

О. Мўминов

Инглиз тили лексикологияси

(Олий ўқув юр்தларининг инглиз филологияси. таржимонлик факультети
талабалари, магистрлар учун дарслик)

“Меҳридарё” нашриёти

Тошкент -2006

Мўминов О.

М 99

Инглиз тили лексикологияси: (Олий ўқув юр்தларининг ингл. филологияси, таржимонлик фак. талабалари, магистр-лари учун дарслик) / О.Мўминов; Бош муҳаррир Т.К.Саттаров.-Т.: Меҳридарё, 2006.- ? б.

Тит.в ингл., ўзб.тилларида.-Матн ингл., ўзб., рус тил-ларида.

ББК 81.2 Англ-3

Editor-in-chief: doctor of philology
prof. **T.K.Sattorov**

Reviewers: candidate of philology,
docent **T.T. Ikramov**

candidate of philology,
docent **Yu.N. Ismailov**

Мазкур китоб автор томонидан нашр этилган “A Practical Course in english Lexicology” китобини қайта ишланган шакли бўлиб, унда инглиз тилида ишлаб чиқилган кўпгина янги методлар, янги тадқиқотлар ва янги илмий қарашлар ўз аксини топган.

Инглиз тилидаги сўзнинг семантик, сўз яшаш, фразеологик бирликлар ва бошқа хусусиятларини ўзбек ва рус тилларидаги муқобил сўз ва иборалар билан солиштирилган. Лексикологиядаги айрим масалалар бўйича зиддиятли нуқтаи назарлар мавжудлиги илгари сурилган ва уларга муносабатлар билдирилган.

№ 214-2006

Alisher Navoiy nomidagi O'zbekiston

Milliy kutubxonasi

CONTENTS:

CHAPTER 1.	
LEXICOLOGY AND ITS OBJECT	9
§1. Subject matter of Lexicology	9
§2. Types of Lexicology and its links with other branches of Linguistics	10
§3. Relationships, approaches and subbranches	11
§4. Word and word studies in Lexicology	12
§5. Comparative study of the English and Uzbek languages.	14
CHAPTER 2.	
THE STRUCTURE OF THE WORD	17
§1. Morphemes. Types of morphemes	17
§2. Principles of morphemic analysis.	22
§3. Principles of derivational analysis. Stems. Types of stems.	24
CHAPTER 3.	
WORDFORMATION	27
§1. Wordformation and its basic peculiarities	27
I. Affixation	29
§1. Prefixation and suffixation	29
§2. Semantics of affixes	31
§3. The classification of affixes	34
§1. Word cluster	37
II. Conversion	40
§1. Definition of conversion	40
§2. The most common types of conversion	41
§3. Criteria of semantic derivation	42
§4. Substantivization of adjectives	43
III. Wordcomposition. Compound words	45
§1. Definition of compound words	45
§2. Classification of compounds	47
IV. Secondary ways of Wordformation	49
§1. Shortened words abbreviations and clippings	49
§2. Classification of abbreviation	50
§3. Splinters and their properties	53
§4. Soundinterchange	56
§5. Stress Interchange	56
§6. Sound Imitation	57

§7. Backformation	57
§8. Blending	58
CHAPTER 4.	
SEMASIOLOGY	61
I. Wordmeaning	61
§1. Definition of meaning. Different approaches to meaning	61
§2. Types of meaning. Motivation of the word	66
§3. Semantic structure of the word	69
§4. Meaning and context	71
II. Change of meaning of words	73
§1. Causes of semantic change	73
§2. The result of semantic change	75
§3. Specialization of meaning	76
§4. Generalization of meaning	76
III. Polysemy	77
§1. Definition of polysemy	77
§2. Synchronic and diachronic analysis of polysemy	79
§3. Polysemy and frequency of the word	81
IV. Homonyms	82
§1. The definition of homonyms	82
§2. Classifications of homonyms.	83
§3. The sources of homonyms	85
§4. The difference between homonymy and polysemy	85
V. Synonyms	87
§1. Criteria of synonymy	87
§2. Classification of synonyms	90
§3. The Dominant synonym	92
§4. The Source of synonyms	93
§5. Collocation of words.	94
VI. Antonyms	96
§1. Definition of antonyms. Classification of antonyms	96
§2. Some debatable points of antonyms	98
VII. Semantic systems in English	99
§1. Semantic fields	99
§2. Neologisms. Obsolete and archaic words.	100
§3. Emotionally coloured words	102
§4. Evaluatory words	102

§5. Stylistic differences of words	103
§6. The correlation of different aspects of words	103
CHAPTER 5	
PHRASEOLOGY	
§1. Definition of phraseological units, their stability and idiomaticity	109
§2. Ways of forming phraseological units	111
§3. Classification of phraseological units	113
CHAPTER 6	
THE ENGLISH WORD-STOCK	
§1. Origin of words in English	117
§2. The penetration of borrowed words in English	119
§3. The classification of borrowed words	120
§4. Assimilation of borrowed words in English	122
§5. Classification of borrowings according to the language from which they were borrowed	124
§6. Etymological doublets	128
§7. The result of borrowings	129
CHAPTER 7	
ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY	
§1. Dictionary compiling and its origin	131
§2. Types of dictionaries	133
§3. Entry of a dictionary.	134
§4. Attitudes towards dictionaries	137
CHAPTER 8	
THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE OF THE USA	
§1. The expansion of the English language	141
§2. The difference between British and American English	141
CHAPTER 9	
METHODS USED IN LEXICOLOGICAL RESEARCH	
§1. Componential analysis	144
§2. Cognitive analysis of words	147
§3. Method of semantic differential.	148
§4. Distributional analysis	149
§5. Transformational analysis.	152

§6. The Immediate constituents analysis.	154
§7. Contrastive analysis	155
§8. Statistical analysis	157
Recommended literature	159

PREFACE

This book is compiled to meet the needs of students taking a course in Modern English Lexicology which forms a part of the curricula of Foreign Language Institutes, Teachers' Training Collages and Philological and Translation Departments of Universities. It is also intended for post graduates and all those who are interested in the English language and its vocabulary. The implication is that it is possible to show that the vocabulary of every particular language is a system constituted by interdependent elements related in certain specific ways. The present book makes no pretention to deal with the whole vast field of English Lexicology.

In this book we have attempted as far as possible to present some theoretical materials which are to our opinion very urgent and important. We have used standard definitions and accepted terminology, though it was not always easy because there are various conventions and assumptions adopted in the existing literature. The book is based on course of lecture in English Lexicology delivered by the author for a number of years at Uzbek State World Languages University.

This edition follows the theoretical concepts of the previous book «Practical course in English Lexicology». In this edition much attention has been paid to the theoretical basis of lexicological problems and the latest achievements in Lexicology made in our country and abroad. The subject matter corresponds to the programme on English Lexicology issued by the Ministry of Higher education of Uzbekistan.

Lexicology is a science in the making its intense growth and makes the task of a text-book extremely difficult as many problems are still unsettled and many achievements are the things of the future. The author will be grateful for all criticism.

The author is especially grateful to the colleges of the Translation Institute in Brusse's (Haute Ecole de Bruxelles) and European Commission Education Tempus program who made many helpful suggestion in the preparation of this book.

CHAPTER 1

LEXICOLOGY AND ITS OBJECT.

§1. Subject matter of Lexicology

The term «Lexicology» is of Greek origin from «lexis» - «word» and «logos» - «science». Lexicology is the part of linguistics which deals with the vocabulary and characteristic features of words and word-groups. The term «vocabulary» is used to denote the system of words and word-groups that the language possesses.

The term «word» denotes the main lexical unit of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning. This unit is used in grammatical functions. It is the smallest unit of a language which can stand alone as a complete utterance. The term «word-group» denotes a group of words which exists in the language as a ready-made unit, has the unity of meaning, the unity of syntactical function. *For example.* the word-group «as loose as a goose» means «clumsy» and is used in a sentence as a predicative. "He is as loose as a goose". Lexicology can study the development of the vocabulary, the origin of words and word-groups, their semantic relations and the development of their semantic structure. change of meaning.

Thus, the literal meaning of the term "Lexicology" is "the science of the word". Lexicology as a branch of linguistics has its own aims and methods of scientific research. Its basic task - is a study and systematic description of vocabulary in respect to its origin, development and its current use. Lexicology is concerned with words, variable word-groups, phraseological units and morphemes which make up words.

Uriel Weinreich gave an idea on the subject of Lexicology and wrote that «To an American observer, the strangest thing about Lexicology is that it exists. No corresponding discipline is officially distinguished in Western European or American linguistics: in such American textbooks as H. A. Gleason's «Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics» or C. F. Hockett's «Course in Modern Linguistics» New York, 1958 there is no mention of «Lexicology» and what these books have to say about the study of vocabulary bears the marks of half-hearted improvisation. By contrast, textbooks assign to Lexicology a prominence comparable to that enjoyed by phonology and grammar. A sizable literature of articles, dissertations, book-length monographs, specialized collections and a lively stream of conferences on various lexicological subjects reflect the relative importance of Lexicology

1. Uriel Weinreich. Lexicology. Current Trends in Linguistics. ed. by Thomas. A. Sebeok, The Hague, 1963.

§2. Types of Lexicology and its links with other branches of linguistics

There are 5 types of Lexicology: 1) general; 2) special; 3) descriptive; 4) historical; 5) comparative.

General Lexicology is a part of General linguistics which studies the general properties of words, the specific features of words of any particular language. It studies the peculiarities of words common to all the languages. General Lexicology attempts to find out the universals of vocabulary development and patterns. Linguistic phenomena and properties common to all languages are generally called language universals.

Special Lexicology deals with the words of a definite language. *Ex.*: English Lexicology¹, Russian Lexicology², Uzbek Lexicology³ and so on.

Descriptive Lexicology studies the words at a synchronic aspect. It is concerned with the vocabulary of a language as they exist at the present time.

Historical or diachronic Lexicology deals with the development of the vocabulary and the changes it has undergone. *For example.* In descriptive Lexicology the words «to take», «to adopt» are considered as being English not differing from such native words as «child», «foot», «stone» etc. But in historical Lexicology they are treated as borrowed words.

Comparative Lexicology⁴ deals with the properties of the vocabulary of two or more languages. In comparative Lexicology the main characteristic features of the words of two or more languages are compared. *For example.* Russian—English Lexicology, English—French Lexicology and etc.

Lexicology is closely connected with other aspects of the language: Grammar, Phonetics, the History of the language and Stylistics.

Lexicology is connected with grammar because the word seldom occurs in isolation. Words alone do not form communication. It is only when words are connected and joined by the grammar rules of a language communication becomes possible. On the other hand grammatical form and function of the word affect its lexical meaning. *For example.* When the verb «go» in the continuous tenses is followed by «to» and an infinitive, it expresses a future action. *For example.* He is not going to read this book. Participle II of the verb «go» following the link verb «be» denotes the negative meaning. *For example.* The house is gone.

So the lexical meanings of the words are grammatically conditioned.

1. R.Z Ginzburg, S.S. Khidekel, G.Y. Knyazeva, A.A Sankin. A Course in Modern English Lexicology –Moscow, 1973

2. Н.М Шанский. Лексикология современного русского языка // изд. «Просвещение» -Москва, 1964

3. Узбек тили лексикологияси // Фан нашриёти, Тошкент, 1981

4. В.Г Гак Сопоставительная лексикология – М., 1977

Lexicology is linked with phonetics because the order and the arrangement of phonemes are related to its meaning. *For example.* The words «tip» and «pit» consist of the same phonemes and it is the arrangement of phonemes alone which determines the meaning of the words. The arrangement of phonemes in the words «increase» and «decrease» is the same. Only stress determines the difference in meaning.

Lexicology is also closely linked with the History of the language. In examining the word information in terms of its historical development we establish its French origin and study the changes in its semantic and morphological structures. If we don't know the history of the language it will be very difficult to establish different changes in the meaning and form of the words which have undergone in the course of the historical development of the language.

There is also a close relationship between Lexicology and Stylistics. The words «to begin» and «to commence» mean one and the same meaning but they can never be used interchangeably because they have different stylistic references.

§3. Relationships, approaches and subbranches in Lexicology

The relationship existing between words may be either syntagmatic or paradigmatic.

The syntagmatic relationship is found in the context. The context is the minimum stretch of speech which is necessary to bring out the meaning of a word. *For example.* take tea (чай ичмок— пить чай), take tram (трамвайда юрмок — ехать на трамвае).

The paradigmatic relationship is the relations between words within the vocabulary: polysemy, synonymy, antonymy of words etc.

There are two approaches to the study of the vocabulary of a language — diachronic and synchronic.

Synchronic approach deals with the vocabulary as it exists at a given time, at the present time. The diachronic approach studies the changes and the development of vocabulary the course of time, *For example.* Synchronically the words «help», «accept», «work», «produce» are all of them English words. But diachronically they came from different languages. Such words as «childhood», «kingdom», «friendship», «freedom» were at one time compound words because the suffixes *-dom*, *-hood*, *-ship* were independent words but synchronically they are derived words because «*dom*» and «*hood*» and «*ship*» became suffixes. Diachronic research gives a valuable result for the development of synchronic investigation.

In the 19th century and at the beginning of the 20th century Lexicology was mainly based on historical principles. At the present time the cognitive and conceptual analysis of the vocabulary are developing the following method of linguistic research are widely used by lexicologists: distributional, transformational, analysis into immediate constituents, statistical, componential, comparative etc. The choice of the method in each case depends on what method will yield the most reliable results in each particular case.

Lexicology has some subdivisions such as:

- 1) *Semasiology* (deals with the meaning of the word);
- 2) *Wordformation* (studies all possible ways of the formation of new words in English);
- 3) *Etymology* (studies the origin of words);
- 4) *Phraseology* (studies the set-expressions, phraseological units);
- 5) *Lexicography* (studies compiling dictionaries).

§4. Word and word studies

What Is a Word? What is Lexicology? What's in a name? That which we call a rose by any other name would smell as sweet...

(W. Shakespeare. *Romeo and Juliet*, Act II, Sc. 2) These famous lines reflect one of the fundamental problems of linguistic research: what is in a name, in a word? Is there any direct connection between a word and the object it represents? Could a rose have been called by "any other name" as Juliet says? These and similar questions are answered by lexicological research.

For some people studying words may seem uninteresting. But if it is studied properly, it may well prove just as exciting and novel as unearthing the mysteries of Outer Space.

It is significant that many scholars have attempted to define the word as a linguistic phenomenon. Yet none of the definitions can be considered totally satisfactory in all aspects. It is equally surprising that, despite all the achievements of modern science, certain essential aspects of the nature of the word still escape us. Nor do we fully understand the phenomenon called "language", of which the word is a fundamental unit.

We do not know much about the origin of language and, consequently, of the origin of words. It is true that there are several hypotheses, some of them no less fantastic than the theory of the divine origin of language. We know nothing — or almost nothing — about the mechanism by which a speaker's mental process is converted into sound groups called "words", nor about the reverse process whereby a listener's brain converts the acoustic phenomena into concepts and ideas, thus establishing a two-way process of communication. We know very little about the nature of relations between the word and the referent (i. e. object, phenomenon, quality, action, etc. denoted by the word). If we assume that there is a direct relation between the word and the referent — which seems logical — it gives rise to another question: how should we explain the fact that the same referent is designated by quite different sound groups in different languages. We do know by now — though with vague uncertainty — that there is nothing accidental about the vocabulary of the language; that each word is a small unit within a vast, efficient and perfectly balanced system. But we do not know why it possesses these qualities, nor do we know much about the processes by which it has acquired them.

The list of unknowns could be extended, but it is probably high time to look at the brighter side and register some of the things we do know about the nature of the word.

We do know that the word is a unit of speech which, as such, serves the purposes of human communication. Thus, the word can be defined as a *unit of communication*. Then, the word can be perceived as the total of the sounds which comprise it and the word, viewed structurally, possesses several characteristics.

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

The external structure of the word is its morphological structure. *For example*, in the word *post-impressionists* the following morphemes can be distinguished: the prefixes *post-*, *im-*, the root *press*, the noun-forming suffixes *-ion*, *-ist*, and the grammatical suffix of plurality *-s*. These morphemes constitute the external structure of the word *post-impressionists*. The external structure of words, and also typical word-formation patterns, are studied in the section on word-formation.

The internal structure of the word, or its *meaning*, is nowadays commonly referred to as the word's *semantic structure*. This is certainly the word's main aspect. Words can serve the purposes of human communication due to their meanings, and it is most unfortunate when this fact is ignored by some contemporary scholars. The area of Lexicology specialising in the semantic studies of the word is called *semantics*.

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

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

The same example may be used to illustrate what we mean by semantic unity. In the word-group a *black bird* each of the meaningful words conveys a

separate concept: *bird*— a kind of living creature; *black* — a colour. The word *blackbird* conveys only one concept: the type of bird. This is one of the main features of any word: it always conveys one concept, no matter how many component morphemes it may have in its external structure.

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

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

§5. Comparative study of the English and Uzbek languages.

Comparative study of different peculiarities of English words with words of other languages shows that there are various symptoms of this contrast between English and other languages.

The wordformation, the semantic structure of correlated words and their usage in speech are different in different languages. Every language has its own lexical system. Not all the meanings which the English word has may be found in its corresponding word in Uzbek. *For example.* Compare the meanings of the word «*hand*» and its corresponding word “*қўл*”.

«*қўл*»

1) одамнинг бармоқ учларидан елкагача бўлган қисми, аъзоси (рука);
2) ҳайвонларнинг олдинги оёқлари (лапа); 3) бармоқ (палец); 4) ҳар кимнинг ёзув усули (почерк); 5) имзо (подпись);
6) иш усули (приём работы); 7) ихтиёр, изм (воля); 8) имконият (условия)

«*hand*»

1) қўл (рука); 2) ҳайвонларнинг олдинги оёқлари (лапа) 3) тараф (сторона, положения)
4) бошқариш (контроль, положения) 5) розилик, ваъда (согласия, обещание); 6) ёрдам (помощь) 7) бир ўйинчи қўлидаги карта (карты, исходящиеся на руках у одного игрока); 8) ишчи (рабочий); 9) денгизчи (матрос); 10) бажарувчи шахс (исполнитель, автор); 11) бир тўда одам (компания, группа); 12) уста (мастер); 13) эпчиллик (ловкость); 14) ёзув, хат (почерк); 16) қарсақлар (аплодисменты); 17) манба (источник); 18) соат стрелкаси (стрелка); 19) қанот (крыло); 20) боғлам, даста (пучок); 21) қафт (ладонь) 22) сон гўшти (окорок); 23) жилув (повод).

As can be seen from the above only some meanings may be described as identical but others are different. The correlated words «**hand**» and «**қўл**» may be the components of different phraseological units:

«**hand**»

the hand of god — худо рози (божья воля)
 at the hand — ёнида, яқинида (близко, рядом)
 to live from hand to mouth — зўрға кун кўрмоқ (пребываться)
 at any hand — ҳар эҳтимолга қарши (во всяком случае)
 to have clean hands — ҳақиқатқўй бўлмақ (быть честным)

«**қўл**»

қўли ишга бормаиди (рука не поднимается)
 қўлни қўлга бериб (рука об руку)
 қўлингга эрк берма (рукам воли не давай)
 қўлидан келмаиди (руки короткие)
 қўли тегмаиди (руки не доходят)

Besides that the correlated words in English and in Uzbek may coin different derivatives. *For example*. «**hand**» (handful, handless, handy, handily, handiness, hand.), «**қўл**» (қўл, қўлла, қўлсиз, қўлли). The verb «*to take*» does not coincide in the number of meanings with its corresponding word «*олмоқ*».

For example. to take an exam — имтихон топширмақ (сдавать экзамен); to take tea — чой ичмоқ (пить чай); to take off — ечинмоқ (раздеваться); имтихон олмоқ (принимать экзамен) — to give an examination; дам олмоқ (отдыхать) — to have a rest; расм олмоқ (фотографировать) — to photograph. In the semantic structure of the Uzbek word there may be a definite figurative meaning which its corresponding English word doesn't possess. *For example*. Бу воқеа менга катта мактаб бўлди (Это событие было для меня уроком) This event was a good lesson to me (not «this event was a good school to me»).

The norm of lexical valency of a word in English is not the same as in Uzbek. *For example*. In Uzbek the verb «*кўтармоқ*» (поднимать) may be combined with the nouns «*қўл*» (рука) and «*стул*» (стул). However, its corresponding English verb «*to raise*» can be combined with the noun «*hand*» («*to raise hands*» but not «*to raise chair*» (to lift chair)).

The number of English synonymic sets may be substituted by one word in Uzbek. *For example*. The verbs «*accept*», «*admit*», «*adopt*», «*take*», «*receive*» correspond to the meanings of the Uzbek word «*қабул қилмоқ*» (принимать). In English to the Uzbek word «*рассам*» (художник) correspond three words. They are: painter, artist, drawer. In Uzbek 6 words are used to express the notion «*blow*» (уриш, зарба, зарб, урилиш, тақиллатиш, тепиш). In English more than 20 words denote this notion. They are: blow, smack, slap, whack, poke, dig, rap, knock, stroke etc. The correlated words «*to make*» and «*қилмоқ*» have different lexical valencies. to make soup — шўрва қилмоқ (пиширмақ) (готовить суп), to make tea — чой дамламоқ (заварить чай), to make a table — стол ясамоқ (сделать стол), дарс қилмоқ (готовить урок) — to do lessons, телефон қилмоқ

(позвонить) — to ring up, - ният килмок (желать доброе) — to wish, харакат килмок (стараться) — to try etc.

Some languages are remarkably rich in words with specific meanings, while others utilize general terms and neglect unnecessary details. French is usually regarded as a highly abstract language, whereas German is fond of concrete, particular terms. German has three or four specific verbs corresponding to one generic term in French: French will often use a derivative where German and English have a more specific compound: cendrier — ashtray, aschenbecher; theiere — teapot ...

Answer the following questions.

1. What is the subject-matter of Lexicology? What types of Lexicology do you know?
3. What is the difference between general and special Lexicologies?
4. What is the difference between descriptive and historical Lexicologies?
5. What is the difference between comparative and noncomparative Lexicologies?
6. What can you say about the connection of Lexicology with other aspects of the language?
7. How is Lexicology connected with grammar (phonetics, stylistics, history of the language)?
8. What are the main relationships between the words?
9. What is the difference between the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relationships in words?
10. What do you know about diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of the vocabulary of the language?
11. What are the methods of linguistic analysis used in Modern Lexicology?
12. What are the main subdivisions of Lexicology?
13. What is the word study?

Problems for discussion.

1. Discuss the subject-matter of Lexicology given in different literature.
2. Discuss types of Lexicology given in different literature.
3. Compare the connection of Lexicology with Other aspects of the language given in different literature.
4. Discuss the relationships existing between words.
5. Express your attitude towards diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of the vocabulary of the language.
6. Discuss the methods of linguistic research used in Lexicology and explain their significances.
7. Discuss subdivisions of Lexicology given in different literature.
8. Discuss the word-study in different literature

Literature

1. R.S Ginzburg and others. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. -M., 1978
2. В.Г Гак Сопоставительная лексикология - М., 1977
3. I.V. Arnold The English Word. M., 1986
4. С.С Хидекель, Р.З Гинзбург, Г.Ю Князева, А.А Санкин Английская лексикология в выдержках и извлечениях. изд. «Присвящение», Л - 1969
5. А.И Смирницкий. Лексикология английского языка. -М., «Русский язык», 1956

6. A.В Кунин. Англо-русский фразеологический словарь. – М., «Русский язык», 1981
7. O.M. Муминов. Корреляция некоторых свойств разных этимологических групп слов в современном английском языке. // «Иностранные языки в пед вузах Узбекистана. Научные труды». Ташкент, 1977, вып 9
8. R. Ginzburg, S. Khidekel, E. Mednikova? A. Sankin. Verbal collocation in Modern English. –М.,1978
9. E. Krusinga. A Handbook of Present Day English, -London, 1969, part 2
10. Uriel Weinreich, Lexicology, Current Trends in Linguistics, ed. by Thomas A. Sebeok, The Hague, 1963
11. Stephen Ullmann, Semantics, An Introduction to the Science of Meaning, Oxford, 1962

CHAPTER 2

THE STRUCTURE OF THE WORD

§1. Morphemes. Types of morphemes

There are two levels of approach to the study of word- structure: the level of morphemic analysis and the level of derivational or word-formation analysis.

Word is the principal and basic unit of the language system the largest on the morphologic and the smallest on the syntactic plane of linguistic analysis.

It has been universally acknowledged that a great many words have a composite nature and are made up of morphemes. the basic units on the morphemic level, which are defined as the smallest indivisible two-facet language units.

The term morpheme is derived from Greek morpheme "форма The Greek suffix *-eme* has been adopted by linguistic to denote the smallest unit or the minimum distinctive feature.

The morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of form. A form in these cases a recurring discrete unit of speech. Morphemes occur in speech only as constituent parts of words, not independently, although a word may consist of single morpheme. Even a cursory examination of the morphemic structure of English words reveals that they are composed of morphemes of different types: root-morphemes and affixational morphemes. Words that consist of a root and an affix are called derived words or derivatives and are produced by the process of word building known as affixation (or derivation)

The root-morpheme is the lexical nucleus of the word; it has a very general and abstract lexical meaning common to a set of semantically related words constituting one word-cluster, *For example.* (to) teach, teacher, teaching Besides the lexical meaning root-morphemes possess all other types of meaning proper to morphemes except the part-of-speech meaning which is not found in roots.

Affixational morphemes include inflectional affixes or inflections and derivational affixes. Inflections carry only grammatical meaning and are thus relevant only for the formation of word-forms. Derivational affixes are relevant for building various types of words. They are lexically always dependent on the root which they modify. They possess the same types of meaning as found in roots, but unlike root-morphemes most of them have the part-of-speech meaning which makes them structurally the important part of the word as they condition the lexico-grammatical class the word belongs to. Due to this component of their meaning the derivational affixes are classified into affixes building different parts of speech: nouns, verbs, adjectives or adverbs.

Roots and derivational affixes are generally easily distinguished and the difference between them is clearly felt as, *for example*, in the words *helpless*, *handy*, *blackness*, *Londoner*, *refill*, etc. the root-morphemes *help-*, *hand-*, *black-*, *London-*, *fill-*, are understood as the lexical centers of the words, and *-less*, *-y*, *-ness*, *-er*, *re-* are felt as morphemes dependent on these roots.

Distinction is also made of free and bound morphemes.

Free morphemes coincide with word-forms of independently functioning words. It is obvious that free morphemes can be found only among roots. so the morpheme *boy-* in the word *boy* is a free morpheme; in the word *undesirable* there is only one free morpheme *desire*; the word *pen-holder* has two free morphemes *pen-* and *hold-*. It follows that bound morphemes are those that do not coincide with separate word-forms, consequently all derivational morphemes, such as *-ness*, *-able*, *-er* are bound. Root-morphemes may be both free and bound. The morphemes *theor-* in the words *theory*, *theoretical*, or *horr-* in the words *horror*, *horrible*, *horrify*; *Angl-* in *Anglo-Saxon*; *Afr-* in *Afro-Asian* are all bound roots as there are no identical word-forms.

It should also be noted that morphemes may have different phonemic shapes. In the word-cluster *please*, *pleasing*, *pleasure*, *pleasant* the phonemic shapes of the word stand in complementary distribution or in alternation with each other. All the representations of the given morpheme, that manifest alternation are called allomorphs or morphemic variants of that morpheme.

The combining form *allo-* from Greek *allos* "other" is used in linguistic terminology to denote elements of a group whose members together constitute a structural unit of the language (allophones, allomorphs).

Thus, *for example*, *-ion* - *tion* - *sion* - *ation* are the positional variants of the same suffix, they do not differ in meaning or function but show a slight difference in sound form depending on the final phoneme of the preceding stem. They are considered as variants of one and the same morpheme and called its allomorphs. Allomorph is defined as a positional variant of a morpheme occurring in a specific environment and so characterized by complementary description.

Complementary distribution is said to take place, when two linguistic variants cannot appear in the same environment. Different morphemes are characterized by contrastive distribution, i.e. if they occur in the same environment

they signal different meanings. The suffixes *-able* and *-ed*, for instance, are different morphemes, not allomorphs, because adjectives in *-able* mean "capable of beings".

Allomorphs will also occur among prefixes. Their form then depends on the initials of the stem with which they will assimilate.

Two or more sound forms of a stem existing under conditions of complementary distribution may also be regarded as allomorphs, as, for instance, in long a: length n.

The morphological analysis of word-structure on the morphemic level aims at splitting the word into its constituent morphemes - the basic units at this level of analysis - and at determining their number and types.

According to the number of morphemes words can be classified into monomorphemic and polymorphemic. Monomorphemic or root-words consist of only one root-morpheme, *For example*, small, dog, make, give, etc. All polymorphemic words fall into two subgroups: derived words and compound words - according to the number of root-morphemes they have. Derived words are composed of one root-morpheme and one or more derivational morphemes, *For example*, acceptable, outdo, disagreeable, etc. Compound words are those which contain at least two root-morphemes, the number of derivational morphemes being insignificant. There can be both root- and derivational morphemes in compounds as in pen-holder, light-mindedness, or only root-morphemes as in lamp-shade, eye-ball, etc.

These structural types are not of equal importance. The clue to the correct understanding of their comparative value lies in a careful consideration of: 1) the importance of each type in the existing wordstock, and 2) their frequency value in actual speech.

Frequency is by far the most important factor. According to the available word counts made in different parts of speech, we find that derived words numerically constitute the largest class of words in the existing wordstock; derived nouns comprise approximately 67% of the total number, adjectives about 86%, whereas compound nouns make about 15%. Root words come to 18% in nouns, i.e. a trifle more than the number of compound words; adjectives root words come to approximately 12%.

But we cannot fail to perceive that root-words occupy a predominant place. In English, according to the recent frequency counts, about 60% of the total number of nouns and 62% of the total number of adjectives in current use are root-words. Of the total number of adjectives and nouns, derived words comprise about 38% and 37% respectively while compound words comprise an insignificant 2% in nouns and 0.2% in adjectives.

Thus, it is the root-words that constitute the foundation and the backbone of the vocabulary and that are of paramount importance in speech. It should also be mentioned that root words are characterized by a high degree of collocability and a complex variety of meanings in contrast with words of other structural types whose

semantic structures are much poorer. Root- words also serve as parent forms for all types of derived and compound words.

So, if we divide morphemes into phonemes, phonemes unlike morphemes have no meaning. (*For example*, teach/ er — teacher). Phonemes are used to make up morphemes. So the difference between morphemes and phonemes is that morphemes have meanings but phonemes have not. A morpheme differs from a word too. Unlike a word a morpheme does not occur separately in speech. It occurs in speech as a constituent part of a word.

Anthony Burgess writes that « obviously not, for syllables are «mechanical» and «metricab», mere equal ticks of a click or beats in a bar. If we divide the word «metrical» into «met — ri—cal», I have learned nothing new about the word: these three syllables are not functional as neutrons, protons, electrons are functional. But if I divide the word as metr-ic-al, I have done something rather different. I have indicated that is made of the root «metr» which refers to measurement and is found in «metronome» and in a different phonetic disguise in «*metre*», «kilometre» and the rest *-ic* which is an adjectival ending found also in «toxic», «psychic» etc; *-al*, which is an unambiguous adjectival ending, as" in «festate, «vernal» «partial». I have split «metrical» into three contributory forms» which (remembering that Greek «morph» — means «form») I can call morphemes (Anthony Burgess).

But Charles Hockett thinks that «An idiomatic composite form like any single morpheme has to be learned as a whole. The raw materials from which we build utterance are idioms. It is difficult to decide whether it is one morpheme or more than one. *For example*. English has *many* words of the type «remote», «demote», «promote», «reduce», «deduce», «produce» each apparently built of two smaller parts, a prefix *re-*, *de-*, *pro-*, or the like and a second part *-mote*», «*duce*», or the like. But the relationships of meaning are tenuous. Grammarians are not in agreement. Some brush aside the semantic difficulties and take each word as two morphemes, following the phonemic shapes; others - regard the parallelisms of phonemic shape as unconvincing and take each word as a single morpheme.

Similar problems appear in the analysis of almost every language. An obvious practical step is to set the morphemic problem aside, recognizing that each form is an idiom whether it is one or more morphemes. (*Charles Hockett*)

I.A. Sheard points out that «We may perhaps start with an attempt to define components of our words, separating them into free forms, which may occur in isolation and bound forms, which never occur alone. *For example* «blackberry» consists of two free forms compounded, as both «black» and «berry» are found in isolation. If we examine «*raspberry*» we may at first think it is the same type for we undoubtedly do have a word «rasp» but although the forms are identical phonetically they are not identical in meaning and «*rasp*» in the sense in which it is used in raspberry is not found in isolation, except in the shortened form of «*raspberry*», for «*rasp*» is often used colloquially for both the bush and the fruit. In the case of «*bilberry*» we are on even safer ground, for the element «bil» — is

not found in isolation in English and is therefore quite definitely a bound form». (I.A. Sheard. «The word we use».)

The comparative study of the structure of words in English and Uzbek shows that the number of simple, derived and compound words almost coincide. But when we translate the English words into Uzbek we see some differences. In English the simple words are used more frequently than the derived and compound words. The Uzbek language is rich in derived and compound words and they are more often used in speech than in English. The majority of simple words in English is explained by a lot of converted pairs. We illustrate some correspondents in English and in Uzbek.

1. English: simple word—Uzbek: derived word
caprice — инжиклик (from инжик)
control — текшириш (from текшир)
estimate- баҳолаш (from баҳо)
2. English simple word — Uzbek word group.
every — ҳар бар, ҳар қайси
essay — катта бўлмаган адабий асар
envy — рашк қилмок
3. English derived word — Uzbek word group.
compensation — компенсация (товон) тўлаш
comparable — таққослаб (қиёслаб) бўладиган
compel — мажбур қилмок
4. English: compound word — Uzbek: simple word.
cross-country — кросс
dressing-gown — халат
downpour — сел, жала
5. English derived word — Uzbek simple word.
courageous — жасур, тетик
grievous — оғир мусибат
hosiery — трикотаж
6. English; compound word — Uzbek derived word.
cow-boy — подачи (from «пода»)
hugger-mugger — яширинча (from «яширин»)
open-minded — зеҳтли (from «зеҳн»)

In Uzbek the root morphemes coincide with the stem and a wordform. They take affixal morphemes and the sound form of the root - morpheme is not changed. **For example.** бош — a root-morpheme and the stem of the word — бошланмок [(бош + ла + н + мок) темир — a root morpheme and the stem is «темир», темирчилик (темир + чи + лик).

In English the root morpheme also coincides with the stem in its sound form. **For example.** «friend» — the root morpheme is identical with the stem. The suffix «ship» is added to the stem friend + ship» — friendships. Like that read — reader (read+er). In English there are some morphemes the isolation of which from other

morphemes makes it meaningless. **For example.** pocket (pock), hamlet (ham). The morphemes «*pock*», «*ham*» are unique morphemes, because they have no meaning.

§2. Principles of morphemic analysis.

In most cases the morphemic structure of words is transparent enough and individual morphemes clearly stand out within the word. The segmentation of words is generally carried out according to the method of Immediate and Ultimate Constituents. This method is based on the 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. Each Immediate Constituent at the next stage of analysis is in turn broken into smaller meaningful elements. The analysis is completed when we arrive at constituents incapable of further division, i.e. morphemes. These are referred to Ultimate Constituents.

A synchronic morphological analysis is most effectively accomplished by the procedure known as the analysis into Immediate Constituents (IC). ICs are the two meaningful parts forming a large linguistic unity.

The method is based on the fact that a word characterized by morphological divisibility is involved in certain structural correlations. To sum up: as we break the word we obtain at any level only ICs one of which is the stem of the given word. All the time the analysis is based on the patterns characteristic of the English vocabulary. As a pattern showing the interdependence of all the constituents segregated at various stages, we obtain the following formula: un+ gentle + -man + -ly

Breaking a word into its Immediate Constituents we observe in each cut the structural order of the constituents.

A diagram presenting the three cuts described looks as follows:

1. un- / gentlemanly
2. un- / gentleman / - ly
3. un- / gentle / - man / - ly

A similar analysis on the word-formation level showing not only the morphemic constituents of the word but also the structural pattern on which it is built.

The analysis of word-structure at the morphemic level must proceed to the stage of Ultimate Constituents (U.C), **For example.** the noun “*friendliness*” is first segmented into the ICs: *friend* recurring in the adjectives *friendly-looking* and *friendly* and *ness* found in a countless number of nouns, such as *unhappiness*, *blackness*, *sameness*, etc. The IC *ness* is at the same time an UC of the word, as it cannot be broken into any smaller elements possessing both sound-form and meaning. Any further division of *-ness* would give individual speech-sounds which denote nothing by themselves. The IC *friendly* is next broken into the ICs *friend* and “*ly*” which are both UCs of the word.

Morphemic analysis under the method of Ultimate Constituents may be carried out on the basis of two principles: the so-called root-principle and affix principle.

According to the affix principle the splitting of the word into its constituent morphemes is based on the identification of the affix within a set of words, **For example**, the identification of the suffix *-er* leads to the segmentation of words *singer, teacher, swimmer* into the derivational morpheme *-er* and the roots *teach-, sing-, drive-*.

According to the root-principle, the segmentation of the word is based on the identification of the root-morpheme in a word-cluster, **For example** the identification of the root-morpheme *agree-* in the words *agreeable, agreement, disagree*.

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

However, the morphemic structure of words in a number of cases is not always so transparent and simple as in the cases mentioned above. Sometimes not only the segmentation of words into morphemes, but the recognition of certain sound-clusters as morphemes become doubtful which naturally affects the classification of words. In words like *retain, detain, contain or receive, deceive, conceive, perceive* the sound-clusters [re], [de] seem to be singled quite easily, on the other hand, they undoubtedly have nothing in common with the phonetically identical prefixes *re-, de-* as found in words *re-write, reorganize, de-organize, de-code*. Moreover, the [-teɪn] or [-si:v] do not possess any lexical or functional meaning of their own. Yet, these sound-clusters are felt as having a certain meaning because [re] distinguishes *retain* from *detain* and [-teɪn] distinguishes *retain* from *receive*.

It follows that all these sound-clusters have a differential and a certain distributional meaning as their order arrangement point to the affixal status of *re-, de-, con-, per-* and makes one understand *-tain* and *-ceive* as roots. The differential and distributional meanings seem to give sufficient ground to recognize these sound-clusters as morphemes, but as they lack lexical meaning of their own, they are set apart from all other types of morphemes and are known in linguistic literature as pseudo-morphemes.

Thus, the comparison of the word with other words which have the same morphemes is very important for morphemic analysis. The word «*denationalize*» may be divided into «*de*» and «*nationalize*», because «*de*» can be found in the structure of such words as «*deform*», «*denature*», «*denominate*». The remaining part «*nationalize*» can be broken into «*national*» and «*ize*»: the reason is the same (*organize, humanize, standardize* etc). «*National*» — into «*nation*» and «*al*» because «*al*» occurs in a number of words such as: *occupational, musical, conditional* etc). At each stage of the process we receive two constituents. The part of the word «*denationalize*» *de-, nation.al-, ize-*, are ultimate constituents because they can not be divided further. They are morphemes.

In our example only «*nation*» can be said as a free morpheme, as it is like a wordform and can be used in isolation, *de-*, *-al*, *-ize*, are bound morphemes because they can't be used separately and do not coincide with wordforms.

§3. Principles of Derivational analysis. Stems. Types of Stems.

The morphemic analysis of words only defines the constituent morphemes, determining their types and their meaning but does not reveal the hierarchy of the morphemes comprising the word. Words are no mere sum totals of morpheme, the latter reveal a definite, sometimes very complex interrelation. Morphemes are arranged according to certain rules, the arrangement differing in various types of words and particular groups within the same types. The pattern of morpheme arrangement underlies the classification of words into different types and enables one to understand how new words appear in the language. These relations within the word and the interrelations between different types and classes of words are known as derivational or word-formation relations.

The analysis of derivative or derivational relations aims at establishing a correlation between different types and the structural patterns words are built on. The basic unit at the derivational level is the stem.

The stem is defined as that part of the word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm, thus the stem which appears in the paradigm (to) *ask*, *asks*, *asked*, *asking* is *ask-*; the stem of the word *singer*, *singer's*, *singers*, *singers'* is *singer-*. It is the stem of the word that takes the inflections which change the word grammatically as one or another part of speech.

The structure of stems should be described in terms of IC's analysis, which at this level aims at establishing the patterns of typical derivational relations within the stem and the derivative correlation between stems of different types.

There are three types of stems: simple, derived and compound.

Simple stems are semantically non-motivated and do not constitute a pattern on analogy with which new stems may be modeled. Simple stems are generally monomorphemic and phonetically identical with the root morpheme. The derivational structure of stems does not always coincide with the result of morphemic analysis. Comparison proves that not all morphemes relevant at the morphemic level are relevant at the derivational level of analysis. It follows that bound morphemes and all types of pseudo-morphemes are irrelevant to the derivational structure of stems as they do not meet requirements of double opposition and derivational interrelations. So the stem of such words as *retain*, *receive*, *horrible*, *pocket*, *motion*, etc. should be regarded as simple, non-motivated stems.

Derived stems are built on stems of various structures though which they are motivated, i.e. derived stems are understood on the basis of the derivative relations between their immediate constituents and the correlated stems. The derived stems are mostly polymorphic in which case the segmentation results only in one immediate constituents that is itself a stem, the other immediate constituent being necessarily a derivational affix. Derived stems are not necessarily polymorphic.

Compound stems are made up of two stems, both of which are themselves stems, *for example* *match-box*, *driving-suit*, *pen-holder*, etc. It is built by joining of two stems, one of which is simple, the other derived.

