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ЛЕКСИКОЛОГИЯ

Практическое руководство

для студентов
дневной формы обучения
специальности 1-02 03 06 «Иностранные языки
(английский, немецкий), (английский, французский)»
и заочной формы обучения
специальности 1-02 03 06-08 «Иностранный язык (английский)»

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Практическое руководство предназначено для ознакомления студентов с теоретическими основами лексикологии. Издание способствует формированию системы понятий и специальных знаний, необходимых для успешного овладения английским языком.

Адресовано студентам факультета иностранных языков дневной формы обучения специальности 1-02 03 06 «Иностранные языки (английский, немецкий), (английский, французский)» и заочной формы обучения специальности 1-02 03 06-08 «Иностранный язык (английский)».

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ПРЕДИСЛОВИЕ

Данное практическое руководство предназначено для студентов 4 курса факультета иностранных языков дневной формы обучения специальности 1-02 03 06 «Иностранные языки (английский, немецкий), (английский, французский)», а также для студентов заочной формы обучения специальности 1-02 03 06-08 «Иностранный язык (английский)». Практические цели издания предполагают усвоение основ лексикологии, ознакомление студентов с наиболее важными особенностями структурно-семантического строя английского языка, что поможет им в дальнейшем осознанно подходить к изучению лексики в практическом плане. Без углубления в теоретические аспекты языка невозможна подготовка квалифицированных кадров в области лингвистики и филологии. Знание теоретических основ лексикологии способствует достижению высоких результатов в ходе обучения иностранному языку и позволяет формировать прочные навыки практического использования того или иного иностранного языка.

Структурно руководство состоит из 8 тем, и они посвящены рассмотрению английского языка как системы: представлен анализ лексических единиц с точки зрения их происхождения, морфологической и семантической структуры; рассматриваются пути расширения словарного состава языка; стилистическая и территориальная стратификация вокабуляра.

Характер и объём теоретического материала, изложенного в руководстве, определен практической необходимостью и целесообразностью. Теоретические сведения предлагаются в объёме, необходимом для овладения лингвистическими понятиями в соответствии с программой курса. Каждая тема снабжена перечнем необходимой литературы.

Издание может быть использовано студентами факультета иностранных языков как на практических занятиях, так и во время самостоятельной работы для совершенствования своих знаний английского языка и выполнению научно-исследовательской работы.

1. LEXICOLOGY AS A BRANCH OF LINGUISTICS, ITS AIMS, VALUE AND CONNECTION WITH OTHER SCIENCES

1.1 Lexicology as a Branch of Linguistics

The term **lexicology** is composed of two Greek morphemes: *lexis* denoting 'word' and *logos* denoting 'learning'. Thus, the literal meaning of the term 'lexicology' is 'the science of the word'. In modern linguistics lexicology is one of the branches of science dealing with different properties of words and the vocabulary of a language. Lexicology studies morphemes, words and set expressions.

The term **word** denotes the basic unit of a language resulting from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment. The word is a structural and semantic entity within the language system.

Set expressions are word a group consisting of two or more words whose combination is integral so that they are introduced into speech as ready-made units with a specialised meaning of the whole that is not understood as a mere sum total of the meanings of the elements.

The **morpheme** is the smallest meaningful language unit.

The term **vocabulary** is used to denote the system formed by the total sum of all the words that the language possesses.

1.2 The Subject Matter of Lexicology

The basic task of lexicology is a study and systematic description of vocabulary in respect to its origin, development and current use. Lexicology is concerned with words, variable word-groups, phraseological units, and with morphemes which make up words.

Modern English Lexicology investigates the problems of word structure and word formation in Modern English, the semantic structure of English words, the main principles underlying the classification of vocabulary units into various groupings, the laws governing the replenishment of the vocabulary with new vocabulary units. Modern English Lexicology studies the relations between various layers of the English vocabulary and the specific laws and regulations that govern its development at the present time. A section dealing with Lexicography, the science and art of dictionary compiling, is also traditionally included in a course of Lexicology.

The **methods** used in lexicological research are componential analysis, transformational analysis, the contextual method, analysis of dictionary definitions, the statistical method and others.

1.3 Types and Branches of Lexicology

Distinction is naturally made between **General Lexicology** and **Special Lexicology**. The general study of words and vocabulary, irrespective of the specific features of any particular language, is known as **General Lexicology**. **Special Lexicology** is the lexicology of a particular language (e. g. English, Russian, etc.), i. e. the study and description of its words and vocabulary.

Special Lexicology may be **historical** and **descriptive**.

There are two principal approaches in linguistic science to the study of language material, namely the **synchronic** (or descriptive) and **the diachronic** (or historical) approach. Thus, the synchronic approach studies language at a theoretical 'point' in time. It refers to **Descriptive Lexicology** as this branch of Linguistics deals with the vocabulary and vocabulary units of language at a certain time. The diachronic approach refers to **Historical Lexicology** that studies the development of language or languages over time.

Vocabulary studies include such aspects of research as **etymology**, **semasiology** and **onomasiology**. **Etymology** is the branch of linguistics which studies the origin or derivation of words. In many cases the etymology of a word reveals itself in comparative historical studies. **Semasiology** is the branch of linguistics whose subject-matter is the study of word meaning. The term **semantics** is used to denote the lexical meaning of words or phrases. **Onomasiology** is the study of the principles of the signification of things and notions by lexical and lexico-phraseological means of a given language. Lexicology consists of the following parts, or branches:

A. **Word-structure** (word-building), which studies the elements the word consists of (morphemes: roots, affixes) and the patterns according to which words are built: affixation, composition, conversion, shortening, sound imitation, etc.

B. **Phraseology**, which studies phraseological units (set expressions) and their classifications.

C. **Lexicography**, which deals with creation of dictionaries, their types and application.

Lexicology also studies the stylistic differentiation (stratification) of the vocabulary and variants and dialects of the language.

1.4 The Theoretical and Practical Value of Lexicology

The importance of English lexicology is based not on the size of its vocabulary, however big it is, but on the fact that at present it is the world's most widely used language. The theoretical value of lexicology becomes obvious if we realize that it forms the study of one of the three main aspects of language, i. e. its vocabulary, the other two being its grammar and sound system. Lexicology came into being to meet the demands of many different branches of applied linguistics, namely of lexicography, standardization of terminology, information retrieval, literary criticism and especially of foreign language teaching. In training a would-be teacher of languages, it helps to stimulate a systematic approach to the facts of vocabulary and an organised comparison of the foreign and native language. Lexicology also imparts, the necessary skills of using different kinds of dictionaries and reference books, and prepares for future independent work on increasing and improving one's vocabulary.

1.5 Links of Lexicology with Other Branches of Linguistics

Lexicology has close ties with other branches of linguistics as they also take into account words in one way or another approaching them from different angles. There is a relationship between **lexicology** and **phonetics** since phonetics is also concerned with the study of the word, i. e. with the sound form of the word. Numerous examples show that in actual speech certain words acquire a different meaning because they are pronounced differently. Thus, discrimination between words may be based upon, s. g., *'import*, n, *im'port*, v. Historical phonetics and historical phonology can be of great use in the diachronic study of synonyms, homonyms and polysemy.

A close connection between **lexicology** and **grammar** is conditioned by the manifold ties between the objects of their study. Even isolated words as presented in a dictionary bear a definite relation to the grammatical system of the language because they belong to some part of speech and conform to some lexicogrammatical characteristics of the word class to which they belong. Interactions between them are evident both in the sphere of morphology and in syntax. Morphological indicators often help to differentiate the meanings of the words. Syntactic position of a word does not only change its function but its lexical meaning as well. Lexicology is linked with the **history of a language** since the latter investigates the changes and the development of the vocabulary of a language.

There is also a close relationship between **lexicology** and **stylistics**. Stylistics studies many problems treated in lexicology. These are the problems of meaning, synonymy, differentiation of vocabulary according to the sphere of

communication and some other issues. Lexicology is bound up with **sociolinguistics**. Sociolinguistics investigates the extra-linguistic or social causes of the changes in the vocabulary of a language. The word stock of a language directly and immediately reacts to changes in social life.

Questions

1. What does lexicology study?
2. What is the object of study of General Lexicology and Special Lexicology?
3. What branches of linguistics does lexicology have close ties with? Give examples.
4. Why is it important to study English Lexicology?
5. What is the theoretical value of lexicology?
6. Can Lexicology be bound up with sociolinguistics?

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2. LEXICAL UNITS.

THE NOTION OF LEXICAL SYSTEM

2.1 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 are parts of words,

into which words may be analysed, and **set expressions** or groups of words into which words may be combined.

Set expressions are word groups consisting of two or more words whose combination is integral so that they are introduced into speech as ready-made units with a specialised meaning of the whole that is not understood as a mere sum total of the meanings of the elements.

The **morpheme** is the smallest meaningful language unit. Morphemes are divided into two large groups: **lexical morphemes** and **grammatical (functional) morphemes**. Both lexical and grammatical morphemes can be **free** and **bound**. **Free lexical** morphemes are roots of words, which express the lexical meaning of the word; they coincide with the stem of simple words. **Free grammatical** morphemes are function words: articles, conjunctions and prepositions (*the, with, and*). **Bound lexical** morphemes are affixes: **prefixes** (*dis-*), **suffixes** (*-ish*) and also **blocked** (unique) root morphemes (e. g. *Fri-day, cran-berry*). **Bound grammatical morphemes** are inflexions (endings).

