

**O'ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI OLIIY VA O'RTA MAXSUS  
TA'LIM VAZIRLIGI**

**CHIRCHIQ DAVLAT PEDAGOGIKA UNIVERSITETI**

**“TASDIQLAYMAN”**

O'quv ishlari bo'yicha prorektor

I.O. Xaydarov

2022-yil



**“Boshlang'ich ta'lim nazariyasi” kafedrası  
“O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari”  
fanidan  
(3-kurs)**

**O'QUV – USLUBIY MAJMUA**

<b>Bilim sohasi:</b>	100000 –	Gumanitar
<b>Ta'lim sohasi:</b>	110000 –	Pedagogika
<b>Ta'lim yo'nalishi:</b>	60112600-	Maktabgacha va boshlang'ich ta'limda xorijiy til (ingliz tili)

**CHIRCHIQ – 2022**

O'quv-uslubiy majmua O'zbekiston Respublikasi Oliy va o'rta maxsus ta'lim vazirligining 20\_\_ yil "\_\_\_" \_\_\_dagi \_\_\_-sonli buyrug'ining \_\_\_ - sonli ilovasi bilan tasdiqlangan "O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari" fan dasturi asosida tayyorlangan.

O'quv-uslubiy majmua Chirchiq davlat pedagogika universiteti kengashining 2022-yil "\_\_\_" \_\_\_-dagi \_\_\_-sonli majlis bayoni qarori bilan tasdiqlangan.

<b>Tuzuvchi:</b>	
<b>F.K.Kurbanova</b>	Chirchiq davlat pedagogika universiteti boshlang'ich ta'lim nazariyasi kafedrası o'qituvchisi
<b>Taqrizchilar:</b>	
<b>M.A.Yusupova</b>	CHDPU "Xorijiy tillar" kafedrası mudiri, pedagogika fanlar bo'yicha falsafa doktori PhD
<b>F.Jabborova</b>	CHDPU "Fakultetlararo chet tillar" kafedrası o'qituvchisi

Fanning o'quv-uslubiy majmuasi Chirchiq davlat pedagogika universiteti Boshlang'ich ta'lim fakulteti Boshlang'ich ta'lim nazariyasi kafedrası majlisida (2022 yil "\_\_\_" avgustdagi \_\_\_-sonli bayonnoma) muhokamadan o'tkazilgan va fakultetning o'quv-uslubiy kengashiga tavsiya etilgan.

### "Boshlang'ich ta'lim nazariyasi"

kafedrası mudiri:



**Sh.I.Botirova**

Fanning o'quv-uslubiy majmuasi Chirchiq davlat pedagogika universiteti Boshlang'ich ta'lim fakulteti kengashida (2022 yil "\_\_\_" avgustdagi \_\_\_-sonli bayonnoma) ko'rib chiqilgan va institutning ilmiy-uslubiy kengashiga tasdiqlashga topshirilgan.

### Boshlang'ich ta'lim fakulteti

kengashi raisi:



**I.U.Tadjibayev**

Mazkur o'quv-uslubiy majmua «O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari» fanining amaldagi o'quv rejasi asosidagi o'quv dasturiga tayanib yaratilgan. Unda o'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari fanini o'qitishning eng dolzarb muammolari bugungi kun talablari nuqtai nazaridan yoritib berilgan. O'quv-uslubiy majmua oliy o'quv yurtlari boshlang'ich ta'lim fakultetlari talabalariga mo'ljallangan.



O'ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI  
OLIJ VA O'RTA MAXSUS TA'LIM VAZIRLIGI  
CHIRCHIQ DAVLAT PEDAGOGIKA UNIVERSITETI



O'RGANILAYOTGAN TIL NAZARIY ASPEKTLARI

FAN DASTURI

Bilim sohasi:	100000 –	Gumanitar
Ta'lim sohasi:	110000 –	Pedagogika
Ta'lim yo'nalishi:	60112600 –	Maktabgacha va boshlang'ich ta'limda xorijiy til (ingliz tili)

