocabulary that are usually, constantly (always, permanently)

opposed to each other: “handsome – ugly, hard – soft, hate – like”, etc. Such words have neither relative features, nor antonyms.

Linguists define the classification of the antonyms. Antonyms can be divided into two groups: those which are formed with the help of negative affixes (derivational) and those which are of different roots. There are affixes in English which impart to the root the meaning of either the presence or the absence of a certain quality, property or state.

The most productive antonym-forming negative prefixes are “un-” – “unhappy, unimportant”; “mis-” – “misfortune, misunderstanding”.

In the Azerbaijani language that is the prefix “na-” – “narahat, nabeləd, namərd, naxoş, nanəcib, nahamar, nadürüst”. The prefixes “bi-” – “binamus, biqeyrət, bidar, bikar”; “la-” – “laqeyd, labüd, latayır”; “qeyri-” – “qeyri-səmimi, qeyri-mədəni, qeyri-səviyyəli” are also rather productive.

Antonym-forming suffixes impart to the word the meaning of the presence or absence of the quality or feature indicated by the root. The most productive antonym-forming suffixes are “-ful”, “-less”: “fruitful – fruitless”; “hopeful – hopeless”. In Azerbaijani the most productive antonym-forming suffixes are “-sız”, “-siz”: “tərbiyyəsiz, ədəbsiz, mənəviyyətsiz, qarşılıqsız”.

The second group (antonyms proper) includes words of different roots: day – night; rich – poor, sevinc – kədər, dost – düşmən.

Considered in meaning antonyms can be divided into absolute, phraseological and complex.

Absolute antonyms are diametrically opposite in meaning and remain antonyms in any word-combinations. These are mostly found among negative affix-formed antonyms.

Phraseological antonyms. When they become components of phraseological groups or compound words they sometimes lose their absolutely antonymic nature, for example, “to give - to take”: “to give a book - to take a book”, but “to give way” will not have “to take way” as its antonym.

Phraseological antonyms cannot be used in parallel antonymic expressions indiscriminately. We can say “The books are alike” – “The books are different”, but we cannot say an alike “book”, though we do say “a different book”.

Complex antonyms are those polysemantic words that have different antipodes for their various meanings, for example: “Soft” has such meanings as “not hard, yielding” (soft seat, soft nature); “not loud, subdued” (soft voice, soft colours); “mild, not severe” (soft climate, soft punishment).

Naturally all these meanings will find different words for antipodes: “hard” (hard seat, hard nature); “loud, harsh” (loud voice, harsh colours); “severe” (severe climate, severe punishment).

The Azerbaijani word “quru” can have the following antonyms: “yaş, yumşaq, dolğun”.

There are several criteria of antonyms. Antonyms have traditionally been defined as words of opposite meanings. This definition is not sufficiently accurate; as it only shifts the problem to the question of what words may be regarded as words of opposite meanings. Two words are considered antonyms if they are regularly contrasted in actual speech. A regular and frequent co-occurrence in such contexts is the most important characteristic feature of antonyms.

Another criterion is the possibility of substitution and identical lexical valency. Members of the same antonymic pair reveal nearly identical spheres of collocation, for instance: The adjective “hot” in its figurative meanings “angry” and “excited” is chiefly combined with unpleasant emotions (anger, scorn). Its antonym “cold” occurs with the same words. But “hot” and “cold” are used in

combinations with the emotionally neutral words “fellow, man”, but not with the nouns implying positive evaluation “friend, supporter”.

Antonyms form binary oppositions, the distinctive feature of which is semantic polarity; its basis is regular co-occurrence in typical contexts combined with approximate sameness of distribution and stylistic and emotional equivalence.

The characteristic features of antonyms are the followings:

- a) Antonyms belong to the same part of speech.
- b) Unlike synonyms, antonyms do not differ either in style, emotional colouring or in distribution.
- c) Antonyms are interchangeable at least in some contexts.

Morphologically antonyms are traditionally classified into antonyms – words of different roots (absolute antonyms or root antonyms or antonyms proper). For example: “narrow – wide, thin – thick, love – hate”, etc.

And derivational antonyms – words of the same root, but having negative affixes, for example: pleasant – unpleasant, regular – irregular, honest – dishonest, useful – useless. Such antonyms are formed by means of affixes.

In Azerbaijani, derivational antonyms are also formed by means of affixes, for example: əkin – biçin, varlıq – yoxluq, gözəllik – çirkinlik, gəliş – gediş, etc.

Terms A and B are antonyms if when A describes a referent, B cannot describe the same referent, and vice versa. The prototypical antonyms are pairs of adjectives that describe opposite notions: “large” – “böyük” and “small” – “balaca”, “wide” – “enli” and “narrow” – “ensiz”, “hot” – “isti” and “cold” – “soyuq”, “married” – “evli” and “single” – “subay”, “alive” – “canlı” and “dead” – “cansız”. Antonymy is not restricted to adjectives, however.

The nouns “man” and “woman” are also antonyms because an individual cannot be described by both terms at once. “Always” – “həmişə” and “never” “heç

vaxt” form an antonymous pair of adverbs: they have mutually exclusive referents. The verbs “love” – “sevmək” and “hate” – “nifrət etmək” can also be viewed as antonyms because they refer to mutually exclusive emotions.

Antonymy is thus a binary relationship between terms with complementary meanings. Antonymy forms the simplest type of a semantic field structure – contrastive class. In that way, antonyms are considered correlative themselves, i.e. their semantics is revealed relative to the semantics of their counterparts, such as:

tall :: short – hündür :: alçaq;

life :: death – həyat :: ölüm;

müharibə :: sülh – war :: peace;

səliqəli :: səliqəsiz – tidy :: untidy;

employ :: dismiss – tətbiq etmək (işə almaq) :: çıxarmaq (işdən azad etmək).

It should be borne in mind, however, that antonymous words often do not have equal status with respect to markedness. For example, when you inquire about the weight of an object, you ask: How heavy is it? and not How light is it? – unless you already know that the object is light.

Notice also that the noun weight, which describes both relative heaviness and relative lightness, is associated with heavy rather than with light, as in the expressions “carry a lot of weight” and “throw one’s weight around”.

Of the antonymous pair heavy and light, heavy is more neutral than light and is thus less marked. In the same fashion, “tall” is less marked than “short”, “hot” less marked than “cold”, and “married” less marked than “single”, we say “marital status”, not “singleness status”.

Although there is some variation across languages as to which word of a pair is considered less marked, there is a surprising agreement from language to

language. Generally speaking, words are considered antonyms if their semantic relations meet the following requirements:

a) The words X and Y correspond to the contrary concepts, i.e. they are the extreme members of an arranged multitude that determines the contrary opposition. These antonyms form a gradual contrast. There is a middle element, at least one, between them: X is not X, not Y is Y, such as:

young – not young / not old – old – cavan – cavan olmayan / yaşlı olmayan – yaşlı.

b) The words X and Y denote the opposition of different directions, properties, features, etc. These antonyms represent the vector opposition: X > < Y, such as:

come > < leave – gəlmək > < getmək;

yandırmaq > < söndürmək – turn on > < turn off;

put on > < put off – geyinmək > < soyunmaq.

The variants of this type of opposition are antipodals – words in which one term represents an extreme in one direction along some salient axis, while the other term denotes the corresponding extreme in the other direction, such as:

north :: south – şimal :: cənub;

top :: bottom- yuxarı :: aşağı.

c) The words X and Y formally correspond to the contradictory concepts, the basis of which forms the contradiction: X is not X. The characteristic feature of this opposition is the absence of a middle element, such as:

evli – subay - married – single;

true – false - həqiqi – yalançı.

d) The words X and Y, denoting the same situation represent different names of the same action, state, relations, etc.

These words, being reversed from the viewpoint of the counteragents, represent the converse opposition, such as:

buy – sell - almaq – satmaq;

win – lose - qazanmaq – uduzmaq.

Converseness characterizes a reciprocal semantic relationship between pairs of words. Other examples of converse pairs include terms, denoting many other kinship relations, such as: child :: parent - uşaq :: valideyn, terms, describing professional relationships, such as: employer :: employee - iş verən :: işçi (əməkdaş); and terms, designating relative positions in space or time, such as above :: below - yuxarıda :: aşağıda; before :: after - öncə :: sonra.

A considerable availability of words with opposite meanings in language is likely to be connected with a human being's tendency to arrange the accumulated experience and evaluative opinions of mankind on the polar scales points. Taking into account the evaluative criterion for distinguishing antonyms, the following classification of antonyms is proposed (Cruse, 1987: 208):

1) Polar antonyms – words that are evaluatively neutral and objectively descriptive. In the majority of cases, the underlying scaled property can be measured in conventional units, such as inches, grams or miles per hour, like: long :: short - uzun :: qısa.

2) Overlapping antonyms – words that have an evaluative polarity as part of their meaning: one term is commendatory and the other is deprecatory, like: good :: bad - yaxşı :: pis.

3) Equipollent antonyms – words that refer to distinctly subjective sensations or emotions, like: hot :: cold - isti :: soyuq; or evaluations based on

subjective reactions rather than on “objective” standards, such as: pleasant :: unpleasant - xoşagələn :: xoşagəlməyən.

Antonyms in English and Azerbaijani may be compared on the basis of their semantics or structure. The semantic criterion for comparison manifests itself in polysemy. The matter is that a word in one language may stand in the antonymic relations to one of the meanings (lexico-semantic variants) of a polysemous word in the other language.

From this viewpoint, the comparison of polysemous words gives the opportunity to find the most appropriate antonymic equivalents in the contrasted languages, such as: the polysemous word “sakit” – “qorxulu, lal, səslı-küylü”

1) “Sakit, ağıllı adama oxşayır” (S. Qədirzadə). “O bizim üçün çox qorxulu adamdır” (S.Vəliyev);

2) “İzdiham da Neva kimi qüvvətli və sakit axırdı” (M.Hüseyn). “Çay lal axırdı” (S. Qədirzadə);

3) “Göy meşələr, sakit kəndlər, səslı-küylü limanlar tamaşalı yerlərdir” (S. Qədirzadə).

Having three meanings, the word may be brought into correlation with different antonyms, respectively: “1) fearful, terrible, dreadful, dire, horrid, appalling, hazardous; 2) dumb, mute, silent, deathly still; 3) blatant”.

The words that are equivalent to these in English would be: “quiet” – “marked by little or no motion, activity, or excitement”:: “troubled” – “worried or anxious”; “cool” – “dispassionately calm and self-controlled” :: “fiery” – “full of or exuding strong emotion or spirit; easily provoked; “irascible” and “calm” – “marked by the absence of wind or rough water; “still” :: “rough” – “of the sea: moving violently, with large waves”, respectively.

According to their structure antonyms are divided into cognate (semantic) and non-cognate (derivational).

Non-cognate antonyms are words that are opposed by their meanings. They constitute the majority of antonyms both in English and in Azerbaijani, such as: warm :: cold – isti :: soyuq; early :: late – erkən (tez) :: gec; cəld :: yavaş – quick :: slow; qurmaq :: dağıtmaq – build :: destroy.

Cognate antonyms are words that are formed by adding an affix, in particular, prefix to the opposing word, such as: armed :: unarmed – silahlı :: silahsız; simmetrik (mütənasib) :: asimmetrik – symmetric :: asymmetric.

The most productive opposite-forming affixes in Azerbaijani are “-sız, -siz, -ma, -mə, -maq, -mək, anti-, bi-, dez-, na-, a-, kontr-”, for example: salmaq :: çıxartmaq; gəlmək :: getmək; yola salmaq :: yoldan qayıtmaq; formalaşdırmaq :: formalaşdırmamaq; yükləmək :: yükləməmək; nəfəs almaq :: nəfəs almamaq; demokratik :: antidemokratik; oriyentasiya :: dezoriyentasiya.

In English these affixes are: “anti-”, “dis-”, “in-”, “un-”, “counter-”, “-less”:: “-ful”, such as: organization :: disorganization; complete :: incomplete; settled :: unsettled; fascist :: antifascist; revolutionary :: counter-revolutionary; hopeless :: hopeful.

The analysis of the English and Azerbaijani counterparts reveals four types of antonymic correspondences. Antonyms may be:

a) Non-cognate in Azerbaijani, but cognate in English, like: görünmək :: görünməmək – appear :: disappear;

b) Non-cognate in English, but cognate in Azerbaijani, like: mask :: expose – maskalamaq :: maskalamamaq;

c) Non-cognate both in Azerbaijani and in English, like: incə :: kobud – tender :: rude.

d) Cognate both in Azerbaijani and in English, like: oxunaqlı (aydın) :: oxunmaz (aydın olmayan) – legible :: illegible.

9. Homonymy in English and Azerbaijani.

Considering the word from the viewpoint of its semantic relations with other words we submit to our examination words having the same form but quite differing in meaning or homonyms. Saying the same form we must add that the identity of form may be complete or partial.

There are perfect homonyms that are words having entirely different meanings but absolutely identical in spelling and sound: ball – top; ball – kürə; ball – mərmə.

Partial homonyms are of two types: homographs and homophones. Homographs are words identical in spelling but different in sound and meaning: bow [bou] - bow [bau], row [rou] - row [rau], alma (apple) – alma (don't buy).

Homophones are the words identical in sound but different in spelling and meaning: knight - night; piece - peace; göy (sky) – göy (green), bal (honey) – bal (point).

There is a classification of homonyms. From the viewpoint of their origin homonyms are divided into historical and etymological. Historical homonyms are those which result from the breaking up of polysemy; then one polysemantic word will split up in two or more separate words, for example: plant (bitki) - plant (fabrik); pupil (şagird) - pupil (göz bəbəyi).

But sometimes it is difficult to decide whether all connection between the meanings of such words is lost and even the compilers of dictionaries hesitate how to treat such words.

Etymological homonyms are words of different etymology which come to be alike in sound or spelling. Various causes explain their appearance. Among these phonetical changes both in native and borrowed words played a great role, for example: can (bilərdi) - Old English cunnan (bilmək); can (bank) - Old English canne (banka); here (burada) - Old English her (burda); to hear (eşitmək) - Old English hieran (dinləmək).

Sometimes a native word and a borrowed word coincide in form, thus producing homonyms, for example: to bark (hürmək) - Old English beorcan and bark (ağacın qabığı) from Scandinavian borkr (uzun qayıq).

In other cases homonyms are a result of borrowing when several different words became identical in sound and / or in spelling, for example: the Latin word “vitim” (wrong, an immoral habit) has given the English “vice” (qəbahət, eyib, məngənə), the Latin word “vitis” (a spiral) has given the English word “vice” (vəzər). The Latin word “vice” (instead, in place) is found in “vice-president”.

Considering homonyms in their morphological aspect I.Smirnitsky classifies them into lexical and lexico-grammatical. Lexical homonyms are of two types: perfect and partial.

Perfect homonyms belong to the same part of speech with all forms coinciding: case (dava) - case (çanta).

Partial homonyms belong to the same part of speech but coincide only in some of their forms: to lie - lay - lain; to lie - lied - lied. Lexico-grammatical homonyms are represented by:

a) Words belonging to the same part of speech but homonymic in their grammatical forms (excluding their initial forms): bore - to bore (the Past Indefinite of to bear);

b) Words belonging to different parts of speech and homonymic only in some of their forms: I - to eye; nose - knows.

10. Correlations of Semantic Derivativeness.

Correlations of semantic derivativeness combine words based on their formal word-building relations, the so-called **suppletive word-building**. One of the varieties of such correlations is actantial correlations which confront the name of a situation with the standard name of an obligatory participant – actant.

Here belong such correlations as:

- a) Action – subject of action, like: treat – doctor - müalicə etmək –həkim;
- b) Action – object of action, like: ilahiləşdirmək – büt (sənəm) - idolize – idol;
- c) Action – instrument of action, like: shoot – weapon - vurmaq (güllə atmaq) – silah;
- d) Action – place of action, like: basdırmaq (dəfn etmək, torpağa tapşırmaq) – məzar (qəbir) - bury – grave, and many others.

Chapter VI. Syntagmatic Aspect of Contrastive Lexicology.

1. Syntagmatic Relations.

2. Comparison at the Level of Syntagmatic Relations.

3. Phraseological Units and their Characteristic Features.

4. Classification of Phraseological Units.

5. Contrastive Analysis of Phraseological Units: Phraseological Equivalents, Phraseological Analogues, Non-Equivalent Phraseological Units.

1. Syntagmatic Relations.

The syntactic, or relational aspect of word meaning is determined by its semantic relations with other lexical items within a certain speech segment – word-combination or sentence. It is argued that some words collocate with each other more freely in the utterance than others.

Thus, we may infer that there are certain restrictions, applied to the collocation of words. Those restrictions may be determined:

a) Logically, i.e. according to the extra-linguistic reality and the relations that constitute our knowledge about the world. For example, the words “red” and “qırmızı” have an unlimited number of collocations in language, as the same we may observe in the reality, based on the assumption that any object might be of a red colour;

b) Linguistically, as the result of a historical development of language. From this viewpoint, the English word suggests collocates with the gerund, whilst it’s Azerbaijani counterpart “təklif etmək”, on the contrary, is followed by the

infinitive, as there is no gerund in the grammatical system of the Azerbaijani language.

Some other examples of incongruous collocations: in Azerbaijani we have “hündür” / “uca” (ev, dağ, oğlan, qız), whilst in English: “high building”, “high mountain”, but “tall boy”, “tall tree”; in English – “to wash” (face, linen), in Azerbaijani – “üzünüzü yuyun” (kətan, ağları), but “paltarları yaxalamaq” (suya çəkmək), etc.

The collocations of words in linguistics are viewed in terms of the so-called syntagmatic relations. The syntagmatic relations of a word are its linear, contextual relations.

This type of relations determines the word semantics from the viewpoint of the word's capacity to combine (collocate) with other words. The information about the semantic (syntagmatic) relations between words within the same flow of speech is regarded to constitute the syntactic layer of meaning, hence, word's syntactic meaning.

2. Comparison at the Level of Syntagmatic Relations.

The contrastive analysis at the level of syntagmatic relations serves for determining meanings of the contrasted words according to their collocability. The notion of “collocability” in theory of language is closely connected with the notions of “distribution”, “context” and “valence”.

Distribution is a set of linguistic contexts (the total of all the environments) in which a lexical item or class of items can occur. Context may be defined as a minimal segment of speech that comes immediately before and after a word, determining its individual (denotative) meaning.