When speaking about the structure of words **stems** also should be mentioned. The stem is the part of the word, which remains unchanged throughout the paradigm of the word, e. g. the stem *hop* can be found in the words: *hop, hops, hopped, hopping*.

2.2 Characteristics of the Word as the Basic Unit of Language

The problem of definition. The basic unit of lexicology is the word. There are many definitions of the word, yet none of them is totally satisfactory. The word should be and can be defined, and the definition should be based on the most important characteristics of the word which are as follows:

1. The word is a unit of speech which serves the purposes of human communication. So, the word can be defined as a unit of communication.
2. The word is the total of the sounds which compose it.
3. The word possesses both **external** and **internal** characteristics:
 - a) by **external structure** of the word we mean its morphological structure;
 - b) by the **internal structure** is understood the semantic structure of the word, or its meaning;
 - c) the word possesses both external, formal and internal, semantic unity.
4. The word can be used in different grammatical forms.

Within the scope of linguistics, the word has been defined syntactically, semantically, phonologically and by combining various approaches. We can,

nevertheless, accept this formula with some modifications, adding that **a word is the smallest significant unit of a given language capable of functioning alone and characterised by positional mobility within a sentence morphological uninterruptability and semantic integrity.**

Characteristics of the word as the basic unit of a language. What is word? The word may be described as the basic unit of language. Uniting meaning and form, it is composed of one or more morphemes, each consisting of one or more spoken sounds or their written representation. 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!*).

When used in sentences together with other words they are syntactically organised. Their freedom of entering into syntactic constructions is limited by many factors, rules and constraints (e. g.: *They told me this story* but not *They spoke me this story*).

All these criteria are necessary because they permit us to create a basis for the oppositions between the word and the phrase, the word and the phoneme, and the word 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.

The word is the fundamental unit of language because they: are the biggest units of morphology and the smallest of syntax; embody the main structural properties and functions of the language (nominative, significative, communicative and pragmatic); can be used in isolation; are thought of as having a single referent or represent a concept, a feeling, an action; are the smallest units of written discourse: they are marked off by solid spelling; segmentation of a sentence into words is easily done by an illiterate speaker, but that of a word into morphemes presents sometimes difficulties even for trained linguists; are written as a sequence of letters bounded by spaces on a page (with exceptions).

Types of words:

- **Semantic division:** monosemantic, polysemantic;
- **Stylistic division:** stylistically marked, stylistically neutral;
- **Syntactic division:** notional, functional;
- **Etymological division:** native, borrowed, international;
- **Emotional division:** colored, neutral.

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

2.3 The Notion of Lexical System. The English Vocabulary as an Adaptive System

The term **system** as used in present-day lexicology denotes not merely the sum total of English words, it denotes a set of elements associated and functioning together according to certain laws. It is a coherent homogeneous whole, constituted by interdependent elements of the same order related in certain specific ways.

The vocabulary of a language is moreover **an adaptive system** constantly adjusting itself to the changing requirements and conditions of human communications and cultural surroundings. It is continually developing by overcoming contradictions between its state and the new tasks and demands it has to meet. The lexical system of the language is in a state of constant change.

The term **system** as applied to vocabulary should not be understood to mean a well-defined or rigid system. All elements of the system have certain types of relationships between them. They are: **syntagmatic, paradigmatic**.

A word enters into **syntagmatic** (linear) combinatorial relationships with other lexical units that can form its context, serving to identify and distinguish its meaning. Lexical units are known to be context-dependent. A word enters into contrastive **paradigmatic** relations with all other words, that can occur in the same context and be contrasted to it.

Syntagmatic relationships being based on the linear character of speech are studied by means of contextual, valence, distributional, transformational and some other types of analysis.

Paradigmatic linguistic relationships determining the vocabulary system are based on the interdependence of words within the vocabulary (synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, etc.).

2.4 The Theory of Oppositions

The course of English lexicology falls into two main parts: the treatment of the English word as a structure and the treatment of English vocabulary as a system. Modern linguistics views the language system as consisting of several subsystems all based on oppositions, differences, samenesses and positional values.

Lexical opposition is the basis of lexical research and description. Lexicological theory and lexicological description cannot progress independently. They are brought together in the same general technique of analysis, one of the cornerstones of which is N. S. Trubetzkoy's **theory of oppositions**. First used in phonology, the theory proved fruitful for other branches of linguistics as well.

A **lexical opposition** is defined as a semantically relevant relationship of partial difference between two partially similar words.

Each of the tens of thousands of lexical units constituting the vocabulary possesses a certain number of characteristic features variously combined and making each separate word into a special sign different from all other words. We use the term **lexical distinctive feature** for features capable of distinguishing a word in morphological form or meaning from an otherwise similar word or variant. Distinctive features and oppositions take different specific manifestations on different linguistic levels.

Thus, in the opposition *doubt* – *doubtful* the distinctive features are morphological: *doubt* is a root word and a noun, *doubtful* is a derived adjective. The features that the two contrasted words possess in common form **the bases** of a lexical opposition. The basis in the opposition *doubt: doubtful* is the common root *-doubt-*. The basis of the opposition may also form the basis of equivalence due to which these words may be referred to the same subset.

Questions

1. What lexical units do you know?
2. Prove that word is the main lexical unit.
3. Is the morpheme the smallest meaningful language unit?
4. What types of words do you know?
5. What relations within a system do you know?
6. Denote the notion of extra-linguistic reality.
7. What is the Theory of Oppositions?
8. A lexical opposition is defined as a semantically relevant relationship of partial difference between two partially similar words, isn't it?

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3. THE ETYMOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

3.1 The Etymological Structure of the English Vocabulary

Etymology is a branch of lexicology, which deals with the study of the evolution of the English vocabulary. From etymological point of view, we distinguish **native**, **borrowed** and **international vocabulary**.

In linguistic literature the term **native** is conventionally used to denote words of Anglo-Saxon origin brought to the British Isles from the continent in the 5th century by the Germanic tribes – the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes.

The term **borrowing** is used in linguistics to denote the process of adopting words from other languages and also the result of this process, the language material itself. Not only words, but also word-building affixes were borrowed into English.

Borrowings can be classified into several groups according to various approaches. According to the aspect which is borrowed there are the following subgroups: **phonetic borrowings**, **translation loans**, **semantic borrowings**, **morphemic borrowings**. According to the degree of assimilation borrowings are subdivided into: **completely assimilated**, **partly assimilated** and **non-assimilated (barbarisms)**. And according to the language from which the word was borrowed.

International words are words of identical origin that occur in several languages as a result of simultaneous or successive borrowings from one source.

3.2 Words of Native Origin (Indo-European, Germanic Words, English Proper)

The native element, representing the original stock of the English vocabulary, consists of three groups, only the third being dated: the words of this group appeared in the English vocabulary in the 5th century or later, that is, after the Germanic tribes migrated to the British Isles.

As to the Indo-European and Germanic groups, they are so old that they cannot be dated.

By **the Indo-European element** are meant words of roots common to all or most languages of the Indo-European group. English words of this group denote elementary concepts without which no human communication would be possible. The following groups can be identified:

- 1) family relations: e. g. *father, mother, brother, son*;
- 2) parts of the human body: e. g. *foot, nose, lip*;

- 3) animals: e. g. *cow, swine, goose*;
- 4) plants: e. g. *tree, birch, corn*;
- 5) time of day: e. g. *day, night*;
- 6) heavenly bodies: e. g. *sun, moon, star*;
- 7) numerous adjectives: e. g. *red, new, glad*;
- 8) the numerals from one to a hundred;
- 9) pronouns – personal (except *they*), demonstrative;
- 10) numerous verbs: e. g. *be, stand, sit, eat, know*.

The Germanic element represents words of roots common to all or most Germanic languages. Some of the main groups of Germanic words are the same as in the Indo-European element:

- 1) parts of the human body: e. g. *head, hand, arm, finger*;
- 2) animals: e. g. *bear, fox, calf*;
- 3) plants: e. g. *oak, fir, grass*;
- 4) natural phenomena: e. g. *rain, frost*;
- 5) seasons of the year: e. g. *winter, spring, summer*;
- 6) landscape features: e. g. *sea, land*;
- 7) human dwellings and furniture: e. g. *house, room, bench*;
- 8) sea-going vessels: e. g. *boat, ship*;
- 9) adjectives: e. g. *green, blue, grey, white, small, thick*;
- 10) verbs: e. g. *see, hear, drink*.

It has been mentioned that the English proper element is, in certain respects, opposed to the first two groups. Not only can it be approximately dated, but these words have another distinctive feature: they are specifically English having no cognates in other languages whereas for Indo-European and Germanic words such cognates can always be found. Here are some examples of English proper words: e. g. *bird, boy, girl, lord, lady, woman, daisy, always*.

Native words are characterized by: 1) a wide range of lexical and grammatical valence and high frequency value; 2) a developed polysemy; 3) a great word-building power; 4) the capacity of forming phraseological units.

3.3 Borrowings in English, Distinctive Features, Causes of Borrowing

The term **borrowing** is used in linguistics to denote the process of adopting words from other languages and also the result of this process, the language material itself.

Borrowings enter the language in two ways: **through oral speech** (by immediate contact between the peoples) and **through written speech** (by indirect contact through books, etc.). Words borrowed orally (e. g. *L. inch, mill*,

street) are usually short and they undergo considerable changes in the act of adoption. Written borrowings (e. g. *Fr. communiqué, belles-lettres*) preserve their spelling and some peculiarities of their sound-form, their assimilation is a long and laborious process.