Fan/modul kodi Lang 3145	O'quv yili 2022-2023	Semestr 5	ECTS - Kreditlar 5	
Fan/modul turi Majburiy	Ta'lim tili Ingliz	Haftadagi dars soatlari 4		
1.	Fanning nomi	Auditoriya mashg'ulotlari (soat)	Mustaqil ta'lim (soat)	Jami yuklama (soat)
	O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari	Ma'ruza 30	Seminar 60	60
2.	1. Fanning mazmuni			
<p>Fanni o'qishdan maqsad – ta'lim oluvchilarning bo'lajak kasbiy faoloyatlari uchun putla nazariy asos yasash, chet tili o'rganishning uslub va yondashuvlari, tilning ilmiy bilimlar tizimida turgan o'rni bilan tanishtirish, ularga til sahtlarning asosiy qonuniyatlarini o'rgatishdan iborat. Talabalarning shaxsiy fikrlari turli xil usullar bilan yoritishning muayan nutq sharoitiga mos bo'llarini aniqlash.Fanning maqsadiga talabalarga lingvistik, lingvomadaniy va kommunikativ ko'nikma va malakalarini ingliz tili lug'at boyligi orqali shakllantirish hankiradi.</p> <p>Fanning vazifasi – ta'lim oluvchilarning tabiiy ti mohiyatiga oid bilimlarni egallashtga imkoniyat yaratish, ulardan tilning ichki tuzilmasi, til qadamlari va birliklarini ilmiy asosda tadqiq etish ko'nikmalarini shakllantirish hamda ularning bir biri bilan o'zaro munosabatlari to'g'risida tushunchalarga ega bo'lishlarini ta'minlashdan iborat. Fanning vazifasiga ta'lim oluvchilarning so'z ma'nosi xususiyatlari, til lug'at tarkibining asosiy birliklari, so'zning morfologic, leksik, semantic tuzilishi, so'zlarni yasashi, frazeologic birliklari, so'zlarning kelib chiqishinio'rgatish kiradi.</p>				
<p>II. Asosiy qism (nazariy va seminar mashg'ulotlar)</p> <p>1. Fan tarkibiga quyidagi mavzular kiradi:</p> <p>1-Module.</p>				
<p>1-Module. Ingliz tili nazariy grammatikasi</p>				
<p>Theme 1.Introduction to Theoretical Grammar.The grammatical structure of a language</p> <p>The place of grammar in the system of language. Main notions of grammar: grammatical meaning, grammatical form, grammatical categories.Synigmatic and paradigmatic relations as the subject of study of theoretical grammar.</p>				
<p>Theme 2.The morphemic structure of a language.</p> <p>The Types of Morphemes.Morphemic analysis: language and speech levels and their corresponding units</p>				



<p>Logman, 2000. – Pp. 430.</p> <p>4. Соколов М. А. и др. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка. – М.: Высшая школа, 2004. – 210 с.</p> <p>5. Соколова М.Н., Гинтовт К.П. Теория фонетики английского языка. – М.: Высшая школа, 2004. – 250 с.</p> <p>6. Buranov J. B., Muminov A. A. A practical course in English Lexicology. – Т. Ўзгучи, 1990. – 168 с.</p> <p>7. Zkova I.V. A practical course in English lexicology. – M.: Academy, 2006. – 288 p.</p> <p>8. АленР. The Oxford Illustrated English Dictionary. – М.: Астрель, 2003. – 553 с.</p> <p>9. Аракин В. Д. Англо-русский словарь. – М.: Русский язык, 2002. – 590 с.</p> <p>10. Арнольд И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка. – М.: Флинта, 2004. – 384 с.</p> <p>11. Мусавв К.М., Кудратов М.Ш. Инглизча-русча ўзбекча тил солидлуғат. – Т.: Фан, 2001. – 776 б.</p> <p>12. Моллер В. К. Англо-русский словарь. – М.: Юнвес, 2004. – 767 с.</p> <p>13. Хокис Д. М. The Oxford dictionary of the English language. – М.: Астрель, 2002. – 828 с.</p>	<p><b>Internet saytlari</b></p> <p>1. English Pronunciation. <a href="http://international.ouc.bc.ca/pronunciation">http://international.ouc.bc.ca/pronunciation</a></p> <p>2. ESL Resource Center. <a href="http://esl.us.com/eslcenter.htm">http://esl.us.com/eslcenter.htm</a></p> <p>3. Learn to spell confidently. <a href="http://www.spelling.hemscott.net">www.spelling.hemscott.net</a></p>	
<p>7. Chirchiq davlat pedagogika universiteti tomonidan ishlab chiqilgan va tasdiqlangan.</p>	<p>8. Fan/modul uchun ma'sullar: Sh.I.Botirova – CHDPU, "Boshlang'ich ta'lim nazariyasi" kafedrasi mudiri, prof. pedagogika fanlari doktori (PhD). F.K.Kurbanova – CHDPU, "Boshlang'ich ta'lim nazariyasi" kafedrasi o'qituvchisi</p>	<p>9. Taqrizchilar: X.M.Maxmatqulov – CHDPU, "Xorijiy tillar" kafedrasi dots. v.b., p.f.n. N.A.Sadullayeva – O'ZMU, "Qiyosiy tilshunoslik" kafedrasi mudiri, filologiya fanlari doktori, dotsent.</p>