Bound lexical morphemes are affixes: prefixes (dis-), suffixes (-ish) and also blocked (unique) root morphemes (*for example* Friday, cranberry). Bound grammatical morphemes are inflexions (endings), *for example* -s for the plural of nouns, -ed for the Past Indefinite of regular verbs, -ing for the Present Participle, -er for the comparative degree of adjectives.

In the word forms «*talk*, *talks*, *talked*, *talking*» we can receive the stem «*talk*». The stem which comes in the paradigm boy, boys, boy's, boys' is boy. In «*teacher*», «*teacher's*», «*teachers*», «*teachers*» the stem is «*teacher*».

Thus three are structural types of stems: simple, derived and compound. A simple stem is a part of the word which is identical with a root morpheme and to which the grammatical elements are added. *for example* *book*, *tram*, *teach*, *table*, *girl*, *boy*. A derived stem is such a stem which can be divided into a root and an affix: girlish, agreement, acceptable, teacher. But derived stems are not always polymorphinic. *For example* The stem of the verb «to fish» though it has no an affix in its structure it should be considered to be a derived stem as it is felt by the native speaker as more complex and semantically dependant on the simple stem of the noun «fish». Compound stems are stems which consist of two or more stems *For example* *match-box*, *paint-box*, *play-boy*, *bookcase*, *doorhandle* etc.

«It will be safe to assume that all know what is meant by the word «word». I may consider that my typing fingers know it, defining a word as what comes between two spaces. The Greeks saw the word as the minimal unit of speech to them, too, the atom was minimal unit of matter. Our own age has learnt to split the atom and also the word. If atoms are divisible into protons, electrons and neutrons, what are words divisible into?» (*Anthony Burgess*)

The stem «*hop*» can be found in the words: «*hop*», «*hops*», «*hopped*», «*hopping*». The stem «*hippie*» can be found in the words: «*hippie*», «*hippies*», «*hippie's*», «*hippies'*». The stem «*job-hop*» can be found in the words : «*job-hop*», «*job-hops*», «*job-hopped*», «*job-hopping*».

Stems have not only the lexical meaning but also grammatical (part-of-speech) meaning, they can be noun stems («*girl*») adjective stems («*girlish*»), verb stems («*expell*») etc. They differ from words by the absence of inflexions in their structure, they can be used only in the structure of words.

Sometimes it is rather difficult to distinguish between simple and derived words, especially in the cases of phonetic borrowings from other languages and of native words with blocked (unique) root morphemes, For example «*cranberry*», «*absence*» etc.

As far as words with splinters are concerned it is difficult to distinguish between derived words and compound-shortened words. If a splinter is treated as an affix (or a semi-affix) the word can be called derived , For example-, «*telescreen*», «*maxi-taxi*» , «*shuttlegate*», «*cheeseburger*». But if the splinter is

treated as a lexical shortening of one of the stems, the word can be called compound-shortened word formed from a word combination where one of the components was shortened, **For example** «busnapper» was formed from «*bus kidnapper*», «*minijet*» from «*miniaturejet*».

In the English language of the second half of the twentieth century there developed so called block compounds that is compound words which have a uniting stress but a split spelling, such as «chat show», «penguin suit» etc. Such compound words can be easily mixed up with word-groups of the type «stone wall», so called nominative binomials. Such linguistic units serve to denote a notion which is more specific than the notion expressed by the second component and consists of two nouns, the first of which is an attribute to the second one. If we compare a nominative binomial with a compound noun with the structure N+N we shall see that a nominative binomial has no unity of stress. The change of the order of its components will change its lexical meaning, For example «*vid kid*» is «*a kid who is a video fan*» while «*kid vid*» means «*a video-film for kids*» or else *damp oil*» means «*oil for lamps*» and «*oil lamp*» means «*a lamp which uses oil for burning*».

Answer the following questions.

1. What is a morpheme? 2. What is the word made up? 3. What is the difference between a morpheme and a phoneme? 4. What is the difference between a morpheme and a word? 5. What types of morphemes do you know? 6. What is the morphemic analysis? 7. How can we analyse the morphemic structure of words with the help of I.C. method? 8. What is the stem? 9. What types of stems do you know? 10. What are the synchronic and diachronic approaches to the analysis of the stem? 11. Can all the words which have in their structure an affix have derived stems? 12. What is the unit of the derivational level ?

Problems for discussion.

1. Discuss the morphemic structure of the word given in different books on Lexicology. 2. Discuss the difference between the morpheme, the phoneme and the word and express your point of view. 3. Discuss the morphemic analysis of the words in different languages with the help of I. C. method. 4. Compare types of morphemes given in different books on Lexicology. 5. Discuss different linguists' point of views about the stem and its types. 6. Discuss synchronic and diachronic approaches to the analysis of the stem of the word. 7. Discuss about the difference between morphemic and derivational analysis of words in English

Literature

1. R.S Ginzburg and others. A course in Modern English Lexicology. –M., 1978
2. I.V. Arnold The English Word. M., 1986
3. С.С Хидекель, Р.З Гинзбург, Г.Ю Князева, А.А Санкин Английская Лексикалогия в выдержках и извлечениях. Изд. Просвещение Л. 1969
4. В.Г Гак Сопоставительная лексикология – М., 1977
5. П.М Карашук Словообразование английского языка М., Высшая школа, 1977

6. H. Marchand. The categories and Types of Present day English Wordformation. Wiesbaden, 1960
7. A.G. Kennedy. Current English. - USA? 1995
8. E.M Mednikova. Seminars in English Lexicology. – M., 1978
9. A. Kennedy, Current English, Boston, USA, 1935
10. J.A. Sheard, The Words We Use, Andre Deutsh, L., 1962

CHAPTER 3

WORDFORMATION

§1. Wordformation and its basic peculiarities

«Wordformation is the process of creating new words from the material available in the language after certain structural and semantic formulas and patterns (*Ginzburg!*)

Wordformation is that branch of the science of language which the patterns on which a language forms new lexical units, i.e. words». (*H. Marchand.*)

The term «wordformation» is applied to the process by which new words are formed by adding prefixes and suffixes or both to a root — form already in existence. (*J.A. Sheard.*) †

Thus, wordformation is the creation of new words from the elements existing in the language. Every language has its own structural patterns of wordformation. Words like «*writer*», «*worker*», «*teacher*», «*manager*» and many others follow the structural pattern of wordformation «V + er».

Word-formation may be studied synchronically and diachronically. «With regard to compounding, prefixing and suffixing wordformation proceeds either on a native or on a foreign basis of coining. The term native basis of coining means that a derivative must be analysable as consisting of two independent morphemes (in the event of a compound as *rainbow*) or of a combination of independent and dependent morpheme (in the case of prefixal and suffixal derivatives as *un-just*, *boy-hood*)

By wordformation on a foreign basis of coining we understand derivation on the morphologic basis of another language. In English most learned, scientific or technical words are formed on the morphologic basis of Latin or Greek.

(*Marchand*)

Two principal approaches are applied in the science of language: the synchronic and the diachronic one. With regard to wordformation the synchronic linguist would study the present day system of formatting words types while the scholar of the diachronic school would write the history of wordformation

Marchand points out that mere semantic correlation is not enough to establish a phonological (phonemic), morpho-phonemic opposition. For the speaker «*dine*» and «*dinner*», «*maintain*» and «*maintenance*» and many others are

semantically connected but a derivative connection has not developed out of such pairs, so their opposition is not relevant to wordformation.

Thus, synchronically we study those of wordformation which characterize the present-day English linguistic system, while diachronically we investigate the history of wordformation. The synchronic type of wordformation does not always coincide with the historical system of wordformation.

For example. The words *childhood*, *kingdom* were compound words: *hood* OE had (state, rank), *dom* OE dom condemn. But synchronically they are considered as derived words because «-dom,» «-hood» became affixes. The words «return» and «turn» historically had semantic relations and «return» was considered as a word derived from «turn». But synchronically these words have no semantic relations and we can't say that «return» is derived from «turn».

Synchronically the most important and the most productive ways of wordformation are: affixation, conversion, word-composition. Besides them there are other types of wordformation such as: shortening, soundinterchange, blending, back-formation etc. In the course of the historical development of a language the productivity of this or that way of wordformation changes.

For example. soundinterchange (blood — bleed, strike — stroke) was a productive way of wordformation in old English and it is an important subject-matter for a diachronic study of the English language. Soundinterchange has lost its productivity in Modern English and no new words can be formed by means of soundinterchange. Affixation on the contrary was productive in Old English and is still one of the most productive ways of wordformation in Modern English.

Two types of wordformation may be distinguished: word-derivation and word-composition. Words formed by word-derivation have only one stem and one or more derivational affixes (**For example.** *kindness* from *kind*). Some derived words have no affixes because derivation is achieved through conversion (**For example.** to *paper* from *paper*). Words formed by wordcomposition have two or more stems (**For example.** *bookcase*, *note-book*). Besides there are words created by derivation and composition. Such words are called derivational compounds (**For example.** *long-legged*).

So the subject of study of wordformation is to study the patterns on which the English language builds words.

The English and Uzbek languages differ in the types of wordformation. Their ways of wordformation are also different. Affixation, composition, shortening are very productive ways of wordformation in both languages. In Uzbek conversion, blending, soundinterchange (stressinterchange), backformation are less common type of wordformation. As for as the English language concerned these types of wordformation are very common. We can find a few words which formed by these types of wordformation in the Uzbek language. The Comparative value of the wordformation of English and Uzbek languages demands further investigations.

Answer the following questions,

1. What is the subject-matter of wordformation? 2. What is the difference between synchronic and diachronic study of wordformation? 3. What can you say about the types of wordformation? 4. What ways of wordformation do you know? 5. What are the productive and nonproductive ways of wordformation?

I. Affixation

§1. Prefixation and suffixation

Affixation is the formation of words with the help of derivational affixes.

As it was said above all morphemes are subdivided into two large classes: *roots* (or *radicals*) and *affixes*. The latter, in their turn, fall into *prefixes* which precede the root in the structure of the word (as in *re-read*, *mis-pronounce*, *unwell*) and *suffixes* which follow the root (as in *teach-er*, *cur-able*, *diet-ate*)

Words which consist of a root and an affix (or several affixes) are called *derived words* or *derivatives* and are produced by the process of word-building known as *affixation* (or *derivation*).

Derived words are extremely numerous in the English vocabulary. Successfully competing with this structural type is the so-called *root word* which has only a root morpheme in its structure.

Affixation is subdivided into prefixation and suffixation. *For example*, if a prefix «*dis*» is added to the stem «like» (dislike) or suffix «*ful*» to «law» (lawful) we say a word is built by an affixation. Derivational morphemes added before the stem of a word are called *prefixes* (*un* + *like*) and the derivational morphemes added after the stem of the word are called *suffixes* (*hand*+*ful*). Prefixes modify the lexical meaning of the stem meaning, i. e. the prefixed derivative mostly belongs to the same part of speech. *For example*, like (*v.*) — dislike (*v.*), kind (*adj.*) — unkind (*adj.*) but suffixes transfer words to a different part of speech, *For example* teach (*v.*) — teacher (*n.*).

«We call prefixes such particles as can be prefixed to full words but are themselves not words with an independent existence. Native prefixes have developed out of independent words. Their number is small: *a-*, *be-*, *un-*, (negative and reversative) *fore-*, *mid-* and (partly) *mis-*. Prefixes of foreign origin came into the language ready made, so to speak. They are due to syntagmatic loans from other languages: when a number of analysable foreign words of the same structure had been introduced into the language, the pattern could be extended to new formations i. e. the prefix then became a derivative morpheme. Some prefixes have secondarily developed uses as independent words as counter sub-arch which does not invalidate the principle that primarily they were particles with no independent existence. The same phenomenon occurs with suffixes also, . . . »

(H. Marchand)¹

But new investigations into the problem of prefixation in English showed interesting results. It appears that the traditional opinion, current among linguists that prefixes modify only the lexical meaning of words without changing the part of speech is not quite correct. In English there are about 25 prefixes which can transfer words to a different part of speech. **For example.**— head (*n*) — behead (*v*), bus(*n*) — debus(*v*), brown (*adj*) — embrown(*v*), title(*t*) — entitle(*v*), large (*adj*). — enlarge (*v*), camp(*n*).— encamp(*v*), war(*n*).— prewar (*adj*). If it is so we can say that there is no functional difference between suffixes and prefixes. Besides there are linguists¹ who treat prefixes as a part of word-composition. They think that a prefix has the same function as the first component of a compound word. Other linguists² consider prefixes as derivational affixes which differ essentially from root — morphemes and stems.

From the point of view of their origin affixes may be native and borrowed. The suffixes *-ness*, *-ish*, *-dom*, *-ful*, *-less*, *-ship* and prefixes *be-*, *mis-*, *un-*, *fore-*, etc are of native origin. But the affixes *-able*, *-ment*, *-ation*, *-ism*, *-ist*, *re-*, *anti-*, *dis-*, etc are of borrowed origin. They came from the Greek, Latin and French languages. Many of the suffixes and prefixes of native origin were independent words. In the course of time they have lost their independence and turned into derivational affixes. *-dom*, *-hood*. /O. E. had — state, rank, *-dom* (dom condemn, *-ship* has developed from noun «*scipe*» (meaning: state); the adjective forming suffix «*-ly*» has developed from the noun *dic*» (body, shape).

The prefixes *out-*, *under-*, *over* etc also have developed out of independent words.

... there are two ways in which a suffix may come into existence.

1) the suffix was once an independent word but is no longer one;

2) the suffix has originated as such usually as a result of secretion.

The first applies to a few native suffixes only. The suffixes *-dom* and *-hood* are independent words still in OE, so the process whereby a second word becomes a suffix can be observed historically ...

The second in the suffix «*-ling*» which is simply the extended form of the suffix *-ing* in words whose stem ended in *-I* ...

The contact of English with various foreign languages has led to the adoption of countless foreign words. In the process many derivative morphemes have also been introduced suffixes as well as prefixes as a consequence, we have many hybrid types of composites ... Some foreign affixes as *-ance*, *-al*, *-ity* have never become productive with native words (H. Marchand).

1. H. Marchand. The Categories and Types of Present-Day English Word-formation. Weisbaden. 1960

2. E. Kruizsinga. A Handbook of Present-Day English. pt II Z. 1939

§2. Semantics of Affixes

The *morpheme*, and therefore affix, which is a type of morpheme, is generally defined as the smallest indivisible component of the word possessing a meaning of its own. Meanings of affixes are specific and considerably differ from those of root morphemes. Affixes have widely generalised meanings and refer the concept conveyed by the whole word to a certain category, which is vast and all-embracing. So, the noun-forming suffix *-er* could be roughly defined as designating persons from the object of their occupation or labour (*painter* — the one who paints) or from their place of origin or abode (*southerner* — the one living in the South). The adjective-forming suffix *-ful* has the meaning of "full of, "characterised by" (*beautiful, careful*) whereas *-ish* may often imply insufficiency of quality (*greenish* — green, but not quite; *youngish* — not quite young but looking it)

Such examples might lead one to the somewhat hasty conclusion that the meaning of a derived word is always a sum of the meanings of its morphemes: *un/eat/able* = "not fit to eat" where *not* stands for *un-* and *fit* for *-able*.

There are numerous derived words whose meanings can really be easily deduced from the meanings of their constituent *parts*. Yet, such cases represent only the first and simplest stage of semantic readjustment within derived words. The constituent morphemes within derivatives do not always preserve their current meanings and are open to subtle and complicated semantic shifts.

Let us take some of the adjectives formed with the same productive suffix *-y*, and try to deduce the meaning of the suffix from their dictionary definitions:

brainy (inform.) — intelligent, intellectual, i. e. *characterised by brains*

catty — quietly or slyly malicious, spiteful, i. e. *characterised by features* ascribed to a cat *chaty* — given to chat, *inclined to chat*

dressy (inform.) — showy in dress, i. e. *inclined to dress well* or to be overdressed

fishy (e. g. in a *fishy story*, inform.) — improbable, hard to believe (*like stories told by fishermen*)

foxy — foxlike, cunning or crafty, i. e. *characterised by features* ascribed to a fox

stagy — theatrical, unnatural, i. e. *inclined to affectation*, to unnatural theatrical manners

touchy — apt to take offence on slight provocation, i. e. *resenting a touch or contact* (not at all inclined to be touched)

The Random-House Dictionary defines the meaning of the *-y* suffix as "characterised by or inclined to the substance or action of the root.

Some of the listed adjectives have several meanings, but only one is given so as to keep the list manageable.

Yet, even the few given examples show that, on the one hand, there are cases, like *touchy* or *fishy* that are not covered by the definition. On the other hand, even those cases that are roughly covered, show a wide variety of subtle shades of meaning. It is not only the suffix that adds its own meaning to the meaning of the root, but the suffix is, in its turn, affected by the root and undergoes certain

semantic changes, so that the mutual influence of root and affix creates a wide range of subtle nuances.

But is the suffix *-y* probably exceptional in this respect? It is sufficient to examine further examples to see that other affixes also offer an interesting variety of semantic shades. Compare, for instance, the meanings of adjective-forming suffixes in each of these groups of adjectives.

1. *eatable* (*fit or good to eat*) *lovable* (*worthy of loving*) *questionable* (*open to doubt, to question*) *imaginable* (*capable of being imagined*)

2. *lovely* (*charming, beautiful, i. e. inspiring love*) *lonely* (*solitary, without company; lone; the meaning of the suffix does not seem to add any thing to that of the root*)

friendly (*characteristic of or befitting a friend*) *heavenly* (*resembling or befitting heaven: beautiful, splendid*)

3. *childish* (*resembling or befitting a child*)

tallish (*rather tall, but not quite, i. e. approaching the quality of big size*)

Another problem of the study of affixes is homonymic affixes. Homonymic affixes are affixes which have the same soundform, spelling but different meanings and they are added to different parts of speech.

Ex. -ful (1) forms adjectives from a noun: *love* (v) — *lovely* (adj), *man* (n) — *manful* (adj).

-ful (2) forms adjective from a verb: *forget* (ti.) — *forgetful*, (adj) *thank* (u.) — *thankful* (adj).

-ly(1) added to an adjective stem is homonymous to the adjective forming suffix *-ly*(2) which is added to a noun stem. **For example.** *quickly*, *slowly*, and *lovely*, *friendly*. The verb suffix *-en* (1) added to a noun and adjective stem is homonymous to the adjective forming suffix *-en* (2) which is added to a noun stem.

For example. *to strengthen*, *to soften*, and *wooden*, *golden*. The prefix *un-*(1) added to a noun and a verb stem is homonymous to the prefix *un-*(2) which is added to an adjective stem. For example *unshoe*, *unbind*, *unfair*, *untrue*.

In the course of the history of English as a result of borrowings there appeared many synonymous affixes in the language. **For example.** the suffixes *-er*, *-or*, *-ist*, *-ent*, *-ant*, *-eer*, *-ian*, *-man*, *-ee*, *-ess* form synonymous affixes denoting the meaning «agent». Having the meaning of negation the prefixes *un-*, *in-*, *non-*, *dis-*, *mis-* form synonymic group of prefixes. It is interesting to point out that the synonymous affixes help us to reveal different lexico — semantic groupings of words. *Ex.* the words formed by the suffixes *-man*, *-er*, *-or*, *-ian*, *-ee*, *-eer*, *-ent*, *-ant* etc. belong to the lexico-semantic groupings of words denoting «doer of the actions. The affixes may also undergo semantic changes, they may be polysemantic. **For example.** the noun-forming suffix «*-er*» has the following meanings:

1) persons following some special trade and profession (*driver*, *teacher*, *hunter*); 2) persons doing a certain action at the moment in question (*packer*, *chooser*, *giver*); 3) tools (*blotter*, *atomizer*, *boiler*, *transmitter*)

The adjective forming suffix «-y» also has several meanings:

- 1) composed of, full of (bony, stony)
- 2) characterized by (rainy, cloudy)
- 3) having the character of resembling what the stem denotes (inky, bushy etc.)

Thus, affixes have different characteristic features.

The Comparative analysis of the English language with other languages showed that English is not so rich in suffixes as, for example, the Uzbek language. The total number of suffixes is 67 in English but the Uzbek suffixes are 171 and, vice versa, prefixation is more typical to the English language than Uzbek (Compare: 79:8)

In Uzbek there are following prefixes: *бе-, но-, ба, бо-, ним-*. By their origin the Uzbek affixes like English ones are divided into native and borrowed. The suffixes: *-чи, -зар, -зор, -лик, -ли, -оқ* are native suffixes but. *-изм, -ация, -бо, -но, -намо, -ки* are of borrowed origin. The affixes may be divided into different semantic groups. These semantic groups of affixes may be different in different languages. For example, diminutive affixes in Uzbek are more than in English (see the table)

Diminutive	Suffixes
In English	In Uzbek
-ie (birdie), -let (cloudlet), -ling (wolf ling), (mountainette), (hillock), -y (Jony), (whippet), (tigerkin),	-акай (йўл-йўлакай), -алак (дўнгалак), -гина (қизгина), -жон (дадажон), -ка (йўлка), -кач (тахтакач), -кина (гўдаккина), -лоқ (қизалоқ), -ой (Салимой), -он (ўғлон), -оқ (бошок), -ча (аравача), -чак (тугунчак), -чик (қопчик), -чок (кўзичок)

As compared with the Uzbek language the negative affixes are more widely used in English. In Uzbek: *-сиз (қўлсиз), бе-(бераҳм), -но (нохуш)*. In English: *-less* — (handless), *a-, an-* (anomalous); *-un-*(unkind) *dis-*(dislike), *anti-*(antibiotic), *de-*(decode), *in-*(innocent) *ir-*(ir regular), *im-*(impossible), *non-*(nondeductive) Though the number of Uzbek prefixes is very few (they are 8) they are capable of changing words from one part of speech into another. **For**

example. адаб. (n.) — боадаб (adj.), хосил (n.)- серхосил (adj.) илож (n.) — ноилож (adj.), бахт (n.) — бебахт (adj.), ранг (n.)— нимранг (adj.).

Answer the following questions.

1. What do you understand by affixation? 2. What is affixation subdivided into? 3. What is a prefix and a suffix? 4. What is the difference between a prefix and a suffix? 5. What can you say about the different treatment of a prefix by different linguists? 6. What is the origin of affixes? 7. What do we call homonymic affixes? 8. What do we call synonymous affixes? 9. What do we call polysemantic affixes? 10. What meanings do the suffixes «-er» and other suffixes and prefixes have?

§3. The Classification of Affixes

There are different classifications of affixes in linguistic literature. Affixes may be divided into dead and living. Dead affixes are those which are no longer felt in Modern English as component parts of words. They can be singled out only by an etymological analysis. **For example.** admit (from L ad -(-mit-tere); deed, seed (-d) flight, bright (-t).

Living affixes are easily singled out from a word. **For example.** freedom, childhood, marriage. Living affixes are traditionally in their turn divided into productive and non-productive. The term "productivity" is a subject of discussion among the linguists

K.E. Zimmer¹ argues that «The term «productive» is often used rather indiscriminately to refer both to certain aspects of the behavior of the speakers of a language and to certain diachronic trends while there is presumably in many cases a connection between these two aspects of productivity. It is necessary to keep the distinction in mind. Moreover, and more importantly the concept of what we might term «synchronic productivity» is itself often used in a rather illdefined way in the area of word formation, and it is in many cases difficult to decide just what is being implied when a morphological process is said to be synchronically productive. (K. E. Zimmer)

However, «It follows that productivity of word -building ways, individual derivational patterns and derivational affixes is understood as their ability of making new words which all, we speak English, find no difficulty in understanding, in particular their ability to create what are called occasional words». (Ginzburg R. S. and others)

«A derivational pattern or a derivational affix are qualified as productive provided there are in word-stock dozens and hundreds of derived words built on

1. K.E. Zimmer. Affixal negation in English and other languages. Supplement to Word, vol 20, №2, August 1964, Monograph №5

the pattern or with the help of the suffix in questions. Derivational productivity is distinguished from wordformation activity by which is meant the ability of an affix to produce new words. (E. C. Кубрякова)

«We call productive those affixes and types of word-formation which are used to form new words in the period in question. The proof of productivity is the existence of new words coined by these means. Therefore when we see that a notion that could not possibly have existed at some previous stage has a name formed with the help of some affix the affix is considered productive). (Arnold I. V.)

Another point of view is given by Ch. Hockett «The productivity of any pattern-derivational, inflectional or syntactical — is the relative freedom with which speakers coin new grammatical forms by it. Thus the formation of English noun-plurals with *z*, *s*, *iz* is highly productive. The addition of *-ly* to produce an adverbial is fairly productive. (Ch. Hockett.) We think that productive affixes are those which are characterized by their ability to make new words. **For example.** *-er* (baker, lander) *-ist* (leftist) *-ism*, *-ish* (baldish) *-ing*, *-ness*, *-ation*, *-ee*, *-ry*, *-or* — *ance*, *ic* are productive suffixes *re-*, *un-non-*, *anti-* etc are productive prefixes. Non-productive affixes are those which are not used to form new words in Modern English. **For example.** *-ard*, *-cy*, *-ive*, *-en*, *-dom*, *-ship*, *-en*, *-ify* etc are not productive suffixes; in (*il*) *ir-* (*im-*), are non-productive prefixes. These affixes may occur in a great number of words but if they are not used to form new words in Modern English they are not productive.

But recent investigations prove that there are no productive and non-productive affixes because each affix plays a certain role in wordformation. There are only affixes with different degrees of productivity, besides that productivity of affixes should not be mixed up with their frequency of occurrence in speech. Frequency of affixes is characterised by the occurrence of an affix in a great number of words. But productivity is the ability of a given suffix or prefix to make new words. An affix may be frequent but not productive. **For example.** the suffix «*-ive*» is very frequent but non-productive.»

The native noun-forming suffixes *-dom* and *-ship* ceased to be productive centuries ago. Yet, Professor I. V. Arnold in *The English Word* gives some examples of comparatively new formations with the suffix *-dom*: *boredom*, *serfdom*, *slavedom*. The same is true about *-ship* (e. g. *salesmanship*). The adjective-forming *-ish*, which leaves no doubt as to its productivity nowadays, has comparatively recently regained it, after having been non-productive for many centuries.

Some linguists¹ distinguish between two types of prefixes:

1) those which are like functional words (such as prepositions or adverbs) (**For example.** *out-*, *over-*, *up-*)

1. E.C. Кубрякова. Что такое словообразование? — М., 1965

2) those which are not correlated with any independent words, (*For example.* un-, dis-, re-, mis-, etc).

Prefixes *out-*, *over-*, *up-*, *under-*, etc are considered as semibound morphemes. However, this view is doubtful because these prefixes are quite frequent in speech and like other derivational affixes have a generalized meaning. They have no grammatical meaning like the independent words. We think they are bound morphemes and should be regarded as homonyms of the corresponding independent words. *For example.* the prefix «*out-*» in *outdoor*, *outcome*, *outbreak* etc is homonymous to the preposition «*out*» in «*out of door*» and the adverb «*out*» in «*He went out*».

Prefixes and suffixes may be classified according to their meaning.

1) prefixes of negative meaning such as: *de-* *non-*, *un-* *in-*, *ir-*, *il-*, *im-*, *dis-* (*For example.* *defeat*, *decentralize*, *disappear*, *impossible*, *discomfort* etc); 2) prefixes, denoting space and time relations: *after-*, *under-*, *for-*, *pre-*, *post-*, *over-*, *super-* (*For example.* *prehistory*, *postposition*, *superstructure*, *overspread*, *afternoon*, *forefather*); 3) prefixes denoting repetition of an action such as: *re-* (*For example.* *re-read*, *re-make*).

Like prefixes the suffixes are also classified according to their meaning:

1) the agent suffixes: *-er*, *-or*, *-ist*, *-ee* etc. (*baker*, *sailor*, *typist*, *employee*); 2) appurtenance: *-an*, *-ian*, *-ese* (*Arabian*, *Russian*, *Chinese*, *Japanese*); 3) collectivity: *-age*, *-dom*, *-hood*, *-ery* (*peasantry*, *marriage*, *kingdom*, *childhood*); 4) diminutiveness: *-let*, *-ock*, *-ie* etc (*birdie*, *cloudlet*, *hillock*); 5) quantitiveness: *-ful*, *-ous*, *-y*, *-ive*, *-ly*, *-some*.

Suffixes may be divided into different groups according to what part of speech they form:

1) noun-forming, i. e. those which form nouns: *-er*, *-dom*, *-ness*, *-ation*, *-ity*, *-age*, *-ance*, *-ence*, *-ist*, *-hood*, *-ship*, *-ment* etc; 2) adjective-forming: *-able*, *-ible*, *-uble*, *-al*, *-ian*, *-ese*, *-ate*, *-ed*, *-ful*, *-ive*, *-ous*, *-y* etc; 3) numeral-forming: *-teen*, *-th*, *-ty* etc; 4) verb-forming: *-ate*, *-en*, *-ify*, *-ize* etc.; 5) adverb-forming: *-ly*, *-ward*, *-wise* etc.

Suffixes may be added to the stem of different parts of speech. According to this point of view they may be:

1) those added to verbs: *-er*, *-ing*, *-ment*, *-able*; 2) those added to nouns: *-less*, *-ish*, *-ful*, *-ist*, *some* etc; 3) those added to adjectives: *-en*, *-ly*, *-ish*, *-ness* etc.

Suffixes are also classified according to their stylistic reference: 1) suffixes, which characterize neutral stylistic reference: *-able*, *-er*, *-ing* (*For example.* *dancer*, *understandable* «*helping*»); 2) suffixes which characterize a certain stylistic reference: *-oid*, *-form*, *-iron* etc (*astroid*, *rhomboid*, *cruciform*, *cyclotron* etc)

Answer the following questions:

1. What do you understand by dead and living affixes? 2. What difference can you see between productive and nonproductive affixes? 3. What do the recent investigations prove on the productivity of affixes? 4. What is understood by the frequency of affixes? 5. Why can't we say the prefixes *out-*, *up-*, *under-* etc. to be

semibound morphemes? 6. How do we classify the prefixes according to their meaning? 7. How can we divide the suffixes according to their meaning? 8. What stems are the suffixes added to? 9. What do you say about the stylistic reference of affixes?

§4. Word Cluster

Language is a system. The elements of the language are interrelated and interdependent.

Word cluster is a group of words which have semantically and phonetically correlated with identical root morphemes.

For example. to lead, leader, leadership, city, citify, cityism, cityful, cityish, citywards, cityite, citiness, cited, citiward, cityless; family, familial, subfamily, superfamily, non-family, familist, familism, non-familial; finger, fingerlet, fingerling, finger (v), fingered, fingerless, fingerish, fingery, unfigered, fingerer, fingering, refinger, forefinger, fingerable, fingerative; baron, baronize, baronial, baronry, barony, baroness, baronage, baronet, baronetical, baronetcy, baroness, baronethood, baronetship.

The members of a word cluster belong as a rule to different parts of speech and are joined together only by the identity of the root morpheme.

Now most of the linguists are sure that in the vocabulary system there are different micro systems or subsystems (**For example.** synonyms, antonyms or homonyms), different lexico-semantic groupings and etc. And word cluster is one of the subsystems of the vocabulary of such kind.

The terms can give a large word cluster, **For example.** the word cluster of polymer (хим. полимер) include the following words: polymerize, polymerization, copolymer, copolymerize, cop-olymerization, etc.

The stems of words making up a word cluster enter into derivational relations of different degrees. The zero degree of derivation is a simple word or a word which its stem is homonymous with a word form and often with a root morpheme. **For example.** boy, atom, devote, girl etc.

Derived words which are formed from the simple stems and which are formed by the application of one derivational affix are described as words having the first degree of derivation. **For example.** boyish, atomic, girlish, devotion etc. Derived words which are formed by two stages of coining are the second degree of derivation. **For example.** boyishness, atomi-cal, girlishness, devotional.

The members of the word cluster may be derivatives formed by affixation, conversion, compounding. **For example.** heart, to disheart, to dishearten, disheartenment, to heart, hearted, heartedness, to hearten, heartening, hearteningly, heartful, heartfully, heartfulness, heartily, heartiness, heartless, heartlessly, heartlessness, heartlet, heartlike, heartling, heartsome, heart-somely, hearty.

The structure of a word cluster may be given as a diagram.

← derived verb \ **derived adjunct**

|
| **derived noun** — **derived adverb**

A word cluster includes the derivatives which are structurally and semantically related. 1) possess — эгалламек (владеть), possession — эгаллаш (владение), possessioner — хўжайин (владелец), possessor — хўжайин (владелец), possessory — эга бўлиш. (относящийся к владению), possessive — мулка эга бўлган (относящийся к собственности)

2) read — ўқимок (читать), read *adj* — ўқимишли (начитанный), read *n* — ўқиш (чтение), readable — ўқиб бўладиган (удобочитаемый), readability — ўқиб бўлишлик (удобочитаемость)

reader — ўқувчи (читатель), readership — ўқувчилар доираси (круг читателей), reading *n* — reading *adj* — ўқиётган (читающий), reread — қайта ўқимок (перечитать)

3) sport *n* — спорт (спорт), sporter — спортсмен (спортсмен), sportful — хушчакчак, хазилкаш (веселый, шутливый), sporting — спорт билан шугулланиш (увлекающийся спортом), sportless — спорт билан шугулланишга шароит бўлмастик (не располагающий возможностями для спорта), sporty — спортсменларча (спортсменский), sportsman — спортсмен (спортсмен), sportsmanlike — спортсменларча (спортсменский), sportsmanship — спорт бўйича қобилят (спортивное мастерство).

If we can't see these connections we can't include the derivative into a word cluster.

For example. «hand» — «handsome». These words are structurally related, i. e. they have structural relation but we can't say that the word «handsome» is formed from «hand» because in Modern English there is no semantic relation between «hand» and «handsome» (hand — қўл, handsome — чиройли). On the contrary in words knee (колени) and kneel (становиться на коленях) we see that there is a semantic relation between these words but we can't include the word «kneel» into the word cluster of «knee» because there is no structural relation between them. The same is true with dark — to darkle (to grow dark). There is no structural relation between them too.

On the first step of the word cluster the derivatives of the first degree of derivation are in most cases nouns, verbs and adjectives.

The length (the final step of a word cluster) includes 4 steps.

Thus, the "word clusters of different parts of speech may have different peculiarities."

We must distinguish between the word cluster and the word family. The word-family includes not only words making up a word cluster but also the words which have a common meaning and semantic structure. **For example.** die—death, feed—food, think —thought, brother, brotherly, fraternal, mother, motherly, maternal. The words *fraternal* and *maternal* are not the members of a word cluster. They are

the members" of a word-family because there is no derivational relation between mother and maternal, brother and fraternal, think — thought, feed — food, die — death, high — height, strong — strength etc. The members of a word cluster have derivational and semantic relations and if they have no such relations they can't be members of a word cluster.

The members of the word cluster are increased and enlarged or decreased as a result of the development of the English language. For example, the verbs «to unite, «to combin, «to prevent» up to the 16 th century did not give any derivatives but after 1500 (16 th century) they gave more than 20 derivatives, (united 1552, uniter 1587, unitive 1526, disunite 1560), (combiner 1610, combinable 1749, combination 1532, combinative 1855 etc), preventive 1639, preventer 1587, prevention 1528, preventingly 1731.

Different borrowed words may develop their word cluster differently. As a result of the development of the language in different historical periods of the English language a number of derivatives of words of different origin may be different.

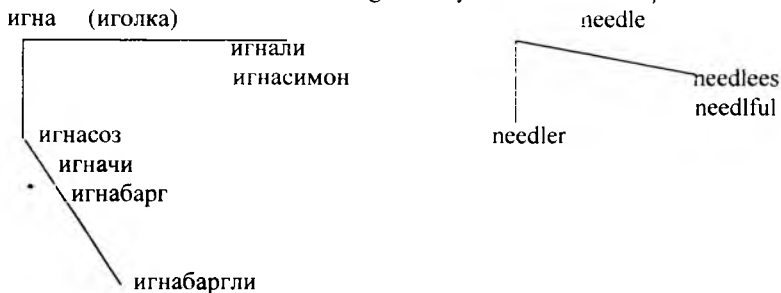
For example. In the 15 th century the Latin words in English such as «to suspect», «to fix», «to interrupt» each of them had only one derivative but the words of Scandinavian origin «to trust», «to remark», «to guess» gave 5 derivatives at that period of time. The Scandinavian verbs to dirty, to near, to skin gave 1 or 2 derivatives after the 15 th century. But the -Latin borrowings to «describe», «to suggest», «to persuade» gave 20 derivatives and each of them forms a large word cluster.

This shows that the Latin borrowings are more active in wordformation than the Scandinavian borrowings.

Properties of a word cluster in English and in Uzbek may be different. The totality of the notion may be given by the related words and in other languages they may correspond to different words, free or set phrases.

For example. heart — юрак, hearten — рухлантирмоқ, heartless — берахм, hearty — самийий; hook — илгак, hooked — эгик, букиг, hooker — балик овлайдиган кема; hope — умид, ишонч, hopeful — умид килувчи, hopefulness — келажакка ишонч, hopelessness - иложсизлик.

The correlated words in Uzbek and English may have different steps of derivation.



Answer the following questions:

1. What is understood by a word cluster? 2. What are the degree of derivation in a word cluster? 3. What are the derivational relations in a word cluster? 4. How are the derivational relations within a word cluster represented graphically? 5. What part of speech do the derivatives of different degrees of derivation in a word cluster belong to? 6. What is the difference between a word cluster and a word family? 7. What is the development of a word cluster in the course of historical development of the English language?

II. Conversion

§1. Definition of conversion

Conversion is a very productive way of forming new words in Modern English, (*For example* work(n) —work(v), pen(n) —pen(v), walk(v) — walk(n)). The term «conversion» was first used by Sweet in his book «New English Grammar» in 1892.

There are a lot of approaches to the study of conversion. Some linguists think that conversion is the formation of words without affixes. Others¹ say that conversion is the formation of new words with the help of a zero morpheme. Conversion is also defined as a shift from one part of speech to another². These treatments of conversion cause some doubt.

The treatment of conversion as a non-affixal word - building does not help us to distinguish the cases of conversion and sound interchange. *For example*. sing —song and paper *n* — paper *v*.

If we accept the point of view of the linguists who treat conversion as «a shift from one part of speech to another we can't differ between parts of speech, i. e. between noun and verb, noun and adjective etc.

«Conversion has already been defined as a shift from one part of speech to another. But this functional change has also been observed in a shift from one kind of noun to another, or one kind of verbs to another, or one kind of adverb to another; and it seems logical to regard conversion as functional change not only between the parts of speech but also within each part of speech. It should be insisted also that conversion and derivational change are two distinct processes; derivational change by the use of prefixes and suffixes shift words between the parts of speech by producing different forms, as, for example, the adjective «wide», the noun («width», and the verb «widen». (A. G. Kennedy)

Prof. A. L. Smirnitsky³ says that conversion is the formation of a new word by a change of paradigm. It is the paradigm that is used as a. wordbuilding means. *For example*. in Uzbek: китоблар китобнинг, китобни, китобга, китобдан,

1. H. Marchand. op. cit.

2. A.G. Kennedy. Current English. USA 1935

3. А.И Смирницкий. Лексикология англицкого языкаю. —Москва. 1956

китобда, китоби, китобим, китобинг, -лар, -нинг, -ни, -га, -да, -дан, -и, -им, -инг etc are the paradigms of the noun «китоб». In English book, books; book's; -s, 's, s' are the paradigms of the noun «book»; book v — booked, (he) books, booking, booked,-ed» ed (the ending of P II)-s,-ing, are the paradigms of the verb «to book». So conversion can be described as a morphological way of forming words.

There are two approaches to the study of conversion: syn-chronic and diachronic. On the diachronic level we study the origin of conversion, how the converted pairs appeared in the language. Conversion was born in XIII century as a result of the disappearance of inflexions in the course of the historical development of the English language in Middle English.

For example. lufu — luf — love n. lufian — luf — love v andswaru — andswarian — answer n, andswarian — andswar — answer v. Some new words formed by conversion were created on the analogy of the semantic patterns existed in the language. **For example.** to motor — travel by car to phone — use the telephone to wire — send a telegram. On the synchronic level conversion is considered as a type of forming new words by means of paradigms. The two words differ only in their paradigms.

§2. The most common types of conversion

The most common types of conversion are the creation of verbs from nouns and the formation of nouns from verbs:

1) verbs converted from nouns:

ape — to ape, a face — to face, a butcher — to butcher, a dust — to dust, a doctor — to doctor etc.

2) nouns converted from verbs:

to jump — a jump, to move — a move, to help — a help, to drive — a drive, to walk — a walk etc.

Conversion is the main way of forming verbs in Modern English. Verbs can be formed from nouns of different semantic groups and have different meanings because of that, **For example.** a) verbs have instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting parts of a human body **For example.** to eye, to finger, to elbow, to shoulder etc. They have instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting tools, machines, instruments, weapons. **For example.** to hammer, to machine-gun, to rifle, to nail; b) verbs can denote an action characteristic of the living being denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, **For example.** to crowd, to wolf, to ape; c) verbs can denote acquisition, addition or deprivation if they are formed from nouns denoting an object, **For example.** to fish, to dust, to peel, to paper. d) verbs can denote an action performed at the place denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, **For example.** to park, to garage, to bottle, to corner, to pocket, e) verbs can denote an action performed at the time denoted by the noun from which they have been converted **For example.** to winter, to week-end .

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

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

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

Many nouns converted from verbs can be used only in the singular form and denote momentaneous actions. In such cases we have partial conversion. Such deverbal nouns are often used with such verbs as : to have, to get, to take etc.. **For example.** to have a try, to give a push, to take a swim .

Derivations from the stems of other parts of speech are less common. **For example** wrong (*adj*) — to wrong, up (*adj*) — to up, down (*adv*)-~ to down. Nouns may be also formed from verb + postpositive phrases. **For example.** to make up — a make+up, to call up — a call up, to take off — a take off etc.

New words formed from simple or root stems are more frequent than those formed from suffixed stems.