The denotative meaning of a word may be determined by its grammatical context, i.e. by the syntactic structure means. For example, the English word “stop” – “to finish doing something” can occur in the following context, among others: “to stop doing smth.” / “stop + gerund”.

The same meaning in Azerbaijani occurs in a somewhat different context: “fəaliyyətini dayandırmaq” or (noun + infinitive - “dayandırmaq”). The difference would be even more striking in some stable word-combinations, such as: “stop at nothing” – “heç bir şeyə görə durmamaq”; “tamamilə durmaq” – “come to a full stop”.

However, there are cases with total congruence of contexts in the contrasted languages, such as: “atəşi dayandırmaq” (“dayandırmaq” + noun) – “to stop fire” (stop + noun). The denotative meaning of a word may also be determined by its lexical context.

In this case, meaning is considered to be determined by other words’ semantics, such as: lexical contexts of the English word “strong” and its Azerbaijani counterpart “güclü”. In the meaning of “powerful; having great force” the equivalents are totally congruous, denoting such natural phenomena as “wind, current”, such as: “strong wind”, “strong current” – “güclü külək”, “güclü sel”, but they are incongruous in designating “rain, frost, heat, storm”, such as: “güclü yağış (leysan), bərk şaxta, istilik, fırtına” – “heavy rain, hard frost, fierce heat, heavy storm.

In designating “reason” in the meaning of “difficult to argue with”, the equivalents are not congruous either, such as: “strong argument, evidence” – “güclü mübahisə, dəlil”.

No congruence is observed with the Azerbaijani meaning of “yüksək dərəcəyə çatmaq” və ya “güclü özünü büruzə vermək”, in designating “feelings and senses”, like: “güclü hisslər, təəssüratlar, ağrı” – “intense feelings, pain, impressions”, etc.

Valence is a word's capacity, its potentiality to combine with other words. The combination of words is characterized by selective lexical compatibility. Both English and Azerbaijani lexicons comprise monovalent and polyvalent words. One may single out three types of valence correspondence in the contrasted languages:

a) Monovalent, for example: hazel (eyes) – qəhvəyi / qonur (gözlər); palıdı rəngdə at, in Russian “гнедой конь” – bay (horse);

b) Polyvalent, like: green (table, cup, dress, etc.) – yaşıl (masa, fincan, paltar), etc.;

c) Monovalent and polyvalent, such as: (vaxt, pul, qabiliyyət, enerji) itirmək – waste (time, money, talent, energy, etc.); addle (egg) – lax (yumurta), korlanmış (ət, balıq, su, iy), etc.

3. Semantic and Syntactic Actants.

Of paramount importance at contrastive analysis is a notion of semantic valence. It is argued that a word P has semantic valence A, if the word P describes a situation with an obligatory participant that plays the role of A. The obligatory participant is called a **semantic actant** and its role is called a **semantic role**.

Semantic role refers to the way in which the referent of the noun phrase contributes to the state, action, or situation described by the sentence. Semantic role is the actual role a participant plays in some real or imagined situation, apart from the linguistic encoding of those situations. For example, if, in some real or imagined situation, someone named John purposely hits someone named Bill, then John is the Agent and Bill is the Patient of the “hitting event”.

Therefore, the semantic role of Bill is the same (Patient) in both of the following sentences: “John hit Bill” and “Bill was hit by John”. In both of the

above sentences, “John” has the semantic role of Agent, such as in Azerbaijani: “Con Bili vurdu” and “Bil Con tərəfindən vurulub”.

One should distinguish semantic actants from the syntactic ones – syntactically dependent participants that are assigned with the syntactic roles (grammatical relations) of subject and object. It should be borne in mind that semantic and syntactic roles are not the same.

For example, in English, the subject of a sentence can be an Agent as in the underlined noun phrase in sentence 1), a Patient (as in 2), an Instrument (3), a Cause (4), an Experiencer (5), a Benefactive (or Recipient) (6), a Locative (7), or a Temporal (8), depending on the verb.

- 1) The janitor (Agent) opened the door.
- 2) The door (Patient) opened easily.
- 3) His first record (Instrument) greatly expanded his audience.
- 4) Bad weather (Cause) ruined the corn crop.
- 5) Serge (Experiencer) heard his father whispering.
- 6) The young artist (Benefactive or Recipient) won the prize.
- 7) Arizona (Locative) attracts asthmatics.
- 8) The next day (Temporal) found us on the road to Alice Springs.

In certain English constructions, the subject may not have any semantic role, as with the “dummy it” construction, in which the pronoun it fills the subject slot but is semantically empty, for instance: “It becomes clear that the government has jailed him there”.

So the notion of subject is independent of the notion of semantic role; the same thing is for direct objects and other grammatical relations.

Conversely, semantic roles do not appear to be constrained by grammatical relations. A locative (garden), for example, may be expressed as a subject as in sentence 1 below, a direct object (2), an indirect object (3), or an oblique (4).

- 1) The garden (subject) will look great in the spring.
- 2) William planted the garden (direct object) with cucumbers and tomatoes.
- 3) The begonias give the garden (indirect object) a cheerful look.
- 4) The gate opens on the garden (oblique).

Nevertheless, there is a relationship between grammatical relations and semantic roles. Consider the following sentences, all of which have open as a verb: “Michele opened the door with this key. The door opens easily. This key will open the door. The wind opened the door”.

The grammatical subjects of the sentences above are an agent (Michele), a patient (the door), an instrument (this key), and a cause (the wind).

Semantic roles are universal features of the semantic structure of all languages, but how they interact with grammatical relations such as subject and direct object differs from language to language. Equivalent verbs in different languages do not carry similar tags. The tag attached to the English verb like, for example, permits only “experiencers” as subjects, such as: “He likes French fries”. But only “patients” can be the subjects of the equivalent Azerbaijani verb “xoşlanmaq”, such as: “O kartofu fri xoşlayır”.

Some languages distinguish between Agent and Experiencer much more carefully than English does. For example, the verb might take a subject when the action described is intentional but take a direct object when the action is unintentional.

In addition to cross-linguistic variation with respect to specific verbs, languages vary in the degree to which different semantic roles can fit into different grammatical slots in a sentence.

In English, the subject slot can be occupied by noun phrases of any semantic role – depending, of course, on the verb. Many English verbs allow different semantic roles for subject, direct object, and so on.

But the situation is different in Azerbaijani; verbs do not allow nearly as much variation in semantic roles as English verbs do, and there is a much tighter bond between semantic roles and grammatical relations.

For example, the situation of opening in Azerbaijani may be represented by two different predicates (verbs): “kilidli və ya kilidlənmiş bir şeyi açmaq üçün açarla açmaq” and “açmaq” – “bir qapını, pəncərəni açmaq, girişi və ya çıxışı açmaq”. Thus, it is possible to redistribute semantic roles and grammatical relations in Azerbaijani, for instance, by omitting an Instrument indirect object with the verb “açmaq”, as the semantic role of Instrument is incorporated in the semantics of the verb, like: “Qoca sandığı açdı və mənə həmin kitabı verdi” (M.İbrahimov).

3. Phraseological Units and their Characteristic Features.

The vocabulary of a language includes not only words but also stable word combinations which also serve as a means of expressing concepts. We distinguish between free and non-free word combinations. They are phraseological word equivalents reproduced in speech the way words are reproduced and not created anew in actual speech.

An ordinary word combination is created according to the grammatical rules of the language in accordance with a certain idea. The general meaning of an ordinary free word combination is derived from the conjoined meanings of its

elements. Here every notional word functions as a certain member of the sentence. Thus, an ordinary word combination is a syntactical pattern.

A free word combination is a combination in which any element can be substituted by another, for example: I like this idea. I dislike this idea. He likes the idea. I like that idea. I like this thought.

But when we use the term free we are not precise. The freedom of a word in a combination with others is relative as it is not only the syntactical pattern that matters. There are logical limitations too.

The second group of word combinations is semi-free word combinations. They are the combinations in which the substitution is possible but limited, for instance: “to cut a poor / funny / strange figure”.

Non-free word combinations are those in which the substitution is impossible, for example: “to come clean, to be in low water”.

In Lexicology, the scope of collocability is also expanded upon phraseological units – stable word-groups characterized by a completely or partially transferred meaning. Phraseological units are habitually defined as non-motivated word-groups that cannot be freely made up in speech, but are reproduced as ready-made units.

The main characteristic features of phraseological units are: idiomaticity, stability and equivalence to word. Idiomaticity is a semantic characteristic of phraseological units which consists in non-inference of the meaning of the whole from the meaning of the individual parts (components), such as: “build castles in the air” – “make plans based on hopes and wishes which will probably never come true” – “xəyala qapılmaq” – “mümkün olmayan planlar qurmaq, əlçatmaz bir şey xəyal etmək”. For instance: “xəyala qapılmaq – to build castles in the air (in Spain) / to give oneself up to reverie / to be daydreaming / Cf. to have one’s head full of

bees – строить воздушные замки (фантазировать, мечтать, придумывать неосуществимые планы)”.

Stability of phraseological units provides for stability of their use, i.e. usage by all people, speaking the language. A phraseological unit is also stable in its structure. From the viewpoint of its structure, the stability of phraseological units is observed in:

a) Components' morphological forms, for example: “a hair's breadth”, but not “a hair breadth” - “tükdən asılmaq”, but “tükdən asılmamaq”.

b) Components order, such as: “live and learn”, but not “learn and live” – “yaşa və öyrən”, but not “öyrən və yaşa”.

Thus, **Phraseology** is a branch of Linguistics deals with word-groups which consists of two or more words and word means of communication only when they are used in combinations. There are two kinds of word combinations:

1) Free word combination, i.e. constructive sentence of the process of speech according to grammar rules of the given language;

2) Bound or set expressions. They are also called stop-phrases or ready made expressions.

3) Proverbs, sayings, aphorisms are also included into phraseology. Every language possesses such phraseological units.

There are various approaches to the study of phraseology and the problem of their classification. In English and American linguistics there are no theoretical works on scientific study of phraseology. There is no special branch studying phraseology. There is no term “phraseological unit”.

English and American linguists just collect phraseological units, explain them, describe some of the peculiarities, their origin and etymology and arrange them into groups according to their origin: as phrases from sea life, from agriculture,

from hunting, from sports and so on. In this way they compile different kinds of dictionaries of phraseological units which they often call “idioms” or “phrases”.

The most significant theory for Russian phraseology was worked out by V.V.Vinogradov. The most comprehensive scientific works on English phraseology are the doctoral theses of N.N.Amosova and A.V.Koonin and their articles and books on this topic.

N.N.Amosova and A.V.Koonin differ in opinion. For example, N.N.Amosova distinguishes two kinds of contexts. They are:

- a) fixed context or invariable context;
- b) unfixed context or variable context.

According to A.V.Koonin’s classification all the phraseological units are divided into the following four main groups:

1. Nominating (or nominative) phraseological units;
2. Nominating communicative phraseological units;
3. Interjectional phraseological units;
4. Communicative phraseological units.

Speaking about phraseology we must stress that a valuable contribution to the study of Azerbaijani phraseology was made by H.A.Bayramov. He has devoted many articles and his doctoral thesis to various problems of Azerbaijani phraseology. A.S.Rahimov, N.Ch.Veliyeva (English, German, Russian, Turkish and Azerbaijani), A.H.Hajiyeva also have devoted a lot of articles on the English and Azerbaijani phraseology.

In their articles and theses they have investigated various problems of the English and Azerbaijani phraseology and gave a valuable contribution to the study of the phraseology of these languages. Their works are of great importance.

The basic features of phraseological units are the followings:

1. Stability of structure, meaning and usage, which means that phraseological units are not freely made up during the speech but exist and are reproduced as ready-made units of the given language. The substitution of components of phraseological units is very limited and it's possible only in the synonymic row without changing the meaning of the whole phraseological unit. For example: "to cast smth in smb's teeth" - "üzünə çırpmaq" (sözlə). It's component "to cast" may be replaced only by its synonym to throw or to "fling". But in many phraseological units their components are not replaced by other words.

2. Idiomaticity of meaning. The components of phraseological units are used figuratively. Phraseological units are metaphorical and metonymic expressive word combinations. A phraseological unit denotes a single idea which is not deduced from the meanings of its components. That's why many of phraseological combinations which were regarded by V.V.Vinogradov as phraseological units cannot be treated as phraseological units. At present, for example, such set expressions as: "to pass an examination", "to pay a visit" are not treated as phraseological units.

Separability of components. A phraseological unit consists of separate words and each of them has its own stress. Speaking about the differences between phraseological units and other units of a language and word combinations we must know that a word consists of morphemes, but a phraseological unit consists of separate words with its own stress.

If we compare English and Azerbaijani phraseological combinations we shall see that the components of the phraseological combinations are independent. Generally one of the components of the combinations is independent and the other one is dependent, for example: *tədbir tökmək*, *qayğı çəkmək*, *dərd çəkmək*, *fikir çəkmək*, *həvəsdən düşmək*, *yada düşmək*, *vəlvələ salmaq*, etc.

Equivalence to word consists in a phraseological unit having the features characteristic of a word, i.e.:

a) Synonymy, such as: be in Queer Street :: be in low waters :: be on the rocks :: be hard up :: be on one's beam ends :: be as poor as a church mouse :: be on one's uppers - susuz xərcəng kimi :: kilsə siçan kimi kasıb :: acından günorta duran :: ac toyuq yatar, yuxusunda darı görər :: qəpik saymaq :: güclə dolanmaq :: qara gündə olmaq;

b) Antonymy, such as: gözlərini açmaq :: gözlərini bağlamaq – open one's eyes :: close (shut) one's eyes; keep your head :: lose your head – başını itirmək :: başını itirmək;

c) Polysemy, such as: “take root” – 1) “to form roots so as to be able to live and grow; 2) to be accepted; to be adopted” – “kök salmaq” – 1) “yaşamaq və böyümək üçün kök salmaq”; 2) “qəbul olunmaq, edilmək”;

d) Homonymy, such as: “yaşıl işıq” – 1) “istənilən layihəyə həyata keçməsinə rəsmi icazə vermək”; 2) “Böyük Qetsbinin əlçatmaz xəyalı (xəyal o qədər real görsənirdi ki, o çətin ki onu dərk edə bilirdi)” – “green light” – 1) “authoritative permission to go ahead with some project” :: “green light” – 2) “in the Great Gatsby unattainable dream (the dream that must have seemed so close that Gatsby could hardly fail to grasp it)”.

4. Classification of Phraseological Units.

The most famous classification of phraseological units based on the semantic principle is the classification worked out by Ch. Balley and completed by V.V. Vinogradov. A major stimulus to intensive studies of phraseology was V.V. Vinogradov's research. The classification suggested by him has been widely adopted by linguists working on other languages.

V.V. Vinogradov's **classification of phraseological units** may be called a **semantic classification**. According to him there are three kinds of them: phraseological fusions, phraseological units and phraseological combinations.

Standardised word combinations, i.e. phrases characterised by the limited combinative power of their components, which retain their semantic independence: to meet the request / requirement, məktəbə / qonaq getmək.

Phraseological Fusions. In phraseological or cast iron-idioms the meaning can never be derived as a whole from the conjoint meanings of its elements. They are indivisible both semantically and syntactically. Fusions, i.e. phrases, in which the meaning cannot be derived as a whole from the conjoined meanings of its components, for example: “to bark to the moon” does not mean to bark as a dog to the moon, tit for tat, baxışını tutmaq, qisas qisas, əvəzə əvəz.

In Azerbaijani phraseological fusions are also kind of set expressions which are indivisible both semantically and syntactically and the meaning of the whole expression cannot be deduced from the meanings of its components, for example: dərindən çıxmaq (to work hard); gözü su içməmək (to suspect), bel bağlamaq (to believe), əli gicişmək (to try to do smth.), etc.

No word can be substituted in a phraseological fusion by its synonym because it would destroy the meaning of the given phraseological fusion.

Phraseological fusions (idioms) – semantically indivisible phraseological units whose integral meaning is non-motivated, i.e. is not reduced to the meanings of their components, such as: “on cloud nine” (to be extremely happy) – “göyün yeddinci qatında olmaq” (özünü dünyada olduqca xoşbəxt hesab etmək, çox sevinmək); “pyaniskalıq etmək” (çox alkoqol içkilərdən istifadə etmək) – “see pink elephants” (to imagine seeing something because someone is drunk).

Phraseological unities are very often metaphoric. The components of such unities are not semantically independent; the meaning of every component is subordinated to the figurative meaning of the phraseological unity as a whole. The latter may have a homonymous expression - a free syntactical word combination, for example: Nick is a musician. He plays the first fiddle. It is his wife who plays the first fiddle in the house.

Phraseological unities may vary in their semantic and grammatical structure. Not all of them are figurative. Here we can find professionalisms, coupled synonyms.

A.V. Koonin finds it necessary to divide English phraseological unities into figurative and non-figurative.

Figurative unities are often related to analogous expressions with direct meaning in the very same way in which a word used in its transferred sense is related to the same word used in its direct meaning.

Scientific English, technical vocabulary, the vocabulary of arts and sports have given many expressions of this kind: in full blast; to hit below the belt; to spike someone's guns.

Among phraseological unities we find many verb-adverb combinations: to look for; to look after; to put down; to give in.

Phraseological fusions are the most synthetical of all the phraseological groups. They seem to be completely unmotivated though their motivation can be unearthed by means of historic analysis.

They fall under the following groups:

a) Idiomatic expressions which are associated with some obsolete customs: the grey mare, to rob Peter to pay Paul.

b) Idiomatic expressions which go back to some long forgotten historical facts they were based on: to bell the cat, Damocles' sword.

c) Idiomatic expressions expressively individual in their character: My God! My eye!

d) Idiomatic expressions containing archaic elements: by dint of (dint - blow); in fine (fine - end).

Phraseological Units. They are also not divisible semantic units. They are semantically inseparable units, but they differ from phraseological fusions. They are figurative expressions. For example: to play the first fiddle = to be in a best position; to put a spear in somebody's wheel = badalaq gəlmək, əngəl törətmək, mane olmaq. Phraseological units of this type are metaphorical expressions.

In Azerbaijani phraseological units are also indivisible semantically. They are also figurative expressions. For example: söz almaq, dağ çəkmək, söz güləşdirmək, sözündən çıxmaq, etc.