Borrowings may be **direct** or **indirect**, i. e. through another language. Thus, distinction should be made between the term **source of borrowing** and the term **origin of borrowing**. The first should be applied to the language from which the loan word was taken into English. The second refers to the language to which the word may be traced. For example, the word *paper* < *Fr papier Lat papyrus* < *Gr papyros* has French as its source of borrowing and Greek as its origin.

There are certain structural features, which enable us to identify some words as borrowings and even to determine the source language.

Pronunciation: sound combinations, position of stress, letters *j, x, z* in initial position, combination of *ph, WH, eue, sk*.

Spelling: e. g. *psychology*.

Morphological structure: e. g. *datum – data*.

Polysyllabic: e. g. *government, constitution*.

Lexical meanings: e. g. *perestroika, hashish*.

There are conditions for borrowings. The user must understand it and to have a certain motive for it. Charles Hockett suggests 2 reasons: **to fill the gap in the word stock and prestige motive**.

The influence of borrowings. Borrowed words have influenced: 1) the phonetic structure of English words and the sound system; 2) the word-structure and the system of word building; 3) the semantic structure of English words; 4) the lexical territorial divergence.

3.4 Classifications of Borrowings

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

– **Classification of borrowings according to the borrowed aspect:**

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

Phonetic borrowings are most characteristic in all languages; they are called loan words proper. Words are borrowed with their spelling, pronunciation and meaning. Then they undergo assimilation, each sound in the borrowed word is substituted by the corresponding sound of the borrowing language, the spelling, the stress and the structure of the word can also be changed: e. g. *labour, travel, table, chair, apparatchik, sputnik, bank, soprano, duet*.

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, e. g. *to take the bull by the horns* (Latin), *fair sex* (French), *living space* (German) etc.

Semantic borrowing can appear when an English word was borrowed into some other language, developed there a new meaning and this new meaning was borrowed back into English, e. g. *brigade* was borrowed into Russian and formed the meaning e. g. *a working collective, бригада*. This meaning was borrowed back into English as a Russian borrowing.

Morphemic borrowings are borrowings of affixes which occur in the language when many words with identical affixes are borrowed from one language into another, so that the morphemic structure of borrowed words becomes familiar to the people speaking the borrowing language e. g. *goddess, beautiful* etc.

– **Classification of borrowings according to the degree of assimilation:**

Assimilation of borrowings is a partial or total confirmation to the phonetical, graphical and morphological standards of the receiving language and its semantic system.

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

- a) from what group of languages, the word was borrowed;
- b) in what way the word is borrowed: orally or in the written form;
- c) how often the borrowing is used in the language;
- d) how long the word lives in the language.

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. *sport, start, correct – corrected, gate – gates*.

Semantic assimilation of borrowed words depends on the words existing in the borrowing language, as a rule, a borrowed word does not bring all its meanings into the borrowing language: e. g. *sputnik*.

Partly assimilated borrowings are subdivided into the following groups:

- a) borrowings **non-assimilated semantically**, e. g. *sari, sombrero, taiga*, etc;
- b) borrowings **non-assimilated grammatically**, e. g. *phenomenon – phenomena*;
- c) borrowings **non-assimilated phonetically** e. g. *voice, zero, life – live, ski, police, memoir*;
- d) borrowings can be **partly assimilated graphically** e. g. *symbol, phoneme, chemistry, psychology, chateau*.

Non-assimilated borrowings (barbarisms) are borrowings which are used by Englishmen rather seldom and are non-assimilated, e. g. *addio* (It.), *tete-a-tete* (Fr.), *dolce vita* (It.), *duende* (Sp.), *gonzo* (It.) etc.

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

Latin: *street, port, wall, alter, cross, dean.*

Greek: *church, angel, devil, anthem.*

Latin and Greek: *veto, valence, antenna, biplane, airdrome.*

French: *administer, empire, war, advocate.*

Italian: *volcano, granite, bronze, basso, solo.*

Spanish: *cargo, embargo, tango, guitar.*

Arabic: *alcove, algebra, almanac, azimuth, alchemy, orange.*

Dutch, Flemish: *boom, dock, freight, keel, reef, yacht.*

German: *quartz, loafer, poodle, nickel, schnitzel, blitzkrieg.*

Yiddish: *bagel, Chanukkah (Hanukkah), dreidel, kosher.*

Scandinavian: *fjord, maelstrom, ski, slalom, smorgasbord.*

Russian: *samovar, glasnost, icon, perestroika, vodka.*

Sanskrit: *avatar, karma, mahatma, swastika, yoga.*

Hindi: *bandanna, bungalow, jungle, maharaja, nabob.*

Persian: *check, checkmate, chess.*

African: *banana, banjo, boogie-woogie, goober.*

American Indian: *avocado, cacao, cannibal, canoe, chocolate, tomahawk, tomato, wigwam, Toronto, Michigan.*

Chinese: *chop suey, chow mein, dim sum, ketchup, tea, gin.*

Japanese: *geisha, harakiri, judo, karaoke, kimono.*

Pacific Islands: *bamboo, rattan, taboo, tattoo, boondocks.*

Australia: *boomerang, budgerigar, didgeridoo, kangaroo.*

3.5 International Words

It is often the case that a word is borrowed by several languages, and not just by one. Such words usually convey concepts which are significant in the field of communication.

International words are words borrowed by several languages, they convey concepts which are significant in the field of communication. The general features of international words are: they express different notions and objects of different sciences; are known to many languages; have one and the same language source; have one and the same meaning in all languages; are easily recognizable in all languages. Many of them are of Latin and Greek origin: e. g. *philosophy, mathematics, physics, biology, medicine, lexicology, music, theatre, drama, tragedy, comedy, artist, politics, policy, progress, democracy, anti-militarism, atomic, antibiotic, radio, television, sputnik.*

The English language also contributed a considerable number of international words to world languages. Among them the sports terms occupy a prominent position: e. g. *football, volley-ball, baseball, hockey, cricket, rugby, tennis, golf*, etc. Fruits and foodstuffs imported from exotic countries often transport their names too and, being simultaneously imported to many countries, become international: e. g. *coffee, cocoa, chocolate, banana, mango, avocado, grapefruit*.

3.6 Etymological Doublets

Sometimes a word is borrowed twice from the same language. As the result, we have two different words with different spellings and meanings but historically they come back to one and the same word. Such words as these two originating from the same etymological source, but differing in phonemic shape and in meaning are called **etymological doublets**.

Etymological triplets (i. e. groups of three words of common root) occur rarer, but here are at least two examples: e. g. *hospital* (Lat.) – *hostel* (Norm. Fr.) – *hotel* (Par. Fr.), *to capture* (Lat.) – *to catch* (Norm. Fr.) – *to chase* (Par. Fr.).

Sometimes etymological doublets are the result of borrowing different grammatical forms of the same word.

Questions

1. What sets of English words can be singled out according to their origin?
2. What semantic groups are words belonging to the Indo-European stock divided into?
3. What are the principles of the classification of borrowed words?
4. What does the term 'etymological doublets' imply?
5. What levels of the language system were influenced by borrowings?

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4. MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH WORDS. CLASSIFICATION OF MORPHEMES

4.1 Morphological Structure of English Words. Classification of Morphemes

Words consist of morphemes. The term **morpheme** is derived from Greek *morphe* – 'form' + *-erne*. The Greek suffix *-erne* has been adopted by linguists to denote the smallest unit (cf. *phoneme*, *sememe*). The morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of form. Morphemes cannot be segmented into smaller units without losing their constitutive essence. Morphemes occur in speech only as constituent parts of words but not independently. Morphemes may have different phonetic shapes. All the representations of the given morpheme are called **allomorphs** or morpheme variants.

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

Semantically morphemes fall into two types:

- 1) root-morphemes;
- 2) non-root morphemes.

Root-morphemes (or radicals) are the lexical nucleus of words. For example, in the words *remake*, *glassful*, *disorder* the root-morphemes *-make*, *glass-* and *-order* are understood as the lexical centres of the words.

Non-root morphemes include **inflectional morphemes** (or inflections) and affixational morphemes (or affixes). Inflections carry only grammatical meaning and are thus relevant only for the formation of word-forms, whereas affixes are relevant for building various types of stems. Lexicology is concerned only with affixational morphemes.

Affixes are divided into **prefixes** and **suffixes**. A **prefix** is a derivational morpheme preceding the root-morpheme and modifying its meaning (*pronounce* – *mis-pronounce*, *safe* – *un-safe*). A **suffix** is a derivational morpheme following the root and forming a new derivative in a different part of speech or a different word class (cf. *-en*, *-y*, *-lessheart-en*, *heart-y*, *heart-less*).

Structurally morphemes fall into three types:

- 1) free morphemes;
- 2) bound morphemes;
- 3) semi-bound (semi-free) morphemes.

4.2 Types of Meaning in Morphemes

In morphemes different types of meaning can be singled out depending on the semantic class morphemes belong to. Root-morphemes possess lexical, differential and distributional types of meaning. Affixational morphemes have **lexical, part-of-speech, differential and distributional types of meaning**. Both root-morphemes and affixational morphemes are devoid of grammatical meaning.

Lexical meaning. The lexical meaning of root-morphemes differs from that of affixational morphemes. Root-morphemes have an individual lexical meaning shared by no other morphemes in the language. The lexical meaning of affixational morphemes is of a more generalizing character.