§3. Criteria of semantic derivation

In converted pairs the derived word and the underlying word are connected with each other in their meaning. The derived verb shows the act performed by the thing denoted by the noun. **For example.** «to finger» means «to touch with the finger», «to hand» means «to give the hand», «to help with the hand», «to train means «to go by train, «to bus» means «to go by bus», «to week-end» means «to spend the week-end». Derived nouns denote the act or the result of an action.

For example. «a knock» means «the result of knocking», «a cut» means «the result of cutting», «a call» means «the result of calling», a find means «the result of finding», «a run» means «the result of running». Synchronically it is difficult to define which of the two words within a converted pair is the derived member. How should we say that one of the members of converted pairs is a derived word?

The problem of the criterion of semantic derivation was raised in linguistic literature not so long ago. Prof. Smirnitsky was the first to put forward the theory of semantic derivation in his book on English Lexicology. Later on P. A. Soboleva¹ developed Smirnitsky's ideas and worked out three more criteria.

1. П. А. Соболева. словообразовательные отношения по конверсии между глаголом и отглагольным существительным в современном английском языке. Дисс. канд. филол. наук. М., 1959

1) If the lexical meaning of the root morpheme coincides with the lexico-grammatical meaning of the stem we say that the noun has the simple stem. **For example** man (*n*)— man (*v*), father (*n*) — father (*v*), map (*n*) — map (*v*), paper(*a*) — paper (*v*). The noun is the name for a concrete thing here the verbs map, man, father, paper denote a process, therefore the lexico-grammatical meaning of their stems does not coincide with the lexical meaning of the roots which is of a substantival character.

2) According to analogous synonymic word pairs like converse — conversation, exhibit — exhibition, occupy — occupation we say in converted pairs work (*v*)— work (*n*), show (*v*),—show (*n*) chat (*v*)—chat(*n*) the verb has the simple stem.

3) if the noun has more derivatives than the verb, the verb is a derived word in converted pairs and vice versa.

For example. hand (*n*) — handed, handful, handy, handleless etc.

hand (*v*) — handable. Here the verb «*hand*» is formed from the noun «*Hand*», because the noun has more derivatives than the verb.

§4. Substantivization of Adjectives

Some scientists (Jespersen¹, Kruisinga²) refer substantivization of adjectives to conversion. But most scientists disagree with them because in cases of substantivization of adjectives we have quite different changes in the language. Substantivization is the result of ellipsis (syntactical shortening) when a word combination with a semantically strong attribute loses its semantically weak noun (man, person etc), **For example.** «*a grown-up person*» is shortened to «*a grown-up*». In cases of perfect substantivization the attribute takes the paradigm of a countable noun, **For example** a criminal, criminals, a criminal's (mistake), criminals' (mistakes). Such words are used in a sentence in the same function as nouns, **For example** I am fond of musicals, (musical comedies). There are also two types of partly substantivized adjectives: those which have only the plural form and have the meaning of collective nouns, such as: sweets, news, empties, finals, greens, those which have only the singular form and are used with the definite article. They also have the meaning of collective nouns and denote a class, a nationality, a group of people, For example the rich, the English, the dead.

«A.O.Kennedy argues that it is necessary to recognize various stages of conversion: in «The poor are with us always the adjective is not completely converted into a noun, but in «He sold his goods» has disappeared so completely that the word can take the plural ending «-s» like any other noun. When a word has changed its function to such an extent that it is capable of taking on new inflectional endings then the process of conversion may be considered complete.

1. O.Jespersen. Growth and structure of the English Language. Leipzig. 1938

2. E. Kruisinga. A Handbook of Present-day English pt II, 1932

Moreover, conversion may be regarded as complete when a word has been substantivized to the point where it can be modified by adjectives, as in «the others, a lunatic, goodreading»; or verbalized to the point where it can be modified by adverbs as in telephone soon», «motor often» . . . The substantivization of adjectives has always been an important process in English and is active today. Some of the earlier substantivizations have been so long established as nouns that English-speakers no longer realize that they ever were adjectives; in many instances, however, the substantival use of the adjective is only temporary, and as soon as the need is past, the word reverts to its usual adjectival function ...» (A. Q. Kennedy).

The problem whether adjectives can be formed by means of conversion from nouns is the subject of many discussions. In Modern English there are a lot of word combinations of the type , *For example*. price rise, wage freeze, steel helmet, sand castle etc.

If the first component of such units is an adjective converted from a noun, combinations of this type are free word-groups typical of English (adjective + noun).

This point of view is proved by O. Jespersen by the following facts:

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

However Henry Sweet and some other scientists say that these criteria are not characteristic of the majority of such units. They consider the first component of such units to be a noun in the function of an attribute because in Modern English almost all parts of speech and even word-groups and sentences can be used in the function of an attribute. *For example* then the president (an adverb), out-of-the-way vilages (a word-group), a devil-may-care speed (a sentence).

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

1. time relations, *For example*. evening paper,
2. space relations, *For example*. top floor,
3. relations between the object and the material of which it is made, *For example*. steel helmet.
4. cause relations, *For example*. war orphan.

5. relations between a part and the whole, *For example.* a crew member,
6. relations between the object and an action. *For example.* arms production,
7. relations between the agent and an action *For example.* government threat, price rise,
8. relations between the object and its designation, *For example.* reception hall,
9. the first component denotes the head, organizer of the characterized object, *For example.* Clinton government, Forsythe family,
10. the first component denotes the field of activity of the second component, *For example.* language teacher, psychiatry doctor,
11. comparative relations, *For example* moon face.
12. qualitative relations, *For example.* winter apples.

Answer the following questions.

1. When was the term «conversion» first used? 2. What approaches to the study of conversion do you know? 3. Why do the treatments of conversion as a non-affixal word-building, a shift from one part of speech to another cause doubt to us? 4. What is A. I. Smirnitsky's point of view to conversion? 5. What problems of conversion do you study on the diachronic level? 6. What is the origin of conversion? 7. How is conversion treated on synchronic level? 8. What are the most common types of conversion do you know? 9. What are the less common types of conversion? 10. How is the derived word connected with the underlying word in their meaning in converted pairs? 11. How should we say that one of the members of converted pairs is a derived word?

III. Wordcomposition compound words

§1. Definition of compound words

Modern English is very rich in compound words. Compound words are made up by joining two or more stems.

For example. taxi-driver, paint-box, bookcase.

«Many scholars have claimed that a compound is determined by the underlying concept, others have advocated stress some even seek the solution of the problem in spelling . . ., Jespersen also introduced the criterion of concept and rejected Bloomfield's criterion of stress. As for the criterion of stress, it holds for certain types'only . . .

For a combination to be a compound there is one condition to be fulfilled; the compound must be morphologically isolated from a parallel syntactic group.

«Blackbird» has the morpho-phonetic stress pattern of a compound «black markets, has not, despite its phrasal meaning; the latter therefore is a syntactic group, morphologically speaking stress is a criterion here. (*H. Marchand*)

«Word-compounding is a process similar to but not the same as telescoping or blends; two words are joined, but compounding differs in that no part of either word is lost, *For example* blackbird, bookcase, in the examples the elements have been -fused, making one words. (*Sheard*)

— «Compound words are words consisting of at least two stems which occur in the language as free forms. In a compound word the immediate constituents obtain integrity and structural cohesion that make them function in a sentence as a separate lexical unit». (*Arnold I. V.*)

«Word-composition» or compounding is a distinct type of words made up by joining together two stems (mostly stems of notional parts of speech)». (*Ginzburg R. S. and others*)

«Among the word-like features of the forms which we class as compound words, indivisibility is fairly frequent; we can say «black — I should say» bluish black-birds, but we do not use the compound word «*blackbird*» with a similar interruption.

Generally, a compound-member cannot, like a word in a phrase, serve as a constituent in a syntactic construction. The word «black» in the phrase «*black birds*» can be modified by «very (very black birds)», but not so the compound — member «*black*» in *blackbirds*» (*Bloomfield*)

A compound word has a single semantic structure. We distinguish the meaning of the compound words from the combined lexical meanings of its components. *For example.* «*pencil-case*» is a case for pencils. The meaning of the compound words is derived not only from the combined lexical meanings of its components but also from the order and arrangement of the stems. A change in the order of components of compound words brings a change in their lexical meaning. *For example.* *life-boat* — a boat of special construction for saving lives, *boat-life* — life on board of a ship, *fruit-market* — market where fruit is sold, *market-fruit* — fruit for selling.

Compound words differ from free word-groups, they are inseparable vocabulary units. Compound words structurally, phonetically and graphically are inseparable.

Structurally compounds are inseparable because if we change the places of components of compounds we see the change of meaning in compounds or they will not be compounds. *For example.* *boat-life* — life on ship, *life-boat* — a boat which is used for saving. If we change the places of components of compound word *long-legged* in this way «*legged long*» it will be not a compound word. So the inseparability in structure of compounds can be seen in their specific order and arrangement of stems.

The compounds are phonetically inseparable as the components of them have only one stress. Mostly the first component is stressed. *For example.* *pen-knife*, 'book-case, 'doorway, 'bookshelf. There are some compounds which have a double stress. In this case we have the primary stress on the first component and a weaker secondary stress on the second component. *For example.* 'mad-'doctor, 'washing-'machine, 'money-'order etc.

These stress patterns in many cases may be used as a criteria of distinguishing compound words from free word groups. As we know both components of free word groups are always stressed. *For example.* a'green-house

(compound)— a 'glass-house, a'green 'house (word group)—a house that is painted green, 'dancing-girl (compound)—a dancer, 'dancing 'girl— (word group) a girl who is dancing.

Graphically compounds have two types of spelling — they are written either together or with a hyphen. This is also one of the criteria of distinguishing of compounds from wordgroups.

Some linguists¹ advocate the semantic criterion. They define a compound word as a combination of words expressing a single idea. This point of view causes some doubt. Because it does not give us sufficient ground to distinguish between the cases of compound words and idiomatic set phrases.

Like other linguistic phenomena we may approach to the study of compounds synchronically and diachronically.

Synchronically we study the structural and semantic patterns of compound words, while diachronically we study the various changes compound words undergone in the course of time and the way compound words appear in the language.

Some compounds which were formed in old English can't be considered compound words. The morphological structure of a word loses the meaning and undergoes phonetic changes. This case is called simplification. *For example.* woman OE—wifmasn (woman — person), daisy OE—dass ease (day's eye).

§2. Classification of compounds

Compound words are classified into completely motivated, partially motivated and non-motivated compound words. In completely motivated compound words the lexical meaning of compounds is easily deduced from the lexical meanings of the stems. *For example.* book-case, foot-step, door-handle, bottle-opener. The compound words a flower-bed, walk-up are partially motivated compounds because we can guess their meaning partially. The compounds in which the connection between the meaning and structure and the meanings of components of compounds can not be seen from the meaning of its components are called non-motivated compound words. *For example.* wall-flower — a woman who remains at wall and is not invited to a dance.

night-cap — drink taken before going to bed at night.

Compound words may be classified from the functional point of view or according to their belonging to different parts of speech.

Many of English compounds belong to nouns and adjectives. *N* — armchair, sitting-room, looking-glass, blackboard, pickpocket (a thief), bench-mark, homework, grammar-school. *ADJ* — social-economic, hard-working, man-made,

1. O. Jespersen. A Modern English Grammar on Historical Principles. L. 1946;
E. Krusinga. A Handbook of Present-day English.
Groningen, 1932, part 11.

well-behaved, well-read, dry-drink, V-whitewash, housekeep, etc. *ADV* — indoors, within, outside.

From the point of view how the components are joined together the compound words may be classified into; compounds whose components are joined with a linking element, (afro-asion, anglo-saxon, sportsman, speedometer, handicraft, statesman, landsman) and without a linking element (snowball, rain-coat, door-handle, reading-room, paint-box, door-step).

Compound words are also classified according to different ways of compounding. In this case we divide them into two groups:

1) compound words proper. Such kind of compounds are formed by joining together stems of words and these compounds have no derivational affix. The components of such compounds are simple stems.

For example. door-step, looking-glass, table-cloth, whitewash, bookcase, bookshelf.

2) derivational compounds. These compounds have a derivational affix: long-legged, kind-hearted, schoolboyishness, blue-eyed, absentminded.

There are two types of relationship in linguistic literature: that of coordination and subordination and accordingly compound words may be classified into coordinative and sub-ordinative. In coordinative compounds the components are structurally and semantically independent (**For example.** reduplicative: goody-goody, fifty-fifty).

In subordinative compounds the components are based on the domination of one component over the other.

For example. road-building, baby-sitter, woman-doctor.

Subordinative compounds may be syntactic which depends on syntactic rules. **For example.** mad-doctor, bluebell, a slow-coach (adj+n) and asyntactic. **For example.** red-hot, oil-rich, long-legg'ed (*adj-adj*) there is no syntactic rule and it does not depend on the syntactic rules.

Many compounds are polysemantic. Thus, the verb *to whitewash* has the following meanings:

- 1) make white with whitewash
- 1) to gloss or cover up vices, crimes etc.

But their polysemy is not based on the polysemy of their constituents. They develop a polysemy of their own.

Answer the following questions

1. What is understood by the compound words? 2. What is the meaning of a compound word? 3. What is the motivation of the compound words? 4. How do we classify compound words from the functional point of view? How do we classify compound words from the point of view how the components are joined together? 6. What is the classification of compound words according to different ways of compounding? 7. What are the coordinative and subordinative relations in compound words? 8. What is the difference between compound words and word groups? 9. What is the inseparability of compound words? 10. What types of

inseparability of compound words do you know? 11. What are the synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of compound words? 12 What is the polysemy of compound words?

IV. Secondary ways of wordformation

§1. Shortened words abbreviations and clippings

The shortening of words means substituting a part for a whole, part of the word is taken away and used for the whole. *For example.* demo (demonstration), dub (double), vac (vacuum cleaner), doc (doctor), fig (figure), Mrs (missis).

A shortened word is in some way different from its prototype in usage. The shortened word and its full form have the same lexical meaning but differ only in stylistic reference.

For example. exam (colloq) examination (neutral), chapman (neutral), chap (colloq).

Shortened words are structurally simple words and in most cases have the same lexical meaning as the longer words from which they are derived. Shortening is not a derivational process because there are no structural patterns after which new shortened words could be built therefore we can't say that shortening is a derivational wordformation.

We must distinguish lexical abbreviations and clippings.

Abbreviations consist of the first letters of a word group or a compound word (U.K.C.H.H, USA, BBC, NATO) or the component of a two member word group H (hydrogin)— bomb, V. —Day — Victory Day) is shortened. The last one is not changed.

Clipping consists in the cutting off of one or several syllables of a word. In many cases the stressed syllables are preserved. *For example.* Sis. (sister), Jap (Japanese), doc (doctor), phone (telephone), lab (laboratory). Clipping is classified into the following types depending on which part of the word is clipped: 1) Words that have been shortened at the end: *For example.* ad (advertisement), lab (laboratory), Jap (Japanese), doc (doctor), sis (sister), vac (vacuum cleaner); 2) Words that have been shortened at the beginning: ear, car (motor-car), phone (telephone), van (caravan), cast (broadcast); 3) Words in which syllables have been omitted from the middle the so called syncope, *For example.* maths (mathematics), specs (spectacles); 4) Words that have been shortened at the beginning and at the end: *For example.* flu (influenza), tec (detective), frig (refrigerator).

Clippings and abbreviations have some peculiarities as simple words. They take the plural endings and that of the possessive case. They take grammatical inflexions, *For example.* exams, docs, cars, doc's they are used with articles: the USA, a lab, a vac, a doc, etc.

They may take derivational affixes: M. P-ess hanky (from handkerchief), unkie (from uncle)

Clippings do not always coincide in meaning with the original word. **For example.** “doc” and “doctor” have the meaning one who practises medicine, but doctor is also the highest degree given by a university to a scholar or scientist and a person who has received such a degree whereas doc is not used with these meanings.

Among abbreviations there are homonyms. One and the same sound and graphical complex may be different words. **For example.** vac-vacation; vac-vacuum cleaner; prep-preparation; prep-preparatory school. In abbreviations we stress each letter. **For example.** TUC [ˈtiːˈjuːˈsiː]—Trade Union Congress. If they are pronounced in accordance with the rules of phonetics we stress the first syllable.

For example. NATO [ˈneɪtəʊ], UNO [ˈjuːnəʊ] BBC — British Broadcasting Corporation, Cent—Centigrade. AP—Associated Press, GPO—General Post Office, USA—United States of America, UNESCO—United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, USAF—United States Air Force, WFDY—World Federation of Democratic Youth, WFTU—World Federation of Trade Unions, SEATO—South-East Asia Treaty Organization, UK—United Kingdom, NAS—National Academy of Sciences, NY—New York, NZ—New Zealand, MD—Doctor of Medicine, FAP—First Aid Post.

sub (submarine), surg (surgeon), Sept (September), Serg (sergeant), esp (especially), capt (captain), lat (latitude), Wash (Washington), Wed (Wednesday), usu (usually), pref (preface), prof (professor), prox (proximo), mos (months), quot (quotation), revs (revolutions), Russ (Russian), sat (Saturday), vol (volume), rep (representative), suppl (supplement).

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

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

§2. Classification of abbreviations

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

Graphical abbreviations are the result of shortening of words and word-groups only in written speech while orally the corresponding full forms are used. They are used for the economy of space and effort in writing. The oldest group of graphical abbreviations in English is of Latin origin. In Russian and Uzbek this

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

Some graphical abbreviations of Latin origin have different English equivalents in different contexts, **For example.** *p.m.* can be pronounced «in the afternoon» (*post meridiem*) and «after death» (*post mortem*).

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

- a) days of the week, **For example.** Mon - Monday, Tue - Tuesday etc
- b) names of months, **For example.** Apr - April, Aug - August etc. M,
- c) names of counties in UK, **For example.** Yorks - Yorkshire, Berks -Berkshire etc
- d) names of states in USA, **For example** Ala - Alabama, Alas - Alaska etc.
- e) names of address, **For example.** Mr., Mrs., Ms., Dr. etc. ,
- f) military ranks, **For example.** capt. -captain, col. - colonel, sgt - sergeant etc.
- g) scientific degrees, For example B.A. - Bachelor of Arts, D.M. - Doctor of Medicine.

Sometimes in scientific degrees we have abbreviations of Latin origin, **For example.** M.B. - *Medicinae Baccalaurus*).

h) units of time, length, weight, **For example.** f. / ft -foot/feet, sec. - second, in. - inch, mg. -milligram etc. The reading of some graphical abbreviations depends on the context, **For example.** «m» can be read as: male, married, masculine, metre, mile, million, minute, «l.p.» can be read as long-playing, low pressure.

Initialisms are the bordering case between graphical and lexical abbreviations. When they appear in the language, as a rule, to denote some new offices they are closer to graphical abbreviations because orally full forms are used, **For example.** 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, **For example.** BBC is as a rule pronounced in the shortened form.

In some cases the translation of initialisms is next to impossible without using special dictionaries. Initialisms are denoted in different ways. Very often they are expressed in the way they are pronounced in the language of their origin, **For example.** ANZUS (Australia, New Zealand, United States) SALT (Strategic Arms Limitation Talks). In Russian as (договор об ограничении стратегических вооружений).

There are three types of initialisms in English:

- a) initialisms with alphabetical reading, such as UK, BUP, CND etc
- b) initialisms which are read as if they are words, **For example.** UNESCO, UNO, NATO etc.

c) initialisms which coincide with English words in their sound form, such initialisms are called acronyms. **For example.** CLASS (Computer-based Laboratory for Automated School System).

Some scientists unite groups b) and c) into one group which they call acronyms.

Some initialisms can form new words in which they act as root morphemes by different ways of wordbuilding:

a) affixation, **For example.** AWALism, ex-rafer, ex- POW, to waafize, AIDSophobia etc.

b) conversion. **For example.** to raff, to fly IFR (Instrument Flight Rules),

c) composition, **For example.** STOLport, USAFman etc.

d) there are also compound-shortened words where the first component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical reading and the second one is a complete word. **For example.** 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, **For example.** Three -Ds (Three dimensions)

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

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

Lexical abbreviations are classified according to the part of the word which is clipped. Mostly the end of the word is clipped, because the beginning of the word in most cases is the root and expresses the lexical meaning of the word. This type of abbreviation is called apocope.

Here we can mention a group of words ending in «o», such as disco (dicotheque), expo (exposition), intro (introduction) and many others. On the analogy with these words there developed in Modern English a number of words where «o» is added as a kind of a suffix to the shortened form of the word, **For example.** combo (combination) to, - Afro (African). In other cases the beginning of the word is clipped. In such cases we have apheresis, **For example.** chute (parachute), varsity (university), copter (helicopter), thuse (enthuse) etc.

Sometimes the middle of the word is clipped, **For example**. mart (market), fanzine (fan magazine) maths (mathematics). Such abbreviations are called syncope. Sometimes we have a combination of apocope with apheresis, when the beginning and the end of the word are clipped, **For example**. tec (detective), van (vanguard) etc.

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

§3. Splinters and their properties

In the second half of the twentieth century the English wordbuilding system was enriched by creating so called splinters which scientists include in the affixation stock of the Modern English wordbuilding system. Splinters are the result of clipping the end or the beginning of a word and producing a number of new words on the analogy with the primary word-group. **For example**. there are many words formed with the help of the splinter mini- (apocopy produced by clipping the word «*miniature*»), such as «*miniplane*», «*minijet*», «*minicycle*», «*minicar*», «*miniradio*» and many others. All of these words denote objects of smaller than normal dimensions.

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

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

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

The splinter «cade» developed by clipping the beginning of the word «cavalcade» which is of Latin origin. In Latin the verb with the meaning «*to ride a horse*» is «*cabalicare*» and by means of the inflexion -ata the corresponding Participle is formed.

So the element «cade» is a combination of the final letter of the stem and the inflexion. The splinter «cade» serves to form nouns with the meaning «connected with the procession of vehicles denoted by the first component»), **For example.** «aircade» - «a group of airplanes accompanying the plane of a VIP», «autocade» - «a group of automobiles escorting the automobile of a VIP», «musicade» - «an orchestra participating in a procession».

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

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

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

Another splinter «eteria» with the meaning «self-service» was formed by clipping the beginning of the word «cafeteria». By means of the splinter «eteria» the following words were formed: «groceryeteria», «booketeria», «booteteria» and many others.

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

The splinter «rama(ama)» is a clipping of the word Κραμα(rama?) of Greek origin where «pan» means «all» and «horama» means «view». In Modern English the meaning «view» was lost and the splinter «rama» is used in advertisements to denote objects of supreme quality, **For example.** «autorama» means «exhibition-sale of expensive cars», «trouserama » means «sale of trousers of supreme quality») etc.

The splinter «scape» is a clipping of the word «landscape» and it is used to form words denoting different types of landscapes, such as: «moonscape»,

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

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

The splinter «thon» is the result of clipping the beginning of the word «*marathon*». «*Marathon*» primarily was the name of a battle-field in Greece, forty miles from Athens, where there was a battle between the Greek and the Persian. When the Greek won a victory a Greek runner was sent to Athens to tell people about the victory. Later on the word «*Marathon*» was used to denote long-distance competitions in running. The splinter «thon(athon)» denotes «something continuing for a long time», competition in endurance)) **For example.** «*dancathon*», «*telethon*», «*speakathon*», «*readathon*», «*walkathon*», «*moviethon*», «*swimathon*», «*talkathon*», «*swearthon*» etc.

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

The splinter «genic» formed by clipping the beginning of the word «*photogenic*» denotes the notion «suitable for something denoted by the stem», **For example.** «*allergenic*», «*cardiogenic*», «*mediagenic*», «*telegenic*» etc.

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

Splinters can be called pseudomorphemes because they are neither roots nor affixes, they are more or less artificial. In English there are words which consist of two splinters, For example «*telethon*», therefore it is more logical to call words with splinters in their structure (*compound-shortened words consisting of two clippings of words*).

Splinters have only one function in English: they serve to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech, whereas prefixes and suffixes can also change the part-of-speech meaning, For example the prefix «en-» and its allomorph «em» can form verbs from noun and adjective stems («*embody*», «*enable*», «*endanger*»), «be-» can form verbs from noun and adjective stems («*becloud*», «*benumb*»).

«post-» and «pre-» can form adjectives from noun stems («pre-election campaign», «post-war events»). The main function of suffixes is to form one part of speech from another part of speech, **For example.** «-er», «-ing», «-ment» form nouns from verbal stems («teacher», «dancing», «movement»), «-ness», «-ity» are used to form nouns from adjective stems («clannishness», «marginality»).

§4 Soundinterchange

Sound interchange is an alternation in the phonetic composition of the root, **For example.** food (*n*)—feed (*v*), speak (*v*) -speech (*n*), strong (*adj*)—strength (*n*). Sound interchange may be considered as a way of forming words only diachronically because in Modern English we can't find a single word which can be formed by changing the root-vowel of a word or by shifting the place of the stress. Sound interchange is non-productive.

Soundinterchange may be divided into vowel interchange and consonant interchange. **For example.** full—to fill, food—to feed, blood—to bleed, stronger—strenght. Here we have vowel interchange and by means of vowel interchange we can distinguish different parts of speech. There are some examples of consonant interchange: advice—to advise, speak—speech, break—breach, defence—defend, offence—offend.

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

The causes of sound interchange can be different. It can be the result of Ancient Ablaut which cannot be explained by the phonetic laws during the period of the language development known to scientists., For example to strike - stroke, to sing - song etc. It can be also the result of Ancient Umlaut or vowel mutation which is the result of palatalizing the root vowel because of the front vowel in the syllable coming after the root (regressive assimilation), For example hot - to heat (hotian), blood - to bleed (blodian) etc. In many cases we have vowel and consonant interchange. In nouns we have voiceless consonants and in verbs we have corresponding voiced consonants because in Old English these consonants in nouns were at the end of the word and in verbs in the intervocal position. For example bath - to bathe, life - to live, breath - to breathe etc.

§5. Stress interchange

Stress interchange can be mostly met in verbs and nouns of Romanic origin : nouns have the stress on the first syllable and verbs on the last syllable, **For example.**'accent - to accent. This phenomenon is explained in the following way: French verbs and nouns had different structure when they were borrowed into English, verbs had one syllable more than the corresponding nouns. When these

borrowings were assimilated in English the stress in them was shifted to the previous syllable (the second from the end) .

Later on the last unstressed syllable in verbs borrowed from French was dropped (the same as in native verbs) and after that the stress in verbs was on the last syllable while in nouns it was on the first syllable. As a result of it we have such pairs in English as : to con'flict- "conflict, to ex'port -'export, to ex'tract - "extract etc. As a result of stress interchange we have also vowel interchange in such words because vowels are pronounced differently in stressed and unstressed positions.

§6. Sound imitation

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

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

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

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

The corresponding nouns are formed by means of conversion. For example clang (of a bell), chatter (of children) etc;

§7. Backformation

It is the way of word-building when a word is formed by dropping the final morpheme to form a new word. It is opposite to suffixation, that is why it is called backformation. At first it appeared in the language as a result of misunderstanding the structure of a borrowed word. Prof. Yartseva¹ explains this mistake by the influence of the whole system of the language on separate words.

For example. it is typical of English to form nouns denoting the agent of the action by adding the suffix -er to a verb stem (speak-speaker). So when the French word «beggar» was borrowed into English the final syllable «ar» was pronounced in the same way as the English -er and Englishmen formed the verb «to beg» by dropping the end of the noun. Other examples of backformation are : to accreditate (from accreditation), to bach (from bachelor), to collocate (from collocation), to enthuse (from enthusiasm), to compute (from computer), to emote (from emotion) to reminisce (from reminiscence), to televise (from television) etc.

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

1. В.И Янцева. Развитие национального литературного английского языка. Москва., 1968

formation» has a diachronic relevance (historical meaning). *For example.* The nouns beggar, butler, cobbler, typewriter are very much like the nouns actor, painter, teacher. which have the suffixes-er, -or. On the analogy of the derivatives teacher, speaker. reader the words beggar, butler, cobler, typewriter etc. synchronically are derived from to beg, to butle, to cob, to typewrite, because we do not feel any difference between the relationship «speak—speaker» and «beg—beggar». But if we study their origin we see «butle» was derived from «butler».

So backformation «denotes the derivation of new words by subtracting a real or supposed affix from existing words through misinterpretation of their structure.¹

... Backformation is in fact an example of analogy: the speaker knows pairs like rob /robber and drink/ drinker and when he hears the word «beggar» he makes it conform to the pattern by inventing a form «*beg*». Another well-known historical example of back-formation in English is the verb «*to sidele*», from the adverb «*sideling*».

§8. Blending

Blending is the formation of a new word by a connection of parts of two words to form one word.

For example. The noun «smog» is composed of the parts of nouns «smoke» and «fog» (sm (oke+f) og). The result of blending is an unanalysable simple word. We do not analyse the blended words (sm+og) because their parts can't be called morphemes.*For example.* clash- clap'crash; flush-flash H-blush, I slanguage=slang+language, brunch- breakfast+lunch, smare-smoke+ha-ze, seadrome=-sea+airdrome). There are many blends in the terminological vocabulary. *For example.* racon-radar+beacon, transceiver-transmitter+receiver.

Blending can be considered ... as the method of merging (connecting) parts of words into one new word as when «sm+oke» and «fog» derived from «smog».

Thus, blending is compounding by means of curtailed (shortened) words. However, the clusters «sm» and «og» were morphemes only for the individual speaker who blended them while in terms of the linguistic system as recognized by the community, there are not signs at all. Blending, therefore, has no grammatical, but a stylistic status. The result of blending is ... an unanalysable, simple word, not a motivated syntagma. (*H. Marchand*)

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

1. I. V. Arnold. The English Word. M., 1986, p. 150

component the beginning is taken, from the second one the end, «o» is common for both of them.

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

Answer the following questions

1. What do you understand by the term «shortening»? 2. Why can't we say that shortening is a derivational word-formation? 3. What distinction is made between abbreviations and clippings. 4. What is the classification of clippings? 5. What -is the peculiarity of shortened words? 6. . What is the difference between the clipping and the original word? 7. What is the homonymy of abbreviations? 8. What do you understand by the term sound-interchange? 9. What is the distinction between vowel-interchange and consonant-interchange? 10. What is understood by the term «backfor-mation?» 11. What is the peculiarity of blending as a means of word -formation? 12. What is a splinter?

Problems for discussion

1. Discuss different definitions of morphemes.
2. Describe different types of morphemes.
3. Analyse the details of Hockett's procedure of determining morphemes.
4. Compare the principles of determining morphemes elaborated by different linguists and the resulting difference in the morphological analysis of such words as *retain, contain, perceive; telephone, shilly-shally*.
5. Discuss the concept of ICs and UCs in the morphological analysis. Note the confusion of inflectional and derivational morphemes in Hockett's procedure.
6. Discuss the difference between derivational suffixes and inflexions.
7. Discuss the problem of morpheme variants.
8. Compare different understanding of the term 'word-formation'
9. Compare two levels of morphological analysis the difference between derivative relevancy analysis. (Marchand)
10. Discuss the different principles of structural words.
11. Discuss the problem oi motivation in morphemes, words and word-groups.
12. Describe different types of motivation: phonetic, morphological, semantic.
13. Discuss the problem of productivity. Note the connection o! productivity and motivation
14. Discuss the concepts of grammaticalness and acceptability of the sentence *Colorless green ideas sleep furiously* and the words *anbad, puppycat*. Note the connection between grammaticalness and productivity.
15. Discuss the diachronic and the synchronic aspects of productivity.
16. Discuss restrictions of productivity in word-formation.

17. Discuss the problem of conversion.
18. Compare different approaches to and different understandings of conversion.
19. Discuss prefixation as a means of word-formation. Note the peculiarities of prefixes used in scientific terminology.
20. Discuss suffixation as a means of word-formation
21. Discuss the origin of suffixes. Note the interdependence of the origin of the stem and the origin of the suffix.
22. Discuss the peculiarities of the morphological structure of scientific and technical terms.
23. Discuss different criteria of compound words as opposed to free word-groups.
24. Discuss semantic relations between the components of a compound.
25. Discuss productive types of compound nouns, adjectives, verbs.
26. Discuss the process of back-formation and the degree of its productivity.
27. Discuss the so-called minor ways of word-formation: clipping, blending, phonetic symbolism. Discuss arguments for and against referring them to word-formation.

Literature

1. Karl E. Zimmer, Affixal Negation in English and Other Languages: An Investigation of Restricted Productivity, Supplement to Word, vol.20, No 2, August 1964, Monograph No 5
2. A. Kennedy. Current English, Boston, USA, 1935
3. J.A. Sheard, The Words We Use, Andre Deutsch, L., 1962
4. M. Mathews. The Freshman and His Dictionary, Applied English Linguistics, ed. by Harold B. Allen, N.Y., 1964
5. П.А. Соболева. Словообразовательные отношения по конверсии между глаголом и отглагольным существительным в современном английском языке. Дисс. канд. фил. наук. – М., 1959
6. Е.М. Медникова. Seminars in English Lexicology. – М., 1978
7. Ўзбек тили лексикологияси. А. Хожиев, А. Аҳмедов тахрири остида. – Тошкент, 1974
8. А.Г. Дмитриева. Структура словообразовательных гнезд общегерманских существительных в современном английском языке. – М., 1971
9. С.С. Хидекель, Р.З. Гинзбург, Г.Ю. Князева, А.А. Санкин. Английская лексикология в выдержках и извлечениях. – 1969
- 10.22 В.И. Ярцева. Развитие национального литературного английского языка. Москва. 1968
- 11.23 I. V. Arnold. The English Word. M., 1986.

CHAPTER 4

SEMASIOLOGY

I. Wordmeaning

§1. Definition of meaning. Different approaches to meaning

Semasiology (or semantics) is a branch of linguistics which studies meaning . Semasiology is singled out as an independent branch of Lexicology alongside word-formation , etymology , phraseology and lexicography . And at the same time it is often referred to as the central branch of Lexicology . The significance of semasiology may be accounted for by three main considerations : 1. Language is the basic human communication system aimed at ensuring the exchange of information between the communicants which implies that the semantic side forms the backbone of communication. 2. By definition Lexicology deals with words , morpheme and word-groups . All those linguistic units are two-faced entities having both form and meaning.

3. Semasiology underlines all other branches of Lexicology . Meaning is the object of semasiological study .

So, Semasiology is concerned with the " meaning of words, studies the types of meaning, the change of meaning, the semantic structure of words, semantic groupings, synonyms, antonyms, homonyms etc.

«Over eighty years ago, a new term was introduced into linguistic studies. In 1883 the French philologist Michel Breal published an article on what he called the «intellectual laws» of language. In this he argued that, alongside of phonetics and morphology, the .study of the formal elements of human speech, there ought also to be a science of meaning, which he proposed to call «la semantique, by a word derived from the Greek» «*sign*» (cf, semapgore) . . . and in the first place Breal himself, who established semantics as a discipline in its own right. Three years after its publication, Breal's «*Essay*» was translated into English under the title «Semantics. «Studies in the Science of Meanings and although the term had been used in English a few years earlier this translation played a decisive role in the diffusion of the new science and its name». (Ulmann)

There is no generally accepted definition of the term «meaning of the word».

F. de Saussure, a well-known Swiss linguist, says that the meaning is the relation between the object or notion named and the name itself, L. Bloomfield, a well-known American linguist, points out that the meaning is the situation in which the word is uttered. The situations prompt people to utter speech.

For example if we want to know the meaning of the word «apple» we must make a situation for it.

Meaning is the reflection in the human consciousness of an object of extralinguistic reality (a phenomenon, a relationship, a quality, a process) which

becomes a fact of language because of its constant indissoluble association with a definite linguistic expressions. (E. M. Mednikova)

Meaning is a certain reflection in our mind "of objects, phenomena or relations that makes part of the linguistic sign—its so called inner facet, whereas the sound-form functions, as its outer facet". (A. I. Smirnitski)

«Meaning may be viewed as the function of distribution . . . the meaning of linguistic unit may be studied only through its relation to other linguistic units. (P. S. Ginzburg et al). The meaning is the realization of the notion by means of a definite language system (by a linguistic sign).

So the term «meaning» is a subject of discussion among the linguists.

However , at present there is no universally accepted definition of meaning or rather a definition reflecting all the basic characteristic features of meaning and being at the same time operational . Thus , linguists state that meaning is "one of the most ambiguous and most controversial terms in the theory of language "(Steven Ullman).Leech states that the majority of definitions turn out to be a dead end not only on practical but on logical grounds . Numerous statements on the complexity of the phenomenon of meaning are found on the Russian tradition as well by such linguists as А.А. Потебня. И.А. Бодуэн де Куртене, Шерба, В. Виноградов, А. Смирницкий others .

However vague and inadequate , different definitions of meaning help to sum up the general characteristics of the notion comparing various approaches to the description of the content side of the language . There are three main categories of definitions which may be referred to as :

analytical or referential definition of meaning functional or contextual definition of meaning, operational or information-oriented definition of meaning.

Every word has two aspects: the outer aspect (its sound form) and the inner aspect (its meaning) . Sound and meaning do not always constitute a constant unit even in the same language. For example the word «temple» may denote «a part of a human head» and «a large church» In such cases we have homonyms. One and the same word in different syntactical relations can develop different meanings, **For example**, the verb «treat» in sentences:

- a) He treated my words as a joke. У менинг сўзларимни хазил деб хисоблади.
- b) The book treats of poetry. Китоб шеъриятга бағишланган.
- c) They treated me to sweets. Улар мени ширинликлар билан меҳмон қилишди.
- d) He treats his son cruelly. У ўз ўғлига қўпол муомала қилади.

In all these sentences the verb «treat» has different meanings and we can speak about polysemy.

On the other hand, one and the same meaning can be expressed by different sound forms. For example «pilot» , and «airman», «horror» and «terror». In such cases we have synonyms.

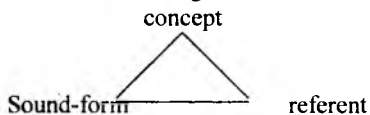
Both the meaning and the sound can develop in the course of time independently. For example the Old English /luvian/ is pronounced [l v] in Modern

English. On the other hand, «board» primarily means « a piece of wood» It has developed the meanings: a table, a board of a ship, a stage, a council etc.

The meaning of a word is the realization of a notion by means of a definite language system. A word is a language unit, while a notion is a unit of thinking. A notion cannot exist without a word expressing it in the language, but there are words which do not express any notion but have a lexical meaning. Interjections express emotions but not notions, but they have lexical meanings. For example Alas! /disappointment/, Oh, my buttons! /surprise/ etc. There are also words which express both, notions and emotions, For example girlie, a pig /when used metaphorically/.

The term «notion» was introduced into Lexicology from logics. A notion denotes the reflection in the mind of real objects and phenomena in their relations. Notions, as a rule, are international, especially with the nations of the same cultural level. While meanings can be nationally limited. Grouping of meanings in the semantic structure of a word is determined by the whole system of every language. **For example.** the English verb «go» and its Uzbek equivalent «бормок» have some meanings which coincide: to move from place to place, to extend /the road goes to London/, to work /Is your watch going?/. On the other hand, they have different meanings: in Uzbek we say : «Ана у келяпти» , in English we use the verb «come» in this case. In English we use the verb «go» in the combinations: «to go by bus», «to go by train» etc. In Russian in these cases we use the verb «ехать». The number of meanings does not correspond to the number of words, neither does the number of notions. Their distribution in relation to words is peculiar in every language. The Uzbek has two words for the English «man»: «эркак» and «одам, киши». In English, however, «man» cannot be applied to a female person. We say in Uzbek: «У яхши одам». In English we use the word «person»/ She is a good person»

Development of meanings in any language is influenced by the whole network of ties and relations between words and other aspects of the language. The scientists tried to find the essence of meaning establishing the interdependence between words of the objects or phenomena they denote . The best known analytical model of meaning is the so-called "basic triangle".



They are connected directly that means that if we hear a sound-form a certain idea arises in our mind and the idea brings out a certain referent that exists in the reality.

But the sound-form and the referent are connected indirectly because there are no objects or phenomena in the reality that predict a certain sound-form , that need to be named by a certain sequence of sounds . The strongest point in the

approach is an attempt to link the notion of meaning with the process of naming the objects, processes or phenomena of concrete reality. The analytical definitions of meaning are usually criticized on the grounds that they cannot be applied to sentences.

For example. *The sentence " I like to read long novels " does not express single notion, it represents composites of notions specifying the relations between them.*

The referential definition of meaning can hardly be applied to semantic additions that come to the surface in the process of communication.

For example. *"That's very clever " may mean different sorts of things including that it is not clever at all.*

It has also been stated that the referential approach fails to account for that fact that one word may denote different objects and phenomena. That is the case of polysemy. On the other hand one and the same object may be denoted by different words and that is the case of synonymy.

Another approach to the definitions of meaning is functional or contextual. Proceeding from the assumptions that the true meaning of a word is to be found by observing what a man does with it not what he says about it, the functional approach to meaning defines it as the use of the word in the language. It has been suggested that the meaning of a word is revealed by substituting different contexts.

For example. *The meaning of the word cat may be singled out of contexts:*

*cats catch mice. I bought fish for my cat.
and similar sentences.*

To get a better insight in to the semantics of a word it is necessary to analyze as many contexts in which it is realized as possible. The question arises - when to stop collecting different contexts and what amount of material is sufficient to make a reliable conclusion about the meaning of a word? In practice it is guided by intuition which amount to the previous knowledge of the notions the given word denotes. Besides, there are contexts which are so infrequent that they can hardly be registered and quite obviously they have never been met by the speakers of the given language.

Nevertheless being presented with a context a native speaker proceeds not from a list of possible contexts but from something else. The functional approach to meaning is important because it emphasizes the fact that words are seldom if ever used in isolation and thus the meaning of a word is revealed only when it is realized in a context. But on the whole the functional approach may be described as a complimentary, additional to the referential one.