Phraseological unities, i.e. phrases in which the meaning of the whole is not the sum of meanings of the components but it is based on them and the motivation is apparent: to stand to one's guns, dilini saxlamaq, təmiz suya çıxartmaq, ürəyində saxlamaq.

Phraseological unities – semantically indivisible phraseological units whose integral meaning is motivated, i.e. is reduced to the meanings of their components, such as: “milçəkdən fil düzəltmək” (bir işi şişirtmək, olduğu kimi qələmə verməmək) – “make a mountain out of a molehill” (make something unimportant seem important), “break one's back” (to work hard, put great effort into achieving something) – “belini qırmaq” (məqsədə çatmaq üçün çox işləmək).

Phraseological Combinations. Phraseological combinations are called analytical expressions, because in these expressions the components are independent to a certain degree. They are habitual word combinations. For example: to discuss a question, public opinion, etc.

In Azerbaijani **phraseological collocations** – phraseological units whose components are characterized by a specific lexical valence, one of the components having a bound meaning, such as: “iştirak etmək” – “take part”, “drop one's eyes” – “gözlərini yerə tikmək”.

Having preserved the three main classes of phraseological units, M.M.Shanskii singles out the fourth class phraseological expressions semantically divisible phraseological units whose components have a free meaning.

Those phraseological expressions are: proverbs, such as:

Dost dar gündə tanınar. – A friend in need is a friend indeed. / It is at moments of need that one learns who one's friends are. / Cf. Calamity is man's true touchstone. / Prosperity makes friends, and adversity tries them. – Без беды друга не узнаешь. / Друг познаётся при рати да при беде. / Коня в рати узнаешь, а друга в беде. / Друзья познаются в беде (в несчастье).

Dost min isə azdır, düşmən bir isə çoxdur. = *Lit.* To have a thousand friends is less, than to have an enemy. = Для человека иметь тысячу друзей мало, одного врага много.

Dostun yoxsa axtar, tapdın qoru. – *Lit.* If you haven't a friend - seek him, if you find - take good care of him. / Cf. Be slow in choosing a friend, slower in changing him. – Нет друга, так ищи: а нашёл, так береги. / Друга ищи, а найдёшь береги. / Выбирая друга - не торопись, тем более не торопись менять его.

Dostunu mənə de, deyim sənə sən kimsən. – You may know a man by his company. / As a man is so is his company. / A man is known as the company he keeps. – Скажи мне кто твой друг, и я скажу тебе кто ты. – Человека узнают по компании, с которой он общается. / Человека формирует его окружение.

Dostluq dostluğunda, qulluq qulluğunda. – Friends are all right when they don't interfere with your career. – Дружба дружбой, а служба службой.

Semantic Classification of Phraseological Units:

1) Phraseological units referring to the same notion, for instance: “hard work” - to burn the midnight oil; to do back-breaking work; to hit the books; to

keep one's nose to the grindstone; to work like a dog; to work one's fingers to the bone; "compromise" - to find middle ground; to go halfway; "independence" - to be on one's own; to have a mind of one's own; to stand on one's own two feet; "experience" - to be an old hand at something; to know something like the back of one's palm; to know the rope.

2) Professionalisms, for instance: on the rocks; to stick to one's guns; breakers ahead.

3) Phraseological units having similar components, for instance: a dog in the manger; dog days; to agree like cat and dog; to rain cats and dogs; to fall on deaf ears; to talk somebody's ear off; to have a good ear for; to be all ears; to see red; a red herring; a red carpet treatment; to be in the red.

4) Phraseological units referring to the same lexico-semantic field, for instance: body parts - to cost an arm and leg; to pick somebody's brain; to get one's feet wet; to get off the chest; to rub elbows with; not to have a leg to stand on; to stick one's neck out; to be nosey; to make a headway; to knuckle down; to shake a leg; to pay through the noser; to tip toe around; to mouth off.

Fruits and vegetables - red as a beet; a couch potato; a hot potato; a real peach; as cool as a cucumber; a top banana.

Animals - sly as a fox; to be a bull in a china shop; to go ape; to be a lucky dog; to play cat and mouse.

Structural Classification of Phraseological Units:

English phraseological units can function like verbs (to drop a brick; to drop a line; to go halves; to go shares; to travel bodkin), phraseological units functioning like nouns (brains trust, ladies' man, phraseological units functioning like adjectives (high and dry, high and low, ill at ease, phraseological units functioning like adverbs (tooth and nail, on guard; by heart, phraseological units

functioning like prepositions (in order to; by virtue of), phraseological units functioning like interjections (Good heavens! Gracious me! Great Scot!).

Another structural classification was initiated by A.V.Koonin. He singles out Nominative, Nominative and Nominative-Communicative, Interjective, Communicative phraseological units.

Nominative phraseological units are of several types. It depends on the type of dependence. The first one is phraseological units with constant dependence of the elements, for instance: the Black Maria; the ace of trumps; a spark in the powder magazine.

The second type is represented by the phraseological units with the constant variant dependence of the elements, for instance: dead marines / men; a blind pig / tiger; a good / great deal.

There also exist phraseological units with grammar variants, such as: Procrustes' bed = the Procrustean bed = the bed of Procrustes.

Another type of the Nominative phraseological units is units with quantitative variants. They are formed with the help of the reduction or adding the elements, such as: the voice of one crying in the wilderness = a voice crying out in the wilderness = a voice crying in the wilderness = a voice in the wilderness.

The next type of the Nominative phraseological units is adjectival phraseological units, such as: mad as a hatter; swift as thought; as like as two peas; fit as a fiddle.

The function of the adverbial phraseological units is that of an adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances, such as: as cool as a cucumber; from one's cradle to one's grave; from pillar to post; once in a blue moon.

Nominative and Nominative-Communicative phraseological units are of several types as well. The first type is verbal phraseological units. Verbal phraseological units refer to this type in such cases:

a) When the verb is not used in the Passive voice (to drink like a fish; to buy a pig in a poke; to close one's eyes on something;

b) If the verb is not used in the Active voice (to be reduced to a shadow; to be gathered to one's fathers).

Nominative and Nominative-Communicative phraseological units can have lexical variants, such as: to tread/walk on air; to close / shut books; to draw a red herring across the trail / track; to come to a fine / handsome / nice / pretty pass; to sail close / near to the wind; to crook / lift the elbow / the little finger.

Grammar variants are also possible, such as: to get into deep water = to get into deep waters; to pay nature's debt = to pay the debt of nature.

Examples of quantitative variants can also be found: to cut the Gordian knot = to cut the knot; to lead somebody a dance = to lead somebody a pretty dance.

Lexico-grammar variants are also possible: to close / shut a / the door / doors on / upon / to somebody.

Interjective phraseological units are represented by: by George! By Jove! Good heavens! Gracious me!

Communicative phraseological units are represented by proverbs and sayings, such as: Rome was not built in a day. An apple a day keeps a doctor away. That's another pair of shoes. More power to your elbow. Carry me out.

5. Contrastive Analysis of Phraseological Units: Phraseological Equivalents, Phraseological Analogues, Non-Equivalent Phraseological Units.

The contrastive analysis of phraseological units in English and Azerbaijani aims at revealing allomorphic and isomorphic characteristics at the phraseological level by singling out total and partial equivalents and analogues in the contrasted languages as well as non-equivalent phraseological units, having no correspondences in the phraseological system of the other language.

It is argued that the criteria that underlie the establishment of phraseological units' equivalence in the contrasted languages are as follows: semantic, structural, grammatical and componential.

The semantic level aims at establishing similarities and differences between the English and Azerbaijani phraseological units in semantics. This aspect is the main one in differentiating allomorphic and isomorphic features. At the semantic level we differentiate between the cognitive and pragmatic meanings of phraseological units. Of paramount importance there are semantic marks (semes), being involved into the contrastive analysis of phraseological units.

At the structural-and-grammatical level phraseological units are compared on the basis of their structure, grounding in the structural patterns of free word-combinations. Besides, at this level the contrastive analysis takes into account the lexico-grammatical characteristics of phraseological units, i.e. their belonging to a certain morphological class.

The componential level aims at revealing identical, close in semantics or heterogeneous elements in the structures of the contrasted phraseological units. This level is considered to be the most specific for the phraseological units of both languages. Taking into account the three levels, one may single out the following types of cross-linguistic relationships:

- 1) Phraseological equivalents (total and partial).
- 2) Phraseological analogues (total and partial).
- 3) Non-equivalent phraseological units.

The **phraseological equivalents** are cross-linguistic phraseological units with identical semantics, grammar, structure and a set of components. There are two types of phraseological equivalents in English and Azerbaijani: total and partial.

Total phraseological equivalents are phraseological units of the English and Azerbaijani languages that have the same cognitive meaning, pragmatic connotations, grammatical and componential structures, such as: “show one’s teeth” (to make threats or express hostility) – “dişlərini göstərmək” (hədə-qorxu gəlmək, qərəzçilik etmək) – показывать зубы / огрызаться (проявлять неприязнь, угрожать)

Both equivalents have the same cognitive meaning, represented by the following semes: “attitude”, “character”, “malicious intent”, “negative”; the same pragmatic connotations – both involve the same image and both are neutral; from the viewpoint of their lexico-grammatical characteristics both belong to verbal phraseological units, structured by the same pattern (verb + pronoun + noun).

Partial phraseological equivalents are phraseological units that slightly differ in meaning, componential and grammatical structures. The partial phraseological equivalents are divided into three subgroups.

The first subgroup comprises phraseological units that differ in one component of contiguous semantics, such as: “wolf in sheep’s clothing” (a person who hides the fact that they are evil with a pleasant and friendly appearance, a dangerous enemy who plausibly possess as a friend) – “qoyun cildinə girmiş canavar” / “qoyun dərisinə girmiş qurd” / “qoyun donuna girmiş qurd” – (saxtakarlıq edən adam) – волк в овечьей шкуре (опасный враг, притворяющийся другом).

The cognitive meaning, pragmatic connotations, grammatical structure (noun + preposition + noun), lexico-grammatical characteristics (substantival)

being the same, the phraseological equivalents differ in the components clothing – “cild”, though having the generic meaning “something that covers the body”.

The second subgroup comprises the phraseological units that differ in one component of contiguous semantics, though having a variable set of components, such as: “başdan ayağa” (bütün varlığı ilə) = from head to foot / limb and bone / from top to toe / cap-a-pie / from head to heels / from fall to foot (completely) = от головы до ног / с ног до головы / всем телом / от головы до пят (целиком, полностью, всем телом).

The phraseological equivalents, having variable components “ayaq” – “barmaq” – “toe”, differ semantically: the components “ayaq” – “foot” reveal meronymic, i.e. “part-for-the-whole” relations.

The third subgroup comprises the phraseological units that have morphological distinctions, such as: “dilini saxlamaq” / “dilini ağızında saxlamaq” / “dilini dinc saxlamaq” / “to keep one’s mouth shut” / “keep one’s tongue between one’s teeth” – “держат язык за зубами”. These equivalents differ in the prepositions “between” – “arasında”. Besides, there is a specific pronoun one’s in the English phraseological unit.

In the phraseological equivalents “Balıq tutan suyu bulanıq istər. – Fish in troubled water. / Fish in muddy waters. – В мутной воде хорошо рыбу ловить. / Рыбу ловят в мутной воде” the expression “fish in troubled waters” – differ in: the category of number of the nouns “waters” – “su”; the components of contiguous semantics troubled “bulanıq”, like: troubled “worried or anxious” – bulanıq > bulantı; the structure pattern, as: verb “fish” in English and word-combination “balıq tutmaq” in Azerbaijani.

Summing up, the English and Azerbaijani partial phraseological equivalents are characterized by incomplete incongruence in their structure and meaning.

Phraseological analogues are the phraseological units that have the same or close meaning, but totally or partially differ in their inner form. The phraseological analogues in the English and Azerbaijani languages may be divided into:

Phraseological analogues that reveal approximate similarities at the structural and grammatical levels, and have one common lexeme in their componential structures. The approximate similarities of phraseological analogues at the structural and grammatical levels provide for their belonging to the same class, irrespective of their structure, such as: “put (have) one’s tail between one’s legs” (to feel or look ashamed and embarrassed) – “quyruğu ayaqların arasına qoymaq” (utanmaq, çəkinmək, özünü narahat hiss etmək).

The phraseological analogues reveal some slight divergence in the cognitive meaning with the integral seme of “shame” as an indicator of behavior and the same evaluative connotation, the integral seme of “negative evaluation”.

The functional and stylistic connotations of the phraseological analogues are different: the English phraseological unit is neutral, whilst the Azerbaijani one is low colloquial. The components “tail” – “quyruq” coincide. Both analogues are related to the class of the verbal phraseological units with different structures: English (verb + pronoun + noun + preposition + pronoun + noun) and Azerbaijani (noun + noun + preposition + verb).

Phraseological analogues that reveal approximate similarities at the structural and grammatical levels, and have different componential structures, such as: “in your element” (to be happy because you are doing what you like or can do best) – “suda üzən balıq kimi” (öz aləmində olmaq, nəyəsə sərbəst yiyələnmək, özünü sərbəst, təbii, rahat hiss etmək, yaxşı davranmaq) – to feel quite at home / to be in one’s element / Cf. to take to smth. like a duck to water – как рыба в воде / БЫТЬ В СВОЕЙ СТИХИИ (СВОБОДНО ВЛАДЕТЬ ЧЕМ-ЛИБО).

The phraseological analogues are close in meaning. The differences are observed in the componential structure. The English idiom represents the medieval

“opinion” that every creature belonged to one of the four elements: “earth”, “fire”, “air” and “water”, whilst the Azerbaijani phraseological unit depicts the “scenario” of an animal’s behaviour in water.

Being adverbial by the lexico-grammatical characteristics, the English and Azerbaijani phraseological units differ in their structure: the English idiom is structured with the pattern “preposition + pronoun + noun”, whilst the Azerbaijani one – with the pattern “noun + verb + noun + conjunction”.

Phraseological analogues that reveal differences at the structural and grammatical levels, and have different componential structures, such as:

ürəyiaçıq olmaq (safqəlbli, səmimi insan haqqında) – to be well-wishing / to be open-hearted / to be frank / to be candid / to be kind-hearted / to be open-hearted / to wear one’s heart on one’s sleeve / to show one’s feelings too obviously (to lack self-control in concealing them) – душа нараспашку (чистосердечный).

Both analogues are close in the cognitive meaning. The componential structure of these analogues is different, as well as their lexico-grammatical characteristics: the Azerbaijani idiom belongs to the class of the substantival phraseological units, whilst its English counterpart is verbal.

Partial phraseological analogues that reveal approximate similarities in their meanings, though differing at the structural and grammatical levels and in the componential structure, such as: “cin kimi baxmaq” (bir kəsə qəzəbli baxmaq) – “like a bear with a sore head” (bad-tempered: angry, or easily made angry).

The phraseological units, differing in structure in Azerbaijani “verb + noun” and in English “conjunction + noun + adjective + noun” and lexico-grammatical characteristics (Azerbaijani is verbal, whilst English is adjectival), differ in their semantics: the Azerbaijani phraseological unit has the differential seme of “suspicion”, whilst its English counterpart implies the seme of “an unbalanced state”.

It should be borne in mind that phraseological units may have more than one correspondence in the contrasted language. This phenomenon goes under the name of “ambiguous correspondence”, such as: “bir kəsin yolunu kəsmək” – “to snatch something from under one’s nose”, “to put someone’s nose out of joint” and “to steal a march on someone”; “to fling (throw) mud at someone” – “bir kəsin dalınca danışmaq”, “vedrə qoşmaq”. For instance:

dalda danışmaq (qeybət etmək) / dalda demək (bir kəsin arxasınca demək) – to sharpen one’s teeth on someone or smth. / to talk scandal / Cf. to pick someone or something to pieces / to speak behind someone’s back in someone’s absence / without someone’s knowledge / behind someone’s back (to gossip) – точить зубки (сплетничать, судачить, злословить о ком или о чём-либо) / говорить за спиной / говорить за глаза (в отсутствие кого-либо)

The choice of a required variant wholly depends on a context and stylistic characteristics.

The worldview characteristics of phraseology vividly manifest themselves first of all at the level of semantics. This level is the basic one in establishing correspondence between the English and Azerbaijani **non-equivalent phraseological units**.

The semantics of non-equivalent phraseological units encode information on unique features of language representatives: mode of their thinking (cognition), the ways they interpret the reality (conceptualization), the ways they provide their activities (culture), etc.

From this viewpoint, non-equivalent phraseological units are considered to reveal no equivalence in the phraseological system of the other language.

There are three groups of non-equivalent phraseological units in English and Azerbaijani.

Phraseological units of the source language that are rendered descriptively into the target language, for example: “Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde” – “iki prinsipini təcəssüm etdirən bir insan: yaxşı və pis”; “bir nöqtəyə vurmaq” (bir kəsin diqqətini, hərəkətini bir şeyə, bir nöqtəyə cəlb etmək) – hammer it home / hammer away at smth. / to harp on one string / to harp upon one the same string (to concentrate on one thing) – бить в (одну) точку. The other way of such rendering is doing loan translation.

Phraseological units of the source language are rendered by word for word translation, according to the norms of the target language, such as: “value-added tax” – “əlavə dəyər vergisi”; “bir kəsin saçını yolmaq” – “pull somebody by the hair”. It should be borne in mind that loan translation ought to represent the image, being acceptable and comprehensible to a native speaker.

It should be as close as possible to the native speaker in its inner form, and agree with his / her worldview. For example, the English phraseological unit (as) “as cross as two sticks”, rendered as “it kimi hirsli” – “злой как собака” (очень раздражённый), would not reflect its specificity in Azerbaijani, as for the Azerbaijanis the concept of “dog” is hardly associated with “very”. For example:

it kimi ac (acliq hissi barədə) – as hungry as a bear / as hungry as a wolf / as hungry as a hunter – голодный как собака / голодный как волк / голодный как зверь (об очень голодном человеке);

it kimi çıxartmaq (qovmaq) – to turn someone out ignominiously – выгнать с треском;

it kimi hirsli (çox qəzəbli) – as cross as two sticks (very vicious) – злой как собака (очень раздражённый);

it kimi iy bilir – an extraordinary nose for – собачий нюх;

it kimi qarmaq (bir kəsin sözünü ağzında qoymaq) – to bite someone’s head off / to snap back / to come down like a ton of bricks (to answer someone in great

anger, to say something impatient) – налететь на кого-либо как (словно, точно, будто) коршун / огрызаться (дерзко, грубо ответить кому-либо, резко оборвать кого-либо, хамить);

it kimi qovmaq = *Lit.* to turn someone out as a dog = выгонять как собаку;

it kimi peşman – a hang-dog air / a hangdog expression / a hang-dog look – с видом побитой собаки (виноватый вид);

it kimi peşman olmaq – to be vexed about smth. / to gnash one’s teeth (to repent bitterly) – кусать (себе) локти (очень сожалеть, досадовать);

it kimi sadıq (çox sadıq insan haqqında) – as true as steel – преданный душой и телом (преданный и верный);

it kimi sadıq olmaq – to be true to one’s salt – служить верой и правдой;

it kimi yorulmaq = to be dog tired / to be dead-beat / to be dog-sick / to be knackered / to be worn to a frazzle / to be dead to the world = устать как собака / до смерти устать / не слышать ног под собой (очень утомиться, устать).

