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ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY

Навчальний посібник

Рекомендовано вченою радою Українського державного університету залізничного транспорту як навчальний посібник
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Навчальний посібник «English Lexicology» для аудиторної та самостійної роботи здобувачів вищої освіти першого (бакалаврського) рівня денної форми навчання підготовлений відповідно до робочої програми «Лексикологія англійскої мови» та є базовою складовою навчально-методичного комплексу дисципліни.

Навчальний посібник містить теоретичний матеріал, який розкриває предмет та задачі курсу, цілі вивчення дисципліни та зв'язок з іншими навчальними дисциплінами. Послідовно розглядаються етимологічний склад, стилістичні особливості лексичних одиниць англійської мови, загальні принципи словотворення, особливості вживання фразеологічних одиниць, використання синонімів та антонімів та ін. Після кожної теми надані питання для самоперевірки.

Навчальний посібник може бути використаний для підготовки студентів до практичних занять з дисципліни «Лексикологія англійської мови» та для підготовки до здачі модульних та семестрових контрольних заходів. Навчальний посібник складається з дев'яти тем, тестів за темами та списку літератури.

Рекомендується для здобувачів вищої освіти першого (бакалаврського) рівня спеціальності 035 «Філологія» денної форми навчання.

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INTRODUCTION

The book is intended for bachelor students taking the University course of English Lexicology. The aim of the course is to teach students to be word-conscious, to increase their awareness of words and confidence with word usage. Nine parts covering the course of English Lexicology are concerned with a vast range of issues from the fundamentals of the word theory to the main principles of classifying the vocabulary, from etymology to lexicography.

The book may also be of interest to all readers who would like to gain some information about the vocabulary resources of Modern English (for example, about synonyms and antonyms), about the stylistic peculiarities of English vocabulary, about the complex nature of the word's meaning, about English idioms, about the changes of the English vocabulary in the course of its historical development. A good command of English implies the conscious approach to the language's resources. Hence, understanding of the inner mechanisms which make the huge language system work will be of great benefit for both future philologists and interested laymen.

LEXICOLOGY AS A BRANCH OF LINGUISTICS

The limits of my language are the limits of my mind.
All I know is what I have words for.
Ludwig Wittgenstein

1. The object and aims of Lexicology and its basic notions.
2. Syntagmatic / paradigmatic levels of study. Types of Lexicology.
3. Links of Lexicology with other branches of Linguistics: phonetics, grammar, stylistics, history of the language, sociolinguistics.
4. The main lexical units. Word as a basic unit of the language. External and internal structure of a word. The problem of formal unity and semantic unity of a word.

Lexicology (of Greek origin: *lexis* 'word' + *logos* 'learning') is one of the branches of linguistics which studies the word, its morphemic structure, history and meaning. Lexical study involves such diverse areas as the properties of words, word-structure and word formation, principles underlying the classification of vocabulary units into various groupings, the compilation of dictionaries, and many others.

The basic task of Lexicology is to study, describe and systematize vocabulary in respect to its origin, development and current use. To be more exact, lexicology studies *words, word-forming morphemes* and *word groups or phraseological units*, which are the main units of the vocabulary.

Word *is the basic unit of a language; it is an association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment.* The word, therefore, is simultaneously a semantic, grammatical and phonological unit.

Vocabulary is a system, formed by the total stock of words and word equivalents (phraseological units) where each word is a small unit within a vast, efficient and perfectly balanced system. The lexical system of every language contains productive elements typical of this particular period, others that are archaic and are dropping out of usage, and, finally, some new phenomena, neologisms. The vocabulary of a

language is an adaptive system constantly adjusting itself to the changing requirements and conditions of human communications and cultural surroundings.

The elements of lexical system are characterized by their syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships. **Syntagmatic** relations define the meaning of the word when it is used in combination with neighbouring words in the flow of speech. A word enters into syntagmatic (linear) combinatorial relationships with other lexical units, that can form its context, serving to identify and distinguish its meaning. Using syntagmatic analysis we analyse syntax or surface structure – one element selects the other element either to precede or to follow it (e.g., the definite article selects a noun and not a verb). For example, the verb *to get* acquires different meaning in different contexts: *He got a letter. He got tired. He got to London. He could not get the piano through the door.*

Paradigmatic relations are observed in the system of language. On the *paradigmatic level*, the word is studied in its relationships with other words of the vocabulary system. So, a word may be studied in comparison with other words of similar meaning (e. g. *work*, n. – *labour*, n.; *to refuse*, v. – *to reject*, v. – *to decline*, v.) or of opposite meaning (e. g. *busy*, adj. – *idle,* adj.; *to accept*, v. – *to reject*, v.) or of different stylistic characteristics (e. g. *man*, n. – *chap,* n. – *bloke*, n. – *guy*, n.). Consequently, the main problems of paradigmatic studies are, for instance, synonymy, antonymy, and functional styles.
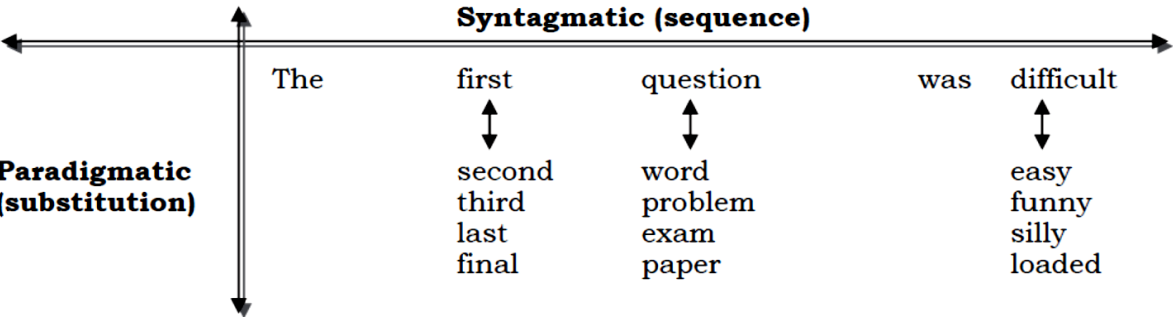
Fig. 1. *Syntagmatic vs paradigmatic level*

There are two principal approaches in linguistic science to the study of language material, namely the **synchronic** and the **diachronic** approach. The synchronic approach is concerned with the vocabulary of a language as it exists at a given time. While the diachronic approach

deals with the changes and the development of vocabulary in the course of time: the origin of English vocabulary units, their change and development, the linguistic and extralinguistic factors modifying their structure, meaning and usage within the history of the English language. Consequently, there are two types of Lexicology – Historical and Descriptive.

Lexicology exists in different forms, each of which has its own object of investigation and its own methods of linguistic research. The distinction is made, first and foremost, between General Lexicology and Special Lexicology.

General Lexicology is part of General Linguistics; it is concerned with the general study of the vocabulary, irrespective of the specific feature of any particular language and it studies linguistic phenomena and properties common to all languages.

Special Lexicology is the lexicology of a particular language (e. g. English, Ukrainian, etc.), i. e. the study and description of its vocabulary and vocabulary units, primarily words as the main units of language. And every Special Lexicology is based on the principles worked out by General Lexicology. Special lexicology may be historical and descriptive.

Historical Lexicology or **Etymology** (Greek *etumon* 'primary or basic word, original form of a word') studies the evolution of the vocabulary and its elements: origin, change, development, linguistic and extralinguistic factors modifying their structure, meaning and usage.

Descriptive Lexicology deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development. A Course in Modern English Lexicology is therefore a course in Special Descriptive Lexicology, its object of study being the English vocabulary as it exists at the present time.

Contrastive and **Comparative Lexicology** work out the theoretical basis on which the vocabularies of different languages can be compared and described. One can hardly overestimate the importance of Contrastive Lexicology as well as of Comparative Linguistics in general for the purpose of classroom teaching of foreign languages. Of primary importance in this respect is the comparison of the foreign language with the mother tongue.

Vocabulary studies include such aspects of research as etymology, semasiology and onomasiology. **Etymology** is the branch of linguistics that studies the origin of the word. **Semasiology** is the branch of linguistics which studies word meaning and its changes. **Onomasiology** is the study of the principles and regularities of the signification of things and notions by words of a given language. **Phraseology** is the branch of lexicology specializing in word groups which are characterized by stability of structure and transferred meaning. **Terminology** studies different sides of terms and lexicology gives methods and the scientific apparatus for that. **Lexicography** is the science and practice of compiling dictionaries; lexicology works out a serious scientific foundation for it. **Corpus semantics** studies how words are used in text and discourse and uses observations of use as evidence of meaning.

As a linguistic science, lexicology is inseparably interlinked with other branches of linguistics because every word presents a unity of semantic, phonetic and grammatical elements. That's why it may be studied by Phonetics, Grammar, Stylistics, General Linguistics, the History of the Language, Sociolinguistics, Pragmalinguistics and some others.

Lexicology and Phonetics

Words consist of phonemes which have no meaning of their own, but serve to distinguish between meanings. The meaning of words is conditioned by certain features, such as the position of stress: *'import* is recognised as a noun and distinguished from the verb *im'port* due to the position of stress, as well as *'object, n. – ob'ject, v.* Stress also distinguishes compounds from otherwise homonymous word-groups: *'blackbird – 'black 'bird.*

Lexicology and Grammar

Interaction between vocabulary and grammar is evident both in the sphere of morphology and in syntax. Plural forms, for example, can serve to form special lexical meaning, e. g. *damage (injury) – damages (compensation), arm (human upper limb) – arms (weapon).* Two plurals

of word may result in different meanings: e. g. *brother – brothers, brethren; cloth – cloths, clothes.*

Lexicalisation of numeric meaning is rather common: e. g. *ice-cream – two ice-creams, Picasso – two Picassos, two – a two.* Some prefixes make intransitive verbs transitive: e. g. *shine – outshine, run – outrun, little – belittle.*

Interactions between vocabulary and grammar have their own peculiarities in syntax. Lexical meaning of the word depends on its environment: e. g. *He ran quickly. – He ran the factory with efficiency. He breathed freely. – He breathed a new life into our activities.*

Instances are not few when the syntactic position of the word does not only change its function but its lexical meaning as well: e. g. *library school – school library, town market – market town.*

Lexicology and Stylistics

Stylistics, although from a different angle, studies many problems treated in lexicology. These are the problems of meaning, connotations, synonymy, functional differentiation of vocabulary according to the sphere of communication (literary, colloquial, slang), and some other issues.

Lexicology and Sociolinguistics

In contrast to phonology, morphology and syntax, lexicology is a sociolinguistic discipline, as it is based on establishing interrelations between the language, social life and conventions of language use. Language is the reality of thought, and thought develops with the development of society. Every new phenomenon in human society finds a reflection in vocabulary. The new language of cyberspace ('cyber vocabulary') can be a very good example of the process. In the 1980s and 90s a wide range of cybercompounds relating to the use of the Internet and virtual reality appeared in the language: *cyberphobia, cyberpunk, cyberspace, cyberlawyer, cyberworld, cybercop, cyber-community, cybernaut, cybrarian.* Many words discussing technology are coined with *byte, net, mega, web* and *digit*: *digitized cyberads, gigabyte, megalomania.*

Lexicology is also linked with the History of the Language since the latter investigates the changes and the development of the vocabulary of the language.

Types of Lexical Units

The term "unit" means one of the elements into which a whole may be divided or analysed and which possesses the basic properties of this whole. The units of a vocabulary or lexical units are two-facet elements possessing form and meaning. The basic unit forming the bulk of the vocabulary is **the word**. Other units are **morphemes** that is parts of words, into which words may be analysed, and **set expressions** or groups of words into which words may be combined.

Words are the central elements of language system. They are the biggest units of morphology and the smallest units of syntax and at the same time it is the main object of lexicological study.

Morphemes are also meaningful units but they cannot be used independently, they are always parts of words whereas words can be used as a complete utterance (e. g., *Listen*!). Morphemes cannot be divided into smaller meaningful units and are functioning in speech only as constituent parts of words.

Set expression is a group of words which exists in the language as a ready-made unit, has the unity of meaning which is not a mere sum total of the meanings of the elements but a specialized meaning of the whole, the unity of syntactical function: e. g. the word-group '*as loose as a goose*' means 'clumsy' and is used in a sentence as a predicative '*He is as loose as a goose*'.

The definition of a word is one of the most complicated in linguistics because the word functions on the different levels of language. That's why the word has been defined semantically, syntactically, phonologically and by combining various approaches.

The word is a unity of a given group of sounds (sometimes one sound) with a given meaning in a given grammatical form. The word, viewed structurally, possesses several characteristics. Every word has external and internal structures. **The external structure** of the word is, in fact, its morphological structure. For example, in the word *post-impressionists* the following morphemes can be distinguished: the prefixes *post-*, *im-*, the root *press*, the noun-forming

suffixes *-ion, -ist*, and the grammatical suffix of plurality *-s*. All these morphemes constitute the external structure of the word *post-impressionists*.

The internal structure of the word, or its meaning, is the word's main aspect. The area of lexicology specializing in the studies of the word meaning is called **Semantics**. It is through this meaning that a word refers to a certain element of the objective reality and serves as the name (sign) of that element.

Another structural aspect of the word is its **unity.** The word possesses both **external** (formal) and **semantic** unity. Formal unity of the word is sometimes interpreted as 'indivisibility'. The formal unity of a word can be best illustrated by comparing a word and a word group comprising identical constituents. The word *blackbird,* which is characterized by unity, possesses a single grammatical framing: *blackbird/s*. The first constituent *black* is not subject to any grammatical changes. In the word-group *a black bird* each constituent can acquire grammatical forms of its own: *the blackest bird I've ever seen*. Other words can be inserted between the components (*a black night bird)* which is impossible so far as the word is concerned as it would violate its unity.

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

Summerizing different aspects of the word the following definition may be given. **The word is a speech unit used for the purposes of human communication, materially represented by a group of sounds, possessing a meaning, capable of grammatical employment and characterized by formal and semantic unity.** All these criteria are necessary because they create a basis for the oppositions between the word and the phrase, the word and the phoneme and the morpheme; their common feature is that they are all units of the language, their difference lies in the fact that the phoneme is not significant, and a morpheme cannot be used as a complete utterance.

QUESTIONS FOR REVISION

1. What does Lexicology study? 2. What are the basic lexical units? Give their definitions. 3. How would you define the difference between General Lexicology and Special Lexicology? 4. What branch of linguistics studies how and why things and notions are signified by words of a given language? 5. Give examples demonstrating the links between Lexicology and Phonetics, Lexicology and Grammar, Lexicology and Stylistics, Lexicology and History of the language. 6. Give examples of paradigmatic and syntagmatic study of words. 7. What are the structural aspects of the word? 8. What is the external structure of the word *irresistible?* What is the internal structure of this word? 9. What is understood by formal unity of a word? 10. What is understood by the semantic unity of a word? Which of the following possesses semantic unity – *a bluebell* or *a blue bell*. 11. Give a brief account of the main characteristics of a word.

ETYMOLOGY OF MODERN ENGLISH VOCABULARY

> *Philologists who chase*
> *A panting syllable through time and space,*
> *Start it at home, and hunt it in the dark,*
> *To Gaul, to Greece, and into Noah's Ark.*
> *William Cowper*

1. The definition of Etymology.
2. Words of native origin and their characteristics.
3. Borrowings. Causes and ways of borrowings. The source and the origin of borrowing. Assimilation of borrowings: phonetical, grammatical and lexical. Classification of borrowings according to borrowed aspect, degree of assimilation and language from which the word was borrowed.
4. Etymological doublets and international words.

The branch of lexicology which studies the origin of words and their genetic ties with words in the same and other languages is called **etymology.**

English is generally regarded as the richest of the world's languages with exceptionally large vocabulary and ability to borrow and accept words. English vocabulary can be subdivided into two main parts: **the native stock of words**, which is the historical basis of the English vocabulary known from the earliest available manuscripts of the Old English period, and **the borrowed strata** – words taken over from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling, or meaning according to the standards of the English language.

English belongs to the group of Germanic languages, i. e. English goes back to the same proto-language that is also the 'mother' of Dutch, Low German, High German, Norwegian, Danish, Swedish, Icelandic. The group of Germanic languages, in turn, belongs to a large family of Indo-European languages, like the Romanic languages (e. g. Portuguese, Spanish, French, Italian) and their 'mother' Latin, the Celtic languages (e. g. Welsh, Irish, Scottish Gaelic), the Balto-Slavic

languages (e. g. Polish, Czech, Croatian, Russian, Lithuanian) and others.

The date of the birth of English is normally given as 449, when the three Germanic tribes of the Angles, Saxons and Jutes are said to have settled over from the continental areas by the Northern Sea to the British Isles. The first written records of English can be dated back to the 7th century. The period from the mid-5th century to around 1100 is referred to as **Old English**, the period from 1100 to around 1500 as **Middle English**, the period from 1500 to around 1750 as **Early Modern English** and the period thereafter as **Modern English**.

The English vocabulary has been enriched throughout its history by borrowings from foreign languages; this process has been going on for more than 1,000 years. More than two thirds of the English vocabulary (up to 75 %) is borrowings. Mostly they are words of Romanic origin (Latin and French) and Germanic origin (mainly Scandinavian). It is worth mentioning some important landmarks of British history that influenced the formation of the language:

• **Celtic tribes** inhabiting Britain: Britons and Gaels; languages: Welsh, Cornish (now extinct), Irish, Scots, Manx;

• **Roman conquest**: 55–54 BC–AD 43 – permanent conquest of Britain under the emperor Claudius;

• **Anglo-Saxon conquest**: mid-5th c. – the invasion of Germanic tribes (Angles, Saxons and Jutes); the start of the history of the English language;

• **Scandinavian conquest** (the 8th–the 11th c.);

• **Norman conquest**: 1066;

• **Renaissance period** (Greek, Italian, Spanish, French (Parisian borrowings).

When the Normans crossed over from France most English people spoke Old English, or Anglo-Saxon – a language of about 30,000 words; the Normans spoke the mixture of French and Latin. It took about three centuries for the languages to blend into one. Latin and Greek have been the source of vocabulary since the 16th century. There are practically no limits to the kinds of words that are borrowed; words are employed as symbols for every part of culture. In English the material-culture word *rouge* was borrowed from French, a social culture word *republic* from Latin, and a religious culture word *baptize*

from Greek. Not only words but also word-building affixes were borrowed into English.

Table 1

Etymological structure of English vocabulary

NATIVE ELEMENT	BORROWED ELEMENT
I. Indo-European **II**. Germanic **III. English Proper** (no earlier than 5th c. AD)	**I. Celtic** (5th – 6th c. AD) **II. Latin** 1st group: 1st c. BC 2nd group: 7th c. AD 3rd group: Renaissance period **III. Scandinavian** (8th – 11th c. AD) **IV. French** 1. Norman borrowings: 11th – 13th c. AD 2. Parisian borrowings (Renaissance) **V. Greek** (Renaissance) **VI. Italian** (Renaissance and later) **VII**. Spanish (Renaissance and later) **VIII**.German **IX. Indian** **X**. **Russian** and some other groups

Native Words

Despite the great number of borrowed words native words are still at the core of the language. The native word-stock in MnE incorporates words which were brought to Britain in the 5th century by the Germans. Most native words are short, often monosyllabic. Those, which are not, for the most part have stress on the first syllable, e. g. *father, brother, winter.* Almost all words of Anglo-Saxon origin belong to very important semantic groups. Native words can be sub-divided into Indo-European and Germanic words.

Indo-European Words

Since English belongs to the Germanic branch of the Indo-European group of languages, these words form the oldest layer and the basic word-stock of all Indo-European languages. The words belonging

to this layer have cognates in the vocabularies of different Indo-European languages. They can be divided into definite semantic groups expressing:

- family relations: *father, mother, son, daughter, brother, wife;*
- phenomena of nature: *sun, moon, star, wind, water, hill, stone;*
- parts of the body: *foot, eye, ear, nose, tongue, tooth, heart, lip;*
- trees, birds, animals: *tree, birch, cow, wolf, cat, goose, wolf, corn;*
- basic actions: *come, know, sit, work, bear, do, be, stand;*
- physical qualities: *right, quick, glad, sad, red, white, hard, new;*
- numerals from one to one hundred: *one, two, ten, twenty, eighty, hundred;*
- pronouns (personal, demonstrative, interrogative): *I, you, he, my, that, who* (but! *they* is a Scandinavian borrowing).

Germanic Words

The Germanic stock includes words common for German, Dutch, Norwegian, and Icelandic. They constitute a very large layer of the vocabulary:

- parts of the body: *head, arm, finger;*
- periods of time: *summer, winter, time, week;*
- objects of nature: *storm, rain, flood, ground, sea, earth;*
- materials and artifacts: *bridge, house, shop, coal, iron, lead, cloth;*
- different garments: *hat, shirt, shoe;*
- animals, birds, plants: *sheep, horse, fox, crow, oak, grass;*
- verbs: *buy, drink, find, forget, go, have, live, make;*
- pronouns: *all, each, self, such;*
- adverbs: *again, forward, near;*
- prepositions: *after, at, by, over, under, from, for*.

Characteristic Features of the Native Vocabulary

1. The words are monosyllabic: *sun, wood, break.*
2. The words possess great stability.
3. They are polysemantic: e. g. *hand*
4. Great word-building power (the stem *-head* can be found in derived and compound words: *headache, headless, headline, headquarters, headmaster).*

5. They are characterized by high frequency and, hence, are vitally important.

6. Native words are usually found in set-expressions, e. g. *to talk one's head off, to have one's head in the clouds, head over heels*.

7. Verbs with post-positions are usually native: *to look for, to look after*.

8. They are characterised by a wide range of lexical and grammatical valency.

9. If 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.

10. Words of the native stock are stylistically neutral.

Borrowed Words

A borrowing (a loan word) is a word taken over from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language. Borrowing may be *direct* or *indirect* (through another language). Most of such words are the objects of trade and culture. The word *pepper*, for instance, came first from some eastern language into Greek, thence into Latin and thence into English; *elephant* was first Egyptian, then Greek, Latin, French, and finally English; *camel* was originally Semitic, and this too passed through Greek and Latin before reaching English. Many Greek words came into English through Latin and many Latin words through French. So when analysing borrowed words one must distinguish between the two terms – **source of borrowing** and **origin of borrowing**. The term "source of borrowing" is applied to the language from which the loan word was taken. It should be distinguished from the term "origin of borrowing" which refers to the language to which the word may be traced:

e. g. *table*: source of borrowing – French, origin of borrowing – Latin;
elephant: source of borrowing – French, origin – Egypt;
*pape*r: source of borrowing – Fr. *Papier*, origin – Lat. *papyrus* < Gr. *Papyrus*.

Causes of Borrowing

The great number of borrowings in English is due to the linguistic and extralinguistic causes. **Extra-linguistic** causes of borrowings are political, economic and cultural relationship between nations. English

history is very rich in different types of contacts with other countries, that is why it is very rich in borrowings. The Roman invasion, the introduction of Christianity, the Danish and Norman conquests, the development of British colonialism and imperialism caused important changes in the vocabulary. The number and character of borrowed words tell us of the relations between the peoples, the level of their culture, etc. The majority of these borrowings is fully assimilated in English in their pronunciation, grammar, spelling and can be hardly distinguished from native words.

Purely **linguistic** causes for borrowings are still open to investigation. Some of them are: need of new words for new phenomena, need of naming peculiar phenomena of other countries, a tendency to accurate speech, emotional expressiveness, need of expressing some shades of meaning, etc.

Borrowings enter the language in two ways: through **oral** linguistic intercourse and through **written** speech (by indirect contact through books, etc.). Oral borrowings are assimilated more completely and more rapidly than literary borrowings.

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 concepts denoted by the words *pagoda* (Chinese), *kangaroo*

(Australian) are evidently allien to the British culture and, thus, the words are borrowings.

Some early borrowings have become so thoroughly assimilated that they are unrecognisable as adoptions: *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 [S], the word is a late French borrowing (chic); if it is sounded as [k] the word came from the Greek language (archaic): *school*; if it is pronounced as [C] it is either an early borrowing or a word of the Anglo-Saxon origin (cheese).

Assimilation

It is the process of changing of the adopted word. Lexical borrowings, however numerous, do not radically change the structure of the borrowing language. Rather, the borrowed words, themselves change in accordance with the structural peculiarities of the language they are brought into. Thus, through phonetic, spelling and morphological changes borrowed words become similar to native words, in other words are assimilated: e. g. *portus (Lat.) – port exaggerare (Fr.) – exaggerate.*

Phonetical assimilation includes changes in the sounds, form, stress of the loan words: *e. g. waltz* (German), *psychology* (Greek), *cafe* (French).

Grammatical assimilation comprises the change of grammatical categories and paradigms by analogy of other English words: e. g. *sputniks, vacuum – vacua/vacuums* (Latin)

Lexical assimilation involves the changes in the semantic structure of loan words and the formation of derivatives from loan words (e. g. *cargo – load*).

CLASSIFICATION OF BORROWINGS

Borrowings can be classified according to different criteria:
- aspect which is borrowed
- degree of assimilation
- language from which the word was borrowed.

Classification of Borrowings according to the Borrowed Aspect

The borrowed stock of words may be classified according to the nature of the borrowing as **borrowings proper** or **phonetic borrowings**, **translation loans, semantic loans and morphemic borrowings.**

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

Translation loans or calques are words and expressions formed from the elements existing in the English language but according to the patterns of the source language: e. g. *the moment of truth* (from Sp. *el momento de la verdad*); *mother-tongue* (from Lat. *lingua materna*), *wall newspaper* (from Russian); *by heart* (from Fr. *par coeur*). Most of the given words are international in character, e.g., *Sword of Damocles* – дамоклів меч, *Heel of Achilles* – ахіллесова п'ята. Translation loans are word-for-word (or morpheme-for-morpheme) translations of some foreign words or expressions. In such cases the notion is borrowed from a foreign language but it is expressed by native lexical units, *to take the bull by the horns* (Latin), *fair sex* (French), *living space* (German) etc. Some translation loans appeared in English from Latin already in the Old English period, e. g. *Sunday* (solis dies). There are translation loans from the languages of Indians, such as: *pipe of peace*, *pale-faced*, from German *masterpiece, homesickness, superman.*

A semantic loan is the borrowing of a new meaning for a word already existing in the English language. It can happen two relative languages have common words with different meanings, e. g. there are semantic borrowings between Scandinavian and English, such as the meaning 'to live' for the word *to dwell* which in Old English had the

meaning 'to wander'. Or else the meaning 'дар, подарунок' for the word *gift* which in Old English had the meaning 'викуп за дружину'.

Semantic borrowing can appear when an English word was borrowed into some other language, developed there a new meaning and this new meaning was borrowed back into English: e. g. the the English word *pioneer* which meant 'explorer', was borrowed back from the Russian language with a new meaning 'a member of the Young Pioneers' Organization'.

Morphemic borrowings are borrowings of affixes which occur in the language when many words with identical affixes are borrowed from one language into another, so that the morphemic structure of borrowed words becomes recognizable. For example, there are a lot of Romanic affixes in the English word-building system, that is why there are a lot of hybrid words in English with different morphemes of different origin, e. g. *goddess, beautiful* etc.

Classification of Borrowings According to the Degree of Assimilation

The assimilation of borrowings depends on the following factors:

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

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

• how often the borrowing is used in the language: the greater the frequency of its usage, the quicker it is assimilated; and

• how long the word lives in the language: the longer it lives, the more assimilated it is.

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

Completely assimilated borrowings are not felt as foreign words in the language, e. g. the French word *sport* and the native word *start*. Completely assimilated loan words are found in all layers of old borrowings, e. g. *cheese, street, wall, husband, gate, root, call, die, ill, wrong, chair, face, animal, article.*

They follow all morphological, phonetical and orthographic standards. Being very frequent and stylistically neutral, they may occur as dominant words in synonymic groups. They are active in word-

formation; such are, for instance, the French suffixes *-age, -ance*. Completely assimilated verbs belong to regular verbs, e. g. *correct – corrected*. Completely assimilated nouns form their plural by means of *-s* inflexion, e. g. *gate – gates*. In completely assimilated French words the stress has been shifted from the last syllable to the last but one.

A borrowed word does not bring all its meanings into the borrowing language, if it is polysemantic, e. g. the Russian borrowing *sputnik* is used in English only in one of its meanings.

Partly assimilated borrowings are subdivided into several groups:

- **non-assimilated semantically**, because they denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from the language of which they were borrowed: e. g. foreign clothing (*sombrero, kimono, sari),* foreign titles and professions (*shah, radjah, sheik),* foreign food and drink (*sherbet, kvas, vodka)*, units of foreign currency (*krone, shekel, hryvna).*

- **non-assimilated grammatically**, e. g. nouns borrowed from Latin and Greek retain their plural forms (*phenomenon – phenomena, datum – data, genius – geni*).

- **non-assimilated phonetically**. Here belong words with the initial sounds [v] and [z], e. g. *voice, zero*. In native words these voiced consonants are used only in the intervocal position as allophones of sounds [f] and [s] (*loss – lose, life – live*). Some Scandinavian borrowings have consonants and combinations of consonants which were not palatalized, e. g. [sk] in the words: *sky, skate, ski*, etc (in native words we have the palatalized sounds denoted by the digraph 'sh', e. g. *shirt*), sounds [k] and [g] before front vowels are not palatalized e. g. *girl, get, give, kid, kill, kettle*.

Some French borrowings have retained their stress on the last syllable, (*police, cartoon*) or special combinations of sounds (e. g. [Ʒ] *camouflage, bourgeois;* [wa:] *memoir, boulevard*).

- **partly assimilated graphically**, e. g. in Greak borrowings 'y' can be spelled in the middle of the word (*symbol, synonym*), 'ph' denotes the sound [f] (*phoneme, morpheme*), 'ch' [k] (*chemistry, chaos*), 'ps' [s] (*psychology*).

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

French borrowings which came into English after 1650 retain their spelling, e. g. consonants *p, t, s* are not pronounced at the end of the

word *(buffet, coup, debris)*. Specifically French combination of letters '*eau*' [ou] can be found in the borrowings: *beau, chateau, troussaeu.* Some digraphs and letters retain their French pronunciation: '*ch*' is pronounced as [ʃ] *(chic, parachute)*; '*qu*' as [k] *(bouquet)*; '*ou*' as [u:] *(rouge)*; *i* as [i:] *(chic, machine)*; *g* is as [ʒ] *(rouge)*.