As in words **lexical meaning** in morphemes may also be analyzed into **denotational** and **connotational** components. The connotational component of meaning may be found not only in root-morphemes but in affixational morphemes as well.

Differential meaning. Differential meaning is the semantic component that serves to distinguish one word from all others containing identical morphemes. In words consisting of two or more morphemes, one of the constituent morphemes always has differential meaning.

Distributional Meaning. Distributional meaning is the meaning of the order and arrangement of morphemes making up the word. It is found in all words containing more than one morpheme.

Part-of-speech meaning. In most cases affixational morphemes are indicative of the part of speech to which a derivational word belongs.

4.3 Morphemic Types of Words. Types of Word Segmentability

According to the number of morphemes words are classified into:

- 1) **monomorphic**;
- 2) **polymorphic**.

Monomorphic or root-words consist of only one root-morpheme (*small, dog, make*). **Polymorphic** words according to the number of root-morphemes are classified into: **monoradical** (one-root morpheme) and **polyradical** (words consisting of two or more roots).

Monoradical words fall into three subtypes: a) **Radical-suffixal** words, i. e. words consisting of one root-morpheme and one or more suffixal morphemes (e. g. *acceptable, acceptability*); b) **radical-prefixal** words, i. e. words consisting of one root-morpheme and a prefixal morpheme (e. g. *outdo, unbutton*); c) **prefixo-radical-suffixal** words, i. e. words which consist of one root and prefixal and suffixal morphemes (e. g. *disagreeable, misinterpretation*).

Polyradical words fall into two subtypes: 1) polyradical words which consist of two or more roots with no affixational morphemes (e. g. *book-stand, lamp-shade*); 2) polyradical words which contain at least two roots and one or more affixational morphemes (e. g. *safety-pin, light-mindedness, pen-holder*).

Types of word-segmentability

Three types of morphemic segmentability of words are distinguished: **complete, conditional, defective.**

4.4 Procedure of Morphemic Analysis (Method of Immediate and Ultimate Constituents)

The procedure generally employed for the purposes of segmenting words into the constituent morphemes is known as the method of Immediate and Ultimate Constituents. Immediate Constituents – any of the two meaningful parts forming a larger linguistic unit. The analysis into Immediate Constituents (ICs) was first suggested by L. Bloomfield and later developed by many linguists. (See Bloomfield L. Language) This method is based on a binary principle, i. e. each stage of the procedure involves two components the word immediately breaks into. At each stage these two components are referred to as the Immediate Constituents (ICs). Each IC at the next stage of analysis is in its turn broken into smaller meaningful elements. The analysis is completed when we arrive at constituents incapable of further division, i.e. morphemes. These morphemes are referred to as the Ultimate Constituents (UCs).

For example, the noun *friendliness* is first segmented into the ICs:

1) *Friendly-* (recurring in the adjectives *friendly* and *friendly-looking*) and 2) *-ness* (found in a countless number of nouns, e. g. *happiness, darkness*). The IC *-ness* is at the same time a UC of the noun, as it cannot be broken into any smaller elements possessing both sound-form and meaning.

The IC *friendly-* is next broken into the ICs 1) *friend-* (recurring in *friendship, unfriendly*) and 2) *-ly* (recurring in *wifely, brotherly*). The ICs *friend-* and *-ly* are both UCs of the word under analysis.

The division into ICs and UCs can be carried out on the basis of two principles: 1) the affix principle and 2) the root principle.

As a rule, the application of one of these principles is sufficient for the morphemic segmentation of words.

Questions

1. What do words consist of?
2. How morphemes can be classified?
3. What do you know about the meanings of morphemes?
4. What are the three types of morphemic segmentability? Characterize each type.
5. What is the procedure of morphemic analysis based on?

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5. WORD FORMATION IN MODERN ENGLISH

5.1 Affixation in English: Suffixation. Classification of Suffixes. Prefixation. Classification of Prefixes

Word-formation is the system of derivative types of words and the process of creating new words from the material available in the language after certain structural and semantic formulas and patterns. A distinction is made between **principal**: affixation, word-composition, conversion and shortening and **secondary ways**: blending, sound interchange, sound imitation, distinctive stress, and back-formation.

Productivity is the ability to form new words after existing patterns which are readily understood by the speakers of a language.

Affixation is generally defined as the formation of words by adding derivational affixes to different types of bases. Affixation includes **suffixation** and **prefixation**.

Suffixation. Classification of Suffixes. **Suffixation** is the formation of words with the help of 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. They can transfer a word into a different semantic group, e. g. a concrete noun becomes an abstract one: e. g. *friend* – *friendship*. Suffixes can be classified into different types in accordance with different principles.

1. **According to the lexico-grammatical character of the base** suffixes are usually added to, they may be: a) deverbal suffixes e. g. *-er*; *-ing*; b) denominal suffixes e. g. *-less*; *-ful*; *-ist*; c) adjectival suffixes e. g. *-en*; *-ly*.

2. **According to the part of speech** formed suffixes fall into several groups: a) noun-forming suffixes: e. g. *-age*; *-ance/-ence*; b) adjective-forming suffixes: e. g. *-able/-ible/-uble*; *-al*; *-ic*; c) numeral-forming suffixes: e. g. *-teen*; *-th*; *-ty*; d) verb-forming suffixes: e. g. *-ate*; *-er*; *-fyl*; *-ify*; *-ize*; e) adverb-forming suffixes: e. g. *-ly*; *-ward/-wards*; *-wise*.

3. **Semantically** suffixes fall into:

a) monosemantic, e. g. *-ess*; b) polysemantic, e. g. *-hood*.

4. **According to their generalizing denotational meaning** suffixes may fall into several groups. For instance, noun-suffixes fall into those denoting: a) the agent of the action, e. g. *-er*; *-ant*; b) appurtenance, e. g. *-an/-ian*; *-ese*; c) collectivity, e. g. *-dom*; *-ry*; d) diminutiveness, e. g. *-ie*; *-let*.

5. **According to their stylistic reference** suffixes may be classified into: a) those characterized by neutral stylistic reference, e. g. *-able (agreeable)*; *-er*; *-ing*; b) those having a certain stylistic value, e. g. *-oid*; *-tron*. These suffixes occur usually in terms and are bookish.

6. **Origin of suffixes.** Here we can point out the following groups: a) Native (Germanic): e. g. *-er*, *-ful*, *-less*, *-ly*, *-ness*, *-dom*, *-hood*, *-ship*, *-th*; b) Romanic: e. g. *-tion*, *-ment*, *-able*, *-eer*, *-age*, *-ard*, *-ate*, *-ee*; c) Greek: e. g. *-ist*, *-ism*, *-ize*; d) Russian: e. g. *-nik*;

7. **Productivity.** Here we can point out the following groups: a) productive: e. g. *-er*, *-ize*, *-ly*, *-ness*, *-ation*, *-ance*, *-ry*, *-able*, *-ize*, *-ify*; b) semi-productive: e. g. *-eer*, *-ette*, *-war*; c) non-productive: e. g. *-ard (drunkard)*, *-th (length)*, *-full*, *-ou*.

Prefixation. Classification of Prefixes. **Prefixation** is the formation of words with the help of prefixes. Prefixes are derivational morphemes affixed before the derivational base. Prefixes modify the lexical meaning of the base.

They seldom shift words from one part of speech into another and therefore both the source word and its prefixed derivative mostly belong to the same part of speech, e. g. *to rewrite* < *to write*.

Prefixes can be classified according to different principles.

1. **According to the lexico-grammatical character** of the base prefixes are usually added to, they may be: a) deverbale e. g. *re-*; *over-*; *out-*; b) denominales e. g. *un-*; *de-*; *ex-*; c) deadjectivales e. g. *un-*; *bi-*.

2. **According to the class of words** they preferably form prefixes are divided into: a) verb-forming prefixes, e. g. *en-/em-*; *be-*; *de-*; b) noun-forming prefixes, e. g. *non-*; *sub-*; *ex-*; c) adjective-forming prefixes, e. g. *un-*; *il-*; *ir-*; d) adverb-forming prefixes, e. g. *un-*; *up-*.

3. **Semantically** prefixes fall into:

a) monosemantic, e. g. *ex-*; b) polysemantic, e. g. *dis-*.

4. **According to their generalizing denotational meaning** prefixes fall into: a) negative prefixes, e. g. *un-*; *non-*; *in-*; b) reversative prefixes, e. g. *un-*; *de-*; *dis-*; c) pejorative prefixes, e. g. *mis-*; *mal-*; *pseudo-*; d) prefixes of time and order, e. g. *fore-*; *post-*, *ex-*; e) prefix of repetition: e. g. *re-*; f) locative prefixes, e. g. *super-*, *sub-*, *inter*.

5. **According to their stylistic reference** prefixes fall into: a) those characterized by neutral stylistic reference, e. g. *over-*; *under-*; *un-*; b) those possessing quite a definite stylistic value, e. g. *pseudo-*; *super-*; *ultra-*; *uni-*; *bi-*. These prefixes are of a literary bookish character.

5.2 Conversion: Basic Criteria of Semantic Derivation in Conversion. Pattern in Conversion

Conversion is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. It is also called affixless derivation or zero-suffixation. Conversion is one of the principal ways of forming words in Modern English. It is highly productive in replenishing the English word-stock with new words.

Conversion consists in making a new word from some existing word by changing the category of a part of speech; the morphemic shape of the original word remains unchanged, e. g. *work* – *to work*, *paper* – *to paper*. The new word acquires a meaning, which differs from that of the original one though it can be easily associated with it. The converted word acquires also a new paradigm and a new syntactic function (or functions), which are peculiar to its new category as a part of speech, e. g. *garden* – *to garden*.