<p><b>Theme 3. Grammatical Categories</b> Categorization. Definition of grammatical categories. Opposition. Types of grammatical categories. The grammatical categories of case of nouns. The grammatical category of degrees of comparison. The category of voice. The grammatical category of mood. The category of posteriority. The categories of number and person.</p>	<p><b>Theme 4. Parts of Speech. The notional parts of speech</b> General description of the notion "a part of speech". Notional and functional parts of speech. Subcategorization of parts of speech. Noun, verb, adjective, adverb.</p>	<p><b>Theme 5. The functional parts of speech</b> Difference between the notional and functional words. The different approaches of linguistics to this issue. The ways of classifying of functional parts of speech.</p>	<p><b>Theme 6. Parts of Sentence. The Main Parts and the Secondary Parts. Phrase structure</b> The difference between the word, the word-sentence and the sentence. Nominative and predicative functions of the sentence. The difference between the notional and functional words. The structural and syntactic characteristics of the sentence. Main and secondary parts of the sentence. The types of co-ordinate phrases. The types of subordinate phrases. The types of predicative phrases</p>	<p><b>Theme 7. Syntax</b> The subject matter of syntax. Linguistic relations between words. Types of Syntactic Relations.</p>	<p><b>Theme 8. Sentence. Types of sentence</b> Types of sentences according to the aim of the speaker. Interrogative sentences. Exclamatory sentences. Imperative sentences. Elliptical sentences. One-member sentences.</p>	<p><b>Theme 9. Sentence Structure. Simple Sentence</b> Structural and syntactic types of sentences. Simple sentences. One-member and two-member sentences</p>	<p><b>Theme 10. Compound Sentence. Complex Sentence</b> Compound and complex sentences. Complete and elliptical sentences. Types of nominalization of the English sentence.</p>	<p><b>Theme 11. Composite Sentence</b> Grammatical organization, structure and semantics of the compound sentence. Classification of complex sentences. Functional transpositions of subordinate clauses.</p>	<p><b>Theme 12. Sequence of Tenses</b> Sequence of tenses definition. Sequence of tenses rules. Meaning and use.</p>
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**Theme 13. Indirect and Represented Speech**  
Indirect and Represented Speech definition Indirect and Represented Speech rules. Meaning and use.

**Theme 14. Sentence Clauses**  
Difference between clause and sentence. Independent Clauses. Dependent Clauses. Noun Clause. Adjective Clause. Adverbial Clause.

**Theme 15. The notion of pronoun: their semantic and morphological peculiarities**  
General description of the notion of pronoun. Semantic and morphological peculiarities of pronoun.

**Theme 16. The category of voice of the Verb**  
General description of category of voice of the verb. Types of grammatical categories.

## 2-Module. Ingliz tili nazariy fonetikasi

**Themel. Introduction. Phonetics as a Branch of Linguistics**  
The subject matter of phonetics. Branches and divisions of phonetics. Methods of phonetic investigation. Phonetics and other disciplines. Practical application and theoretical significance of phonetics.

**Theme 2. Phonological Theories**  
Phonological schools and theories. I.A. Baudouin de Courtenay's Theory of Phonology. The St. Petersburg Phonological School. L.V. Scherba's Phonemic Concept. The Moscow Phonological School. The Prague Phonological School. The London Phonological School. Phonological Trends in the USA

**Theme 3. The System of English Phonemes**  
Phoneme. The definition of phoneme. The phoneme as the unity of three aspects. Phonological and phonemic mistakes in pronunciation. Modification of phonemes in connected speech

**Theme 4. Syllable Formation and Syllable Division in English**  
The phenomenon of syllable. Syllable formation and division. Functional aspect of the syllable.