Modern German borrowings also have some peculiarities in their spelling. Common nouns are spelled with a capital letter e. g. *Autobahn, Lebensraum.* Some vowels, digraphs and consonants retain their German pronunciation, e. g. '*a*' is pronounced as [a:] *(Dictat;* '*u*' as [u:] *(Kuchen)*; '*au*' as [au] *(Hausfrau)*; '*ei*' as [ai] *(Reich);* '*s*' before a vowel is pronounced as [z] *(Sitskrieg)*, '*v*' as [f] *(Volkswagen),* '*w*' as [v], '*ch*' as [h] *(Kuchen)*.

Non-assimilated borrowings (barbarisms) (from Lat. – *barbarus* –strange, foreign) are words from other languages used by the English people in conversation and in writing but not assimilated in any way (*addio, ciao, par excellence, a priori, ad hoc, tete-a-tete*, *dolce vita*, *duende*, *an homme, a femme*, *gonzo*. Such words and phrases may be printed in italics, or in inverted commas.

Very often they have corresponding English equivalents: e. g. *amour propre (*self-esteem*), chic* (stylish*), belles letters* (fiction), *homo sapience* (the human race*), terra incognita* (unknown territory, an unexplored country or field of knowledge*), vox populi* (voice of people*), vis-a-vis* (literally, face to face*).

Barbarisms may represent the words of famous people (real and fictional) that are taken without any changes from the language of the original: e. g. *Eureka!* (Greek) – I have found! (an exclamation attributed to Archimedes on discovering a method for determining the purity of gold); *Veni, vidi, vici.* (Latin) – I came, I saw, I conquered (Julius Caesar's report of his victory in 47 BC)

Classification of Borrowings According to the Language from Which the Word Was Borrowed

As a matter of fact, three languages contributed a great number of words to the English word-stock, they are: Greek, Latin and French. Together they account for much greater number of borrowings than all other languages.

Greek Borrowings

Many Greek words introduced into English came in chiefly through the medium of Latin or French: *athlete, acrobat, elastic, magic, rhythm.* They were spelt and pronounced not as in Greek but as the Romans spelt and pronounced them. Later they were further assimilated in English. 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'. Many Greek words were changed beyond recognition when the Latin 'c' changed its pronunciation before 'e', 'i', 'y': *kuriakon – church, kyklos – cycle*.

Greek words borrowed during the period of Renaissance are mostly bookish borrowings which came as terms for various fields of science. 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*). Medicine has taken a lot from Greek as well: an inflammatory disease ends in *–itis* (*bronchitis, peritonitis),* a surgical removal ends in *–ectomy (hysterectomy, vasectomy),* the medical care of particular groups ends in *–iatrics (geriatrics, paediatrics).* Greek borrowings are recognised by their specific spelling *(ch* – character, *ph* – philosophy, *pn* – pneumonia, *rh* – rhetoric, *ist* – socialist, *ics* – mathematics, *osis* – neurosis).

Scientific and technical terms of Greek origin are nearly all international: *dialect, etymology, homonym, rhythm, tragedy; category; psychoanalysis.* Quite a number of proper names are also Greek in origin: *Alexander* (defender of people), *Peter* (*petra* 'rock'), *Margaret, Sophia, Irene.* Greek possesses an unlimited power of forming compound words: e. g. 'autos' (self): *autograph, autobiography, autocracy;* 'ge/geo' (earth): *geography, geopolitics, geology, geomagnetic;* 'homo' (the same): *homograph, homogeneous, homosexual*; 'tele' (at a distance): *telegraph, telephone, television, telemarketing.*

Words like *electroencephalogram, hydrophone, telespectroscope, multimedia, globalization, privatization* have been built from Latin and Greek elements to deal with relatively recent technological innovations.

Latin Borrowings

Latin is considered one of the principal languages that affected the vocabulary of English. Scandinavian words were borrowed most freely between the ninth century and the twelfth, French words from twelfth to fourteenth, but Latin words have been making their way into English throughout almost the whole period of its history, first into the spoken language, later into written English (through religion, literature and science).

Approximately a quarter of the Latin vocabulary has been taken over by English, among them

- military terms: *wall, street*;
- trade terms: *pound, inch*;
- containers: *cup, dish*;
- food: *butter, cheese*;
- words connected with building: *chalk, pitch;*
- names of towns: *Manchester, Lancaster* (*caster* – 'camp');
- clerical terms: *dean, cross, alter, abbot, church, devil, priest, anthem, school*.

Early Latin Loans. The Germanic people, of which the Angles and Saxons formed part, had been in contact with Roman civilization and had adopted many Latin words denoting objects of this civilization long before the invasion of Angles, Saxons and Jutes into Britain: e. g. *pound* (Lat. pondo), *wine* (Lat. vinum), *candle* (Lat. candela), *cup* (Lat. cuppa), *dish* (Lat. discus), *kettle* (Lat. catellus), *pepper* (Lat. pipere). Military and trade terms, names of containers and food, words connected with buildings belong to the first period. These were concrete words that were adopted in purely oral manner, and that's why they were fully assimilated in the language functioning according to the laws of English, and without an etymological dictionary it is difficult to trace their origin. They are mostly monosyllabic and denote things of everyday importance while later borrowings that came through writing are mostly polysyllabic bookish words.

Later Latin Loans. The second great stratum of Latin borrowings came into English in the 6th-7th centuries when the people of England were converted to Christianity. Since Latin was the language of the church many Latin words denoting religious or clerical concepts came into English: *abbot, bishop, candle, mass, temple, rule* – a set of rules

for a monastery. 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.

Third Stratum of Latin Borrowings. Another great influx of Latin words came through French after the Norman Conquest. The greatest stream of Latin borrowings poured into the English vocabulary during the period of Renaissance. The loan words of this period are mainly of scientific character borrowed through writing: terms of philosophy, mathematics, physics (*fundamental, vacuum, diameter, radius, vacuum, equator, continental, peninsula*), terms of law and government (*alibi, veto*), terms of botany *(mallow, petal)*, topographical terms (*equator, tropical*).

Some of these Latin borrowings were partially assimilated grammatically. They have preserved their original plural inflexion (*phenomenon – phenomena, alumnus – alumni)* or two plural forms – the native and Latin: *antenna – antennae/antennas; aquarium – aquaria/aquariums*. There are also Latin borrowings not assimilated and functioning as barbarisms: *alma mater, alter ego*. During the third period Latin abbreviations were also borrowed: *i. e.* (*id est), e. g.* (*exempli gratia), etc*. (*et cetera*), *a.m.* (*ante meridiem).*

The latest stratum of loans from Latin began in the 16th century and continues up till now. The borrowings of this period include abstract and scientific words. Latin has been regularly used in anatomical description, in botany and zoology (*felis* 'cat'), in the law (*de facto, in flagranti delicto).*

French Borrowings

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 fall into several semantic groups as well:

• government terms: govern, administer, assembly, record, *parliament*;

• words connected with feudalism: *peasant, servant, control, money*;

- military terms: *assault, battle, soldier; army, siege, defense, lieutenant*;
- words connected with jury: *bill, defendant, plaintiff, judge, fine*; and
- words connected with art, fashion: *dance, pleasure, lace, beauty, figure, chic, prestige, cartoon, elite, avant-garde, entourage*.

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 15th century. Most lexicologists distinguish two periods of French influence: early loans (borrowed before 1250) and later loans (borrowed after this date).

The battle of Hastings fought on the 14th of October 1066 resulted in the defeat of the Anglo-Saxon Army and the victory of the Normans. During two centuries after the Norman Conquest all the important places in the government, at court and in the church were filled by French-speaking Normans. 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, being the language of the government and the aristocracy (*authority, crown, minister, state, duke, prince, army, battle, combat, defence, guard, peace, danger, escape, court, crime, judge, jury, abbey, altar, clergy, pray, preach, religion)*, while English was reduced almost to the condition of a peasant's dialect.

Nearly 150 years the two languages – Anglo-Saxon and Norman-French – coexisted without mingling. French borrowings of the period of the Norman Conquest have become part and parcel of the English vocabulary. Not only words but morphemes were borrowed as well forming word-hybrids, e. g.*: god – goddess* (*-ess* of French origin was added to the English stem), *short – shortage, bewilder – bewilderment, baker – bakery*. French stems can also form hybrids with the English affixes: *beauty – beautiful, trouble – troublesome*.

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).* French

words borrowed during the period of the 12th–16th 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.

Early French borrowings were fully assimilated; the opposite tendency is to be discerned in the later French borrowings. During the 17th century there was a change in the character of the borrowed words. From French, English has taken lots of words to do with cooking, the arts, and a more sophisticated life-style in general (*leisure, repertoire, resume, cartoon, critique, cuisine, chauffer, questionnaire, coup, bidet, detente*). Later French borrowings can be easily identified by their peculiar form and pronunciation: *garage, technique, machine.*

English has continued to borrow words from French right down to the present time and as a result over a third of modern English vocabulary derives from French.

Celtic Borrowings

Celtic borrowings in the English language are considered to be of the least importance. When in the 5th century the Anglo-Saxon tribes came to Britain they got in contact with the native Celtic population (which for about 4 centuries had been under the Roman rule). The language of the Celts did not influence Anglo-Saxon to any serious extent: there were not more than some 10-12 Celtic words, e. g. *brat* – a child, *crag* (rock), *dun* (greyish-brown), *down* (hill), *hog* – a domestic swine.

Celtic geographical names are common in all parts of Britain, especially in Scotland and Ireland: *Kent, Dover* (water), *Duncombe* (*cum* – canyon), *Llandaff* (*llan* – church), *Inverness* (*inver* – river mouth). The Celtic *avon* (river) appears in the names of streams not only in England, but also in France and Italy. Now the Celtic tongues exist in the form of Welsh, Irish, Gaelic and Highland Scotch and exercise their influence upon the local dialects.

Scandinavian Borrowings

The Scandinavian (Danish) invasion of England began in the 8th century when the Danes occupied the northern regions. In 878 the English King Alfred the Great was obliged to recognize Danish rule over a territory covering two-thirds of modern England. In 1017 the whole of England was conquered and the Danes reigned over it up to 1042. The effect of the Danish conquest was a contribution of many Scandinavian words to the English vocabulary: e. g. *crop, egg, sky, skirt, ill, low, old, wrong, ugly, die, drown, guess, give, take, scream, want*, leg*, hit, skin, same, both, though, they, them, their, kid, wish, craft*, pronouns *they, them, both*, *same* and the preposition *till.* Nine hundred words are of Scandinavian origin.

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 similarity between English and Scandinavian words was so great that many of them differed from one another only in endings. In distinguishing Scandinavian borrowings we may sometimes apply the criterion of sound, such as [sk] sound in Scandinavian words (*e.g. skull, skill, bask, scare, scream*) regularly changed to /s/ in native English words (*shape, share, shout, shriek*). 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*).

In many cases Scandinavian borrowings stood alongside their English equivalents. The Scandinavian *skirt* originally meant the same

as the English *shirt*. Other synonyms include: *wish* and *want, craft* and *skill, rear* and *raise.*

German Borrowings

Most German borrowings are terms. The oldest and constant influence of German language is in the sphere of mineralogy and geology (e.g. *bismuth, cobalt, nickel, quartz, shale, zink)*. Among German borrowings we also find words of everyday use: e.g. *kindergarten, poodle, plunder, rucksack, swindler, schnapps, schnitzel, sauerkraut, waltz, blitz, hamburger, seminar.*

Borrowings from Other Languages

The English vocabulary borrowed words from almost all the languages of the world. Over 120 languages are on record as sources of the English vocabulary.

Italian borrowings: *balcony, granite, traffic, gondola, macaroni; umbrella, alto, violin; piano, incognito, bravo, ballerina, motto, casino, mafia, opera;* **Spanish***: embargo, bravado, hammock, hurricane; siesta, patio, mosquito, comrade, tornado, banana, guitar, canyon, cargo, potato, Negro;* **Portuguese:** *verandah, cobra, marmalade, tank, port (wine), emu;* **Dutch**: *reef deck, skipper, yacht, dock, limp, pump, cruise, gin, cookie*; **Arabic:** *algebra, albatross, elixir, algorithm, fakir, giraffe, sultan, harem*; **Indian:** *bungalow, jungle, shampoo;* **Chinese**: *tea, bonze, kaolin;* **Japanese**: *geisha, kimono, mikado, samurai, bushido, karate, judo, tycoon;* **Turkish:** *yogurt, kiosk, tulip*; **Farsi**: *caravan, shawl, bazaar;* **Russian:** *balalaika, tundra, robot, Gulag, perestroika, babushka, sputnik.*

Etymological Doublets

It happens frequently in the course of the history of the English language that a word is borrowed more than once either from the same language or from different languages. English has a particularly large number of these repeated borrowings due to the fact that numerous borrowings from Latin in the Early Middle Ages were followed by even more plentiful adoptions from French, which developed from Latin, and further by continued contact between English and French. Even within the Middle English period a word could be borrowed twice from different dialects of French. As the result, we have two or three different

words with different spellings and meanings but historically they come back to one and the same word. Such words are called **etymological doublets**.

Etymological doublets have some semantic common component due to their common etymology: *canal – channel* (Latin – French), *skirt – shirt* (Sc. –English), *balsam – halm* (Greek – French), *legal – loyal* (from Lat – *lex* 'law'), *thesaurus – treasure* (from Gr. *the sauro* 'collection').

Three and even four variants may also occur: *cattle – chattel – capital; fancy – fantasy – phantasy; momentum – moment – movement; ward – wary – ware – aware* (from Old English *weard* – 'act of watching').

The main groups of etymological doublets are: Scandinavian – English, Latin – French, and native.

Latino-French doublets (Latin > English from Latin > English from French): *uncia > inch > ounce; moneta > mint > money; camera > camera > chamber*.

Franco-French doublets (doublets borrowed from different dialects of French: Norman > Paris): *canal > channel; captain > chieftain; catch > chaise*.

Scandinavian-English doublets: *skirt > shirt; scabby > shabby*.

Some etymological doublets developed from different dialects of English: e. g. *shade – shadow, lake – loch*.

There are also etymological doublets which were borrowed from the same language during different historical periods, such as French etymological doublets *gentle* – 'м'який, вдячний' and *genteel* – 'благородний'. From the French word *gallant* etymological doublets are: *´gallant* – 'хоробрий' and *ga´llant* – 'галантний, уважний'.

Sometimes etymological doublets are the result of borrowing different grammatical forms of the same word, e. g. the comparative degree of Latin *super* was *superior* which was borrowed into English with the meaning 'high in some quality or rank'. Thus, *superior* and *supreme* are etymological doublets. Etymological doublets may be a result of shortening, e. g. *defence – fence, history – story*. The following are the pairs of synonymous doublets: *balm – balsam; gaol – jail; renew – renovate; screech – scream*

International Words

International words are defined as words of identical origin which occur in several languages as the result of simultaneous borrowings, denote identical concepts and are similar in sound complex. International words may refer to different fields of life and human activities but they mostly express scientific, cultural, technical and political concepts. There are several such groups:

- names of sciences of Latin and Greek origin: *philosophy, mathematics, chemistry, biology, medicine, linguistics*;
- terms of arts: *music, theatre, drama, tragedy, comedy, artist*;
- political terms: *politics, policy, revolution, progress, democracy;*
- scientific words: *antibiotic, atomic, television, bionics, gene*;
- sports: *football, volley-ball, baseball, hockey, cricket, rugby, tennis, golf*; and
- foodstuff: *coffee, chocolate, banana, coca-cola, mango, avocado, grapefruit.*

The English language contributed a considerable number of international words to world languages. The bulk of international words in English are borrowed from Latin and Greek or made up from Greek and Latin element.

One more group of lexemes presents special interest for the learners of English. They are usually called **false friends** of the translator. Some words in English sound very much alike the Ukrainian words and can be interpreted in the same way as in the mother tongue. In reality such items do not coincide in all respects and may have different meanings or at least aspects of meaning. The learners of English mix up such lexemes as *physicist* and *physician* which denote different professions. The lexemes *control* in English and *контроль* in Ukrainian are not full equivalents. This group of lexical units should be distinguished from international words which illustrate the linguistic relations between more than two countries. For example, *opera, dealer* and many other words can be found in practically all the languages with the same meaning.

QUESTIONS FOR REVISION

1. Speak on the groups of native words and their specific features. 2. What is the earliest group of English borrowings? Date it. 3. What Celtic borrowings are there in English? Date them. 4. Which words were introduced into English vocabulary during the period of Christianization? 5. What are the characteristic features of Scandinavian borrowings? 6. When and how did England become a bilingual country? 7. What are the characteristic features of words borrowed into English during the Renaissance? 8. What suffixes and prefixes can help you to recognise words of Latin and French origin? 9. What factors does the degree of assimilation depend on? 10. What do we call proper borrowing and why? 11. How do you differentiate between translation and semantic loans? 12. Define etymological doublets and their main sources. 13. Comment on the classification of loan words according to the degree of assimilation. 14. What languages contributed most to the English language and why?

Part 3

WORD STRUCTURE AND WORD-FORMATION
IN MODERN ENGLISH

1. Morphological structure of the English word: the notion of morpheme; semantic classification of morphemes (roots, prefixes, suffixes, inflections); structural classification of morphemes (free morphemes, bound morphemes, semi-affixes).

2. Main Productive Means of Word-Formation:

- Affixation: classifications of prefixes and suffixes;
- Composition: classification of compound words; Semi-Affixation;
- Conversion;
- Shortening; Abbreviation.

3. Minor Secondary Means of Word-Formation:

- Back-Formation;
- Blending (or Telescoping);
- Sound interchange;
- Change of stress;
- Sound Imitation, or Onomatopoeia;
- Reduplication.

One of the main tasks of lexicology is to define the main ways of enriching the vocabulary of a given language. New lexical units (words, word combinations, set phrases) appear by means of:

- word building from existing language material;
- changing the meaning of existing words;
- forming phraseological units; and
- borrowing new words from other languages.

The most productive way of enriching the vocabulary on the basis of native words in Indio-European languages is word-building. Before studying different ways of word building in English it is important to analyze the structure of the English word.

The main unit of the lexical system of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning is **a word**. A word, however, can be divided into smaller sense units – morphemes. The

term "morpheme" is derived from Greek *morphe* (form), and *erne* (the smallest significant unit). The **morpheme** is the smallest meaningful language unit. Like a word a morpheme is also a two-facet language unit, an association of a certain meaning with a certain sound-pattern. Unlike a word, a morpheme is not an autonomous unit and can occur in speech only as a constituent part of the word, not independently. A word may consist of a single morpheme while morphemes are not divisible into smaller meaningful units.

The morpheme consists of a class of variants, allomorphs, which are either phonologically or morphologically conditioned, e. g. *please, pleasant, pleasure*. **Allomorphs** are positional variants of the same morpheme. For example, *-ion/-sion/-tion/-ation* are positional variants of the same suffix. They do not differ in meaning or function but show a slight difference in sound form depending on the final phoneme of the preceding stem. Other examples of allomorphic suffixes are *-able/-ible, -er/-or, -ant/-ent, -ence/-ance.*

Allomorphs also occur among prefixes. Their form then depends on the initials of the stem with which they will assimilate. The prefix *-in* has the following allomorphs: *-im* before bilabials (*impossible*), *-ir* before 'r' (*irregular*), *-il* before 'l' (*illegal*). It is *-in* before all other consonant and vowels (*insecure*).

The root-morphemes may also have allomorphs. E. g. *Duke, ducal, duchess, duchy; pleasure, please, pleasant.*

Morphemes can be classified from the semantic point of view and from structural point of view.

Semantically morphemes fall into two classes: root-morphemes and non-root, or affixational morphemes. Roots and affixes make two distinctive classes of morphemes due to the different role they play in word structure.

Root-morpheme is the lexical nucleus of a word; it has an individual lexical meaning without which the word is inconceivable. The root-morpheme is isolated as the morpheme common to a set of words making up a word family, e. g. *teacher, teaching, teachable, unteachable.*

Non-root morphemes include inflectional morphemes or inflections and affixational morphemes or affixes. **Affixes** are relevant for building various types of stems. Affixes are classified into prefixes and suffixes: a prefix precedes the root-morpheme, while a suffix

follows it. **Suffix** is a derivational affix following the stem and forming a new derivative in a different part of speech (actor, washable, sharpen) or in a different word class within the same part of speech (*brohterhood, piglet, youngster*). **Prefix** is a derivational affix standing before the stem and modifying its meaning, e. g. *insensitive, ex-minister, reread*. Affixes, besides the meaning proper to root-morphemes, possess the part-of-speech meaning and a generalized lexical meaning. **Inflections** (also **inflexion**, **ending**, **grammatical suffix**) carry only grammatical meaning and thus are relevant only for the formation of word-forms. While suffixes perform the wordbuilding function (*play, player, playful, playfully, playfulness*), the function of inflections is form-changing *(play, plays, played, playing)*.

Stem is the part of a word which remains when a derivational or a functional affix is stripped from the word. It expresses the lexical and the part-of-speech meanings. It is the part of a word that remains unchanged throughout its paradigm. For example, in the word *employer*, formed with the help of the suffix *-er*, the stem is *employ-;* the stem of the paradigm *hearty – heartier – (the) heartiest* is *hearty-*.

Structurally, morphemes fall into three types: free morphemes, bound morphemes and semi-free (semi-bound) morphemes.

A free morpheme is defined as the one which coincides with a word form and may stand alone without changing its meaning, e. g. *run.*

A bound morpheme occurs only as a constituent part of a word. Affixes are naturally bound morphemes, for they always make part of a word.

An affix should not be confused with the combining form which is also a bound form, but can be distinguished from an affix historically. Combining forms were borrowed from Latin or Greek, in which they existed as free forms, and most of them are international. For example, in the words *telephone, telegraph, telescope,* the morphemes '*tele', 'graph', 'scope', 'phone'* are characterized by a definite lexical meaning and peculiar stylistic reference. Here are some examples of combining forms: *astro-* (from Greek *astron* 'star') *astronomy*; *auto-* (from Greek *autos* 'self') *automatic*; *bio-* (from Greek *bios* 'life') *biology*; *-logy* (from Greek *logos* 'speech') *lexicology*, etc.

Semi-bound (or semi-free) **morphemes** are morphemes that can function in a morphemic sequence both as an affix and as a free morpheme: e.g. *half-eaten, to outrun, overcrowded.* The most frequent

of semi-affixes is *-man*, as its combining activity is very high: *seaman, postman, fireman, countryman, clergyman, yes-man*, etc. A great combining capacity characterizes such elements as *-like (godlike, suchlike), -proof (waterproof, soundproof, kissproof), -worthy (noteworthy, trustworthy), mini- (miniskirt, minibar), over- (overload, overnight), -wise (clockwise), -way(s) (likeways), -monger (fishermonger).*

According to their morphological structure English words can be divided into several basic types. **Simple words, or root-words** are morphologically indivisible, they consist of one root morpheme and an inflexion (in many cases the inflexion is zero): *e. g. table, rain, to run, cold.* **Derived words**, which consist of one root and one or more derivational affixes: e. g. *joyful, irresistible, unemployed.* **Compound words**, which consist of two or more stems: e. g. *blackboard, daylight.* **Compound-derivatives** consist of two or more root morphemes, one or more affixes and an inflexion, e. g. *middle-of-the-roaders, job-hopper, honeymooner*.

Word-Building

Word-building is one of the main ways of enriching vocabulary. There are four **main** ways of word-building in modern English: **affixation** or **derivation** (the formation of a new word with the help of affixes); **conversion** (the formation of a new word by bringing the stem of the word into a different formal paradigm); **composition** or compounding (the formation of a new word by combining two or more stems which occur in the language as free forms); and shortening (the formation of a word by cutting off the part of the word).

There are also **secondary** or minor ways of word-building: **blending** (combining parts of two words); **sound interchange** (alteration in the phonemic composition of its root); **stress interchange** (the shift of the stress in the source word); **sound imitation**, or **onomatopoeia** (the naming of an action or a thing by a more or less exact reproduction of the sound associated with it); and **back formation** (subtracting a real or supposed suffix from the existing words).

Main (Productive) Means of Word-Building Affixation

Affixation is the formation of words by adding derivational affixes to stems. Derived words may have different degree of derivation. Words have a zero degree of derivation if their stem is homonymous with a root morpheme, i. e. in simple words, e. g. *atom*, *haste*, *devote*.

Prefixes and suffixes differ in their linguistic status. Prefixes have a distinct meaning of their own, while suffixes as a rule only serve to modify the meaning of the word and to convert it into another part of speech. Due to this fact prefixes may be confined to one part of speech (*to enslave, to encage*), or may function in more than one part of speech (*to overdo, overestimation*).

Unlike prefixes, suffixes, as a rule, function in one part of speech, often forming a derived stem of a different part of speech as compared with that of the bases: *careful – care, suitable – suit.*

Suffixation is the formation of words with the help of derivational suffixes. Suffixes usually modify the lexical meaning of the base 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. Suffixes of this kind usually transfer a word into a different semantic group. For example, the suffixes *–ship* and *-hood* make a concrete noun an abstract, e. g. *child – childhood, friend – friendship.*

Distinction should be made between terminal and non-terminal suffixes. **Terminal suffixes** take only the final position in the words: such as the nominal suffixes *'-al' (refusal, survival), '-hood' (brotherhood, neighbourhood), '-ness' (kindness, brightness), '-ship' (kinship).* **Non-terminal suffixes** can be followed by other suffixes. In such cases a derivative is capable of further derivation, e. g. *lead – leader – leadership, care – careless – carelessness.*

Suffixes have been classified according to parts of speech they serve to form, according to their origin, their frequency, productivity, and other characteristics.

According to the part of speech which is formed:
- noun-forming suffixes: *-er/-or, -dom, -hood, -ment, -ism, -ist*
- adjective-forming suffixes: *-able/-ible, -ful, -ish, -less, -ous, -ly, -y, -like*
- verb-forming suffixes: *-en, -ize/ise, -fy*
- adverb-forming suffixes: *-ly, -wards*

According to the part of speech of the base to which the suffix is added:

- deverbal suffixes (added to the verb base): *-er, -ing, -ment, -able*
- denominal suffixes (added to the noun base): *-less, -ish, -fill - ist, - some*
- deadjectival suffixes (added to the adjective base): *-en, -fy, -ish, - ness*

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

- the agent of the action: *-er* (*experimenter*), *-ist* (*taxist*), *-ent* (*student*)*;*
- nationality: *-ian* (*Russian*), *-ese* (*Japanese*), *-ish* (*English*)*;*
- collectivity: *-dom* (*moviedom*), *-ry* (*peasantry*), *-ship* (*readership*)*;*
- diminutiveness: *-ie* (*horsie*), *-let* (*booklet*), *-ling* (*gooseling*), -ette* (*kitchenette*)*;*
- quality: *-ness* (*copelessness*), *-ity* (*answerability*).

According to their origin:

- Native (Germanic) suffixes: *-dom, -hood, -ly, -ness, -ship, - ward, -ful*
- Romanic suffixes: *-able, -age, -ation, -ment*
- Greek suffixes: *-ism, -ist, -ize.*

According to the degree of their productivity.

- unproductive (no longer used in the formation of new words) non-productive , such as: *-ard* (*drunkard*), *-th* (*length*)*;*
- productive (still active): the Germanic suffix *-er* denoting an agent or a doer of the action is highly productive, e.g. *speaker, driver, reporter, old-time, baby-sitter, fortune-teller, honeymooner;*

Prefixation is the formation of words by adding prefixes to the stem. Prefixes only modify the lexical meaning without changing the part of speech, e. g. *wife – ex-wife, favourable – unfavourable, inform – misinform.* There are prefixes, however, that can change the part of speech but they are few in number (e. g. *head – behead, slave – enslave*). The prefix 'out-' makes intransitive verbs transitive (e. g. *live – outlive, shine – outshine*).

Two types of prefixes are distinguished:

- those not correlated with any independent word *(un-, re-, mis-, dis-).*
- those correlated with functional words *(over-, out-, under-, up-, down-).* They are called semi-bound morphemes, which means that they occur in various utterances both as independent words and as derivational affixes.

Prefixes can be classified according to different principles, namely:

From the point of view of etymology
- -native (Germanic) prefixes*: a-, be-, over-, un-, fore-, under;*
- -Romanic prefixes: *in- (il-, im-, ir), post-, pre-, en- (em-), dis- (dys-);*
- -Greek: *sym-, hyper-* etc.

Most living English prefixes are foreign, but they may be combined with native stems (e. g. *enwrap, post-war*).

According to their derivational pattern

Prefixes differ in valency. Valency may be defined as the combining power of affixes and stems. For example, adjective-forming suffixes are mostly attached to noun stems: *-en* (*golden*), *-ful* (*careful*), *-less* (*careless*), *-ly* (*soldiery*), *-like* (*childlike*), *-y* (*hearty*). The term "derivation pattern" is used to denote a meaningful combination of stems and affixes that occur regularly in the speech. For example, the suffix *'-er'* may be added to verb stems or noun stems forming the following derivational patterns: profession or permanent occupation (*worrier, talker*); inanimate agent, instrument (*heater, bottle-opener*); persons living in some locality (*islander, Londoner, cottager*).

Some affixes combine with the stems of only one part of speech, others are more productive. The prefix *ex-,* for instance, is combined only with nouns (*ex-president, ex-husband*). Such prefixes as *co-, contra-, post-, sub-, trans-, over-* are used with the stems of verbs, nouns and adjectives (*transformation – transatlantic – transfix; subcommittee – subarctic – sublet).*

From the angle of their stylistic reference:
- Stylistically neutral prefixes: *un-. re-, out-, en-, be-, under-;*
- Bookish prefixes: *pseudo-, super-, ultra-.*

Sometimes one comes across a pair of synonymic prefixes one of which is stylistically neutral, the other is stylistically coloured. For example, the prefix *over-* occurs in all functional styles, the prefix

super- is peculiar to the style of scientific prose (*superalloy, superbomber, supersonic*).