It is rather the concept of “snake” that counts, such as:

ilan ağzından çıxan kimi / ilan ağzından qaçıb qurtaran qurbağa kimi / ilan boğazından çıxan kimi / ilan ağzından qaçıb qurtaran quş kimi (qorxulu vəziyyətdən çıxan insan haqqında) – a man, who gets out of a tight corner (of a difficulty, mess, scrape, spot) – человек, вышедший из очень опасного, рискованного положения;

ilan ağzından qurtarmaq – to break away from the death / to take refuge from the death – вырваться из пасти смерти / спастись от гибели;

ilan çalmış – *bax* ilan sancan kimi;

ilan dili çıxarıb yalvarmaq – *bax* ilan dili tökmək;

ilan dili çıxarmaq (yalvarmaq) – to throw oneself at the feet of someone / to fall at someone's feet – падать в ноги (жалобно просить, умолять);

ilan dili tökmək – *bax* ilan dili çıxarmaq;

ilan əlindən qurtarmaq – *bax* ilan ağzından qurtarmaq;

ilan gözü kimi (çox zəif işıq barədə) – very weak, dim light – очень слабый, тусклый свет;

ilan ilə belə yola getmək (çətin xasiyyətli insan ilə dil tapmaq, dolanmaq) – to get on with difficult (disagreeable) nature / to get on with strong-willed person – уживаться и со злой собакой (уживаться с человеком, у которого тяжёлый характер);

ilan kimi dil çıxarmaq – *bax* ilan dili çıxarmaq;

ilan kimi qabıq qoymaq (çox cəhd etmək, səy göstərmək, can yandırmaq) – to lay oneself out / to be all out for smth. / to go out of one's way to do smth. / try one's hardest / to do one's uttermost / to do one's damndest – из кожи лезть / из шкуры вон вылезать (стараться изо всех сил, усердствовать);

ilan kimi qıvrılmaq (ağrıdan, hirsdən əziyyət çəkmək) – to writhe with pain (anger, etc.) – корчиться от боли (злобы и т.п.);

ilan kimi sürüşkən (fəndgir, fərasətli, çevik insan haqqında) – as slippery as an eel – скользкий (изворотливый), как угорь;

ilan-qurbağa (pis xətt barədə) – a scrawl (about illegible hand writing) – каракули / заковычка / каляка-маляка (о трудно разбираемом письме, почерке);

ilan-qurbağa görmək (bir kəsi artıq sevməmək) – to get tired of someone / to stop loving someone – разлюбить кого-либо;

ilan-qurbağa yazmaq (pis xəttlə yazı yazmaq) – to scrawl (scratch, scribble) smth. – *шутл.* писать как курица лапой / писать каракулями (неразборчиво писать);

ilan mələyən çöllər (isti, quraqlıq yer barədə) – arid / waterless district – засушливая / жаркая местность;

İlan öz qonşusunu sancmaz. – *Cf.* Crows do not pick crow's eye. / Hawks will not pick hawks' eyes out. / Dog does not eat dog. / Ravens do not peck out one another's eye. – Змея свинью не кусает. / Ворон ворону глаз не выклюет.

ilan sancan kimi – *бах* ilan vuran kimi;

İlan vuran ala çatıdan da qorxar. – Once bitten, twice shy. / A bitten child dreads the dog. / A burnt child dreads the fire. / A scalded cat (dog) fears cold water. / Burn yourself on hot milk, blow on cold water. – Пуганая ворона и куста боится. / Обжегшись на молоке, станешь дуть и на воду. / Кого медведь драл, тот и пня боится. / Обжегшись на молоке, дуют и на воду. / Кто обжётся на горячем, тот дует и на холодное. / Ошпаренный кот боится холодной воды. / Битому псу только плеть покажи. / Ужаленный змеей и верёвки боится. / Пуганый заяц и пенька боится.

ilan vuran kimi (dəli kimi, tez qaçmaq) – *Lit.* as if (as though) one were stung – как (будто, словно, точно) ужаленный;

ilan vuran yatdı, ... yatmadı – not to sleep a wink / not to get a wink of sleep (about one's sleeplessness) – не смыкать глаз (о тяжёлой бессоннице);

ilan yuvası (təhlükəli yer barədə) – a hornet's nest – осиное гнездо (нечто, таящее опасность);

ilana ağı (zəhər) verən kərtənkələ (təhrikçi, fitləyən insan haqqında) – the man behind the scenes (the instigator) / *Cf.* a snake-in-the-grass / a viper – подстрекатель / *Ср.* змея подколотная;

ilanboğan vaxtıdır (təzə gəzməyə öyrənən körpə uşaq haqqında) – about an infantile age of the child, who does not understand what he (she) is doing – о младенческом возрасте ребёнка, который не понимает что делает;

ilanı boğazıma salsan da ... (heç vaxt) – one might as well hang oneself / not for the world / not for anything in the world (never) – хоть повесьте / хоть убейте (никогда, ни в коем случае);

ilanı öldürüb balasını buraxmaq (yersiz comərdlik, alicənablıq barədə) – about irrelevant, inexcusable generosity – о неуместном, непростительном великодушии;

ilanı öldürüb yavrusunu buraxmaq – *bax* ilanı öldürüb balasını buraxmaq;

ilanı özgə əli ilə tutmaq – *bax* ilanı Seyid Əhməd əli ilə tutmaq;

ilanı Seyid Əhməd əli ilə tutmaq (başqasının yerinə çətin işi görmək) – to pull someone's chestnuts out of the fire / to make others do the dirty work for one / to make someone pull the chestnuts out of the fire for one / to use the cat's paw / to make a cat's paw of other people – таскать каштаны из огня для кого-либо / чужими руками жар загребать (делать за кого-то трудную работу);

ilanı yuvasından çıxarmaq (başqasını fikrindən daşındırmaq) – to have a way with words / to stand in someone's way (to be talented at speech and to be able to influence others by expressing oneself persuasively) – хитрит как лис (об умении кого-либо уболтать любого человека);

ilanın ağına da lənət, qarasına da (hər ikisi pis adamdır) – *Cf.* birds of a feather / chips of the same block / of the same batch / of the same kidney / tarred with the same brush (stick) / cut from the same cloth – все одного поля ягоды / один другого не лучше (все достойны презрения);

İlanın ağına da lənət, qarasına da. / İlanın böyüyünə də lənət, kiçiyinə də. – It is the same. / *Cf.* Birds of feather. / Chips of the same block. – Лучшая из змей

есть всё-таки змея. / Ср. Сер козёл, сед козёл, а всё псиной несёт. / Бела овца, сера овца, а всё один овечий дух.

İlanın quyuğunu basmaq (bir kəsin xətrinə dəymək) – to tread on someone’s corns / to make someone cross / to whet someone’s anger (to tease someone) – наступать на хвост (обижать, дразнить, вызывать злобу, злить);

İlanın quyuğunu basmasan sancmaz. – Don’t trouble trouble till trouble troubles you. = Змея не жалит, коли на хвост не наступают. – Не дразни собаку, так и не укусит.

Phraseological units of the source language are rendered by a word (monolexeme), with preserving the semantic correspondence in the target language, such as: “to be out at elbows” – “shabby, poorly dressed” – “pis gündə olmaq”; “bir kəsi barmağına dolamaq” (çaşdırmaq) – “confuse “to bewilder and perplex”.

Phraseological units of the source language, whose semantics may be rendered into the target language either by means of a certain lexeme, word-combination or just descriptively.

This type of phraseological units constitutes a mixed group, cf.: to have the blues “to feel sad” – “yas tutmaq” (kədərlənmək, depresiyaya düşmək); “qurd kimi baxmaq” (düşmən münasibət göstərmək) – “to scowl, to lower, to look surly (morose, crusty)”, etc.

Thus, a proverb is a familiar saying expressing a true or moral lesson in an emotional and imaginative way. The people’s wisdom is reflected in proverbs. The place of proverbs, sayings and familiar quotations with respect to set expressions is a controversial issue. 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. For example: A friend in need is a friend indeed; Live and learn; No use crying over spilt milk; All is not gold that glitters.

Some scientists include them into phraseology (V.V.Vinogradov, A.V.Koonin, H.Bayramov, Ch.H.Gourbanov, N.Ch.Valiyeva, A.H.Hajiyeva and others). Following V.V.Vinogradov they think proverbs must be studied together with phraseological unities.

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.

So, the phraseological unit “the last straw” originated from the proverb “The last straw breaks the camel’s back” (səbr kasası dolmaq), the phraseological unit “birds of feather” from the proverb “Birds of feather flock together” – “Su axar, çuxurun tapar”, the phraseological unit “to catch at a straw” (saman çöpündən yapışmaq) from “A drawing man catches at a straw” – “Suda boğulan saman çöpündən yapışar”.

Synonymy in phraseology has been greatly enriched by various processes of the meaning shift, by the influx of foreign words and phrases.

Absolute synonyms which have the same meaning and connotation are comparatively rare, for example: over head and ears = up to the neck; a pretty kettle of fish = a nice pair of shoes.

Relative synonyms denote different shades of different degrees of common meaning, such as: to come to a conclusion; to jump at a conclusion; to leap at a conclusion.

There is every reason to establish a stylistic differentiation of synonyms. The synonyms of a particular phrase are not always interchangeable with that phrase as their use depends on the linguistic situation, the audience addressed, the speaker’s attitude towards the subject. Some of them are stylistically neutral, others have an

emotional connotation. In stylistic synonyms the difference is not so much in the meaning as in the emotional colouring, like: word of honour (neutral) - as I live by bread (colloquial); to be in high spirits (neutral) - to be on high ropes (colloquial).

Antonyms in phraseology can be opposed to each other in their concrete meanings, such as: an old sea wolf - a young calf of a mate.

The elements of the phraseological units-antonyms are expressed by the same part of speech, for example: safe and sound - dead and gone; dead from the neck up - as wise as a serpent.

It is not investigated yet whether it is possible to use the negative particle not to form an antonym. We can use the negation in to step into somebody's boots but we cannot use it in the expression to take a leaf from somebody's book though it has the same meaning.

Proverbs are also phraseological unities. They can be figurative and non-figurative but all have an emotional colouring. Their meaning is widened when compared to their homonymic free combination of words. For example: "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".

A proverb is a short familiar epigrammatic saying expressing popular wisdom, the truth or a moral lesson in a concise and imaginative way. Proverbs have much in common with phraseological units because their lexical components are also constant, their meanings are traditional and mostly figurative and they are introduced into speech ready-made.

That is why some scholars following V.V.Vinogradov think proverbs must be studied together with phraseological units. Another reason why proverbs must be taken into consideration together with phraseological units is that they often form the basis of phraseological units.

A proverb is always a sentence. Very often they are realised in superphrasal

units. Proverbs may have different contents, such as:

a) War is condemned: War is sweet to them who know it not. War is the sport of kings.

b) Fools are laughed at: Fools grow without watering. He who is borne a fool is never cured.

c) Lazy-bones are criticised: Idleness is the root of all evil.

Proverbs teach to be economical: A penny saved is a penny gained. Take care of the pence and the pounds will take care of themselves.

Proverbs teach to work hard: He that will eat the kernel must crack the nut. He that would eat the fruit must climb the tree. He that would catch fish must not mind getting wet. He would search for pearls must dive below.

Grammatical Structure of Proverbs:

1) Simple affirmative sentences. Such as: Appetite comes with eating. A cat may look at a king. Money makes the mare go. A little pot is soon hot. The voice of one man is the voice of no one.

2) Simple negative sentences. Such as: You cannot judge a tree by its bark. Plenty is no plague. Hungry bellies have no ears.

3) Compound sentences. Such as: God sends meat and the devil sends cooks. Nothing venture, nothing gain. Hope is a good breakfast but a bad supper.

4) Complex sentences. Such as: He is lifeless that is faultless. He that lies down with / sleeps with dogs must rise up with fleas. If the things were to be done twice all would be wise. As the fool thinks, so the bell clinks.

5) Imperative sentences. Such as: Don't teach your grandmother to suck eggs. Look before you leap. Don't cross the bridges before you come to them.

6) Interrogative sentences. Such as: Can the leopard change his spots? What

can you expect from a hog but a grunt?

A.V.Koonin suggests the following classification of English proverbs:

a) Proverbs with the constant dependence of their elements. They are the most wide-spread. Their characteristic feature is that they are monosemantic, for example: A burnt child dreads the fire. A great ship asks deep waters.

b) Proverbs with the constant-variant dependence of their elements. Among them there are proverbs with lexical variants, for example: Every cloud has a / its silver lining. The parson / priest always christen his own child first. Rats desert / forsake / leave a sinking ship.

Grammar variants are represented by the following examples: Constant dropping wears away/will wear away a stone. Small rain lays / will lay great dust.

There are proverbs with quantitative variants: First catch your hare then cook him = First catch your hare. There is no rose without a thorn = No rose without a thorn.

Some lexico-grammar variants have been registered: A burden of one's choice is not felt = The burden one likes is cheerfully borne. Do in Rome as the Romans do = When at Rome do as the Romans do. Still waters run deep = Still waters have deep bottoms. There are spots even in the sun = There are spots on the sun.

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 colourings. For example: May your shadow never grow less! – Allah ömrünü uzun eləsin!; His word is a good as his bond – O, sözünün ağasıdır; The coast is clear – Yol açıqdır.

Sayings are communicative phrasal units of a non-proverbial character. They can be represented by affirmative sentences: The answer is a lemon. The world is a

small place. That is a horse of another colour. All is fish that comes to his net.

Interrogative sentences: Do you see any green in my eye? What's the good word? Where do you hail from?

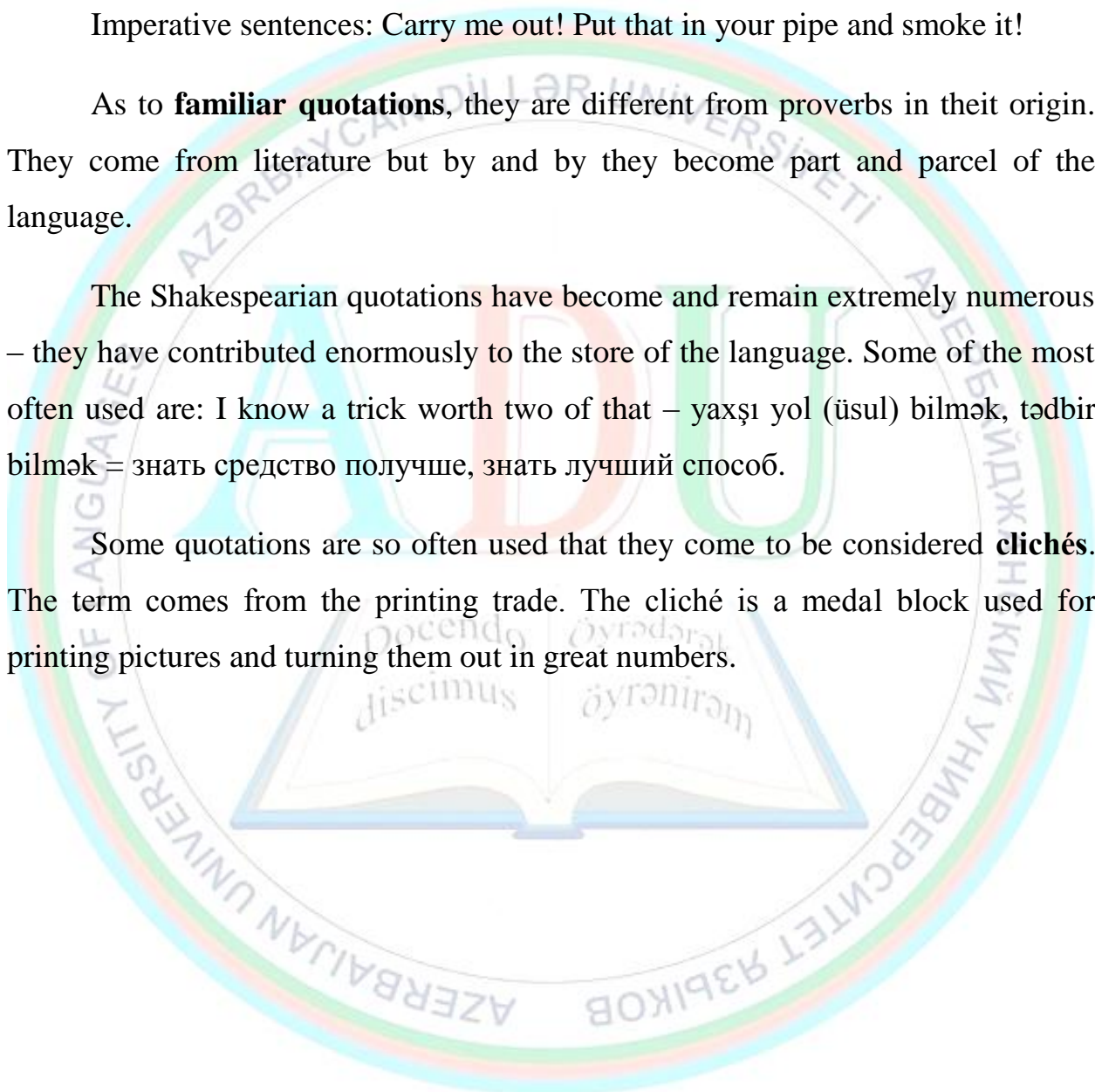
Negative sentences: Bizim yemimiz deyil.