The term “conversion” first appeared in the book by Henry Sweet “New English Grammar” in 1891. Conversion is treated differently by different scientists, e. g. prof. A. I. Smirntitsky treats conversion as

a morphological way of forming words when one part of speech is formed from another part of speech by changing its paradigm, A. Marchand in his book "The Categories and Types of Present-day English" treats conversion as a morphological-syntactical word-building because we have not only the change of the paradigm, but also the change of the syntactic function, e. g. *I need some good paper for my room* (The noun "paper" is an object in the sentence). *I paper my room every year* (The verb "paper" is the predicate in the sentence).

Among the main varieties of conversion are: 1) verbalization (the formation of verbs): *to ape*; 2) substantivation (the formation of nouns): *a private*; 3) adjectivation (the formation of adjectives): *down*; 4) adverbialization (the formation of adverbs): *home*.

Basic criteria of semantic derivation in conversion

There are different criteria of differentiating between the source and the derived word in a conversion pair: 1) The criterion of the non-correspondence between the lexical meaning of the root-morpheme and the part-of-speech meaning of the stem in one of the two words in a conversion pair. 2) The synonymy criterion. 3) The criterion of derivational relations. 4) The criterion of semantic derivation. 5) The criterion of the frequency of occurrence. 6) The transformational criterion.

5.3 Word-composition: Specific Features of English Compounds. Meaning of Compound Word. Classification of Compound Words

Composition is the way of word building when a word is formed by joining two or more stems to form one word.

The **structural unity** of a compound word depends upon: a) the unity of stress; b) solid or hyphenated spelling; c) semantic unity; d) unity of morphological and syntactical functioning.

Compound words in English can be formed not only by means of composition but also by means of: a) reduplication, e. g. *too-too*, and also by means of reduplication combined with sound interchange, e. g. *rope-ripe*; b) conversion from word-groups, e. g. *to mickey-mouse*, *can-do*, *makeup*; c) back formation from compound nouns or word-groups, e. g. *to blood transfuse*, *to fingerprint*; d) analogy, e. g. *lie-in* (on the analogy with *sit-in*) and also *phone-in*, *brawn-drain* (on the analogy with *brain-drain*).

The ICs of compound words represent bases of all three structural types: 1) bases that coincide with morphological stems; 2) bases that coincide with word-forms; 3) bases that coincide with word-groups.

The bases built on stems may be of different degrees of complexity: 1) **simple**, e. g. *week-end*; 2) **derived**, e. g. *letter-writer*; 3) **compound derived**, e. g. *aircraft-carrier*.

The meaning of a compound word is made up of two components: **structural** and **lexical**. The structural meaning of compounds is formed on the base of *the meaning of their distributional pattern* and *the meaning of their derivational pattern*. The lexical meaning of compounds is formed on the base of the combined lexical meanings of their constituents.

Compound words can be classified according to different principles.

1. **According to the relations between the ICs** compound words fall into two classes: 1) **coordinative** compounds, 2) **subordinative** compounds. In coordinative compounds the two ICs are semantically equally important.

2. **According to the part of speech** compounds represent they fall into: 1) compound nouns, e. g. *sunbeam, maidservant*; 2) compound adjectives, e. g. *heart-free, far-reaching*; 3) compound pronouns, e. g. *somebody, nothing*; 4) compound adverbs, e. g. *nowhere, inside*; 5) compound verbs, e. g. *to offset, to bypass, to mass-produce*.

3. **According to the means of composition** compound words are classified into: 1) compounds composed without connecting elements, e. g. *heartache, dog-house*; 2) compounds composed with the help of a vowel or a consonant as a linking element, e. g. *handicraft, speedometer*; 3) compounds composed with the help of linking elements represented by preposition or conjunction stems, e. g. *son-in-law, pepper-and-salt*.

4. **According to the type of bases that form compounds** the following classes can be singled out: 1) compounds proper that are formed by joining together bases built on the stems or on the word-forms with or without a linking element, e. g. *door-step, street-fighting*; 2) derivational compounds that are formed by joining affixes to the bases built on the word groups or by converting the bases built on the word-groups into other parts of speech, e. g. *long-legged* – > (*long legs*) + *-ed*; *a turnkey* –> (*to turn key*) + conversion.

Thus, derivational compounds fall into two groups: a) derivational compounds mainly formed with the help of the suffixes *-ed* and *-er* applied to bases *built*, as a rule, on attributive phrases, e. g. *narrow-minded, doll-faced, lefthander*; b) derivational compounds formed by conversion applied to bases *built*, as a rule, on three types of phrases – verbal adverbial phrases (*a breakdown*), verbal-nominal phrases (*a kill-joy*) and attributive phrases (*a sweettooth*).

5. **According to their structure** compounds are subdivided into: a) compound words proper which consist of two stems, e. g. *to job-hunt, train-sick*,

go-go, tip-top; b) derivational compounds, where besides the stems we have affixes, e. g. *ear-minded, hydro-skimmer*; c) compound words consisting of three or more stems, e. g. *cornflower-blue, eggshell-thin, singer-songwriter*; d) compound-shortened words, e. g. *boatel, tourmobile, VJ-day, motocross, intervision, Eurodollar, Camford*.

6. **According to the order of the components** compounds are divided into compounds with direct order, e. g. *killjoy*, and compounds with indirect order, e. g. *nuclear-free, rope-ripe*.

5.4 Shortening of Words and Phrases. Classification of Shortened Words

Shortening is the process of subtracting phonemes and/or morphemes from words and word-groups without changing their lexico-grammatical meaning.

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

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

Shortening is the process of subtracting phonemes and/or morphemes from words and word-groups without changing their lexico-grammatical meaning. There are three basic types of shortening: **abbreviation, clipping, blending**.

Abbreviation is a process of shortening the result of which is a word made up of the initial letters or syllables of the components of a word-group or a compound word. There are 2 main types of abbreviation: graphical and lexical.

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

We have several semantic groups of them: a) days of the week, e. g. *Mon – Monday, Tue – Tuesday*; b) names of months, e. g. *Apr – April, Aug – August*; c) names of counties in UK, e. g. *Yorks – Yorkshire, Berks – Berkshire*; d) names of states in USA, e. g. *Ala – Alabama, Alas – Alaska*; e) names of address, e. g. *Mr., Mrs., Ms., Dr*; f) military ranks, e. g. *capt. – captain, col. – colonel*; g) scientific degrees, e. g. *B. A. – Bachelor of Arts, D. M. – Doctor of Medicine*;

h) units of time, length, weight, e. g. *f. / ft – foot/feet, sec. – second, in. – inch, mg. – milligram.*

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

There are three types of initialisms in English:

a) **alphabetic(al) abbreviation** (or initial abbreviation, initialism) e. g. *UK, BUP, CND;*

b) **acronymic abbreviation** e. g. *UNESCO, UNO, NATO;*

c) **initialisms** e. g. *CLASS (Computer-based Laboratory for Automated School System).* Some scientists unite groups b) and c) into one group which they call acronyms.

Some initialisms can form new words in which they act as root morphemes by different ways of word-building: a) affixation, e. g. *AWALism, ex-rafer, ex-POW, to waafize, AIDSophobia;* b) conversion, e. g. *to raff, to fly IFR (Instrument Flight Rules);* c) composition, e. g. *STOLport, USAFman;* d) there are also compound-shortened words where the first component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical reading and the second one is a complete word, e. g. *A-bomb, U-pronunciation, V-day* etc. In some cases, the first component is a complete word and the second component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical pronunciation, e. g. *Three-Ds (Three dimensions) – стереофильм.*

Abbreviations of words (clipping). Abbreviation of words consists in clipping a part of a word.

Clipping is the process of cutting off one or several syllables of a word. As a result, we get a new lexical unit where either the lexical meaning or the style is different from the full form of the word e. g. in *fantasy* and *fancy, fence* and *defence* we have different lexical meanings.

Mostly the end of the word is clipped, because the beginning expresses the lexical meaning of the word. This type of abbreviation is called **apocope**. **Apocope** (or back-clipping) is a final clipping, e.g. *prof (professor), ibid (ibidem), ad (advertisement), teen (teenager).* **Aphaeresis** (also fore-clipping) is an initial clipping, e.g. *Bella (Isabella), cello (violoncello).* **Syncope** is a medial clipping, e. g. *maths (mathematics), mart (market), comms (communications), specs (spectacles).* **Fore-and-aft clipping** is an initial and final clipping, e. g. *flu (influenza), frig/fridge (refrigerator), tec (detective), Liza (Elizabeth).*

5.5 Minor Type of Word-Formation

There are secondary ways of word formation: **blending, reversion, sound interchange, sound imitation, back-formation, distinctive stress.**

Blending is the formation of a new word by combining parts of two words. Blends may be of two types: 1) *Additive blend* is a blend which is transformable into a phrase consisting of the respective complete stems combined by the conjunction and prepositions. e. g. *breakfast + lunch = brunch, Russian + English = RunGLISH*; 2) *Restrictive blend* is a blend which is transformable into an attributive phrase where the first component serves as a modifier of the second, e. g. *spiced + ham = spam, detective + fiction = detectifiction, social + elite = socialite.*

Reversion (or back-formation/back formation) is the derivation of new words by subtracting a real or supposed affix from existing words), e. g. *editor – to edit; burglar – to burgle; baby-sitter – to baby-sit; enthusiasm – to enthuse.*

Sound-interchange is the formation of a word due to an alteration in the phonemic composition of its root. Sound-interchange falls into two groups: 1) vowel-interchange (or ablaut): *food – to feed.* In some cases, vowel-interchange is combined with suffixation: *strong – strength*; 2) consonant-interchange: *advice – to advise.* Consonant-interchange and vowel-interchange may be combined together: *life – to live.*

Sound imitation (or onomatopoeia) is the naming of an action or a thing a more or less exact reproduction of the sound associated with it e. g. *cock-a-doodle-do* (English) – *Ку-ка-ре-Ку* (Russian).