According to the meaning (semantic classification):

● negative meaning: *in- (invaluable), non- (nonformals), un-(unfree), dis-*;

● repetition or reversal actions: *de- (decolonize), re-, dis-(disconnect), un-;*

● priority: *ex-, fore-, pre-;*

● counteraction, opposition: *counter-, contra-, anti-;*

● time, space, degree relations: *inter-, hyper-, ex-, pre-, over-, a-, en-, sub-, supra-, sur-, trans-, hypo-, circum-, under-;* and

● incompleteness: *demi-, hemi-, semi-, half-.*

Composition

Composition, or compounding, is a way of forming a new word by joining two or more stems together. The components of the compound word occur in the language as free forms, e. g. *raincoat, key-hole, bluebell, dark-green, heart-breaking, weekend, well- wisher.*

Compound words are inseparable vocabulary units. The integrity of a compound may depend on the unity of the stress, solid or hyphenated spelling, semantic unity, unity of morphological and semantic functioning, or upon the combining effect of several of these factors.

Structurally compound words are characterized by the specific order and arrangement in which bases follow one another. The order in which two bases are placed within a compound is rigidly fixed in Modem English and it is the second IC (immediate constituent) that makes the head-member of the word, i. e. its structural and semantic centre, e. g. *doghouse (house for a dog), state-financed (financed by the state) dancing-hall (hall for dancing).* The types that do not conform to this principle are represented by compounds with prepositions or conjunctions or loan-compounds: e. g. *passer-by, daughter-in-law, stick-in-the-mud, flash-in-the pan; court martial, governor general, lords spiritual.*

Phonetically compounds are also marked by a specific structure of their own. No phonemic changes of bases occur in composition but the compound word acquires a new stress pattern different from the stress in the separate words. For example, *key* and *hole* possess their

own stress, but when the stems of these words are brought together to make up a new compound *keyhole,* the latter is given a different stress pattern – a unity stress on the first component in our case.

Compound words may have three stress patterns:
- a high or unity stress on the first component: e. g. *honeymoon, doorway;*
- a double stress, with a primary stress on the first, weaker, secondary stress on the second component: e. g. *blood-vessel, washing-machine, snowball;* and
- a level stress for both ICs, especially in compound adjectives: e. g. *arm-chair, icy-cold, grass-green.*

Graphically most compounds have two types of spelling – they are spelt either solidly or with a hyphen, e. g. *bedroom, hairclipper, milkman, shortlist, bookcase dress maker, baby-sitter.* The two types of spelling typical of compounds, however, are not rigidly observed and there are numerous fluctuations between solid and hyphenated spelling, on the one hand, and spelling with a break between the components, on the other, especially in the nominal compounds of the noun type. The spelling of these compounds varies from author to author and from dictionary to dictionary.

Compound words may be classified according to different principles. Thus, they are classified according to:
1) the way the components are linked in a compound;
2) the functional point of view;
3) the ways the components are joined together; and
4) the nature of the bases.

According to the Relations Between the Components

Subordinative compounds where one of the components is the semantic and the structural centre and the second component is subordinate. These subordinative relations can be different: comparative relations (*honey-sweet, eggshell-thin*); limiting relations (*breast-high, knee-deep);* emphatic relations (*dog-cheap*); cause relations (*love-sick*); time relations (*spring-fresh).* The components are neither structurally nor semantically equal in importance but are based on the domination of the head-member, which is, as a rule, the second IC. It is semantically and grammatically dominant part of the word, which preconditions the part-of-speech meaning of the whole

compound, e. g. *stone-deaf* (adjective), *baby-sitter* (noun). Subordinate compounds make the bulk of Modem English compounds: they are also most productive.

Coordinative compounds where both components are semantically independent, equally important (e. g. when one person (object) has two functions, e. g. *secretary-stenographer, woman-doctor*). This group includes also compounds formed by means of reduplication often combined with sound-interchange (*fifty-fifty, no-no, criss-cross, walkie-talkie*). Coordinative compounds make up a small semantic group with no particular meaning mostly restricted to the colloquial layer (*goody-goody, hush-hush, chit-chat, flip-flop, riff-raff, shilly- shally*).

According to the Means by Which the Components are Joined Together

• Words formed **by juxtaposition** – placing one constituent after another in a definite order. It is typical of the majority of Modem English compounds, e. g. *door-handle, wind-driven, gooseflesh.*

• **Morphological** way of forming compounds where ICs are joined together with a special linking element – the linking vowel or consonant [ou], [j], [s]: *speedometer, tragicomic, statesman, electrodynamics, videophone.*

• **Syntactical** compounds formed with the help of prepositions and conjunctions: *editor-in-chief, officer-in-charge, out-of-work.*

According to Their Structure (Types of Bases)

• **Compound words proper** formed by joining together bases of independently functioning word: *doorstep, age-long, handiwork, looking-glass, to job-hunt, train-sick.* Compounds proper constitute the bulk of English compounds in all parts of speech.

• **Derivational compounds**, where besides the stems there are also affixes, *e. g. ear-minded, hydro-skimmer, baby sitter, speechwriter, chain smoker.*

• Compound words consisting of **three or more stems**, *e. g. cornflower-blue, eggshell-thin, singer-songwriter, wastepaper-basket;*

• **Compound-shortened** words, *e. g. boatel, tourmobile, VJ-day, motocross, intervision, Eurodollar, Camford.*

Criteria of Compounds

Separating compounds from word groups is no easy task, and scholars do not agree on the question of relevant criteria. The first criterion is **graphic**. Solid and hyphenated spelling is indicative of a compound noun. It may be argued, however, that there is no consistency in English spelling in this respect. With different dictionaries and different authors, and sometimes even with the same author the spelling varies, so that the same vocabulary unit may exist in a solid spelling (*headmaster, loudspeaker*), with a hyphen (*bead-master, loud-speaker*) and with a break within the components (*head master, loud speaker*).

The lack of the uniformity in spelling is the chief reason why many authors consider this criterion insufficient and combine it with the phonic criterion of stress. There is a marked tendency in English to give compounds a heavy stress or the first component, or a heavy stress on the first component and a secondary stress on the second component, e. g. *sunrise, goldfish, teenager, prison-breaker, fine-looking.* This role does not hold with compound adjectives which have double stress, e. g. *Afro-American, Afro- Asiatic, Anglo-Catholic.*

However, stress can be of no help in solving this problem because word-stress may depend on phrasal stress or on the position of the compound in the sentence.

Some scholars advocate the semantic criterion and define a compound as a combination forming a unit expressing a single idea which is not identical in meaning to the sum of the meanings of its components in a free word group. From this point of view '*dirty work*' with its figurative meaning '*dishounorable proceedings*' is a compound, while '*clean work*' is a phrase.

Semi-Affixes

The problem of distinguishing a compound from a derivative is actually equivalent to distinguishing a stem from an affix. In most cases the task is simple enough: the immediate constituents of a compound are free forms, whereas a derivative contains bound forms as its ICs.

There are, however, some borderline cases which present difficulties. There are disputable cases whether we have a suffix or a root morpheme in the structure of a word, in such cases we call such morphemes **semi-suffixes**, and words with such suffixes can be

classified either as derived words or as compound words, e. g. *-gate* (*Irangate*), *-burger* (*cheeseburger*), *-aholic* (*workaholic*) etc.

Some elements of the English vocabulary occurring as independent units (*man, berry, land, proof, wise*) have been very frequent as second elements of words. They seem to have acquired valency similar to that of affixes. They are unstressed, and the vowel sounds have been reduced, and their lexical meaning is weakened. As these elements seem to come somewhere in between the stems and affixes, the term "semi-affix" has been offered to designate them. Semi-affixes received this name because semantically, functionally, structurally and statistically they behave more like affixes than roots. Their meaning is as general and that of affixes. They determine the lexico-grammatical class the word belongs to. Compare, for example, *sailor* and *seaman* where *-man* is a semi-suffix. The second element *-man* is considerably generalised semantically and approaches in meaning a suffix of a doer *-er* or *-it*. The fading of the lexical meaning is especially evident when the words containing this element are applied to women.

The semi-suffix *-wise* combines with nouns to describe actions similar to those of the people or things referred to (*clockwise, vote-wise, calorie-wise*). Semi-affixes may be also used in preposition-like prefixes: *info-, eco-, narco-, Euro- techno-, mini-, maxi-, self-*.

In the second half of the twentieth century the English word-building system was enriched by creating so called *splinters* which scientists include in the affixation stock of the Modern English word-building system. Splinters are the result of clipping the end or the beginning of a word and producing a number of new words on the analogy with the primary word-group. For example, when European Economic Community was organized quite a number of neologisms with the splinter *Euro-* (apocopy produced by clipping the word *European*) were coined, such as: *Euratom, Eurocard, Euromarket, Europlug, Eurotunnel* and many others. These splinters are treated sometimes as prefixes in Modern English.

There are also splinters which are formed by means of apheresis, that is clipping the beginning of a word. The origin of such splinters can be variable, e. g. the splinter *burger* appeared in English as the result of clipping the German borrowing *Hamburger* where the morphological structure was the stem *Hamburg* and the suffix *-er*. However in English

the beginning of the word *Hamburger* was associated with the English word *ham*, and the end of the word *burger* got the meaning *a bun cut into two parts*. On the analogy with the word *hamburger* quite a number of new words were coined, such as: *baconburger, beefburger, cheeseburger, fishburger* etc.

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

Splinters can be the result of clipping adjectives or substantivized adjectives. The splinter *aholic* (*holic*) was formed by clipping the beginning of the word *alcoholic* of Arabian origin where *al* denoted *the*, *koh'l* – 'powder for staining lids'. The splinter *(a)holic* means 'a person obsessed with or addicted to'. The earliest formation based on this suffix was probably *workaholic*, which seemed to have been coined around 1968. It is still very productive, e. g. *bookaholic, computerholic, coffeeholic, cheesaholic, etc.*

Sometimes splinters are called **pseudomorphemes** because they are neither roots nor affixes, they are more or less artificial. The factors conducing to transition of free forms into semi-affixes are: high semantic productivity, adaptability, combinatorial capacity (high valency) and brevity.

Conversion

Conversion is a way of forming a new word in a different part of speech without adding a derivational affix or changing morphological structure: e. g. *finger,* n. – *finger* v., *brief,* adj. – *brief,* v., *hunt,* v. – *hunt,* n.

The following cases of conversion are most common:

- formation of verbs from nouns and more rarely from other parts of speech: e. g. *skin,* n. – *skin*, v.; *brave,* adj. – *brave*, v., and
- formation of nouns from verbs and rarely from other parts of speech: e. g. *cut*, v. – *cut*, n.; *hollow*, adj. – *hollow*, n.; *up*, prep. – *up*, n.

Conversion is an extremely productive way of forming new words in English. Conversion seems to be able to produce words of almost any form class (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs). There are no morphological restrictions on the forms that can undergo conversion (e. g. *to bach* from *bachelor*). The only partial restriction may concern nouns with the suffixes *-ing* and *-ation*, *-ity*, geographical names, names of sciences, some other terms.

Typical Semantic Relations in Converted Words:
Verbs Converted from Nouns

This is the largest group of words related through conversion. Semantic relations between the nouns and verbs vary greatly:

- action characteristic of the object e. g. *butcher, n. – butcher, v.* (kill animals for food); *dog, n. – dog, v.* (follow close behind as a dog does);
- instrumental use of the object e. g. *whip, n. – whip, v.* (strike with a whip); *knife, n. – knife, v.* (kill with a knife);
- locative meaning with nouns denoting places, buildings, containers: *bag, n. – bag, v.* (put in a bag); *garage, n. – garage, v.* (put a car in the garage);
- verbs converted from nouns denoting time, weather, conditions meaning "spend the time indicated by the noun": *winter, n. – winter, v.; honeymoon, n.- honeymoon, v.*;
- acquisition or addition of the object expressed by the noun: *fish, n. – fish, v.* (catch or try to catch fish); *coat, n. – coat, v.* (put a coat of paint on something);
- deprivation of the object expressed be the noun: e. g. *dust, n. – dust, v.; skin, n. – skin, v.* (strip off the skin from something/somebody).

There is an ever-increasing tendency to derive verbs from nouns by conversion. A converted verb is very often polysemantic and may denote almost any verbal action connected with the underlying noun, often the meanings are opposite: e. g. *dust,* v. 'remove dust from

something' and also 'to cover with something'. *She dusted the furniture. / She dusted the cake with sugar. E. g. stone somebody –* 'throw stones at somebody', *stone plums* – 'to remove stones from plums'.

There are many phraseological units the centre of which is a converted verb often with a metaphorical meaning: e. g. *feather one's nest* – 'make oneself rich, especially dishonestly, through a job in which one is trusted'; *fish in troubled waters* – 'try to gain advantage out of other people s trouble'; *crow over* – 'take pride and gloat over the misfortune of others'.

Nouns Converted from Verbs may denote:

- instance of an action: *glance*, v. – *glance*, n.; *push*, v. – *push*;
- agent of an action: *draw*, v. – *draw*, n. (attraction); *sting*, v. – *sting*, n.; *scold*, v. – *scold*, n. (a scolding woman); *pry*, v. – *pry*, n. (a prying person);
- the place of the action: *bend*, v. – *bend*, n.; *drive*, v. – *drive*, n.; and
- an object or result of action: *peel*, v. – *peel*, n. (the outer skin of fruit or potatoes); *catch*, v. – *catch*, n. (that which is caught or taken); *win*, v. – *win*, n.

Converted nouns become very often parts of verbal phrases. There is a kind of double process when first a noun is formed by conversion from a verbal stem, and then this noun is combined with such verbs as *give/take/have/make*: *have a bite/a smoke/a swim; take a look/a ride/a walk; give a laugh/a cry/a whistle; make a move/a comment/a complaint/a remark.*

There are a lot of phraseological units with converted nouns. Sometimes the elements of these expressions have a fixed grammatical form:

- used with the indefinite article: *be in a hurry, be in a flutter, make a go of something, make a hit with somebody*;
- with the definite article: *be in the know, be on the go, be in the swim, give somebody the push, give somebody the go-by,*
- in the plural form: *kick against the pricks, to give somebody the shivers, make two bites of a cherry*; and
- without any article: *be in touch, be out of touch, keep watch.*

Verbs Converted from Adjectives

Verbs converted from adjectives show fairly regular semantic relationships with the corresponding adjectives. They denote change of state. For example, verbs converted from the adjectives *blind, calm, empty* when used intransitively mean 'become blind, calm, empty'. When they are used as transitive verbs they mean 'make somebody blind calm, empty'.

A word formed by conversion is capable of further derivation, so that it enters into combinations not only with functional but also derivational affixes: e. g. *view* (to watch television) → *viewable – viewer – viewing.*

Conversion may be combined with composition. Attributive phrases like *black ball, black list* and *pin point* form such firmly established verbs as *blackball, blacklist* and *pinpoint.*

The same pattern is used in nonce-words, or occasional words: e. g. *an also-run*; *a forget-me-not*; *a has-been; do's and don'ts*, e. g. *Don't my-dear me. He madamed everybody. She blue-penciled her eyes.*

A special pattern deserving attention due to its ever-increasing productivity includes nouns converted from phrasal verbs (verb-adverb combinations), e. g. *break down – a breakdown; hand out – a handout.* The type is specifically English.

Substantivation

The process when adjectives acquire the paradigm and syntactical functions of nouns is called **substantivation.**

Substantivation has always been an important process in English and is active today. Some of the earlier substantivized adjectives have been so long established as nouns that English speakers no longer realize that they ever were adjectives: *relative, male, female, captive, criminal, radical, fugitive, ritual.*

The degree of substantivation may be different, from complete substantivation to partial substantivation.

Completely substantivized words function as nouns: they may have a plural form or be used in the Possessive Case, they may be associated with determinatives: e.g. *private – the private's uniform, a group of privates.* Other examples of completely substantivized

adjectives are: *captive, conservative, criminal, male, female, grownup, native, block, relative.*

This type seems to have become much more productive recently: e. g. *a creative, a crazy, a dabble, a nasty, an inflatable.*

Partially substantivized adjectives or participles denote a group or a class of people, e. g. *the blind, the dead, the English, the poor, the rich, the living, the unemployed.* Partially substantivized words undergo no morphological changes, and are only used with the definite article having a collective meaning.

Besides the substantivized adjectives denoting human beings there is a considerable group of abstract nouns, including linguistic terms: e. g. *the impossible, the inevitable, the good, the evil, the Present, the Plural.*

Partially substantivized adjectives enter a lot of phraseological units, e. g. *be in the dark; out of the blue*; *cut somebody to the quick*; *in the dead of night/winter.*

Shortening

Shortening, also called 'clipping' or 'curtailment', is a rather productive way of forming new words by cutting off a part of a word, e. g. *hippo* – hippopotamus, *demo* – demonstration, *info* – information, *vet* – veterenarium.

There may be some phonetic and graphic changes in the process of shortening: e. g. *bike* – bicycle, *tely* – television, *frig/fridge* – refrigerator.

As a type of word-building, shortening is recorded in the English language as far back as the 15th century. It has grown more and more productive ever since. This growth becomes especially marked in many European languages in the 20th century and this development is particularly intense in English. The language of students is especially rich in these formations, e. g. *grad* – graduate, *gyms* – gymnastics, *lab* – laboratory, *prep* – preparation.

The correlation of a shortened word with its prototype is of great interest. Two possible **developments** should be noted.

1. The shortened/curtailed word may be regarded as a variant or a synonym differing from the foil form quantitatively, stylistically and sometimes emotionally, the prototype being stylistically and emotionally neutral. The missing part can be easily restored, so that the

connection between the prototype and the short form is not lost: e. g. *doc* – doctor, *exam* – examination, *prof* – professor, *Becky* – Rebecca.

2. In the opposite extreme case the denotative and lexico-grammatical meaning of both may have changed so much that the clipping becomes a separate word. The connection between the prototype and the short form can be established only etymologically. Consequently, a pair of etymological doublets comes into being: e. g. *chap* – chapman (pedlar), *fan* – fanatic, *miss* – mistress, *fancy* – fantasy, *fence* – defence, *peal* – appeal, *through* – thorough.

Unlike conversion, shortening produces new words in the same part of speech. The bulk of shortened words are made up by nouns, e. g. *mac* – mackintosh, *ref* – referee, *cycle* – bicycle, *ad* – advertisement, *lino* – linoleum. Verbs are hardly ever shortened in present-day English. *Rev* from *revolve* and *tab* from *tabulate* may be considered exceptions. Shortened verbs are usually formed by conversion from shortened nouns: e.g. *taxi, n. – taxi, v., perm, n. – perm, v., phone, n. – phone, v., vac, n. – vac, v.*

Shortened adjectives are few and mostly reveal a combined effect of shortening and suffixation: e. g. *comfy* – comfortable, *impos* – impossible, *mizzy* – miserable, *pi* – pious.

There are various classifications of shortened words. The generally accepted one is based on the position of the clipped part:

Apocope (the final part is dropped). Final clipping or apocope forms the bulk of cases. The shortened word is always colloquial, or even slangy: e. g. *ad* – advertisement*, croc* – crocodile, *ed* – editor, *fab* – fabulous, *gym* – gymnasium, *celeb* – celebrity*, limo* – limousine, *sis* – sister, *cab* – cabriolet. Proper names are also contracted by apocope: e. g. *Nick* – Nicolas, *Ed* – Edward, *Vic* – Victoria, *Chris* – Christopher.

Aphaeresis (the initial part is dropped). Words with initial clipping are less numerous but firmly established as separate lexical units with a meaning very different from that of the prototype. There are cases of aphaeresis in which the omitted segment is a single vowel: e. g. *cute* – acute, *peal* – appeal*, mend* – amend, *live* – alive, *lone* – alone. In these cases significant semantic development followed the aphaeresis, so that the original longer form and the shortened one became etymological doublets. Occasionally, the two words exist side by side with little semantic differentiation, as for instance, *special* and

especial. Rarely the shortened words with initial clipping are stylistical synonyms or variants: *phone* – telephone, *chute* – parachute*, Bella* – Isabella, *Becky*.

Final and initial clipping may be combined and result in curtailed words with the middle part of the prototype retained. These are few and colloquial: *flu* – influenza, *frig/fridge* – refrigerator, *tec (teck)* – detective.

Syncope (the middle part of the word is dropped) is not very often used. Syncoped words may appear due to the process of contraction (*fancy* – fantasy, *through* – thorough) or may retain the functional morpheme (*dorms* –dormitories, *pants* – pantaloons). Proper names are rarely formed by syncopy: e. g. *Bennet* – Benedict, *Louie* – Louise*, Dirk* – Derrick.

It is also possible to classify shortened words on the basis of the structure characterizing the prototype. We have two mutually exclusive cases: shortenings correlated with words and those correlated with phrases. If the prototype is a word we deal with shortening proper. In the case when the prototype is a phrase we have a combined effort of shortening, ellipsis and substantivation: e. g. *proms* – promenade concerts, *finals* – final examinations*, prelims* – preliminary examinations.

Curtailed words arise in various types of colloquial speech, and have a pronounced stylistic coloring. They are especially numerous in slang. School and college slang is ironical to the things named: *caf* from cafeteria, *digs* from diggings lodgings, *home ecs, lab, prep, prof, trig, undergrad, vac, varsity.* Service slang is very rich in clipped words; some of them penetrate the familiar colloquial style; *demob* from demobilize, *op* from operator, *serge* from sergeant. Familiar colloquial style gives such examples as *bobby, cabbie, max* from maximum, *movies*. When the connection with the prototype is lost, the curtailed word may become stylistically neutral: e. g. *brig, cab, cello, pram.*

Nursery words are often clipped: *grand, granny, hanky* from handkerchief; *pinkie* from pinafore.

Abbreviation is a special case of shortening when the initial letters stand for the words they begin: e. g. *CIA* – Central Intelligence Agency; *FBI* – Federal Bureau of Investigation*; RH* – Royal Highness, *HR* – Human Resources.

There are two ways of reading abbreviations.

1) The letters are read as in the alphabet. Such abbreviations are called **initialisms**: e. g. *GMT* – Greenwich Mean Time, *BBC* (British

Broadcasting Corporation), *MTV* (Music Television), *EU* (European Union), *MP* (Member of Parliament), *GMO* (Genetically Modified Organisms).

2) The abbreviations are read as usual English words. Such words are called **acronyms**. Acronyms, as opposed to initialisms, came into English usage during the First World War (*ANZAC* – Australia New Zealand Army Corps) or at beginning of 1920s (*UNO* – United Nations Organisation, *WASP* – White Anglo-Saxon Protestant). There are also two subtypes of acronymes: anacronyms and homoacronyms. *Anacronym* is an acronym which is no longer perceived by speakers as a shortening: very few people remember what each letter stands for, e. g. *laser* (light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation), *radar* (radio detecting and ranging), *scuba* (self-contained underwater breathing apparatus), *yuppie* (young urban professional). *Homoacronym* is an acronym which coincides with an English word semantically connected with the thing, person or phenomenon, e. g. *PAWS* (Public for Animal Welfare Society), *NOW* (National Organisation for Women), *ASH* (Action on Smoking and Health) etc.

There are also **graphical abbreviations** used for the economy of space and effort in writing only while orally the corresponding full forms are used. The oldest group of graphical abbreviations in English is of Latin origin: *op cit* (Lat. opere citato) – in the work cited; *i. e.* (Lat. id est) – that is; *ib* (ibid) – (Lat. ibidem) – in the same place*; iq* – (Lot. idem quod) – the same as. These Latin abbreviations are shortened in spelling, while orally the corresponding English equivalents are pronounced in the full form, *e. g.* for example (*exampli gratia*), *a.m.* – in the morning (*ante meridiem*), *No* – number (*numero*), *p.a.* – a year (*per annum*), *lb* – pound (*libra*), *i. e.* – that is (*id est*), *f/ft* – foot/feet, *sec.* – second.

There are also graphical abbreviations of native origin representing words and word groups of high frequency of occurrence:
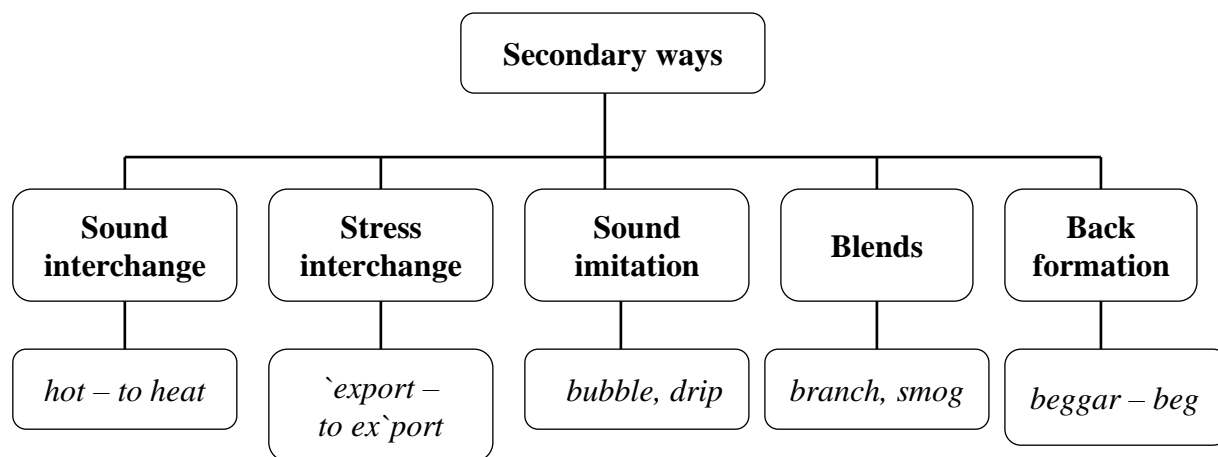
- days of the week, e. g. *Mon* – Monday, *Tue* – Tuesday, etc.;
- names of months, e. g. *Apr* – April, *Aug* – August, *Oct.* – October, etc.;
- names of counties in UK and states in USA, e.g. *Yorks* – Yorkshire, *Berks* – Berkshire, *Ala* – Alabama, *Alas* – Alaska, etc.;
- names of address, e.g. *Mr., Mrs., Ms., Dr*., *RD* – road, *St* – street, etc.;

- military ranks, e. g. *capt.* – captain, *col.* – colonel, *sgt* – sergeant, etc.;
- scientific degrees, e. g. *B.A.* – Bachelor of Arts, PhD.

Proper names may be also abbreviated, usually the names of famous writers, political leaders etc. (*G.B.S.* – George Bernard Shaw, *W.S.M.* – William Somerset Maugham)

There are also abbreviations in which the first component abbreviated to the initial letter, and the second is included without any changes: e. g. *E-boat* – enemy boat; *U-boat* – underwater boat; *Z-hour* – (zero hour) the time set for the beginning of the attack; *E-mail* – electronic mail; *ABC Armies* – American, British and Canadian Armies; *ID card* – identity card.

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│  heat    ││to ex`port││  drip    ││ smog   ││  beg     │
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Fig. 2. Minor secondary types of word-formation

Back-formation (also called back-derivation) is a way of forming new words by dropping a real or supposed suffix. For instance, it is typical of English to form nouns denoting the agent of the action by adding the suffix *-er* to a verb stem (*speak- speaker).* So when the French word *beggar* was borrowed into English the final syllable *ar* was pronounced in the same way as the English *-er* and Englishmen formed the verb *to beg* by dropping the end of the noun. Other examples of back formation are: to *accreditate* (from *accreditation*), to *bach* (from *bachelor*), to *collocate* (from *collocation*), to *enthuse* (from *enthusiasm*), to *compute* (from *computer*), to *reminisce* (from *reminiscence*), to *televise* (from *television*), *edit, v. – editor; butle, v. – butler; burgle v. – burglar.*

The most productive way of back-formation in present English is derivation of verbs from compound nouns ending in *-er* or *-ing*: e. g. *thought-read, v. – thought-reading; n. house-clean, v. – house-cleaning; n. air-condition, v. – air-conditioning; n. arm-twist, v. – arm-twisting.*

At the present time back-formation is very active in the formation of verbs from compound nouns or attributive word groups mostly of a terminological character: e. g. *blood-transfuse – blood transfusion; rush-develop – rush development; finger-print – finger-printing.*

Blending

Blending (or telescoping) is a special type of compounding by uniting parts of words into one new word and including the letters or sounds they have in common as a connecting element. One of the first blends in English was the word *smog* from two synonyms: *smoke* and *fog* which means 'smoke mixed with fog'.

As a result of blending we have *blends*: e.g. *brunch* (breakfast + lunch); *drunch* (drink + lunch); *slanguage* (slang + language); *blatterature* (blatter + literature); *foolosophy* (fool + philosophy); *beefalo* (beef + buffalo); *pomato* (potato + tomato); *Bollywood* (Bombay + Hollywood); *bit* (binary + digit).

Several different terms were devised for the result of this word-forming process: *blendings, fusions, telescoping* or *portmanteau words*. The last term is due to Lewis Carroll, the author of "Alice in Wonderland" and "Through the Looking Glass". One of the most linguistically conscious writers, he made a special technique of using blends coined by himself: *chortle, v. (*chuckle + short*), mimsy, adj.* (miserable + flimsy)*, galumph, v.* (gallop + triumph)*, slither, adj.* (slimy + lithe). Humpty Dumpy explaining these words to Alice says: "You see it's like a *portmanteau* – there are two meanings packed up into one word." [17, 224]. I. V. Arnold calls this process of word-formation *'telescoping'* because words seem to slide into one another like sections of a telescope [21, 98]. According to R. S. Ginsburg, the term "blending" is used to designate the method of merging parts of words (not morphemes) into one new word [34, 104].

Depending on the prototype phrases two types of blends can be distinguished: additive and restrictive**.** The semantic relations within the phrases are different.

In **additive blends** their elements belong to the same lexico-grammatical class, sometimes to the same semantic field; their stems may be combined by the conjunction *and:* e. g. *mimsy* – miserable and flimsy, *brunch* – breakfast and lunch, *Frenglish* – French and English. *Pakistan* was made up of elements taken from the names of the five western provinces: the initials of Panjab, Afghanis, Kashmir, and Singh, and the final part of Baluchistan.