Imperative sentences: Carry me out! Put that in your pipe and smoke it!

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.

The Shakespearian quotations have become and remain extremely numerous – they have contributed enormously to the store of the language. Some of the most often used are: I know a trick worth two of that – yaxşı yol (üsul) bilmək, tədbir bilmək = знать средство получше, знать лучший способ.

Some quotations are so often used that they come to be considered **clichés**. The term comes from the printing trade. The cliché is a medal block used for printing pictures and turning them out in great numbers.



Chapter VII. Standard and Substandard English.

1. English Dialects and Variants.

2. From Germanic to Old English.

3. The Earliest Period of Germanic History.

4. Local Varieties of English on the British Isles.

5. The American Dialect of English.

6. Black English Vernacular, Pidgin Language, Gullah, Jamaican Creole.

7. Black English Vernacular or African-American English.

Standard English is a universal form of English used in the English speaking countries by educated people. It is an international standard of English. Standard English is the official language of Great Britain which is taught at schools and universities, used by the press, the radio and the television.

English has been subject to a large degree of regional dialect variation for many centuries. Its global spread now means that a large number of dialects and English-based creole languages and pidgins can be found all over the world.

Several educated native dialects of English have wide acceptance as standards in much of the world. In the United Kingdom much emphasis is placed on Received Pronunciation, an educated dialect of South East England.

General American, which is spread over most of the United States and much of Canada, is more typically the model for the American continents and areas, such as the Philippines, that have had either close association with the United States, or a desire to be so identified.

In Oceania, the major native dialect of Australian English is spoken as a first language by the vast majority of the inhabitants of the Australian continent, with General Australian serving as the standard accent.

The English of neighbouring New Zealand as well as that of South Africa have to a lesser degree been influential native varieties of the language.

Aside from these major dialects, there are numerous other varieties of English, which include, in most cases, several subvarieties, such as Cockney, Scouse and Geordie within British English; Newfoundland English within Canadian English; and African American Vernacular English (“Ebonics”) and Southern American English within American English.

English is a pluricentric language, without a central language authority like France’s “Académie française”; and therefore no one variety is considered “correct” or “incorrect” except in terms of the expectations of the particular audience to which the language is directed.

Scots has its origins in early Northern Middle English and developed and changed during its history with influence from other sources. However, following the Acts of Union 1707 a process of language attrition began, whereby successive generations adopted more and more features from Standard English.

Whether Scots is now a separate language or is better described as a dialect of English, i.e. part of Scottish English is in dispute, although the UK government accepts Scots as a regional language and has recognised it as such under the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages.

There are a number of regional dialects of Scots, and pronunciation, grammar and lexis of the traditional forms differ, sometimes substantially, from other varieties of English.

English speakers have many different accents, which often signal the speaker’s native dialect or language. Within England, variation is now largely

confined to pronunciation rather than grammar or vocabulary. At the time of the Survey of English Dialects, grammar and vocabulary differed across the country, but a process of “lexical attrition” has led most of this variation to die out.

Just as English, it has borrowed words from many different languages over its history; English loanwords now appear in many languages around the world, indicative of the technological and cultural influence of its speakers.

Several pidgins and creole languages have been formed on an English base, such as Jamaican Patois, Nigerian Pidgin, and Tok Pisin. There are many words in English coined to describe forms of particular non-English languages that contain a very high proportion of English words. But this world-wide Standard English is spoken with a great number of different regional accents.

There exist some regional varieties of Standard English which possess a standard literary form, but are spoken with regional accents and are called variants of Standard English. Regional varieties which have no normalized literary form are called **local dialects**.

In Great Britain there are two variants: Scottish English and Irish English, and five main groups of dialects: Northern, Midland, Eastern, Western and Southern. Every group contains several dialects. They originate from the dialects of the Germanic tribes which invaded Britain in the V-th century.

Local dialects are marked off from the English national literary language and from each other differ by some phonetical, grammatical and lexical peculiarities. But local dialects coexist with the national literary language and serve as a means of communication to the broad people’s masses.

Local dialects are now chiefly preserved in rural communities, in the speech of elderly people. It should be stressed that dialects undergo rapid changes under the pressure of Standard English, which is taught at schools and the speech habits which are cultivated by press, radio, television and cinema. Local varieties of the

English language peculiar to some districts in England and having no literary form are called **dialects**.

1. English Dialects and Variants.

The history of the English language begins with the incursions of the Germanic tribes in the middle of the V-th century. The Jutes came first and occupied the smallest territory: Kent and the Isle of Wight. The Saxons occupied practically all of England south of the Thames with the exception of the Jutish territories and Cornwall. They also occupied some territories north of the Thames. The Angles occupied the greater part of what is now England.

The first dialect that could lay claim to literary precedence was the Northumbrian, the language of the Kingdom of Northumbria, including the north of England and the south of Scotland. Other dialects which had grown apart by the VIII-th century were Mercian, Saxon, and Kentish. After the fall of Northumbria from its political supremacy Northumbrian sank to the position of a provincial dialect and under King Alfred in the IX-th century the West Saxon dialect came to be predominant and was regarded as a literary language.

There have always been English dialects. Even in the Old English period we can recognize Anglian, Kentish, and Saxon variations of Old English from, respectively, the northern, the eastern, and the western sections of England.

The Norman Conquest displaced the southern dialect of Wessex from the position of supremacy. The West Saxon sank to the level of other dialects.

During the Middle English period there existed the following dialects: Northern, Midland, and Southern. The Northern dialect was the descendant of the Northumbrian dialect of Old English. Later a variety of the Northumbrian dialect was developed into the Scottish language. The Midland dialect was the descendant of the Mercian dialect of the Old English period.

It was divided into two distinct varieties: East Midland and West Midland. The Southern dialect was spoken between the Thames and the English Channel. It was a descendant of the West Saxon dialect. Of these three dialects it was the Midland dialect that became the national language of the country. The reason that led to the predominance of the Midland dialect was a large territory which was most important economically, politically and culturally.

In Anglo-Saxon this was pronounced “stahn.” The vowel changed somewhat around 1100 to be pronounced more like “stawn” before the Great Vowel Shift, after which it became “stone.” But in the English of England, a further evolution occurred, producing a vowel with a slight “u-glide”: “stoun”.

The development of feudalism in England tended to create dialectal divergences of speech. During the XII-XIII-th centuries there existed a number of dialects each of which had as much right as any other to be called the English language.

Although there was broad dialect mixing after the Black Death, we know that there were recognizable dialects in Middle English not only from our own analysis of texts, but from the testimony of individuals who lived at the time. Much of the humor of Chaucer’s *The Reeve’s Tale*, for instance, is based on the accents of the two main characters, Allen and John, who are northerners at Cambridge.

This is the same sort of joke that would be made by an author depicting two students with strong Mississippi accents getting the best of the towns’ folk in Cambridge, Massachusetts. Chaucer himself later makes fun of northern accents or at least the tradition of alliterative poetry that he locates in the north, having his Parson say that he is a southern man and does not speak “rum, ram, ruf”.

Dialects in Britain have been among the most studied linguistic phenomena since the XIX-th century. George Bernard Shaw was only somewhat exaggerating when he wrote, in *Pygmalion*, that Henry Higgins could, through a short sample of

speech alone, “place a man within six miles. I can place him within two miles in London. Sometimes within two streets.”

There is one more dialect that enjoys a somewhat peculiar position for it can be met almost anywhere in English-speaking countries - Cockney. Its lexical, phonetical and grammatical peculiarities can be found in the speech of Eliza Doolittle in B.Shaw’s “Pygmalion”.

Or perhaps Shaw was just a little ahead of his time. In the late 1970s, Peter Sutcliffe, the “Yorkshire Ripper,” murdered thirteen women and attempted to murder seven others. During this time a number of tapes were sent to the British police from “Wearside Jack” claiming to be responsible for the crimes. Because in part Sutcliffe’s accent did not match that of the man on the tapes, he was released after being picked up for questioning and went on to murder three additional women before being caught and sent to prison for life in 1981.

Stanley Ellis, a British dialectologist at the University of Leeds, later analyzed the tapes of “Wearside Jack” and was able to trace the accent of the hoaxer to the specific village of Castletown in Sunderland. Police arrested the person who made the tapes for “perverting the course of justice” and sending police on a wild-goose chase that perhaps allowed Sutcliffe to kill several additional victims.

Henry Higgins and Stanley Ellis are just extreme examples of what most of us can do when we hear someone use our native tongue in a way different from us, and even within strictly set geographic boundaries such as London or the area around Boston, language can have such obvious (to insiders) variations that people can localize an accent to within a town or two.

I know many people in the Boston area who can tell if a person comes from South Boston, Lynn, or Fall River with no effort whatsoever, and likewise there are people in London who are proud of being able to localize an accent to specific

London Underground stops and are correct surprisingly often, especially given the increased geographic mobility in today's world.

We can start with large groupings and slowly make finer distinctions. The first would be between England and everywhere else. You would think that the English of England, being the original source of all the other variants of English, would be the most traditional, but this is almost exactly the opposite of the truth. English, particularly London English, has evolved more rapidly in pronunciation than has American English. Let us take the word "stone" as an example.

The dialect of London was the dialect of such cultural centres as Oxford and Cambridge. It was the form of speech native to Chaucer who wrote in the Midland dialect and contributed greatly to raising it to the position of superiority.

The dialectical peculiarities observed in some of the elements of the Modern English vocabulary go back to the dialects of Old English and to the subsequent dialectical division of the feudal epoch. Those Old English words that were not included into the most stable and widely used layer of the English vocabulary are often preserved in dialects: "bairn" (child), "kemp" (fighter). Sometimes dialectal words are not remnants of Old English words but corrupted words and expressions, such as "nammut" (lunch), "gurt" (great), "zote" (soft). There are also borrowed words used only in dialects: "bonny" (pretty), "tass" (cup).

As far as grammatical peculiarities are concerned the following cases can be mentioned: the usage of "I" be in the South, "I" is in the North. In the South they use the interrogative and negative constructions without the auxiliary "do".

There are two kinds of ordinary Cockney: - the variety of Modified Standard speech which is the typical Cockney English of London, as spoken by educated middle-class people; - the variety of Modified Standard which is also heard in London but which is spoken by the semi-literate and quite illiterate.

There are several peculiarities of Cockney. In pronunciation speakers consistently drop the sound [h] where it ought to be heard and put in [h] where there is none: 'am an' heggs (ham and eggs), I 'ate (I hate), in the hopen air (in the open air).

The substitution of [n] by [ɪ] is quite a common thing: mornin', goin', puddin'. The sounds [d] and [t] are also frequently dropped as in an' (and), hobjec' (object), nex' (next). The sound [w] is dropped: ekal (equal). The diphthong shift is characteristic of Cockney: [aɪ] is used instead of [eɪ], [oɪ] instead of [ai], [au] instead of [ou]. The Cockney grammar exhibits several anomalies: I's bin (have been); I ain't (am not); I, we, you calls; we, you was; I has; he do.

By **slang** we mean words or phrases in common colloquial usage in some or all of their senses hanging on the outskirts of the literary language but continually forcing their way into it. On the other hand, the term is often applied to the words and phrases peculiar to people of some class or profession.

Slang is often humorous, witty. It is more and more penetrating into the literary language. The slang word is a deliberate substitute for a word of the vernacular just as a nickname is a substitute for a personal name. Slang is unstable and it has no fixed meaning.

Slang can be of two types: general and special. **General slang** includes words that are not specific for any social or professional group: bean, block, dome, upper storey for a head; three sheets in the wind, half-seas-over, pin-eyed for drunk.

Special slang is peculiar for some groups of people: university slang, football slang etc. Special slang should be distinguished from terms. When the word is the only name for the special notion it belongs not to slang but to terminology. If the word is a jocular name for something that can be described in some other way it is slang.

There are cases when words originated as **professional slang** later assumed the dignity of special terms or passed on into general slang. The expression “to be on the beam” was first used by pilots about the beam of the radio beacon indicating the proper course for the aircraft to follow. Then figuratively “to be on the beam” came to mean “to be right” and “to be off the beam” began to mean “to be at a loss”.

The most important peculiarities of slang concern the plane of content not the plane of form. The lexical meaning of a slang word contains not only the denotational component but also an emotive component. Slang words are clearly motivated: “cradle-snatcher” (an old man who marries a young woman); “belly-robber” (the head of a military canteen).

2. From Germanic to Old English.

As we know, English is one of the Low Germanic languages of the West Germanic branch of the great Germanic language family. It is thus most closely related to the living languages of Frisian and Low German (Plattdeutsch) and then Dutch, Flemish, and Afrikaans. Its nearest relatives on the High German branch of the West Germanic family are Modern German and Yiddish.

More distant relations are the Scandinavian languages: Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, Faroese, and Icelandic. The more recent ancestors of these modern Germanic languages are relatively well known.

Old English, Old Norse, Old Frisian, Old Saxon, and Old High German all are recorded in written texts dating from the Middle Ages, so we have a fairly good idea of how people were speaking in the various Germanic branches somewhat less than fifteen hundred years ago. The earliest Old English dates from approximately 700.

Before that time, we must rely on Latin chronicles and the techniques of the comparative method, *vergleichende Philologie*, because writing had not reached the Germans in the long period between the times that Germanic split from the main Indo-European tree and their contact with the Latin-speaking world.

3. The Earliest Period of Germanic History.

Significant beginning from around 1600 was the English colonization of North America resulted in the subsequent creation of a distinct American variety of English. Some pronunciations and usages “froze” when they reached the American shore.

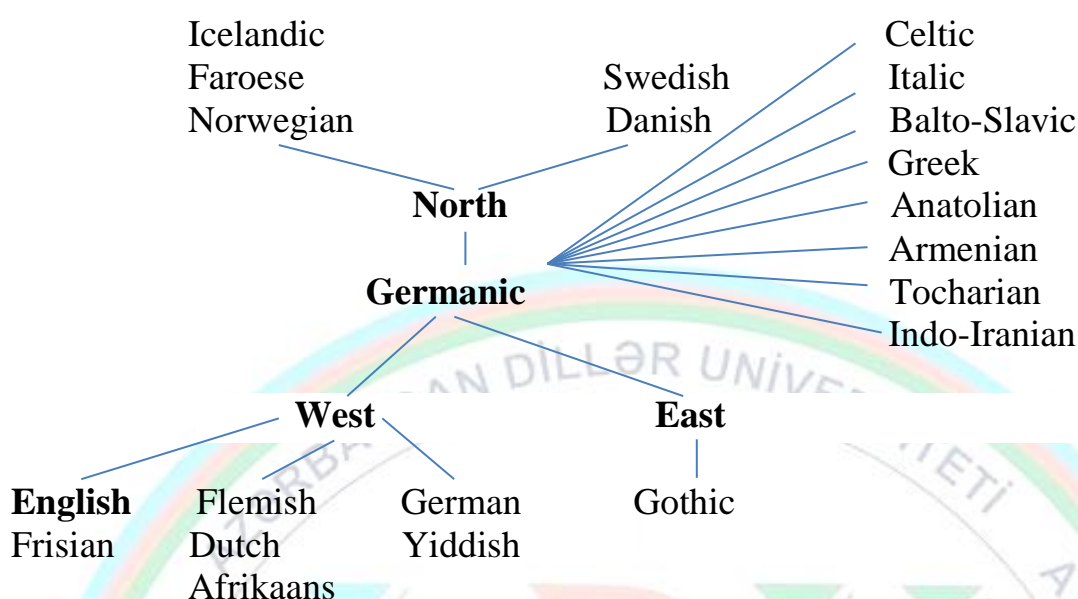
In certain respects, some varieties of American English are closer to the English of Shakespeare than modern Standard English – “English **English**” or as it is often incorrectly termed “British English”.

English is a member of the Germanic family of languages. Germanic is a branch of the Indo-European language family. The history of the Germanic group begins with the appearance of what is known as the Proto-Germanic (PG) language.

It is supposed to have split from related Indo-European tongues sometime between the XV-th and X-th centuries BC. The would-be Germanic tribes belonged to the western division of the Indo-European speech community.

As the Indo-Europeans extended over a larger territory, the ancient Germans or Teutons moved further north than other tribes and settled on the southern coast of the Baltic Sea in the region of the Elbe. This place is regarded as the most probable original home of the Teutons. It is here that they developed their first specifically Germanic linguistic features which made them a separate group in the IE family.

The Germanic Family of Languages



Proto-Germanic was never recorded in written form. It is believed that at the earliest stages of history PG was fundamentally one language, though dialectally coloured. In its later stages dialectal differences grew, so that towards the beginning of our era Germanic appears divided into dialectal groups and tribal dialects.

Dialectal differentiation increased with the migrations and geographical expansion of the Teutons caused by overpopulation, poor agricultural technique and scanty natural resources in the areas of their original settlement.

Towards the beginning of our era the common period of Germanic history came to an end. The Teutons had extended over a larger territory and the PG language broke into parts. PG split into three branches: East Germanic (Vindili in Pliny's classification), North Germanic (Hilleviones) and West Germanic, which embraces Ingveones, Istsevones and Hermino-nes in Pliny's list. In due course these branches split into separate Germanic languages.

The **East Germanic** subgroup was formed by the tribes who returned from Scandinavia at the beginning of our era. The most numerous and powerful of them were the Goths. The Gothic language, now dead, has been preserved in written

records of the IV-th – VI-th century. The Goths were the first of the Teutons to become Christian.

The other East Germanic languages, all of which are now dead, have left no written traces. Some of their tribal names have survived in placenames, which reveal the directions of their migrations: Bornholm and Burgundy go back to the East Germanic tribe of Burgundians; Andalusia is derived from the tribal name Vandals; Lombardy got its name from the Langobards, who made part of the population of the Ostrogothic kingdom in North Italy.

North Germanic. The Teutons who stayed in Scandinavia after the departure of the Goths gave rise to the North Germanic subgroup of languages. The speech of the North Germanic tribes showed little dialectal variation until the IX-th century and is regarded as a sort of common North Germanic parent-language called **Old Norse** or **Old Scandinavian**. It has come down to us in runic inscriptions dated from the III-rd to the IX-th century.

Runic inscriptions were carved on objects made of hard material in an original Germanic alphabet known as the runic alphabet or the runes. The runes were used by North and West Germanic tribes. The disintegration of Old Norse into separate dialects and languages began after the IX-th century, when the Scandinavians started out on their sea voyages.