Semantically, according to the source sound, many onomatopoeic words fall into a few very definite groups: 1) words denoting sounds produced by human beings in the process of communication or expressing their feelings e. g. *chatter, babble*; 2) words denoting sounds produced by animals, birds, insects, e. g. *moo, croak, buzz*; 3) words imitating the sounds of water, the noise of metallic things, a forceful motion, e. g. *splash, clink, whip, swing.*

Back-formation is the formation of a new word by subtracting a real or supposed suffix from the existing words. The process is based on analogy, e. g. the word *to butle* 'to act or serve as a butler' is derived by subtraction of *-er* from a verbal stem in the noun *butler.*

Distinctive stress is the formation of a word by means of the shift of the stress in the source word, e. g. *'increase* (n) – *in'crease* (v), *'absent* – *ab'sent* (v).

Questions

1. What is word-formation?
2. What are the principles of the classification of affixes?
3. In what way is a new word formed under conversion?

4. How can compounds be classified?
5. What are the causes of shortening?
6. What groups of shortenings can be singled out?
7. What are the two characteristic features of English compounds?
8. Back -formation is the formation of a new word by subtracting a real or supposed suffix from the existing words, isn't it?

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6. THE MEANING OF THE WORD

6.1 The Meaning of the Word. Definitions of Meaning

Word meaning is studied by the branch of lexicology called **semasiology**. Semasiology (from Gr. *semasia* – 'signification'). The main objects of semasiological study are as follows: semantic development of words, its causes and classification, relevant distinctive features and types of lexical meaning, polysemy and semantic structure of word, semantic groupings and connections in the vocabulary system, i. e. synonyms, antonyms, etc. Among the word's various characteristics meaning is the most important. Meaning is one of the most controversial terms in the theory of language.

There are 3 main categories of definitions of meaning:

- 1) **the referential or analytical definitions**, which formulate the essence of meaning as the interdependence between words and things or concepts they denote;
- 2) **the functional or contextual definitions**, which study the functions of a word in speech. This approach is (sometimes described as contextual) based on the analysis of various contexts;
- 3) **operational or information-oriented definitions** of meaning.

The essential feature of the **referential** approach is that it distinguishes between the three components, closely connected with meaning: 1) the **sound form** of the linguistic sign (sign or symbol); 2) the **concept** underlying this sound form (meaning; thought or reference). **Concept** is a category of human cognition, the thought of an object that singles out its essential features; 3) the actual **referent**, i. e. the part or the aspect of reality to which the linguistic sign refers (thing meant).

These definitions are usually criticized on the ground that: they cannot be applied to sentences; they cannot account for certain semantic additions emerging in the process of communication; they fail to account for the fact that one word may denote different objects and phenomena (polysemy) while one and the same object may be denoted by different words (synonymy).

Functional approach to meaning maintains that a linguistic study of meaning is the investigation of the relation of sign to sign only, 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. The position of the word in relation to other words is called **distribution** of the word.

Operational or information-oriented definitions are centred on defining meaning through its role in the process of communication. Thus, this approach studies words in action and is more interested in how meaning works than what it is. Meaning here is defined as information conveyed from the speaker to the listener in the process of communication.

6.2 The Meaning of the Word, Types, its Components

It is universally recognized that word meaning is not homogeneous, but it is made up of various components, which are described as types of meaning.

There are 3 types of meaning to be found in words and word forms: **the grammatical meaning; the lexical meaning; the part of speech meaning.**

Such word forms as *girls, writers, tables*, etc., though denoting different objects of reality have common the grammatical meaning of plurality, which can be found in all of them. Thus, the **grammatical meaning** is the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words, e. g. *tense meaning, case meaning*. Grammatical meaning is more abstract and more generalized than lexical meaning, it unites words into big groups – parts of speech.

Besides the grammatical meaning, there is another component of meaning. Unlike the grammatical meaning this component is identical in all the forms of the word. Thus, the word-forms *go, goes, went, going* 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**, which may be described as the component of meaning proper to the word as a linguistic unit.

Thus, by **lexical meaning** we designate the meaning proper to the given linguistic unit in all its forms and distributions, while by **grammatical meaning** we designate the meaning proper to sets of word forms common to all words of a certain class.

The essence of **the part-of-speech meaning** of a word is revealed in the classification of lexical items into major word-classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) and minor word-classes (articles, prepositions, conjunctions, etc).

In the general framework of lexical meaning several aspects can be singled out. They are: the **denotational aspect**; the **connotational aspect**; the **pragmatic aspect**.

The denotational aspect of lexical meaning is the part of lexical meaning that establishes correlation between the name and the object (thought), which is denoted by a given word. The denotational aspect of lexical meaning expresses the notional content of a word, it is that component which makes the communication possible.

The connotational aspect is the second component of lexical meaning, which reflects the attitude of the speaker towards what he speaks about. Connotation conveys additional information in the process of communication. This component or the connotation includes:

– **Emotive charge** is a part of the connotational meaning of a word; e. g. *a hovel* denotes *a small house or cottage* and besides implies that it is a miserable dwelling place, dirty in bad repair and, in general, unpleasant place to live in. The emotive charge does not depend on the “feeling” of the individual speaker, but is true for all speakers of English.

– **Evaluation**, which may be **positive** or **negative** (*clique* a small group of people who seem unfriendly to other people) as compared to *group* (a set of people).

– **Intensity** (or expressiveness) *adore* as compared to *love*.

– **Imagery** e. g. *to wade* – *to walk* with an effort (through mud, the word gives rise to another meaning which is based on the same image as the first to *wade through a book*.

The pragmatic aspect of lexical meaning is the part of meaning that conveys information on the situation of communication. Like the connotational aspect, the pragmatic aspect falls into four closely linked together subsections:

- 1) information on the time and space relationship of the participants;
- 2) information on the participants and the given language community;
- 3) information on the tenor of discourse; 4) information on the register of communication.

6.3 Word Meaning and Motivation

All words can be classified into **motivated and non-motivated**. There are cases when there exists a direct connection between the structural pattern of the word and its meaning. This relationship between structure and meaning is termed **morphological motivation**. All one-morpheme words are non-motivated. Words, containing derivational morphemes, are motivated.

There may be a direct connection between the phonetic structure of the word and its meaning. This type of motivation is called **phonetical motivation**.

A connection between the direct meaning of the word and its figurative meanings is called **semantic motivation**. It is based on the co-existence of different meanings of the word.

6.4 Polysemy

The majority of English words have more than one meaning, so they are polysemantic. Words that are used most often have the greatest number of meanings: e. g. *do, go, see*, etc.

Various meanings of the word represent **lexico-semantic variants of the word (LSVs)** and constitute its **semantic structure**. One of the meanings in the semantic structure of the word is primary, the others are secondary. Meanings can also be direct and figurative, concrete and abstract, central and peripheral, general and special.

There are two main types of the organization of the semantic structure of a polysemantic word: **the radial and the chain one**.

Radial polysemy is observed when all the secondary meanings of the word are connected with the primary meaning and motivated by it, as the meanings of the word *field* (*поле* → *пространство, участок, место сражения, месторождение, сфера деятельности*).

An example of **chain polysemy** is the word *bleak*: *незащищенный от ветра (bleak hillside) холодный, суровый; (bleak wind) → унылый, печальный, мрачный (bleak prospects)*.

6.5 Types of Context

The term **context** denotes the minimal stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word. Contexts may be two types: **linguistic (verbal)** and **extra-linguistic (non-verbal)**.

Linguistic contexts may be subdivided into **lexical** and **grammatical**. In **lexical contexts** of primary importance are the groups of lexical items combined with the polysemantic word under consideration. This can be

illustrated by the results of the analysis of different lexical contexts in which a polysemantic word is used.

In **grammatical contexts** it is the grammatical (syntactic) structure of the context that serves to determine various individual meanings of polysemantic word.

There are cases when the meaning of a word is ultimately determined by the actual speech situation in which the word is used, i. e. by **the extra-linguistic context** (or **context of situation**).

6.6 Causes, Nature and Results of Semantic Change

In the course of historical development word meanings undergo various changes. The causes of semantic change are traditionally divided into **historical**, or **extra -linguistic**, and **linguistic**.

The nature of semantic change.

All cases of change of meaning are based on some association. The process of change of meaning is termed **transference**. There are two 15 types of transference: 1) transference based on **similarity** and 2) transference based on **contiguity** (real connection between the two objects). The first type of transference is called linguistic **metaphor**: *neck (of a human being) → neck (of a bottle)*. The second type is known as linguistic **metonymy**: *hands (limbs of a human body) → hands (a worker)*. Semantic change may result in the change of the range of meaning. In the process of vocabulary development some words develop narrower or broader meanings than those they used to have. The first process is called **narrowing (specialization)** of meaning. Thus, OE *fugol* (*any bird*) came to denote a domestic bird (*fowl*), the word *girl* meant *a child of either sex*, but gradually developed the meaning *a female child*. The second process is termed **widening (generalization)** of meaning. The word *ready* (OE *ræde*) originally meant *prepared for a ride*.