Operational definition of meaning is the defining meaning through its role in the process of communication. Just like functional approach information-oriented definitions are part of studying words in action. They are more interested in how the words work, how the meaning works than what the meaning is. The operational approach began to take shape with the growing interest of linguists in the communicative aspect of the language when the object of study was shifted to the relations between the language we use and the situations within which it is

used. In this frame-work meaning is defined as information conveyed from the speaker to the listener in the process of communication. The definition is applicable both to words and sentences and thus overcomes one of the drawbacks of the referential approach. The problem is that it is more applicable to sentences than to words and even as such fails to draw a clear distinguishing line between the direct sense (that is meaning) and implication (that is additional information).

For example. Thus the sentence "John came at 6 o'clock" besides the direct meaning may imply that John was 2 hours late, that he was punctual as usual, that it was a surprise "or John to come, that he came earlier, that he was not expected at all and many others.

In each case the implication would depend on the concrete situation of communication. And discussing meaning as the information conveyed would amount to the discussion of an almost endless set of possible communication situations which in the end will bring us back to a modified contextual or functional approach to meaning. The distinction between the two layers in the information conveyed is so important that two different terms may be used to denote them: the direct information conveyed by the units which build up a sentence may be referred to as meaning while the information added to the given extralinguistic situation may be called sense.

Treating the meaning of a word by the referential approach is not quite clear. This point of view can hardly be accepted because meaning is not identical with the referent, there are words which do not denote a referent, **For example.** angel [ˈeɪndʒ(ə)], Besides one and the same referent may be denoted by different words.

For example. synonyms. But the sound form of the word is not identical with its meaning. **For example.** spring1, spring 2, spring3.

Our concept is abstract and is connected with the referent but they are not identical. The meanings of words are different in different languages.

For example. the concept of «a building for human habitations is expressed in English by the words «house», in Russian by "дом", in Uzbek by «уй». But the English word «house» does not possess the meaning of «fixed residence of family» (оила яшайдиган жой; место где семья обидает) which is one of the meanings of the Russian word « дом » and Uzbek « уй ». In this meaning in English the word «home» is used. **For example.** (уйга кетмок- идти домой)—to go home; Мен яшайдиган жой- место где семья обидает —the house where I live.

By the functional approach the meaning can be found only through context, through its relation to other words. **For example.** to take the tram (a taxi), to take off, to take care of, to take ill, to take a degree, to take cold, to take it easy, to take on, to take place, to take tea, to take a bath, to take five minutes, to take notice, to take part in, to take a book, to make a table, to make a teacher, to make out, to make somebody do smth, to make up, to make up one's mind; to look at, to look forward, to look for, to look after, to look through, to look pale, to look like;

§2. Types of meaning. Motivation of the word

... lexical items are traditionally said to have both «lexical» and «grammatical» meaning. *For example* «cow» not only signifies a particular concept (the material or lexical meanings of the item) but it does so according to a particular mode of signifying. *For example* as a substance, a quality, an action, etc). (John Lyons)

The grammatical meaning is the formal meaning of a word. It is defined as the meaning belonging to the lexico— grammatical classes and grammatical categories. It is expressed by the word's form. Every word belongs to a definite part of speech and every part of speech has a certain grammatical categories. *For example* verbs have tense, voice, mood, person etc, Nouns have the categories of case, number etc. *For example*, the words «asked», «thought», «talked», «took, ran» have the grammatical meaning of tense. The grammatical meaning unites words into big groups such as parts of speech.

The lexical meaning is the material meaning of a word. This is a meaning which gives the concept of a word. By the lexical meaning the word expresses the basic properties of the thing the word denotes.

The lexical meaning of a word falls into two:

1) the denotational meaning, 2) the connotational meaning.

Denotational meaning makes communication possible because words denote things, concepts, they name them. *For example*, the denotational meaning of the word «table» is a piece of furniture consisting of a flat top with four supports (called legs). . . . words refer not only to thing but to the user's own feelings. The common term for the word's objective reference is «denotation». The common term for a word's emotional content is connotation. «Fragrance» (аромат), reek (вонь скверный запах) odor (запах, аромат) denote «smell». But «fragrance» connotes the speaker's approval of the smell, «reek» connotes his «revulsion (хис туйгуни бирдан ўзгариши- внезапные изменение чувств) and «odor» carries no connotation at all. (Richard M: Eastman).

Thus, the connotational meaning is a meaning which has a stylistic shade. It serves to express all sorts of emotions, expressiveness. Connotation may be shortly defined as emotional and evaluative component of the lexical meaning, Comparing the meanings of English words «well-known», «famous», notorious» we see that all these words express the denotational meaning «widely known». But the word «famous» has a positive evaluative meaning and «notorious has a negative evaluation. So, the words «well-known», «famous», «no-torious» differ in their emotional colouring and evaluation.

Connotational meaning consists of such constituents as: emotion, evaluation and intensity (intensifying connotation). The word takes the emotional connotation in contexts corresponding to emotional situations. The denotational meaning is associated with emotions (*For example*. He besought a favour of the judge: Here the word «beseech besought p.t) means «to ask eagerly and also anxiously»).

The leading semantic component in the semantic structure of a word is usually termed denotative component (also, the term referential component may be used). The denotative component expresses the conceptual content of a word.

The following list presents denotative components of some English adjectives and verbs:

Denotative components

lonely, adj. - alone, without company ...

notorious, adj. - widely known

celebrated, adj. - widely known

to glare, v. - to look

to glance, v. - to look

to shiver, v. - to tremble

to shudder, v. - to tremble

It is quite obvious that the definitions given in the right column only partially and incompletely describe the meanings of their corresponding words. They do not give a more or less full picture of the meaning of a word. To do it, it is necessary to include in the scheme of analysis additional semantic components which are termed connotations or connotative components.

The above examples show how by singling out denotative and connotative components one can get a sufficiently clear picture of what the word really means. The schemes presenting the semantic structures of "glare", "shiver", "shudder" also show that a meaning can have two or more connotative components.

The given examples do not exhaust all the types of connotations but present only a few: emotive, evaluative connotations, and also connotations of duration and of cause.

Evaluative connotation denotes approval or disapproval relations to the thing or phenomena, *For example.* colt—a young male horse used for a young unexperienced person; pup—a young dog used for a person. These words have negative evaluation. But in English we have words which have positive evaluation (*For example* bunny—(кролик) (куёнча), bunting—жонгинам (лапочка).

Intensifying connotation is the reinforcement of the sign: it indicates the special importance of the thing expressed. *For example.* awfully glad, terribly important.

The connotational meaning may be expressed also either in the emotive charge or in stylistic reference.

For example. «aunt» and «auntie». These words have the same denotational meaning but the word «aunt» has no emotive charge but «auntie» has it. The Uzbek «қиз» has no emotive charge, but «қизча» has.

Stylistically words can be subdivided into literary, neutral and colloquial layers. Neutral words are words of general use. *For example.* the words «to begin» (бошламок, начинать) and «to commence» (бошламок, начинат), «dad» and «father» have the same denotational meanings but «to begins and «father» are stylistically neutral words, whereas «dad» is a colloquial word and «to commence

stylistically a literary word. In Uzbek «ота» is a neutral word but «ата», «*o'ada*» are colloquial.

Besides the lexical and grammatical meanings we can observe differential, functional and distributional meanings of a word. Differential meaning is the semantic component that serves to distinguish one word from others in words containing the same (identical) morphemes.

For example. «note-book». The morpheme «note» serves to distinguish the word from other words: exercise-book, copy-book or: bookshelf, bookcase. The functional meaning may be seen in derivational morphemes. If we see the words with the suffixes -ment, -er, -ity, -or we say that they are nouns. Ex. establishment, plurality, teacher, translator, sailor. If -ful, -less, -able, -al etc. are present in words we say adjectives. **For example.** helpful, handless, guiltless, readable, national, writable, operational, openable, proposal.

The distributional meaning is found in all words having more than one morpheme. It is found in the arrangement and order of morphemes making up the word. **For example.** «teacher» but not *erteach*. «boyisness» but not *nessboyish.

Different types of the lexical meaning of one and the same word are considered its lexico-semantic variants. Lexico-semantic variants in their correlations and interconnection form the semantic structure of the word. In the semantic structure of the word there is a special information on the members and the conditions of communication. The intercourse and personal contacts in real situations may reveal the pragmatic aspect of the lexical meaning of the word,

For example. «Hallo» is used in unofficial situations giving a signal at the same time to the friendly relations of the members of the communication.

The meaning of a word may be realized by its structure. A direct connection between the structural pattern of the word and its meaning is called the motivation of a word. Motivation may be morphological, phonetical and semantic. The relationship between morphemic structure and meaning is called morphological motivation. From this point of view the words may be motivated and non-motivated. **For example.** sing, tell, eat, read, open, go are non-motivated words because each of them has simple stem and one morpheme. If we can see a direct connection between the structural pattern of the word and its meaning we say that this word is motivated. So in most cases the derived and compound words are motivated and simple words are non-motivated. **For example.** eatable, readable, reader, doll-faced, singer are motivated but eat, read, doll, sing are non-motivated: ring, finger are non-motivated but finger-ring is motivated. The words may be partially motivated. **For example.** «cranberry» is partially motivated because the morpheme «cran» has no meaning.

If we see the connection between the phonetic structure of a word and its meaning we say that the word is phonetically motivated. **For example.** cuckoo, boom, cock-a doodle-doo, bow-wow, mew-mew, etc.

When the meaning of a word is metaphorically extended or when a word is used as a metaphorically extension of the central meaning we say the word is semantically motivated. *For example.* «He is my mother. Here «mother» is used metaphorically, the whole sentence means that «he looks after me like my mother. So the word «mother» is semantically motivated. «He is a fox». («He is cunning»), fox is semantically motivated.

We must differ two approaches to the study of motivation: 1) diachronic, 2) synchronic.

For example. the word «essex», «norfolk», «suttom» were non-motivated in old English.

But «East - Saxon», «North + Folk», «South Town» in Modern English are motivated. If we compare the motivation of words in different languages it may differ considerably.

For example. long-haired — узун сочли-длинноволос- motivated in 3 languages. But «overcoat» — is motivated in English, «пальто» — non-motivated, «curtain» — non-motivated, «занавес» — motivated, «парда» — non-motivated.

«If we use a word in a transferred meaning, metaphorical or otherwise the result will be semantically motivated: it will be transparent thanks to the connection between the two senses. Thus, when we speak of the root of an evil, the branches of a science, an offensive nipped in the «bud», the «flower» of a country's manhood, the «fruits» of peace or family — «tree», the use of these botanical terms is not arbitrary but motivated by some kind of similarity or analogy between their concrete meanings and the abstract phenomena to which they are applied*. (S. Ullmann)

Compare the meanings of the correlated words:

Осмон

Sky

1. Ер устида гумбаз шаклида
кўриниб турган мовий; само,
фалак, кўк.

1. Осмон
2. Иклим. оби ҳаво
3. under the open sky- очик ҳавода.

2. Кўчма. жуда баланд етиб
бўлмайдиган даражада юқори

§3. Semantic structure of the word

It is generally known that most words convey several concepts and thus possess the corresponding number of meanings. Most English words have many meanings. It should be noted that the wealth of expressive resources of a language largely depends on the degree to which polysemy has developed in the language. Sometimes people who are not very well informed in linguistic matters claim that a language is lacking in words if the need arises for the same word to be applied to several different phenomena. In actual fact, it is exactly the opposite.

When analysing the semantic structure of a polysemantic word, it is necessary to distinguish between two levels of analysis.

On the first level, the semantic structure of a word is treated as a system of meanings. For example, the semantic structure of the noun "fire" may be described in the following way:

1. огонь - олов
2. пожар - ўт
3. воодушевление, пыл - ташаббус, энтузиязм
4. свечение - ёкиш
5. жар, лихорадка - иссиклик

Meaning (I) holds a kind of dominance over the other meanings conveying the concept in the most general way whereas meanings (II)—(V) are associated with special circumstances, aspects and instances of the same phenomenon.

Meaning (I) (generally referred to as the main meaning) presents the centre of the semantic structure of the word holding it together. It is mainly through meaning (I) that meanings (II)—(V) (they are called secondary meanings) can be associated with one another, some of them exclusively through meaning (I) - the main meaning, as, for instance, meanings (IV) and (V).

It would hardly be possible to establish any logical associations between some of the meanings of the noun "bar" except through the main meaning [1]: It is not in every polysemantic word that such a centre can be found.

Some semantic structures are arranged on a different principle. In the following list of meanings of the adjective "dull" one can hardly hope to find a generalized meaning covering and holding together the rest of the semantic structure.

Dull, adj.

1. A dull book, a dull film - uninteresting, monotonous, boring.
2. A dull student - slow in understanding, stupid.
3. Dull weather, a dull day, a dull colour - not clear or bright.
4. A dull sound - not loud or distinct.
5. A dull knife - not sharp.
6. Trade is dull - not active.
7. Dull eyes (arch.) - seeing badly.
8. Dull ears (arch.) - hearing badly.

There is something that all these seemingly miscellaneous meanings have in common, and that is the implication of deficiency, be it of colour (m. III), wits (m. II), interest (m. I), sharpness (m. V), etc. The implication of insufficient quality, of something lacking, can be clearly distinguished in each separate meaning.

Dull, adj.

1. Uninteresting - deficient in interest or excitement.
2. ... Stupid - deficient in intellect.
3. Not bright - deficient in light or colour.
4. Not loud - deficient in sound.
5. Not sharp - deficient in sharpness.
6. Not active - deficient in activity.
7. Seeing badly - deficient in eyesight.

8. Hearing badly - deficient in hearing.

-The transformed scheme of the semantic structure of "dull" clearly shows that the centre holding together the complex semantic structure of this word is not one of the meanings but a certain component that can be easily singled out within each separate meaning.

On the second level of analysis of the semantic structure of a word: each separate meaning is a subject to structural analysis in which it may be represented as sets of semantic components.

The scheme of the semantic structure of "dull" shows that the semantic structure of a word is not a mere system of meanings, for each separate meaning is subject to further subdivision and possesses an inner structure of its own.

Therefore, the semantic structure of a word should be investigated at both these levels: 1) of different meanings, 2) of semantic components within each separate meaning. For a monosemantic word (i. e. a word with one meaning) the first level is naturally excluded.

The semantic structure of a word is the system and unity of all the types of meaning that a certain word possesses. The semantic structure has the national character,

The semantic structure of correlated words of two different languages can never cover each other. The major meaning is in most cases identical in two languages but others usually differ. The meaning «male child» can be found both in the English word «boy» and in its Uzbek equivalent «бола» but the meaning «servant» can't be found in the Uzbek word «бола».

The emotive value of the word may be different. *For example* the Russian word «красивый» may have ironical meaning whereas the English word is never used in this meaning. The Russian language has more morphological means than the English one. In English we have *girl* — *girlie*, in Uzbek — *қиз, қизча, қизалоқ*; but in Russian — *девушка, девчушка, девчонка, девка, девенка*; In English — «*house*», in Uzbek *yù* — *yùча*, but in Russian — *дом- домик,домишка*.

§4. Meaning and context

It's important that there is sometimes a chance of misunderstanding when a word is used in a certain meaning but accepted by a listener or reader in another.

It is common knowledge that context prevents from any misunderstanding of meanings. For instance, the adjective «dull», if used out of context, would mean different things to different people or nothing at all. It is only in combination with other words that it reveals its actual meaning; «*a dull pupil*», «*a dull play*», «*dull weather*», etc. Sometimes, however, such a minimum context fails to reveal the meaning of the word, and it may be correctly interpreted only through a second-degree context as in the following example: «*The man was large, but his wife was even fatter*». The word «*fatter*» here serves as a kind of indicator pointing that «*large*» describes a stout man and not a big one.

Current research in semantics is largely based on the assumption that one of the more promising methods of investigating the semantic structure of a word is by studying the word's linear relationships with other words in typical contexts, i. e. its combinability or collocability.

The scientists have established that the semantics of words which regularly appear in common contexts are correlated and, therefore, one of the words within such a pair can be studied through the other. They are so intimately correlated that each of them casts, as it were, a kind of permanent reflection on the meaning of its neighbour. If the verb "*to compose*" is frequently used with the object "*music*", so it is natural to expect that certain musical associations linger in the meaning of the verb "*to compose*". How closely the negative evaluative connotation of the adjective "*notorious*" is linked with the negative connotation of the nouns with which it is regularly associated: "*a notorious criminal*", "*thief*", "*gangster*", "*gambler*", "*-gossip*", "*liar*", "*miser*", etc.

All this leads us to the conclusion that context is a good and reliable key to the meaning of the word.

It's a common error to see a different meaning in every new set of combinations. For instance: "*an angry man*", "*an angry letter*". Is the adjective "*angry*" used in the same meaning in both these contexts or in two different meanings? Some people will say "two" and argue that, on the one hand, the combinability is different ("man" —name of person; "letter" -name of object) and, on the other hand, a letter cannot experience anger. True, it cannot; but it can very well convey the anger of the person who wrote it. As to the combinability, the main point is that a word can realize the same meaning in different sets of combinability. For instance, in the pairs "*merry children*", "*merry laughter*", "*merry faces*", "*merry songs*" the adjective "*merry*" conveys the same concept¹ of high spirits.

The task of distinguishing between the different meanings of a word and the different variations of combinability is actually a question of singling out the different denotations within the semantic structure of the word.

- 1) a sad woman,
- 2) a sad voice,
- 3) a sad story,
- 4) a sad scoundrel (- an incorrigible scoundrel)
- 5) a sad night (= a dark, black night, arch, poet.)

Obviously the first three contexts have the common denotation of sorrow whereas in the fourth and fifth contexts the denotations are different. So, in these five contexts we can identify three meanings of "*sad*".

1. Д.Ашурова. Стилистика текста в парадигме когнитивной лингвистики//
Филология масалалари –Тошкент 2003/1

Answer the following questions.

1. What is semantics busy with? 2. What does semantics study? 3. What is the definition of the term «meaning of a word!» 4. What is understood by the referential approach to meaning? 5. What is understood by the functional approach to meaning? 6. What is the difference between the grammatical meaning and the lexical meaning? 7. What types of the lexical meaning do you know? 8. What are the differential and functional meanings of the word? 9. What is the motivation of the word? 10. What types of motivation do you know? 11. What is meaning and context? 12. What is the semantic structure of the word?

II. Change of meaning of words

§1. Causes of semantic change

The meaning of a word is a changeable category. The causes of semantic changes may be either linguistic or extra-linguistic. Extra-linguistic causes are different changes in the life of the people speaking the language, the coming into existence of new notions and objects, changes in economic and social life, changes of ideas and etc. **For example.** the word «mill» originally meant ручная мельница (кўл тегирами). The development of industry gave use to the meaning «mill». **For example.** a cotton mill, a steel mill. The word «atom» meant indivisible substance. Now the scientists discovered that atom can be divided and this changes our concept of atomic indivisibility. A change in the meaning may be brought about by different linguistic developments in the lexical system as a whole.

The word may change its meaning by the shortening of a word group. **For example.** The old meaning of the verb «to starve» was «to die» and it was often used in the word group «to starve of hunger». The modern meaning of the verb «to starve is the result of the shortening of the word group. «to starve of hunger». The meaning of the word «weekly» a newspaper published weekly is the shortened form of the word group «weekly newspapers», «a musicals» is the shortened form of the word group «a musical comedy» etc.

The appearance of a new word which is synonymous to the word already existing in the language may cause a change in the meanings of words. **For example.** The old meaning of the word «deer» was an animal. It was used for all kinds of animals. When the Latin word «animal» came into the English language the meaning of the word «deer» was changed. Now it is used to name only one kind of animal (deer—олень, буғу).

The words may change their meaning when they are used transferentially, i. e. metaphorically or metonymically. A metaphor is a shift of meanings caused by the likeness (similarity of some property of two objects). Metaphor is based on the similarities of objects.

For example. The words «warm» and «cold» may be used to denote the certain qualities of human voices because of some kind of similarity between these qualities and warm and cold temperature warm temperature cold temperature

The usage of proper names for common nouns may cause a metaphor too. Some scientists use widely some characters. **For example.** He is a pushkin of our days (he is a very strong poet). She is a Pushkin. Sometimes the names of animals are used to denote the human qualities. **For example.** She is a fox (she is very cunning). She is a parrot (She is talkative).

We must differ a metaphor from a simile. In simile we use before the words «as» and «like». **For example.** She is a monkey (metaphor). She is like a monkey (similar).

Thus, a metaphor is a transfer of the meaning on the basis of comparison. Herman Paul points out that metaphor can be based on different types of similarity:

- a) similarity of shape, **For example.** head (of a cabbage), bottleneck, teeth (of a saw, a comb);
- b) similarity of position, **For example.** foot (of a page, of a mountain), head (of a procession);
- c) similarity of function, behaviour **For example.** a whip (an official in the British Parliament whose duty is to see that members were present at the voting);
- d) similarity of colour. **For example.** orange, hazel, chestnut etc.

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

Many metaphors are based on parts of a human body, **For example.** an eye of a needle, arms and mouth of a river, head of an army.

A special type of metaphor is when proper names become common nouns, **For example.** philistine - a mercenary person, vandals - destructive people, a Don Juan - a lover of many women etc.

Metonymy is a shift of meaning or a change of meaning caused by a close, stable, constant connection between two or more objects. Metonymy should not be mixed up with a metaphor. In metonymy a part is used instead of the whole but metaphor is based on the likeness. **For example.** She has a fox on (metonymy). It means she wears fur-coat made out of the fur of a fox. «black shirts» was given for fascists in Italy because the fascists wore black shirts, «red - coat» means British soldiers because they wore red uniforms. The kettle is boiling (water is boiling). Sometimes names of human organs may be used metonymically

For example. Will you lend me your ear? (listen to me). He has a good hand. (He has a good handwriting.)

The name of a person can be used to denote a thing connected with that person. **For example.** Do you know Byron? We mean his poems not himself. **For example.** I like Pushkin means I like his works. [Geographical names are also used metonymically. **For example.** boston — a name of town — material. Champagne — a province in France.

It is a transfer of the meaning on the basis of contiguity. There are different types of metonymy: a) the material of which an object is made may become the

name of the object, **For example.** a glass, boards, iron etc; b) the name of the place may become the name of the people or of an object placed there, **For example.** the House - members of Parliament, Fleet Street - bourgeois press, the White House - the Administration of the USA etc; c) names of musical instruments may become names of musicians, **For example.** the violin, the saxophone; d) the name of some person may become a common noun, **For example.** «boycott» was originally the name of an Irish family who were so much disliked by their neighbours that they did not mix with them, «sandwich» was named after Lord Sandwich who was a gambler. He did not want to interrupt his game and had his food brought to him while he was playing cards between two slices of bread not to soil his fingers; e) names of inventors very often become terms to denote things they invented, **For example.** «Watt», «Oni», «Roentgen» etc; f) some geographical names can also become common nouns through metonymy, **For example.** Holland (linen fabrics), Brussels (a special kind of carpets), china (porcelain), astrachan ~ (a sheep fur) etc.

§2. The result of semantic change

The result of semantic change can be observed in: 1) restriction (or narrowing) of meaning. Restriction of meaning is the capacity of a word to narrow its meaning in the course of historical development; 2) extension (or widening) of meaning. It is the expansion of polysemy in the course of its historical development, i.e. it is the widening of meaning. **For example.** The word «fowl» meant in old English «any bird» but in modern English it denotes a domestic hen or cock, — old meaning of «affection» was —any feeling, new meaning is a feeling of love. The word «junk» originally meant sailor's word meaning «old rope». Now it means «rubbish», useless stuff. This is an example of extension of meaning. The word «meat» originally meant «food» now it means one special type of food. This is an example of narrowing of meaning. As a result of change of meaning a word may get a new meaning which will be broader or more generalized than the old one. **For example.** «season». The old meaning of the word «season» was «spring». The new meaning is any part of the year. Here is another example. The old meaning of «to bootleg» was to sell alcoholic drinks illegally. New meaning is «to sell anything illegally».

The meaning of a word may become ameliorated as a result of semantic change. **For example.** the old meaning of the word «nice» was «foolish», now it means «good», «fine».

The old meaning of «marshal» was a servant who looked after horses. New meaning is a high military rank (маршал).

The meaning of a word may become deteriorated as a result of semantic change. **For example.** The old meaning of «villain» was «farm labourers, new meaning is ярамас (злодей). The old meaning of «knave» was—бола (мальчик), new meaning is «қаллоб» (машенник).

§3.Specialization of Meaning

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

The meaning of a word can specialize when it remains in the general usage. It happens in the case of the conflict between two absolute synonyms when one of them must specialize in its meaning to remain in the language, **For example.** The native word «*meat*» had the meaning «*food*», this meaning is preserved in the compound «*sweetmeats*». The meaning «*edible flesh*» was formed when the word «*food*», its absolute synonym, won in the conflict of absolute synonyms (both words are native). The English verb «*starve*» was specialized in its meaning after the Scandinavian verb «*die*» was borrowed into English. «*Die*» became the general verb with this meaning because in English there were the noun «*death*» and the adjective «*dead*». «*Starve*» got the meaning «to die of hunger» The third way of specialization is the formation of Proper names from common nouns, it is often used in toponimics, **For example.** The City - the business part of London, Oxford university town in England, the Tower -originally a fortress and palace, later -a prison, now - a museum. The fourth way of specialization is ellipsis. In such cases primarily we have a word-group of the type «*attribute + noun*», which is used constantly in a definite situation. Due to it the attribute can be dropped and the noun can get the meaning of the whole word-group, **For example.** «*room*» originally meant «*space*», this meaning is retained in the adjective «*roomy*» and word combinations: «*no room for*», «*to take room*», «*to take no room*». The meaning of the word «*room*» was specialized because it was often used in the combinations: «*dining room*», «*sleeping room*» which meant «*space for dining*», space for sleeping.

§4.Generalization of Meaning

It is a process contrary to specialization, in such cases the meaning of a word becomes more general in the course of time.

The transfer from a concrete meaning to an abstract one is most frequent, **For example.** «*ready*» (a derivative from the verb «*ridam*» - «*ride*») meant «*prepared for a ride*», now its meaning is «*prepared for anything*». «*Journey*» was borrowed from French with the meaning «*one day trip*», now it means «*a trip of any duration*».

All auxiliary verbs are cases of generalization of their lexical meaning because they developed a grammatical meaning : «*have*», «*be*», «*do*», «*shall*», «*will*» when used as auxiliary verbs. They have their lexical meaning when they are used as notional verbs or modal verbs. **For example.** «I have several books by this

writer» and «I have read some books by this author». In the first sentence the verb «have» has the meaning «possess», in the second sentence it has no lexical meaning, its grammatical meaning is to form Present Perfect.

Answer the following questions.

1. What causes of semantic change do you know? 2. What is the extralinguistic causes of semantic change? 3. What is the linguistic cause of semantic change? 4. What is a metaphor? 5. What is the similarity based on? 6. What is a metonymy? 7. What words are often used metonymically? 8. What is the restriction of meaning? 9. What is the extension of meaning? 10. What is the difference between the amelioration of meaning and the deterioration of meaning. 11. What is the specialization of meaning? 12. What is the generalization of meanings of a word?

III. Polysemy

§1. Definition of polysemy

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

Different meanings of a polysemantic word may come together due to the proximity of notions which they express. **For example.** the word «blanket» has the following meanings: a woolen covering used on beds, a covering for keeping a horse warm, a covering of any kind /a blanket of snow/, covering all or most cases /used attributively/, **For example.** We can say «a blanket insurance policy».

There are some words in the language which are mono semantic, such as most terms, /synonym, molecule, bronchites/, some pronouns /this, my, both/, numerals.

There are two processes of the semantic development of a word: radiation and concatenation (ўзаро боғлиқ). In cases of radiation the primary meaning stands in the centre and the secondary meanings proceed out of it like rays. Each secondary meaning can be traced to the primary meaning. **For example.** In the word «face» the primary meaning denotes «the front part of the human head connected with the front position the meanings: the front part of a watch, the front part of a building, the front part of a playing card were formed. Connected with the word «face» itself the meanings : expression of the face, outward appearance are formed.

In cases of concatenation secondary meanings of a word develop like a chain. In such cases it is difficult to trace some meanings to the primary one. **For example.** in the word «crust» the primary meaning «hard outer part of bread» developed a secondary meaning «hard part of anything a pie, a cake», then the meaning «harder layer over soft snow» was developed, then «a sullen gloomy person», then «impudence» were developed. Here the last meanings have nothing

to do with the primary ones. In such cases homonyms appear in the language. It is called the split of polysemy.

In most cases in the semantic development of a word both ways of semantic development are combined.

So, thus, polysemy is the existence within one word of several connected meanings. These meanings appeared as a result of the development and changes of its original meaning. Words are divided into two: polysemantic and monosemantic words. Polysemantic words are words which have more than two meanings. Monosemantic words have only one meaning. **For example.** The word «*man*» has eleven meanings in modern English: 1) человек (одам) 2) адвокат (адвокат) 3) мужчина (эркак) 4) мужественный человек (куркмас одам) 5) человечество (одамийлик) 6) слуга (хизматкор) 7) рабочий (ишчи) 8) муж (эр) 9) рядовые матросы (денгизчилар) 10) вассал (вассал) 11) пешка пиёда (шахматда)

The word «*room*» has 3 meanings: 1) комната (хона) 2) место (жой) 3) возможность (кулайлик).

The word «*new*» has 8 meanings: 1) новый (янги) 2) иной, другой (бошка) 3) недавний (яқинда келтирилган) 4) свежий (янги) 5) современный (замонавий) 6) передовой (илғор) 7) вновь обнаруженный (кайта топилган) 8) незнакомый (бегона)

«*Paint*» has 7 meanings: 1. красить (бўямок); 2. писать красками (бўёк билан чизмок); 3. описывать, изображать (тасвирамок); 4. приукрашивать (бўяб кўрсатмок); 5. румяниться, краситься (бўянмок); 6. пьянствовать (маст бўлмок); 7. смазывать (сурмок)

«*Picture*» has 9 meanings:

1. картина, рисунок (сурат);
2. копия, портрет (нусха);
3. представление (маълумот);
4. живописная поза (ранг-баранг сумбат, турли);
5. картинка, что-либо очень красивое (чиройли сурат);
6. кино (кино);
7. кинематография (кинематография);
8. *амер.* дело, сущность (асос, туб);
9. картина крови (кон расми);

For example. She is the picture of her mother. to form a clear picture of smth. living pictures in the air.

«*white*»:

white cloud белое облако (ок булутлар)
white collar *амер.* служащий (хизматкор)
white hair седой волос (ок соч)
white lie невинная ложь (айбсиз хато)
white house белый дом (ок уй)
white race счастливого пути (ок йўл)

white witch добрая колдунья (мехрибон сехраг)

Monosemantic words are mostly scientific terms: hydrogen. lasar, etc.

«The frequency of polysemy in different languages is a variable depending on a number of factors. The progress of civilization will make it necessary not only to form new words but to add fresh meanings to old ones: in Breal's formula, the more senses a term has accumulated, the more senses a term has accumulated the more diverse aspects of intellectual and social activity it represents. It would be interesting to explore over a wider field the relation between polysemy and cultural progress.

Meanwhile, the frequency of polysemy will also depend on purely linguistic factors. As already noted, languages where derivation and composition are sparingly used will tend to fill gaps in vocabulary by adding new meanings to existing terms. Similarly polysemy will arise more often in generic words whose meaning varies according to context than in specific terms whose sense is less subject to variation. The relative frequency of polysemy in various languages may thus provide a further criterion for semantic typology, though once again it is hard to see now this feature could be exactly measured. (*S. Ulmann*),

«Polysemy is a fertile source of ambiguity in language. In a limited number of cases, two major meanings of the same word are differentiated by formal means: *for example*, flexion (brothers—brethren, hanged—hung); word order (ambassador extraordinary — extraordinary ambassador; spelling (discreet — discrete, draft — draught etc). In the last majority of cases, however, the context alone will suffice to exclude all irrelevant senses. When all these safeguards break down, a conflict between two or more incompatible meanings will ensue and this may lead to the disappearance of some of these meanings, or even to that of the word itself. In the present state of our knowledge it is impossible to say whether there are any general tendencies at work in these conflicts and in the way they are resolved. (*S. Ulmann*).

§2. Synchronic and diachronic analysis of polysemy

Polysemy may be analysed from two ways: diachronically and synchronically. If polysemy is analysed diachronically it is understood as the development of the semantic structure of the word or we establish how the meaning of the word has changed whether it has got new meanings in the course of the development of the language. From the historical point of view one of the meanings of the word will be primary meaning; that is such a meaning of a word which was first registered. All other meanings are secondary meanings. The term secondary meaning shows that the meaning appeared in the language after the primary meaning was already established.

For example. the primary meaning of the word «fox» is *Јинца, лиса, лисица* (тулки урғочиси) but such meanings of this word as *лисий пух* (тулки жуни), *первокурсник* (биринчи курс студенти) are secondary meanings. Here are other examples: eye the primary meaning is *глаз* (кўз), secondary is *взгляд* (нигоҳ), *глазок в двери* (эшикдаги кўрадиган тешик), *ушко иголки* (игна кўзи),

петельки (тугма такиладиган тешик); «*father*» — the primary meaning is отец (ота), secondary is *старейший член* (ёши улугъ аъзо), *родоначальник* (кабила бошлиги), *духовный отец* (диний одам, рухоний) etc
«*fish*» — the primary meaning is рыба (балик), secondary is *нахал*, *наглец* (сурбет),

Synchronic study of word meaning words having one meaning are called monosemantic. Polysemy is the result of one process of the accumulation of meanings. The principal cause of polysemy according to Vinogradov's theory is discrepancy between the limited number of words and the unlimited number of things meant.

1. Frequency value. The more often a word is used the more meanings it has. **For example.** *Man, hand, take, see* are very often used in speech and they have many meanings.
2. Syllabic structure of words. The shorter a word is the more meanings it has. The more simple morphological structure a word has, the more meanings it has. **For example.** *Man, woman, table, cat, head, hand* etc.
3. Stylistic reference of words A word stylistically neutral having no emotive charge has more meanings while a word with a narrow stylistic reference and has less meanings. *Father- daddy, a horse- steed, girl- girlie*

From diachronical point of view we distinguish: primary meaning and secondary meaning. From synchronical point of view we distinguish between the central meaning and marginal meaning. Central meaning is the most generalized meaning. This is clear to us without any context. Marginal meanings are semantically connected with the central meaning, and they as if group around it.

Synchronically polysemy is understood as the coexistence of various meanings of the word at a certain historical period of the development of English. Synchronically the main problem of polysemy is to establish whether all the meanings of a word are equally important. We divide the meanings of a word into two: the major (or basic) meaning of a word and the minor meaning. In most cases the surrounding context points out quite clearly which of the meanings of a word is intended

- For example.** 1. It is a fox. Here «it» shows that the word «fox» is used in the meaning «лиса» (тулки).
2. He is a fox. The presence of «he» shows that «fox» is in the meaning of «хитрый» («айёр»).
3. She will fox him. We find the meaning from the position of «fox». It stands after the auxiliary verb «will» and the direct object «him». Here it is used in the meaning of обманывать (алдамок)

The meaning which is not dependent on context is the major (or basic) meaning of the word and the meanings which are dependent on the context are minor meanings. By context we mean the minimal stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word. **For example.** «to make» means «to produce

smth». This is its basic meaning but other meanings are minor meanings because they can be found only in a context.

The meaning of a word may be determined either by its lexical or by its grammatical context. **For example.** the verb «to take» in such lexical distributions as: take + tea (coffee, medicine)—its meaning is пить (ичмок); take + care — заботиться (гамхурлик килмок); take + off — раздеваться (ечмок); to take + tram, the metro, a bus — сесть на ... (трамвайга, автобусагу тушмок); The meaning «больной» of the adjective «ill» is brought out only by a syntactical pattern in which «ill» is used as a predicative (ex. the man is ill) while the syntactical pattern in which the word «ill» is used as an attribute, brings out the meaning— плохой (ёмон) вредный an ill man — плохой человек (ёмон одам).

§3. Polysemy and frequency of the word

The comparative study of the frequency value of different meanings of polysemantic words shows that the frequency value of individual meanings is different. **For example.** The meaning of the word «table» -стол (a piece of furniture) possesses the highest frequency value and comprises 52% of all uses of this word.

The meanings of polysemantic words have different stylistic references. **For example.** «jerk» in the meaning of «sudden movement» belongs to a neutral style but in the meaning of «an odd persons it is a slang (mostly expressive and ironical words). Stylistically neutral meanings are very frequent. In any historical period as a result of semantic development the secondary meaning of the word may become the central (major meaning of the word).

Polysemantic words are in most cases frequent, etymologically — native or morphologically -simple (which has simple stem). From the phonetical point of view they have mostly one syllable, stylistically they are neutral words. **For example.** heart, work, do, talk, etc.

There is however, another aspect of polysemy which can be more precisely quantified: its relation to word-frequency. By systematically comparing the relative frequency of various words with the number of senses in which they are used, the late Q. K. Zipf arrived at an interesting conclusion which he termed the «principle of diversity of meanings». According to Zipf there is a direct relationship between the number of different meanings of a word and its relative frequency of occurrences. He even tried to find a mathematical formula for this relationship: his calculations suggested that «different meanings of a word will tend to be equal to the square root of its relative frequency (with the possible exception of the few dozen most frequent words. (S. Ulman)

Answer the following questions:

1. What is understood by the term «polysemy»? 2. What is the difference between polysemantic and monosemantic words? 3. How do we analyse polysemy diachronically?. 4. How do we classify the meanings of polysemantic words

diachronically? 5. How do we classify the meanings of polysemantic words synchronically? 6. What is a context? 7. What types of contexts do you know? 8. What is the frequency value of meanings of polysemantic words? 9. What are the stylistic references of different meanings of words? 10. What is the semantic structure of correlated words in different languages? 11. What are the most characteristic features of polysemantic words.

IV. Homonyms

§1. The definition of homonyms

Homonyms are words which are different in meaning but identical in sound or spelling, or both in sound and spelling. Homonyms can appear in the language not only as the result of the split of polysemy, but also as the result of levelling of grammar inflexions, when different parts of speech become identical in their outer aspect, **For example.** «*care*» from «*caru*» and «*care*» from «*carian*». They can be also formed by means of conversion, **For example.** «*to slim*» from «*slim*», «*to water*» from «*water*». They can be formed with the help of the same suffix from the same stem, **For example.** «*reader*»/ a person who reads and a book for reading/.

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

Homonyms can develop through shortening of different words, **For example.** «*cab*» from «*cabriolet*», «*cabbage*», «*cabin*».

In Modern English homonyms are widely spread. Homonymic relation can be found not only in words but also: 1) between morphemes, **For example.** It's raining. Flattering won't help. Fill your glasses. All is well that ends well; 2) between words and morphemes, **For example.** He couldn't get over the shock. The watch is shockproof; 3) between words and word-combinations, **For example.** Don't run away. The runaway was caught; 4) between words and sentences. **For example.** I don't care. He took and I don't care attitude.

Li Homonyms differ in their wordformational activity. For example «*affect*₁»- has 8 derivatives (affective, affected, affectedly, affectation, affection, affectional, affectionally) whereas, «*affect*₂» has 3, (affectation, affecting, affected) ✓

The interdependence and interrelations of different peculiarities of homonymic pairs demand further investigation.

§2. Classifications of homonyms.

Walter Skeat classified homonyms according to their spelling and sound forms and he pointed out three groups: perfect homonyms that is words identical in sound and spelling, such as : «school» - «косяк рыбы» (балик суюги) and «школа» (мактаб); homographs, that is words with the same spelling but pronounced differently. *For example* «bow» - /bau/ - «ноклон» (таъзим) and /bou/ - «луг» (ёй); homophones that is words pronounced identically but spelled differently. *For example.* «night» - «ночь» (кеча) and «knight» - «рыцар».

Another classification was suggested by A.I Smirnitsky. He added to Skeat's classification one more criterion: grammatical meaning. He subdivided the group of perfect homonyms in Skeat's classification into two types of homonyms: perfect which are identical in their spelling, pronunciation and their grammar form, such as : «spring» in the meanings: the season of the year, a leap, a source, and homoforms which coincide in their spelling and pronunciation but have different grammatical meaning. *For example.* «reading» - Present Participle, Gerund, Verbal noun., to lobby - lobby .

A more detailed classification was given by I.V. Arnold¹. She classified only perfect homonyms and suggested four criteria of their classification: lexical meaning, grammatical meaning, basic forms and paradigms

According to these criteria I.V. Arnold pointed out the following groups: a) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings, basic forms and paradigms and different in their lexical meanings, *For example.* «board» in the meanings («a council») and «a piece of wood sawn thin»; b) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings and basic forms, different in their lexical meanings and paradigms, *For example.* to lie - lied - lied, and to lie - lay - lain; c) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, paradigms, but coinciding in their basic forms, *For example.* «light» / «lights», «light» / «lighter», «lightest»/; d) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, in their basic forms and paradigms, but coinciding in one of the forms of their paradigms, *For example.* «a bit» and «bit» (from «to bite»).

In I. V. Arnold's classification there are also patterned homonyms, which, differing from other homonyms, have a common component in their lexical meanings. These are homonyms formed either by means of conversion, or by levelling of grammar inflexions. These homonyms are different in their grammar meanings, in their paradigms, identical in their basic forms *For example.* «warm» - «to warm». Here we can also have unchangeable patterned homonyms which have identical basic forms, different grammatical meanings, a common component in their lexical meanings, *For example.* «before» an adverb, a conjunction, a preposition. There are also homonyms among unchangeable words which are different in their lexical and grammatical meanings, identical in their basic forms, *For example.* «for» - «для» and «for» - «ибо».

1. I.V. Arnold. The English Words. M., 1986

Homonyms must be studied diachronically and synchronically. Diachronically we study the origin of homonyms, the sources of homonyms, the time of their appearance in the language. Synchronically we analyse the present peculiarities of homonyms, their classification etc.]