The earliest written records in Old Danish, Old Norwegian and Old Swedish date from the XIII-th century. In the later Middle Ages Danish and then Swedish developed into national literary languages. Nowadays Swedish is spoken not only by the population of Sweden; the language has extended over Finnish territory and is the second state language in Finland.

Norwegian was the last to develop into an independent national language. During the period of Danish dominance Norwegian intermixed with Danish. As a result in the XIX-th century there emerged two varieties of the Norwegian tongue: the state or bookish tongue “riksmal”, later called “bokmal” and

“landsmal”. At the present time the two varieties tend to fuse into a single form of language “nynorsk” – “New Norwegian”.

In addition to the three languages on the mainland, the North Germanic subgroup includes two more languages: Icelandic and Faroese, whose origin goes back to the Viking Age.

Faroese is spoken nowadays by about 30,000 people. For many centuries all writing was done in Danish; it was not until the XVIII-th century that the first Faroese records were made.

At present Icelandic is spoken by over 200 000 people.

Old Icelandic written records date from the XII-th and XIII-th centuries, an age of literary flourishing. The most important records are: the ELDER EDDA, also called the POETIC EDDA – a collection of heroic songs of the XII-th century, the YOUNGER (PROSE) EDDA – a text-book for poets compiled by Snorri Sturluson in the early XIII-th century and the Old Icelandic sagas.

West Germanic. The dialectal differentiation of West Germanic was quite distinct even at the beginning of our era since Pliny and Tacitus described them under three tribal names on the eve of their “great migrations” of the IV-th and V-th centuries the West Germans included several tribes.

The **Franconians** or **Franks**, subdivided into Low, Middle and High Franconians. The Angles and the Frisians, known as the Anglo-Frisian group, the Jutes and the Saxons inhabited the coastal area of the modern Netherlands, the Federal Republic of Germany and the southern part of Denmark.

A group of tribes known as High Germans lived in the mountainous southern regions of the Federal Republic of Germany (High Germans, Low Germans) The High Germans included a number of tribes whose names are

known since the Early Middle Ages: the Alemanians, the Swabians, the Bavarians, the Thuringians and others.

The Franconian dialects were spoken in the extreme North of the Empire; in the later Middle Ages they developed into Dutch – the language of the Low Countries (the Netherlands) and **Flemish** – the language of Flanders. The earliest texts in Low Franconian date from the X-th century; XII-th century records represent the earliest Old Dutch.

The modern language of the Netherlands, formerly called **Dutch**, and its variant in Belgium, known as the Flemish dialect, are now treated as a single language, Netherlandish. Netherlandish is spoken by almost twenty million people.

About three hundred years ago the Dutch Language was brought to South Africa. Their dialects in Africa eventually grew into a separate West Germanic language, Afrikaans. Today Afrikaans is the mother-tongue of over four million Afrikaners and coloured people and one of the state languages in the South African Republic.

The High German dialects consolidated into a common language known as Old High German (OHG). The first written records in OHG date from the VIII-th and IX-th centuries - glosses to Latin texts, translations from Latin and religious poems.

Towards the XII-th century High German, known as Middle High German had intermixed with neighbouring tongues, especially Middle and High Franconian, and eventually developed into the Literary German language. The total number of German-speaking people approaches one hundred million.

The first English written records have come down from the VII-th century, which is the earliest date in the history of writing in the West Germanic subgroup. The Frisians and the Saxons who did not take part in the invasion of Britain stayed on the continent. Frisian has survived as a local dialect in Friesland (in the

Netherlands) and Ostfriesland (the Federal Republic of Germany). It has both an oral and written form, the earliest records dating from the XIII-th century.

In the Early Middle Ages the continental Saxons formed a powerful tribe. Together with High German tribes they took part in the eastward drive and the colonization of the former Slavonic territories. Old Saxon known in written form from the records of the IX-th century has survived as one of the Low German dialects.

Some expressions that the British call “Americanisms” are in fact original British expressions that were preserved in the colonies while lost for a time in Britain, for example “trash” for “rubbish”, “loan” as a verb instead of “lend”, and “fall” as a synonym for “autumn”; another example, “frame-up”, was re-imported into Britain through Hollywood gangster movies.

4. 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”, such as: “very well”; interchange of “f” and “o”, “v”, like: “fing, thing”, and “father”; interchange of “h”, e.g. “eart” for “heart” and “hart” for “art”; substituting the diphthong “ai” by “ei”, like: “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, such as: “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, pucky, 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, such as: “bleck het”, for “black hat”, some diphthongs are also different, like: “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”.

5. The American Dialect of English.

The **American dialect** also served as the route of introduction for many Native American words into the English language. Most often, these were place names like “Mississippi, Roanoke, Iowa”.

Indian-sounding names like “Idaho” were sometimes created that had no native-American roots. But, names for other things besides places were also common. “Raccoon, tomato, canoe, barbecue, savanna, hickory” have Native American roots, although in many cases the original Indian words were mangled almost beyond recognition.

Spanish also had an influence on **American English** and subsequently British English, with words like “canyon, ranch, stampede, vigilante, mustang” being examples of Spanish words that entered English through the settlement of the American West.

French words through Louisiana and West African words through the slave trade also influenced American English and so, to an extent, British English.

A lesser number of words have entered American English from French and West African languages.

Likewise dialects of English have developed in many of the former colonies of the British Empire. There are distinct forms of the English language spoken in Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, India and many other parts of the world.

Today, American English is particularly influential, due to the USA’s dominance of cinema, television, popular music, trade and technology, including the Internet. But there are many other varieties of English around the world, including for example Australian English, New Zealand English, Canadian English, South African English, Indian English and Caribbean English.

Analysing American dialect it is necessary to mention that in 1813 **Thomas Jefferson** wrote in a letter: “The new circumstances under which we are placed call for new words, new phrases, and for the transfer of old words to new objects. An American dialect will therefore be formed”.

As the settlers, including a good proportion of Irish and Scots, with their own distinctive accents and usages of English, pushed westward, new terms were indeed introduced, and these pioneers were much less reticent to adopt native words or, indeed, to make up their own.

The journals of Lewis and Clark, written as they explored routes to the west coast in 1804-1806, contain over 500 native words, mainly animals, plants and

food. The wild “outlands” west of the Mississippi River gave us the word “outlandish” to describe its idiosyncratic characters.

John Adams’ much-vaunted “plain English” took a back seat in the hands of colourful characters like Davy Crockett, who was himself of Scots-Irish decent and others, who saw western expansion as an excuse to expand the language with new words and quirky Americanisms like “skedaddle, bamboozle, shebang, riff-raff, hunky-dory, lickety-split, rambunctious, ripsnorter, humdinger, shenanigan, doozy, discombobulate, absquatulate, splendiferous”, etc. not to mention evocative phrases like “fly off the handle, a chip on the shoulder, no axe to grind, sitting on the fence, dodge the issue, knuckle down, make the fur fly, go the whole hog, kick the bucket, face the music, bite the dust, barking up the wrong tree, pass the buck, stack the deck, poker face, in cahoots, pull up stakes, horse sense, two cents’ worth, stake a claim, strike it rich, the real McCoy” and even the phrase “stiff upper lip” in regard to their more hidebound British cousins.

From the deliberately misspelled and dialectical works of Artemus Ward and Josh Billings to popular novels like Harriet Beecher Stowe’s “Uncle Tom’s Cabin” (1852) and Mark Twain’s “Huckleberry Finn” (1884), this American vernacular spread rapidly, and became in the process more publicly acceptable both in everyday speech and in literature.

Many Spanish words also made their way into American English during the expansion and settlement of the Spanish-influenced American West, including words like “armadillo, alligator, canyon, cannibal, guitar, mosquito, mustang, rodeo, ranch, stampede, tobacco, tornado, vigilante”, some of which were also originally derived from native languages.

To a lesser extent, French words, from the French presence in the Louisiana area and in Canada, contributed loan words like “gopher, prairie, depot, cache, cent dime”, as well as French-derived place names like “Detroit, Illinois, Des Moines”, etc.

The number of American coinings later exported back to the mother country should not be underestimated. They include commonly used words like “sag, snag, commuter, bedrock, soggy, belittle, lengthy, striptease, gimmick, teenager, jeans, hangover, teetotal, fudge, publicity, joyride, blizzard, stunt, movie, uplift, showdown, obligate, notify, redneck, businessman, cocktail, skyscraper, smooch, nearby, worthwhile, bootleg, highfalutin, guesstimate, raincoat, genocide, cloudburst, hindsight, graveyard” among many others.

Even the word “roundabout” originally came from America, even though traffic circles hardly exist there. Perhaps the quintessential Americanism is “OK” (okay), which has become one of the best known and most widespread terms throughout the whole world. Its origins are somewhat obscure and still hotly debated, but it seems to have come into common usage in America during the 1830s.

Many of these Americanisms were met with a certain amount of snobbery in Britain, and many words thought to be American in origin were vilified as uncouth and inferior by the British intelligentsia, even though many of those denigrated actually turned out to be of older English provenance in the first place.

Today, some 4,000 words are used differently in the USA and Britain “lift / elevator”, “tap / faucet”, “bath / tub”, “curtains / drapes”, “biscuit / cookie”, “boot / trunk” are just some of the better known ones and, increasingly, American usage is driving out traditional words and phrases back in Britain, for example: “truck” for “lorry”, “airplane” for “aeroplane”, etc.

American spelling is also becoming more commonplace in Britain, for instance: “jail” for “gaol”, “wagon” for “waggon”, “reflection” for “reflexion”, etc., although some Americanized spelling changes actually go back centuries, for example, words like: “horror, terror, superior, emperor, governor” were originally spelled as “horroure, terrour, superiour, emperour, governour” in Britain according

to Johnson's 1755 "Dictionary", even if other words like "colour, humour, honour" had resisted such changes.

6. Black English Vernacular, Pidgin Language, Gullah, Jamaican Creole.

The practice of transporting cheap black labour from western Africa to the New World was begun by the Spaniards in the XVI-th century, and it had been also used by the Portuguese, Dutch and French, but it was adopted in earnest by the British in the early XVII-th century.

The British had established numerous outposts in the Caribbean, dubbed the "West Indies" by Columbus out of the conviction that he had reached the spice islands of the Indies, or Asia, by a western route, and had developed a whole trading empire to take advantage of the tropical climate of the region.

The labour-intensive work on tobacco, cocoa, cotton and particularly sugar plantations required large numbers of cheap workers, and the Atlantic slave trade triangle (Britain - West Africa - Americas) was developed to supply it, although soon a demand also grew for household servants.

The numbers of African slaves in the America alone grew from just twenty in 1619 to over 4 million at the time of the American abolition of slavery after the Civil War in 1865, the British had abolished the slave trade earlier, in 1807. The slaves transported by the British to work in the plantations of the American south and the islands of the West Indies were mainly from a region of West Africa rich in hundreds of different languages, and most were superb natural linguists, often speaking anywhere between three and six African languages fluently.

Due to the deliberate practice of shipping slaves of different language backgrounds together, in an attempt to avoid plots and rebellions, the captives developed their own English-based **Pidgin** language, which they used to

communicate with the largely English-speaking sailors and landowners, and also between themselves.

A pidgin is a reduced language that results from extended contact between people with no language in common. Verb forms in particular are simplified, for example: “me go run school”, “him done go”, etc., but adjectives are also often used instead of adverbs, verbs instead of prepositions, pronouns are not inflected, etc. The resulting stripped-down language may be crude but it is usually serviceable and efficient.

Once established in the Americas, these pidgins developed into stable creoles, forms of simplified English combined with many words from a variety of African languages. Most of the African slaves made landfall at Sullivan Island, near Charleston, South Carolina, and even today **Gullah** can be heard in many of the Sea Islands off the coast of the Carolinas and Georgia.

Gullah is an English-African patois, the name is possibly derived from the word “Angola”, thought to be remarkably unchanged from that spoken by African slaves two or three centuries ago.

Gullah and similar “plantation creoles” provided the basis of much of modern Black American English, street slang and hip-hop, but interestingly it also significantly influenced the language and accent of the aristocratic white owners, and the modern English of the southern states.

The popular Uncle Remus stories of the late XIX-th century, many of them based around the trickster character of Brer Rabbit and others like Brer Fox, Brer Wolf, etc., are probably based on this kind of creole, mixed with native Cherokee origins, although they were actually collections made by white Americans like Joel Chandler Harris.

The following passage is from Charles Colcock Jones Jr.’s 1888 story “Brer Lion an Brer Goat”: “Brer Lion bin a hunt, an eh spy Brer Goat duh leddown

topper er big rock duh wuk eh mout an der chaw. Eh creep up fuh ketch um. Wen eh git close ter um eh notus um good. Brer Goat keep on chaw. Brer Lion try fuh fine out wuh Brer Goat duh eat. Eh yent see nuttne nigh um ceptin de nekked rock wuh eh duh leddown on. Brer Lion stonish. Eh wait topper Brer Goat. Brer Goat keep on chaw, an chaw, an chaw. Brer Lion cant mek de ting out, an eh come close, an eh say: "Hay! Brer Goat, wuh you duh eat?" Brer Goat skade wen Brer Lion rise up befo um, but eh keep er bole harte, an eh mek ansur: "Me duh chaw dis rock, an ef you dont leff, wen me done long um me guine eat you." Dis big wud sabe Brer Goat. Bole man git outer diffikelty way coward man lose eh life".

Many of the words may look strange at first, but the meanings become quite clear when spoken aloud, and the spellings give a good approximation of a black / Caribbean accent, for example: "notus" for "notice", "bole" for "bold", "ansur" for "answer", "skade" for "scared", etc.

"Dis / dem / dey" are used for "this / them / they" in order to avoid the difficult English "th" sound, and many other usages are familiar from modern Caribbean accents, for instance: "mout" for "mouth", "ting" for "thing", "gwine" for "going", etc.

For simplicity, adjectives often stand in for adverbs, like: "coward man" and verbs may be simplified, as: "Brer Lion bin a hunt" or left out completely, for example: "Brer Lion stonish". Double adjectives, like: "big big" are often used as intensifiers, although not in this particular passage.

Jamaican creole, known locally as "Patwa", for patois, was one of the deepest in the Caribbean, partly because of the sheer numbers transported there, and the accent there is still so thick as to be almost undecipherable.

Variations of English Creoles gradually mixed with other creole forms based on French, Spanish and Portuguese, leading to a diverse range of English varieties throughout the Caribbean Islands, as well as adjacent areas of Central and South America. Familiar words like "buddy" for "brother", "palaver" for "trouble", and

“pikni” for “child”, arose out of these creoles, and words like “barbecue, savvy, nitty-gritty, hammock, hurricane, savannah, canoe, cannibal, potato, tobacco, maize” were also early introductions into English from the Caribbean, often via Spanish or Portuguese.

7. Black English Vernacular or African-American English.

“Patois” is an originally French term meaning “broken speech.” For many years it was a dismissive term used to describe vernacular Caribbean English as distinct from the more British English used by the elite, educated classes of the various Caribbean countries. Although there have been attempts in recent years to equate it “Creole English” or “West Indian Creole,” speakers of the dialect form itself have retained the term “patois” and the Creole designation is problematic, because creole is a technical term that means a language usually created from multiple languages that were not mutually understandable.

Patois has distinctive phonological, grammatical, and lexical features. For example, there is strong consonant cluster simplification at the ends of words, producing “tek” for “talked,” “wek” for “walked,” and “bes” for “best.” There is also a sound shift, where both voiced and voiceless interdental fricatives are shifted to voiced or voiceless alveolar stops: “think” thus become “tink,” “this” becomes “dis,” and “that” becomes “dat.”

Metathesis is also apparent in “aks” for “ask,” “deks” for “desk,” and “flim” for “film.” Grammatically, one of the more distinctive features is the use of “get” as a passive: “it get break.” Vocabulary includes nearly fifteen thousand items in a Jamaican / English lexicon, including “foot-bottom” for “sole,” “hand-middle” for “palm,” and “duppy” for “ghost.” It should not be at all surprising that many of the lexical items can at least plausibly be linked to West African roots.

In recent years the idea of a “Standard West Indian English” has grown, distinct from Standard British English but still of high prestige. “Patois” has been used as an insult; some educated West Indians often will not use it in mixed company (i.e., West Indians and outsiders), and they attempt to make their children speak Standard English. But among friends and in situations of social comfort, they use patois freely, almost certainly because its use communicates social cohesion and solidarity.

Black English Vernacular or African-American English or African-American Vernacular English is almost certainly the most stigmatized dialect form in modern America, partially because it is in fact very close to the next most stigmatized form, the speech of lower-middle and working-class southern whites.

Like patois, Black English Vernacular has characteristic phonological, morphological, lexical, and syntactic features. The most significant of these is probably consonant cluster simplification, which happens much more frequently in African-American English than in most other regional varieties.