The **restrictive** type may be transformed into attributive phrases where the first element serves as modifier of the second, the second being the semantic and structural nucleus, e. g. *cinerama* – cinematographic panorama, *positron* – positive electron; *Amdoc* – American doctor; *sitcom* – situational comedy; warphan – war orphan.

Structurally there are **three types of blends**:

• a new word is coined by combining the initial element of one word and the final clement of another: *cremains* – cremated + remains; *skort* – skirt + short, *informercial* – information + commercial, *froe* – friend + foe;

• a new word is formed by combining one notional word and the final element of another word: *glassphait* – glass + asphalt*; plantimals* – plant + animals; *drugoia* – drug + payola (a bribe given to the police for the permission to sell drugs), *Callanetics* – Callan [Pinckney] + athletics, *hesh* – he + she, and

• a word is formed by the combination of the initial element of one word with a notional word: *legislady* – legislative + lady*; petrodollar* – petrols + dollar; *animule* – animal + mule, *docudrama* documentary + drama.

Though many blends are short-lived, many of them have become established in the vocabulary. Blends seem to be on the rise especially in terminology (*tranciever* – transmitter + receiver; *seacopter* – sea + helicopter; *avionics* – aviation + electronics) and in advertisements (*bookvertising* – book + advertising*; laundromat* – laundry + automat; *fanzine* – fantasy + magazine).

Among blends there are many place-names, e. g. towns near the borders of two states (*Calexico* – California + Mexico); *Amerindian* – American Indian*; Amerasian* – American Asian.

Telescopic words are often formed to achieve humorous effect and convey various shades of emotional colouring (irony or mockery). Very often they refer to the political slang: e. g. *dopelomat* – dope +

diplomat; *pollutician* – pollute + politician (engaged in dirty politics); *paytriotism* – pay + patriotism (false patriotism); *Megxit* – Megan, Dutchess of Sussex + exit (withdrawal from royal duties); *Brexit* – Britain + exit.

A lot of nonce-words formed by blending have been coined recently, especially in informal communication, in the Internet, among young people. They sound and look like an exciting riddle to be solved: *millionerror* – 'небажана дитина в сім'ї мільонерів' (millionaire + error); *frankenfood* – 'генетично модифіковані продукти харчування' (Frankenstein + food), *wordrobe* (word + wardrobe) e. g. 'He has an extensive *wordrobe*.' – У нього великий словниковий запас, *dancercise* (dance + exercise).

Nowadays, blending has become a trend both in fiction and non-fiction discourse, especially in the media, Internet and literature. Many popular website blendings have become a norm, e. g. such blended words as *twitout, twiton, twitsend* have entered the vocabularies of Twitter users (*Twitterians*).

Sound Interchange

Sound interchange may be defined as an apposition in which words forms are differentiated due to the changes in the phonemic composition of the root: e. g. *food – feed; blood – bleed; bath – bathe; strong – strength; speak – speech; grief – grieve; lose – loss; cloth – clothe; choose – choice.* Some causative verbs are formed in this way (*lie – lay, rise – raise, fall – fell, sit – set*). The process is not active in the language at present.

Change of stress or semantic stress is mostly observed in verb-noun pairs of Romanic origin: nouns have the stress on the first syllable and verbs on the last syllable, e. g. `accent - to ac`cent; *transport, n. – transport; v., export, n. – export, v.; object, n. – object, v.*

This phenomenon is due to the different syllabic structure of French verbs and nouns. When they were borrowed and assimilated in English, the stress in them was shifted to the previous syllable (the second from the end). As a result of stress interchange we have also vowel interchange in such words because vowels are pronounced differently in stressed and unstressed positions.

The change of stress in verb-adjective pairs is less common: e. g. *frequent, adj. – frequent, v. abstract, adj. – abstract, v.*

This stress distinction is, however, neither productive nor regular. There are a lot of cases when both verbs and nouns have the same stress: e. g. *comment, n. – comment, v.; triumph, n. – triumph, v.; preface, n. – preface, v.*

Sound imitation or **onomatopoeia** is naming the action or object by more or less exact reproduction of a sound associated with it: e. g. *babble, blob, bubble, croak, drip, flush, gurgle, gush, ribbit spatter, splash, splatter, swash.* Onomatopoeic words do not reflect the real sounds directly, irrespective of the laws of the language, they only imitate them.

Semantically, onomatopoeic words fell into three groups.

1) They denote sounds produced by human beings in the process of communication or in expressing their feelings. Such words are highly emotional and stylistically coloured: e. g. *giggle, grumble, grunt, hiccup, murmur, mutter, whisper.* The verb *talk,* for instance, has a number of variants: *babble* – say something quickly and foolishly or in a way that is hard to understand; *chatter* – talk quickly and for a long time, usually about smth unimportant; *croak* – to make a deep low sound like the sound a frog makes; *chitchat* – lead an informal light conversation; *gabble* – say quickly that cannot be heard clearly; *jabber* – talk or say quickly and not clearly; *mutter* – say something indistinctly in a way that is hard to understand; *splutter* – talk or say quickly as if confused.

2) Another big group includes words denoting sounds produced by the animals, birds and insects: e. g. *bleat, buzz, cackle, croak, crow, twitter, hiss, honk, howl, mew, moo, neigh, roar.* Some birds are named after the sounds they make (*crow, cuckoo, whippoor*).

3) Onomatopoeic words denote sounds produced by water, natural phenomena, metallic and heavy things, they may imitate forceful motions: e. g. *bang, chink, clink, clonk, dingle, flop, flutter, rap, rustle, slosh, tap, thud, thump, tinkle.*

Table 2

Onomatopoeic Verbs

SOUNDS PRODUCED		
By human beings	By animals, birds, insects	By nature and objects
to whisper, to giggle, to mumble, to sneeze, to whistle etc.	*to hiss, to buzz, to bark, to moo, to twitter etc.*	*to splash, to rustle, to clatter, to bubble, to ding-dong*

Reduplication

Reduplication (complete or partial) is common in this process though onomatopoeic repetition is not very extensive: e. g. *pooh-pooh, hush-hush, bow-wow, chit- chat, ding-dong, flip-flop, ping-pong, rat-a-tat, ding-dong.* In some reduplicative compounds the constituents are pseudomorphemes which do not occur in isolation: e. g. *blah-blah, helter-skelter, hugger-mugger.* Once being coined, onomatopoeic words may undergo further derivation and semantic development. Onomatopoeic words are dynamic and rhythmic, they are used in rhymes and verses, making a context vivid, emotive and expressive.

QUESTIONS FOR REVISION

1. What is the morpheme? What principles of classifying morphemes do you know? 2. What types of words can be distinguished according to their morphological structure? 3. What are the principal productive ways of word-building in English? 4. What is affixation? How do suffixes and prefixes differ in word formation? 5. What are the main principles for the classification of suffixes? 6. How are prefixes classified? 7. What classifications of compounds do you know? 8. What are the criteria of compounds? 9. What are semi-affixes and splinters? 10. What features of modern English make conversion highly productive? 11. What are the typical semantic relations in converted pairs? 12. Comment on the degrees of substantivation. 13. What kind of words constitutes the bulk of shortenings? 14. What classifications *of shortenings do* you know? 15. What abbreviations are called acronyms? Initials? Give examples. 16. Which words are graphically abbreviated? 17. Where is back formation used in Modern English? 18. How can blends be classified? 19. Suggest your own examples of blends in English/Russian/Ukrainian. 20. What groups of onomatopoeic words are there? 21. How active is reduplication? Comment on sound and stress interchange.

SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH WORD AND ITS CHANGES

Semantics is 'language' in its broadest, most inclusive aspect. Sounds, words, grammatical forms, syntactical constructionsare the tools of language. Semantics is language's avowed purpose.
Mario Pei "*The Study of Language*"

1. Semasiology. Referential and Functional approaches to the meaning of the word.
2. Word Meaning and Motivation: phonetical, morphological, semantic.
3. Types of word meaning: lexical, grammatical meanings. Denotational and connotational components of lexical meaning.
4. Polysemy. Meaning and context.
5. Causes of semantic change and development of meaning.
6. Types of semantic change: extention, narrowing, elevation, degradation, metaphor, metonymy.

The branch of lexicology that is devoted to the study of meaning is known as **Semasiology (Semantics).** The name comes from the Greek words *sema* 'sign', *semantikos* 'significant' and *logos* 'learning'.

Meaning is one of the most controversial issues in the theory of language. It is one of those questions which are easier to ask than answer. Meaning plays the most important role in the process of communication. It is through the meaning of different linguistic units that information is conveyed. **The meaning** of the word is the expression of concepts of things fixed in sounds.

The most known approaches to the definition of meaning are the referential approach and the functional approach.

The **referential** approach formulates the essence of meaning by establishing the interdependence between words and the things or concepts they denote. The three main categories that are involved into the description of the meaning are the **sound form** of the linguistic sign,

the **concept** underlying this sound-form and the **referent** which is a part or an aspect of reality to which the linguistic sign refers. The relationships between referent (object, etc. denoted by the word), concept and word are represented by the following semantic triangle worked out by C.K. Ogden and I.A. Richards in their book "The Meaning of sound-form" [38].
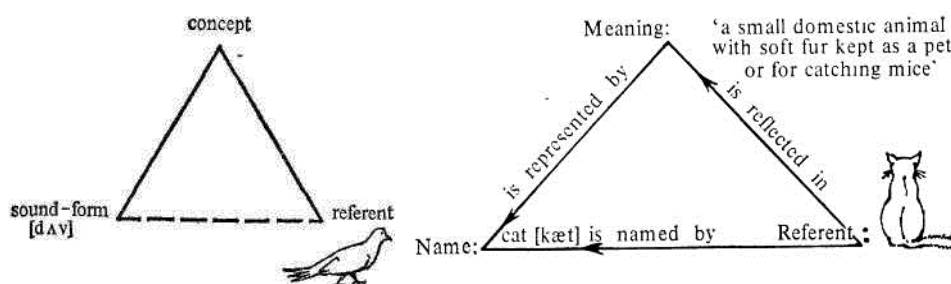
Fig. 3. The triangle of meaning

As can be seen from the diagram the sound-form of the linguistic sign, e.g. [dʌv] is connected with our concept of the bird which it denotes and through it with the referent, i. e. the actual bird. The common feature of any referential approach is the implication that meaning is connected with the referent. The word is thus defined as the basic linguistic unit which refers to (denotes) an object of reality and reflects (signifies) its concept in the speaker's and listener's mind. Generally speaking, meaning can be described as a component of the word through which a concept is communicated, in this way endowing the word with the ability of denoting real objects, qualities, actions and abstract notions.

Meaning though closely connected with the underlying concept is not identical with it. To begin with, **concept** is a 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 of the world. The meanings of words however are different in different languages. That is to say, words expressing identical concepts may have different meanings and different semantic structures in different languages.

An entirely different approach to meaning is known as **the functional approach**. The functional approach maintains that the meaning of a linguistic unit may be studied only through its relation to other linguistic-units and not through its relation to either concept or

referent. In a very simplified form the approach can be illustrated as a number of context that allow the user of the language identify the meaning. For example we can observe the difference of the meanings of the word *take* if we examine its functions in different linguistic contexts, *take the tram (the taxi, the cab,* etc.) as opposed to *to take to somebody.*

Word meaning and motivation

The term **motivation** is used to denote the relationship existing between the phonemic or morphemic composition and structural pattern of the word on the one hand, and its meaning on the other. Motivation is the way in which a given meaning is represented in the word. Some scholars of the past used to call the phenomenon 'the inner word form'.

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

When there is a certain similarity between the sounds that make up the word and those referred to by the sense, the motivation is **phonetical**: e. g. *bang, buzz, cuckoo, giggle, gurgle, hiss, purr, whistle*. Here the sounds of a word are imitative of sounds in nature. Phonetic motivation is not a perfect replica of any acoustic structure but only a rough approximation. Gf. *cuckoo* (eng), *Kuckuck* (ger), *кукушка* (rus).

The relationship between morphemic structure and meaning is termed **morphological motivation.** If there is direct connection between the structural pattern of the word and its meaning, this word is said to be motivated: e. g. *singer, rewrite, eatable*. If the connection between the structure of the lexical unit and its meaning is completely arbitrary and conventional, we speak of non-motivated or idiomatic words: e. g. *matter, repeat.* So the degree of morphological motivation may be different varying from the extreme of complete motivation to lack of motivation.

In words composed of more than one morpheme the carrier of the word-meaning is the combined meaning of the component morphemes and the meaning of the structural pattern of the word. This can be illustrated by the semantic analysis of different words composed of phonemically identical morphemes with identical lexical meaning. The words *finger-ring* and *ring-finger* contain two morphemes, the combined lexical meaning of which is the same; the difference in the meaning of these words can be accounted for by the difference in the

arrangement of the component morphemes. The morphological motivation may be quite regular. Thus, the prefix *ex-* means 'former' when added to human nouns: *ex-filmstar, ex-president, ex-wife.* Alongside with these cases there is a more general use of *ex-:* in borrowed words it is unstressed and motivation is faded (*expect, export,* etc.).

Semantic motivation is used to denote the relationship between the central and the coexisting meaning or meanings of a word which are understood as a metaphorical extension of the central meaning. Metaphorical extension may be viewed as generalisation of the denotational meaning of a word permitting it to include new referents which are in some way like the original class of referents. For example, a woman who has given birth is called *a mother*; by extension, any act that gives birth is associated with being *a mother*, e. g. in *Necessity is the mother of invention.* The same principle can be observed in other meanings: a mother looks after a child, so that we can say *She became a mother to her orphan nephew*, or *Romulus and Remus were supposedly mothered by a wolf.* Cf. also *mother country, a mother's mark* (*=a birthmark*)*, mother tongue,* etc.

It is more or less universally recognised that word-meaning is not homogeneous but is made up of various interrelated components usually described as types of meaning. The two main types of meaning are the grammatical and the lexical meanings to be found in words and word-forms.

The grammatical meaning may be defined as the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words, as, e.g., the tense meaning in the word-forms of verbs (*asked, thought, walked,* etc.) or the case meaning in the word-forms of various nouns (*girl's, boy's, night's,* etc.).

Comparing word-forms of one and the same word we observe that besides grammatical meaning, there is another component of meaning to be found in them. Unlike the grammatical meaning this component is identical in all the forms of the word. Thus, e. g. the word-forms *go, goes, went, going, gone* possess different grammatical meanings of tense, person and so on, but in each of these forms we find one and the same semantic component denoting the process of movement. This is the lexical meaning of the word.

The lexical meaning of the word is the realization of the concept or emotion by means of a definite language system. The lexical meaning is identical in all grammatical forms. It is the same throughout its paradygm. The grammatical meaning differs from one form to another: *moves, moved, moving*. The grammatical meaning is more abstract and more generalized than the lexical meaning; it unites words into big groups such as parts of speech or **lexico- grammatical classes**. It is recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words. E. g. *students, lessons, pens,* whose common element is the grammatical meaning of plurality.

Types of Semantic Components

Lexical meaning is not homogenous and may be analysed as including denotational and connotational components. The leading semantic component in the semantic structure of a word is usually termed denotative component (also, the term referential component may be used). **The denotative component** serves to identify and name concepts making communication possible. It is directed towards things and phenomena of objective reality.

Table 3

Denotative and connotative components of meaning

	DENOTATIVE COMPONENTS	**CONNOTATIVE COMPONENTS**	
lonely, adj.	alone, without company	melancholy, sad	Emotive connotation
notorious, adj.	widely known	for criminal acts or bad traits of character	Evaluative connotation, negative
celebrated, adj.	widely known	for special achievement in science, art, etc.	Evaluative connotation, positive
glare, v.	to look	steadily, lastingly in anger, rage, etc.	Connotation of duration Emotive connotation
glance, v.	to look	briefly, passingly	Connotation of duration
shiver, v.	to tremble	lastingly + (usu.) with the cold	Connotation of duration Connotation of cause
shudder, v.	to tremble	briefly, with horror, disgust, etc.	Connotation of duration Connotation of cause Emotive connotation

It is quite obvious that the denotative component only partially and incompletely describes the meaning. To give a more or less full picture of the meaning of a word, it is necessary to include in the scheme of analysis additional semantic components which are termed connotations or connotative components. The **connotative component** conveys the speaker's attitude to the social circumstances and the appropriate functional style, one's approval or disapproval of the object spoken of, the speaker's emotions, the degree of intensity (to denote = to indicate; to connote = to include in the meaning, to imply).

The scheme presenting the semantic structures of synonymous verbs and adjectives shows that a meaning can have two or more connotative components. There are four types of connotations: *stylistic, emotional, evaluative, intensifying.*

Stylistic connotation is concerned with the situation of communication, the social circumstances (formal, familiar, etc.), the social relationships between the communicants (polite, rough, etc.), the type and purpose of communication (learned, poetic, official, etc.). For instance, to *die* is neutral, *to pass away* is euphemistic, and *to peg out* is slangy. Stylistically words can be roughly subdivided into literary, neutral and colloquial layers. The greater part of the literary layer of Modern English vocabulary are words of general use, possessing no specific stylistic reference and known as neutral words. Against the background of neutral words we can distinguish two major subgroups - standard colloquial words and literary or bookish words. This may be best illustrated by comparing words almost identical in their denotational meaning: e. g., *parent – father – dad.*

Emotional (or emotive, affective) connotation is acquired if the referent conceptualized in the denotative meaning is associated with certain emotions. In the pair '*bright and garish' bright* does not express any emotions, whereas *garish* implies negative emotions. The emotive charge of the words *tremendous, worship* and *girlie* is heavier than that of the words *large, like* and *girl*. This does not depend on the 'feeling' of the individual speaker but is true for all speakers of English. The emotive charge varies in different word-classes. In some of them, in interjections, e.g., the emotive element prevails.

Stylistic reference and emotive charge of words are closely connected and to a certain degree interdependent. As a rule stylistically coloured words, i.e. words belonging to all stylistic layers except the

neutral style possess a considerable emotive charge, e. g. the poetic *yon* and *steed* carry a noticeably heavier emotive charge than their neutral synonyms *there* and *horse.*

Evaluative connotation expresses approval or disapproval. In the set of adjectives *new – modern – newfangled*, the last word expresses disapproval while the word *modern* is often used appreciatively.

Intensifying (also expressive, emphatic) connotation expresses the degree of intensity. For example, the words *magnificent*, *gorgeous*, *splendid*, *superb* are used colloquially as terms of exaggeration.

Polysemy

Words are not, as a rule, units of a single meaning. Monosemantic words, i. e. words having only one meaning are comparatively few in number; these are mainly scientific terms, such as *hydrogen, molecule* and the like. The bulk of English words are polysemantic. The actual number of meanings of the commonly used words ranges from five to about a hundred. In fact, the commoner the word the more meanings it has. E. g. *face* – the front part of the head; the front part of the building; the front part of the watch; etc.

Polysemy is characteristic for all developed languages. But it is especially characteristic of English due to its analytical structure and a large number of one-syllable words.

It should be noted that the wealth of expressive resources of a language largely depends on the degree to which polysemy has developed in the language. The number of sound combinations that human speech organs can produce is limited. Therefore at a certain stage of language development the production of new words by morphological means becomes limited, and polysemy becomes increasingly important in providing the means for enriching the vocabulary. Thus, the process of enriching the vocabulary does not consist merely in adding new words to it, but, also, in the constant development of polysemy.

The system of meanings of any polysemantic word develops gradually, over the centuries. The complicated processes of polysemy development involve both the appearance of new meanings and the loss of old ones. Yet, the general tendency with English vocabulary at the modern stage of its history is to increase the total number of its

meanings and in this way to provide for a quantitative and qualitative growth of the language's expressive resources.

Polysemy viewed diachronically is a historical change in the semantic structure of the word resulting in disappearance of some meanings and addition of new meanings and also in the rearrangement of these meanings in its semantic structure. Polysemy viewed synchronically is coexistence of the various meanings of the same word at a certain historical period.

The word in one of its meanings is termed a **lexico-semantic variant** of this word. The problem in polysemy is that of interrelation of different lexico-semantic variants. All the lexico-semantic variants of a word taken together form its **semantic structure** or **semantic paradigm.**

Polysemy exists only in language, not in speech. In our speech a polysemantic word has only one of its meanings. Other meanings of it are found in other contexts. It is the context that gives a word its actual meaning. The term 'context' denotes the minimal stretch of speech that determines each individual meaning of the word. For instance, the adjective *dull,* if used out of context, would mean different things to different people or nothing at all. It is only in combination with other words that it reveals its actual meaning: *a dull pupil, a dull play, a dull razor-blade, dull weather,* etc.

Jokes (puns) are often based on the use of polysemantic word:

Customer. *I would like a book, please.*

Bookseller. *Something light?*

Customer. *That doesn't matter. I have my car with me.*

In this conversation the customer is honestly misled by the polysemy of the adjective *light* taking it in the literal sense whereas the bookseller uses the word in its figurative meaning 'not serious; entertaining'.

The two main types of linguistic contexts which serve to determine individual meanings of words are the lexical context and the grammatical context. In **lexical contexts** of primary importance are the groups of lexical items combined with the polysemantic word under consideration. The verb *take* in isolation has primarily the meaning 'lay hold of with the hands, grasp, seize', etc. When combined with the lexical group of words denoting some means of transportation (e. g.

to take the tram, the bus, the train, etc.) it acquires the meaning synonymous with the meaning of the verb *to go.*

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 *make,* e. g. 'to force, to enduce', is found only in the grammatical context when the verb *make* is followed by a noun and the infinitive of some other verb (t*o make smb. laugh, go, work*, etc.). Another meaning of this verb 'to become', 'to turn out to be' is observed in the contexts of a different structure, i. e. *make* followed by an adjective and a noun *(to make a good wife, a good teacher, etc.).*

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

New words appear in the language due to the formation of new words out of existing elements (word-building process) or due to borrowings from other languages which have been dealt with in the previous parts. The third way of enriching the vocabulary is due to the development and change of the semantic structure of a word. It is an endless source of a qualitative and quantitative growth of the vocabulary.

The factors accounting for semantic changes maybe subdivided into two groups: extralinguistic and linguistic causes.

Extralinguistic causes presuppose various changes in the life of the community reflected in the word meaning. Newly created objects, new concepts and phenomena must be named. Making new words (word-building) and borrowing foreign ones are the two ways for providing new names for newly created concepts. One more way of filling such vocabulary gaps is by applying some old word to a new object or notion.

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

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

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.

New meanings can also be developed due to **linguistic** factors, e. g. through the influence of other word. The Old English verb *steorfan* meant 'to perish'. When the verb *to die* was borrowed from the Scandinavian, these two synonyms, very close in their meanings, collided, and, as a result, *to starve* gradually changed into its present meaning: 'to die (or suffer) from hunger'.

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

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

Types of Semantic Change

Most scholars distinguish between the terms **development of meaning** (when a new meaning and the one on the basis of which it is formed coexist in the semantic structure of the word, as in *mill, carriage,* etc.) and **change of meaning** (when the old meaning is completely replaced by the new one, as in, e. g., *meat* OE 'any food'/ in ME 'flesh of animals used as a food product').

Extention of meaning (or generalization) is a semantic process when the word range is extended. Most words begin as specific names for things. Often this precise denotation is quickly lost and the word's meaning is extended and generalized. It is often due to contiguity of form, position, colour and to the similarity of function. It includes not only the change from concrete to abstract but also from specific to general: e. g. *salary* (Lat.) – originally meant 'salt' (sal), then – 'a sum

of money given to a soldier to buy some salt with', then – 'a wage'; *season* (Lat.) – meant 'time for sowing seeds', then – 'a period of the year'; *country* – 'a small village', then – 'a state'; *to fly* – 'to move through the air with wings', then – 'any quick movement in the air'; *town* once meant 'fence', now – 'a settlement'; *arrive* once meant 'to land, to reach the shore', now 'any place of destination'.
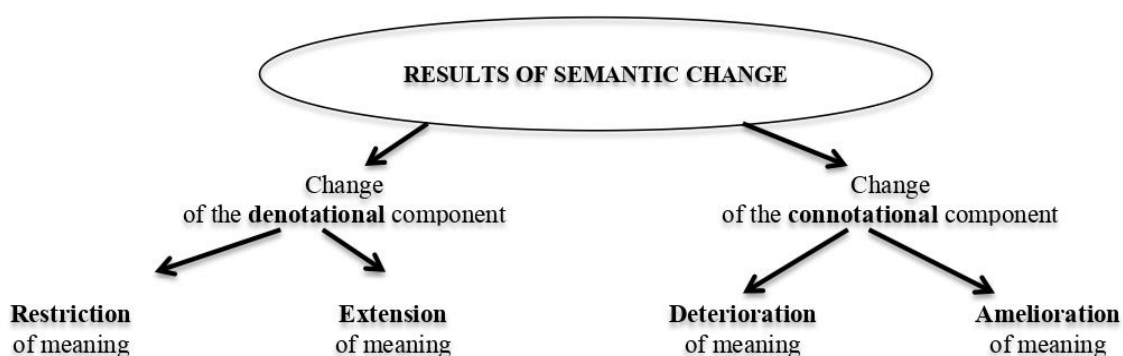
Fig. 4. Results of semantic change

Narrowing of meaning (or specialization) is a semantic process in which the word of wider meaning acquires a narrower, specialized sense: e. g. *hound* – 'a dog in general' – 'a dog used for hunting and racing'; *meat* – 'food' – 'flesh of animals and birds'; *girl* – 'child of any sex' – 'a female child'; *wife* – 'a woman' – 'a married woman'; voyage – 'a trip in general' – 'a journey by sea'; *coffin* – 'a box', later 'a special box for the dead'.

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'.

People tend to specialise and thus to narrow the meanings of words connected with their special activities, e. g.: the word *operation* (операція) has quite different meanings to a financial worker, to a mathematician, to a military man and to a physician. *Квас* meant 'усе кисле'. Now the word means 'кислуватий напій з житнього хліба або житнього борошна'.

Elevation of meaning (or amelioration) is a semantic process in which a word acquires position of greater importance. Some highly complimentary words were originally applied to things of comparatively slight importance: e. g. *fame* meant 'news (good or bad)', now 'glory'; *to adore* had the meaning 'to greet, to address', now

it means 'to love, to worship'; *lord* – 'master' – 'a person belonging to nobility'; *marshal* – 'horse servant' – 'master of the horse' – 'officer of the highest rank'; *queen* – 'a woman' – 'the wife of a king'; *minister* – 'a servant' – 'a member of the cabinet'; *knight* – 'a boy, servant' – 'man of nobility'; *nice* – 'foolish' – 'foolishly particular about trifles' – 'particular about small things, accurate'.

The words *офіс, менеджмент, кур'єр* are considered to have better meanings than *контора, управління, посильний*.

Degradation of meaning (or pejoration) is a semantic process by which a word acquires position of less importance. Words once respectable may become less respectable. Some words reach such a low point that it is considered improper to use them at all: e. g.: *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 'stingy'; *knave* – 'a boy, a servant' – 'a dishonest man'; *villain* – ' farm servant' – 'a wicked man; a scoundrel'.

Processes Involved in Changes of the Semantic Structure of Words
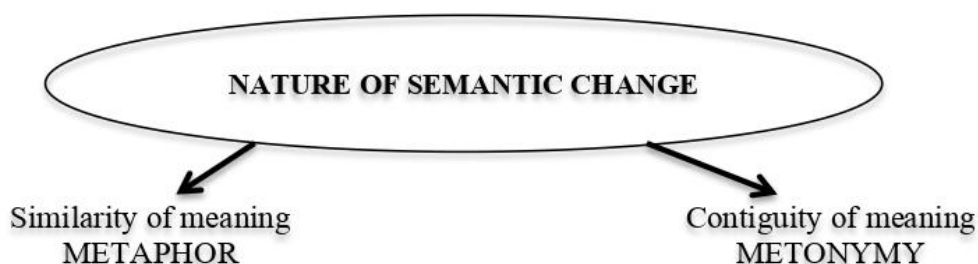
Fig. 5. Nature of semantic change

Any semantic change is based on the establishing new relationship between the existing and new meaning of the word. The process of development of a new meaning (or a change of meaning) is traditionally termed *transference*. Two types of transference are distinguishable depending on the two types of logical associations underlying the semantic process.

Transference Based on Resemblance (Similarity)

This type of transference is also referred to as **metaphor**. A new meaning appears as a result of associating two objects (phenomena, qualities, etc.) due to their outward similarity as reflected in the

speaker's mind: e. g. *eye* 'hole in the end of a needle'; *the neck of a bottle; drop* (mostly in the plural form) 'ear-rings shaped as drops of water' (e. *g. diamond drops)* and 'candy of the same shape' (e. g. *mint drops).* Metaphorical change of meaning is often observed in idiomatic compounds: in the compound words *snowdrop, bluebell* the meaning of the second constituent underwent the same shift of meaning.

The meanings formed through this type of transference are frequently found in the informal strata of the vocabulary, especially in slang. A red-headed boy is nicknamed *carrot* or *ginger* by his schoolmates, and the one who is given to spying and sneaking gets the derogatory nickname of *rat.* Slang words *nut, onion* (= *head), saucers* (= *eyes), hoofs* (= *feet*) are all formed by transference based on resemblance.

Cases of metaphor based on the similarity of:
- function or use: e. g. *hands of clock; arms of a chair; book-worm;*
- movement: *caterpillar tractor; foxtrot;*
- temperature: *cool-head; warm greeting; cold reason;*
- position: *foot of a mountain; top of a page; head of procession;*
- appearance, form: *head of a cabbage; needle's eye; the nose of a plane;*
- sound: *barking* (=cough); *метал у голосі;*
- size: *midget, elephantine.*

Zoosemy is the type of metaphor; in which names of animals are used to denote human qualities: e. g. *fox* – 'a sly and cunning person'; *tiger* – 'a cruel person'; *ass* – 'a stupid and obstinate person'; *lion* – 'a brave'.

Phraseological units: *wolf in sheep's clothing; to make mountain out of a molehill; as the crow flies; rains cats and dogs.*

The metaphotical use of denominative verbs: *to fox* – to trick; *to ape* – to imitate; *to dog* – to follow; *to wolf* – to eat greedely.