Homonyms are classified into: 1) homonyms proper; 2) homophones; 3) homographs.]

Homonyms proper are words identical in pronunciation and spelling and different in meaning. **For example.** fast — quickly, fast_a — to do smth. quickly. back — назад (оркага), back₂ — спина (орка), spring₁ — пружина (пружина), spring₂ — весна (бахор), spring₃ — родник (булок).

Homophones are words of the same sound form but of different spelling and meaning. **For example.** air — воздух (хаво), him — гимн, heir — наследник (ворис), knight — night pail — ведро (челак,) piece — peace, pale — бледный (окарган), write — right, son — сын (Ўгил), see — sea, sun — солнце (куёш), read — reed, pray — prey.

Homographs are words which are different in sound and in meaning but identical in spelling. **For example.** lead [li:d], lead [led], tear [tiə] tear [tiə], wind [wind] wind [waɪnd], bow [bou] bow [bau].

«We can approach homonyms from a different point of view and classify them into lexical and grammatical homonyms. Lexical homonyms are words of the same part of speech but of quite a different meaning, so that there is no semantic relation between them, **For example.** piece₁ — булак (кусок) peace₂ — тинчлик (мир).

Grammatical homonyms are words of different parts of speech:

work — иш (работа), to work — ишламок (работать), light — ёруғлик (свет) light — энгил (легко).

Wide - spread grammatical homonymy constitutes one of the specific features of English words. Grammatical homonyms are extremely numerous in the English language, (*M. A. Kashcheyeva and others*)

Prof. Smirnitsky has suggested his classification of homonyms based on the lexico-grammatical principle. He distinguished the following types of homonyms:

1) lexical homonyms are those words which belong to one part of speech but they differ only in their lexical meaning. **For example.** seal *n* — a sea animal seal *n* — a design printed on paper, stamp. hair_n — hare_n, ball_n — ball_n

2) Lexico-grammatical homonyms are those words which differ in their lexical and grammatical meanings. **For example.** sea — to see seal *n* — a sea animal, to seal *v* — to close tightly, work *n* — to work *u*, well *adv* — well *n* — колодец (кудук). There may be cases when lexico-grammatical homonyms are observed within the same part of speech. **For example.** The words «found» (past tense of «to finds») and «found» (present tense of «to found») differ both grammatically and lexically.

3) grammatical homonymy is the homonymy of the different wordforms of one and the same word (part of speech). *For example.* boys₁ — boy's₂, asked₁ — past tense asked₂ — p. II.

§3. The sources of homonyms

There are some sources of homonyms. They are:

1) divergent meaning development of one polysemantic word. Different meanings of the same word move so far away from each other (differ from each other) and they become two different words.

For example. Spring₁ — сакрамок (прыгаць), spring₂ — булок (родник), spring₃ — бахор (весна), can be etymologically traced back to the same source, «flower» and «flour» which originally were one word (M. E. flour). The meaning was «the flower» and «the finest part of wheat», now they are different words.

2) many homonyms came as a result of converging sound development. *For example.* OE ic and OE aze have become identical in pronunciation. I *pron* and eye (*n.*), love (*v*) — love *n* (OE lufu — lufian)

3) many homonyms arose from conversion, they have related meanings *For example.* paper — to paper, support — to support. Some linguists think that converted pairs must not be included in homonyms. This question demands further investigation.

4) The formation of different grammatical forms may cause homonyms: girl's — girls.

5) borrowed words may become homonyms as a result of phonetic convergence. *For example.* Scandinavian «ras» and French race are homonymous in English: race₁ — пойма (состязание), race₂ — рейс case₁ — келишник (падеж), case₂ — чемодан, case₃ — вазият (случай)

§4. The difference between homonymy and polysemy

In polysemy we deal with the different meanings of the same word. In homonymy we have different words which have their own meanings. The problem of difference between polysemy and homonymy is a subject of discussion among the linguists

«... The trouble of today is, however, that lexical homonyms often enough come together with polysemy. There is no hard and fast line of demarcation between the meanings of a polysemantic word and lexical homonymy. For instance, there is hardly any semantic connection in Modern English between nail - коготь and nail — гвоздь notwithstanding the fact that both of them may be traced back to different meanings of one and the same word». (M. A. Kascheyeva)

In most cases the semantic definition of words may be the criteria for the difference of polysemy and homonymy. *For example.*

Table

- 1) **table** — piece of furniture consisting of a flat top with (usu. four) supports (called legs)
 - 2) **table** — (sing, only) people seated at a table
 - 3) **table** — (sing, only) food provided at a table
 - 4) **table** — list of orderly arrangement of facts, information, etc (use in columns)
- We'll explain the second and the third meanings by substituting them with the help of the definition of the first meaning.

2) **table** — people seated at a piece of furniture;
 3) **table** — food served at a piece of furniture. So these two meanings of the word «table» are the meanings of one word «table» because they can be substituted by the first meaning. The fourth meaning «таблицы» can't be substituted by the first meaning (list — number of names (persons, items) written or printed) This gives us the right that the fourth meaning of the word «table» is the homonym to the previous three meaning.

Beam

- 1) **beam** — long horizontal piece of squared timber or of steel supported at both ends, used to carry the weight of a building etc;
- 2) **beam** — horizontal cross timber in a ship, joining the sides and supporting the deck (s), the greatest width of a ship.
- 3) **beam** — crosspiece of a balance, from which the scales hang.
- 4) **beam** — ray or stream of light. The first, second and third meanings are defined by the common semantic component and they may be defined with the words «horizontal and «timber» and may be transformed by the first meaning of the word. But the fourth meaning has no common semantic component with the first, second and third meanings (stream — steady flow (of light): light — that which makes thing visible).

Some scientists say that the substitution of different meanings of words by the synonyms may help to differ homonyms from polysemantic words.

For example. voice₁ — sounds uttered in speaking (sound)

voice₂ — mode of uttering sounds in speaking (sound)

voice₃—the vibration of the vocal cords in sounds uttered (“sound”) voice₄ - the form of the verb that express the relation of the subject to the action. voice₁ – voice₂ – voice₃ are not homonyms although they have different meanings because they can be substituted by the synonym “sound” as far as voice₄ is concerned. It is a homonym because it can't be substituted by the word “sound”

V. Abayev gave etimological criterion. He says homonyms are words which have different sources and only coincides phonetically **For example.** race₁ (O. N. ras), race₂ (F. race). I (O. E. ic)— eye (O. E. eaze)

Thus, the first, second and third meanings are the different meanings of one polysemantic word «beam». But the fourth is a homonym to them.

«... the sense, it goes without saying, depends on the referent and the nature of the referent has to be defined by the context. Thus, the «cat» of «The cat sat on the mat» is different from the «cat» of «Bring back the cat for thugs and rapists». We

cannot say that «cat» is a single word possessing two distinct meanings; there are two words phonemically identical but semantically different; we call these «homonyms». The «cat» of the second sentence refers back etymologically — by the grim fancy of «cat o'nine tails» — to the cat of the hearthrug, but word — origin can never be invoked, as we have already pointed out, in the examination of meanings. (*A. Burgers*)

Answer the following questions.

1. What is a homonym? 2. How do we analyse homonyms? 3. What is the classification of homonyms? 4. What is a homonym proper? 5. What is a homophone? 6. What is a homograph? 7. What principle of classification of homonyms was given by Smirnitsky? 8. What are the main sources of homonyms? 9. What is the difference between homonymy and polysemy? 10. What is the interrelation of homonymic pairs?

V. Synonyms

§1. Criteria of synonymy

Words can be classified in different ways. The classification of words may be based upon: similarity of meanings and polarity of meanings of words. The similarity of meanings is found in synonymic groups.

Synonyms in their turn are words coinciding in their emotional and stylistic fields.

Synonymy is one of modern linguistics most controversial problems. The very existence of words traditionally called *synonyms* is disputed by some linguists; the nature and essence of the relationships of these words is hotly debated and treated in quite different ways by the representatives of different linguistic schools.

“... there has been, a good deal of work devoted to the investigation of lexical systems . . . with particular reference to such fields as kinship, colour, flora and fauna, weights and measures, military ranks, moral and aesthetic evaluation and various kinds of knowledge, skill and understanding. The results obtained have conclusively demonstrated the value of the structural approach to semantics, and have confirmed the pronouncements of such earlier scholars as Von Humboldt, de Saussure and Sapir to the effect that the vocabularies of different languages are nonisomorphic: that there are semantic distinctions made in one language which are not made in another . . . each language imposes a specific form on the prior undifferentiated substance of the content plane”. (J. Lyons)

Even though one may accept that synonyms in the traditional meaning of the term are somewhat elusive and, to some extent, fictitious it is certain that there are words in any vocabulary which clearly develop regular and distinct relationships when used in speech.

In the following extract, in which a young woman rejects a proposal of marriage, the verbs *like*, *admire* and *love*, all describe feelings of attraction, approbation, fondness:

«I have always *liked* you very much. I *admire* your talent, but, forgive me, — I could never *love* you as a wife should love her husband».
(From *The Shivering Sands* by V. Holt)

Yet, each of the three verbs, though they all describe more or less the same feeling of liking, describes it in its own way: "I like you, i. e. I have certain warm feelings towards you, but they are not strong enough for me to describe them as "love". — so that *like* and *love* are in a way opposed to each other. . The duality of synonyms is, probably, their most confusing feature: they are somewhat the same, and yet they are most obviously different. Both as of their dual characteristics are essential for them to perform their function in speech: revealing different aspects, shades and variations of the same phenomenon.

"— Was she a *pretty* girl?

— I would certainly have called her *attractive*."

(Ibid.)

The second speaker in this short dialogue does his best to choose the word which would describe the girl most precisely: she was good-looking, *but pretty* is probably too good a word for her, so that *attractive* is again in a way opposed to *pretty* (*not pretty*, only *attractive*), but this opposition is, at the same time, firmly fixed on the sameness of *pretty* and *attractive*: essentially they both describe a pleasant appearance.

Here are some more extracts which confirm that synonyms add precision to each detail of description and show how the correct choice of a word from a group of synonyms may colour the whole text.

The first extract depicts a domestic quarrel. The infuriated husband shouts and glares at his wife, but "his *glare* suddenly softened into a *gaze* as he turned his eyes on the little girl" (i. e. he had been looking furiously at his wife, but when he turned his eyes on the child, he looked at her with tenderness).

The second extract depicts a young father taking his child for a Sunday walk.

"Neighbours were apt to smile at the long-legged bare-headed young man leisurely strolling along the street and his small companion demurely trotting by his side." (From *Some Men and Women* by B. Lowndes)

The synonyms *stroll* and *trot* vividly describe two different styles of walking, the long slow paces of the young man and the gait between a walk and a run of the short-legged child.

In the following extract an irritated producer is talking to an ambitious young actor:

"Think you can play Romeo? Romeo should *smile*, not *grin*, *walk*, not *swagger*, *speak* his lines, not *mumble* them." (Ibid.)

Here the second synonym in each pair is quite obviously and intentionally contrasted and opposed to the first: "... smile, *not grin*." Yet, to *grin* means more or

less the same as *to smile*, only, perhaps, denoting a broader and a rather foolish smile. In the same way *to swagger* means "to walk", but to walk in a defiant or insolent manner. *Mumbling* is also a way of speaking, but of speaking indistinctly or unintelligibly.

Synonyms are one of the language's most important expressive means. The above examples convincingly demonstrate that the principal function of synonyms is to represent the same phenomenon in different aspects, shades and variations.

A group of synonyms may be studied with the help of their dictionary definitions (definitional analysis). In this work the data from various dictionaries are analysed comparatively. After that the definitions are subjected to transformational operations (transformational analysis). In this way, the semantic components of each analysed word are singled out.

In modern research on synonyms the criterion of interchangeability is sometimes applied. According to this, synonyms are defined as words which are interchangeable at least in some contexts without any considerable alteration in denotational meaning.

This criterion of interchangeability has been much criticised. Every or almost every attempt to apply it to this or that group of synonyms seems to lead one to the inevitable conclusion that either there are very few synonyms or, else, that they are not interchangeable.

Synonyms are frequently said to be the vocabulary's colours. Attempts at ascribing to synonyms the quality of interchangeability are equal to stating that subtle tints in a painting can be exchanged without destroying the picture's effect.

All this does not mean that no synonyms are interchangeable. One can find whole groups of words with half-erased connotations which can readily be substituted one for another. The same girl can be described as *pretty*, *good-looking*, *handsome* or *beautiful*. Yet, even these words are far from being totally interchangeable. Each of them creates its own picture of human beauty. Here is an extract in which a young girl addresses an old woman: "I wouldn't say you'd been exactly *pretty* as a girl — *handsome* is what I'd say. You've got such strong features."

(From *The Stone Angel* by M. Lawrence)

So, *handsome* is not pretty and pretty is not necessarily handsome. Perhaps they are not even synonyms? But they are. Both, the criterion of common denotation ("good-looking, of pleasing appearance") and even the dubious criterion of interchangeability seem to indicate that.

It is sufficient to choose any set of synonyms placing them in a simple context to demonstrate the point. Let us take, for example, the following synonyms. *He glared at her* (i. e. He looked at her angrily). *He gazed at her* (i. e. He looked at her steadily and attentively; probably with admiration or interest). *He glanced at her* (i. e. He looked at her briefly and turned away). *He peered at her* (i. e. He tried to see her better, but something prevented: darkness, fog, weak eyesight).

These few simple examples are sufficient to show that each of the synonyms creates an entirely new situation which so sharply differs from the rest that any attempt at "interchanging" anything can only destroy the utterance devoiding it of any sense at all.

Consequently, it is difficult to accept interchangeability as a criterion of synonymy because the specific characteristic of synonyms, and the one justifying their very existence, is that they are not, cannot and should not be interchangeable.

In conclusion, let us stress that even if there are some synonyms which are interchangeable, it is quite certain that there are also others which are not. A criterion, if it is a criterion at all, should be applicable to all synonyms and not just to some of them. Otherwise it is not acceptable as a valid criterion.

§2. Classification of synonyms

Synonyms are two or more words having the same essential meaning or, sometimes nearly the same meaning, but different shades of meanings. They are words coinciding in their notional just but different in their emotional or stylistic shades of meaning.

Synonyms usually fall into several groups: 1) absolute synonyms; 2) phraseologic synonyms; 3) ideographic synonyms; 4) stylistic synonyms.

The only existing classification system for synonyms was established by Academician V. V. Vinogradov, the famous Russian scholar. In his classification system there are three types of synonyms: *ideographic* (which he defined as words conveying the same concept but differing in shades of meaning), *stylistic* (differing in stylistic characteristics) and *absolute* (coinciding in all their shades of meaning and in all their stylistic characteristics).

However, the following aspects of his classification system are open to question.

Firstly, absolute synonyms are rare in the vocabulary and, on the diachronic level, the phenomenon of absolute synonymy is anomalous and consequently temporary: the vocabulary system invariably tends to abolish it either by rejecting one of the absolute synonyms or by developing differentiation characteristics in one or both (or all) of them. Therefore, it does not seem necessary to include absolute synonyms, which are a temporary exception, in the system of classification.

The vagueness of the term "shades of meaning" has already been mentioned. Furthermore there seems to be no rigid demarcation line between synonyms differing in their shades of meaning and in stylistic characteristics, as will be shown later on. There are numerous synonyms which are distinguished by both shades of meaning and stylistic colouring. Therefore, even the subdivision of synonyms into ideographic and stylistic is open to question. A more modern and a more effective approach to the classification of synonyms may be based on the definition describing synonyms as words differing in connotations. It seems convenient to classify connotations by which synonyms differ rather than

synonyms themselves. It opens up possibilities for tracing much subtler distinctive features within their semantic structures.

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

Sometimes one of the absolute synonyms is specialized in its usage and we get stylistic synonyms. **For example.** «to begin»/ native/, «to commence» /borrowing/. Here the French word is specialized. In some cases the native word is specialized, **For example.** «welkin» /bookish/, «sky» /neutral/.

Stylistic synonyms can also appear by means of abbreviation. In most cases the abbreviated form belongs to the colloquial style, and the full form to the neutral style. **For example.** «examination». «exam».

Among stylistic synonyms we can point out a special group of words which are called euphemisms. These are words used to substitute some unpleasant or offensive words, e.g «the late» instead of «dead», «to perspire» instead of «to sweat» etc.

Complete synonyms do not exist. Bloomfield says each linguistic form has a constant and specific meaning.

«In contemporary linguistics it has become almost axiomatic that complete synonymy does not exist. In the words of Bloomfield each linguistic form has a constant and specific meaning. If the forms are phonemically different, we suppose that their meanings are also different. We suppose in short, that there are no actual synonyms». (S. Ullmann),

Polysemantic words can not be synonymous in all their meanings. **For example.** The verb «look» is a synonym of see, watch, observe, in the meaning of «смотреть» but in another of its meaning it is synonymous with the verbs seem, appear (to look pale).

There are also phraseological synonyms, these words are identical in their meanings and styles but different in their combining with other words in the sentence, **For example.** «to be late for a lecture» but «to miss the train», «to visit museums» but «to attend lectures» etc.

Synonyms which differ in their denotational meanings are called ideographic synonyms. **For example.** Beautiful (usually about girls) and handsome (usually

about men). These are ideographic synonyms but «to die—to pass away», the neutral words have their stylistically coloured words.

to see (neutral)	but-	to behold (bookish)
a girl (neutral)	but-	a maiden (poetic)
money (neutral)	but-	dough (colloquial)
food (neutral)	but-	grub (colloquial)
to live (neutral)	but-	to hand out (colloquial)

Prof. E. S. Aznaurova¹ points out that stylistic synonyms carry emotional evaluative information.

Synonyms are distributionally different words. *For example*. «too» «also» «as well» are synonyms. They always occur in different surroundings. The synonyms differ in their collocability. *For example*. We compare the collocability of synonyms «to book» and «to buy».

possible

to book in advance
to book somebody
to book seats
to buy cheaply
to buy from a person
to buy a house

impossible

to buy in advance
to buy somebody
to buy seats
to book cheaply
to book from a person
to book a house

§3. The dominant synonym

The dominant synonym expresses the notion common to all synonyms of the group in the most general way, without contributing any additional information as to the manner, intensity, duration or any attending feature of the referent. So, any dominant synonym is a typical basic-vocabulary word. Its meaning, which is broad and generalised, more or less "covers" the meanings of the rest of the synonyms, so that it may be substituted for any of them. It seems that here, at last, the idea of interchangeability of synonyms comes into its own. And yet, each such substitution would mean an irreparable loss of the additional information supplied by connotative components of each synonym. So, using *to look* instead of *to glare*, *to stare*, *to peep*, *to peer* we preserve the general sense of the utterance but lose a great deal in precision, expressiveness and colour.

The Dominant Synonym has high frequency of usage, broad combinability, i. e. ability to be used in combinations with various classes of words, broad general meaning, lack of connotations. This goes for stylistic connotations as well, so that neutrality as to style is also a typical feature of the dominant synonym.

In each group of synonyms there is a word with the most general meaning, which can substitute any word in the group, *For example*. «piece» is the synonymic dominant in the group «slice», «lump», «morseb». The verb «to look at» is the

1. Э. С. Азнаурова. Очерки по стилистике слова. —Ташкент. 1973

synonymic dominant in the group «to stare», «to glance», «to peep». The adjective «red» is the synonymic dominant in the group «purple», «scarlet», «crimson».

The attentive reader will have noticed much use was made of the numerous synonyms of the verb *to look*, and yet, the verb *to look* itself was never mentioned. That doesn't seem fair because it is, certainly, a verb which possesses the highest frequency of use compared with its synonyms, and so plays an important role in communication. Its role and position in relation to its synonyms is also of some importance as it presents a kind of centre of the group of synonyms, as it were, holding it together. Its semantic structure is quite simple: it consists only of denotative component and it has no connotations.

Thus, (or, at least, most) synonymic groups have a "central" word of this kind whose meaning is equal to the denotation common to all the synonymic group. This word is called the *dominant synonym*.

Here are examples of other dominant synonyms with their groups:

To surprise — *to astonish* — *to amaze* — *to astound*. To shout — *to yell* — *to bellow* — *to roar*.

To shine — *to flash* — *to blaze* — *to gleam* — *to glisten* — *to sparkle* — *to glitter* — *to shimmer* — *to glimmer*.

To tremble — *to shiver* — *to shudder* — *to shake*.

To make — *to produce* — *to create* — *to fabricate* — *to manufacture*.

Angry — *furious* — *enraged*. Fear — *terror* — *horror*.

§4. The Source of synonyms

When speaking about the sources of synonyms, besides desynonymization and abbreviation, we can also mention the formation of phrasal verbs, (For example «to give up» - «to abandon»), «to cut down» - «to diminish»).

The main sources of synonyms are:

1) borrowings: to ask—to question: (F)—to interrogate. (L) to begin (A, S) — to commence (F) —to initiate (L— rise (F) — ascend (L);

2) The formation of verb -f adverb (V + adv) combinations like «have a smoke». to rest — to have a rest to swim — to have a swim, to smoke — to have a smoke;

3) shortening: vacation — vac, doctor — doc, sister — sis;

4) conversion: laughter — laugh, 5) many set expressions consisting of a verb with a postpositive element form synonyms

For example. to choose — to pick out, to continue — to go on, to return — to bring back. |

6) euphemisms, i. e. words which are used instead of unpleasant words: *For example.* drunk-merry, lodger-paying guest, to die — to go away, commandment — command.

7) slang, i. e. emotionally coloured words which are the secondary names of objects. *For example.* сокрушитель, — crusher (полицейский), тюрьма— can (дословна консервная банка), убить — to bump off — (дословна пристукнуть).

казнить — to fry — (дословна заражить), голова—bean (дословна боб) или тиг (дословна кружка).

§5. Collocation of words.

R.H. Robins¹ states that «collocation» is meant the habitual association of a word in a language with other particular words in sentences. One of the meanings of «night» is its collocability with «dark» and of «dark», of course, collocation with «night». Word groups like «bright night», «dark days ... «White coffee», «black coffee», «white race» all have a range of situation of reference. Collocation is distinct from syntax in that one is concerned in collocation with each word as an individual lexical item in the company of other words as individual lexical items, and not, as in syntax, part of the grammatical level of analysis, with words as members of classes in relation to other words also as members of classes. Speakers become accustomed to the collocations of words and the mutual expectancies that hold between them in utterances irrespective of their grammatical relations as members of word classes or as 'parts of speech'.

A rather obvious example is given by Firth², who made use of the term as part of the technical terminology of linguistics: *dark* collocates with *night*, and vice versa. 'One of the meanings of *night* is its collocability with *dark*, and of *dark*, of course, collocation with *night*.* This statement does not, of course, exclude word groups like *bright night*, *dark day*, but just because of the less usual concomitance of such pairs, they stand out as more prominent in an utterance in which they occur than do *dark night* and *bright day*.

Collocations such as these are manifestly related to the referential and situational meaning of the words concerned, but collocation and situational meaning are different parts of the total statement of the use of words. In some other cases collocations are habitual but less closely connected with extralinguistic reference. *White coffee*, *black coffee*, *white wine*, *white race* all have a range of situational reference, but apart from the collocation of the particular second words in each pair the word *white* would not, in most utterances, be used with reference to the colours of the referents. Similar collocations in English involving colour words, but further removed from reference to actual colour surfaces, are *green with jealousy*, *red revolution*, *purple passage*. Some words in languages have, at least in certain styles, very limited uses, almost wholly circumscribable in their collocations. The word *maiden*, for example, in modern spoken English, is scarcely ever used as a synonym for *girl*, but principally occurs in collocation with a limited set of other words such as *voyage*, *speech*, *over* (in cricket), *aunt*, *lady* (English speakers can readily supply the others).

Conversely, words like *the*, *a*, *if*, *when*, and so on, are hardly subject to any collocational restrictions, and are found in almost any lexical company in the

1. R.H. Robins. General Linguistics. Londol, 1966

2. J.R. Firth. Papers in Linguistics 1934-1951. London, 1964

language that the grammar permits. For such words collocation is not a relevant part of the statement of their use; but with others (the majority) it is possible to set up collocational ranges of words with which given words will be found associated in their various grammatical constructions. The conjunction of two or more words quite outside the range of collocation and unprepared by any explanation, is likely to be incomprehensible or downright nonsensical, although its grammatical composition may be unexceptionable. A famous example of such a grammatical but nonsensical sentence is: "Colourless green ideas sleep furiously".

↓ Collocational ranges are unlike grammatical classes in that they are peculiar to each word, and almost certainly no two words in a language share exactly the same range and frequency of occurrence within a range, whereas grammatical classes may each contain many different words as members. Moreover collocations are far more personally variable among speakers of a single dialect within a language than are grammatical classes; borderline cases there are in grammar, where speakers may differ or be uncertain, as to whether a particular word form or word sequence is grammatically acceptable; but these are very few compared to the personal differences in collocational use and acceptance.

Sometimes different styles, types of utterance appropriate to specific types of situation are characterized by different collocations (consider the differences between *He's a proper rascal* and *that is a very proper observation*, and between *we've had a nice time today* and *we have here a nice point to decide*).

Special cases of collocations are what are called idioms and clichés. *Idiom* is used to refer to habitual collocations of more than one word, that tend to be used together, with a semantic function not readily deducible from the other uses of its component words apart from each other (English *she went for him hammer and tongs, they ran off hell for leather*). Knowledge of such individual features of a language, acquired by long experience, but unnecessary for ordinary intercourse, usually comes at the end of one's learning of a foreign language; hence a complete and near-complete mastery of one is often said to be «idiomatic». Some idioms preserve in use words that have otherwise become obsolete (English *to and fro, waifs and strays, kith and kin*).

R.N. Robins thinks when a collocation has become almost universal in a particular style, the contribution of some of its words comes to be nugatory, and often appears irritating and inelegant to listeners or readers who do not relish (as some seem to) that mode of discourse *For example*.the house agent's *desirable residence* (residence), the politician's *this modern age in which we are living* (this age), the journalist's *inside information* (information); the reader will be painfully able to multiply the examples from his own experience]. Clichés of this sort form a notable part of the public speaking style of many politicians all over the world, presumably because of intellectual laziness or in the hope of appealing to the emotions of people in political meetings, broadcasts, and the like, by the repeated use of words, such as *freedom, peace*, etc., to which favourable responses are

normally accorded; cliché-ridden talk is a good deal easier to produce than a serious examination of current political problems. (R. H. Robins)

VI. Antonyms

§1. Definition of Antonyms. Classification of antonyms

Antonyms are words belonging to the same part of speech, identical in style, expressing contrary or contradictory notions. Antonyms are words which belong to the same part of speech and have contrary meanings. *For example.* kind — cruel, good — bad, big — small, little — much.

V.N. Comissarov in his dictionary of antonyms classified them into two groups: absolute or root antonyms «late» - «early» and derivational antonyms «to please» - «to displease». Absolute antonyms have different roots and derivational antonyms have the same roots but different affixes. In most cases negative prefixes form antonyms / un-, dis-, non-/. Sometimes they are formed by means of suffixes -full and -less.

The difference between derivational and root antonyms is not only in their structure, but in semantics as well. Derivational antonyms express contradictory notions, one of them excludes the other. *For example.* «active»-«inactive». Absolute antonyms express contrary notions. If some notions can be arranged in a group of more than two members, the most distant members of the group will be absolute antonyms. *For example.* «ugly», «plain», «good-looking», «pretty», «beautiful», the antonyms are «ugly» and «beautiful».

Antonymy is the second class of oppositeness. It is distinguished from complementarity by being based on different logical relationships. For pairs of antonyms like good/bad, big/small only the second one of the above mentioned relations of implication holds. The assertion containing one member implies the negation of the other, but not vice versa. «John is good» implies that «John is not bad», but «John is not good» does not imply that «John is bad». The negation of one term does not necessarily imply the assertion of the other.

An important linguistic difference from complementaries is that antonyms are always fully gradable. *For example.* hot, warm, cold.

Converseness is mirror-image relations or functions, *For example.* husband/wife, pupil/teacher, precede/follow, above/below, before/after etc. «John bought the car from Bill» implies that «Bill sold the car to John». Mirror-image sentences are in many ways similar to the relations between active and passive sentences. Also in the comparative form: »Y is smaller than X, then X is larger than Y».

Not every word in a language can have antonyms. This type of opposition can be met in qualitative adjectives and their derivatives, *For example.* beautiful-ugly, to beautify - to uglify, beauty - ugliness. It can be also met in words denoting feelings and states. *For example.* respect - scorn, to respect - to scorn, respectful - scornful, to live - to die, alive - dead, life - death. It can be also met among words

denoting direction in space and time, For example here - there, up - down , now - never, before - after, day - night, early - late etc.

Antonyms are not always interchangeable in certain contexts. *For example*. «rich voices» can not be changed into «poor voice». The opposite of a short person is a tall person. A short thing —long thing, an old book — a new book, an old man—a young man, a thin man—a fat man, a thin book — a thick book.

Antonyms may be found among adjectives as: good — bad, deep — shallow, nouns as: light —darkness; verbs as «to give» and «to take»; adverbs as quickly—slowly, early — late.

Many antonyms are explained by means of the negative particle «not». *For example*. clean — not dirty, shallow—not deep. Antonyms form pairs, not groups like synonyms: bad—good, big—little, alike — different, old — new.

Polysemantic words may have antonyms in some of their meanings and none in the others. *For example*. When the word «criticism means «blame» its antonym is «praise», when it means «рецензия» it has no antonym.

Antonyms indicate words of the same category of parts of speech which have contrasting meanings, such as *hot — cold, light — dark, happiness — sorrow, to accept — to reject, up — down*.

If synonyms form whole, often numerous, groups, antonyms are usually believed to appear in pairs. Yet, this is not quite true in reality. For instance, the adjective *cold* may be said to have *warm* for its second antonym, and *sorrow* may be very well contrasted with *gaiety*.

On the other hand, a polysemantic word may have an antonym (or several antonyms) for each of its meanings. So, the adjective *dull* has the antonyms *interesting, amusing, entertaining* for its meaning of "deficient in interest", *clever, bright, capable* for its meaning of "deficient in intellect", and *active* for the meaning of "deficient in activity", etc.

Antonymy is not evenly distributed among the categories of parts of speech. Most antonyms are adjectives which is only natural because qualitative characteristics are easily compared and contrasted: *high — low, wide — narrow, strong — weak, old—young, friendly — hostile*.

Verbs take second place, so far as antonymy is concerned. Yet, verbal pairs of antonyms are fewer in number. Here are some of them: *to lose — to find, to live — to die, to open — to close, to weep — to laugh*.

Nouns are not rich in antonyms, but even so some examples can be given: *friend*

— *enemy, joy — grief, good — evil heaven — earth*.

Antonymic adverbs can be subdivided into two groups: a) adverbs derived from adjectives: *warmly — coldly, merrily — sadly, loudly — softly*; b) adverbs proper: *now — then, here — there, ever — never, up — down, in — out*.

Not so many years ago antonymy was not universally accepted as a linguistic problem, and the opposition within antonymic pairs was regarded as purely logical and finding no reflection in the semantic structures of these words.

The contrast between *heat* and *cold or big* and *small*, said most scholars, is the contrast of things opposed by their very nature.

§2. Some debatable points of antonyms

Leonard Lipka in the book «Outline of English Lexicology» describes different types of oppositeness, and subdivides them into three types:

- a) complementary, *For example.* male -female, married -single,
- b) antonyms, *For example.* good -bad,
- c) converseness, *For example.* to buy - to sell.

In his classification he describes complementarity in the following way: the denial of the one implies the assertion of the other, and vice versa. «John is not married» implies that «John is single». The type of oppositeness is based on yes/no decision. Incompatibility only concerns pairs of lexical units.

L. Lipka also gives the type which he calls directional opposition up/down, consequence opposition learn/know, antipodal opposition North/South, East/West, (it is based on contrary motion, in opposite directions.) The pairs come/go, arrive/depart involve motion in different directions. In the case up/down we have movement from a point P. In the case come/go we have movement from or to the speaker.

L. Lipka also points out non-binary contrast or many-member lexical sets. Here he points out serially ordered sets, such as scales / hot, warm, tepid, cool, cold/; colour words / black, grey, white/; ranks /marshal, general, colonel, major, captain etc./ There are gradable examination marks / excellent, good, average, fair, poor/. In such sets of words we can have outer and inner pairs of antonyms. He also points out cycles, such as units of time /spring, summer, autumn, winter/. In this case there are no «outermost» members.

In synonymy we saw that both the identity and differentiations in words called synonyms can be said to be encoded within their semantic structures. Can the same be said about antonyms? Modern research in the field of antonymy gives a positive answer to this question. Nowadays most scientists agree that in the semantic structures of all words, which regularly occur in antonymic pairs, a special antonymic connotation can be singled out. We are so used to coming across *hot* and *cold* together, in the same contexts, that even when we find *hot* alone, we cannot help subconsciously registering it as *not cold*, that is, contrast it to its missing antonym. The word possesses its full meaning for us not only due to its direct associations but also because we subconsciously oppose it to its antonym, with which it is regularly used, in this case *hot*. Therefore, it is reasonable to suggest that the semantic structure of *hot* can be said to include the antonymic connotation of "not cold", and the semantic structure of *enemy* the connotation of "not a friend".

It should be stressed once more that we are speaking only about those antonyms which are characterised by common occurrences, that is, which are regularly used in pairs. When two words frequently occur side by side in numerous

contexts, subtle and complex associations between them are not at all unusual. These associations are naturally reflected in the words' semantic structures. Antonymic connotations are a special case of such "reflected associations".

VII. Semantic systems in English

§1. Semantic fields

The majority of linguists nowadays agree that the vocabulary should be studied as a system. We must study interrelated systems. For different purposes of study different types of grouping of words may be effective. Words joined together by one common semantic component form semantic fields. *For example* the semantic field of time.

One of the most fruitful concepts evolved so far in structural semantics is that of the 'lexical field', closely associated with Jost Trier and his school. So much has been written of late on this subject that it is unnecessary to go into details. It will be sufficient to recall that lexical fields are highly organized and integrated conceptual spheres whose elements mutually delimit each other and derive their significance from the system as a whole. In each field a sphere of experience, concrete or abstract, is analyzed, divided up and classified in a unique way which embodies a scale of values and a peculiar vision of the world.

The German linguist Jost Trier shows that the significance of each unit in the semantic field is determined by its neighbours. A. Shaikevitch says that semantically related words must occur near one another in the text. If the words often occur in the text together they must be semantically related and they form a semantic field. *For example*. faint, feeble, weary, sick, tedious and healthy form one semantic field. Face, head, aim, hand, foot etc make up the semantic field with the notion of body. Examples of lexical fields are: the system of colors, the network of family relations; or, among abstract experiences, the terms for intellectual qualities, ethical and aesthetic values, religious and mystical experiences.

The numerous articles and monographs which have recently been published on these problems have all tended to emphasize the differences between these fields in various languages; they have concentrated on what is distinctive in them rather than on what they have in common. Yet, beneath all the diversity, there is likely to be an underlying unity which a systematic comparison of these fields would no doubt reveal. Thus "we are told of striking differences between the number and nature of *colour* distinctions: there was no single term for 'brown' or 'gray' in Latin; Russian has two words for 'blue'—синий 'dark blue' and голубой 'sky-blue'; These differences are highly significant, but it would be equally interesting to know whether there are any elements common to all classifications of colors, any distinctions which have to be expressed everywhere and which could therefore rank as lexical constants"(Stephen Ullmann).

The same point is even more closely noticeable in another closely organized field which has been extensively studied in various languages: the nomenclature of *kinship* terms. Take for instance the words for 'brother' and 'sister'. These two concepts seem so fundamental to us that we find 'it difficult to imagine any language that could do without them. There was no single term either for younger brother or for younger sister and for elder brother and elder sister in the English language: instead, two pairs of separate words for 'elder' and 'younger brother' and 'elder' and 'younger sister' are used in the Uzbek language (ака-ука, опа-сингил).

A comparison of the same field in a number of languages would reveal whether this relationship is a semantic universal. It would also show how many ways there are of 'structuring' this part of the field and how frequent these various solutions actually are. The same method could then be applied to other sections of the field. Even languages belonging to the same family and culture will sometimes show remarkable discrepancies. Thus there is no single term for 'father in law' or 'mother in law' in Russian: a distinction is made between *тесс-свёкор, тётца-свёкровка*.

It may be noted in passing that the theory of lexical fields has certain affinities with the *Sapir-Whorf hypothesis*. Trier and his followers would readily agree with Whorf that each language contains a 'hidden metaphysics' and that 'we dissect nature along lines laid down by our native languages'. There are, however, two important differences between the two schools:

(1) lexical fields have so far been explored mainly in the best-known European languages, whereas Whorf deliberately turned away from 'Standard Average European' and concentrated on totally different linguistic systems, notably the American Indian ones;

(2) the theory of lexical fields is focused on vocabulary, while Whorf's most impressive successes were obtained in the grammatical sphere. It would seem, then, that the two approaches, which have developed independently of each other, could usefully supplement one another, and the time may come when they can be combined into a unified theory.

§2. Neologisms. Obsolete and archaic words.

Language is always a motion. New words constately appear in the language.

Neologisms are new words (borrowed words) which appeared in the long as a result of development of culture, state system, society. War, revolution, radio, automobile, bus, spaceship, place, congress, NATO, black out, tank

At the beginning of 17th century in 1620 first English appeared in America, 1st group consisted of those who came to America with their hope for better life.

2d group consists of religious figures. When English came to America the new problems appear: linguistic and political. 1. They took a well-known English words and filled it with a new meaning. *Blackbird* was taken as a name to a new kind of name. 2. English combined two morphemes to make up a new word- rattle snake, ground cock. 3. Some words were taken directly from Indian language.

There are the names of American animals, institutions and others. 4. English borrowed Indian words not directly but in their Spanish, French, Denmark forms. Chocolate, potato, tomato, canoe

Neologism is any word which is formed according to the productive structural patterns or borrowed from another language and felt by the speakers as something new. So neologisms are newly coined words or phrase or a new meaning for an existing word or a word borrowed from another language. As a result of the development of science and industry many new words appeared in the language. **For example.** isotope, tape-recorder, supermarket, V-day (Victory day). The research of cosmic space gave birth to new words: sputnik, lunik, space-rocket, space - ship.

Neologisms may be divided into:

- 1) root words: **For example.** jeep — a small light motor vehicle, zebra — street crossing place, sputnik, lunik etc;
- 2) derived words: **For example.** collaborationist — one who in occupied territory works helpfully with the enemy, to accessorize — to provide with dress accessories;
- 3) compound: **For example.** space — rocket, air — drop, microfilm-reader. New words are as a rule monosemantic. Terms, used in various fields of science and technique make the greater part of neologisms. New words belong only to the notional parts of speech: to nouns, verbs, adjectives etc.

Neologisms are mainly formed by: 1) wordformation (mainly productive type). **For example.** -gen, -ogen: carcinogen (biological term)
-ics: psycholinguistics, electronics sputnik — to sputnik (conversion)
— nik: filmnik, folknik.

- 2) semantic extension: heel — a tractor (old meaning: heel — the back part of foot); to screen — to classify, to select methodically (old meaning was — to separate coal into different sizes);
- 3) borrowing; telecast, telestar (Greek), sputnik, lunnik, udarnik (Russian).

Words may drop out as a result of the disappearance of the actual objects they denote. These words are called *obsolete words*.

The disappearance of words may be caused as a result of influence of borrowings.

For example the Scandinavian «take» and «die» ousted O. E. niman and sweldan. The French «army» and «place» replaced the O. E. here and steps.

Words which are not used generally are called *archaisms*. Archaisms are used in poetic vocabulary. Ex, steed (horse), slay (kill), welkin (sky) Archaisms should be distinguished from historical terms or historisms which denote historical reality and commonly used in modern English.

For example cannon- ball, chain mail, lance, archer, baldric (belt for a sword).

§3. Emotionally coloured words

Speech also expresses the speaker's attitude to what he is talking about. The speaker may wish to warn, to influence people, to express his approval or disapproval. Words expressing emotion are called emotionally coloured words.

Diminutive and derogatory affixes play an important role in forming emotionally coloured words.

For example. daddy, kiddykins, babykins, oldie, blackie.

In Uzbek: дада**жон**, сингил**гинам**, кизало**к**, бўтало**к**, Interjections also express emotion without naming them: Ah!, Hush!, Hell!, Nonsense!, Pooh; In Uzbek: вой, айланай, эх.

The derogatory suffixes may form emotionally coloured words, **For example.** bastard—внебрачный ребёнок (хароми), weakling — слабое существо (нозик), drunkard — пьяница (маст), hiber — хиппи, dullard — тупица (тентак).

In Uzbek: оймча, ойм**тилла**, ўргилиб**гина** кетай

It is very interesting that many personal nouns formed by the composition from complete sentences or phrases in most cases are derogatory:

For example. also-run — ну и скакун, непосредственность (чопкир), never-say-die — несдающиеся, неприклонный (енгилмас), stick-in-the mud — отсталый человек, растяпа (қолок).

die-hard — крайний консерватор, живучий (жони қаттик).

There are nouns formed by conversion which are used emotionally coloured:

a bare — скучный человек (зерикарли одам), a washout — пропавший человек (тамом бўлган одам).

There are some words which indicate the special importance of the thing expressed. They are called intensifiers. **For example.** even, ever, all, so, awfully, tremendously, wonderfully, terribly, awfully glad, terribly important . . .

The Uzbek words: ох, фифон, аффон, фарёд are used as intensifiers.

§4. Evaluatory words

It should be pointed out that among the emotionally coloured words we can find words which express evaluation, judgment. They are called evaluatory words. Mostly names of animals have a strong evaluatory force.

For example. «Silly ass» said Dick. «He's jealous because he didn't win a prize». cattwitted — мелочный, dirty dog — грязный подлец (искирт), colt — a young male horse used for a young unexperienced person, pup — щенок (лайча), They have negative evaluation. But in English we have words which have positive evaluation, **For example** bunny — кролик (куёнча) (ласк), bunting — птичка (кушча) (ласк). In the English language we can find a lot of vulgar words which are used in emotional speech: **For example.** Damn! Alas!