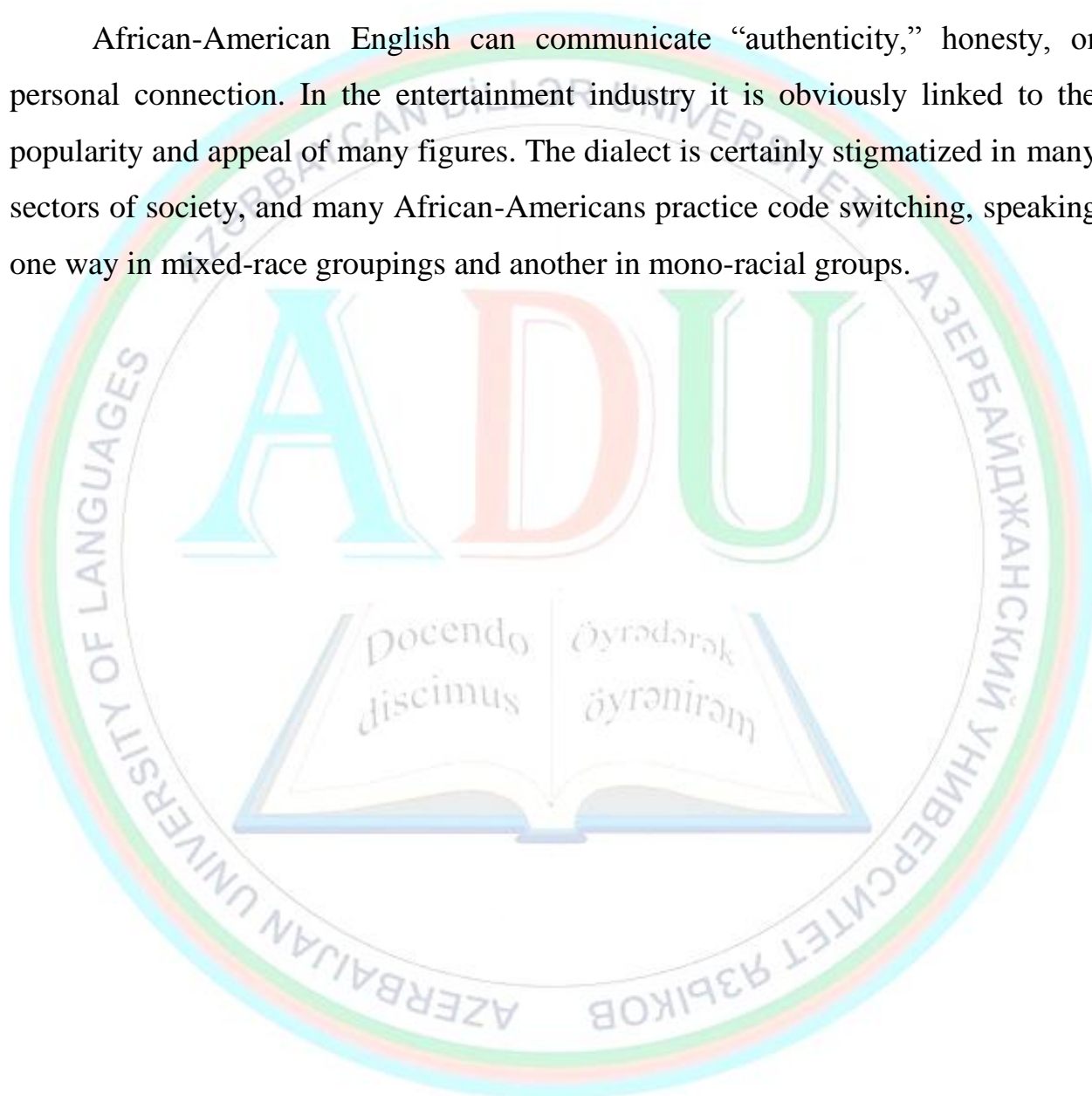
“Tol” for “told” and “fitty” for “fifty” are just among the most obvious examples. African-American English also regularly deletes final consonants if they are stops, so “tired” becomes “tire.” In recent years another deletion rule has led to more and more speakers pronouncing “all right” as “a-ight,” with a glottal stop replacing the two liquids, the first of which has already been deleted from most casual American speech.

One of the most distinctive grammatical features of African-American English is the complete deletion of the copula (forms of the word “to be”) in situations in which in Standard English the form can be contracted. For example: “This is my friend. That’s my friend. That my friend. The girl is late. The girl’s late. The girl late”. – Hyper-correct Standard English **African American English**.

African-American English uses the verb “be” instead to indicate the aspect of a verb: “The girl be late” means that the girl is regularly or habitually late.

The “be” form is then inflected as a regular rather than an irregular verb, as in “I listen to the radio when I bees on my way to work” instead of changing the “be” to “am,” it gets an “-s” inflection. Double and triple negatives are also regular forms in African-American English, as they were in Old English and Middle (Shakespearean) English, indicating emphasis.

African-American English can communicate “authenticity,” honesty, or personal connection. In the entertainment industry it is obviously linked to the popularity and appeal of many figures. The dialect is certainly stigmatized in many sectors of society, and many African-Americans practice code switching, speaking one way in mixed-race groupings and another in mono-racial groups.



Chapter VIII. Differences between American English and British English.

1. The Beginnings of American English.

2. Dialects within America.

3. Isoglosses in America.

American English differs greatly from British English in pronunciation and in vocabulary. Besides, there are some minor features of grammar and spelling. Historically American English is based on the language of the first American settlers that is on English of the XVII-th century.

The dictionary gives a lot of information about words that are only used in American English or that have different meanings in British and American English, like: US – elevator, British English – lift, US – gas, British English – petrol.

Lexical peculiarities have been brought about several historical processes: some absolute words of the XVII-th century have survived in America (“fall” for “autumn”; “guess” for “think”); a number of words changed their meanings due to the new conditions of social and economic life: “corn – maize”; “racket – racketeer”, etc.

The development of American variants shows how extralinguistic factors influence the language. On the whole, the language spoken in the USA differs greatly from the English language spoken in England. Here are some examples:

In Great Britain

In the USA

sweets

candy

lorry

truck

letter box	mailbox
tin	can
pavement	sidewalk
time-table	schedule
lift	elevator
flat	apartment

Grammatically Americans often use the simple past tense when British people use present perfect:

British: I have just seen her – American: I just saw her.

British: Have you heard the news? – American: Did you hear the news?

Americans often use “have” when British people use “have got”.

1. The Beginnings of American English.

Immigrants from Southeastern England began arriving on the North American continent in the early 1600's. By the middle of 1800's, 3.5 million immigrants left the British Isles for the United States. The American English language is characterized by archaisms (words that changed meaning in Britain, but remained in the colonies) and innovations in vocabulary: borrowing from the French and Spanish, who were also settling in North America.

Noah Webster was the most vocal about the need for an American national identity with regards to the American English language. He wrote an American spelling book, “The Blueback Speller”, in 1788 and changed several spellings from British English, for example: “colour” became “color”, “theatre” became “theater”, etc. In 1828, he published his famous “American Dictionary of the English Language”.

Dialects in the United States resulted from different waves of immigration of English speakers, contact with other languages, and the slave trade, which had a profound impact on African American English. A dialectal study was done in 1920 and the findings are published in the “Linguistics Atlas of the U.S. and Canada”.

The American pronunciation remains like that of Shakespeare’s post – Great Vowel Shift “stone.” Linguists now go out of their way to challenge the idea that Shakespeare’s English sounded particularly similar to contemporary speech in the West Virginia mountains (for a while it was argued that Elizabeth and speech survived there), but it is not incorrect to say that American English preserves a great many pronunciations that have further evolved in British English. American English is in fact much more “conservative” than London English, which has changed rapidly even since World War II.

The great divisions in worldwide English pronunciation are nevertheless geographic, even if the most traditional forms are not necessarily found in England.

The major regions are North America (the United States and Canada are classed together, although there are differences), Caribbean / South America, Australia / New Zealand, South Asia (India, Pakistan, Bangladesh), East Asia (Hong Kong, Singapore, and other former British colonies), and Africa (particularly South Africa).

Speakers are generally much better at localizing dialects within their own regions than they are at determining which region a person comes from.

Thus, Americans are notoriously unable to separate Australian from New Zealand accents and South African speakers often do not easily hear the difference between American and Canadian accents, particularly if the American accents being compared are from the Upper Midwest.

2. Dialects within America.

Dialects within America are generally shaped by the same processes that drive linguistic evolution: inheritance from specific sources and geographic and social isolation and evolution. For example, the distinctive New England accent probably owes quite a bit to the fact that most of the people who originally settled in New England were from locations within a sixty-mile radius in East Anglia.

By 1776 there were three major varieties of North American English: Northern, which was spoken in New England and New York State, Midland, spoken in Pennsylvania and New Jersey, and Southern, spoken from Maryland to Georgia. The famous dropped “r” in New England speech was already present at this time, inherited from pronunciation in the south of England, and this form was also spoken in the South. Later settlers came from the north of England, where “r” was still pronounced. Geographic expansion westward carried along dialects, and American English is still divided into bands of northern, middle, and southern forms.

However, there was some additional diversification. For example, the Northern dialect area is split, with an eastern and a western form with the dividing line in the Connecticut River Valley. West of this line is further separated into Upper North, including southern Vermont, parts of New York state, the very uppermost portions of Pennsylvania and Ohio, Michigan, northern Illinois, and eastern Wisconsin.

Then Upper Midwest includes the rest of Wisconsin, all of Minnesota, and the northern half of Iowa. Lower North, which is based upon the old Midland dialect range, includes New Jersey, most of Pennsylvania and Ohio, excepting the very northern parts of those states, Indiana, and southern Illinois. The Upper South includes most of western Maryland, western Virginia, West Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, northern Arkansas, and the very northern most parts of Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and a tiny bit of east Texas.

Lower South includes most of North Carolina, all of South Carolina, and nearly all of Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana, as well as part of southern Arkansas and east Texas. Within the Lower South, there are divisions between the Atlantic South, Southern Florida, Alabama, the Delta South, and Northern and Southern Louisiana. Things get less clear cut as one moves further west, but there are differences between Southwest, California, Colorado, the Utah West, and the Northwest.

Source: U.S. Census Bureau Linguists mark these dialect areas by constructing isoglosses: They interview many subjects and record their pronunciations and word usage, plotting the responses on a map.

3. Isoglosses in America.

A boundary beyond which a form is never or always used is **an isogloss**. When many isoglosses line up, we can identify a dialect region. For example, the boundary between the Upper North and the Lower North dialect is marked by isoglosses for the pronunciation of “greazy” (with “az” pronunciation) versus “greasy” with the “s” unvoiced, calling an insect a “snake feeder” versus a “dragonfly,” calling “Sook!” to the cows or not, and calling a tree whose sap you get syrup from a “sugar tree” rather than a “maple tree.”

In each of these cases, the more southern term is listed first, and none of these are consistently found above that Upper North or Lower North isogloss and the southern forms are found much more consistently in the southern dialect areas.

Here is an experiment: Ask various people whom you know to say the name of the canine animal the “wolf” (you will have to figure out a clever way to do this without saying the name yourself). Listen carefully to how your respondents pronounce the word: If you have a big enough sample that covers a variety of regions, some will pronounce the word “wolf” and others “woof”

(without the “l”). Those who drop the “l” will almost certainly be from the Upper North dialect zone. There may actually be quite a few speakers in the Upper North area who say “wolf” rather than “woof,” but nearly all who do say “woof” will be Upper Northern speakers.

Since the 1930s, linguists have been collecting isoglosses throughout America. Some seem to match up very well with settlement patterns. For example, my home dialect region, in Monmouth County, NJ, is on the onehand part of the Philadelphia dialect region. On the other hand it is linked to New York City. We say, for example, “water” as “wood-er,” we do not pronounce the “h” in “huge” or “human,” and we pronounce the words “orange,” “horrible,” and “forest” as if they were spelled “arr-inge,” “harr-ible,” and “farrest.” The last two pronunciations are linked to New York and the first to Philadelphia, just as you might expect from the migratory patterns of the people who settled Monmouth County: some came south from New York, some came east from Philadelphia.

Other famous isoglosses are “bucket” / “pail,” “faucet” / “tap,” and “quarter of” versus “quarter to”. Various alternative names for “See-Saw” provide a particularly interesting example. Although the unmarked term “See-Saw” is recognized throughout America, there are alternative forms on the East Coast.

“Teeter-totter,” for example, is a heavily Northern word; the form is “Teeter” or “Teeter Board” in New England and New York State and “Teeter-Totter” in New Jersey. There are almost no “Teeter-” forms in Pennsylvania, and if you go to western West Virginia and down into western North Carolina there is a band of “Ridey-Horse” that heads almost straight south.

This pattern suggests a New England origin or importation of the term that spread down the coast and a separate development in Appalachia, where Scottish-Irish settlers did not come from New England. “Hickey-horse” in the coastal regions of North Carolina is consistent with other linguistic and ethnic variations.

For whatever reasons, the insect known most commonly as the dragonfly has a variety of names. In northern and eastern New Jersey it is a “Darning Needle”, but in Pennsylvania and West Virginia it is a “Spindle,” in Virginia a “Snake Doctor” and on the coast through Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina, a “Snake Feeder.”

Some migration patterns into Tennessee and even Texas are consistent with the variation in dragonfly names. When dialectologists plot all of their collected isoglosses, both those for word use and for pronunciation on the map, they generally confirm the major divisions discussed above.

But there are some particularly interesting small areas of dialects that are highlighted by the map, though early dialectologists, and simple observers of American English, had already noticed them.

The first is a pocket on the East Coast that includes the cities of Charleston, SC, and Savannah, GA, and is called the Charleston Dialect. One of its characteristic features is a pronunciation of “lawyer” that sounds so much like “liar” as almost to be a social commentary.

Charleston Dialect is often considered to be the highest prestige dialect of all Southern English and has more in common with upper-class British English of the XVIII-th century than other dialects (New England dialects, despite their prestige in America, have more in common with middle-class and lower-class East Anglian settlers).

Other distinctive dialect pockets include Providence, RI, with its very characteristic naming of a milkshake a “cabinet,” and Pittsburgh, PA, with a variety of nonstandard lexical items and pronunciations. There is also a dialect region around St.Louis, MO that separates this metropolitan area very firmly from the surrounding countryside.

All of this leads us to that earthshaking question debated by millions of American college students: Is a fizzy drink “soda” or “pop”? As the map at <http://www.popvsoda.com> shows, “soda” is used mainly on the East Coast, in California, and from Chicago north along Lake Superior and around St. Louis, MO. “Pop” is Midwestern and Northwestern, and “coke” is used in the south.

But all forms are used at least somewhat in all regions, not only demonstrating geographic mobility, but also suggesting that the reasons for preferring one term to another might be complex.

Some studies suggest that “soda” is urban and suburban while “pop” is rural, but not in each term’s home range, i.e., in the Midwest, those who do use “soda” are far more likely to be found in the cities than in the countryside; likewise on the East Coast, “pop” is found in small towns more than in cities.

“Soda” is often considered the term with more prestige or social cachet, but it can also be interpreted as a pretentious or, in the South, a “Yankee” word. Pop versus soda has led to many a vigorous late-night debate over pizza and is related to other disputed topics such as the hero versus the grinder versus the sub.

Chapter IX. Lexicography.

1. Different Types of the Dictionaries.

2. Varieties of the Vocabulary.

3. Structure of the Dictionaries.

4. Some problems of the Dictionary Compiling.

5. The Methods of Linguistic Analysis in Word Stock Studies.

6. Theory of the Frames.

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. 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 and Azerbaijani.

Different dictionaries register different number of words. It depends upon basically different approaches to the vocabulary units.

In some cases, for instance, 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 XIX-th 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 XV-th century, like: 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 XVIII-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, like [a], [e], [i], [o], [u]. He denoted vowels in the open syllable by the same letters, but with a dash above them, such as: [a], [e], [i], [o], [u]. He denoted vowels in the position before [r] as the same letters with two dots above them, like: [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.

1. Different Types of the 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.

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.

The “Oxford English Dictionary” (OED), published by the Oxford University Press, is the premier British dictionary of the English language. Work began on the dictionary in 1857, but it was not until 1884 that it started to be published in unbound fascicles as work continued on the project under the name “A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles; Founded Mainly on the Materials Collected by The Philological Society”.

In 1895, the title “The Oxford English Dictionary” (OED) was first used unofficially on the covers of the series and in 1928 the full dictionary was republished in ten bound volumes.

In 1933, it fully replaced the name in all occurrences to “The Oxford English Dictionary” (OED) in its reprinting as twelve volumes with a one volume supplement and more supplements came over the years until in 1989 when the second edition was published in twenty volumes.

The Authors of this dictionary (publication date - 1989) are **John Andrew Simpson** (born 13 October 1953) is an English lexicographer and Chief Editor of the “Oxford English Dictionary” (OED), **Edmund Weiner** (born 1950 in Oxford, England) was co-editor of the Second Edition of the “Oxford English Dictionary”

(1985–1989) and Deputy Chief Editor of the “Oxford English Dictionary” (1993–present). He originally joined the OED staff in 1977, becoming the dictionary’s chief philologist.

As of 24 March 2011, the editors had completed the third edition “From M to Ryvita”. With descriptions for approximately 600,000 words, the Oxford English Dictionary is the world’s most comprehensive single-language print dictionary according to the “Guinness Book of World Records”.

The first electronic version of the dictionary was made available in 1988. The online version has been available since 2000, and as of August 2010 was receiving two million hits per month from paying subscribers. The chief executive of Oxford University Press, Nigel Portwood, feels it unlikely that the third edition will ever be printed.

Analysing the age of the dictionaries, briefly speaking, the history of Lexicography we have to mention that the “de-emphasis of diachronics” tendency of modern linguistics is to downplay the importance of diachronics.

In Azerbaijani, we have also Explanatory Dictionary of the Azerbaijani literary language. Its first volume was published in Baku in 1966 under the edition of A.A.Orujov. Its second volume was published in 1980 and the third volume was published in 1988.

There is another dictionary, for example: Valiyeva, N.Ch. (2018) “İzahlı Azərbaycanca – İngiliscə – Rusca Kommunikasiya Terminlər Lüğəti”.

2) **Translation dictionaries** = bilingual dictionaries = parallel dictionaries.

Modern linguists have little if any interest in the historical backgrounds of words. They argue that such history is absent from the immediate consciousness of speakers and writers and therefore has little or no contribution to understanding meaning.

Traditional grammatical-historical interpretation, however, sees such etymological input as of great value. *Crowley Terry* writes, “To understand ... the language of a speaker or writer, it is necessary, first of all to know the meaning of his words.

The interpreter especially, needs to keep in mind the difference, so frequently apparent, between the primitive signification of a word and that which it subsequently obtains. We first naturally inquire after the original meaning of a word, or what is commonly called **etymology**”.

Phraseological Dictionaries deal with set-expressions, proverbs, sayings; explain their meanings, origin, etc. For instance: Veliyeva, N.Ch. (2006) “Azərbaycanca-İngiliscə-Rusca Frazoloji Lüğət”; Veliyeva, N.Ch. (2010) “İrihəcmli üçdilli frazeoloji lüğət. Azerbaijani –English – Russian Phraseological Dictionary”; Veliyeva, N.Ch. (2017) “Azərbaycanca-İngiliscə İdiomatik Lüğət”.

2. 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 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, and 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. There is the group in clues 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 two 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 abbreviations, synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, borrowings, proverbs, sayings, toponyms, surnames and so on. Dictionaries of American English dialect and slang dictionaries.	Dictionaries of scientific and other special terms. Dictionaries of abbreviations, phraseology, proverbs, sayings, synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, etc. Dictionaries of old English and middle English with explanations in modern English.

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 first English dictionary appeared in the XVII-th century. In the XVIII-th 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 Dialectal 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.

3. Structure of the 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.

4. Some problems of the 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 dictionary) 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.