Transference Based on Contiguity
(closeness, proximity in space or time)

Semantic changes may also result from associating two things one of which makes part of the other or is closely connected with it. It is called metonymization. **Metonymy** is transference of meaning based

on contiguity (nearness, proximity) of concepts of things and phenomena. The metonymnic transfer may be conditioned by different relations. Spatial relations, for example, are present when the name of the place is used for the people occupying it: *the town* (inhabitants), *the House* (the members of the House of Lords). *Аудиторія, клас* mean not only the premise, but also people. The meaning appears metonymical when the dishes are named in the meaning of the substance contained, e. g., *з'їв миску борщу, розлив відро*. The functional relations between the primary and secondary meanings appear in the result of the functional transfer of the name from one subject to another, e. g., *воротар* first meant 'the guardian of the gate' and later 'the person who defended gates in football'.

Metonymic transference occurs when the speakers substitute:

• the container for the thing contained, e. g. *склянка (випив склянку), зал (аплодував), a kettle (is boiling)*;

• the material for the thing made of it, e. g. Ukr.: *золото (вироби з нього), marble (the statue made of marble), silver (coin)*;

• the object for what is on it, e. g. *стіл (їжа), лікті (протерлися), dish*;

• the object for a certain activity, e. g. *скіпетр, трон (влада монарха), булава (гетьманство), the crown*;

• the sign for the thing signified, e. g. *номер (окремий примірник газети, журналу, окрема кімната в готелі, окремий виступ артиста), трійка (гральна карта, трамвай № 3), from the cradle to the grave; grey hair*;

• the feature (quality, action etc.) for its subject, the abstract is substituted for the concrete, e. g. *граф (про носія титулу), талант (він талант), симпатія (про людину), весілля (святкування)*, *the authorities*;

• the name of an instrument for an agent (doer). *E. g. The pen is stronger than the sword*;

• the names of organs: *She has a good ear for music; to loose one's head*;

• the geographical names for the things produced in these countries for the first time: *Manchester (cotton textile); Boston (wool); Champagne*;

• names of places for people acting at the places: *The table kept laughing. She was the talk of the village.*

- in politics the place of establishment for its policy: *the White House; the Downing Street 10; the Pentagon.*
- names of musicians for names of musical instruments, e. g. the violin, the saxophone;
- names of persons for the things invented by them: *makintosh, nicotine (Jean Nicot),* Watt , Ohm, roentgen (röntgen).

The name of some person may become a common noun, e. g. *boycott* was originally the name of an Irish family who were so much disliked by their neighbours that they did not mix with them, *sandwich* was named after Lord Sandwich who was a gambler. He did not want to interrupt his game and had his food brought to him while he was playing cards between two slices of bread not to soil his fingers.

The simplest case of metonymy is **synecdoche**. It is the semantic process in which the part is used for the whole or the whole for the part: e. g. *foot* (infantry)*; to earn one's bread, a pair of hands* (a worker), *ABC* (alphabet), *man* (humanity), *the law* (a police officer). In metonymy, on the other hand, the word we use to describe another thing is closely linked to that particular thing, but is not a part of it. For example, the word *crown* is used to refer to power or authority is a metonymy. It is not a part of the thing it represents.

In the Ukrainian language the examples of synecdoche can be represented by the following examples: носа не показувати, роботящі руки, білява куделя оглянулася.

QUESTIONS FOR REVISION

1. What is understood by "meaning" in terms of the referential / functional approach? 2. What is lexical / grammatical meaning? 3. What are the components of lexical meaning? 4. Give examples of different types of connotations. 5. What are the peculiar features of polysemantic words? 6. How are the meanings within a polysemantic word related to one another? 7. What are the sources of polysemy in Modern English and Ukrainian? 8. What factors influence the changes in the semantic structure of a word? 9. What is extension /narrowing of meaning? Give examples. 10. What is elevation / degradation of meaning? Give examples. 11. What types of similarity can be observed in the metaphor? 12. What types of association can you observe in the metonymy?

ENGLISH VOCABULARY AS A SYSTEM

As vocabulary is reduced, so are the number of feelings you can express, the number of vents you can describe, the number of the things you can identify! Man grows by language. Whenever he limits language he retrogresses!
Sheri S. Tepper

1. Definition of homonyms, their sources and classification. Paronyms.
2. Hyponymy. Lexico-semantic groups and lexical fields.
3. Synonyms and synonymic group. Their criteria, types and sources.
4. Antonyms, morphological and semantic classification.

Words are semantically and structurally correlated to form a system of language means serving the purposes of communication. Linguistics views the language vocabulary as consisting of several subsystems all based upon similarities and contrasts, relations of inclusion, etc. The more developed the language is, the richer the diversity. Considering the word from the viewpoint of its semantic relations with other words it is worthwhile to begin with words having the same form but quite differing in meaning, i. e. homonyms.

Homonyms (Gr. *homos* – the same; *onyma* – name) are words which are identical in sound and spelling or in one of these aspects, but different in their meaning: e. g. *bank* – 'a shore; an institution of receiving, exchanging and saving money'*; ball* – 'a sphere; a large dancing party'; *hare – hair* (spelt differently, pronounced alike)*; tear – tear* (spelt alike, pronounced differently).

One of the most complicated problems in semasiology is to define where polysemy ends and homonymy begins. When several related meanings are associated with the same form, the word is called **polysemantic**. When two or more unrelated meanings are associated with the same form, these words are **homonyms**. When two or more forms are associated with the same or nearly the same meaning, they are called the **synonyms**.

Modern English vocabulary is rich in homonyms. Among 2540 homonyms given in Oxford dictionary only 1-2 % are of two syllables, most are monosyllabic. Therefore, the abundance of homonyms in Modern English is to be accounted for by the monosyllabic structure of the English words.

There exist four main sources of homonyms in the English language.

Phonetic changes. In the course of historical development two or more words which were formally pronounced differently, may develop identical sound forms and thus become homonyms: e. g. *night* and *knight* were not homonyms in Old English as an initial *k* was pronounced and not dropped as it ME.

Borrowings. Homonyms that appear due to borrowing are called **etymological homonyms**. A borrowed word may in the final stage of its phonetic adaptation duplicate in form either native word or another borrowing: e. g. *match* (native) – 'a game'; *match* (Fr.) – 'a short piece of wood used to produce fire'; *arm (En.) – to arm (F-L).*

Word–formation processes such as conversion (*comb – to comb, to mother, to pale)* or shortening. Homonyms of this type which are the same in sound and spelling but refer to different categories of parts of speech are called lexico-grammatical homonyms (*ad-add; doc-dock).*

Split polysemy. Two or more homonyms can originate from different meanings of the same word when, for some reason, the semantic structure of a word breaks into several parts. This type of homonym formation is called split polysemy when a secondary meaning of polysemantic words looses its connection with primary meaning, e. g. *board –* 'a long and thin piece of timber'*; board –* 'daily meals' (*room and board); board –* 'an official group of persons who supervise some activity' (*a board of directors*). Some linguists, however, do not recognize split polysemy here but different meanings of the same word. The data of dictionaries often contradict each other on this very issue.

Homonyms are traditionally subdivided into [18]:

• **homonyms proper** (perfect, absolute) – pronounced and spelt alike: *ball –* 'a round object used in game', *ball –* 'a gathering of people for dancing';

• **homophones** – pronounced alike, spelt differently (*site – sight; son – sun; see – sea; air – heir, steal – steel, rain – reign, scent – cent*);

● **homographs** – identical in spelling but different both in sound form and meaning: e.g. *bow* [bou] – 'a weapon made from a long curved piece of wood, used for shooting arrows', [bau] – 'a forward movement of the top part of the body, especially to show respect'; *lead* [li:d] – 'the first position at a particular time during a race or competition', [led] – 'a soft heavy grey metal'.

Such subdivision doesn't reflect their status of parts of speech. Prof. Smirnitskiy classified homonyms into two large classes: full homonyms and partial homonyms [18].

Full lexical homonyms are words identical in sound which represent the same category of parts of speech and have the same paradigm*: match – match.*

Partial homonyms are subdivided into three subgroups:

● simple lexico-grammatical partial homonyms belong to the same part of speech. Their paradygms have one identical form, but it is never the same form: *found* (Present Indefinite) – *found* (Past Indefinite of *find);*

● complex lexical-grammatical partial homonyms are words of different parts of speech which have one identical form in their paradigm: *rose, n* – a flower*; rose, v* – Past Indefinite *to rise; made, v* – Past Indefinite *to make; maid, n* – a servant; *one* – numeral; *won* – Past Indefinite *to win;*

● partial lexical homonyms are words of the same category of parts of speech which are identical only in their corresponding forms: *to lie* (lay-lain) – 'to occupy a horizontal position'; *to lie* (lied-lied) – 'to utter falsehood'; *to can* (*canned, canned); can* (*could*).

Somewhat related to homonyms are **paronyms**, i. e. words which are alike in form, but different in meaning. Paronyms are therefore liable to be mixed and mistakenly interchanged (*to affect – to effect; prosecute – persecute, moral – morale; human – humane, alternate – alternative, consequent – consequential*, etc.) Paronymy is universal, not specifically English. Three groups of paronyms are distinguished:

● words having the same root but different derivational prefixes: e. g. *precede – proceed, preposition – proposition, abnormal – subnormal;*

● words with the same root but different derivational suffixes: e. g. *carefree – careless, elementary – elemental, contemptible – contemptuous;*

- words originated from different sources, their likeness accidental: e. g. *absolute – obsolete, adopt – adapt, grisly – grizzly, affect – effect.*

Paronyms may occur among phrases with identical lexical units but different morphological and syntactical forms and, consequently, in meaning: e. g. *call somebody names* – 'speak offensively'; *call somebody's name* – 'utter this person's name'; *lose one's heart* – 'fall in love'; *lose heart* – 'get scared'.

Modern English has a very extensive vocabulary. It may be classified in various ways. The basis of grouping is not only linguistic, but also extra-linguistic: the words are associated because the things they name are closely connected in reality. Closely connected sectors of vocabulary characterized by a common concept are termed **semantic fields**: e. g. the semantic field of colour (*blue, black, red,* etc.) and terms of kinship (*mother, father, brother, etc.*). Words making up semantic fields are not synonyms, they may belong to different parts of speech, but all of them are joined together by some common semantic component. In the semantic field of *space,* for instance, there are nouns – *surface, expanse*; verbs – *extend, spread*; adj. – *spacious, vast*, etc.

Lexical groups of words belonging to the same part of speech and linked by a common concept are termed **lexico–semantic group** (LSG). E. g. *bread, cheese, milk, meat* make up LSG with the concept of *food.*

Another approach to the classification of vocabulary items into lexico- semantic groups is the study of hyponymic relations between words. **Hyponymy** is a semantic relationship of inclusion. Thus, for example, *vehicle* includes *car, bus, taxi, cart,* etc.; *tree* includes *oak, pine, birch, etc*. The hyponimic relationship may be viewed as the hierarchical relationship between the meaning of the general and the individual terms. The general term (*vehicle/tree*) is referred to as the **hyperonym** (or classifier). The more specific term is called the **hyponym** of the more general.

The hyponimic structure may be **open**: e. g. *flowers*: *lily, daffodil, pansy, daisy*, etc. Some of them are **closed** systems, i. e. have a strictly limited number (for example, seven days of the week, nine planets of the solar system, nine Muses, seven deadly sins, etc.).

Semantic similarity or polarity of words may be observed in their denotational or connotational meanings. Similarity or polarity of meanings is to be found in lexical groups of synonyms and antonyms. Both problems are much the same and are approached in similar ways.

Synonyms are one of the language's most expressive means. Synonyms are traditionally defined as words different in their sound form but similar in their denotational component and different in their connotational component and interchangeable at least in some contexts. English is very rich in synonyms. You can find more than 8,000 synonyms in dictionaries. Synonyms are grouped according to their common features (e. g. part of speech, meaning, etc.). Each group possesses the synonymic dominant. **The synonymic dominant** is the most general word of the group possessing the specific features characteristic of a given group of synonyms: e. g. ***to look*** (*to stare, to glare, to gaze, to glance, to peer, to peep*), ***piece*** (*slice, lump, morsel*), ***red*** (scarlet, purple, crimson).

One should not confuse the synonymic dominant with the generic term. A **generic term** is the name for the concept of the genus: e. g. *animal.* Characteristic features of synonymic dominant:

- high frequency of usage;
- broad combinability; ability to be used in combination with other words;
- broad general meaning; and
- lack of connotation.

Prof. Vinogradov divides synonyms into ideographic, stylistic and absolute [5].

Ideographic synonyms are nearly identical in one or more denotational meanings and interchangeable at least in some contexts: *to look – glance – stare – peep – gaze, healthy – wholesome – sound – sane, to walk – to pace – to stride – to stroll.* Synonymic adjectives below have connotations of the degree or intensity: e. g. *cold* (hand, day) 'the absence of heat'; *cool* (drink, breeze) 'moderate coldness'; *chilly* (room, morning) 'coldness that makes one shiver'; *frosty* (day) 'extreme coldness'; *frigid* (climate, weather) 'the intensity of coldness'.

Stylistic synonyms are used in different styles differing in connotational component of the meaning: *shore* (coll.) – *strand* (bookish), *die* (neutral) – *to kick the bucket* (slang), *child* (neutral) – *infant* (elevated) – *kid* (coll.), *enemy – opponent – foe – adversary, terrible – horrible – atrocious.* English synonyms are charecrerized by the contrast between simple stylistically neutral native words, literary words borrowed from French and learned words of Greco-Latin origin: *to ask – to question (Fr.) – to interrogate (Lat.); belly – stomach (Fr.)*

– abdomen (Lat.); gather – assemble (Fr.) – collect (Lat.); end – finish (Fr.) – complete (Lat.); rise – mount (Fr.) – ascend (Lat.).

Table 4

Stylistic synonyms

Synonyms-abbreviations (colloquial style)	Synonyms-euphemisms	Slang synonyms
They appear by means of abbreviation	They substitute unpleasant or offensive words	Expressive, harsh, vulgar words
Examination (neutral) – *exam* (colloquial) *Mathematics* (neutral) – *Math(s)* (colloquial)	*The late* (euph.) – *dead* (neutral); *To perspire* (euph.) – *to sweat* (neutral)	*Beans, brass, dibs, dough* (*sl.*) – *money* (neutral) *Attic, nut, upper storey* (*sl.*) – *head* (neutral)

Absolute synonyms (which coincide in all shades of meaning) are rare. In the course of time if two words fully coincide in meaning they either become different in their shades of meaning or one of them disappears: *sky – heaven; fatherland – motherland.* Examples of these type of synonyms can be found mainly in special literature among terms peculiar to this or that branch of knowledge, e.g.: *noun* and *substantive*, *flection* and *inflection, luce – pike, compounding – composition, алфавіт – абетка, буква – літера.*

Besides, there are synonyms which are synonymous only in certain combinations: *the English language – the English tongue,* but *the mother tongue* (not *language*); *to lay – to spread,* but *to lay the table* (only); *wild – savage: wild animals or berries (*but not *savage).*

The following subgroups of synonyms are also differentiated:

- very close in meaning: *horrible – terrible; to answer – reply;*
- differing in meaning considerably: *interpreter – translator;*
- differing in the manner of the action: *to look, to glance, to gaze, to stare, to eye, to peep, to regard;*
- differing in the degree of quality or the intensity of emotion: *to want, to desire, to long for;*
- differing in emotional colouring: *great man, big man;*
- a continuous action / a momentary action: *to speak – to say.*

Euphemisms (Gr. *eu* – well; *phemi* – speak) – are words or expressions that speakers substitute for taboo words in order to avoid

direct confrontation with topics that are embarrassing, frightening, uncomfortable, etc. Such substitution is a mild or vague connotation for rough and unpleasant expressions: *to expire, to pass away, to depart, to join the majority, to kick the bucket* instead of *to die*; *drunk – intoxicated, merry; mad – queer, insane; to kill – to finish, to remove; foolish – unwise.*

A distinct trend of recent decades is manifested in the abundance of newly coined euphemisms connected with political correctness. The term **political correctness** characteristic mostly of American English came into general use in the English-speaking world at the beginning of 1980s. Some examples of 'politically correct' American English are: *Afro-Americans* for Blacks, *Native Americans* – Indians; *academic dishonesty* – cheating (in school); *international students* – foreign students; *marginalized* – poor; *visually challenged* – blind; *technologically challenged* – unable to deal with technical appliances, *intellectually disadvantaged* – stupid; *differently abled* – handicapped.

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: *cameraman – operator, fireman – fire-fighter, chairman – chairperson, policeman –* p*olice officer.* 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. *S/he* variant is less frequently used.

The political correctness manifests itself by searching for new ways to express ideas with sociopolitical values without offending feelings and dignity of an individual, his/her human rights regarding race and gender, age, health, social status, appearance, etc. Since 1990s political correctness has become incredibly persistent, leading to grotesque forms, e. g. *horizontally challenged* and *nonhuman animal companion* instead of *fat* and *pet*. The dictionary of politically correct words also abounds in such absurd expressions as *an attention-deficit disordered* for a mischievous pupil, *substance abuser* for a drug addict, *reduced state of awareness* for drunk and intoxicated persons, etc.

Sources of Synonyms

Borrowing. 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, e.g.: the native word *heaven* has been restricted to the figurative and religious use while the Danish word *sky* began to be used exclusively though originally *sky* meant 'cloud'. The Danish word *call* has ousted the Old English word *heitan*, the French word *army* ousted the native word *here*. Native words are stylistically neutral while loan words are often bookish, learned: *freedom* (E.) – *liberty* (Fr.); *heaven* (E.) – *sky* (Sc.); *ask* (E.) – *question* (L – Fr.); *answer* (E.) – reply (L – Fr.);

● *dialects and variants* of the English language: *charm* (Midland) – *glamour* (Scottish);

● *word-building processes* (affixation, composition, conversion, shortening): *doc – doctor; star – gazer – dreamer; a corner – to corner.*

● already existing words develop new meanings: *to walk – to stroll; walk of life* (occupation).

It has often been found that subjects vital for a community tend to attract a large number of synonyms. In "Beowulf", for example, there are 37 synonyms for *hero* and at least a dozen for *battle* and *fight,* 17 expressions for *sea*. In Modern American English there are at least twenty words used to denote money*: beans, bucks, the chips, do-re-mi, the needful, wherewithal,* etc. This linguistic phenomenon is usually described as *the law of synonymic attraction.*

The skill to choose the most suitable word in every context and every situation is an essential part of the language learning process.

Antonymy

Antonyms (Gr. *anti* – against, *onyma* – name) – are words which are different in sound form and characterized by semantic polarity of their denotative meanings. Antonymy shares many features typical of synonymy. Like synonyms, perfect and complete antonyms are rare; interchangeability is typical to antonyms as well. In contrast with synonymy antonymy is a binary relationship between 2 words. In most cases antonyms go in pairs or express binary opposition: *day – night; present – absent; difficult, hard – easy.*

According to morphological classification antonyms may be absolute (root) and derivational. **Absolute antonyms** are diametrically opposite in meaning and remain antonyms in many word combinations: *love – hate; light – dark, white – black.* **Derivational antonyms** are formed with the help of the negative affixes: **prefixes**: *un-* the most

productive (*known – unknown*)*; in* – with its allomorphs *il-,* or *im-* (*irregular, incomplete*)*; dis-* (*to disarrange, to dishonor*)*; mis-* (*misfortune, to mistrust*)*; non-* (*non-human, non-acceptance*)*;* **suffixes:** *-less* (*careful – careless*; *painful – painless*)*;* **mixed affixes**, both absolute and derivational (*correct – incorrect, wrong; expensive – inexpensive, cheep; normal – abnormal, queer; temporary – untemporary, interminable*).

According to the semantic classification antonyms may be: proper, complementary, conversive. The semantic polarity in **antonyms proper** is characterized by different degrees of the same property. They always imply comparison: *large – little, small, strong – weak.* Such antonyms are called **gradable,** they indicate dimensions on the scale: *old – middle-aged – young; hot – warm – cool – cold.*

Complementary antonyms (contradictories) are words characterized by a binary opposition with only two members. The denial of one member implies the assertion of the other: *male – female, alive – dead.* They are non-gradable and indicate sharp boundaries in the semantic spectrum.

Conversives bear symmetrical relations to each other (e. g. that of the subject and that of the object, etc.): *he gave her flowers and she took them; lend and borrow; above and below; buy and sell.*

Antonyms are common in proverbs, e. g. *A good beginning makes a good ending. Better a witty fool than a foolish wit. Drunkeness reveals what soberness conceals.*
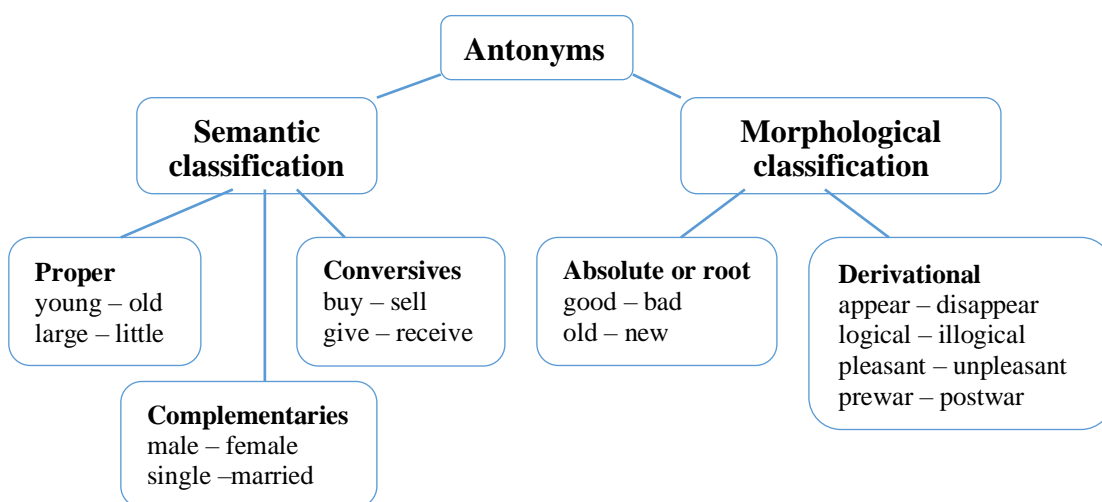
Fig. 6. Classification of antonyms

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QUESTIONS FOR REVISION

1. How can the English vocabulary be classified? 2. Give the definition of homonyms. What is their role in the language? 3. How can homonyms be classified? What principles are the classifications based on? Give examples of each group. 4. What are the sources of homonyms? 5. What is the difference between polysemy and homonymy? What are the criteria of delimitation of polysemous and homonymous words? 6. What is the difference between a lexico-semantic group and semantic field? 7. What is hyponymy? What terms are used to express this relation? 8. Give the definition of synonyms. What are the sources of synonymy? 9. Comment on the characteristic features of a synonymic dominant, illustrating your with examples. 10. How can synonyms be classified? 11. Say what ways euphemisms come into the language. What is political correctness? Is political correctness always welcome? 12. Give the definition of antonyms and their classification.

ENGLISH PHRASEOLOGY

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

1. Phraseological units, their essential features. Differences in terminology.
2. Classifications of phraseological units.
3. Stylistic aspect of phraseology. Phraseological tranference.
4. Proverbs, sayings, familiar quotations.

Phraseological units, or **idioms**, as they are called by most western scholars, represent what can probably be described as the most picturesque, colourful and expressive part of the language's vocabulary. They are studied by phraseology, a sub-field of lexicology. Variations in terminology (set-phrases, idioms, word-equivalents) reflect certain differences in the main criteria used to distinguish types of phraseological units and free word-groups.

Phraseological units can be defined as non-motivated word-groups that cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready-made units. Thus, the essential features of phraseological units are:

• **reproducibility** – regular use of phraseological units in speech as single unchangeable collocations;

• **idiomaticity** – lack of motivation; the meaning of the whole is not deducible from the sum of the meanings of the parts; and

• **lexical and grammatical stability** – a phraseological unit exists as a ready-made linguistic unit which does not allow of any variability of its lexical components, of grammatical structure: *all the world and his wife, red tape.*

In a free phrase the semantic correlative ties are fundamentally different. The information is additive and each element has a much greater semantic independence. Each component may be substituted without affecting the meaning of the other: *cut bread, cut cheese, eat bread*. Every notional word can form additional syntactic ties with other words outside the expression. In a set expression information furnished by each element is not additive: actually it does not exist before we get the whole. No substitution for either *cut* or *figure* can be made without completely ruining the following: *I had an uneasy fear that he might cut a poor figure beside all these clever Russian officers* (Shaw). *He was not managing to cut much of a figure* (Murdoch). The only substitution admissible for the expression *cut a poor figure* concerns the adjective.

Classifications of Phraseological Units

There are different approaches to the classification of phraseological units: semantic, functional (according to their grammatical structure), contextual, and thematic. Semantic approach stresses the importance of idiomaticity, functional – syntactic inseparability, contextual - stability of context combined with idiomaticity.

Semantic Classification

The semantic criterion in classification takes into account the degree of idiomaticity of phraseological units. This classification was suggested by Academician Vinogradov who developed some issues first advanced by the Swiss linguist Charles Bally [1]. The classification is based upon the motivation of the unit, i. e. the relationship existing between the meaning of the whole and the meaning of its component parts. The degree of motivation is correlated with the rigidity, indivisibility and semantic unity of the expression, i.e with the possibility of changing the form or the order of components, and of substituting the whole by a single word. According to the type of motivation three types of phraseological units are suggested: phraseological combinations/collocations, phraseological unities, and phraseological fusions.

Phraseological collocations are clearly motivated, that is, the meaning of the unit can be easily deduced from the meanings of its

constituents. One component is used in its direct meaning while the other is used figuratively: *meet the demand, meet the necessity, meet the requirements.* In phraseological collocations variability of member-words is strictly limited, e. g. *bear a grudge, bear malice,* but not *bear a fancy*. Phaseological collocations differ from free word groups in the fact that one component of it is limited in its combinative power. Phraseological collocations may express the following relations: attributive (*deep gratitude, bosom friends); object (take measures, cast a glance);* subject-predicate (*time flies*), adverbial (*snow heavily*, *try hard*).

Phraseological unities are word-groups with a completely changed meaning, that is, the meaning of the unit does not correspond to the meanings of its constituent parts. They are partially non-motivated as their meaning can usually be perceived through the metaphoric meaning of the whole: e. g. *show one's teeth, wash one's dirty linen in public, bring one's pigs to the wrong market, play the first fiddle, take the bull by the horns.* The metaphor, on which the shift of meaning is based, is clear and transparent: *to stick to one's guns* 'to be true to one's convictions implying courage'. The image created is that of guncrew who do not desert their guns even if a battle seems lost. The image created by PU *to ride the high horse* '*to* behave in a superior, haughty way' is that of a person mounted on a horse so high that he looks down on others.

Phraseological unities are, as a rule, marked by a comparatively high degree of stability of the lexical components, the possibility of synonymic substitution is very limited, e. g. *to know the way the wind is blowing*.

Phraseological fusions are word-groups with a completely changed meaning but, in contrast to the unities, they are completely non-motivated, that is, their meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of the constituent parts. The metaphor, on which the shift of meaning was based, lost its clarity and is obscure: *red tape, heavy father, kick the bucket, tit for tat, on Shank's mare* – 'on foot', *at sixes and sevens* – 'in a mess'; *as mad as a hatter* – 'utterly mad'; *white elephant* – 'an expensive but useless thing'. Phraseological fusions represent the highest stage of blending together. The meaning of components has no connection whatsoever, at least synchronically, with the meaning of the whole group. Idiomaticity is, as a rule, combined

with the complete stability of the lexical components and the grammatical structure of the fusion. Phraseological fusions are specific for every language and do not lend themselves to literal translation into other languages. The boundary between unities and fusions is, of course, not clear-cut, but varies according to the linguistic and cultural experience of the individual.

Structural Classification

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

• **Verbal:** *to run for one's (dear) life, to get (win) the upper hand, to talk through one's hat, to make a song and dance about something.*

• **Substantive:** *dog's life, white lie, birds of a feather, red tape, brown study.*

• **Adjectival***: high and mighty, spick and span, brand new, safe and sound.* In this group the so-called comparative word-groups are particularly expressive: (as) *cool as a cucumber, (as) nervous as a cat, (as) drunk as an owl (sl.).*

• **Adverbial:** *high and low, by hook or by crook, for love or money, in cold blood, in the dead of night, between the devil and the deep sea.*

Etymological Classification

The traditional and oldest principle for classifying phraseological units is based on their original content and might be alluded to as "thematic" (although the term is not universally accepted). The approach is widely used in numerous English and American guides to idiom, phrase books, etc. On this principle, idioms are classified according to their sources of origin, "source" referring to the particular sphere of human activity, of life of nature, of natural phenomena, etc. So, Smith gives in his classification groups of idioms used by sailors, fishermen, soldiers, hunters and associated with the realia, phenomena and conditions of their occupations [39]. In Smith's classification there are also groups of idioms associated with domestic and wild animals and birds, agriculture and cooking, idioms drawn from sports, arts, etc. This principle of classification is sometimes called "etymological".

According to their origin all phraseological units may be divided into two big groups: native and borrowed.

The main sources of **native phraseological units** are:

• terminology and professional lexics: physics – *center of gravity*, navigation – *cut the painter* 'to become independent', *lower one's colours* 'to yield, to give in'; military sphere – *fall into line* 'conform with others';

• British literature: *the green-eyed monster* – 'jealousy' (Shakespeare); *fall on evil days* – 'live in poverty after having enjoyed better times' (Milton); *a sight for sore eyes* – 'a person or thing that one is extremely pleased or relieved to see' (Swift); *How goes the enemy?* (Dickens);

• British traditions and customs: *baker's dozen* – 'a group of thirteen'. In the past British merchants of bread received from bakers thirteen loaves instead of twelve and the thirteenth loaf was merchants' profit;

• superstitions and legends: *a black sheep* – 'a less successful or more immoral person in a family or a group'. People believed that a black sheep was marked by the devil;

• historical facts and events, personalities: *as well be hanged for a sheep as a lamb* 'something that you say when you are going to be punished for something so you decide to do something worse because your punishment will not be any more severe'. According to an old law a person who stole a sheep was sentenced to death by hanging, so it was worth stealing something more because there was no worse punishment;

• phenomena and facts of everyday life: *carry coals to Newcastle* – 'to take something to a place where there is plenty of it available'. Newcastle is a town in Northern England where a lot of coal was produced.