**Theme 5. Word Stress in English**

	<p>komonitdanoq o'ylanganing maqsadlarga qaratilgan nutq faoliyat shakllantirishga imkon beradigan bilim, ko'nikma va malaka shaxsiy fazilat yig'indisidir fodalaydi.</p> <p><b>Kommunikativ kompetensiya</b> - o'rganilayotgan chet tili so'zlashuvchilar bilan mulotot qilishni amalga oshirish qobiliyati tayyorgarligi, shuningdek, talabalarining tili o'rganilayotgan mamlakatmazar fonetika, grammatika va leksikologiyasi bilan tanishish, o'z mamlakat madaniyatini yanada yaxshiroq anglashi, uni mulotot jarayonida ko'rsa olishini nazarda tutadi.</p> <p>Mazkur o'quv fanini o'rganishning asosiy vazifalariga talabalarda quyidag kompetensiyalarni shakllantirish kiradi:</p> <p><b>Lingvistik kompetensiya</b> o'rganilayotgan til egalari bilan mulotot qilish uchun til haqidagi ma'lumotlarni (fonetika, leksika, grammatika) e'tarli darajada bilish va nutq faoliyati turlari (tinglab- tushunish, gapirish, o'qish va yozish)da qo'llay bilishni nazarda tutadi.</p> <p><b>Ijtimoiy-lingvistik kompetensiya</b> so'zlovchining biror bir nutqiy vaziyat, kommunikativ maqsad va xohish-istagidan kelib chiqqan holda kerakli lingvistik shakl, ifoda usulini tanlash imkonini yaratadi.</p> <p><b>Diskursiv kompetensiya</b> (diskurs - bu og'zaki yoki yozma matn) matnini to'g'ri talqin qilish va tuzish, shuningdek, shunga mos nutqiy mulotot turini tanlash uchun og'zaki va yozma matnlar lingvistik, stilistik hamda tarkibiy xususiyatlarini bilib olishni nazarda tutadi.</p> <p><b>Ijtimoiy-madaniy kompetensiya</b> autentik nutqning milliy xususiyatlarini - o'zi yashayotgan mamlakatning urf-odatlarini, qadriyatlarini, marosimlari va boshqa milliy-madaniy xususiyatlarini tili o'rganilayotgan mamlakat bilan taqqoslagan holda taqdim eta olish qobiliyatini ko'zda tutadi.</p>
4.	<p><b>VI. Ta'lim texnologiyalari va metodlari:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• interfaol key-s-stadilar;</li> <li>• Savol-javob;</li> <li>• Blum taksonomiyasi;</li> <li>• Loyiha texnologiyasi;</li> <li>• Ag'liq hujum metodi.</li> </ul>
5.	<p><b>VII. Kreditlarni olish uchun talablar:</b></p> <p>Fanga oid nazariy va uslubiy tushunchalarni to'la o'zlashtirish, tahlil natijalarini to'g'ri aks ettira olish, o'rganilayotgan jarayonlar haqida mustaqil mushohada yuritish va joriy, oraliq nazorat shakllarida berilgan vazifa va topshiriqlarni bajarish, yakuniy nazorat bo'yicha test yozma ismini topshirish.</p>
6.	<p><b>Asosiy adabiyotlar</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Бончарко Л.В., Беподина Л.А. Основы общей фонетики. - М.: Академия, 2002. - 192 с.</li> <li>2. Леонтьева С.Ф. Теория фонетика компетенции и ее значение. - М.: Наука, 2002. - 201 с.</li> <li>3. Roach P. English Phonetics and Phonology. A practical course. Oxford</li> </ol>