One and the same word may have different evaluation when it is used with words denoting different sex. He is a bull (it has a positive evaluation) She is a bull (it has

a negative evaluation) In Uzbek: «чەخра» has positive evaluation but «باشара» has negative.

§5. Stylistic differences of words

On different occasions and situations the speaker uses different words, chooses different words in different spheres of communication. There are some words which are used in lecture, in a poem or when speaking to a child, an official person etc. They are very highly frequent words. These words are called stylistically neutral words.

For example. evening, man, girl, table, horse, read, write, speak, beautiful, nice etc.

But we have a lot of words which cannot be used in any situation or, we speak to any person. They are called stylistically marked words.

For example. the English nouns «horse», «steed», «gee-gee» have the same meaning, they all refer to the same animal but they are stylistically different.

«Horse» is stylistically neutral and may be used in any situation. «Steed» belongs to poetic vocabulary. It has a lofty meaning. «Gee-gee» — is a nursery word neutral in a child's speech. And it is not used in adult conversation. So stylistically coloured words are suitable only on certain definite occasions in specific conditions of communication. Each stylistically coloured word has a neutral synonym:

For example. steed — horse, ire — anger, sustain— suffer, obtain— get, accommodation — room, woe — sorrow, fair — beautiful, slay —kill.

Among the stylistically—coloured words we can find: Slang- words.

Slang- words are expressive, mostly ironical words. They serve to create fresh names for some things. They sound somewhat vulgar, harsh, mockingly, contemptuously. **For example.** The word «inoney» has the following slang words as: beans, brass, dibs, dough, chink, oof, wads.

The slang synonyms for word «head» are: attic, brain, pan, hat, peg, nut, upper storey. The slang synonyms for the adjective «drunk» are: boozy, cock-eyed, high, soaked, tight.

§6. The correlation of different aspects of words

The words have different characteristic features: some words have many meanings and some of them have only one or two meanings. Some of them are more frequent in speech than the others. Some words give a lot of derivatives and others do not. Some of them may be a component of many phraseological units and some of them are not used in the formation of phraseological units. So we see that different words may have different activity in the language and speech. Thus, different words play different role in the language and in speech. And studying the interdependence and interrelation of these different aspects of words is very important.

The correlation is the interdependence of different aspects of words. Scientists paid attention to the interdependence of different peculiarities of words for a long time. *For example*. George Zipf (The Meaning and Frequency Relationship of Words. The Journal of General Psychology (U. S. A., vol 33, 1945) and French linguist Quiraud worked out the correlation of meaning of words and their frequency value. R. S. Ginzburg tried to study the interdependence of frequency value and the collocability of words etc. The interdependence of different aspects of the word may be easily observed through a comparative analysis of these aspects in relation to each other.

The frequency value is very important feature of a word and it is, as a rule, a most reliable and objective factor indicating the relative value of the word in the language. The frequency value alone is in many cases enough to judge about structural, stylistic, semantic, and etymological peculiarities of words. The frequency value singles out two classes of words: notional words and functional words:

The notional words have low frequency value but functional words are more frequent than the notional words in speech.

It is interesting to note that the words «the», «of», «and», «to», «a», «in», «that», «is», «was», «he» are the most frequent words. They often occur in the English texts.

There is a certain interdependence between the number of meanings in a word and its structural and derivational structure, its etymological character, its stylistic reference.

The higher frequency, the more polysemantic is the word.

For example. change — 790 fr.-more than 10 meanings

take — 7008 fr.-more than 10 meanings

serve — 1744 fr.-more than 10 meanings

The longer the word the fewer meanings it has

For example. «man» has more than 10 meanings but «woman» has 4 meanings, the word «hand» has more than 12 meanings but the word «handshake» has only 1 meaning.

The latest linguistic investigations show that the number of meanings may be correlated with the number of morphemes the word consists of. Derived words have less meanings and frequency value than the root words.

For example. «heart» has 5 meanings, «hearty» has 3 «heart- felt — 1, heartily — 2, «girl» has 7 meanings, «girlhood» has 1, «girlish» — 2, girlishness has 1 meaning etc», «man» has more than 11 meanings but the derived words «manful», «manly», «manliness» have only one meaning each.

Derived words are as a rule poorer in the number of meanings and have lower frequency value than the simple words. *For example* the noun «hand» has 15 meanings while the derived verb «to hand» has only one meaning, «teach» has 5 meanings but the word «teacher» has only 2 meanings.

We can see the interdependence between the number of meanings of the word and its stylistic reference. The neutral style words with zero emotive charge have more meanings than the literary, stylistically coloured words of some emotive charge.

For example. «try» and «endeavour» are synonyms, the former is a neutral style word and it has 8 meanings, but «endeavour» a bookish word and it has only 1 meaning; «make» has 2 meanings but its literary synonym «manufacture» has only 2 meanings; «horse» has 5 meanings but its poetic synonym «steed» has only one meaning. We may also observe the interdependence between the number of meanings of the words and their word-building ability.

The more number of meanings the word has the more derivatives it gives.

For example «divide» has 12 meanings and 24 derivatives (divi-dable, dividant, divided, divider, dividing, division, dividedness, dividedly, undivided, undividable, undividedly, undivi-dedness, misdivision etc, but the verb «joke» has only 2 meanings and can give 3 derivatives (joker, jokingly, joke). The verb «extend» has 8 meanings and it can be the stem for 14 derivatives (extendible, extendibility, extender, unextended, unextendedly, overextend etc). The verb «fix» has 14 meanings and it has 15 derivatives (fixer, fixation, fixative, unfix, fixity, fixedly, fixedness etc).

The frequency value, semantic activity of the words are connected with their phraseological activity too.

The greater frequency and number of meanings the word has, the greater number of phraseological units they are used in, *For example.* the following verbs have a lot of meanings and a higher frequency value therefore they may be the components of a lot of phraseological units.

take —766, get —474, turn—108, -

pass — 75, carry — 81, serve—32.

raise — 57, push — 31, catch — 61

touch — 36, move — 29, change — 26,

lift —27, enter —21, cross —20.

Frequency value may also be used as a clue to the etymological character of the word and to its interrelation with number of meanings. The most frequently used words belong either to the native words or to the early borrowings which are fully assimilated in English. The verbs *catch, change, take, get, give, call, serve, return* etc are early borrowed words therefore they are very frequent. The verbs «build», «believe», «work», «begin», «go», «teach», «understands», «stop», «help», «answers», «write», «read», «come», «see», «open», «sing» etc are the native words. They were born in Great Britain therefore they have a lot of meanings and high frequency value.

Late borrowings as «regime», «bourgeoisie» etc have low frequency value and are very seldom polysemantic. Let's consider the synonyms «to ask», «to question», «to interrogate», «to demand or «to keep», «to preserve», «to retain». Among these words only «ask» and «keep» are polysemantic and are widely used in

Modern English because the verbs «to ask» and «to keep» are of native origin but others are borrowings.

By systematically comparing the relative frequency of various words with the number of senses in which they are used, the late Q. K. Zipf, arrived at an interesting conclusion which he termed the principle of diversity of meanings. According to Zipf, there is a direct relationship between the number of different meanings of a word and its relative frequency of occurrences. He even tried to find a mathematical formula for this relationship. His calculations suggested that «different meanings of a word will tend to be equal to the square root of its relative frequency».

Frequency value of different meanings of polysemantic words may be different too. *For example*, the adjective «exact» has two meanings (аник, озода). The comparison of the frequency value of these meanings shows that they are not of equal importance in the semantic structure of the word. The first meaning of this word comprises 78 % of occurrences of the word and 18% belongs to the second meaning. Thus, as we see, different aspects of the word are interdependent and interrelated. Among them the frequency value or the semantic activity of the word are in most cases enough to judge about structural, stylistic, semantic, wordbuilding phraseological activities and etymological peculiarities of words. If the word has a high frequency value or has a number of meanings one may suppose that it is monomorphemic, simple, monosyllabic, stylistically neutral, and active in word formation and can be a component of several phraseological units.

The analysis of the correlation of different aspects of the most frequent verbs in English showed the following result.

The aspects of activity of verbs	The coefficient of the correlation
frequency— semantic activity	+ 0,625
frequency —wordformational activity	+ 0,518
frequency — valancy	+ 0,886
frequency — phraseological activity	+ 0,978
semantic activity — wordformational activity	+ 0,835
semantic activity— phraseological activity	+0,976
semantic activity—valancy	+0,879
phraseological activity —	+0,777
wordformational activity phraseological activity—valancy	+0,510

Answer the following questions:

1. What is understood by the term «synonym»? 2. Are there complete synonyms in English? 3. Can polysemantic words have the same synonyms in all

- their meanings? 4. What is the dominant of a synonymic group? 5. What is the difference between ideographic synonyms and stylistic ones? 6. Do the synonyms occur in the same surroundings? 7. What is the collocability of synonyms? 8. What are the main sources of synonyms? 9. What is understood by the term «antonyms»? 10. What is the classification of antonyms? 11. What is the interchangeability of antonyms in contexts? 12. What are the semantic fields? 13. What is the difference between neologisms and obsolete words? 14. What words are called emotionally coloured words? 15. What is the difference between stylistically marked words and stylistically neutral words? 16. What is the correlation of different aspects of words? 17. What is the correlation of number of meanings of the words and their derivational structure? 18. What is the interdependence between the number of meanings of the word and its stylistic" reference? 19. What is the interdependence between the number of meanings of the words and their wordbuilding ability?

Problems for discussion

1. Discuss different types of meaning: denotational and connotational, grammatical and lexical.
2. Discuss the hierarchy of meanings (central or marginal meanings) in connection with the problem of meaning of isolated words.
3. Discuss meaning at the level of morphemes, words and phrases (word-groups).
4. Discuss the classification of words into notional and form-words. Note different terms used to denote these word classes.
5. Discuss the concept of marked and unmarked members of opposition in Lexicology.
6. Discuss different types of motivation. Note that only phonetic and morphological motivation proceeds from form to meaning.
7. Discuss the ways of differentiating various meanings of the same word.
8. Discuss statistical approach to the problem of meaning and to lexicological problems in general.
9. Discuss the problem of polysemy and the interrelation of polysemy and frequency value of the word. (
10. Discuss the concept and definition of distribution and the distributional analysis of meaning.
11. Discuss the term 'collocation'. Note the interrelation between collocation and meaning.
12. Discuss meaning by collocation and compare it with lexical valency of words.
13. Discuss different types of contexts: linguistic (verbal) and non-linguistic context or context of situation. Note the difference between lexical and grammatical contexts and their role in differentiating the meanings of polysemantic words.
14. Discuss the types of contexts essential (or determining the meanings: (a) of such words as *maagdo* and words *cucumber*, *potato*, *eat* and the like; (b) of lexical homonyms and lexico-grammatical homonyms resulting from conversion.

15. Discuss the concept of semantic field. Note synonymous use of the terms 'lexical field' and 'semantic field'.
16. Compare associative, lexical and conceptual fields.
17. Compare different approaches to synonymy.
18. Note the interrelation of synonymy and antonymy.
19. Discuss the criterion of interchangeability of synonyms.
20. Analyse the most typical differences between synonyms as described by prof. W. E. Collinson. Classify them according to the type of meaning: denotational and connotational.
21. Discuss the problem of absolute synonymy.
22. Discuss the three laws of synonymy; the law of distribution, the law of synonymic attraction and the law of radiation of synonyms.
23. Discuss typical synonymic patterns in English.
24. Compare different approaches to homonymy.
25. Discuss the problem of relations between vocabulary and culture.
26. Discuss the concept of abstract and concrete languages. Compare the Russian идти, ехать, лететь and the English *go in to go home, to go by train, by bus*, etc.
27. Discuss the problem of adequate translation in connection with the statement that languages differ not only in the sound-form of words but also in their system of meanings.
28. Compare the system of meanings of the Uzbek қилмоқ, бажармоқ and the English *make* and *do*. Show that the difference in the system of their meanings is the source of typical mistakes in foreign language learning.

Literature

1. Uriel Weinreich, *Lexicology, Current Trends in Linguistics*, ed. by Thomas A. Sebeok, The Hague, 1963
2. Stephen Ullmann, *Language and Style*, Oxford, 1964
3. Stephen Ullmann, *Semantics, An Introduction to the Science of Meaning*, Oxford, 1962
4. Stephen Ullmann, *Semantic Universals (Universals of Language)* ed. by Joseph H. Greenberg. The M.I.T.Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts
5. J.R. Firth, *Papers in Linguistics 1934-1951*, London, 1964
6. Robert Lado, *Linguistics across Cultures, Applied Linguistics for Language Teachers*, Ann Arbor 1961
7. L. Bloomfield, *Language*, N.Y., 1964
8. Ch. Hockett, *A Course in Modern Linguistics*, N.Y., 1960
A. Kennedy, *Current English*, Boston, USA, 1935
9. M. Mathews. *The Freshman and His Dictionary*, *Applied English Linguistics*, ed. by Harold B. Allen, N.Y., 1964
10. M. Mathews. *Meanings and Etymologies, Essays on Language and Usage*, ed. by Leonard F. Dean and Kenneth G. Wilson, N.Y., 1963
11. R.H. Robins, *General Linguistics, An Introductory Survey*, London, 1966
12. Г. Мирал. *Профессия: Переводчик*. Киев, 2004

CHAPTER 5

PHRASEOLOGY

§1. Definition of phraseological units, their stability and ideomaticity

Functionally and semantically inseparable units are usually called phraseological units. Phraseological units cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready-made units. The lexical components in phraseological units are stable and they are non-motivated i. e. its meaning cannot be deduced from the meaning of its components and they do not allow their lexical components to be changed or substituted.

In phraseological units the individual components do not seem to possess any lexical meaning outside the word group.

For example. red tape (bureaucratic methods), to get rid of; to take place; to lead the dance; to take care.

Prof. A. I. Smirnitsky states that a phraseological unit may be defined as specific word groups functioning as a word-equivalent. The phraseological units are single semantically inseparable units. They are used in one function in the sentence and belong to one part of speech.

According to their semantic and grammatical inseparability we may classify the phraseological units into: noun equivalents (heavy father), verb equivalents (take place, break the news) adverb equivalents (in the long run, high and low).

«Being word equivalents phraseological units may be more or less complex **For example.** There are phraseological units with one semantic centre, i. e. with the domination of component over another. This semantically dominating element also determines the equivalence of the phraseological unit to a certain class of words. This type of phraseological units is termed «collocation» (**For example:** verb — adverb collocation: to look after; attributive collocation; **For example.** out of the way; prepositional noun collocation: e. g. in accordance with.

There are phraseological units with two centres. They differ from collocations by the absence of one central word which focuses the main semantic and grammatical properties of the whole. They are termed «set expressions» (verb + noun set expression), **For example.** to fall in love; adjective + noun set expressions black ball; phraseological repetitions spick and span.

(A.I. Smirnitsky)

Prof. A. Koonin does not support Smirnitsky's point of view on the equivalence of phraseological units. A. Koonin points out that the components of phraseological units are mounted separately and therefore they can't be used in one function in the sentence. **For example.** He gets rid of it. The problem of equivalency of phraseological units to words demands further investigation.

A. V. Koonin thinks that phraseology must be an independent linguistic science and not a part of Lexicology. Phraseological units are based on the functions in speech.

Stability of phraseological units is seen in its disallowance of the substitution of word groups. *For example*. «to shrug one's shoulders» does not allow to substitute either «shrug» or shoulder

Idiomacity of phraseological units is lack of motivation of word groups. If a word group does not allow word by word translation it is called idiomatic word groups. *For example*. to kick the bucket –ўлмок (умереть) in the soup –кийин ахволда (затруднительном положении) under a cloud –кайфияти ёмон (в плохом настроении)

Among the phraseological units there are the so-called imperative phraseological units¹. *For example*. God Bless his soul!, Curse her! Damn him!, Stay well!, Go well!, Heaven forbid!, Lord love us! etc.

These phraseological units mostly denote the emotional and expressive state of a person.

Proverbs, sayings and quotations exist also as ready made units with a specialized meaning of their own which can not be deduced from the meaning of their components. Therefore they may be included in phraseological units. *For example*. East or West home is best, a friend in need is a friend indeed. To be or not to be.

The history of many phraseologisms is an interesting record of the nation's past, of its way of life, customs and traditions. Many phraseological units are connected with commerce. *For example*. to talk shop, to make the best of the bargain, to have all one's goods in the shop window, a drug on the market (наркотик). Many phraseological units are associated with the sea (the waves). *For example*. all at sea, to nail one's colours to the mast, to sail under false colours. Many phraseological units were borrowed from the Bible, *For example*. the root of all evil — корень зла, любовь к деньгам (яшаш манбаи). Daily bread — хлеб насущный, средство к существованию (жаҳолат илдизи).

There is a subject of discussion among the linguists² about the state of such combinations like «to give in», «to make up», «to take off», «to get up», «to give up», etc; what is the nature of the second element of such combinations? The second element of such units is not a word therefore they are not-phraseological units. Phraseological units, as we know, consist of words. The second element is not a morpheme because it is not a part of the word, they are not adverbs because adverbs have definite lexical meanings and are used in a certain function in the

1. Т. Т. Икрамов. Фразеологические единицы с фиксированным глагольным компонентом в императиве в современном английском языке. Автореф. дисс. кандидата филол. наук. М. 1978

1. Л.Д.Пак. Фразовые глаголы с пространственным значениям в современном английском языке. // Филология масалалари. Ташкент, 2003 /2

sentence. But these units (get up, give up etc) have idiomatical meanings therefore. A. V. Koonin calls such units «set phrases» which have no phraseological character. There are synonyms among phraseological units, *For example*. through thick and thin, by hook or by crook, for love or money – «хеч бўлмаганда» (во что бы не стало); pull one's leg, to make a fool of smb — «ахмок қилмоқ» (дурачить). Some of phraseological units are polysemantic as «at large»— 1) «озодликда» (на свободе), 2) «очик ҳавода» (в открытом), 3) «мақсадсиз» (без определенной цели), 4) «нишонга тушмаган» (не попавший цель), 5) «эркин» (свободный), 6) «асосан» (в целом) 7) «умуман» (вообще), 8) «батафсил» (подробно) etc.

It is the context that realizes the meaning of a phraseological unit in each case. The usage of phraseological units in speech is a subject of research work of many linguists.

There are a number of idiomatic or colloquial phrases in the English language: as «end and aim», «lord and masters», «without let or hindrances», «act and deeds», «pure and simple», «in deed and truths», «really and truly», «bright and shinnings», «honest and true», «proud and haughty», «weak and feeble», «race and run», «grunt and groans», «clean and neat», «toil and delves». Such double phrases occur very frequently in the «Book of Common Prayer», where we find for instance, «sins and wickedness», «dissemble nor cloak», «assemble and meet together», «requisites and necessarys», «er-red and strayed», «declare and pronounce», «pardoneth and absolveth», «bless and sanctify», «offer and present», «rule and governs», «knowledge and understanding», «religiously and devoutly», «food and sustenances», «search and examine your consciences», «prayers and supplications», to try and examine themselves, «confirm and strengthen». (*James B. Greenough*)

§2. Ways of forming phraseological units

A.V. Koonin classified phraseological units according to the way they are formed. He pointed out primary and secondary ways of forming phraseological units. Primary ways of forming phraseological units are those when a unit is formed on the basis of a free word-group :

a) Most productive in Modern English is the formation of phraseological units by means of transferring the meaning of terminological word-groups, *For example*. in cosmic technique we can point out the following phrases: «launching pad» in its terminological meaning is «учиш майдони» (стартовая площадка) , in its transferred meaning – «юбориш манзили» (отправной пункт), «to link up» – «алоқа ўрнатмоқ» (стыковать) in its transformed meaning it means – «танишмоқ» (знакомиться);

b) a large group of phraseological units was formed from free word groups by transforming their meaning, *For example*. «granny farm» - «қарилар пансионати» (пансионат для престарелых), «Trojan horse» - «компьютер учун

дастур» (компьютерная программа, преднамеренно составленная для повреждения компьютера);

c) phraseological units can be formed by means of alliteration, **For example.** «a sad sack» - «бахтли вока» (счастливый случай) «culture vulture» - «саньатга ишкибоз одам» (человек, интересующийся искусством);

d) they can be formed by means of expressiveness, especially it is characteristic for forming interjections, **For example.** «My aunt!», «Hear, hear!» etc;

e) they can be formed by means of distorting a word group, **For example.** «odds and ends» was formed from «odd ends»;

f) they can be formed by using archaisms, **For example.** «in brown study» means «in gloomy meditation» where both components preserve their archaic meanings;

g) they can be formed by using a sentence in a different sphere of life, **For example.** «that cock won't fight» can be used as a free word-group when it is used in sports (cock fighting), it becomes a phraseological unit when it is used in everyday life, because it is used metaphorically,

h) they can be formed when we use some unreal image, **For example.** «to have butterflies in the stomach» - «хавотир олмок» (испытать волнение), «to have green fingers» - «богбонлик кўлидан келмок» (преуспеть как садовод-любитель) etc.

i) they can be formed by using expressions of writers or politicians in everyday life, **For example.** «corridors of power» (Snow), «American dream» (Alby) «locust years» (Churchil), «the winds of change» (M. Millan).

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

a) conversion, **For example.** «to vote with one's feet» was converted into «vote with one's feet»;

grammar form, **For example.** «Make hay while the sun shines» is transferred into a verbal phrase - «to make hay while the sun shines»;

c) analogy, **For example.** «Curiosity killed the cat» was transferred into «Care killed the cat»;

d) contrast, **For example.** «cold surgery» - «a planned before operation» was formed by contrasting it with «acute surgery», «thin cat» - «a poor person» was formed by contrasting it with «fat cat»;

e) shortening of proverbs or sayings **For example.** from the proverb «You can't make a silk purse out of a sow's ear» by means of clipping the middle of it the phraseological unit «to make a sow's ear» was formed with the meaning «хато килмок» (ошибаться).

f) borrowing phraseological units from other languages, either as translation loans, **For example.** «living space» (German), «to take the bull by the horns» (Latin) or by means of phonetic borrowings «meche blanche» (French), «corpse d'elite» (French), «sotto voice» (Italian) etc.

§3. 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, **For example.** on Shank's mare - (on foot), at sixes and sevens - (in a mess) etc. Phraseological fusions are such units which are completely non motivated word groups; **For example.** to kick the bucket to get one's goat, to show the white feather. In these word groups the meaning of the whole expressions is not derived from the meaning of components.

b) unities where the meaning of the whole can be guessed from the meanings of its components, but it is transferred (metaphorical or metonymical), **For example.** to play the first fiddle (to be a leader in something), old salt (experienced sailor) etc. Phraseological units: the meaning of such word-groups can be perceived through the metaphorical meaning of the whole phraseological unit or the meaning of which may be seen as a metaphorical transference of the meaning of the word group: **For example.** to show one's teeth, to know the way the wind blows, to stand to one's guns, to take care of;

c) collocations where words are combined in their original meaning but their combinations are different in different languages, **For example.** cash and carry - (self-service shop), in a big way (in great degree) etc. Phraseological collocations include motivated relatively stable word groups. They have a certain degree of stability; **For example.** to take an interest, to fall in love, to look through one's fingers, meet the demand etc.

Thus, at present the term «phraseological unit» is usually used not to all set expressions but only to those which are completely or partially non-motivated.

Prof N. Amasova gives two categories of phraseological units depending on whether just one component or both are used in phraseologically bound meaning. If all the components have idiomatic meaning such phraseological units are called «idioms», **For example.** to toe the line (to do exactly as one is told), a free lance (a person who acts independently). If one of the components has bound specialized meaning dependent on the second component she called «phrasemes».

For example. dutch courage (courage given by drink), to bring to book (to bring to justice), small years (in the childhood), small beers (weak beer).

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), *For example.* to art up, to back up, to drop out, to nose out, to buy into, to sandwich in etc.;

b) units of the type «to be tired» . Some of these units remind the Passive Voice in their structure but they have different prepositions with them, while in the Passive Voice we can have only prepositions «by» or «with», *For example.* to be tired of, to be interested in, to be surprised at etc. There are also units in this type which remind free word-groups of the type «to be young», *For example.* to be a kin to, to be aware of etc.

The difference between them is that the adjective «young» can be used as an attribute and as a predicative in a sentence, while the nominal component in such units can act only as a predicative. In these units the verb is the grammar centre and the second component is the semantic centre;

c) prepositional- nominal phraseological units. These units are equivalents of unchangeable words: prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs , that is why they have no grammar centre, their semantic centre is the nominal part, *For example* on the doorstep (quite near), on the nose (exactly), in the course of, on the stroke of, in time, on the point of etc. In the course of time such units can become words, *For example.* tomorrow, instead etc.

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 neck and many others. Units of this type are noun equivalents and can be partly or perfectly idiomatic. In partly idiomatic units (phrasisms) sometimes the first component is idiomatic, *For example.* high road, in other cases the second component is idiomatic, *For example.* first night. In many cases both components are idiomatic, *For example.* red tape, blind alley, bed of nail, shot in the arm and many others.

b) verb-nominal phraseological units, *For example.* to read between the lines , to speak BBC, to sweep under the carpet etc. The grammar centre of such units is the verb, the semantic centre in many cases is the nominal component, *For example.* to fall in love. In some units the verb is both the grammar and the semantic centre, *For example.* not to know the ropes. These units can be perfectly idiomatic as well, *For example.* to burn one's boats, to vote with one's feet, to take to the cleaners' etc.

Very close to such units are word-groups of the type to have a glance, to have a smoke. These units are not idiomatic and are treated in grammar as a special syntactical combination, a kind of aspect.

c) phraseological repetitions, such as : now or never, part and parcel, country and western etc. Such units can be built on antonyms, *For example* ups and downs, back and forth; often they are formed by means of alliteration, e.g cakes

and ale, as busy as a bee. Components in repetitions are joined by means of conjunctions. These units are equivalents of adverbs or adjectives and have no grammar centre. They can also be partly or perfectly idiomatic, For example cool as a cucumber (partly), bread and butter (perfectly).

Phraseological units the same as compound words can have more than two tops (stems in compound words), For example 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, at one's own sweet will.

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, **For example** bullet train, latchkey child, redbrick university, Green Berets,

b) verb phraseologisms denoting an action, a state, a feeling, **For example** to break the log-jam, to get on somebody's coattails, to be on the beam, to nose out, to make headlines,

c) adjective phraseologisms denoting a quality, **For example** loose as a goose, dull as lead ,

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

e) preposition phraseological units, **For example** in the course of, on the stroke of,

f) interjection phraseological units, **For example** «Catch me!», «Well, I never!» etc.

In I.V.Arnold's classification there are also sentence equivalents, proverbs, sayings and quotations, For example «The sky is the limit», «What makes him tick», « I am easy». Proverbs are usually metaphorical, **For example** «Too many cooks spoil the broth», while sayings are as a rule non-metaphorical, For example «Where there is a will there is a way».

Thus, the vocabulary of a language is enriched not only by words but also by phraseological units. Phraseological units are word-groups that cannot be made in the process of speech, they exist in the language as ready-made units. They are compiled in special dictionaries. The same as words phraseological units express a single notion and are used in a sentence as one part of it. American and British lexicographers call such units «idioms». We can mention such dictionaries as: L.Smith «Words and Idioms», V.Collins «A Book of English Idioms» etc. In these dictionaries we can find words, peculiar in their semantics (idiomatic), side by side with word-groups and sentences. In these dictionaries they are arranged, as a rule, into different semantic groups.

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

Phraseological units are not translated into Uzbek word for word. The correspondent or equivalents of the English phraseological Units in Uzbek may be different.

1. It gave me chance to sleep. I didn't sleep last night — Ҳечкиси йўқ, кайтанга ухлаб олдим, кеча мижду қокмаган эдим. 2. «Tonight you will tell me everything, said Rinaldi—кечкурун менга оқизмай-томизмай хикоя қилиб берасиз – деди Ренальди. 3. When we swaggered by twirling .his new mustache, everybody stopped to look and admire — У энди сабза ура бошлаган мўйловини бураб, савлат тўқиб юрган чогида ҳамма одамлар унга қарашар эди. 4. I sacrificed everything for something that never came — Рўёбга чиқмаган ана шу нарсени деб бутун умримни хазон қилдим. 5. It was still raining hard – Ёмғир ҳамон челақлаб қуяр эди. 6. All right, I wash my hands of the matter. But I warn you all that a time's coming when you're going to feel sick whenever you think of this day – Яхши бўлмаса! Агар шундай бўладиган бўлса, мен қўлимни ювиб қўлтигимга ураман. Аммо сизларга айтадиган бир гапим бор: бир кун келади бу қилмишингизги пушаймон бўласиз ва қилган ишингизни эслашнинг ўзидаёқ хушингиз кетиб қолади. 7. Do you know how she seems to me? — She seems fresh, like a flower — Фуогни қандай тасаввур қилишимни биласизми? – Гулдек тоза 8. It was as plain as day — Бир пасда ҳаммаси қандай равшан бўлди-қолди.

Answer the following questions.

1. What is a phraseological unit? 2. What are the most peculiarities of phraseological units? 3. What is academician V. V. Vinogradov's classification of phraseological units based on? 4. How does prof. N. N. Amasova classify phraseological units? 5. What is the stability of phraseological units? 6. What is the idomaticity of phraseological units? 7. Why does prof. A.I. Smirnitsky say that phraseological units are the word equivalents? 8. Why do we include proverbs, sayings quotations in phraseological units? 9. What is the history of phraseological units? 10. What kind of discussion of the so-called word groups as «give up» was among the linguists? 11. What is the synonymy of phraseological units? 12. What is the polysemy of phraseological units?

Problems for discussion

1. Compare and discuss different approaches to classification of word-groups.
2. Discuss the criterion of distribution in the classification of word-groups.
3. Discuss the difference between free word-groups and phraseological units.
4. Discuss different interpretation of the term 'idiom'.
5. Discuss the principle of linguistic relativity and show why it is wrong to hold that the linguistic system determines thinking.

Literature

1. А.В. Кунин. Английская фразеология. –М., Высшая школа, 1970
2. А.В. Кунин. Фразеология современного английского языка. –М., 1972
3. R.S Ginzburg and others. A course in Modern English Lexicology. –М., 1979

4. I.V. Arnold the English Word. M. 1986
5. В.В. Виноградов. Лексикография и лексикология. М. 1984
6. А.В. Кунин. Англо-русский фразеологический словарь. 1970.
7. А.В. Кунин. Курс фразеологии современного английского языка. М. 1986
8. Б.Х. Реимов. Фразеологические единицы английского языка, характеризующие эмоциональное состояние человека. Дисс. канд. наук Ташкент. 2005

CHAPTER 6

THE ENGLISH WORD-STOCK

§1. Origin of words in English

Etymologically the vocabulary of the English language consists of two groups — the native words and the borrowed words.

The etymological linguistic analysis showed that the borrowed stock of words is larger than the native stock of words. In fact native words comprise only 30% of the total number of words in the English vocabulary. A native word is a word which belongs to the original English stock, which belongs to Anglo-Saxon origin. To the native words we include words from Common Germanic language and from Indo-European stock.

Borrowed words are words taken over from other languages. Many linguists consider foreign influence plays the most important role in the history of the English language. But the grammar and phonetic system are very stable (unchangeable) and are not often influenced by other languages. Besides when we speak about the role of native and borrowed words in the English language we must not take into consideration only the number of them but their semantic, stylistic character, their wordbuilding ability, frequency value, collocability (valency) and the productivity of their word-building patterns. If we approach to the study of the role of native and borrowed words from this point of view we see, though the native words are not numerous they play an important role in the English language. They have high frequency value, great word-forming power, wide collocability, many meanings and they are stylistically neutral. Almost all words of native origin belong to very important semantic groups.

" They include most of the auxiliary and model verbs: *shall, will, should, must, can, may*; pronouns: *I, he, my, your, his, who, whose*; prepositions: *in, out on, under, for, of*; numerals: *one, two, three, four, five, six*, etc; conjunctions; *and, but, till, as, etc.*; words denoting parts of body: *head, hand, arm, back, foot, eye* etc; members of a family: *father, mother, brother, son, wife*; natural phenomena and planets: *snow, rain, wind, sun, moon*, animals: *horse, cow, sheep, cat*; common actions: *do, make, go, come, hear, see, eat, speak, talk* etc. All these words are very

frequent words, we use them every day in our speech. Many words of native origin possess large clusters of derived and compound words in the present-day language.

For example. help — helper, helpful, helpfully, helpfulness, helping^ helpfully, helpable, helpably, helped, unhelpable etc.

Such affixes of native origin as er. -ness, -ish, -ed, -un, -mis, -dom, -hood, -ly, -over, -out, -under — are of native origin.

We see that the role of native words in the language is great. Many authors use native words more than foreign ones. Thus Shakespear used 90% native words and 10% foreign words. Swift used 75% native words.

Borrowed words have been called «the milestones of philology» — said O. Jespersen — because they permit us (show us) to fix approximatively the dates of linguistic changes. They show us the course of civilization and give us information of the nations».

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

English history is very rich in different types of contacts with other countries, that is why it is very rich in borrowings. The Roman invasion, the adoption of Cristianity, Scandinavian and Norman conquests of the British Isles, the development of British colonialism and trade and cultural relations served to increase immensely the English vocabulary. The majority of these borrowings can be hardly distinguished from native words.

English continues to take in foreign words, but now the quantity of borrowings is not so abundant as it was before. All the more so, English now has become a «giving» language, it has become Lingva franca of the twentieth century.

When in two languages we find no trace of the exchange of loanwords one way or the other, we are safe to infer that the two nations have had nothing to do with each other, but if they have been in contact, the number of the loan-words and still more the quality of the loanwords, if rightly interpreted, will inform us of their reciprocal relations, they will show us which of them has been the more fertile in ideas and on what domains of human activity each has been superior of the other. If all other sources of information were closed to us except such loanwords in our modern North-European languages as «piano», «soprano», «opera», «libretto», «tempo», «adagio» etc, we should still have no hesitation in drawing the conclusion that Italian music has played a great role all over Europe. (*O. Jespersen*).

The well-known linguist Shuchard said «No language is entirely pure», that all the languages are mixed. Borrowed words enter the language as a result of influence of two main causes or factors; linguistic and extra-linguistic. Economic, cultural, industrial, political relations of speakers of the language with other

§2. The penetration of borrowed words in English

« ... in 1066 came the Norman conquest, an event which had more influence on the English language than any other from outside. There is an important difference between the influence now to be examined and the earlier foreign influences. The native language was not completely driven out, leaving little impression on the language of the conquerors, as had happened when the Angles and Saxons conquered the Britons, nor modified by a related language, as in the case of the Scandinavian invasion, but instead a second language was established in the country in use side by side with the native language.

The comparison may be carried further; Scandinavian first came into and influenced chiefly the north and north-east, whereas French was most influential in the south and south-east, a fact which became of increasing importance as a standard English language gradually developed in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Scandinavian modified the existing language through related words and construction, but French introduced entirely new words. Scandinavian made its way into the everyday speech of the people, whereas, although many French words eventually became part of our everyday speech and can hardly be recognized today as foreign loan-words, the French element was in the main composed of words reflecting a high state of culture and influenced at first chiefly the language of the upper classes. (*J. A. Sheard.*)

«... The influence which French exerted on the language is seen in all aspects of life, social, political, and religions, and hardly any walk of life was unaffected by it. Had the Conquest not taken place it may be that English would have developed along entirely different lines, keeping in the main its Germanic characteristics particularly as regards vocabulary, much as the German and Scandinavian languages have done, and therefore lacking the tremendous number of Roman words which are now an accepted part of our language. It may be interesting to consider the general implication of such a large adoption of French loan words into English.

The first point to be emphasized is that here we are not dealing with completely new ideas introduced from a different type of civilization and culture, but rather the imposing by a dominant race of their own terms for ideas which were already familiar to the subject race. Such a state of affairs obviously means that there will arise pairs of words, the native and the foreign term, for the same idea and a struggle for survival between the two, so that one of the words was eventually lost from the language, or survived only with some differentiation of meaning.

Let us first take examples of native words replaced by French words; it is possible to compile a very long list, so here we must confine ourselves to a few, merely by way of illustration «cynecic» was replaced by «royal», «cynestol» by

«throne», «cynhelm» by «crown», «dema» was replaced by «judge», «firen» by «crime» «rihtoew» by «justice», «sach» by «such». Much of the loss of Old English vocabulary can be accounted for by the influx of French words for the same or a similar idea in the Middle English period. (/ *Sheard*).

Thus, due to the great influence of the Roman civilization Latin was for a long time used in England as the language of learning and religion. Old Norse of the Scandinavian tribes was the language of the conquerors (9 — 10—11 centuries). French (Norman dialect) was the language of the other conquerors who brought with them a lot of new notions of a higher social system, developed feudalism. It was the language of upper classes, of official documents and school (11 — 14 cent). These factors are extra-linguistic ones.

The absence of equivalent words in the language to express new subjects or a phenomena makes people to borrow words. For example the words football, volleyball, michman in Russian; to economize the linguistic means, i. e. to use a foreign word instead of a long native expressions and others are called linguistic causes.

The closer the two interacting languages are in structure the easier it is for words of one language to penetrate into the other. The fact that Scandinavian borrowings have penetrated into such grammatical classes as prepositions and pronouns (they, them, their, both, same, till) can only be attributed to a similarity in the structure of the two languages.

Borrowings enter the language in two ways: through oral speech (by immediate contact between the people) and through written speech (by indirect contact through books). Words borrowed orally (inch, mill, street, map) are usually short and they undergo more changes in the act of adopter. Written borrowings (communiqué, belles — lettres, naïveté, psychology, pagoda etc) are often rather long and they are unknown to many people, speaking English.

Answer the following questions.

1. What does the vocabulary of the English language consist of? 2. What words are called words of native origin? 3. What words are called borrowed words? 4. How do we define the role of words in the language? 5. Words of which origin play an important role in the English language? 6. What peculiarities have the native words in the English language? 7. What did scientists call the borrowed words? 8. What are the extra-linguistic causes of borrowings? 9. What are the linguistic causes of borrowings? 10. What are the two ways of borrowings in the English language?

§3. The classification of borrowed words

Some scientists classify borrowings into: phonetic borrowings, translation loans, semantic borrowings, morphemic borrowings.

Phonetic borrowings are most characteristic in all languages, they are called loan words proper. Words are borrowed with their spelling, pronunciation and

meaning. Then they undergo assimilation, each sound in the borrowed word is substituted by the corresponding sound of the borrowing language. In some cases the spelling is changed. The structure of the word can also be changed. The position of the stress is very often influenced by the phonetic system of the borrowing language. The paradigm of the word, and sometimes the meaning of the borrowed word are also changed. Such words as: labour, travel, table, chair, people are phonetic borrowings from French; apparatchik, nomenklatura, sputnik are phonetic borrowings from Russian; bank, soprano, duet are phonetic borrowings from Italian etc.

Translation loans are word-for-word (or morpheme-for-morpheme) translations of some foreign words or expressions. In such cases the notion is borrowed from a foreign language but it is expressed by native lexical units, «to take the bull by the horns» (Latin), «living space» (German) etc. Some translation loans appeared in English from Latin already in the Old English period, *For example*. Sunday (solis dies). There are translation loans from the languages of Indians, such as: «pipe of peace», «pale-faced», from German «masterpiece», «homesickness», «superman».

Semantic borrowings are such units when a new meaning of the unit existing in the language is borrowed. It can happen when we have two relative languages which have common words with different meanings, *For example*. there are semantic borrowings between Scandinavian and English, such as the meaning «to live» for the word «to dwell» which in Old English had the meaning «to wander».

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

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

There are different kinds of borrowed words.

According to the nature of the borrowing borrowed words may be: 1) borrowings proper; 2) translation loans; 3) semantic loans.

Borrowings proper are words which are taken from another language with their sound, graphic forms and their meaning.

For example. street, wine (from Latin), anger, scare (from Scandinavian), garage (from French),

Translation loans are words or expressions formed from the elements existing in the English language according to the patterns of the source language. *For example*. collective-farm, five-year-plan, house of rest, peaceful coexistence.

A semantic loan is the borrowing of a meaning for a word already existing in the English language. *For example*, the compound word «shock brigades which existed in the English language with the meaning “ аврийная бригада”received a new meaning «ударная бригада» under the influence of the Russian language (compare Russian «ударная бригада»). The English word «pioneer» meant «explorer» and «one who is among the first in new field of activity*. A word borrowed from another language never brings into the adopting language the whole of its semantic structure (meaning). It is borrowed in one of its meanings. *For example*, the Russian word «sputnik» was borrowed by the English language only in the meaning of artificial satellite.

«Whenever the need filling motive plays a part, the borrower is being confronted with some new object or practice for which he needs words. Under these conditions . . . three rather distinct things may happen, giving rise respectively to «loanwords», «loanshifts» and «loanblends».

«Loanwords». The borrower may adopt the donor's word along with the object or practice; the new form in the borrower's speech is then a loanword . . . When confronted with a new object or practice for which words are needed, the borrower may somehow adapt material in his own language. A new idiom arises and since it arises under the impact of another linguistic system, it is a «loanshift» . . . Loanshifts involve lexical and semantic change and in some cases may lead to minor grammatical change.

Loanblends. A loanblend is a new idiom developed in the borrowing situation in which both the loanword and the loanshift mechanisms are involved: the borrower imports part of the model and replaces part of it by something already in his own language, (Ch. F. Hockett)

«The type of word borrowed by personal contact would undoubtedly at first be names of objects unfamiliar to the borrowers, or products and commodities exchanged by way of trade. If the contacts were maintained over a long period then ideas concerned with government, law, religion and customs lie might be absorbed and perhaps the names of these would be adopted. Only in the case of nations in relatively advanced, stages of civilization would there be much influence exerted through the written word; concrete objects would come first, then abstract ideas learnt from what might actually be seen from their effects in everyday life and abstract ideas through the indirect contact achieved by books would come much later. (/ A. Sheard).