The main sources of **borrowed phraseological units** are:

• the Holy Script: *the left hand does not know what the right hand is doing* 'communication is bad so that one part does not know what is happening in another part'; *the kiss of Judas* – 'any display of affection whose purpose is to conceal any act of treachery'; *doubting Thomas;*

• ancient legends and myths belonging to different religious or cultural traditions: *to cut the Gordian knot* – 'to deal with a difficult problem in an effective way'; *a Procrustean bed* – 'a harsh, inhumane system into which the individual is fitted by force' (from Greek

Mythology, Procrustes – a robber who forced travelers to lie on a bed and made them fit by stretching their limbs or cutting off the appropriate length of leg); *the sword of Damocles, Pandora's box;*

- facts and events of the world history: *to cross the Rubicon* – 'to do something which will have very important results which cannot be changed after'; *to meet one's Waterloo* – 'be faced with, esp. after previous success, a final defeat, or obstacle one cannot overcome (from the defeat of Napoleon at Waterloo 1815)';

- variants of the English language, e. g. *a heavy hitter* – 'someone who is powerful and has achieved a lot' *(AmE); be home and hosed* – 'to have completed something successfully' *(Australian);*

- other languages (classical and modern): *second to none* – 'equal with any other and better than most' (from Latin: *nulli secundus); let the cat out of the bag* – 'reveal a secret carelessly' (from German: *die Katze aus dem Sack lassen); tilt at windmills* – 'to waste time trying to deal with problems that do not exist' (from Spanish: *acometer molinos de viento); every dog is a lion at home* – 'to feel significant in the familiar surrounding' (from Italian: *ogni cane e leone a casa sua).*

Phraseological Transference

Phraseological transference is a complete or partial change of meaning of an initial (source) word-combination as a result of which the word-combination acquires a new meaning and turns into a phraseological unit. Phraseological transference may be based on simile, metaphor, metonymy, synecdoche, etc. or on their combination.

1. Transference **based on simile** is the intensification of some feature of an object (phenomenon, thing) denoted by a phraseological unit by means of bringing it into contact with another object (phenomenon, thing) belonging to an entirely different class: *(as) pretty as a picture, (as) fat as a pig, to fight like a lion, to swim like a fish, as like as two peas, as old as the hills.*

2. Transference **based on metaphor** is a likening of one object (phenomenon) of reality to another, which is associated with it on the basis of real or imaginable resemblance: *a lame duck, a pack of lies, arms race, to swallow the pill, in a nutshell, to bend somebody to one's bow* 'to submit someone'.

3. Transference **based on metonymy** is a transfer of name from one object (phenomenon) to another based on the contiguity of their

properties, relations, etc. The idea about one object is inseparably linked with the idea about the other object. For example, the metonymical transference in the phraseological unit *a silk stocking* meaning 'a rich, well-dressed man' is based on the replacement of the genuine object (a man) by the article of clothing which was very fashionable and popular among men in the past.

4. Transference **based on synecdoche** is naming the whole by its part, the replacement of the common by the private, of the plural by the singular and vice versa: e. g. *in the flesh and blood* meaning 'in a material form'. Synecdoche is usually found in combination with other types of transference, e. g. metaphor: *to hold one's tongue* – 'to say nothing, to be discreet'.

Proverbs, Sayings, Familiar Quotations and Cliches

A proverb is a short familiar epigrammatic saying expressing popular wisdom, a truth or a moral lesson in a concise and imaginative way: *You can take the horse to the water, but you can't make him drink. If you sing before breakfast, you will cry before night. A new broom sweeps clean.*

A saying is any common, colloquial expression, or a remark often made: *Charity begins at home. It takes two to tango.* Sayings can be represented by:

affirmative sentences: *The world is a small place. That is a horse of another colour. Сорока на хвості принесла;*

interrogative sentences: *Do you see any green in my eye? What's the good word? Where do you hail from?;*

negative sentences: *Не нашого поля ягода. Не святі горшки ліплять.*

imperative sentences: *Carry me out! Put that in your pipe and smoke it!*

The place of proverbs, sayings and familiar quotations with respect to set expressions is a controversial issue. Proverbs have much in common with set expressions. Prof. A.V. Kunin included proverbs in his classification of phraseological units labeling them communicative phraseological units [18]. Proverbs and sayings possess such characteristics of phraseological units: they are introduced in speech ready-made; their components are constant; their meaning is traditional and mostly figurative; many proverbs and sayings are metaphorical (*Time is money. Little drops make the mighty ocean. Rome wasn't built*

in a day. Words can cut like a knife. Make hay while the sun shines).
Proverbs often form the basis of phraseological units making it difficult
to draw any rigid borderline between them: *the last straw (The last
straw breaks the camel's back)*; *birds of a feather (Birds of a feather
flock together)*; *spill the milk (There is no use crying over the spilt milk).*

As to **familiar quotations,** they are different from proverbs in
their origin. They come from literature and gradually become part of
the language. Very few people are aware of using a quotation from
Shakespeare or could accurately name the source. The Shakespearian
quotations have contributed enormously to the store of the language.
Very many come from "Hamlet", for example: *Something is rotten in
the state of Denmark; Brevity is the soul of wit; The rest is silence; Thus
conscience does make cowards of us all; There are more things in
heaven and earth, Horatio; To be or not to be: that is the question; I
must be cruel, only to be kind; Frailty, thy name is woman.*

Some quotations are so often used that they become **cliches.** Being
constantly and mechanically repeated they lost their original
expressiveness became hackneyed: *astronomical figures, the arms of
Morpheus, to break the ice, the irony of fate, stand shoulder to shoulder,
swan sing,* etc.

QUESTIONS FOR REVISION

1. What are the essential features of PUs as contrasted to free word
combinations? How would you explain the term "grammatical
invariability" of phraseological units? 2. What classifications of
phraseological units do you know? What principles are they based on?
3. What is the basis of the traditional and oldest principle for classifying
PUs? What groups of PU are singled out? 4. What are the merits and
disadvantages of the thematic principle of classification for PU?
5. What are the sources of phraseological units? 6. What is
phraseological transference of meaning based on? 7. What is the
difference between proverbs and sayings? 8. Can proverbs be regarded
as a subdivision of phraseological units? Give reasons for your answer.
9. Do you share the opinion that in idioms the original associations are
partly or wholly lost? Are we entirely free from the picture built up by
the current meanings of the individual words in idioms? Illustrate your
answer with different examples.

Part 7

STYLISTIC DIFFERENTIATION OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

Language is the amber in which a thousand precious and subtle thoughts
have been safely embedded and preserved.
From Word and Phrase by J. Fitzgerald

1. The notion of functional Style. Formal and Informal style.
2. Informal style
- colloquial words;
- slang;
- jargonisms, argot, vulgarisms;
- dialect words.
3. Formal style
- learned (literary-bookish) words;
- archaisms and historisms;
- poetic diction;
- professional terminology;
- literary neologisms.
4. Neutral vocabulary.

The term **functional style** is generally accepted in modern linguistics as 'a system of expressive means peculiar to a specific sphere of communication' (I. V. Arnold) [22, 115]. By the sphere of communication two main types are meant: formal (a lecture, a speech in court, an official letter, professional communication) and informal (an informal talk, an intimate letter). Accordingly, functional styles are classified into two groups, with further subdivisions.

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. Both literary and colloquial layers can be roughly subdivided into common and special literary and colloquial words. The common literary, neutral and common colloquial words are grouped under the term 'standard English vocabulary'. The subgroups of the special literary vocabulary are the following: terms, poetical words,

foreignisms and barbarisms, archaic words and historisms, nonce-words. The subgroups of the special colloquial layer are dialectical words, vulgarisms, slang, jargon, professionalisms, nonce-words.

Informal Vocabulary

Informal vocabulary is used in one's immediate circle: family, relatives or friends. Informal style is relaxed, free-and-easy, familiar and unpretentious. The informal talk of well-educated people considerably differs from that of the illiterate or the semi-educated; the choice of words with adults is different from the vocabulary of teenagers; people living in the provinces use certain regional words and expressions. Consequently, the choice of words is determined in each particular case not only by an informal (or formal) situation, but also by the speaker's educational and cultural background, age group, and his occupational and regional characteristics. Informal words and word-groups are traditionally divided into three types: colloquial, slang and dialect words.

Colloquial Words

Colloquial words are subdivided into literary colloquial and low colloquial. These are informal words that are used in everyday conversational speech both by cultivated and uneducated people of all age groups, so their sphere of communication is comparatively wide, at least of literary colloquial words. The sphere of communication of literary colloquial words also includes the printed page. Vast use of informal words is one of the prominent features of 20th century English and American literature. It is quite natural that informal words appear in dialogues in which they realistically reflect the speech of modern people: e. g. 'You're at *some sort of* technical college?' she said to Leo, not looking at him ... . 'Yes. I hate it though. I'm *not good enough at maths.* There's a *chap* there *just down from* Cambridge who *puts us through* it. I can't *keep up.* (From "The Time of the Angels" by I. Murdoch) [6, 315].

Here are some more examples of literary colloquial words: *pal*, *chum* for a friend; *girl* for 'a woman of any age'; *bite* and *snack* for 'meal'; *hi, hello, so long, go on, be through, to have a crush on somebody, a bit (of), a lot (of).*

Colloquial words are marked by their special emotional colouring: *father – daddy, girl – lass.* Affixation predominates there, especially suffixation forming diminutives like *-ie* (*auntie), -y* (*granny*), *-ette* (*kitchenette*), *-ish* (*piggish*).

Substantivized adjectives are very frequent in colloquial speech, e. g. *daily* – 'a woman who comes daily to help with household chores'; *greens* – 'green leaf vegetables'; *woolies* – 'woolen clothes'.

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

Verbs with post-positional adverbs are also numerous among colloquialisms (*put up, make up, make out, do away, turn up*) or composition + conversion from phrasal verbs, e. g. *carry-on* – 'way of behaving'.

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

The borderline between the literary and familiar colloquial is not always clearly marked. Yet the circle of speakers using familiar colloquial is more limited: these words are used mostly by the young and the semi-educated. Familiar colloquial words border on slang and have something of its coarse flavour: e. g. *ta-ta* (good-bye*), goings-on* (behaviour*,* usually with a negative connotation), *to kid smb.* (tease*), to pick up smb.* (make a quick acquaintance), *go on with you* (let me alone)*, shut up* (keep silent)*, beat it* (go away).

Low colloquial words are characteristic of the speech of persons who may be broadly described as uncultivated. This group is stocked with words of illiterate English.

Slang includes words and phrases which occur in actual speech as colloquial neologisms and readily pass to the layer of widely used literary-colloquial lexical units. A new slang term is usually widely used in a subculture before it appears in the dominant culture. Slang sometimes stems from within the group satirizing its own values, behaviour, and attitudes, e. g. *shotgun wedding* – a marriage forced or required because of pregnancy*; greasy spoon* – a dingy small cheap restaurant; *eathead* – an idiot.

Slang is produced largely by social forces rather than by an individual speaker or writer who, single-handed (like Horace Walpole, who coined *serendipity* more than 200 years ago [25]), creates and a

word in the language. This is one reason why it is difficult to determine the origin of slang terms.

Slang is often humorous, witty, emotionally coloured, often figurative: e. g. money – *beans, brass, dibs, dough, chick*; head – *attic, brain-pan, upper-storey;* drunk – *boozy, cock-eyed, soaked;* prison – *can, cooler, jug pen, pokey.*

Slang can be of two types: general and special. **General slang** includes words that are not specific for any social or professional group: *block, dome, three sheets in the wind, half-seas-over, pin-eyed*, *базар* (розмова), *здрейфити* (злякатися), *наїжджати* (чіплятися, погрожувати), *кльово* (дуже добре).

Special slang is peculiar for some groups of people: university slang, football slang, etc. 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'.

Slang is an extremely changeable part of the vocabulary. Some slangy words like *boss, boost* have been adopted by the language and are registered in dictionaries; others may be used only in a certain style of speech. The processes by which words become slang are the same as those by which other words in the language change their meaning: metaphorical transfer, simile, folk etymology, distortion of sounds in words, generalization / specialization, clipping, the use of acronyms, elevation / degeneration, metonymy, synecdoche, hyperbole, borrowings from foreign languages, euphemism against taboo. The word *trip* is an example of a term that underwent both specialization and generalization. It first became specialized to mean 'a psychedelic experience resulting from the drug LSD'. Subsequently, it generalized again to mean 'any experience on any drug', any type of 'kicks' from anything. Clipping is exemplified by the use of *grass* from 'laughing grass'– a term for *marijuana*.

Most slang words are metaphors and jocular, often with a coarse, mocking, cynical colouring. A person using a lot of slang seems to be sneering and jeering at everything under the sun. Each slang metaphor is rooted in a joke, but not in a kind or amusing joke which distinguishes

slang from colloquialisms. To put it figuratively, if colloquialisms can be said to be wearing dressing gowns and slippers, slang is wearing a perpetual foolish grin.

Some slang becomes respectable when it loses its edge: *spunk, fizzle, hit the spot, jazz, funky*, and others, once thought to be too indecent for feminine ears, are now family words.

The main reasons for using slang as explained by modern psychologists are as follows: to be striking, picturesque, and, above all, different from others; to promote identification with a class or a group; to avoid the tedium of hackneyed 'common' words; to demonstrate one's spiritual independence and daring; to sound 'modern' and 'up-to-date'. Slang always expresses a certain emotional attitude. Many slang terms are primarily derogatory, others flatter. Slang sometimes insults or shocks when used directly, some terms euphonize a sensitive concept. Some slang words are essential because there are no words in the standard language expressing exactly the same meaning: e. g. *freak-out,* n – 'a gathering of hippies'*; creep,* n. – 'an unpleasant or obnoxious person'.

Slang is mainly used by the young and uneducated. Yet, slang's colourful and humorous quality makes it catching, so that a considerable part of slang may become accepted by nearly all the groups of speakers. After a slang word has been used in speech for a certain period of time it ceases to produce that shocking effect for the sake of which it has been originally coined. Such words as *bet, bore, chap, mob, odd, pinch, sham, snob, trip, teenager*, *blurb* have become part of literary vocabulary. But they are rather an exception. The bulk of slang is formed by short- lived words, a step on its way to jargonisms.

Jargonisms are words and expressions created by various social groups and classes, a sort of secret code made up of ordinary words used in a different meaning.

Vulgarisms are rough, swear words, oaths and curses. Some of them are very stable, established by long use, e. g. *the devil, the hell, Goddam, bloody, blooming.*

Dialect Words

A dialect is defined as a variety of a language which prevails in a district, with local peculiarities of vocabulary, pronunciation and phrase. England is a small country, yet it has many dialects which have

their own distinctive features (e. g. the Lancashire, Dorsetshire, Norfolk dialects). So dialects are regional forms of English.

Dialectal peculiarities, especially those of vocabulary, are constantly being incorporated into everyday colloquial speech or slang. From these levels they can be transferred into the common stock, i. e. words which are not stylistically marked and a few of them even into formal speech and into the literary language. *Car, trolley, tram* began as dialect words. Sometimes dialectical words are not remnants of Old English words but corrupted words and expressions, such as *gurt* (great), *zote* (soft).

Cockney dialect enjoys a somewhat peculiar position for it can be met almost anywhere in English-speaking countries. Its lexical, phonetical and grammatical peculiarities can be found in the speech of Eliza Doolittle in B. Shaw's "Pygmalion" [39]. There are two kinds of Cockney: – the variety of Modified Standard speech which is the typical Cockney English of London, as spoken by educated middle-class people; and the variety of Modified Standard spoken by the semi-literate and quite illiteratepeople. Here 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 sounds [d] and [t] are also frequently dropped as in *an'* (and), *hobjec'* (object), *nex'* (next). The sound [w] is dropped: ekal (equal). The Cockney grammar exhibits several anomalies: *I's bin* (have been); *I ain't* (am not); I, we *calls*; we, you *was*; I *has*.

Formal Style

Formal style is restricted to formal situations. These words are mainly associated with the printed page. It is in this vocabulary stratum that poetry and fiction find their main resources. In general, formal or literary words fall into two main groups: words associated with professional communication and a less exclusive group of so-called 'learned words'.

Literary / Bookish Words (Learned Words)

They are mostly borrowed words of Romanic origin. Literary words are often polymorphemic and polysyllabic, their range of application is rather narrow and consequently their frequency is low.

The term 'learned' includes several heterogeneous subdivisions of words. Numerous words used in *scientific prose* can be identified by their dry, matter-of-fact flavour (e. g. *comprise, compile, experimental, heterogeneous, homogeneous, conclusive, divergent,* etc.).

To this group also belong so-called 'officialese' – the words of the official, bureaucratic language: *assist, endeavour, proceed, approximately, sufficient, attired, inquire.* An official letter from a Government Department may serve as a typical example of officialese: "*You are authorized to acquire the work in question by purchase through the ordinary trade channels*" (We advise you to buy the book in a shop).

The words found in descriptive passages of fiction may be called 'literary'. They are refined, mostly polysyllabic words drawn from the Romance languages and, though fully adapted to the English phonetic system, some of them continue to sound foreign. Their very sound seems to create complex and solemn associations: *solitude, sentiment, fascination, fastidiousness, facetiousness, delusion, meditation, felicity, elusive, cordial, illusionary.*

Another subdivision of learned words are modes of *poetic diction*. Poetic words stand close to the previous group, they are lofty, high-flown, often with archaic colouring: a*las, realms, wroth, doth.*

Though learned words are mainly associated with the printed page, this is not exclusively so. Educated people in both modern fiction and real life use learned words quite naturally not only in their formal letters and professional communication but also in everyday speech. On the other hand, too many learned words for pretensions of 'refinement' in an informal situation may produce a comic effect, verging on the absurd and ridiculous. However, it is in this vocabulary stratum that writers and poets find their most vivid paints and colours, and not only their humorous effects.

Archaic and Obsolete Words. Historisms

Archaisms are obsolete names for existing objects. They always have a synonym, a word denoting the same concept but differing in its stylistical sphere of usage. The terms 'archaic' and 'obsolete' are used more or less indiscriminately. An obsolete word is defined as out of use for at least a century', whereas an archaism is referred to as current in an earlier time but rare in present usage. The borderline between

'obsolete' and 'archaic' is vague, and in many cases it is difficult to decide to which of the groups this or that word belongs.

Archaisms are bookish words which are not used in everyday speech. Their frequency value is very low. They may be found in historical novels where they are used to create the atmosphere of ancient times. Archaisms are also used in poetry in elevated speech. They are still used in some kinds of official documents, in books on religious subjects, sermons, prayers, etc., e. g. *deem* – think, *damsel* – girl, *yonder* – there, *woe* – grief, *ere* – before, *forebears* – ancestors, *steed* – horse, *slay* – kill, *welkin* – sky.

In some cases the archaic meaning survives in a number of set expressions. Thus, the adjective *quick* retains its archaic meaning of 'living' in expressions like *the quick and the dead, touch somebody to the quick.* The verb *tell* retains its archaic meaning of 'count' in phrases *tell noses*, *all told* and *money-teller*. In the proverb *Many a little makes a mickle* the word *mickle* retains its archaic meaning 'great, much'.

Archaisms may be classified into **lexical** and **grammatical**. Lexical archaisms are words; grammatical archaisms are obsolete grammatical forms. In Old English the personal pronoun *thou* (with the corresponding verb ending in *'est')* was always used in addressing a single person. Now it is used only in poetry; the poetical possessive pronouns *thy* and *thine* never occur in everyday speech. *Wilt*, second person singular of *will* is common in poetry, e.g. *Do what thou wilt.* Among other archaic grammatical forms we find the inflection *-est* for the second person singular, *-th* for the third person singular, e.g. *Man goth. Thou knowest.*

Archaic adverbs and conjunctions are often used in legal documents, e. g. *hereafter* – after this time, *thence* – from that time as a result, *wherein* – in which.

Archaisms stand close to the 'learned' words, particularly to the modes of poetic diction. Learned words and archaisms are both associated with the printed page. Yet, unlile learned words that may also be used in conversational situations, archaisms are invariably restricted to the printed page. These words are already partly or fully out of circulation, rejected by the living language. Their last refuge is in historical novels (whose authors use them to create a particular period atmosphere) and, of course, in poetry which is rather conservative in its choice of words. *Thou* and *thy, aye* (yes) and *nay* (no) are certainly

archaic and long since rejected by common usage, yet poets use them even today. Archaisms are also found among dialectisms, which is quite natural, as dialects are also conservative and retain archaic words and structures. Further examples of archaisms are: *morn, eve* (evening*), moon, damsel, errant,* etc. Sometimes, an archaic word may undergo a sudden revival. So, the formerly archaic *kin* (for 'relatives'; *one's family*) is now current in American usage.

It is necessary to distinguish between 'historisms' and 'archaisms'. **Historisms** are words and phrases that have become obsolete because the things they denote are outdated and do not exist any longer. Historisms are numerous as names for social relations, institutions and objects of material culture of the past. The names of the ancient transport means, such as types of boats and carriages, ancient clothes, weapons, musical instruments, trades and professions can offer many examples: e.g. *fletcher* – 'one who made arrows'*; chandler* – 'one who made candles'*; gleeman* – 'one who played the harp'; *brougham* – 'a light closed carriage with the driver outside'*; phaeton* – 'a light four-wheeled horse-drawn vehicle'; sailing ships – *caravel, galleon, corvette*, musical instruments – *lyre, theorba*; weapon – *sword, crossbar;* knight armour – *shield, breastplate, vizor, gauntlet.*

No modern synonym can be found for historical words. Many of them remain in the language in some figurative meaning as part of a phraseological unit: e. g. *double-edged sword* – something that can have both favourable and unfavourable consequences; *throw down the gauntlet* – make an open challenge to a combat.

Professional Terminology

Term is a word or a word-group which is specifically employed by a particular branch of science, technology, trade or arts to convey a concept peculiar to this particular activity: e. g. *bilingual, interdental, labialization, palatalization, glottal stop, descending scale* are terms of theoretical phonetics.

As a rule, terms have no emotional, expressive colouring. They are never used in figurative, transferred meaning (though they themselves often owe their origin to a transferred usage of some common word). In the same branch of science, engineering, etc. a term must be monosemantic.

Three groups of terms are differentiated:

- terms which exist as terms only and function within the limits of one field only: e. g. *diphtong, palatalization, pronoun;*
- terms which may be used in several systems of terms with different specialized meaning, e. g. *progressive, regressive, assimilation;*
- words which may function as terms and ordinary words and have homonyms in different systems of terms, e. g. *nut, head, knee-joint; to dress a wound – to dress a salad – to dress iron.*

There is no impenetrable wall between terminology and the general language system and exchange between terminological systems and the 'common' vocabulary is quite normal. Today various elements of the media of communication (TV, radio, popular magazines, science fiction, etc.) ply people with scraps of knowledge from different scientific fields, technology and the arts. Thus, numerous terms pass into general usage without losing connection with their specific fields: *unit* (доза лікарского препарату), *theatre* (операційна), *contact* (носій инфекції), *virus, vaccine*.

The same is true about synonymy in terminological systems. There are scholars who insist that terms should not have synonyms by definition. But, in fact, terms do possess synonyms. In painting, the same term *colour* has several synonyms in both its meanings: *hue, shade, tint, tinge* in the first meaning (колір) and *paint, tint, dye* in the second (фарба).

Barbarisms

Barbarisms are words borrowed almost without any change in form and not entirely assimilated into the English language. They bear the appearance of a borrowing and are felt as something alien to the native tongue. Most of them have corresponding English synonyms; e. g. *chic* – 'stylish'; *bon mot* – 'a clever witty saying'; *en passant* – 'in passing'; *ad infinitum* – 'to infinity'. Etymologically they are often Latin, Greek and French: e. g. *wunderkind (German) – prodigy child.*

There are foreign words in the English vocabulary which fulfil a terminological function. Therefore, though they still retain their foreign appearance, they should not be regarded as barbarisms. They are different not only in their functions but in their nature as well. Such words as *solo, tenor, concerto, Blitzkrieg (the blitz)*, *Luftwaffe* are terms and should be distinguished from barbarisms. Terminological

borrowings have no synonyms; barbarisms, on the contrary, may have almost exact synonyms.

Neologisms

New notions constantly come into being, requiring new words to name them. New words and expressions or neologisms are created for new things irrespective of their scale of importance. They may be all important and concern some social relationships such as a new form of state (*People's Republic*), or the thing may be quite insignificant and short-lived, like fashions in dancing, clothing, hairdo or footwear (*roll neck*). In every case either the old words are appropriately changed in meaning, or new words are borrowed, or more often coined out of the existing language material according to the patterns productive in the language at a given stage of its development.

Thus, a **neologism** is a newly coined word or phrase or a new meaning for an existing word, or a word borrowed from another language. Neologisms appear all the time. Thus 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. The intense development of science and industry has called forth the invention of an immense number of new words and changed the meaning of old ones, e. g. *aerobics, black hole, computer, hardware, software, isotope, feedback, penicillin, pulsar, super-market* and so on.

In the 80s-90s of the 20th century neologisms were connected with lifestyles, computerisation (*laptop, to back up, multi-user, telebanking, finger-print*); exploration of space (*cargo-module, link-up*); TV (*inflight videosystem, satellite-delivered show, kidvid*); economics (*sunrise industry, sunset industry*); music (*acid house, 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 (*hardware, wetware);* -wise (*power-wise, money-wise*); loadsa- (*loadsamoney, loadsabonuses).*

Neologisms can be classified according to their stability into:

unstable – extremely new word used only by a particular subculture: e. g. *protologism* is a new word created by Mikhail Epstein;

diffused neologisms reached a high level of spreading but are not still accepted;

stable neologisms are recognized and accepted for some time, e. g., have recently been added to print dictionaries, including slang dictionaries.

Neologisms are coined according to three most productive models of word-building:

• derivation: *escapism, glider, televiewer, disposables*, *educatee, throwaway*. Semi-affixes are also very productive (*workaholic, chairperson, policeperson*);

• composition: *baby-boomer, black-marketeer, folk-rocker, ladyprose, graverobber, question-master, space-rocket*;

• conversion: *to clock, to flame, to gender, to skyjack, to chain-chew, to eyewitness, to kick-start*).

The other word-formation processes are: shortening (*ICU* – intensive care unit; *RIF* – reduction in force); blending (*slimnastics* – slim and gymnastics*; docudrama* – documentary drama*);* reduplication (*super-duper, fuddy-duddy, ha-ha, tick-tack-toe*); sound-imitation, acronyms, back-formation.

Neologisms can enter the vocabulary due to borrowing:

• Words can be borrowed without any change in form or meaning: *sputnik, camouflage, blitzkrieg, boutique, karate;*

• Translation-loans: *collective farm, surplus value.*

• Words created from the classical elements (Latin or Greek): *cyberpunk, phonograph, photosynthesis*;

• Combinations of etymologically and structurally heterogeneous elements: *Geiger counter, Rhesus factor, satellite-town.*

Neologisms should be distinguished from occasional words, or nonce words built on the basis of the existing productive types of word building. **Occasionalisms** are words coined for one occasion at the moment of speech: e. g. *go-aheadism, all-at-once-ness, do-it-yourselfer, stick-to-itive foolosopher, alcoholiday.*

Stylistically Neutral Words

The neutral layer includes the most vital part of the vocabulary. Etymologically, they are mostly native, and, if of foreign origin,

borrowed long ago and assimilated. As to the morphological structure, they are often root-words. Since they are devoid of emotive colouring their frequency value and combinative power is very high. They can enter several groups of synonyms because they are often polysemantic and because their meaning is more general: e. g. *to ask – to inquire – to interrogate; to ask – to beg – to entreat – to implore – to beseech.*

Basic Vocabulary

These words are stylistically neutral, and, in this respect, opposed to formal and informal words described above. Their stylistic neutrality makes it possible to use them in all kinds of situations, both formal and informal, in verbal and written communication. Stylistically marked vocabulary strata are, on the contrary, exclusive: professional terminology is used by representatives of the professions; dialects are regional; slang is favoured mostly by the young and the uneducated. Basic vocabulary words are used everywhere and by everybody, regardless of profession, occupation, educational level, age group or geographical location. These are words denoting objects and phenomena of everyday importance (e. g. *house, summer, child, mother, green, difficult, go*).

The basic vocabulary is the central group of the vocabulary, its historical foundation and living core. That is why words of this stratum show a considerably greater stability.

Basic vocabulary words can be recognised not only by their stylistic neutrality but, also, by entire lack of other connotations (i. e. attendant meanings). Their meanings are broad, general and directly convey the concept, without supplying any additional information. For instance, the verb *to walk* means merely 'to move from place to place on foot' whereas in the meanings of its synonyms *to stride, to stroll, to trot, to stagger* and others, some additional information is encoded as to the manner of walking, gait, tempo, purposefulness or lack of purpose and length of paces. Thus, *to walk,* with its direct broad meaning, is a typical basic vocabulary word, and its synonyms, with their elaborate additional information encoded in their meanings, belong to the periphery of the vocabulary. The basic vocabulary and the stylistically marked strata of the vocabulary do not exist independently but are closely interrelated. Most stylistically marked words have their neutral counterparts in the basic vocabulary. On the other hand,

colloquialisms may have their counterparts among learned words; most slang has counterparts both among colloquialisms and learned words.

Table 5

Stylistic diffirentiation of the English vocabulary

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

QUESTIONS FOR REVISION

1. Give the definition of functional style. How is the word-stock of English vocabulary divided according to this factor? 2. What are the features of informal /formal style? 3. What groups of words are differentiated within informal vocabulary? Give a brief description of each group. 4. What is the difference between colloquialisms and slang? What are their common features? Illustrate your answer with examples. 5. What are the main features of dialect words? 6. What groups of words does formal style include? 7. Which type of learned words is especially suitable for verbal conversation? Which is less suitable and even undesirable? 8. What are archaisms? Give examples of lexical and grammatical archaisms. In what genres can you find archaisms? How do archaisms differ from historical words? 9. What are the main characteristics of terms? What groups of terms are there? 10. What is understood by the basic vocabulary?