Semantic change also results in the change of the connotational structure of the word. The thing denoted by a word may acquire certain positive or negative characteristics, which are reflected first in the denotational, then in the connotational component of word meaning. The process when the object to which the word refers acquires negative characteristics, and the meaning develops a negative evaluative connotation, is termed **degradation (pejoration)** of meaning e. g. *boor* (*хам, грубиян, невежа*) *originally meant peasant*. So, the words acquired a negative connotation. The development of a positive evaluative connotation is called **elevation (amelioration)** of meaning. Thus, in OE *cwen* (MdE *queen*) meant *woman*.

There is a transfer of the meaning when the speaker uses exaggeration – **hyperbole**, e. g. *to hate (doing something), (not to see somebody) for ages*.

A transfer of the meaning when the speaker expresses affirmative with the negative or vice versa is called **litotes**, e. g. *not bad, no coward etc.*

6.7 Homonyms

The problem of polysemy is closely connected with the problem of homonymy. **Homonyms** are words which have the same form but are different in meaning. “The same form” implies identity in sound form or spelling, i. e. all the three aspects are taken into account: sound-form, graphic form and meaning. The most widely accepted classification of homonyms is that recognizing **homonyms proper**, **homophones** and **homographs**.

Homonyms proper (or perfect, absolute) are words identical in pronunciation and spelling but different in meaning e. g. *back - back*. **Homophones** are words of the same sound but of different spelling and meaning e. g. *air – heir, buy – by*. **Homographs** are words different in sound and in meaning but accidentally identical in spelling e. g. *bow [bou] – bow [bau], lead [li:d] – lead [led]*. **Homoforms** – words identical in some of their grammatical forms. *To bound (jump, spring) – bound (past participle of the verb bind)*.

Paronyms are words that are alike in form, but different in meaning and usage e. g. *precede – proceed, preposition – proposition*.

Questions

1. What are the three main trends in defining meaning?
2. What does the term 'context' mean?
3. What does the functional approach to meaning maintain?
4. What types of meaning can be singled out?
5. What do you know about motivation? What does the process of motivation depend on?
6. What types of semantic change do you know?
7. What types of linguistic contexts do you know?
8. Homonyms are words which have the same meaning but are different in form, aren't they?

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7. PHRASEOLOGY. PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

7.1 Phraseology, Phraseological Units and Free Word Combinations

Phraseology is one of the sources of vocabulary enlargement and enrichment. It is the most colourful part of vocabulary system, it reflects the history of the nation, the customs and traditions of the people speaking the language. Phraseology forms a special subsystem in the vocabulary system. The units of the subsystem are called differently: *phraseological units, phraseologisms, set expressions, idioms*.

Phraseological units are defined as stable word groups with a specialized meaning of the whole. The meaning can be partially or completely transferred.

There are two main criteria for distinguishing between free word-groups and phraseological units:

1. The semantic criterion.

a) phraseological units are characterised by semantic unity, i. e. they are semantically unanalysable, because the meanings of the constituents merge to produce a new meaning, e. g. *“a dark horse” is a person about whom nothing is known;*

b) phraseological units are characterised by transferred meaning (idiomaticity) e. g. *“a wolf in a sheep’s clothing” means an enemy who poses as a friend.*

2. The Structural Criterion

There are some restrictions: a) lexical stability, or restriction on substitution, e. g. *“to give smb. the cold shoulder” means to treat smb. coldly but “to give smb. the warm shoulder” doesn’t make sense;* b) restriction in introducing any additional components into a phraseological unit, e. g. *“to wear one’s heart on*

one's sleeve” but not “*to wear one's heart on one's left/right sleeve*”; c) morphological stability (morphological restrictions), i. e. components have deficient paradigms, they are used in this particular grammatical form but not in others, e. g. In “*from head to foot*” the noun is used in the Singular but not in the Plural; d) syntactic restrictions, i. e. a ph. unit has a stable (rigid, fixed, “frozen”) structure, e. g. the order of the components is fixed: “*from head to foot*” but not “*from foot to head*”; some ph. units can be used in the passive form but others can't, e. g. “*to spill the beans*” – “*The beans have been spilled*” but not “*the bucket has been kicked*”.

7.2 Lexical and Grammatical Valency

The aptness of a word to appear in various combinations is described as **lexical valency or collocability**.

Lexical valency acquires special importance in case of polysemy as through the lexical valency different meanings of a polysemantic word can be distinguished, for instance, e. g.: *heavy table (safe, luggage); heavy snow (rain, storm); heavy drinker (eater)*. The range of the lexical valency of words is linguistically restricted by the inner structure of the English word-stock.

Words habitually collocated in speech tend to constitute a **cliché**, for instance, the noun *arms* and the noun *race*. Thus, *arms race* is a cliché. The lexical valency of correlated words in different language is different, e. g.: in English *pot flowers* – in Russian *комнатные цветы*.

Grammatical valency is the aptness of a word to appear in specific grammatical (or rather syntactic) structures. For instance, the verb *to offer* can be followed by the infinitive (*to offer to do smth.*) and the noun (*to offer a cup of tea*). The grammatical valency of correlated words in different languages is not identical, e. g.: in English *to influence a person, a decision, a choice (verb + noun)* – in Russian *влиять на человека, на решение, на выбор (verb + preposition + noun)*.

7.3 Structure and Classification of Word-groups

The term **syntactic structure (formula)** implies the description of the order and arrangement of member-words in word-groups as parts of speech. The structure of word-groups may also be described in relation to the head-word. In this case it is usual to speak of the pattern but not of formulas.

According to the syntactic pattern word-groups may be classified into **predicative** and **non-predicative**. Predicative word-groups have a syntactic structure similar to that of a sentence, e. g. *he went, John works*. All other

word-groups are called **non-predicative**. Non-predicative word-groups may be subdivided into **subordinative** (e. g. *red flower, a man of wisdom*) and **coordinative** (e. g. *women and children, do or die*).

Structurally, all word-groups can be classified by the criterion of distribution into two extensive classes: **endocentric** and **exocentric**.

7.4 Types of Meaning of Word-groups

The meaning of word-groups can be divided into: lexical and structural (grammatical) components.

1) **The lexical meaning** of the word-group may be defined as the combined lexical meaning of the component words. The lexical meaning of the word-group predominates over the lexical meanings of its constituents.

2) **The structural meaning** of the word-group is the meaning conveyed mainly by the pattern of arrangement of its constituents. The structural meaning is the meaning expressed by the pattern of the word-group not either by the word school or the word grammar.

Thus, the meaning of the word-group is derived from the combined lexical meanings of its constituents and is inseparable from the meaning of the pattern of their arrangement.

7.5 Motivation in Word-groups

Semantically all word-groups can be classified into **motivated and non-motivated**. A word-group is lexically motivated if the combined lexical meaning, of the group is deducible from the meanings of its components, e. g. *red flower, heavy weight, teach a lesson*. If the combined lexical meaning of a word-group is not deducible from the lexical meanings of its constituent components, such a word-group is lexically non-motivated, e. g. *red tape* (*official bureaucratic methods*'), *take place* (*occur*'). The degree of motivation can be different.

7.6 Classification of Phraseological Units

Phraseological units can be classified according to 1) the ways they are formed, 2) according to the degree of the motivation of their meaning, 3) according to their structure and 4) according to their part-of-speech meaning.

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

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

a) by means of transferring the meaning of terminological word-groups, e. g. *launching pad* – *стартовая площадка*, in its transferred meaning – *отправной пункт*; b) by transforming their meaning, e. g. *granny farm* – *пансионат для престарелых*; c) by means of alliteration, e. g. a sad sack – *несчастный случай*; d) by means of expressiveness, e. g. *My aunt! Hear, hear!*; e) by means of distorting a word group, e. g. “odds and ends” was formed from “odd ends”; f) by using archaisms, e. g. *in brown study* – *in gloomy meditation*; g) by using a sentence in a different sphere of life, e. g. *that cock won't fight*; h) by using some unreal image, e. g. *to have butterflies in the stomach* – *испытывать волнение*; i) by using expressions of writers or politicians in everyday life, e. g. *corridors of power* (*Snow*), *American dream* (*Alby*).

Secondary ways of forming phraseological units are those when a phraseological unit is formed on the basis of another phraseological unit. They are: a) conversion, e. g. *to vote with one's feet* – *vote with one's feet*; b) changing the grammar form, e. g. *Make hay while the sun shines is* – *to make hay while the sun shines*; c) analogy, e. g. *Curiosity killed the cat* – *Care killed the cat*; d) contrast, e. g. *cold surgery* – *acute surgery*, *thin cat* – *fat cat*; e) shortening of proverbs or sayings e. g. *to make a sow's ear*; f) borrowing phraseological units from other languages, either as translation loans, e. g. *living space* (*German*), *to take the bull by the horns*.