<p>Mustaqil ta'lim uchun tavsiya etiladigan mavzular:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Introduction. Phonetics as a Branch of Linguistics.</li> <li>2. Phonological Theories..</li> <li>3. The System of English Phonemes. Syllable Formation and Syllable Division in English.</li> <li>4. Word Stress in English.</li> <li>5. The Functions of Sentence Stress.</li> <li>6. Intonation Structure of English. Intonation patterns. Functions of Intonation.</li> <li>7. The Articulatory Aspect of the English Speech Sounds.</li> <li>8. The Acoustic Aspect of the English Speech Sounds.</li> <li>9. The Phonological Aspect of the English Speech Sounds.</li> <li>10. Phonostylistics as a Branch of Phonetics.</li> <li>11. Stylistic Use of Intonation.</li> <li>12. Syllable Formation and Syllable Division in English.</li> <li>13. Word Stress in English.</li> <li>14. The Functions of Sentence Stress.</li> <li>15. Intonation Structure of English. Intonation patterns. Functions of Intonation.</li> <li>16. The Articulatory and Acoustic Aspects of the English Speech Sounds.</li> <li>17. The phonological Aspect of the English Speech Sounds.</li> <li>18. Introduction into Lexicology, Lexicology as a science. General characteristic features of Modern English</li> <li>19. Morphological structure of the English words</li> <li>20. Semantic structure of the English word. Changes in semantic structure</li> <li>21. Homonymy and polysemy</li> <li>22. Criteria of synonymy and classification of synonyms</li> <li>23. Definition of antonyms. Classification of antonyms</li> <li>24. Semantic systems in English. Neologisms absolute and archaic words</li> <li>25. Word formation and ways of word formation</li> <li>26. Affixation and its subdivisions. Conversion</li> <li>27. Word combination in Modern English</li> <li>28. Phraseology in Modern English. Phraseological units with different components</li> </ol> <p>Mustaqil o'zlashtiriladigan mavzular bo'yicha talabalar tomonidan referatlar tayyorlanadi va uni taqdimoti tashkil qilinadi. Talabalar tomonidan mustaqil ishlar tayyorlanayotganda ular e'tiborini ilg'or xorij tajribasi bilan mamlakatimiz iqtisodiyotida qo'lga kiritilayotgan yutuqlarning asoslarini bog'lash, tahlil etish, o'z fikrlarini hayotiy misollar bilan yoritishga yo'naltiriladi.</p>	<p>3. <b>V. Fan o'qitilishining natijalari (shakllanadigan kompetensiyalar)</b>  Fanni o'zlashtirish natijasida talaba quyidagi kompetensiyalarni rivojlantiradi:</p> <p><b>Kompetentsiya-</b> kommunikatsiya      ishtirokchilarining o'zlari</p>
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<p>Definition. The nature of stress. English word stress. Production and perception. Degrees of word stress. Placement of word stress.</p> <p><b>Theme 6. The Functions of Sentence Stress</b>  Rhythmical structure of a sentence. Factors of sentence stress. Degrees of sentence stress.</p>	<p><b>Theme 7. Intonation Structure of English. Intonation patterns. Functions of Intonation</b>  The definition of intonation, its components and factors. Methods of indicating and describing intonation. Intonation pattern as the basic unit of intonation. Functions of intonation: communicative, distinctive, organizing, intonation in discourse, pragmatic, rhetorical.</p> <p><b>Theme 8. The Articulatory Aspect of the English Speech Sounds</b>  Voice producing mechanism. The ways of production English speech sounds. Articulatory classification of English vowels. Articulatory classification of English consonants.</p> <p><b>Theme 9. The Acoustic Aspect of the English Speech Sounds</b>  Periodic and non-periodic sound waves amplitude. Frequency and intensity. The acoustic classification of English vowels. The acoustic classification of English consonants.</p> <p><b>Theme 10. The Phonological Aspect of the English Speech Sounds</b>  Features of perception. Continuity. Resonance. Tembre. Phonological status of diphthongs.</p> <p><b>Theme 11. Phonostylistics as a Branch of Phonetics</b>  Phonostylistics as a branch of phonetics. Extralinguistic situation and its components. Style-forming factors. Classification of phonetic styles. Stylistic modifications of speech sounds.</p> <p><b>Theme 12. Stylistic Use of Intonation</b>  Phonostyles and their registers. Informational style. Academic style. Publicistic style. Declamatory style. Artistic reading. Conversational style.</p> <p><b>Theme 13. Varieties of English pronunciation</b>  The Orthoepic Norm. National Variants of English Pronunciation. Regional Types of Pronunciation in Great Britain. Regional Types of Pronunciation in the USA. The Main Points of Difference between RP and GA. Styles of Pronunciation. Choice of the Teaching Norm.</p> <p>3-Module. Ingliz tili leksikologiyasi</p>