TERRITORIAL DIFFERENTIATION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Never let it be said that dialect is a reflection of intellect.
On the contrary, it is a reflection of the deep traditional values
of a culture that respects family, God, and a language system above
everything else.
I give thanks to my maker that I'm a Southern woman.
Patricia H. Graham

1. The notions of Standard English and Received Pronunciation.
2. Territorial variants of the English language. American English.
3. Local dialects in the British Isles and in the USA.
4. Contact languages: Pidgin English, Creole.

Standard English is the official language of Great Britain taught at schools and universities, used by the press, the radio and the television and spoken by educated people. It is commonly defined as that form of English which is literary, uniform and recognized as acceptable wherever English is spoken or understood.

Received Pronunciation (RP) is a form of pronunciation of the English language (specifically British English) which has long been perceived as uniquely prestigious amongst British accents. Only about two percent of Britons speak with the RP accent in its pure form. Received Pronunciation or Southern English is widespread among educated population and has no local coloring. As RP is used in teaching of English worldwide and for purposes of wide communication we can refer to it as a supraregional accent model. Received Pronunciation may be referred to as the Queen's (or King's) English or BBC English. It is sometimes referred to as **Oxford English.** The production of dictionaries gave Oxford University prestige in matters of language. The extended versions of the Oxford Dictionary give Received Pronunciation guidelines for each word. A person using the RP will typically speak Standard English. There have also long been certain words that have had more than one RP pronunciation, such as *again*, *either*, and *moor*.

Every language allows different kinds of variations: geographical or territorial, stylistic, the difference between the written and the spoken form and others. Lexicology deals with the territorial variations, the others being the domain of stylistics.

For historical and economic reasons the English language has spread over vast territories. English has always played a number of social roles such as conquering, subordinating, colonizing and global; and from the beginning English has existed in regional varieties. Today the world varieties are so obvious that the question is increasingly asked whether there is an English language or rather a variety of Englishes. It is the national language of England proper, the USA, Australia, New Zealand and some provinces of Canada. It is the official language in Wales, Scotland, in Gibraltar and on the Island of Malta. The English language was also at different times enforced as an official language on the peoples of Asia, Africa, Central and South America who fell under British rule. After World War II as a result of the national liberation movement throughout Asia and Africa many former colonies have gained independence and in some of them English as the state language has been replaced by the national language of the people inhabiting these countries (by Hindi in India, Urdu in Pakistan, Burmanese in Burma, etc.), though by tradition it retains there the position of an important means of communication.

It is natural that the English language is not used with uniformity in the British Isles and in Australia, in the USA and in New Zealand, etc. The English language also has some peculiarities in Wales, Scotland, in other parts of the British Isles.

Modern linguistics distinguishes territorial variants of a national language and local dialects.

Variants of a language are regional varieties of a standard literary language characterized by some minor peculiarities in the sound system, vocabulary and grammar and by their own literary norms. There are five variants of the English national language: British, American, Australian, Canadian, and New Zealand. **Dialects** are varieties of a language used as a means of oral communication in small localities; they differ from other varieties with some distinctive features of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary.

BRITISH AND AMERICAN ENGLISH

British and American English are two main variants of English. Besides them there are: Canadian, Australian, Indian, New Zealand and other variants. They have some peculiarities in pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. The controversial issue of the two main variants of the English language, British and American (BE and AE) has been discussed for over half a century. Some American linguists, H. L. Mencken for one, who in 1919 published a book called "The American Language", speak of two separate languages [37]. They even proclaim that the American influence on British English is so powerful that there will come a time when the American standard will be established in Britain. Other linguists criticize his point of view because differences between the two variants are not systematic.

American English begins its history at the beginning of the 17th century when first English-speaking settlers began to settle on the Atlantic coast of the American continent. The language which they brought from England was the language spoken in England during the reign of Elizabeth the First. In the earliest period settlers had to find names for places, animals, plants, customs which they came across on the American continent. They took some of names from languages spoken by the local population – Indians, such as: *chipmuck* (an American squirrel), *igloo* (Escimo dome-shaped hut), *skunk* (a black and white striped animal with a bushy tail), *squaw* (an Indian woman), *wigwam* (an American Indian tent made of skins and bark), *opossum, raccoon, squash* and *moose,* etc.

The languages of the other colonizing nations also added to the American vocabulary; for instance, *cookie, cruller*, *stoop,* and *pit* (of a fruit) from Dutch; *levee, portage* ('carrying of boats or goods'), *gopher, bureau* 'a writing desk', *cache* 'a hiding place for treasure, provision', *depot* 'a store-house', *pumpkin* 'a plant bearing large edible fruit' from French; *barbecue, rodeo, bananza* 'prosperity', *cockroach* 'a beetle-like insect', *lasso* 'a noosed rope for catching cattle' from Spanish. Dutch also influenced English. Such words as *boss, dope, sleigh* were borrowed. Present-day *New York* stems from the Dutch colony New Amsterdam.

The second period of American English history begins in the 19th century. Immigrants continued to come from Europe to America. When large groups of immigrants from the same country came to America

some of their words were borrowed into English. Italians brought with them a style of cooking and related words (*pizza, spaghetti*). German-speaking settlers brought with them words *delicatessen, lager, hamburger, noodle, schnitzel* and many others.

Ever since the American Revolution a great number of terms connected with the U.S. political institutions have entered the language: *run, primary election, carpetbagger, repeater, lame duck, congressman, precinct,* etc.

The differences between American English (AE) and British English (BE) are immediately noticeable in the field of phonetics. In American English, for example, there are *r*-coloured fully articulated vowels in the combinations *ar, er, ir, or, ur, our* etc. In BE before fricatives and combinations with fricatives *a* is pronounced as [a:], in AE it is pronounced [æ] e. g. *class, dance, answer, fast* etc. There are some differences in the position of the stress: *add`ress – `address, la`boratory – `laboratory, re`search – `research, ex`cess – `excess.* But these differences in pronunciation do not prevent Englishmen and Americans from communicating easily and cannot serve as a proof that British and American are different languages.

The dissimilarities in **grammar** are scarce. For the most part these dissimilarities consist in the preference of this or that grammatical category, e. g. the preference of Past Indefinite to Present Perfect in AE, the formation of the Future Tense with *will* for all the persons, etc. The Present Continuous form in the meaning of Future is used twice as frequently in BE as in AE, CnE, AuE.

There are some differences between British and American English in the usage of prepositions with dates, days of the week: BE *I start my holiday on Friday* / AE *I start my vacation Friday;* Be *by day, by night, at night* / AE *days, nights;* BE *at home* / AE *home*; BE *a quarter to five* / AE *a quarter of five;* BE *in the street* / AE *on the street;* BE *to chat to somebody* / AE *to chat* with *somebody*; BE *different to something* / AE *different from something*.

Differences of Spelling. The reform in the English spelling for AmE was introduced by the famous American lexicographer Noah Webster who published his first dictionary in 1806. His proposals were adopted in the English spelling:
- delition of the letter 'u' in words ending in 'our', e. g. *honor, favor;*

- delition of the second consonant in words with double consonants, e. g. *traveler, wagon;*
- replacement of 're' by 'er' in words of French origin, e. g. *theater, center;*
- delition of unpronounced endings in words of Romanic origin, e. g. *catalog, program;*
- replacement of '*ce*' by '*se*' in words of Romanic origin, e. g. *defense, offense,*
- delition of unpronounced endings in native words, e. g. *tho, thro.*

Lexical differences. Already existing English words, e. g. *store, shop, dry goods, haberdashery* underwent shifts in meaning. Some words, e. g. *mason, student, clerk*, the verbs *can* (*canned goods*), *ship, fix, carry, enroll* (*in school*), *run* (*run a business*), *release, haul* – were given new significations, while others (e. g. *tradesman)* have retained meanings that disappeared in England.

There are some differences in names of places, food, personal items, professions, etc.

Table 6

Lexical differences between AE and BE

BE	AE	BE	AE
flat	apartment	lorry	truck
post	mail	tin	can
sweets	candy	pillar-box	mail-box
braces	suspenders	beer	ale
underground	subway	wireless	radio
railway	railroad	luggage	baggage
cinema	movies	pavement	sidewalk
rubber	eraser	lift	elevator
biro	ballpoint	sweets	candy
sweet biscuit	cookie	caretaker	janitor
barrister	lawyer	staff /university/	faculty

A number of Americanisms describing material innovations, automotive terms remained confined to North America: *elevator,*

ground, gasoline, hatchback, SUV, station wagon, tailgate, motorhome, truck, pickup truck.

Differences in education process lead to different terms. BE *public school* is in fact 'a private school'. It is a fee-paying school not controlled by the local education authorities. AE *public school* is a free local authority school. BE *elementary school* is AE *grade school*; BE *secondary school* is AE *high school.* In BE *a pupil leaves a secondary school*, in AE *a student graduates from a high school* In BE you can *graduate from a university or college* of education, graduating entails getting a degree. A British university student takes three years known as *the first, the second and the third years.* An American student takes four years, known as *freshman, sophomore, junior and senior years*. While studying a British student *takes a main and subsidiary subjects*. An American student *majors in a subject* and also *takes electives.* A British student specializes in one main subject, with one subsidiary to get his honours degree. An American student earns credits for successfully completing a number of courses in studies, and has to reach the total of 36 credits to receive a degree.

Among numerous English idioms of U.S. origin are *bark up the wrong tree, keep tabs, run scared, take a backseat, have an edge over, take a shine to, off/on the wagon, stay put, inside track, bad hair day, throw a monkey wrench.*

Words in BE and AmE may also differ in distribution. The verb *ride* in Standard English is mostly combined with such nouns as *a horse, a bicycle*, more seldom they say *ride on a bus*. In American English combinations *a ride on the train, ride in a boat* are quite usual.

It sometimes happens that the same word is used in American English with some difference in emotional and stylistic colouring. *Nasty*, for example, is a much milder expression of disapproval in England than in the States, where it was even considered obscene in the 19th century. *Politician* in England means 'someone in politics', and is derogatory in the USA.

The variations in vocabulary are not very numerous. The vocabulary of all the variants is characterized by a high percentage of borrowings from the language of the people who inhabited the land before the English colonizers came. Many of them denote some specific realia of the new country: local animals, plants or weather conditions, new social relations, new trades and conditions of labour. In every

variant there are locally marked lexical units specific to the present-day usage in one of the variants and not found in the others, i.e. Briticism, Americanisms, Australianisms, Canadianisms. They may be full and partial.

Full locally-marked lexical units are specific to the British, American, etc. variants in all their meanings. E. g. *fortnight*, *pillar-box* are full Briticisms, *campus*, *mailboy*, *drive-in* are full Americanisms. These may be subdivided into lexical units denoting some realia having no counterparts in other English-speaking countries:

- the names of local animals and plants: AuE *kangaroo, kaola, dingo, gum-tree;* AE *bullfrog*, *moose*, *opossum*, *raccoon*, *corn*, *hickory*;
- names of schools of learning: AE *junior high school, senior high school;* CnE *composite high school*
- names of things of everyday life, reflecting peculiar national traditions and customs: AuE *boomerang,* AE *drugstore,* CnE *float-house;* AE *lightning rod, super-market, baby-sitter;* CnE *body-check, red-line, puck-carrier* (hockey).

Partial locally-marked lexical units are typical of this or that variant only in one or some of their meanings. In the semantic structure of such words there are meanings belonging to general English. E. g. the word *pavement* has four meanings: a) street or road covered with stone, asphalt, concrete (AE); b) paved path for pedestrians at the side of the road (BE; in America they use the word *sidewalk*); c) the covering of the floor made of flat blocks of wood, stone (general English); d) soil (geol) – general English.

In the course of time due to the growth of cultural and economic ties between nations and development of modern means of communication lexical distinctions between the variants show a tendency to decrease. Locally marked lexical units penetrate into Standard English, e. g., a large number of Americanisms are widely used in BE, some of them are not recognized as aliens: *reliable*, *lengthy*, *talented*, *belittle*. Others have a limited sphere of application: *fan*, *to iron out*, *gimmick*, *to root*. At the same time a number of Briticisms came into the language of the USA, e. g., *smog, to brief* 'to give instructions'. Sometimes the Briticisms in AE compete with the corresponding American expressions, the result being the differentiation in meaning or spheres of application. E. g. AE *store* – BE *shop*, but in AE its use is limited, applied to small specialized

establishments like *gift shop, hat shop, candy shop*. British *luggage* is used alongside American *baggage* in America but differs from in collocability – *luggage compartment, luggage rack, but baggage car, baggage check, baggage room*. In the pair *autumn – fall* the difference in AE is of another nature: the former is bookish, while the latter colloquial.

Regional variants of the English language have the same grammar system, phonetic system and vocabulary, so they cannot be regarded as different languages. Nor can they be referred to local dialects, because they serve all spheres of verbal communication in society, they have dialectal differences of their own, besides they have their own literary forms.

Local dialects are varieties of a language used as a means of oral communication in small localities. They are set off more or less sharply from other varieties by some distinctive features of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary and have no normalized literary form. Their sphere of application is confined to the oral speech of the rural population in a locality and only the Scottish dialect (to be distinguished from the Scottish tongue, which is a Celtic language spoken in the Highlands) can be said to have a literature of its own with Robert Burns as its greatest representative.

In Great Britain there are five groups of dialects. Every group is further subdivided into several dialects, up to ten:
- Northern (between the rivers Tweed and Humber);
- Western;
- Eastern (between the river Humber and the Thames);
- Southern (south of the Thames); and
- Midland.

The dialect vocabulary is remarkable for its conservatism, the abundance of archaic words. Many words that have become obsolete in Standard English are still kept in dialects. Local lexical peculiarities are most noticeable in dialectal words pertaining to local customs, social life and natural conditions, e. g., *laird* 'land proprietor in Scotland', *burgh* 'Scotland charted town', *kirk* 'church'. There are many names of objects and processes connected with farming, e. g. *galloway* 'horse of small strong breed from Galloway, Scotland', *kyloe* 'one of small breed of long-horned Scotch cattle'.

There are a considerable number of emotionally coloured dialectal words, e. g., *bonny* (Scot.) 'beautiful, healthy-looking', *braw* (Scot.) 'fine', *daffy* (Scot.) 'crazy', *cuddy* 'fool, ass', *loon* 'clumsy, stupid person'.

Words may have different meanings in the national language and in the local dialects, e. g., in the Scottish dialect the word *to call* is used in the meaning of 'to drive', *to set* – 'to suit', *short* – 'rude', *silly* – 'weak'.

Dialectal lexical differences also embrace word-building patterns. E. g., some Irish words contain the diminutive suffixes *-an, -een, -can,* as in *bohaun* 'cabin', *bohereen* 'narrow road'. Some of these suffixes may be added to English bases, as in *girleen, dogeen, squireen* (squirrel), etc.

One of the best known Southern dialects is **Cockney**. In the 17th century the word *cockney* was applied exclusively to the inhabitants of London in the meaning of a 'plucky chap'. This name was applied by country people to those who dwelt in cities. But as the population gradually increased and means of communication became more favourable, this distinction became less acute.

Cockney is lively and witty; its vocabulary is imaginative and colourful. Its specific feature which does not occur anywhere else is the so-called rhyming slang, e. g. boots are called '*daisy roots*', head – '*a loaf of bread*', hat – '*tit for tat*', wife – '*trouble and strife*'.

The local dialects in Britain are sharply declining in importance at the present time. Their distinctive features are tending to disappear with the shifting of population due to the migration of the working-class families in search of employment and the growing influence of urban life over the countryside. Dialects undergo rapid changes under the pressure of Standard English taught at schools and the speech habits cultivated by radio, TV and cinema.

On the other hand, dialectal words penetrate into the national literary language. Many frequent words of common use are dialectal in origin, such as *girl, one, rapid, glamour,* etc. The Irish English gave *blarney* 'flattery', *bog* 'a spongy, usually peaty ground of marsh'. From Scottish into English came *bairn* 'child', *billy* 'chum', *bonny* 'handsome', *glamour* 'charm', etc.

There is also a group of languages which are called *contact languages*, they are creoles and pidgins.

Pidgin is a simplified language used to facilitative communication among speakers of different languages when they come into contact with each other and do not know each other's language, for example, West African Pidgin English, Melanesian Pidgin English (spoken in Papua New Guinea, the Solomon Islands). Pidgins have no native speakers, i. e. they are second languages for everyone who speaks them. Pidgins can be called *auxiliary* languages, as they result from the communicative strategies when speakers of different languages try to bridge the communicative gap. The characteristics of a very basic type of pidgin may be single words, simplified grammar and exaggerated gestures of a traveler when he contacts with local people. A pidgin arises to fulfil restricted communication needs for which there is no need for grammatical redundancy. In the English phrase '*two big newspapers*' the plural marking *-s* is redundant as plurality is already established in the word 'two'. Cameroon pidgin eliminates redundancy by rendering the phrase as '*di tu big pepa'*.

Pidgins are a subset of a larger group of languages called lingue franca or languages of wider communication. **Lingua franca** is a language used for communication among speakers of different languages. English is considered to be the most important lingua franca today as it is used as a means of communication among large numbers of people. The term 'lingua franca' itself is an extension of the use of the name of the original 'Lingua Franca', a medieval trading pidgin used in the Mediterranean region – an important maritime trading zone where traders' native languages included many very different languages such as Portuguese, Greek, Arabic and Turkish.

The pidgins which have survived longest and are spoken over the widest areas also serve as regional lingua francas. If the pidgin is used on the territory for a long time and is acquired as a native language (for example by children), it begins to have native speakers, it becomes creolized, and the resultant language is called a **creole.** So, a creole may be defined as a language that, having originated as a pidgin, has become established as a first language in some speech community. The standard language normally serves as the language of education and administration. Most creoles have existed in a relatively narrow belt between the Tropics of Cancer and Capricorn; there are a number of them in West Indies, the East Indies, and West Africa.

The English-lexicon creoles are the largest group including languages spoken in over 25 countries; the second-largest group is French-lexicon creoles, or the Caribbean French creoles, spoken in Haiti, Dominica, Guadeloupe. *British Creole* (or London Jamaican), for instance, is the product of dialect contact between the Creole language of migrants from the Caribbean and varieties of urban English English. Speakers of British Creole are all bilinguals or multilinguals; at a very early age they acquire a local variety of British English, at school – Standard English as well. For many British-born speakers the use of Creole in conversation is quite symbolic (ex. forms of address, greetings, swear words) as it serves as the marker of group identity. Here are some examples of British Creole from the Corpus of British: Creole: "*Is wha appen Sharon, unnu reach already?*" – "What happened Sharon, are you there already?"

QUESTIONS FOR REVISION

1. Explain the meaning of the terms *standard English, dialect* and *accent*? 2. What is specific about the vocabulary of American English? 3. What are the differencies between British English and American English? Include all the levels of the language. 4. What dialects are differentiated on the territory of the British Isles? Are boundaries between dialects stable? 5. What is the difference between Pidgin and Creole languages? 6. What is characteristic of Cockney?

Part 9

FUNDAMENTALS OF ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY

*Dictionaries are like watches; the worst is better than none,
and the best cannot be expected to go quite true.
Samuel Johnson, Dictionary of the English Language*

1. The subject-matter of Lexicography.
2. History of British and American Lexicography.
3. The main problems in lexicography.
4. Types of dictionaries.
5. Modern Corpus-based Lexicography.

The word "lexicography' is derived from Greek λεξίκός (lexicos) "belonging to word' and γπαφω (grafo) "write words". **Lexicography** is an important branch of applied linguistics which covers the theory and practice of compiling or editing dictionaries. Lexicography may be divided into two related areas. The act of writing, or editing dictionaries is known as *Practical Lexicography.* On the other hand, *Theoretical Lexicography* is concerned with developing theories regarding the structural and semantic relationships among words in the dictionary.

Lexicography is widely considered an independent scholarly discipline, though it is closely connected with linguistics, lexicology in particular. The essential difference between lexicography and lexicology lies in the degree of systematization and completeness. Lexicography aims at systematization revealing characteristic features of words. The field of lexicography is the semantic, formal, and functional description of all individual words. Dictionaries aim at a more or less complete description. Lexicology shows that the vocabulary of every particular language is a system constituted by independent elements related in certain specific ways.

HISTORY OF LEXICOGRAPHY

In the long perspective of human evolution, dictionaries have been known through only a slight fraction of language history. As far as practical lexicography is concerned it is divided into 3 periods:

pre-dictionary period; period of early dictionaries; period of developed lexicography.

In **pre-dictionary period** words difficult for understanding had to be explained in some way. The first glosses appeared in Sumerian in the 25th centure BC. The term *gloss* is of Greek origin meaning 'tongue'. Glosses were series of verbal interpretations of a text (Homer's glossaries in Greece, 5th c.). Then glosses appeared in Western Europe (the 8th c. AD). Collections of glosses pertained to one book or author, e. g. Veda dated to the 1st millennium BC. in India.

The second period is the period of early dictionaries, its function is to study literary languages which differ even now from spoken speech: Sanskrit lexicons pertained to the 8th-6th centuries BC, ancient Greek lexicons dating to 10th c. BC. The Western tradition of dictionary making began among the Greeks: a massive 10th century Byzantine encyclopedia of the ancient Mediterranean world, encyclopedic lexicon, written in Greek in the Middle Ages.

Chaotic lexicography becomes regularly developed when national literary languages appeared. **The third period** is a period of developed lexicography the main function of which is describing and normalizing. It enhanced social linguistic culture. Philological societies and academies were founded which created explanatory, encyclopaedic dictionaries. As far as special dictionaries are concerned they were also published such as dictionary of grammar, phraseology, dialectal, orthographic, orthoepic, terminological dictionaries, etc.

In the 20th century lexicography acquired industrial character: there appeared dictionaries of related languages, reverse dictionaries, dictionaries of frequent words, concordances, dictionaries of the writers' languages. Computer and computerized techniques in lexicography are being applied since 1950. The whole institutes and centres of lexicography were created.

The History of British Lexicography. The history of lexicography of the English language goes as far back as the Old English period where its first traces are found in the form of glosses of religious books with interlinear translation from Latin. Regular bilingual English-Latin dictionaries already existed in the 15th century. The first unilingual English dictionary explaining words appeared in 1604. Its aim was to explain difficult words. Its title was "A Table

Alphabetical, containing and teaching the true writing and understanding of hard usual English words borrowed from the Hebrew, Greece, Latin or French". The volume of 120 pages explaining about 3000 words was compiled by Robert Cawdrey, a schoolmaster.

The first attempt at a bigger dictionary including all the words of the language, not only the difficult ones, was made by Nathaniel Bailey. He published the first edition of "Universal Etymological English Dictionary" in 1721. It was the first to include pronunciation and etymology.

The first big explanatory dictionary "A Dictionary of the English Language in Which the Words are Deduced from Their Originals and Illustrated in Their General Significations by Examples from the Best Writers: In 2 vols." was complied by Dr Samuel Johnson and published in 1755. The most important innovation of Johnson's Dictionary was the introduction of illustrations of the meanings of the words by examples from the best writers. Pronunciation was not marked, because S. Johnson was sure of the wide variety of the English pronunciation and thought it impossible to set up a standard there. S. Johnson's influence was tremendous. He remained the unquestionable authority for more than 75 years.

The first pronouncing dictionary was published in 1780 by Thomas Sheridan, grandfather of the great dramatist. In 1791 appeared "The Critical Pronouncing Dictionary and Expositor of the English Language" by John Walker, an actor. Walker's pronunciations were later inserted into S. Johnson's text – a further step to a unilingual dictionary in its present-day form.

The Golden Age of English lexicography began in the last quarter of the 19th century when the English Philological Society started work on compiling "The Oxford English Dictionary (OED)", which was originally named "New English Dictionary on Historical Principles (NED)". It is still referred to as either OED or NED. The objective of this colossal work was and still is to trace the development of English words from their form in Old English. Where they were not found in Old English, it was shown when they were introduced into the language. The development of each meaning and its historical relation to other meanings of the same word is also displayed. For obsolete words and meanings the date of the latest occurrence is provided. All this is done by means of dated quotations ranging from the oldest to recent

appearances of the words in question. The English of G. Chaucer, of the "Bible" and of W. Shakespeare is given as much attention as that of the most modern authors. The dictionary includes spelling, pronunciation and detailed etymology.

The completion of the work required more than 75 years. The result is a kind of encyclopaedia of language used not only for reference purposes but also as a basis for lexicological research. The first part of the Dictionary appeared in 1884 and the last in 1928. Later it was issued in twelve volumes and in order to hold new words a three volume Supplement was issued in 1933. These volumes were revised in the seventies.

"The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English" was first published in 1911, i. e. before the work on the main version was completed. It is not a historical dictionary but one of current usage. A still shorter form is "The Pocket Oxford Dictionary". The new enlarged version of OED was issued in 22 volumes in 1994. Two Russian borrowings *glasnost* and *perestroika* were included in it.

Another big dictionary, also created by joined effort of enthusiasts, is Joseph Wright's "English Dialect Dictionary". Before this dictionary could be started upon, a thorough study of English dialects had to be completed. Dialects are of great importance for the historical study of the language. In the 19th century they were very pronounced though now they are almost disappearing.

The History of American Lexicography. Curiously enough, the first American dictionary of the English language was compiled by a man whose name was also Samuel Johnson. Samuel Johnson Jr., a Connecticut schoolmaster, published a small book entitled "A School Dictionary" (1798). This book was followed in 1800 by another dictionary by the same author, which showed already some signs of Americanisation. It was Noah Webster, universally considered to be the father of American lexicography, who emphatically broke away from English tradition and embodied in his book the specifically American usage of his time. His great work, "The American Dictionary of the English Language", appeared in two volumes in 1828 and later sustained numerous enlarged editions. In many respects N. Webster follows the lead of Dr S. Johnson (the British lexicographer). But he has also improved and corrected many of S. Johnson's etymologies and his definitions are often more exact. N. Webster attempted to simplify

the spelling and pronunciation that were current in the USA of the period. He realised the importance of language for the development of a nation, and devoted his energy to giving the American English the status of an independent language, distinct from British English. At that time the idea was progressive as it helped the unification of separate states into one federation.

N. Webster's dictionary enjoyed great popularity from its first editions. This popularity was due not only to the accuracy and clarity of definitions but also to the richness of additional information of encyclopaedic character, which had become a tradition in American lexicography. Soon after N. Webster's death two publishers and booksellers of Massachusetts, George and Charles Merriam, acquired the rights of his dictionary from his family and started the publication of revised editions under the name Merriam-Webster. The staff working for the modern editions is a big institution numbering hundreds of specialists in different branches of human activity.

The other great American dictionaries are "The Century Dictionary" first completed in 1891; Funk and Wagnalls "New Standard Dictionary" first completed in 1895, "The Random House Dictionary of the English Language", completed in 1967; "The Heritage Illustrated Dictionary of the English Language" first published in 1969.

MAIN PROBLEMS IN LEXICOGRAPHY

The problems of lexicography are connected with the selection of headwords, the number, the structure and contents of the vocabulary entry (in different types of dictionaries).

The issue of selection. In the first place it is the problem of whether a general descriptive dictionary should give the historical information about a word. For the purpose of a dictionary, which must not be too massive, selection between scientific and technical terms is also a very important task.

It is a debatable point whether a unilingual explanatory dictionary should try to cover all the words of the language, including neologisms, nonce-words, slang, etc.; or whether, as the great English lexicographer of the 18th century Samuel Johnson used to think, it should be preceptive and prohibitive. Dictionary-makers should attempt to

improve and stabilise the English vocabulary according to the best classical samples and advise the readers on preferable usage. A distinctly modern criterion in selection of entries is the frequency of the words to be included.

The other problem which of the selected units have the right to a separate entry and which are to be included under one common head-word. These are, in other words, the issues of **separateness** and **sameness** of words, e. g. whether *each other* is a group of two separate words to be treated separately under the head-words *each* and *other,* or whether *each other* is a unit deserving a special entry. While separateness deals with syntagmatic boundaries, sameness is about paradigmatic boundaries. How many entries are justified for *hound?* Concise Oxford Dictionary has two: one for the noun, and the other for the verb: 'to chase (as) with hounds'; the verb and the noun are thus treated as homonyms. Chambers's Twentieth Century Dictionary combines them under one headword, i. e. it takes them as variants of the same word (hence the term 'sameness'). This involves differentiation between polysemy and homonymy.

The second group of problems deals with the **structure and content of a dictionary entry** in different types of dictionaries. A historical dictionary (the Oxford Dictionary, for instance) is primarily concerned with the development of the English vocabulary. It arranges various senses chronologically, first comes the etymology, then the earliest meanings marked by the label 'obs. – obsolete'. The etymologies are either comparative or confined to a single language. The development is illustrated by quotations, ranging from the oldest to recent usages of the word in question. A descriptive dictionary dealing with current usage has to face its own specific problems. It has to give precedence to the most important meanings. But how is the most important meaning determined upon? So far each compiler was guided by his own personal opinion. An objective criterion would be statistical counts. But counting the frequency of different meanings of the same word is far more difficult than counting the frequency of its forms. Also, the interdependence of meanings and their relative importance within the semantic structure of the word do not remain the same. They change almost incessantly. A synchronic dictionary should also show the distribution of every word. It has been traditionally done by labelling words as belonging to a certain part of speech, and by noting some

special cases of grammatically or lexically bound meanings. This technique is gradually being improved upon, and compilers strive to provide more detailed information on these points. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary by A. S. Hornby supplies information on the syntactical distribution of each verb. It provides a table of 25 verb patterns and supplies the numerical indications in each verb. Indications are also supplied as to which nouns and which semantic varieties of nouns may be used in the plural.

The third group of lexicographic problems is the **problem of definitions** in a unilingual dictionary. The explanation of meaning may be achieved by a group of synonyms; but one synonym is never sufficient for the purpose, because no absolute synonyms exist. Definitions serve the purpose much better. These are of two main types. If they are only concerned with words as speech material, the definition is called 'linguistic'. If they are concerned with things for which the words are names, they are termed "encyclopaedic". American dictionaries are traditionally encyclopaedic, which accounts for so much attention paid to graphic illustration. They furnish their readers with far more information about facts and things than their British counterparts, which are more linguistic and more fundamentally occupied with purely lexical data (as contrasted to realia), with the grammatical properties of words, their components, their stylistic features, etc. Opinions differ upon the optimum proportion of linguistic and encyclopaedic material.