§4. Assimilation of borrowed words in English

When a word comes into another language it adapts the phonetic, grammatical, lexical system of that language. This process is considered as the assimilation of a borrowed word. The assimilation of borrowed words may be: 1) grammatical, 2) phonetic; 3) lexical. In phonetic assimilation we speak about the changes of a word in its sounds and stress. *For example*, Modern English

«change» came from French «changer» [ʒɑ̃ʒəʁ]. We can see the following changes of it in the English language. [ʃ] is changed into [tʃ]; [ɑ̃] into [ei]; [ʒ] into [dʒ]. The stress in French words falls on the final syllable where as in English on the initial. , **For example.** F.: hist'oir.-E. 'history.

If a borrowed word loses its former grammatical categories and inflexions and gets new grammatical categories and paradigms by analogy with other English words we say the word is undergone grammatical assimilation. **For example.** sputnik, sputnik's, sputniks, sputnik. Sometimes the foreign inflexions are fallen off. **For example.** Lat. consultare (V) Eng.consult.

The borrowed word very often undergoes simplification. **For example.** F. salade. Eng. salad.

In French «-ade» was a suffix but in English-ad is not a suffix. If many words with the same suffix or prefix are borrowed the speaker of the language thinks that they are word—building elements. A borrowed suffix is joined to a native word. This brings about the creation of hybrid words like «shortage», lovable, understandable. When a word is taken over into another language its semantic structure as a rule undergoes great changes. Polysemantic words are usually adopted only in one or two meanings. **For example.** Lat. «bilingual» had 4 meanings, but in-English it has one meaning. Besides a word will develop new meanings. **For example.** F. «move» has many meanings in English. Such meanings as «внести предложения в определённом кругу двигаться» are not found in French.

According to the degree of assimilation the borrowings are divided into:

1) fully assimilated borrowings. They are such borrowings which are not differed (distinguished) as borrowings. English people will surprise if they hear that the words table, chair, people take, get are borrowed words.

2) partially assimilated borrowings: they have undergone very small changes. **For example.** garage, which, still has three pronunciations [gærædʒ], [gɑ:rəʒ], [gʰrɑ:ʒ].

3) unassimilated borrowings or barbarisms. These words are used by the English people, when they speak about the customs and the life of other nations. **For example.** rickshaw (Chinese), sherbet (Arabian), caique (Turkish), khan (Arab), khakan (Turkish) etc.

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

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

Completely or fully assimilated borrowings are not felt as foreign words in the language, cf the French word «sport» and the native word «start». Completely assimilated verbs belong to regular verbs, **For example.** correct -corrected. Completely assimilated nouns form their plural by means of s-inflexion, **For**

example gate- gates. In completely assimilated French words the stress has been shifted from the last syllable to the last but one.

Semantic assimilation of borrowed words depends on the words existing in the borrowing language, as a rule, a borrowed word does not bring all its meanings into the borrowing language, if it is polysemantic, **For example**, the Russian borrowing «*sputnik*» is used in English only in one of its meanings.

Partially assimilated borrowings are subdivided into the following groups: a) borrowings non-assimilated semantically, because they denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from the language of which they were borrowed, **For example**. sari, sombrero, taiga, kvass etc. b) borrowings non-assimilated grammatically. **For example**. nouns borrowed from Latin and Greek retain their plural forms (bacillus - bacilli, phenomenon - phenomena, datum -data, genius - genii etc. c) borrowings non-assimilated phonetically. Here belong words with the initial sounds /v/ and /z/, **For example**. voice, zero. In native words these voiced consonants are used only in the intervocal position as allophones of sounds /f/ and /s/ (loss - lose, life - live). Some Scandinavian borrowings have consonants and combinations of consonants which were not palatalized, **For example**. /sk/ in the words: sky, skate, ski etc (in native words we have the palatalized sounds denoted by the digraph «sh», **For example**. shirt); sounds /k/ and /g/ before front vowels are not palatalized **For example**. girl, get, give, kid, kill, kettle. In native words we have palatalization, **For example**. German, child.

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

d) borrowings can be partly assimilated graphically, **For example**. in Greek borrowings «y» can be spelled in the middle of the word (symbol, synonym), «ph» denotes the sound [f] (phoneme, morpheme), «ch» denotes the sound [tʃ] (chemistry, chaos), «ps» denotes the sound /s/ (psychology).

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

There is some difference between the terms «source of borrowings» and «origin of borrowed words».

The term «source of borrowings should be used to the language from which this or that word was taken in English. The term «origin of the borrowed words is used to the language the word may be traced to i. e. to the language where the word was born.

For example. The word «table» was borrowed from the French language. So the French language is the source of borrowing but its origin is Latin (L. tabula). The word «school» by origin is a Greek word (schole) but its source is Latin. paper<F. papier<L. papyrus<Gr. papyros

The source of borrowing is of greater importance for us because it has the imprint of the sound and graphic form. The morphological and semantic characteristic of the language they were borrowed from.

Borrowings may be classified according to the sources i.e the language from which the words were borrowed.

1. Celtic borrowings: bard, brat, slagan, whisky, machintosh.
2. Latin borrowings: street, wine, angel, monk, plant, exacute, congratulate, chalk, produce.
3. Scandinavian borrowings: anger, scare, take, get, skirt, skill, drop, true; pronouns: they, their, them.
4. French borrowings: judge, army, royal, machine, police, air, place, brave, accept, sport.
5. Russian borrowings: soviet, sputnik, kolkhos, cosmos, cosmonaut etc.
6. Italian borrowings: confetti, macaroni, opera, sonata, soprano,
7. Spanish borrowings: tomato, potato, tobacco, and others.

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

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

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

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

The largest group of borrowings are French borrowings. Most of them came into English during the Norman conquest. French influenced not only the vocabulary of English but also its spelling, because documents were written by French scribes as the local population was mainly illiterate, and the ruling class was French. Runic letters remaining in English after the Latin alphabet was borrowed were substituted by Latin letters and combinations of letters, *For*

example. «v» was introduced for the voiced consonant /v/ instead of «f» in the intervocal position /lufian - love/, the digraph «ch» was introduced to denote the sound /ch/ instead of the letter «c» / chest/ before front vowels where it had been palatalized, the digraph «sh» was introduced instead of the combination «sc» to denote the sound /sh/ /ship/, the digraph «th» was introduced instead of the Runic letters «θ» and « þ »/this, thing/, the letter «y» was introduced instead of the Runic letter «ȝ» to denote the sound /j/ /yet/, the digraph «qu» substituted the combination «cw» to denote the combination of sounds /kw/ /queen/, the digraph «ou» was introduced to denote the sound /u:/ /house/ (The sound /u:/ was later on diphthongized and is pronounced /au/ in native words and fully assimilated borrowings). As it was difficult for French scribes to copy English texts they substituted the letter «u» before «v», «m», «n» and the digraph «th» by the letter «o» to escape the combination of many vertical lines /«sunu» - «son», luvu» - «love»/.

French borrowings which came into English after 1650 retain their spelling, **For example.** consonants «p», «t», «s» are not pronounced at the end of the word (buffet, coup, debris), Specifically French combination of letters «eau» /ou/ can be found in the borrowings : beau, chateau, troussau. Some of digraphs retain their French pronunciation: 'ch' is pronounced as /sh/, **For example.** chic, parachute, 'qu' is pronounced as /k/ **For example.** bouquet, «ou» is pronounced as /u:/, **For example.** rouge; some letters retain their French pronunciation, **For example.** «i» is pronounced as /i:/, e.g. chic. machine; «g» is pronounced as /ʒ/, **For example.** rouge.

There are the following semantic groups of French borrowings:

- a) words relating to government: administer, empire, state, government;
- b) words relating to military affairs: army, war, banner, soldier, battle;
- c) words relating to jury: advocate, petition, inquest, sentence, barrister;
- d) words relating to fashion: luxury, coat, collar, lace, pleat, embroidery;
- e) words relating to jewelry; topaz, emerald, ruby, pearl;
- f) words relating to food and cooking: lunch, dinner, appetite, to roast, to stew.

Words were borrowed from French into English after 1650, mainly through French literature, but they were not as numerous and many of them are not completely assimilated. There are the following semantic groups of these borrowings:

- a) words relating to literature and music: belle-lettres, conservatoire, brochure, nuance, pirouette, vaudeville;
- b) words relating to military affairs: corps, echelon, fuselage, manouvre;
- c) words relating to buildings and furniture: entresol, chateau, bureau;
- d) words relating to food and cooking: ragout, cuisine.

Cultural and trade relations between Italy and England brought many Italian words into English. The earliest Italian borrowing came into English in the 14-th century, it was the word «bank» from the Italian «banco» - «bench». Italian money-lenders and money-changers sat in the streets on benches. When they

suffered losses they turned over their benches, it was called «banco rotta» from which the English word «*bankrupt*» originated. In the 17-th century some geological terms were borrowed : volcano, granite, bronze, lava. At the same time some political terms were borrowed: manifesto, bulletin.

But mostly Italian is famous by its influence in music and in all Indo-European languages musical terms were borrowed from Italian : alto, baritone, basso, tenor, falsetto, solo, duet, trio, quartet, quintet, opera, operette, libretto, piano, violin.

Among the 20-th century Italian borrowings we can mention : gazette, incognito, autostrada, fiasco, fascist, dilettante, grotesque, graffito etc.

Spanish borrowings came into English mainly through its American variant. There are the following semantic groups of them:

- a) trade terms: cargo, embargo;
- b) names of dances and musical instruments: tango, rumba, habanera, guitar;
- c) names of vegetables and fruit: tomato, potato, tobacco, cocoa, banana, ananas, apricot etc.

English belongs to the Germanic group of languages and there are borrowings from Scandinavian, German and Holland languages, though their number is much less than borrowings from Romanic languages.

By the end of the Old English period English underwent a strong influence of Scandinavian due to the Scandinavian conquest of the British Isles. Scandinavians belonged to the same group of peoples as Englishmen and their languages had much in common. As the result of this conquest there are about 700 borrowings from Scandinavian into English.

Scandinavians and Englishmen had the same way of life, their cultural level was the same, they had much in common in their literature therefore there were many words in these languages which were almost identical, **For example.**

ON	OE	Modern E
syster	sweoster	sister
fiscr	fisc	fish
felagi	felawe	fellow

However there were also many words in the two languages which were different, and some of them were borrowed into English , such nouns as: bull, cake, egg, kid, knife, skirt, window etc, such adjectives as: flat, ill, happy, low, odd, ugly, wrong, such verbs as : call, die, guess, get, give, scream and many others.

Even some pronouns and connective words were borrowed which happens very seldom, such as : same, both, till, fro, though, and pronominal forms with «*th*»: they, them, their.

Scandinavian influenced the development of phrasal verbs which did not exist in Old English, at the same time some prefixed verbs came out of usage, **For example.** Ofniman, beniman. Phrasal verbs are now highly productive in English /take off, give in etc/.

There are some 800 words borrowed from German into English. Some of them have classical roots. *For example*, in some geological terms, such as: cobalt, bismuth, zink, quarts, gneiss, wolfram. There were also words denoting objects used in everyday life which were borrowed from German: iceberg, lobby, rucksack, Kindergarten etc.

In the period of the Second World War the following words were borrowed: Volkssturm, Luftwaffe, SS-man, Bundeswehr, gestapo, gas chamber and many others. After the Second World War the following words were borrowed: Berufsverbot, Volkswagen etc. Modern German borrowings also have some peculiarities in their spelling: common nouns are spelled with a capital letter *For example*, Autobahn, Lebensraum; some vowels and digraphs retain their German pronunciation, *For example*, «a» is pronounced as /a:/ (Dictat), «u» is pronounced as /u:/ (Kuchen). «au» is pronounced as /au/ (Hausfrau), «ei» is pronounced as /ai/ (Reich); some consonants are also pronounced in the German way, *For example*, «s» before a vowel is pronounced as /z/ (Sitskrieg), «v» is pronounced as /f/ (Volkswagen). «w» is pronounced as /v/, «ch» is pronounced as /h/ (Kuchen).

Holland and England have constant interrelations for many centuries and more than 2000 Holland borrowings were borrowed into English. Most of them are nautical terms and were mainly borrowed in the 14-th century, such as: freight, skipper, pump, keel, dock, reef, deck, leak and many others.

Besides two main groups of borrowings (Romanic and Germanic) there are also borrowings from a lot of other languages. We shall speak about Russian borrowings, borrowings from the language which belongs to Slavonic languages.

There were constant contacts between England and Russia and they borrowed words from one language into the other. Among early Russian borrowings there are mainly words connected with trade relations, such as: rouble, copeck, pood, sterlet, vodka, sable, and also words relating to nature, such as: taiga, tundra, steppe etc. There is also a large group of Russian borrowings which came into English through Russian literature of the 19-th century, such as : Narodnik, moujik, дума, zemstvo, volost, ukase etc, and also words which were formed in Russian with Latin roots, such as: nihilist, intelligenzia, Decembrist etc. The independence and international relations of Uzbekistan with Great Britain gave the way to the penetration of Uzbek words into the English language: *For example*, Oliy Majlis, camolot, khorim, hashar, viloyat etc.

§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 are called etymological doublets. In English there are some groups of them: **Latino-French doublets**.

Latin

English from Latin

English from

French

uncia
moneta
camera

inch
mint
camera

ounce
money
chamber

Scandinavian: skirt English: shirt

There are also etymological doublets which were borrowed from the same language during different historical periods, such as French doublets:

gentle – мягкий (юмшок) genteen – благородный (олийжаноб).

Sometimes etymological doublets are the result of borrowing different grammatical forms of the same word. For example the Comparative degree of Latin «super» was «superior» which was borrowed into English with the meaning «high in some quality or rank». The Superlative degree (Latin «supremus») in English «supreme» with the meaning «outstanding», «prominent». So «superior» and «supreme» are etymological doublets.

Answer the following questions:

1. What kinds of borrowed words do you know? 2. What are borrowings proper? 3. What are translation loans? 4. What are the semantic loans? 5. How many meanings does the borrowed word bring into the adopting language? 6. What is the assimilation of a borrowed word? 7. What is a phonetic assimilation? 8. What is a grammatical assimilation? 9. What is a lexical assimilation? 10. What is the degree of assimilation of a borrowed word? 11. What are etymological doublets?


§7. The result of borrowings

A great number of borrowings left some imprint upon the language. We can find the influence of borrowings in the vocabulary of the English language. It changed its synonymic groups because as a result of borrowings there appeared a number of synonymic groups in English.

For example feed (native) — nourish (borrowed); meet (native) — encounter (borrowed).

We can see the differentiation in meaning between native and borrowed synonymous words. **For example** the native word «stool» was used for all kinds of furniture where we can sit. But under the influence of the French word «chair» its meaning is narrowed now. It is used for only one kind of furniture (табуретка — stool). As a result of borrowing some words of native origin are not used in the literary national language they have become dialectal.

For example. ea — сув тўплами (поток воды), река river.

heal  скрывать, покрывать — cover -кошпамок
heal

2 A great number of borrowings influenced on the morphological structure of English. We can find a number of new affixes in English.

For example. re-, inter-, able-, -ee-, -sm, co-, de-, trans-, -al, -cy-, -ic-, -ical. These are very productive affixes. They are used mostly with romanic words. New English suffix — nik came from the Russian language in the word sputnik, now it is a very productive suffix in English.

For example. beatnik — человек, отрицающий существующие социалбные ценности, последователь, сторонник каких либо идей, направлений, образа жизни, любитель чего-либо (ишкибоз); folknik — пропагандист народных песен (миллий ашуларни ташвикут килувчи); filmnik — любитель кино (киноишкибоз); protestnik — протегующий против чего-либо (карши чикувчи); peacenik — борец за мир (тинчлик учун курашувчи); citizen — городской житель (шахарли).

The suffixes -ous, -ive, -ent are not used to form new words, they are non-productive borrowed affixes. A great number of words with bound morphemes appeared. **For example.** tolerate, tolerable.

The English language has adopted from other languages such pronouns as they, them, their, she, such, same and the numeral «second»;

The influence of borrowings can be seen on the phonetic structure of words in English too. There appeared a number of words of new phonetic structure. **For example.** words with the initial [ps] psychology, [pn] pneumatic. In Middle English as a result of a number of French borrowings we can see the appearance of the new diphthong [oi] in English: point, joint, poison. The initial [sk] also appeared as a result of the influence of Scandinavian borrowings: skin, skip. «i» which was impossible in Old English came to be used at the beginning of the word. **For example** very, vain, victory. The sound [dʒ] began to be used at the beginning of the word. **For example.** jungle, journey. A high percentage of polysyllabic words can be found in English as a result of borrowings. **For example.** company, condition, government, important. The sound [fj] came to be used intervocal position. **For example.** effect, affair.

There are many . . . words, one a native word, the other a Romance loan, originally of either identical or similar meaning with some distinction made today, such as «freedom» and «liberty», «happiness» and «felicity», «help» and «aid», «hide»; and «concea!», «love», and «charity», «meal» and «re-past», «wedding» and «marriage», «wish» and «desire» and we should find that the native word has a more emotional, sense is homely and unassuming, whereas the loan word is colder, aloof, more dignified, more formal . . .

Sometimes the word may have disappeared from the standard language and yet have survived in regional dialect. OE «eme» was replaced by «uncle», yet «eme» still survives in Scots dialect (/ *A. Sheard*)

Answer the follpwing questions.

1 . What is the source of borrowings? 2. What is the origin of borrowings? 3. How do we classify the borrowed words according to their sources? 4. What is the influence of borrowings on the vocabulary of the English language? 5. What is the influence of borrowings on the morphological structure of the English language? 6.

What pronouns and numerals has the English language adopted from other languages? 7. What is the influence of borrowings on the phonetic structure of the English language? 8. What diphthongs appeared in English as a result of French borrowings?

Problems for discussion

1. Note the different terms used in linguistic literature to denote the process of taking over elements from another language and the adopted elements themselves.
2. Compare the understanding of the terms 'native' and 'borrowed' in linguistic publications.
3. Point out the kinds of borrowing distinguished in linguistic literature.
4. Explain the difference in the borrowing of words and affixes.
5. Discuss the causes (conditions) and ways of borrowing in English.
6. Give account of borrowings in English as a reflexion of historical links between the peoples.
7. Note the terms used by different linguists to describe the changes borrowings undergo in the adopting language.
8. Discuss the assimilation of borrowings in English.
9. Describe the operation of analogy in conjunction with borrowing.
10. Compare the use of the term 'foreign words' by different linguists.
11. Discuss the influence of the different kinds of borrowings on the English language. Make special mention of different approaches to the effect on grammar.
12. Discuss the French influence upon the English vocabulary and its difference from earlier influences.
13. Compare the role of native and borrowed element in the English word-stock.

Literature

1. R.S. Ginzburg and others. *A Course in Modern English Lexicology*. – M., 1978
2. I.V. Arnold *The English Word*. M., 1986
3. E.M. Mednikova. *Seminars in English Lexicology*. – M., 1978
4. J.A. Sheard, *The Words We Use*. Andre Deutsh, L., 1962
5. O. Jespersen. *Growth and Structure of the English Language*, Leipzig, 1938

CHAPTER 7

ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY

§1. Dictionary compiling and its origin

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

The first unilingual dictionary explaining difficult words appeared in 1604, the author was Robert Cawdry, a schoolmaster. He compiled his dictionary for school children. In 1721 an English scientist and writer Nathan Bailey published the first etymological dictionary which explained the origin of English words. It was the first scientific dictionary, it was compiled for philologists.

In 1775 an English scientist compiled a famous explanatory dictionary. Its author was Samuel Johnson. Every word in his dictionary was illustrated by examples from English literature, the meanings of words were clear from the contexts in which they were used. The dictionary was a great success and it influenced the development of lexicography in all countries. The dictionary influenced normalization of the English vocabulary. But at the same time it helped to preserve the English spelling in its conservative form.

In 1858 one of the members of the English philological society Dr. Trench raised the question of compiling a dictionary including all the words existing in the language. The philological society adopted the decision to compile the dictionary and the work started. More than a thousand people took part in collecting examples, and 26 years later in 1884 the first volume was published. It contained words beginning with «A» and «B». The last volume was published in 1928 that is 70 years after the decision to compile it was adopted. The dictionary was called NED and contained 12 volumes.

In 1933 the dictionary was republished under the title «The Oxford English Dictionary», because the work on the dictionary was conducted in Oxford. This dictionary contained 13 volumes. As the dictionary was very large and terribly expensive scientists continued their work and compiled shorter editions of the dictionary: «A Shorter Oxford Dictionary» consisting of two volumes. It had the same number of entries, but far less examples from literature. They also compiled «A Concise Oxford Dictionary» consisting of one volume and including only modern words and no examples from literature.

The American lexicography began to develop much later, at the end of the 18-th century. The most famous American English dictionary was compiled by Noah Webster. He was an active statesman and public man and he published his first dictionary in 1806. He went on with his work on the dictionary and in 1828 he published a two-volume dictionary. He tried to simplify the English spelling and transcription. He introduced the alphabetical system of transcription where he used letters and combinations of letters instead of transcription signs. He denoted vowels in closed syllables by the corresponding vowels. He denoted vowels in the open syllable by the same letters, but with a dash above them, *For example.* / a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/. He denoted vowels in the position before /r/ as the same letters with two dots above them, *For example.* / a/, /o/ and by the letter «e» with two dots above it for the combinations «en», «ir», «ur» because they are pronounced identically. The same tendency is preserved for other sounds : /u:/ is denoted by /oo/, [y] is used for the sound /j/ etc.

Thus, lexicography is a science of dictionary-compiling. Modern English lexicography appeared in the 15 th century. In this period English-Latin dictionaries were in existence. New English Dictionary or Oxford English Dictionary was written from 1888 up to 19 28. It covers the vocabulary of English with a full historical evidence. It gives the full history of words. It has a supplement containing neologisms (new words).

§2. Types of dictionaries

There are encyclopedic and linguistic dictionaries. An Encyclopaedic dictionary gives the information of extralinguistic world. It gives the information about the important events, animals, and all branches of knowledge. They deal not with words, but with facts and concepts.

There are two main types of dictionaries: general dictionaries and special dictionaries. General dictionaries are divided into explanatory dictionaries and parallel or translation dictionaries (bilingual and multilingual). The best known explanatory dictionaries are: «The Shorter Oxford Dictionary») in two volumes, based on the NED, the COD (one volume). Chamber's 20 th Century Dictionary (one volume). WNID, New Comprehensive Standard Dictionary, the New Random House Dictionary, "Webster's Collegiate Dictionary etc.

Most of these dictionaries present the spelling, usage, pronunciation and meaning of words, grammatical information, origin of words, derivatives, phraseology, etymology, synonyms and antonyms. Pronunciation is shown either by means of the International phonetic transcription or in British phonetic notation which is somewhat different in each of the larger reference books. **For example.** [D:] is given as oh, aw, o, or, etc.

Translation dictionaries or parallel are word-books containing vocabulary items in one language and their equivalents in another language.

For example. Russian-English Dictionary under the edition of prof. A. I. Smirnitsky. The English-Russian dictionary by Miller, New English-Russian Dictionary by I. R. Galperin. The Pocket English-Russian Dictionary, by Бернюк, Чернюк English-Uzbek dictionary by J. Buranov and K- R. Rahmanberdiev etc. The translation dictionaries are based on the comparative study of the languages.

Among the general dictionaries we find Learner's Dictionary which is compiled for foreign language learners at different stages of advancement.

For example. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English by Hornby, Gatenby, Wakefield: It is a one-language (monolingual) dictionary compiled on the basis of COD. It differs from other dictionaries because it gives the information about the lexical or grammatical valency of words. The Learner's English-Russian Dictionary by Folomkina, Weiser contains approximately 3.500 words.

Specialized dictionaries give us the information of one or two particular peculiarities of words (**For example.** synonyms, collocability, frequency, etymology, pronunciation, phraseological units etc).

The best known dictionary of synonyms is Dictionary of English Synonyms Expressions by Soule and Webster's Dictionary of synonyms.

The best and most comprehensive collection of English phraseology is A. V. Koonin's English Russian phraseological Dictionary (in two volumes). The Oxford Dictionary of English Proverbs. Collin's Book of English Idioms.

There are other types of specialized dictionaries. Dictionaries of collocations. A Reum's Dictionary of English Style, Dictionaries of word Frequency (Dictionary of frequency Value of Combinability of words. Moscow 1976). The Teacher's Book of 30.000 words by E. S. Thorndike and Lorge. Michael West. A General Service List of English Words. Etymological dictionaries; *For example*. W. Skeat's Etymological Dictionary of the English Language. Pronouncing dictionaries: English Pronouncing Dictionary by D. Jones etc.

The most important problems the lexicographer comes across in compiling dictionaries are the selection of words, the selection, arrangement and definition of meanings, and the illustrative examples to be supplied. Dictionaries can't possibly register all occasional words. It is impossible to present all occurring technical terms because they are too numerous (*For example*. there are more than 400.000 chemical terminology in English). Therefore selection is made according to the aim of the dictionary.

The choice of correct equivalents depends on the type of the dictionary, and on the aim of the compilers.

§3. Entry of a dictionary.

The entry of translation dictionaries presents the meanings of words with the help of other languages.

Different types of dictionaries differ in their aim, in the information they provide and in their size. They differ in the structure and content of the entry.

Compare the following dictionary entries from the point of view of the way lexical meanings are presented. *For example*.

awful

I. N. C. Wyld. The Universal Dictionary of the English Language.

1. a) apt to fill others with awe, inspiring awe; dreadful, appalling; b) deserving and inspiring respect and reverence, solemnly impressive awful dignity.

2. (colloq) used as a mere intensive: an awful nuisance: awful nonsense.

II, The Concise Oxford Dictionary.

awful

inspiring awe, worthy of profound respect; solemnly impressive, (arch) reverential: (sl — notable in its kind as — — scrawl, bore, relief, something.

III. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English.

awful

1. dreadful, impressive, causing awe. He died and death. His sufferings were to behold.

2. (colloq intensive) very bad, very great; extreme of its kind, what nuisance! what — handwriting (weather)!

IV. Collin's New English Dictionary.

awful

full of awe. filling with fear and admiration; impressive, venerable; ugly; unsightly; extremely.

V. Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language.

awful

1. Inspiring awe. 2. Terrifying, appalling. 3. Worthy of reverence and solemn respect. 4. (colloq) a) very bad, ugly, disagreeable: unpleasant, etc; as, an awful joke, b) great as, an awful bore.

Compare the **entry** for the word **arrive** given in the following dictionaries.

arrive

Concise Oxford Dictionary

v. *i.* come to destination (lit, and fig) or end of journey (at Bath, in Paris, upon scene, at conclusion; (as Gallicism) establish one's repute or position; (of things) be brought; (of time) come; (of events) come about, [f. OF «ariver» f. L. «arribare» f. L. A Dripare come to shore (ripa)]

Webster's Collegiate Dictionary.

arrive

v. *i.* (OF, ariver, deriv. of L. ad to+ripa shore, bank)

1. Obs. To come to the shore. 2. To reach a place; as, to arrive at home. 3. To gain an object, attain a state by effort, study, etc; as, to arrive at a conclusion. 4. to come: — said of time. 5. To attain success or recognition.

syn. arrive, come, arrive implies more definitely than come the attainment of a destination. —v. *t.* Archaic. To reach; corns to.

Большой англо-русский словарь под ред Гальперина И.Р

arrive

v. *i.* (at, in, upon) — прибывает приезжать, to ~ in London — прибыть Лондон: the police ~ d upon the scene — на место происшествия прибыла полиция; to ~ punctually (tardily, in good time) — прибыть точно, с опозданием, вовремя: sold «to ~ » ком.к прибытию (условие сделки при продаже товара, находящегося в пути) 2. (at) ~ достигать (чего-л. приходиться (к чему-л)): to~at understanding — достигать взаимопонимание: to ~ at a decision — принять решение; to~at a conclusion — прийти к заключению.

M. West. The General Service List.

arrive

v. 532. 1) Arrive home in London. Arrive at an age when . . . 74%: 2) The parcel has arrived. The time has arrived when ... 11 %: 3) Arrive at a conclusion ... 12%.

Oxford Etymological Dictionary

arrive

+ bring or come to shore. land XIII; come to the end of journey, a goal, etc. XIV:+reach (a port, etc) XVI; come to pass XVII. —OF ariver (mod, arriver, arrive, happen) -Pr. aribar, Sp arribar: Rom+arripare come to land, f ad+ripo shore (of River) Formerly sometimes inflected + arove + ariven: cf STRIVE. Jones' Pronouncing Dictionary

arrive

arriv/e-s.-ing, ed-[al/s] -[ə'raiv]-ə, [iŋ],-d, -[əl/z]

The most complicated type of entry is found in explanatory dictionaries. The entry of an explanatory dictionary of the synchronic type usually presents the following data: accepted spelling, pronunciation, grammatical characteristics, the indication of the part of speech, definition of meanings, modern currency, illustrative examples, derivatives, phraseological units, etymology, synonyms, antonyms etc.

Selection and the arrangement of meanings of words in different dictionaries are different. They depend on the aim of the compilers. Diachronic dictionaries list more meanings than synchronic dictionaries of current English as they give not only the meanings in present-day use but also those which have already become archaic or gone out of use. *For example*. SOD gives 8 meanings of the verb «arrive» while. COD lists only five. The meanings of words in dictionaries may be defined by means of phrases, synonymous words and expressions. Frequency dictionaries, spelling books, etymological, ideographic and other dictionaries may have illustrative examples.

The structure of the dictionary consists of an Introduction and Guide to the use of the dictionary. It explains all the peculiarities of the dictionary and also gives a key to pronunciation, the list of abbreviations. Dictionaries have some supplementary material. It may include addenda and various word-lists: geographical names, foreign words, tables of weights and measures.

«Students should know something about the large, unabridged dictionaries to which they have ready access in college. They might well be given brief sketches of the 'Oxford English Dictionary, The English Dialect by Joseph Wright, the old Century Dictionary (12 volumes) and the modern unabridged Webster. These may be called the «Big Four» in the dictionary field.

An acquaintance with these larger works will not only make the students aware of what kind of information about words is available in them, but it will leave him much better prepared to make efficient use of the desk — size dictionary with which he has some familiarity. «clinic» is from a Greek word meaning a bed, and the meanings of the word and those of its derivatives and combination stem from this significance. (*Mitford M. Mathews*)

The Oxford English Dictionary (OED) is not a dictionary to which you turn to see whether or not a certain word is a «good» word to use. It is a book which attempts scientifically to record the history and development of every printed word in the language from the time of King Alfred to the current date of publication ...

the OED does not try to set a standard for English. It tells you as completely as possible what the language is and where it has been.

The entries for single words in the OED "after" run on four pages. The word «set» with its definition and other materials fills more than eighteen pages. «go» fills thirty — five columns and over seventy separate senses or given for «get».

In all the OED contains over 414.000 definitions, which are in turn illustrated by almost two million quotations. The total number of words in all the volumes is estimated at fifty million.

Thus, the OED records 414,825 words, of which 240.165 are main words, 67.105 subordinate words, 47,800 special combinations and 59.755 obvious combinations. There are about 500.000 definitions and more than 1,800,000 illustrative quotations. There are 16,570 pages in its 13 volumes. (*L. I. Stupin.*)

§4. Attitudes towards dictionaries

Lexicography depends on its development in the solution of some general problems of Lexicology. So, lexicography is closely connected with the problems of Lexicology. The compilers approach to lexicological problems differently. For example, there is no clear border-line between homonymy and polysemy in different dictionaries. Thus in some dictionaries words such as fly — пашша (Myxa), (a two winged insect) and a fly — Тугма учун материал (a flap of cloth covering duttons on the garment are treated as two different words and in others (*For example* the Concise Oxford Dictionary and the Advanced Learners Dictionary of Current English) — as different meanings of one and the same word.

Many of the significant contributors to the present understanding of meaning (such as Katz and Fodor 1963; Fulmore 1968; Fillmore 1971; Chafe 1970; Jackendoff 1975; Winograd 1972; Schank 1972) have generally ignored dictionaries. Yet, each has presented a formulaic structure for lexical entries to serve as a basis for the creation of a new dictionary. Although their perceptions about the nature of language are well-established, their formalisms for lexical entries have not taken advantage of the equally well-established practices of lexicography.

The rationale underlying the development of new formalisms, expressed in some cases and implicit in others, is that lexical entries in dictionaries are unsatisfactory because they do not contain sufficient information. These formalisms thus require that semantic features such as "animate" or "state" be appended to particular entries. While it is true that ordinary dictionary entries do not overtly identify all appropriate features, this may be less a difficulty inherent in definitions than the fact that no one has developed the necessary mechanisms for surfacing features from definitions.

Thus, for example, "nurse" may not have the feature "animate" in its definition, but "nurse" is defined as a "woman" which is defined as a "person" which is defined as a "being" which is defined as a "living thing"; this string seems

sufficient to establish "nurse" as "animate." In general, it seems that, if a semantic feature is essential to the meaning of a particular entry, it is similarly necessary that the feature be discoverable within the semantic structure of a dictionary.

Otherwise, there is a defect in one or more definitions, or the dictionary contains some internal inconsistency. (Clearly, it is beyond expectation that any present dictionary will be free of these problems.)

The possibility of defective definitions has also generated criticisms, more direct than above, on the potential usefulness of a dictionary. One hand, definitions are viewed as "deficient in the presentation of relevant data" since they provide meanings by using "substitutable words (i.e. synonyms), rather than by listing distinctive features" (Nida 1975: 172). On another hand, the proliferation of meanings attached to an entry is viewed as only a case of "apparent polysemy" which obscures the more general meaning of a lexeme by the addition of "redundant features already determined by the environment" (Bennett 1975: 4-11). Both objections may have much validity and to that extent would necessitate revisions to individual or sets of definitions.

However, neither viewpoint is sufficient to preclude an analysis of what actually appears in any dictionary. It is possible that a comprehensive analysis might more readily surface such difficulties and make their amelioration (and the consequent improvement of definitions) that much easier.

Even though dictionaries are viewed somewhat askance by many who study meaning, it seems that this viewpoint is influenced more by the difficulty of systematically tapping their contents than by any substantive objections which conclusively establish them as useless repositories of semantic content. However, it is necessary to demonstrate that; systematic approach exists and can yield useful results.

Some attempts have been made to probe the nature and structure of dictionary definitions. A review of relevant aspects of two such studies will help the material presented here stand out in sharper relief.

We started with the assumption that the English vocabulary comprises all the words and phraseological units existing in the language. The term "phraseological unit", however, is rather vague and allows of interpretation. If term is to be taken as including any "idiomatic expression" the meaning of which cannot be directly inferred from the meaning of its components, then all kind of various lexical items ranging from two-word groups of type give up, take in, etc. to proverbs and sayings *For example*, its the early birds that catches the worm, that is where the shoe pinches, etc., would have to be listed as separate vocabulary entries, thus greatly increasing the number of vocabulary units in English.

Another problem in Lexicology is connected with phraseological units as best man (noun equivalent), at length (adverb equivalent). They should be treated as individual vocabulary units; other types of the so-called idiomatic expressions are treated in the entries devoted to the component words of the idiomatic expressions.

Another debatable problem is the problem of homonymy, especially lexicogrammatical homonymy. If it is held by the compiler that identical sound-forms, *For example*, work (noun) and work(verb), are but different grammatical and semantic variants of one and the same word, they are accordingly treated within one and the same dictionary entry and counted as one word. This conception tends to diminish the total number of vocabulary units in English. In some cases of lexical homony my the boundary line between various meanings of polisemantic word and the meaning of two homonymous word is not sufficiently sharp and clear and allows of different approaches to the problem.

There is one more point of interest in connection with the problem of the number of words that should be mentioned here. Paradoxical as it may seem a great number of lexical items actually used by English-speaking people are never or scarcely ever recorded in dictionaries. These are words like footballer, hero-worshipper and others formed on highly productive word-building patterns. Such words are easily understood, they never strike one as 'unusual' or 'unclear'. They may be used by any member of speech community whenever the need to express a certain concept arises. Such words are usually referred to as "potential", "occasional" or "nonce-words". The terms imply that vocabulary units of this type are created for a given occasion only may be considered as but "potentially" existing in English vocabulary. The approach of the dictionary compilers to occasional words also effects the number of dictionary entries. Those dictionaries that regularly record such occasional words naturally increase the number of dictionary entries.

It may be easily observed from the above that the divergent views concerning the nature of basic vocabulary units can not but affect the estimate of the size of English vocabulary in terms of exact figures.

The connection between Lexicology and lexicography can, perhaps, best illustrated in the discussion of the number of vocabulary units in Modern English.

All the words and phraseological units existing in the language are said to be recorded in dictionaries. But the analysis of dictionaries, even those bearing the little "complete", does not allow one to draw any definite conclusion as to the exact number of vocabulary units in Modern English. Different dictionaries register different number of words. The entries even in the most comprehensive dictionaries range from 500.000 to 600.000. the problem of vocabulary counts is closely connected with the divergent views concerning the nature of basic vocabulary units and also with the difference in the approach of dictionary compilers to some of the crucial problems of lexicological science.

Counting up the entries in dictionaries we are struck by the basically different approaches to the vocabulary units as such. One and the same lexical item, say, "seal: is treated differently in different dictionaries some regarding it as one word and some as five different words. One and the same phrase, e.g by chance, is included in the vocabulary entry under the head-word chance in one dictionary, but is not to be found in another dictionary of approximately the same size. Some of

the seemingly "simple" words frequently occurring in spoken English such as footballer, hero-warshiper are not included in the best available dictionaries.

There are many points of interest closely connected with the problem of number vocabulary units in English but we shall confine ourselves to setting down in outline a few of the major issues clustering round the to central problems: 1) divergent views of the dictionary compilers concerning the nature of basic vocabulary units and 2) intrinsic heterogeneity of modern English vocabulary, all dictionaries may be roughly divided into two main types- encyclopedic and linguistic. Linguistic dictionaries are word-books, their subject matter is vocabulary-units (their semantic structure, usage, etc.). encyclopedias are thing-books dealing with concepts (objects and phenomena, their origin and development, relations to other concepts, etc.)- *for example*, entry influenza *discloses the* causes, symptoms, characteristics , derivatives, synonyms , etc. in an encyclopedia the entry influenza discloses the causes, symptoms, characteristics and varieties of this disease, various treatments of and remedies for it ,ways of infection, etc.

Answer the following questions.

1. What does lexicography study? 2. When was the first English dictionary published? 3. When did other dictionaries appear? 4. What types of dictionaries do you know? 5. What do the general dictionaries present? 6. What do the translation dictionaries contain? 7. What is the aim of a learner's dictionary? 8. What information do the specialized dictionaries give us. 9. What is the selection of words in compiling dictionaries? 10. What does the entry of a word in the dictionary contain? 11. What is the structure of dictionaries? 12. What are the attitudes towards dictionary? 12. What are the main problems in compiling dictionary?

Problems for discussion

1. Give account of the origin and development of British and American lexicography.
2. Point out different types of English dictionaries.
3. Discuss the contents and structure of an entry in explanatory dictionaries.
4. Discuss the traditions to consider the lexicographer as a linguistic legislator and as the objective recorder of the language.
5. Discuss the relation between lexicography and Lexicology.
6. Describe the problems the dictionary-maker faces in presenting word-meanings.
7. Discuss the presentation of etymology in dictionaries.
8. Describe the encyclopedic material American dictionaries often contain.
9. Discuss the use of dictionaries in language learning.

Literature

1. I.V. Arnold The English Word. M., 1986
2. E.M Mednikova. Seminars in English Lexicology. – M., 1978
3. M. Mathews. The Freshman and His Dictionary, Applied English Linguistics, ed. by Harold B. Allen, N.Y., 1964

4. R.S Ginzburg and others. A course in Modern English Lexicology. –M., 1978
5. Harold Whitehall, The Development of the English Dictionary, Essays on Language and Usage, ed. by Leonard F. Dean Kenneth G.Wilson. N.Y., 1963
6. Bergen Evens, What's Dictionary for? Essays on Language and Usage, ed. by Leonard F. Dean Kenneth G.Wilson, N.Y., 1963

CHAPTER 8

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE OF THE USA

§1. The expansion of the English language

The English language is spoken not only on the British isles but it is national language of the USA, Australia, New Zealand and some parts of Canada. As a result of the expansion of British colonialism the English language was also at different times a state language of English and American colonies in Asia and in Africa. *For example*. in India, in Pakistan, in Burma etc. After World War II as a result of the national liberation movement throughout Asia and Africa many of these colonies have got their independence and English has been replaced by the national language as a state language, *For example*.in India Hindi, in Pakistan, Urdu etc.

In this book we attempted to describe mainly the vocabulary of the American variant of the English language. The difference between the English language in America and in England has been the subject of discussion of many linguists. Some linguists think that these two variants of English are different languages. *For example*. An American linguist H. S. Mencken (the American language, N. Y. 1957) says that they are two different separate languages. Other linguists consider the language of the USA as a dialect of English. A general description of the language in America is given in prof. A. D. Shweitzer's book (Литературный английский язык в США и Англии).

§2. The difference between British and American English

He says that the difference between the American and British literary norms is not systematic. They have the same grammar system, phonetic system and vocabulary.

They can't be regarded as different languages. He says that the American language can't be considered as a dialect, because the two differ far less than the

local dialects of Dewsbury and Howden—two English towns in Yorkshire. He thinks that the American language is the variant of the English national language spoken in the USA. The American variant of the English language differs from British English in pronunciation, grammar and in vocabulary. In Phonetics: **For example.** class, ask, after, path, dance etc are pronounced not by [ɑ:] but by [æ]: [æsk], [æftə], [pæθ], [dæns].

In spelling: cosy — cozy, colour — color, practice — practise etc, through — thru, offence — offense, travelling — traveling.