2) Semantic classification of phraseological units

Phraseological units can be classified according to the degree of motivation of their meaning. This classification was suggested by acad. V. V. Vinogradov for Russian phraseological units. He pointed out three types of phraseological units: a) **fusions** where the degree of motivation is very low, we cannot guess the meaning of the whole from the meanings of its components, they are highly idiomatic and cannot be translated word for word into other languages, e. g. *on Shank's mare* – (*on foot*), *at sixes and sevens* – (*in a mess*); b) **unities** where the meaning of the whole can be guessed from the meanings of its components, but it is transferred (metaphorical or metonymical), e. g. *to play the first fiddle* (*to be a leader in something*), *old salt* (*experienced sailor*); c) **collocations** where words are combined in their original meaning but their combinations are different in different languages, e. g. *cash and carry* – (*self-service shop*), *in a big way* (*in great degree*).

3) Structural classification of phraseological units

Prof. A. I. Smirnitsky worked out structural classification of phraseological units, comparing them with words. He points out **one-top units** which he

compares with derived words because derived words have only one root morpheme. He points out **two-top units** which he compares with compound words because in compound words we usually have two root morphemes. Among one-top units he points out three structural types: a) **units of the type “to give up”** (verb + postposition type), e. g. *to art up, to back up, to drop out, to nose out, to buy into, to sandwich in*; b) **units of the type “to be tired”**; c) **prepositional – nominal phraseological units**, e. g. *on the doorstep (quite near), on the nose (exactly), in the course of, on the stroke of, in time*.

Among two-top units A. I. Smirnitsky points out the following structural types: a) **attributive-nominal** such as: *a month of Sundays, grey matter, a millstone round one's*; b) **verb-nominal phraseological units**, e. g. *to read between the lines, to speak BBC*; c) **phraseological repetitions**: *now or never, part and parcel*. Phraseological units the same as compound words can have more than two tops (stems in compound words), e. g. *to take a back seat, a peg to hang a thing on, lock, stock and barrel, to be a shadow of one's own self*.

4) **Syntactical classification of phraseological units**

Phraseological units can be classified as parts of speech. This classification was suggested by I. V. Arnold. Here we have the following groups: a) noun phraseologisms denoting an object, a person, a living being, e. g. *bullet train, latchkey child*; b) verb phraseologisms denoting an action, a state, a feeling, e. g. *to break the log-jam, to get on somebody's coattail*; c) adjective phraseologisms denoting a quality, e. g. *loose as a goose, dull as lead*; d) adverb phraseological units: *with a bump, in the soup, like a dream*; e) preposition phraseological units, e. g. *in the course of, on the stroke of*; f) interjection phraseological units, e. g. *Catch me! Well, I never!* In I. V. Arnold's classification there are also sentence equivalents, proverbs, sayings and quotations, e. g. *The sky is the limit. What makes him tick. I am easy*.

7.7 Proverbs

A **proverb** is a simple and concrete saying, popularly known and repeated, that expresses a truth based on common sense or the practical experience of humanity. Proverbs are often borrowed from similar languages and cultures, and sometimes come down to the present through more than one language.

A proverb is a short, generally known sentence of the folk which contains wisdom, truth, morals, and traditional views in a metaphorical, fixed and memorisable form and which is handed down from generation to generation. E. g.: *Haste makes waste. Those who live in glass houses shouldn't throw stones. We never know the value of water till the well is dry*.

Proverbs are sentences and so cannot be used in the way in which phraseological units are used. Proverbs could be compared with fables for they sum up the collective experience of the community. Professor Koonin labels them communicative phraseological units.

Proverbs in various languages are found with a wide variety of grammatical structures. In English, for example, we find the following structures (in addition to others): 1. Imperative, negative – *Don't beat a dead horse*. 2. Imperative, positive – *Look before you leap*. 3. Parallel phrases – *Garbage in, garbage out*. 4. Rhetorical question – *Is the Pope Catholic?* 5. Declarative sentence – *Birds of a feather flock together*.

Questions

1. What does Phraseology reflect?
2. What is lexical valency?
3. How can be phraseological units classified?
4. The meaning of word-groups is divided into lexical and structural (grammatical) components, isn't it?
5. Give the definition of a proverb.
6. What is the main difference between free word combinations and phraseological units?

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8. VARIANTS AND DIALECTS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

8.1 The Main Variants of the English Language

Every language allows different kinds of variations:

- 1) geographical;
- 2) territorial;
- 3) stylistic and others.

For historical and economic reasons, the English language has spread over vast territories. It is the national language of:

- 1) England proper;
- 2) the USA;
- 3) Australia;
- 4) New Zealand;
- 5) some provinces of Canada.

It is the official language in:

- 1) Wales;
- 2) Scotland;
- 3) in Gibraltar;
- 4) on the island of Malta.

Standard English may be defined as that form of English which is current and literary, substantially uniform and recognized as acceptable wherever English is spoken or understood. Standard English is the variety most widely accepted and understood either within an English-speaking country or throughout the entire English-speaking world.

Variants of English are regional variants possessing a literary norm. There are distinguished variants existing on the territory of the United Kingdom:

- 1) British English;
- 2) Scottish English;
- 3) Irish English.

Variants existing outside the British Isles:

- 1) American English;
- 2) Canadian English;
- 3) New Zealand English;
- 4) South African English;
- 5) Indian English.

British English is referred to the written Standard English and the pronunciation known as Received Pronunciation (RP).

8.2 Variants of English in the United Kingdom

Scottish English has a long tradition as a separate written and spoken variety. Pronunciation, grammar and lexis differ from other varieties of English existing on the territory of the British Isles. It can be explained by its historical development.

Lexical peculiarities of Scottish English:

1. Some semantic fields are structured differently in Scottish English and in British English, e. g. the term *minor* in British English is used to denote *a person below the age of 18 years*, while Scottish law distinguishes between pupils (to age 12 for girls and 14 for boys) and minors (older children up to 18).

2. Some words used in Scottish English have equivalents in British English, e. g. (*Sc. E*) *extortion* – (*Br. E*) *blackmail*.

3. The distinctiveness of Scottish English derived from the influence of other languages, especially Gaelic, Norwegian, and French, e. g., Gaelic borrowings include: *cairn* – ‘*a pile of stones that marks the top of a mountain or some other special place*’.

4. Many words which have the same form, but different meanings in Scottish English and British English, e. g. the word *gate* in Scottish English means ‘*road*’.

5. Some Scottish words and expressions are used and understood across virtually the whole country, e. g. *dinnae* (*don't*), *wee* (*'small'*), *kirk* (*'church'*), *lassie* (*'girl'*).

Irish English subsumes all the Englishes of the Ireland. The two main politico-linguistic divisions are Southern and Northern, within and across which further varieties are Anglo-Irish, Hiberno-English, Ulster Scots, and the usage of the two capitals, Dublin and Belfast. The Irish English vocabulary is characterized by:

1) the presence of words with the same form as in British English but different meanings in Irish English, e. g. *backward* – ‘*shy*’; *to doubt* – ‘*to believe strongly*’; *bold* – ‘*naughty*’;

2) the use of most regionally marked words by older, often rural people, e. g. *biddable* ‘*obedient*’;

3) the Gaelic influence on meanings of some words, e. g. *to destroy and drenched*. These words have the semantic ranges of their Gaelic equivalents *mill* ‘*to injure, spoil*’ and *báite* ‘*drenched, drowned, very wet*’;

4) the presence of words typical only of Irish English (the so-called Irishisms), e. g. *begorrah* – ‘*by God*’.

8.3 Variants of English Outside the British Isles

American English is the variety of the English language spoken in the USA. The first wave of English-speaking immigrants was settled in North America in the 17th century. There were also people who spoke Dutch, French,

German, Spanish, Swedish, and Finnish languages. Whole groups of words which belong to American vocabulary and constitute its features are called *Americanisms*.

a) Historical Americanisms: *fall* – ‘*autumn*’; *to guess* – ‘*to think*’. In American usage these words still retain their old meanings whereas in British English their meanings have changed;

b) Proper Americanisms were not discovered in British vocabulary: *redbud*; *blue-grass*;

c) Specifically American borrowings reflect the historical contacts of the Americans with other nations on the American continent: *ranch*, *sombrero* (*Spanish borrowings*), *toboggan*, *caribou* (*Indian borrowings*);

d) American shortenings: *dorm* – *dormitory*; *mo* – *moment*.

Canadian English is the variety of the English language used in Canada and close to American English. Specifically Canadian words are called *Canadianisms*: *parkade*; *chesterfield*; *to fathom out*.

Australian English is similar to British English, but also borrows from American English, e. g. *truck* is used instead of *lorry*. The exposure to the different spellings of British and American English leads to a certain amount of spelling confusion, e. g. *behaviour as opposed to behavior*. Uniquely Australian terms: *outback* – *remote regional areas*; *walkabout* – *a long journey of certain length*; *bush* – *native forested areas*. Australian English has a unique set of diminutives formed by adding *-o* or *-ie* to the ends of words: *servo* (*service station*), *barbie* (*barbecue*), *bikkie* (*biscuit*).

New Zealand English is the variety of the English language spoken in New Zealand close to Australian English in pronunciation. The only deference between New Zealand British spelling is in the ending *-ise* or *-ize*. New Zealanders use the *-ise* ending exclusively, whereas Britons use either ending, and some British dictionaries prefer the *-ize* ending. Many local words in New Zealand English were borrowed from the Maori population to describe the local flora, fauna, and the natural environment, e. g. *kiwi*, *shellfish*, *kauri*, *rimu*.

Questions

1. What does the term “Standard English” mean?
2. What variants and dialects exist in the territory of the British Isles?
3. What variants of the English language can be singled out outside the British Isles?
4. What are the main differences between AmE and BrE?
5. Is the American spelling in some respects simpler than its British counterpart?

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