TYPES OF DICTIONARIES

The term "dictionary" is used to denote a book listing words of a language with their meanings and often with data regarding pronunciation, usage and / or origin. There are also dictionaries that concentrate their attention upon only one of these aspects: pronouncing (phonetical) dictionaries (by Daniel Jones) and etymological dictionaries (by Walter Skeat, by Erik Partridge, The Oxford English Dictionary).

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. Unilingual

dictionaries are further subdivided with regard to the time. **Diachronic** dictionaries, of which The Oxford English Dictionary is the main example, reflect the development of the English vocabulary by recording the history of form and meaning for every word registered. They may be contrasted to **synchronic** or **descriptive** dictionaries of current English.

Both bilingual and unilingual dictionaries can be **general** and **special**. General dictionaries represent the vocabulary as a whole. The group includes the thirteen volumes of The Oxford English Dictionary alongside with any miniature pocket dictionary. Some general dictionaries may have very specific aims and still be considered general due to their coverage. They include, for instance, frequency dictionaries, i. e. lists of words, each of which is followed by a record of its frequency of occurrence in one or several sets of reading matter. A rhyming dictionary is also a general dictionary, though arranged in inverse order, and so is a thesaurus in spite of its unusual arrangement. General dictionaries are contrasted to special dictionaries whose stated aim is to cover only a certain specific part of the vocabulary.

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 (technical dictionaries), the type of the units (e. g. phraseological dictionaries) or the relationships between them (e. g. dictionaries of synonyms). The first subgroup embraces specialised dictionaries which register and explain technical terms for various branches of knowledge, art and trade: linguistic, medical, technical, economical terms, etc. The second subgroup deals with specific language units, i. e. with phraseology, abbreviations, neologisms, borrowings, surnames, toponyms, proverbs and sayings, etc. The third subgroup contains synonymic dictionaries. Dictionaries recording the complete vocabulary of some author are called **concordances**. They should be distinguished from those that deal only with difficult words or terms, i. e. **glossaries**.

The form of dictionaries: *hard* (paper) and *soft* (electronic) dictionaries. Electronic dictionaries fundamentally differ in form, content and function from conventional wordbooks. Among the most significant differences are:

- the use of multimedia means;
- the navigable help indices in windows oriented software;

● the use of sound, animation, audio and visual elements as well as interactive exercises and games;

● the varied possibilities of search and access methods that allow the user to specify the output in a number of ways;

● the access to information is no longer determined by alphabetical organization of the dictionary, but a nonlinear structure of the texts;

● the use of hyperlinks which allow easily and quickly to cross-refer to words within an entry or to other words connected with this entry.

The main advantages of electronic dictionaries are the speed with which they can be consulted and the multiple search routes. One can find the opposite meaning through the antonym or find a particular synonym by consulting the list of synonyms. By consulting the analytical definitions, one can find many words that belong to the same upper or lower classes, i. e. hyperonyms, synonyms.

Many dictionaries on CD-ROM contain much more material than their hard-copy counterparts, such as audio and video material, pronunciation and a corpus of authentic texts, to name but a few. An electronic dictionary in the form of a databank can also be edited on a daily basis, allowing changes to be made, neologisms to be added and obvious errors to be corrected. Such a dictionary is unmistakably dynamic.

The dictionary entries are organized as follows:

1. The **headword** or **lemma,** often in bold or some other special font. Lemma is the base form under which the word is entered and assigned its place: typically, the 'stem', or simplest form (singular noun, infinitive for a verb, etc.). Other forms may not be entered if they are predictable (such as the plural *bears)*, but the irregular past forms of the verbs are given. In a language such as Ukrainian, where the stem form of a word typically does not occur alone, a particular variant is chosen as a lemma: nominative singular for nouns, infinitive for verbs, etc.

2. Its **pronunciation**, in some form of alphabetic notation.

3. Its **word class** ('part of speech'); usually one of the primary word classes (verb, noun, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, propositions, conjunctions, determiner / article) with some indications of a subclass, for example, countable or mass noun, intransitive or transitive verb.

4. Its **etymology** (historical origin and derivation). The etymology may include not only the earliest known form and the language in which this occurs but also cognate forms in other languages. Some dictionaries may also include a suggested reconstructed proto-form conventionally marked with an asterisk.

5. Its **definition** which takes one or both of two forms: description and synonymy. The description may obviously need to include words that are "harder' (less frequently used) that the lemmatized word. Some dictionaries, such as the "Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*", limit the vocabulary that they use in their descriptions. With synonymy, a word, or little set of words of similar meaning is brought in, often giving slightly more specific senses. All definition is ultimately circular; but compilers try to avoid very small circles, such as defying *sad* as *sorrowful*, and then *sorrowful* as *sad*.

6. **Citations** (examples of its use) show how the word is used in context. They may illustrate a typical usage, or use in well-known literary texts, or the earliest recorded instances of the word. There may also be various fixed expressions (idioms and cliches), where the expression functions like a single, composite lexical item (*bear fruit, bear in mind*).

Compound words, like *cutthroat*, and derivatives, like *cutting* or *uncut*, are often entered under the same lemma; in that case, compounds will appear under the first word (*cutthroat* under *cut*, *haircut* under *hair*) and derivatives under the stem (both *cutting* and *uncut* under *cut*). Though, dictionaries can adopt varying practices. In some dictionaries, compounds are given separate lemmata, and sometimes a derivational affix is used as lemma and derivatives grouped under that (for example, *antibody, anticlimax, antidote* all under *anti-*).

Most dictionaries follow this general structure, but variations are, of course, found. For example, etymological information may come at the end of the entry rather than near the beginning.

In Thesaurus, by contrast, there is no separate entry for each word. The word occurs simply as part of a list; the words are organized not on the basis of form but on the basis of meaning (that is not grammatical classes but semantic classes). The most illustrious example of a non-alphabetical dictionary in English is "Roget's Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases". Published in 1852 with 40,000 words, it has been

re-edited several times in many different forms, paper or electronic, with additions and deletions but the same organization.

Modern trends in English Lexicography are connected with the appearance and rapid development of such branches of linguistics as Corpus Linguistics and Computational Linguistics.

CORPUS-BASED LEXICOGRAPHY

Corpus-based Linguistics deals mainly with compiling various electronic corpora for conducting investigations in linguistic fields such as phonetics, phonology, grammar, stylistic, discourse, lexicon and many others. The development of Corpus Linguistics has given birth to Corpus-based Lexicography and a new corpus-based generation of dictionaries. Most current dictionaries no longer use invented examples but rely on corpora of authentic English.

A large and well-constructed corpus gives comprehensive information about frequency, distribution, and typicality of linguistic features – such as words, collocations, spellings, pronunciations, and grammatical constructions. The words in a corpus come from conversations, magazine articles, newspapers, lectures, novels, brochures, radio and television broadcasts. Traditional grammars and dictionaries tell us what a word *ought to mean*, but only experience can tell us what a word *is used to mean*. This is why dictionary publishers, grammar writers, language teachers, and developers of natural language processing software alike have been increasingly turning to corpus evidence.

The purpose of a language corpus is to provide language workers with evidence of how language is really used. Among them are The British National Corpus, Longman Corpus Network, Spoken British Corpus, International Cambridge Language Survey, etc. Their obvious advantage is the vast amount of data and the speed of their access. Some of lexicographical giants have their own electronic text archives which they use depending on the type of dictionary compiled. The British National Corpus [http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk] is a 100-million-word collection of samples of written and spoken language from a wide range of sources, designed to represent a wide cross-section of British English from the later part of the 20th century, both spoken and written. The written part of the BNC (90 %) includes, for example, extracts from

regional and national newspapers, specialist periodicals and journals for all ages and interests, academic books and popular fiction, published letters, school and university essays, etc. The spoken part (10 %) consists of orthographic transcriptions of unscripted informal conversations (recorded by volunteers selected from different age, region and social classes) and spoken language collected in different contexts.

The use of corpora in dictionary-making practices gives a lexicographer a lot of opportunities, namely:

• to produce and revise dictionaries very quickly, thus providing up-to-date information about the language;

• to give more complete and precise definitions since a larger number of natural examples are examined;

• to keep on top of new words entering the language, or existing words changing their meanings;

• to describe usages of particular words or phrases typical of particular varieties and genres;

• to organize easily examples extracted from corpora into more meaningful groups for analysis laying special stress on their collocation;

• to register cultural connotations.

The use of corpora in dictionary-making allows to make a dictionary in a much shorter period of time with up-to-date information about the language; thus the definitions are more complete and precise as a larger number of natural examples are examined.

SHORT HISTORY OF DICTIONARY MAKING

2300 BC	Sumerian – Akkadian wordlists discovered in Ebla (modern Syria)
III – II c. BC	Indian glossaries explaining difficult words in Vedas
III c. BC	*Er Ya* 'Treasury of Fine Words', the earliest Chinese dictionary organized as a thesaurus
I c. AD	*Homeric Lexicon* written by Apollonius the Sophist
IV c. AD	*Amera Kosha (Amarakosa)*, a Sanskrit dictionary compiled by Amera Sinha in verse with around 10,000 words
VI-VII c. AD	*the Lleiden, the Epinal, the Erfurt, the Corpus glossaries,* the most ancient glossaries of English origin
X c. AD	*Suda*, etymological and explanatory dictionary with 30,000 entries from literary works in Ancient, Heelenistic and Byzantine Greek and in Latin

XI c. AD	*Lughat-e Fars,* Farsi dictionary written by Asadi Tusi
XI c. AD	*Muqaddimat al-adab 'Literary Expositor',* Persian-Arabic bilingual dictionary
XII c. AD	*Abhidhana Kintamani* and *Desinamamala*, dictionaries of Sanskrit and Prakrit
1400	*Vocabularious copiosus* (*Conflatus*), Latin – Middle Dutch dictionary
1403 – 1409	Yongle Encyclopaedia in 10,000 volumes
1430	the Latin-English *Hortus Vocabulorum*
1440	The *Promptorium Parvulorum sive Clericorum 'Reposotory for Children and Clerics'* by Geoffrey 'the Grammarian' of Norfolk with 12,000 words, it was printed in 1499; the first English-Latin dictionary
1480	*Caxton French-English Glossary*
XV c. AD	Persian-Turkish bilingual dictionary by Arabic scholars
1500	the first printed *Latin-English dictionary* issued from the press of Wynkin de Worde
1530	Palsgrave's *English-French Dictionary,* followed by *English-Spanish* and *English-Italian dictionaries*
1538	*Latin-English Dictionary* by Sir Thomas Elyot (*Bibliotheca Eliotae*)
1552	*Abecedarium Anglico-Latinum* by R. Huloet
1565	*Thesaurus Linguae Romanae at Britannicae by* Thomas Cooper (*Thesaurus of the Roman Tongue and the British*); French-English
1582	*Elementarie* by Richard Mulcaster, non-alphabetic list of 8,000 English words
1598	*A World of Words* by John Florio; Italian-French
1604	*A Table Alphabeticall of Hard Usuall English Wordes* by Robert Cawdrey, the first purely alphabetical English dictionary with spelling and meaning of about 2,500 terms, difficult words borrowed from Hebrew, Greek, Latin, French
1611	*A Dictionarie of the French and English Toungues* by Randle Cotgrave
1612	*Vocabulario degli Academici della Crusca*, Italian dictionary
1616	*An English Expositor* by John Bullokar, 5,000 words
1623	*The English Dictionarie* by Henry Cockeram; it consisted of two parts: one of hard words, the other of ordinary words, with words of each group used to explain those of the other
1656	*Glossographia* by Thomas Blount
1658	*The New World of English Words* by Edwards Philips

1690	*Universal Dictionary Containing All French Words* (the lexicographer Furetiere was expelled from the National Academy because he published his own dictionary before the official one appeared in 1694)
1676	*An English Dictionary* by Elisha Coles; 25,000 words
1702	*A New English Dictionary* by John Kersey; the dictionary was set out to include all the words and define their meanings; 28,000 words
1704	*Lexicon Technicum* by John Harris *(An Universal English Dictionary of Arts and Sciences)*
1716	the Kanxti Dictionary, contained 50,000 characters together with their pronunciation and definition
1721	*Universal Etymological English Dictionary* by Nathan Bailey; the first dictionary to include etymology of each word; the most popular dictionary of the 18th century (third edition in 1802)
1730	*Dictionarium Britannicum* by Nathan Bailey; 48,000 words
1726 – 1739	Dictionary of the Spanish Academy
1755	*Dictionary of the English Language* by Samuel Johnson; the dictionary was a landmark in establishing the role of the lexicographer as an authority on the correct spelling, pronunciation and definitions
1764	*Pronouncing and Spelling Dictionary* by William Johnston
1764	*Spelling Dictionary* by John Entik
1772	*The first English-Russian dictionary*
1780	*A General Dictionary of the English Language 'respelled'* by Thomas Sheridan
1789 – 1794	Dictionary of the Russian Academy
1806	*A Compendious Dictionary of the English Language* by Noah Webster
1807 – 1828	*An American Dictionary of the English Language* by Noah Webster, in 1841 – the second edition in two volumes; introduction of American modification of spelling which became accepted as the American standard; 70,000 entries
1830	*Comprehensive Pronouncing and Explanatory Dictionary of the English Language* by Joseph Worcester
1837	*A New Dictionary of the English Language* by Charles Richardson with extensive textual citations
1840 – 1855	Meyer's *Great Encyclopedic Lexicon* in 46 plus 6 supplementary volumes
1860	*A Dictionary of the English Language* by Joseph Worcester; 104,000 entries, 1,8000 pages
1863 – 1878	*Dictionnarie de la Langue française* in four volumes plus supplement, publishing house Littré

1865 – 1876	*Grand Dictionnair Universel du XIX siècle,* an encyclopedic dictionary in 15 volumes, publishing house Larousse
1893	*Standard Dictionary of the English Language* by Funk & Wagnalls
1898	*Collegiate Dictionary* by Merriam-Webster
1884 – 1928	*New English Dictionary on Historical Principles (NED) or Oxford English Dictionary (OED)* in 12 volumes, first designed by James Murrey
1898 – 1905	*English Dialect Dictionary* by Joseph Wright in 6 volumes; dialect glossary with words assigned to the localities where they are used
1909	*Webster's New International Dictionary* by Merriam Company; 400,000 entries
1913	*New Standard Dictionary of the English Language by* Funk & Wagnalls; 450,000 words
1933	Supplement to NED, with new and omitted words as well as corrections
1934	*Webster's New International Dictionary,* second edition; popularly known as Webster's second or W2; 600,000 entries – more than any other dictionary at that time
1942	*The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (OALD)* compiled by A.S. Hornbey; the latest edition available on CD-rom
1936 – 1944	*Dictionary of American English on Historical Principles (DAE)* in four volumes, published by the University of Chicago Press
1961	*Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language* in two volumes; commonly known as Webster's third or W3; 450,000 entries; criticized for its permissiveness and its refusal to take a position what was 'proper English'; later edition in 1976 in three volumes
1966	*The Random House Dictionary of the English Language;* American dictionary; Random House incorporated the name Webster's into its title after an injunction won by Merriam Webster
1967	*Dictionary of Jamaican English;* revised in 1980
1969	*The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language (AHD);* abridged paperback edition in 1970; 1980 - second edition; 1992 – third edition, 2000 – fourth edition
1970	*Chronological English Dictionary (COD),* vocabulary according to the first occurrence and etymological origin
1971	*The Compact Edition of the OED* in two volumes
1972, 1976, 1981, 1986	Four volumes under the title *A Supplement to the Oxford English Dictionary;* replaced the supplement of 1933
1973	*Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary*

1978	*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDCE)* based on the Longman Corpus Network
1979	*Collins Dictionary of the English Language (COLLINS)*
1985 – 2011	*The Dictionary of American English Dictionary (DARE);* includes regional and folk speech based on interviews with 2,770 people in 1,022 communities across the Unites States
1987	*COBUILD (Collins Birmingham University International Language Database)*
1989	*The Oxford English Dictionary,* second edition, in 20 volumes; as of 16th September 2010, the editors had completed the third edition from *M* to *rotness*.
1995	*The Welsh Academy English-Welsh Dictionary;* 2003 – second edition
1996	*Dictionary of Caribbean English Usage*
1998	*The New Oxford Dictionary of English (NODE)*
1998	*Canadian Oxford Dictionary (CanOD);* standard dictionary reference for Canadian English; 2004 – second edition
14th March 2000	*the Oxford English Dictionary Online (OED online)*; contains the entire of OED2 and updated quarterly with revisions which will be included into the OED3
2001 – 2004	*The Dictionary of the Scots Language;* on-line Scots-English dictionary

QUESTIONS FOR REVISION

1. What is the origin of the term 'lexicography'? 2. What do lexicography and lexicology have in common? Enumerate their differences. 3. What are the main functions of practical/ theoretical lexicography? 4. What periods is practical lexicography divided into? 5. Name the main landmarks in British Lexicography. 6. Who is considered to be the founder of American Lexicography and why? 7. What are the main problems lexicographers encounter in their work? 8. How can the dictionary entries be arranged in the dictionaries? What information is contained in the dictionary entry? 9. What are the main types of linguistic dictionaries according to the nature of word entry? 10. Give examples of specialized dictionaries. 11. What are concordances? 12. What are the different ways of defining the meaning? 13. What is special about Learner's Dictionaries? 14. How is a dictionary structured? 15. What are the modern trends in Lexicography? Why are corpora studies so important today?

TESTS FOR SELF-CONTROL

TEST 1

1. The term "lexicology" comes from
  a) a French word   b) a Latin word   c) a Greek word.
2. Lexicology as a branch of General Linguistics is connected with
  a) Phonetics and Grammar
  b) Stylistics and History of the language
  c) Phonetics, Grammar, Stylistics, History of the language.
3. What systemic relationships are based on the linear character of speech?
  a) syntagmatic   b) derivational   c) paradigmatic.
4. Special lexicology studies
  a) the description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given tongue
  b) the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development
  c) the history of the vocabulary of the language showing its change and development in the course of time.
5. Choose a set of words where syntagmatic relationships are observed
  a) bag, briefcase, handbag, purse, rucksack, suitcase
  b) teacher, coach, lecturer, instructor, tutor, pedagogue
  c) green leaves, green years, green fruit, green teacher.
6. Choose a set of words where paradigmatic relationships are observed
  a) hand, handy, handwriting, handwritten, handful, handball
  b) heavy sky, heavy bag, heavy rain, heavy heart, heavy supper
  c) white light, white crow, white night, white lie, white man.
7. Identify a paradigmatic group: *dog, doggish, doglike, doggy, dogged, dog-biscuit*
  a) a thematic group
  b) a word family
  c) a semantic field.

TEST 2

1. What language are the following words borrowed from: *waltz, fatherland, leitmotif, rucksack, zinc, cobalt, nickel*?
  a) Spanish   b) German   c) Latin.

2. What language are the following words borrowed from: *apricot, banana, bravado, canoe, embargo, sombrero, potato, tobacco*?

     a) French   b) Spanish and Portuguese   c) Italian.

3. The words *to take, to call, to get, to give, to cast, to want, to die* are

     a) Native   words   b) Scandinavian   borrowings   c) French borrowings.

4. Which of the words are the native ones?

     a) camel, crocodile, hyena, gorilla, lynx, monkey

     b) pigeon, turkey, kangaroo, giraffe, squirrel, zebra

     c) hen, cow, goat, crow, bird, bear, fox, hare, lark.

5. Words which occur in several languages as a result of borrowing from the same ultimate source are called

     a) archaic words b) international words c) slang words.

6. Which group of words belongs to the native stock?

     a) nut, acorn, fir, walnut, hazel-nut, ash, oak

     b) apricot, orange, banana, pomegranate, melon, cherry, lemon

     c) plum, palm, acacia, pine, baobab, mallow, pear.

7. State the origin of the following etymological doublets*: cavalry - chivalry, major - mayor*

     a) English and Scandinavian

     b) they were borrowed from the same language

     c) Latin and French.

8. Borrowed words that are not assimilated in the adopting language are called

     a) barbarisms b) historisms c) jargonisms.

9. What language are the following words borrowed from: *chauffeur, coup d'etat, chic, douche, blindage, prestige, debut*?

     a) Latin b) Spanish c) French.

10. By a semantic loan is meant

     a) the development in an English word of a new meaning under the influence of a correlated unit in some other language

     b) a word or a phrase formed from the material available in the given language but after a foreign pattern by means of literal, morpheme-for-morpheme translation of every component

     c) two or more words of the same language which came by different routes from one and the same basic original word.

TEST 3

1. What is the subject matter of word-formation?
   a) a morpheme
   b) the morphemic structure of a word and the ways of word building
   c) derivational affixes and models.
2. The morphemes *-ness, -less, -dis* are singled out as
   a) bound b) semi-bound c) free.
3. Structurally morphemes are divided into
   a) productive and unproductive
   b) free, bound, semi-bound
   c) roots and affixes.
4. What morphs are characterized by the following definition, "They are identical in meaning and have different phonetic shapes in different contexts"?
   a) suppletive morphs b) root morphs c) allomorphs.
5. Find the words with allomorphs
   a) clever - cleverer - the cleverest
   b) heart, hearten, heartily, heartless
   c) please, pleasure, pleasant.
6. What morphemes are singled out semantically?
   a) roots and affixes
   b) free, bound, semi-bound
   c) roots, affixes, inflexions.
7. The suffix *–ie* in *auntie* is named
   a) augmentive b) diminutive c) productive.
8. What is the origin of the affixes *–ism, -ics, -ist, poly-, dis-*
   a) Latin b) Greek c) Scandinavian.
9. Define the meaning of the suffix *–ish* in *babyish, childish, girlish, womanish*
   a) belonging to some nationality or locality
   b) like, having the quality of
   c) approaching the quality of
10. What group do the following stems belong: *fashionmonger, shock-proof, trustworthy, cameraman, playboy*
    a) free b) bound c) semi-bound.
11. Choose the words with non-productive suffixes:
    a) laggard, drunkard, length;

b) storiette, seawards, mountaineer;

c) speaker, taxist.

12. Suffix – en makes…

a) nouns from adjectives;

b) verbs from nouns;

c) nouns from verbs;

d) verbs from adjectives.

13. The main unit of the lexical system of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning is…

a) morpheme; b) word; c) suffix.

TEST 4

1. Find the proper type of conversion of the words given below: *round - a round, criminal - a criminal, to say - a say, to try - a try*

a) verbalization b) adjectivization c) substantivation.

2. Define the type of word-formation of the following words: *smog, brunch, fruice, flush, swellegant*

a) back-formation b) blending c) shortening.

3. Find the proper type of conversion of the words given below:

round - a round, criminal - a criminal, to say - a say, to try – a try

a) verbalization b) adjectivization c) substantivation.

4. Define the type of word-formation of the following words; *ping-pong, flim-flam, tittle-tattle, pooh-pooh, walkie-talkie*

a) blending b) sound imitation c) reduplication.

5. What are word-building models of the words *to burgle, to edit, to skate, to wellwish, to enthuse*

a) conversion b) backformation c) affixation.

6. How are the underlined words made: *a lovely* face*, a friendly* visit

a) suffixation b) compounding c) conversion.

7. Decide which group of words belongs to stress interchange:

a) bath – to bath b) to conflict – conflict c) hot – to hit.

8. Apocopy it is when…

a) the end is clipped

b) the middle is clipped

c) the beginning is clipped.

9. Abbreviation is:

a) shortening of words

b) the main way of forming verbs

c) shortening of phrases.

TEST 5

1. What is "meaning" in terms of referential approach?

    a) the sum total of what the word contributes to different contexts in which the word may appear

    b) a certain reflection in our mind of objects or relations that exist in reality

    c) a certain reflection in our mind of objects or relations that are connected with their sound-form.

2. What structure is singled out within interconnected lexical meanings of the polysemantic word?

    a) a semantic nucleus b) a concept c) a lexico-semantic variant.

3. The denotative component of the lexical meaning is

    a) the lexical nucleus of a word which is connected with the referent and notion the given word denotes

    b) the material meaning of a word which is directly connected with the object or concept the given word expresses

    c) the component of a word-meaning which is recurrent in the identical sets of grammatical forms of different words.

4. A branch of lexicology which studies the problem of lexical meaning is called

    a) etymology   b) semasiology c) toponymy

5. What term is defined as "the object in the outside world to which the sound form refers"?

    a) a concept b) a sign c) a referent.

6. What is understood by "emotional charge"?

    a) the attitude of the speaker to what is being spoken about

    b) the social sphere in which the discourse takes place

    c) shades of meaning or different degrees of a given quality.

7. Classify the words according to the type of motivation: *tongues (of flame), key (to a mystery), green (with envy), head (of a procession)*

    a) phonetic b) morphological c) semantic.

8. Define the meaning of *face* in the sentence: He was being matter-of-fact in the face of the excitement.

    a) facade, front b) look, expression c) surface of something.

9. A word is a unity of the sound-form and

    a) notion b) meaning c) referent.

10. The connotative component is what is suggested by or associated with

a) a particular word meaning

b) a particular concept

c) a particular referent.

11. What process of semantic changes is defined as "a process as the result of which for one reason or another a word becomes disrepute and less respectable"?

a) degradation of meaning

b) narrowing of meaning

c) transference of meaning.

12. What linguistic phenomenon is the basis of the formation of metaphor?

a) homonymy   b) polysemy   c) synonymy.

13. Pick out the historisms from the groups below

a) anarch, baron, musketeer, vassal, carbonari

b) mom, eve, thy, thou, aye, nay, moon, oft

c) toreador, rajah, shah.

14. Define the process of semantic changes in the following words: *deer, comrade, wife, meat*

a) narrowing of meaning

b) degradation of meaning

c) transference of meaning.

15. Which line accounts for the metaphor?

a) Utterly amazed, I was speechless

b) The kettle is boiling

c) Kyiv is the heart of our country.

16. Define the process of semantic changes in the following words: *paper, manuscript, pipe, vandal, utopian*

a) extension of meaning

b) elevation of meaning

c) transference of meaning.

17. Which line accounts for the metonymy?

a) I have never read Balzac in the original

b) He had an egg-like head and frog-like jaws

c) My heart is beating with excitement.

18. Pick out the metaphors from the following word combinations

a) green leaves, a green bush, a green apple

b) black propaganda, black envy, black ingratitude

c) the neck of a girl, the root of a tree, seeds of a plant.

19. What is the main difference between archaisms and historisms?

a) archaisms have synonyms in a contemporary language

b) historisms have synonyms in a contemporary language

c) archaisms and historisms have different stylistic functions in the text.

20. Which of the groups of words listed below corresponds to passive vocabulary?

a) neologisms, historisms, archaisms

b) archaisms, dialect words, borrowings

c) professionalisms, barbarisms, loan words.

TEST 6

1. What is the process of forming the homonyms *cab (cabriolet) – cab (cabbage)*

a) split of polysemy   b) shortening   c) borrowing.

2. Which line accounts for the homographs?

a) pole – poll, scent – sent, plain – plane

b) bass – bass, desert – desert, buffet – buffet

c) cot – cot, game – game, match – match.

3. What is the process of forming the synonyms *to ask – to question*

a) conversion   b) shift of meaning   c) borrowing.

4. What term can be defined as "words that are identical in their sound form but have no common semes or association"

a) polysemantic words   b) lexical homonyms   c) paronyms.

5. Synonyms belonging to the same stylistic layer, having the same connotation which are characterized by a distinction in the differentiating semes of the denotational component of their lexical meaning are named

a) absolute   b) ideographic   c) stylistic.

6. Which of the definitions corresponds to the notion "synonyms"?

a) words that are identical in sound-form hut different in meaning

b) words that partially coincide in their sound-form but are different in meaning

c) words belonging to the same past of speech, that are different in sound-form but identical or similar in meaning.

7. Point out the synonymic dominant in the following group of synonyms: *scarlet, crimson, cherry, purple, red, carmine, cardinal, bloodshot*

a) red   b) cherry   c) bloodshot.

8. Which line accounts for the lexical homonyms?

a) nail – nail, bank – bank, yard – yard

b) some – sum, so – saw, flu – flew

c) asked – asked, put – put, brother's – brothers.

9. What is "a synonymic dominant"?

a) structurally it is an unproductive word

b) etymologically it is a genuine word

c) a general term, neutral in style and with a great combining power.

10. Fill in the blank with a synonym: *Oh, one's mode of life might be ... and scrupulous.*

a) high   b) tall   c) lofty.

TEST 7

1. What is the subject matter of phraseology?

a) free word combinations

b) words with the figurative meaning

c) words characterized by the integral meaning as a whole, with the meaning of each component weakened or entirely lost.

2. What types of phraseological units did Vynogradov single out?

a) nominative and communicative

b) phraseological fusions, phraseological unities, phraseological combinations

c) phrasemes and idioms.

3. The difference between phraseological units and free word combinations lies in

a) syntactical peculiarities (impossibility of transformations)

b) semantic peculiarities (they are partially or fully non-motivated)

c) both syntactical and semantic peculiarities.

4. What relationships have the terms 'phraseological unit', 'set phrase', 'idiom' between themselves?

a) synonymous   b) antonymous   c) homonymous.

5. The difference between phraseological units and free word combinations lies in

a) syntactical peculiarities (impossibility of transformations)

b) semantic peculiarities (they are partially or fully non-motivated)

c) both syntactical and semantic peculiarities.

6. Which of the linguists proposed the classification based on the combination of functional, semantic and structural criteria?

     a) Kunin   b) Smirnitsky   c) Amosova.

7. Point out the phraseological units that are considered to be synonymous.

     a) through thick and thin, by hook or by crook, for love or money

     b) to take the bull by the horns, in all respects, at one jump

     c) by little and little, on the spot, to begin at the wrong end.

8. I like Mary; she is a girl … , kind and very pretty.

     a) over my own head

     b) after my own heart

     c) in my own blood.

9. According to Seidl and McMordie *"to tell someone where to get off"* belongs to the type with

     a) form irregular, meaning clear

     b) form regular, meaning unclear

     c) form irregular, meaning unclear.

10. McCarthy and O'Dell consider *"a kick in the teeth"* to be

     a) a prepositional phrase   b) a compound   c) a binomial.

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