In Grammar: **For example.** «will» is used for all persons in forming «Future Indefinite Tense». In oral speech the auxiliary verb is omitted. **For example.** instead of «I have done» they say «I done», «I-have seen», «I seen» etc, in usage of preposition «I live in the street», «I live on the streets. The letter «r» is pronounced at the end: car [ka:r]. We shall not discuss the phonetic and grammatical peculiarities of the American variant of English thoroughly because they are the aim of other subjects — Grammar and Phonetics.

We shall discuss the lexical differences between the British and American variants of English. English words maybe divided into three groups: 1) those which are used both in England and in the USA or we call them «General English».

For example. country, nation, language, person, give etc; 2) those which are used only in America, «Americanisms»: drugstore (аптека), mailbox (почта), subway (метро), sidewalk (тротуар) truck — (грузовик) supermarket (большой магазин); 3) those which are used only in Britain; fortnight, flat, underground, lorry, pavement, government. In some cases two words can be used in both variants of English but one of them is more frequent in Britain, the other is in the USA. **For example.** «autumn» is more frequent in England but «fall» in the USA. «Time table is very frequent in Britain but «schedule» is very frequent in the USA. «Post» is more frequent in England but «mail» is very frequent in the USA. «Notice» is frequent in England, «bulletin» is in America etc.

Many words have wider meaning in the USA. **For example.** the verb «to fix» is a slatternly verb of all words in American speech. It can mean «repair, get ready, arrange, matters with, cook, comb» etc. **For example.** He's fixed it with the policeman. Fix a fire. Fix yourself up. She is fixing supper right now. Wait till I fix my hair etc.

The verb «to raise» in American English can be used in the relation of trees, animals and children, but in England in these cases three different verbs are used.

Ex: In England: one grows farm or garden, products, breeds animals and rears children. In America: one raises them all. Besides them many words in America have other meanings. The word «shop» in America has the meaning of «тузатадиган жой» (мастерская) but in the meaning of «дўкон» (магазин), the word «store» is used. So «shoe shops in America is «пойафзал тузатадиган ишхона»

(мастерская для починки обуви) А «shoe shop» in England is «пойафзал

дўкони» (обувной магазин). «first floors and «second floor» in America are «биринчи кават» (первый этаж), «иккинчи кават» (второй этаж) but in England «first floor» is «иккинчи кават» (второй этаж) and «биринчи кават» (первый этаж) is «the ground floor. «dessert» in England — «кечки овқатдан кейинги ширинлик» (десерт после ужина: олма (яблоко), ёнғок (орехи), узум (винограда)) in America it means — only sweets.

One of the characteristic features of American English is the formation of shortened words.

For example. D. P. (displaced person) FEAF (Far East Air Forces), Cincpoa (Commander in Chief of Pacific Ocean Area) etc. The differences of American and British English are based on the historical causes.

The American Continent was discovered only in the 15th century. The first colonies came there in 1607 (at the beginning of the 17th century). For more than three centuries the American vocabulary developed independently and was influenced by the new surroundings. Many words were borrowed from Indian people's languages who live in America. These words are usually the words which express geographical names, names of trees, animals, birds, fish etc.

For example. hickory гикори — орех, persimmon — финиковая слива, muskrat — ондатра, mose — амер. лось, squaw — индианка, mash — кукурузная каша (жўхори бўтка), ohio — прекрасная река (чиройли дарё), Oklahoma — местность. From German: smearcase — сорт сыра (пишлок тўри), bear garden, back country. From French prairie—дуг (ёй). As to wordbuilding in the two variants, it is the same. The difference lies only in the more extensive use of some of them in American variants. **For example.** affixes- ette,- ee.super- (draftee, kitchenette, supper-market) and conversion (walk out — to walk out, major •—to major) are more frequent in American English.

Thus, the differences between British and American English are not much and they do not make a system.

If we compare American and British English we'll see the followings:

In the USA

bulletin board
fish dealer
grocery
can opener
administration
stock
baggage
intermission
newsie
game
editorial
check
mail

In Great Britain

notice board
fish monger
grocer's shop
tin opener
government
share
luggage
interval
newsboy
match
leader
bill
post

Answer the following questions,

1. In what countries is the English language spoken? 2. As a result of what event has the English language become the state language of different countries in Asia and in Africa? 3. What are the different opinions to the English language in the USA? 4. What are the phonetic differences between English in Great Britain and in the USA? 5. What are the grammatical differences of English in Great Britain and in the USA? 6. What are the lexical differences of English in Great Britain and in the USA? 7. What are the differences of English words in their usage in two countries? 8. What are the semantic differences of English words in Great Britain and in the USA? 9. When is the American Continent found? 10. What are the main causes of lexical distinctions of the two variants of English?

CHAPTER 9

METHODS USED IN LEXICOLOGICAL RESEARCH

In Modern English different methods are used in lexicological research:

1) Contrastive analysis; 2) Statistical methods of analysis; 3) Immediate constituents analysis; 4) Distributional analysis; 5) Transformational analysis; 6) Componential analysis. 7. Cognitive analysis etc.

§1. Componential analysis

In this analysis linguists proceed from the assumption that the smallest units of meaning are sememes or semes . *For example*. In the lexical item "woman " several sememes may be singled out, such as human , not an animal, female , adult. The analysis of the word "girl" will show the following sememes : human , female , young. The last component of the two words differentiates them and makes impossible to mix up the words in the process of communication .

The formalized representation of meaning helps to find out different semantic components which influence collocability of words (*during the day* but not *during the stairs*, *down the stairs* but not *down the day*).

Componential analysis is practically always combined with transformational procedures or statistical analysis .The combination makes it possible to find out which of the meanings should be represented first of all in the dictionaries of different types and how the words should be combined in order to make your speech sensible .

The term «componential analysis» was first used by W. Goodenough. «Componential Analysis and the Study of Meaning». Language, 1956, 32, 1) and

F. Lounsbury «A Semantic Analysis of the Pawnee Kinship Usage», *Language*, 1956, 32, 1).

Words have meanings and the smallest units of meaning are called sememes or components of meaning. The word «*woman*» has the following components of meaning «*human*», «*female*», «*adult*».

girl	human female young	woman	human female adult
------	--------------------------	-------	--------------------------

The component «*young*» distinguishes the word «*girl*» from «*woman*».

girl	human female young	boy	human male young
------	--------------------------	-----	------------------------

Here the component «*male*» distinguishes the word «*boy*» from «*girl*».

Componential analysis deals with individual meanings. Different meanings of polysemantic words have different componential structure. *For example*, the comparison of two meanings of the word «*boy*».

1. a male child	human male young up to the age 17 or 18	2. a male servant	human male any age
-----------------	--	-------------------	--------------------------

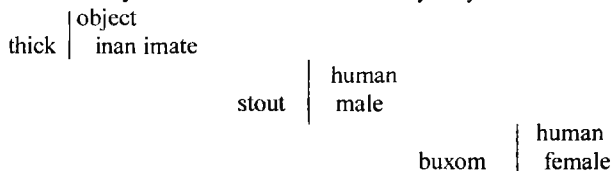
Each part of speech has a distinguishing semantic feature. Nouns have the component «*substantiality*» or «*thingness*», adjectives have «*quality*» and so on. The semantic features of words may be classified into markers and distinguishers. Semantic markers are semantic features which can be found (or are present) also in the lexical meaning of other words. Distinguishers are semantic features which are individual, which are not present in the lexical meaning of other words.

spinster	countable noun human adult female who has never married
----------	---

«*Countable noun*» — is a marker, because it represents a subclass within nouns and it is a semantic feature which the word «*spinster*» has in common with all other countable nouns (boy, table, flower, idea etc.). «*human*» is a marker because it refers the word «*spinster*» to nouns denoting human beings. «*adult*» is a marker because it is a subdivision of human beings into adult and young. «*female*» is a marker too because it shows a subclass of adult females as woman, widow, mother etc. «*Who has never married*» — is a distinguisher

because it differentiates the meaning of the word from other words which have all other common semantic features.

Componential analysis is also used in the investigation of the semantic structure of synonyms. There is a certain component of meaning which differs one member from any other member of the same synonymic set.



The adjective «*thick*» has no the component «*human*», «*stout*» does not contain the semantic component «*object*» (a thick book, a stout man) and the adjective «*buxom*» possesses the semantic component «*female*» which is not to be found in either the English adjectives «*thick*» or «*stout*».

The analysis into the components «*animate*», «*inanimate*», «*object*» «*human*», «*male*» «*female*» shows the difference in the meaning of synonyms.

The analysis helps us to find out the correspondence between the semantic structure of correlated words or correlated meanings of words in different languages. The words «*thick*», «*stout*», «*buxom*» and the word “толстый” (семиз) are not semantically identical because the Russian word «толстый» is used to describe both humans and objects, *For example.* толстый человек, толстая книга

The Uzbek word «*семиз*» does not contain the semantic component «*male*» and «*female*».

The components of the lexical or the grammatical meanings may be singled out by the co-occurrence analysis

Unfortunately the dictionaries do not always point out such semantic components of words as «*animate — inanimate*», «*human—nonhuman*», «*young — old*» etc. We know these components in their collocability with certain types of nouns.

The semantic components of the verb «to smoke» such as «*age*», «*human*» can be found when it is combined with certain nouns denoting these components.

The «*female*» or «*male*» component of the meaning of the noun «*baby*» can be observed through the co-occurrence of it with the possessive pronouns «*his*» or «*her*».

The baby drank his milk, the baby drank her milk

The componential analysis is widely used in modern linguistics. (Nida E. Gornponential Analysis of Meaning. The Hague, 1975)

The words in different languages have their own semantic components.

Comparing the English verb «*to go*», Uzbek word «*бормоқ*» and Russian «*ходить*», «*ехать*» we can see that in the English and Uzbek words the way of movement is not shown. But in Russian verbs *ходить* and *ездить* this component

is shown in them. We see here the hidden component of meaning. The hidden component of meaning is a component which can be revealed through the collocability of words.

It is impossible to say in Russian «*есть неумком*». R. S. Ginzburg says that the hidden component of meaning of words is the linguistic property of the word. It can be found with the help of co-occurrence analysis. (See “distributional analysis”) To study the hidden components of words is very important for language teaching.

§2. Cognitive analysis of words

Cognitive linguistics has not well been defined yet among the linguists, because of its some fragmentarity and uninvestigation. In general cognitive linguistics is defined as linguistic approach which studies mental process of experiences of person and their results-knowledge. The essence of the cognitive linguistics is the imagination about the language as cognitive mechanism, giving the information on the world, and it is many-sidedly connected with the working up this information, it has directly relation to the construction, organization and improvement of the information and ways of its representation. It provides communicative process which presents a definite layers of knowledge¹.

Summerizing the accumulated experience in the field of cognitive linguistics it is necessary to point out number of basic principles on which cognitive investigation is based on:

1) language is considered as a mental phenomena, as specific cognitive ability;

2) the position about creative, linguistic activity;

3) the problem of correlation between linguistics and mental structures, the process of characterization and conceptionizing of the world and their reflection in the languages are the crucial problems of cognitive linguistics;

Postulating the necessity of the research is not only the external manifestation of the language but internal system of presentation of linguistic knowledge. The interpretation is done in the definite model of knowledge: using linguistic knowledge; constructing the models etc.

Cognitive linguistics tries to work at primarily the conceptual information acquired in the experience of the world. Conceptual system is the system of opinions and knowledge on the world.

For example. Cognitive analysis of metaphor prefers the investigation not the separate cases of metaphorical formation of linguistic form but their systematic description of the definition of the basic categoric types.

1. Д.Ашурова. Стилистика текста в парадигме когнитивной лингвистики // Филология масаллари –Тошкент 2003/1

For example. metaphors, including the component “high” are associated with the concept “success”, “flourishing”, “power”: higher-up, high-flyer, high-handed, high-minded, high-stepper, high-tide:

The metaphors with the component “down” is symbolized with “unsucces”, “bad mood”, failure: down-and-out, down-cost, downcome, downfallen, downhearted, downhill.

The concept “frame” is all the knowledge represented in human beings’ mind as a definite structure. So frame is the structural organization of the knowledge, it is a cognitive correlator of this or that linguistic situation.

The meaning of the word “black” correspondes to the life situations in human’s mind which gets the problem of knowledge and their representation in the language, the verbal expression and gives rise to number of linguistic units with negative, emotional, evaluative meanings: black-ball, black-list, black-mail, black-heart, black-market, black-mark, black-cat, black-magic, black-sheep. Black cat is associated with the concept “bad luck” the reason for such association is the existence of bad sign about a black cat crossing the road in many nations.

Concepts are divided into two types: concepts with universal meaning and concepts, having national-cultural significance. **For example** concept “beauty”¹ having universal properties has also national and cultural peculiarities. The result of comparative analysis of female beauty in Uzbek and English confirm that different cultures evaluate female beauty differently.

In English: a) sexual attraction: sexy (enchantress, fox, babe) b) dangerous and destructive beauty: dangerous (siren, fimme-fatale, gold-digger, vamp)

In Uzbek the inner sinsere quality is paid attention in female beauty. Ex: modesty, obedience, diligence and etc. (эпчил, ширин сўз, мулойимлик, эрига итоат, камтар and others)¹

§3. Method of semantic differential.

A word has not only one meaning and even one word usually implies some additional information which differentiates one word from another .

For example. to like, to love, to adore, to -warship . All the words denote positive feelings, characteristic of a human being. But each of them gives additional information on the so called strength of feeling.

This is the connotational aspect which was singled out by the semantic differential -the method which was worked out by a group of American psycholinguists . Their technique requires the subjects to judge - a series of concepts with respect to a set of antonymic adjective scale .

¹ Акбарова С.А Лингвостилистические средства и когнитивно-прагматическая значимость художественного портрета (на материале английских художественных текстов) Дисс. канд. филол. наук.-Ташкент. 2005

For example. A horse can be :good – bad, fast — slow, strong —weak, hard – soft, happy — sad.

The meaning of the divisions is that each of the quality may be gradated representing extremely good, very good, neither good nor bad, slightly bad, extremely bad and these grades can be marked by a plus .And the horse may be very good, not bad, etc.

The revealed gradations showing some portion of quality helps to single out such words which are usually referred to as neutral, expressive, archaic and new words proper-neologisms. All the methods of analysis are applied in one and the same sphere of investigation. If you are interested in meaning you shouldn't pay much attention to the structure, if you are interested in collocation of words you shouldn't pay much attention what parts of words represent the distributional structure. The combination of different methods of analysis helps to classify the vocabulary as a whole and each lexical unit taken separately . It should be said that practically no procedures function independently and separately from each other . It is only for study aims that we separate one procedure from another . In fact, being a two-faced unit a lexical item provides to be an indivisible unit I of form and content . That is why you cannot investigate one side of the item paying no attention to the other one .

§4. Distributional analysis

Distributional analysis in its various forms is commonly used nowadays. By the term "distribution" we understand the occurrence of a lexical unit relative to another lexical units of the same levels : words to words , morpheme to morphemes . In other words , by this term we understand the position which lexical unit occupies or may occupy in the text or in the flow of speech . It is observed that a certain component of the word-meaning is described when the word is identified distributionally . **For example.** In the sentence The boy_____ home . the missing word is easily identified as a verb . It may be "came , ran , went , goes" , but not as an adverb or a noun , or an adjective .

Thus , we see that the component of meaning that is distributionally identified is actually the part-of-speech meaning . It is also observed that in a number of cases words have different lexical meanings in different distributional patterns .

For example. The verb "to treat" has different lexical meanings in "to treat smb kindly " and "to treat smb to ice-cream " .

The interdependence of distribution and meaning can be also observed at the level of word-groups .

For example. It is only the distribution of completely identical lexical units but arranged on the reverse that differentiates the meaning — water tap and tap water .

This method is widely used in lexicological analysis. Thus, distribution is the occurrence of words relatively to other words. It is the position which words occupy or may occur in the text.

The words have different lexical meanings in different distributional patterns. In different distributional structures the word «ill» has different meaning: ill look, ill luck, ill health — плохой, fall ill, be ill—больной (касал)

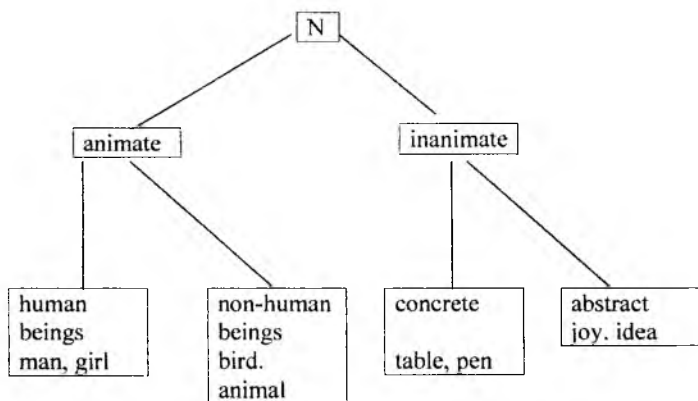
The place of a morpheme is relative to other morphemes *For example*. singer *ersing is impossible. A different pattern of arrangement of the same morphemes changes the whole into the meaningless. If we have different distribution we have different meanings.

For example. to get to London, to get angry, to get rid of. to take care of, to take off, to take in, take on, take place, take a taxi, take tea.

As was said above, different distribution of components of compound words may change the meaning of the word. *For example*. bird-cage and cage-bird, fruit-market, market-fruit, lifeboat, boat-life.

So the meaning of the word depends on its distribution. It should be pointed out that the meaning of the word is dependent on what class of words it is combined with.

Thus, nouns may be subdivided into



For example. If we use after the verb «move» the nouns denoting inanimate objects (move + inanimate N) it has the meaning: двигать (*For example*. He moved a table).

But when it is followed by the noun denoting animate human being (move +animate N) it has another meaning: He moved a man “он будил человека”. The meaning of words also different if they are combined with different Ie-xico-semantic groups. By lexico-semantic group we understand the group of words

joined together by a common concept or the words which have a common semantic component. **For example.** verbs denoting sense perception: to think, to imagine, to write, or adjectives denoting colour: red, black, yellow, etc.

For example. blind + any N denoting a living being, animate слепой (кър) without the power to see: a blind man, a blind woman, a blind cat.

blind + N denoting inanimate objects or abstract concept may have different meanings depending on the lexico — semantic group of the noun, it belongs to. So it has the meaning «безрасудный» (thoughtless) when it is combined with nouns denoting emotions. **For example.** blind love, blind fury.

With nouns denoting written or typed signs it has the meaning «hard to see», **For example.** blind handwriting, blind type.

Distributional analysis is widely used in wordformation. The analysis of the derivational pattern N + ish->-adj. shows that the suffix-«ish» is never combined with noun stems denoting time, space. It is impossible to say hourish, mileish. Many adjectives in — «ish» are formed from noun + stem denoting living beings, **For example.** wolfish, boyish, girlish.

So the distribution may be viewed as the place of words in relation to other words on the level of semantic classes and subclasses. The distributional meanings by co-occurrence may be extra-linguistic or linguistic components of meaning.

Good doctor — who treats well

Good mother — who takes care of her children well.

Here the meaning of the adjective «good» is different and it is the extra-linguistic factors that account for the difference in meaning. The linguistic components of distributional meaning can be found when we compare correlated words in different languages.

For example. In English the verb «to seize» may be combined with nouns denoting different kinds of emotions (I was seized with joy, grief, etc.) but in Russian we may say — на меня напала сомнения; but the collocations — напала радость, надежда are impossible. so the Russian verb cannot be combined with nouns denoting pleasurable emotions.

It must be said that the different semantic peculiarities of the words may be found in the distributional analysis. The verb «to giggle» refers to a type of laughter. It means «to laugh in a nervous manner» but the analysis showed that «to giggle» is often connected with the laugh of a woman (women giggle) man may giggle drunkenly or nervously but not happily or politely. Different words make different patterns.

For example. to feel one's way, to feel bad, to feel tired, to feel for something.

What is a pattern? A pattern is combination of a symbolic representation of the class of words with it may be combined.

For example. see a boy, see a place, see a book.

On the basis of these words we can draw a pattern see + N

This is called a *distributional formular*. The distributional formular is a symbolic representation. **For example.** make + (a) + N — make a coat. a machine make + (the) + N + V — make the machine go make + (A) — make sure make + (a) + A + N make a good wife. In each of these examples the meaning of «make» is different. We can divide the meaning of the verbs «to giggle», «to laugh», «to smile» into animate, person, because only a human-being can laugh:

However the laughter is not connected with sex (male/ female.). But a thorough investigation of the meaning of these verbs, and co-occurrence analysis showed that the verb «to giggle has the hidden semantic component «female». The verb «to giggle is connected with nouns expressing the female. The occurrence of this verb with nouns, denoting «male» can be seen when it is used with the adverbs drunkenly and nervously. But when the subject of the sentence is expressed by a noun denoting «female» the verb «giggle» can be used with different adverbs: to giggle happily (politely) with obvious pleasure etc.

For example. It is possible to say «The man is giggling drunkenly and nervously» but it is impossible. The man is giggling 'happily. However it is possible to say.

The girl is giggling nervously

— — — happily

— — — drunkenly

— — — politely

— — — with obvious pleasure

We can see that the semantic component «age» and «sex» may be a hidden component in some adjectives.

The adjective «pretty» has the hidden semantic component «age».

For example. a pretty child, a pretty girl but it is impossible to say a pretty old woman. This component is not given in dictionaries.

The adjectives «shabby» and «buxom» have also the hidden component «age». «a shabby child» is possible but «a shabby old mam is impossible «a buxom woman» is possible but «a buxom old woman» is impossible. Learning the hidden components of meaning is very important for us in order to master the language. For the establishment of the hidden component we must have a dictionary of frequency value of collocations. (*Ginzburg R. S.*)

§5. Transformational analysis.

Sometimes the distributional analysis alone doesn't show whether the meaning is the same or different. In this case we use transformational analysis. Transformation is any repatterning, remaking of a word group.

For example. to tear a curtain — the curtain has a tear to cut a finger — the finger has a cut. A paraphrase of a sentence in which some words are replaced by semantic equivalent is a lexical transformation.

For example. This novel is a best - seller — (this novel is) a book that has one of the biggest sales of the season. A lexical transformation keeps the meaning unchanged.

Transformational analysis in lexicological investigations may be defined as repatterning (representing , reorganization) of various distributional structures in order to discover difference or sameness of meaning of practically identical distributional patterns . As distributional patterns are in a number of cases polysemantic transformational procedures are of help not only in the analysis of semantic sameness / difference of the lexical units but also in the analysis of the factors that account for their polysemy . Word-groups of identical distributional structure when repatterned show that the semantic relations between words and consequently the meaning may be different . **For example** . A pattern "possessive pronoun "+ "noun" (his car , his failure, his arrest, his kindness) . According to transformational analysis the meaning of each word-group may be represented as : he has a car . he failed , he was arrested . he is kind . In each of the cases different meaning is revealed : possession , action , passive action , quality . The rules of sense of the term . There are many restrictions both on syntactic and lexical levels . These are :

1. Permutation - the repatterning on condition that the basic subordinative relationships between words and word-stems of the lexical units are not changed **For example** . "His work is excellent " may be transformed into " his excellent work, the excellence of his work, he works excellently ". In the example given the relationships between lexical units and the stems of the notional words are essentially the same .

2. Replacement - the substitution of a component of the distributional structure by a member of a certain strictly defined set of lexical units . **For example** . Replacement of a notional verb by an auxiliary or link verb (he will make a bad mistake and he will make a good teacher). The sentences have identical distributional structure but only in the second one the verb "to make " can be substituted by " become " or " be " . The fact of impossibility of identical transformations of distributionally identical structures is a formal proof of the difference in their meaning .

3. Addition (or expansion) may be illustrated by the application of the procedure of addition to the classification of adjectives into two groups- adjectives denoting inherent and non-inherent qualities . **For example** . John is happy . John is tall . We add a word-group " in Moscow " . We shall see that " John is happy in Moscow . " has meaning while the second one is senseless . That is accounted by the difference in the meaning of adjectives denoting inherent (tall) and non-inherent (happy) qualities .

4. Deletion - a procedure which shows whether one of the words semantically subordinated to the other . **For example** . The word-group "red flowers" may be deleted and transformed into "flowers " without making the sentence senseless : I like red flowers or I like flowers . The other word-group "red tape " can't be deleted and transformed either into " / hate tape " or "I hate red " because in both transformed sentences the meaning of the phrase "red tape" means "bureaucracy" and it can't be divided into two parts.

§6. The Immediate constituents analysis.

The Immediate Constituents (I. C.) Analysis attempts to determine the ways in which the units are related to one another. This method is based on a binary principle. In each stage of the procedure we have two components. At each stage these two components are broken into two smaller meaningful elements. The analysis is ended when we arrive at the constituents which are not divided further. These constituents are called «the ultimate constituents».

The aim of the I. C. analysis is to segment a set of lexical units into two independent constituents. The meaning of the sentence, word group and the I. C. segmentation are interdependent.

For example A fat teacher's wife may mean that either the teacher is fat or his wife is fat.

A fat teacher's/ wife — means that the teacher is fat.

A fat/ teacher's wife — means that his wife is fat.

A beautiful/ woman doctor — means that the doctor is a beautiful woman.

A beautiful woman/ doctor means that the doctor who treats woman is beautiful.

This analysis is widely used in lexicological investigations and in the study of derivational structure of words and morphemic analysis of words.

For example. denationalize (not to give a national right) may be first segmented into.

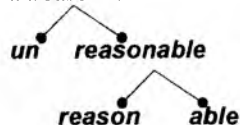
de /nationalize because the morpheme «de—» can be found in a number of other words: such as: deform, denature, denominate

The remaining part «nationalize» can be broken into national/ ize because —«ize» can be found in such words as «organize», «humanize», «recognize», «standardize». National — into nation/ al as —«al» occurs in a number of words: occupational, musical, critical.

So we have found de /nation/ al /ize — 4 ultimate constituents
«friendliness» is divided into friendly/ ness (friendly — looking) because «ness» can be found in such words as happiness, kindness, darkness, beautifulness etc.
«friendly» is divided into friend /ly because «friend» may occur in «friendship», «unfriendly» on the one hand «ly» can be seen in «wifely», «brotherly» on the other hand.

So we have found friend —ly—ness—3 ultimate constituents. We draw schemes of the morphemic analysis according to the I. C. method.

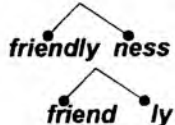
unreasonable



denationalize



friendliness



This is the morphemic analysis according to the I. C. method.

It should be pointed out that this method is very useful to find out the derivational structure of words too.

For example. denationalize has both a prefix "de — , and the suffix " — ize,.

In order to know whether this word is a prefixal or a suffixal derivative we use the I. C. analysis. We cannot divide this word into denational /ize because there is no the word «denational» or «denation». The only possible way of division is de /nationalize because there is the word «nationalize». Therefore we may say that this word is a prefixal derivative. I. C. is also useful to define the compound words and derivational compound words.

For example. snow — covered can't be divided into snow + cover + ed but snow+ covered. So it is a compound word because there is no «snow — cover» in the dictionary.

«blue + eyed may be divided into (blue + eye)+ed because there is the word «blue+eye» therefore it is a derivational compound word.

The theory of Immediate Constituents was originally elaborated as an attempt to determine the ways in which lexical units are relevantly related to one another . It was discovered that combinations of units are usually structured into hierarchical sets of binary constructions .

For example. In the word-group " a black dress in severe style " we do not relate the indefinite article "a" to adjective "black" , "black" to "dress", "dress" to "in", "in" to "severe" , "severe" to "style" .We set up a structure which may be represented as "a black dress " and "in severe style " .

Thus , the fundamental aim of immediate constituents analysis is to segment a set of lexical units into two maximally independent sequences and these maximally independent sequences are called immediate constituents . The further segmentation of immediate constituents results in ultimate constituents.

§7. Contrastive analysis

Contrastive analysis is used to reveal the features of sameness and differences in the lexical meaning and the semantic structure of correlated words in both related and non-related languages.

We must know that the objective reality exists outside human beings, every language classifies reality in its own way by means of its vocabulary units.

In English the word «foot» is used to denote the extremity of the leg. But in Uzbek and Russian there is no exact equivalent for «foot». The words «нога», «оёк» denote the whole leg including the foot.

Classification of the real world around us is learned with our first language because we are used to the way in which our own language structures experience but in the fact it is highly arbitrary.

For example. In Russian or in Uzbek one word is used for the thing that tells the time *coar*, *часы*; *coar* but in English we use two words «watch» and «clock».

In English, Uzbek some kinship terms do not reflect the difference between male and female: *cousin* (*бўла*).

In English: *nephew*, *niece*; in Russian, *двоюрный брат*, *двоюрная сестра*; in Uzbek: *жиян*, in Uzbek: «*рассом*», in Russian: «*художник*», in English: «*artist*», «*painter*», «*drawer*».

The word «*воспитывать*» can have different equivalents in English; «*educate*, to raise, to bring up».

Anything which can be said in one language can be translated more or less into another. The correlated polysemantic words of different languages are not coextensive.

Polysemantic words may denote very different types of objects but they are correlated in one basic meaning.

Englishman uses the word «*head*» to denote the following:

head of a person, *head* of a match, *head* of a bed, *head* of a table, *head* of a coin, *head* of an organization, *head* of a cane (*камыш*)

But in Russian different words have to be used: *голова*, *изголовье*, *сторона*, *головка*, in Uzbek *бош*, *бошлик*, *усти*, *учи*.

A Russian or Uzbek language learner having learnt first that the word «*head*» is the English word which denotes a part of the body he will think that it can be used in all the cases where the Russian word «*голова*» or «*бош*» in Uzbek is used. He will never think of using the word «*head*» in connection with a bed or a coin.

Here are some other examples of difference: In Russian: *свекровь*, *тёща*, In English: *mother in law*, In Uzbek: *кайнана*.

In a number of cases the English word «*new*» stands for «*новый*»: *новое платье* (a new dress). *Новый год* (New year). But there are some cases where in Russian we can't use the word *новый*; *new potatoes* — *молодая картошка*, *new bread* — *свежий хлеб*.

One Russian word «*тонкий*» may correspond to a number of English words: *тонкая книга* — a thin book, *тонкая ирония* — subtle irony, *тонкая талия* — slim waist.

One word in one language may correspond to two or more words in different languages: *карикатура* — cartoon, *caracature*.

One and the same Russian preposition may correspond to different prepositions in English.

до 5 часов — till 5 o'clock

до войны — before the war

до угла — to the corner

The well-known Russian linguist Sherba said that it would be a mistake if we supposed that the notional systems of any two languages are identical.

Contrastive linguists attempt to find out similarities and differences in both related and non-related languages. Contrastive analysis grew as the result of the

practical demands of a language-teaching methodology , where it was empirically shown that the errors which are made by foreign language students can be often traced back to the differences in structure between the target language and the language of the learner . This naturally implies the necessity of a detailed comparison of the structure of a native and a target language . This procedure has been named contrastive analysis . People proceed from the assumption that the categories , elements on the semantic as well as on the syntactic and other levels are valid for both languages .

Contrastive analysis can be carried out at three linguistic levels : phonology , grammar (morphology and syntax) and lexis . Contrastive analysis is applied to reveal the features of sameness and difference in the lexical meaning and the semantic structure of correlated words in different languages . It is commonly assumed by non-linguists that all languages have vocabulary systems in which the words themselves differ in sound-form , but refer to reality in the same way . From this assumption it follows that for every word in the mother tongue there is an exact equivalent in the foreign language . It is a belief which is reinforced by the small bilingual dictionary where single-word translation is often used .Language learning cannot be just a matter of substitution a new set of labels for the familiar ones of the mother tongue .It should be born in mind that though the objective reality exists outside human beings and irrespective of the language they speak , every language classifies reality in its own way by means of vocabulary units .

For example. In English , for example , the word "foot" is used to denote the extremity of the leg . In Russian there is no exact equivalent for "foot": "нога" is a little bit smaller than foot, the word "оëк " denotes the whole leg including the foot.

Contrastive analysis brings to light the essence of what is usually described as idiomatic English , idiomatic Russian , i. e. the peculiar way in which every language combines and structures in lexical units various concepts to denote extra-linguistic reality .

For example. A typical Russian word-group used to describe the way somebody performs an action or to state how a person finds himself has the structure that may be represented by the formula "adjective + a finite form of a verb "(он кренко чисмо ысабаваем). In English we can also use structurally similar word-groups and say "he learns fast/slowly" . The structure of idiomatic word-group in English is different. The structure is "adjective + deverbal noun " . It is really in English to say "he is a heavy smoker, poor learner, early riser " .

§8. Statistical analysis

Statistical linguistics is nowadays generally recognized as the one of the major branches of linguistics . Statistical inquiries have considerable importance because of their relevance to certain problems of communication engineering and information theory . Statistical approach proved essential in the selection of vocabulary items of a foreign language for teaching purposes . Very few people

know more than 10% of the words in their mother tongue . It follows that if we do not wish to waste time on committing to memorize vocabulary items which are never likely to be useful to the learner we have to select only lexical units that are commonly used by a native speaker .

Out of approximately 500 000 words listed in Oxford English dictionary the active vocabulary of an educated Englishman comprises no more than 30 000 words and of these 4 000 - 5 000 are presumed to be amply sufficient for the daily needs of an average member of the English speech community. Thus , it is evident that the problem of selection of teaching vocabulary is of vital importance . Statistical techniques have been successfully applied in the analysis of various linguistic phenomena . Different structural types of words , affixes , the vocabularies of great writers and poets and even in the study of some problems of Historical Lexicology. Statistical regularities can be observed only if the phenomena under analysis are sufficiently numerous . Thus , the first requirement of any statistic investigation is the size of the sample . It is known that comparatively small group of words makes up the bulk of any text . It was found that approximately 1300 - 1500 most frequent words make up 85% of all words occurring in the text . If however we analyze a sample of 60 words it is hard to predict the number of occurrences of most frequent words .

Let us take the word "room" we can find some meanings of the word : 1) "room" - denoting "space " as in "take less room , not enough room to do smth. " ; 2) part of a house as in "sitting-room " ; 3) used in plural = lodgings as in "to get rooms " . Statistical analysis shows that most frequently the word is used in its second meaning - 83% of all occurrences of the word in different texts , 12% of all takes its first meaning — "space " , and only 2% takes the third meaning of the word.

Answer the following questions:

1. What do we reveal in contrastive analysis of words of different languages? 2. Why do we classify the real word around us with our first language? 3. How do we analyse the correlated polysemantic words of different languages with the help of contrastive analysis? 4. By whom was the term «componential» analysis first used? 5. What is a sememe or a component of meaning of a word? 6. What are the markers and distinguishers? 7. How do we use the componential analysis to analyse the synonyms? 8. What is a co-occurrence analysis? 9. What is the hidden component of the meaning of the word? How can it be revealed? 10. What is the method of immediate constituents analysis? 11. What is the procedure of the use of immediate constituents analysis in the study of derivational structure of words? 12. What is a distributional analysis? 13. How does the different distribution of words change their meanings? 14. What is the distributional analysis of correlated words in different languages? 15. What is the transformational analysis? 16. What is the Cognitive analysis of words? 17. What is the conceptual analysis of words?

Recommended literature

1. Д. Ашурова. Стилистика текста в парадигме когнитивной лингвистики// Филология масалалари. –Тошкент 2003 /1
2. С.А. Акбарова лингвостилистические средства и когнитивно-прагматическая значимость художественного портрета (на материале английских художественных текстов) Автореф дис..канд. фил. наук-Ташкент, 2005
3. Т.А. Дейк Язык. Познание. Коммуникация. - М.: Прогресс, 1989. с 212
4. И.В. Арнольд Стилистика современного английского языка. – М.:Просвещение, 1990
5. H.Haberland Linguistics and pragmatics // Journal of pragmatics. – Amsterdam: John Benjamin's, 1997
6. Г.В. Колшанский Проблемы коммуникативной лингвистики // Вопросы языкознания. 1979 №6
7. А.А Кибрик Когнитивные исследования по дискурсу // Вопросы языкознания. 1994 №5
8. В.М Глушак Атрибутивные измерения текста как лингвистический феномен концептуальной связи. Дис. кад. филол. наук. –М., 1999
9. А. Вежбицкая Язык. Культура. Познание. – М.: Русские словари, 1996
- 10.В.Н Телия Русская фразеология: семантический, прагматический и лингвокультурологические аспекты –М. : Языки русской культуры, 1996
- 11.R.S Ginzburg and others. A course in Modern English Lexicology. –М., 1978
- 12.В.Г Гак Сопоставительная лексикология – М., 1977
- 13.I.V. Arnold The English Word. М., 1986
- 14.С.С Хидекель, Р.З Гинзбург, Г.Ю Князева, А.А Санкин Английская лексикология в выдержках и извлечениях. -- 1969
- 15.А.И Смирницкий. Лексикология английского языка. -М., «Русский язык», 1956
- 16.A.S Hornby. Oxford student's Dictionary of Current English. – Moscow, Oxford, 1984
- 17.M. Mathews. Meanings and etymologies. Essays on language and usage. N.U 1963
- 18.А.В Кунин. Англо-русский фразеологический словарь. – М., «Русский язык», 1981
- 19.R. Ginzburg, S. Khidekel, E. Mednikova? A. Sankin. Verbal collocation in modern English. –М.,1978
- 20.E. Krusinga. A handbook of Present Day English. -London, 1969, part 2
- 21.П.М Корашук Словообразование английского языка М., Высшая школа, 1977

22. А.Г. Дмитриева. Структура словообразовательных гнезд общегерманских существительных в современном английском языке. – М., 1971
23. Н. Marchand. The categories and Types of Present day English Wordformation. Wiesbaden, 1960
24. А.Г. Kennedy. Current English. - USA 1995
25. П.А. Соболева. Словообразовательные отношения по конверсии между глаголом отглагольных существительных в современном английском языке. Дисс. канд. фил. наук. – М., 1959
26. Е.М. Mednikova. Seminars in English Lexicology. – М., 1978
27. Ўзбек тили лексикологияси. А. Хожиев, А. Ахмедов тахрири остида. – Тошкент, 1974
28. Э.С. Азнаурова. Очерки по стилистике слова. – Ташкент, 1973
29. Т.Т. Икрамов. Фразеологические единицы с фиксированным глагольным компонентом в императиве в современном английском языке. Автореф. дисс. канд. фил. наук. – М., 1978
30. А.В. Кунин. Английская фразеология. – М., Высшая школа, 1970
31. А.В. Кунин. Фразеология современного английского языка. – М., 1970
32. А.Д. Швейцер. Литературный английский язык в США и Англии. – М., Высшая школа, 1975
33. О.М. Муминов. Опыт исследования активной слов и факторов ее обуславливающих. . Автор. дисс. канд. фил. наук. М., 1972
34. О.М. Муминов. Корреляция некоторых свойств разных этимологических групп слов в современном английском языке. // «Иностранные языки в под вузах Узбекистане. // Научные труды», Ташкент, 1977, вып 9
35. Е.Ф. Болдарева. Языковая игра как форма выражения эмоций. . Автор. дисс. канд. фил. наук. – Волгоград, 2002
36. Е.А. Господенох. Изучение эмоциональных и когнитивных характеристик психических состояний на модели нормальных родов. . Автор. дисс. канд. фил. наук. – Санктпетербург, 2002
37. М.Ю. Дементьева. Номинативно-когнитивный аспект семантики фразеологизма и слова. Автор. дисс. канд. фил. наук. – М., 2002
38. Е.В. Димитрова. Трансляция эмотивных смыслов русского концепта «тоска» во французскую лингвокультуру. Автор. дисс. канд. фил. наук. – Волгоград, 2001
39. И.В. Зыкова. Гендерный компонент в структуре и семантике фразеологических единиц современного английского языка: . Автор. дисс. канд. фил. наук. – М., 2002
40. М.Л. Ковшова. Национально-культурная специфика фразеологических единиц (когнитив аспекты): . Автореф. дисс. канд. фил. наук. – М., 1996

41. Л.Ч. Латыпов. Роль английских и русских фразеологических единиц в формировании модальности в тексте. Автореф. дисс. канд. фил. наук. – Волгоград, 2002
42. Б.Х. Реймов. Фразеологические единицы английского языка, характеризующие эмоциональное состояние человека. Диссертация канд. фил. наук. –Ташкент, 2005
43. Uriel Weinreich, *Lexicology, Current Trends in Linguistics*, ed. by Thomas A. Sebeok, The Hague, 1963
44. Stephen Ullmann, *Language and Style*, Oxford, 1964
45. Stephen Ullmann, *Semantics, An Introduction to the Science of Meaning*, Oxford, 1962
46. Stephen Ullmann, *Semantic Universals (Universals of Language)* ed. by Joseph H. Greenberg. The M.I.T. Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts
47. J.R. Firth, *Papers in Linguistics 1934-1951*, London, 1964
48. Robert Lado, *Linguistics across Cultures, Applied Linguistics for Language Teachers*, Ann Arbor 1961
49. L. Bloomfield, *Language*, N.Y., 1964
50. Ch. Hockett, *A Course in Modern Linguistics*, N.Y., 1960
51. Hans Marchand, *The Categories and Types of Present-Day English Word-formation*, Weisbaden, 1960
52. Karl E. Zimmer, *Affixal Negation in English and Others Languages: An Investigation of Restricted Productivity*, Supplement to *Word*, vol.20, No 2, August 1964, Monograph No 5
53. Kennedy, *Current English*, Boston, USA, 1935
54. J.A. Sheard, *The Words We Use*, Andre Deutsh, L., 1962
55. O. Jespersen, *Growth and Structure of the English Language*, Leipzig, 1938
56. M. Mathews. *The Freshman and his Dictionary*, Applied English Linguistics, ed. by Harold B. Allen, N.Y., 1964
57. M. Mathews, *Meanings and Etymologies, Essays on Language and Usage*, ed. by Leonard F. Dean and Kenneth G. Wilson, N.Y., 1963