5. The 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 someone's work;

make + A – make sure;

make + a + A + N – make a good wife, etc.

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 $V_1 N_p V_2$.

The coding helps us to be **on the alert** for the distinction between classes (noun, verb), subclasses (personal noun, transitive verb) and class members or elements (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 recognizes 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 "lemanly" 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 cut 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 “noun + noun”. 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, like: his car, his failure, his arrest, his goodness, 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:

a) **Grammatical markers**, which describe the syntactic behaviour of the item in terms of the system of grammatical categories: noun, abstract noun, etc.

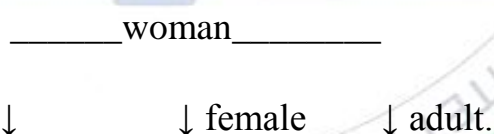
b) **Semantic markers** describe the semantic features that are common for the items of the lexical semantic group as a structure: male, parent, sibling.

c) **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 is semes and that sememes and lexemes 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, for instance, “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, for instance, “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.

6. Theory of the 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.

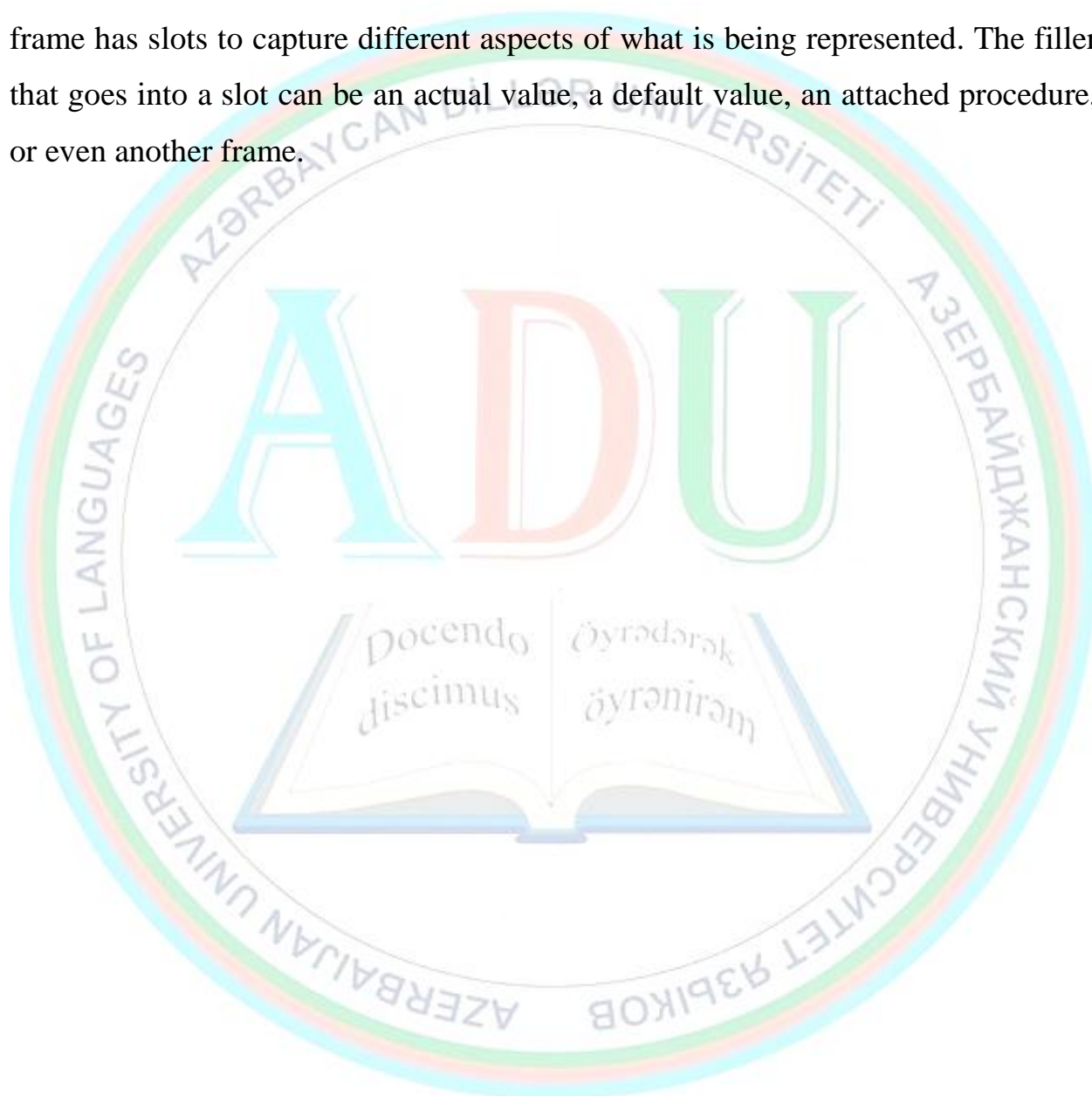
A mental representation is not a copy or mental picture stored as such. Nothing can be ever represented in full and faithful detail. People function and interact with their surroundings. What we learn from experience is organized along several dimensions. Mental representations exist as models: abstract 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.



QUESTIONS IN CONTRASTIVE LEXICOLOGY

1. Characterize the trends of Contrastive Linguistics.
2. Give the characteristics of Contrastive Lexicology aspects.
3. Describe units and parameters of Contrastive Lexicology.
4. Represent the criteria that underlie word identification.
5. Give the examples of the English-Azerbaijani correspondences.
6. Characterize the methods of Contrastive Lexicology.
7. Characterize the onomasiological approach to contrastive analysis.
8. Give the characteristics of onomasiological structure and category.
9. Speak on motivation of lexical items in the contrasted languages.
10. Describe the types of word-formation in the contrasted languages: (a) derivation; (b) compounding; (c) conversion; (d) abbreviation; (e) clipping; (f) blending; (g) back-formation; (h) reduplication.
11. Characterize the semasiological approach to contrastive analysis.
12. Speak on the typology of meaning.
13. Represent cognitive and pragmatic meanings.
14. Give the characteristics of semantic equivalence.
15. Characterize prototypical semantics.
16. Characterize the epidigmatic approach to contrastive analysis.
17. Speak on polysemy and its contrastive representation.
18. Give the characteristics of semantic change.
19. Describe metaphor and metonymy in the contrasted languages.
20. Characterize the processes and results of semantic change.
21. Represent homonymy and paronymy in the contrasted languages.

22. Characterize the paradigmatic approach to contrastive analysis.
23. Give the characteristics of semantic field.
24. Speak on the hyponymic relations in the contrasted languages.
25. Characterize synonymy in the contrasted languages.
26. Describe antonyms in the contrasted languages.
27. Characterize the syntagmatic approach to contrastive analysis.
28. Give the characteristics of semantic and syntactic actants.
29. Speak on phraseological units and their characteristic features.
30. Represent contrastive analysis of the phraseological units: phraseological equivalents; phraseological analogues; non-equivalent phraseological units.
31. What do you know about the Age of the Dictionaries?
32. Which Old English vocabulary do you know?
33. Name the main dialects of Modern English.
34. Describe the most distinctive characteristics of regional accents of Modern English.
35. Name the regional English dialects.
36. What do you know about the development of American English and other varieties, what is "patois"?
37. Name and explain the Black English and Pidgin language examples.
38. Characterize Black English Vernacular or African-American English.
39. What do you know about the dialects within America?
40. Tell about the beginnings of American English.
41. What led to the evolution of the different English dialects?
42. What are the forces that shape dialects and linguistic evolution?

43. What do we mean when we say “lexicography”?
44. Describe the varieties of the vocabulary?
45. Which types of the dictionaries can you name?
46. Speak about the structure of dictionaries.
47. Which problems of the dictionary compiling do you know?
48. How many methods of the linguistic analysis in word stock studies can you denominate?
49. Open the essence of the distributional and transformational methods, describe the major common features and specific peculiarities of other methods of linguistic analysis.
50. Characterize the componential analysis.
51. Congruence of the contrasted words in form and meaning.
52. Type of onomasiological congruence (total congruence / partial congruence / total incongruence / non-equivalent words).
53. The inner-form of the contrasted words.
54. Type of word-formation: a) derivation: – type of derivation (suffixation / prefixation); – congruence by the affix origin (reciprocal congruence / one-sided congruence); – congruence by the affix semantics (semantically congruous / semantically incongruous / non-equivalent affixes); b) compounding: – according to the structure (compound proper / derivational compound); – according to the way the ICs link together (juxtaposition / morphologically / syntactically); – according to the semantics (non-idiomatic / idiomatic; endocentric / exocentric); c) abbreviation (acronym / initialism); d) clipping (apocope / syncope / apheresis / mixed).

55. Type of semantic equivalence (coincidence / partial coincidence / inclusion / overlap / exclusion).
56. Semantic Equivalence (equivalence coefficient)
57. Cognitive meaning of the word (contension / extension; intension / implication).
58. Pragmatic meaning of the word (emotive / evaluative / expressive / stylistic).
59. Stylistic component: a) stylistic differentiation: – temporal reference (archaisms / historical words / neologisms); – ethical reference (taboo words / euphemisms); – local reference (dialectisms); b) functional differentiation: – elevated lexicon (folklore vocabulary / scientific vocabulary / officialese / publicist vocabulary / terms / professionalisms / barbarisms / exotic words / poetic words); – degraded lexicon (literary colloquial words / popular language / slang words / jargon words / vulgarisms / argot).
60. Polysemy: a) hierarchy of the lexico-semantic variants; b) type of polysemy (concatenation / radiation / mixed type).
61. Types of semantic change: a) metonymy (synecdoche); b) metaphor (functional transfer / synaesthetic transfer);
62. Processes and results of semantic change: a) specialization or generalization of meaning; b) elevation or degradation of meaning.
63. Homonymy: a) type of homonymy (absolute / partial: homographs and homophones / etymological / word-building / semantic); b) type of homonymous correspondence (total / partial / potential).
64. Paronymy (synonymic / antonymic / semantic / thematic).
65. Semantic field structure (paradigm / chains / cycles / helices / ranks / grades / degrees / network / frame).

66. Hyponymy (hyperonym / hyponym / co-hyponyms).

67. Synonymy: a) type of synonymy (absolute / ideographic / stylistic / mixed); b) correspondence of synonyms (types of connotations).

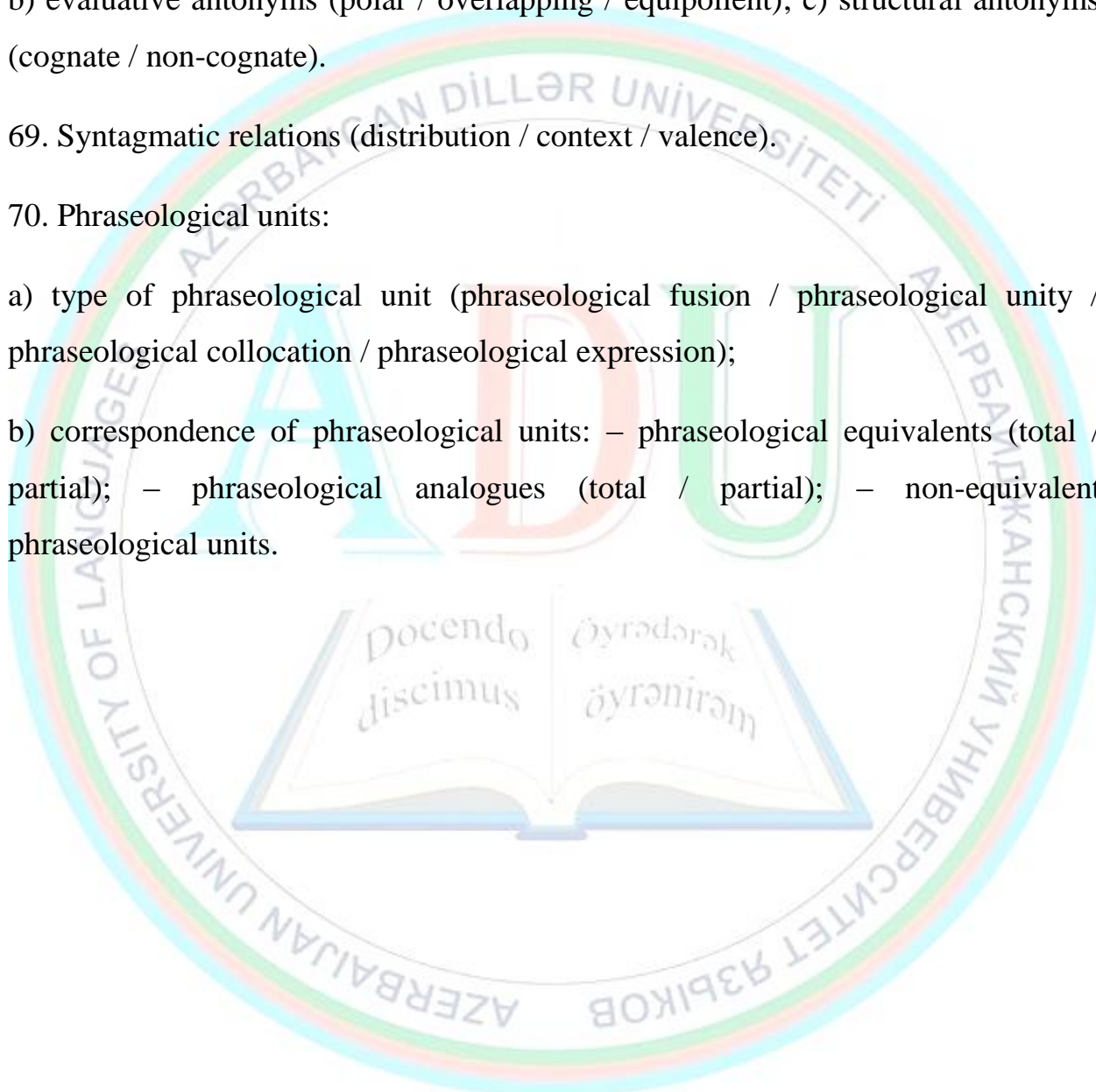
68. Antonymy: a) type of antonymy (contrary / vector / contradictory / converse); b) evaluative antonyms (polar / overlapping / equipollent); c) structural antonyms (cognate / non-cognate).

69. Syntagmatic relations (distribution / context / valence).

70. Phraseological units:

a) type of phraseological unit (phraseological fusion / phraseological unity / phraseological collocation / phraseological expression);

b) correspondence of phraseological units: – phraseological equivalents (total / partial); – phraseological analogues (total / partial); – non-equivalent phraseological units.



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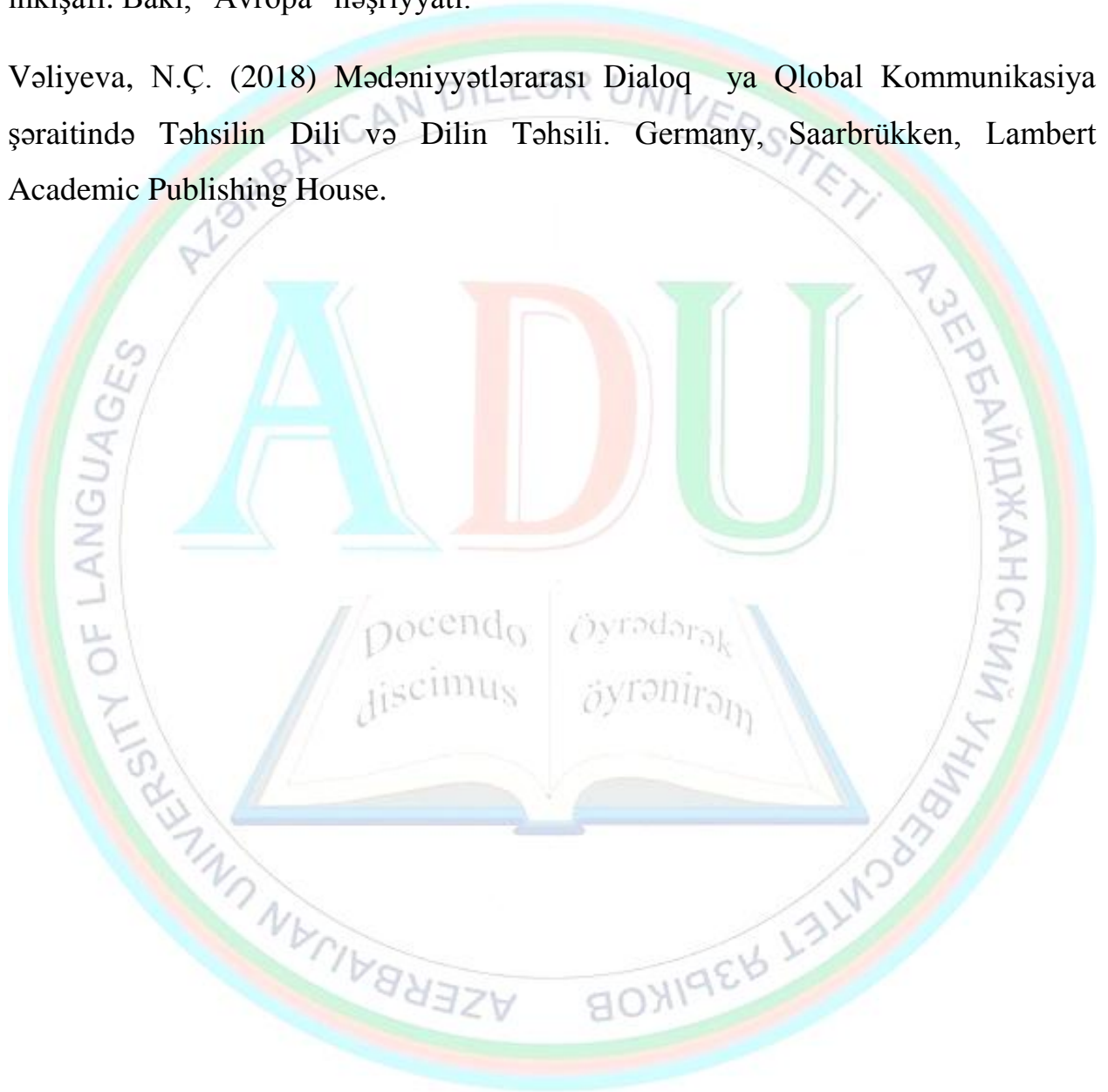
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