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<p><b>Theme 1. Introduction into Lexicology</b></p> <p>Lexicology as a science. General characteristic features of Modern English. Subject matter of Lexicology. Types of Lexicology and its links with other branches of linguistics. Relationships, approaches and subbranches.</p> <p><b>Theme 2. The English language as a vocabulary system</b></p> <p>Word and word studies in Lexicology. Morphemes. Types of morphemes. Principles of morphemic analysis. Principles of derivational analysis. Stems. Types of stems.</p> <p><b>Theme 3. The Etymology of Modern English vocabulary</b></p> <p>Words of native origin and their characteristics. Ways of borrowing into English. Criteria and assimilation of borrowings. Special type of borrowings.</p> <p><b>Theme 4. Morphological structure of the English words</b></p> <p>Morphemes. Affixational morphemes: derivational morphemes and functional morphemes. Free morphemes. Monomorph and polymorph words. Levels of analysis of the morphological structure of the word.</p> <p><b>Theme 5. Semantic structure of the English word. Changes in semantic structure</b></p> <p>Semasiology. Referential approach to meaning. Functional approach to meaning. Grammatical meaning. Lexical meaning. Lexico-grammatical meaning. Stylistic connotations.</p> <p><b>Theme 6. Homonyms</b></p> <p>The definition of homonyms. The sources of homonyms. The classification of homonyms.</p> <p><b>Theme 7. Homonymy and polysemy</b></p> <p>Definition of polysemy. Synchronic and diachronic analysis of polysemy. Polysemy and frequency of the word. The difference between homonymy and polysemy.</p> <p><b>Theme 8. Synonyms</b></p> <p>Definition of synonyms. Criteria of synonymy. Classification of synonyms. The dominant synonym. The Source of synonyms. Collocation of words.</p> <p><b>Theme 9. Antonyms</b></p> <p>Definition of antonyms. Classification of antonyms. Some debatable points of antonyms</p> <p><b>Theme 10. Semantic systems of English</b></p> <p>Semantic systems in English. Semantic fields. Neologisms. Archaic words. Obsolete words. Emotionally coloured words. Evaluatory words. Stylistic differences of words. The correlation of different aspects of words</p> <p><b>Theme 11. Word formation</b></p>	
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<p>Word formation phenomenon. Word formation and its basic peculiarities.</p> <p><b>Theme 12. Affixation. Conversion</b></p> <p>Affixation and its subdivisions. Prefixation and suffixation. Semantic affixes. The classification of affixes. Definition of conversion. The common types of conversion. Criteria of semantic derivation. Substantivization of adjectives.</p> <p><b>Theme 13. Word combination in Modern English</b></p> <p>Word-groups. Subordinative word-groups, verbal groups, pronominal groups. Types of word combinations.</p> <p><b>Theme 14. Phraseology</b></p> <p>Phraseology in Modern English. Phraseological units with different components. Definition of phraseological units, their stability and ideomaticity. Ways of forming phraseological units. Classification of phraseological units</p> <p><b>Theme 15. The stylistic differentiation of the vocabulary system of Modern English</b></p> <p>Neutral, literary and colloquial words. Literary words. Terms. Bookish (learned) words. Poetic and highly literary words. Barbarisms. Slangisms. Social jargonisms. Vulgarisms.</p> <p><b>Theme 16. The main peculiarities of the vocabulary system of the English speaking countries</b></p> <p>The main variants of the English language. Social variation of the English language. The main variants of the English Language. Standard English variants of English. Local dialects.</p> <p><b>Theme 17. The difference between British and American English</b></p> <p>Some peculiarities of British English and American English. Local dialects in Great Britain. Local dialects in the US. The difference between British and American English.</p> <p><b>Theme 18. Methods used in lexicological research</b></p> <p>Componential analysis. Cognitive analysis of words. Method of semantic differential. Distributional analysis. Transformational analysis. The Immediate constituents analysis. Contrastive analysis. Statistical analysis.</p> <p><b>Theme 19. Lexicography of the English language</b></p> <p>Lexicography. English dictionaries and their development. Dictionary compiling and its origin. Types of dictionaries. Entry of a dictionary. Attitudes towards dictionaries. Learning and teaching vocabulary (modern technologies).</p>	<p>IV. Mustaqil ta'lim va mustaqil ishtar</p>
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**OLJIY VA O'RTA MAXSUS TA'LIM VAZIRLIGI**  
**CHIRCHIQ DAVLAT PEDAGOGIKA UNIVERSITETI**

“TASDIQLAYMAN”  
 O'quv ishlari bo'yicha  
 prorektor I. Q. Xaydarov

“ ” 2022-yil

**O'RGANILAYOTGAN TIL NAZARIY ASPEKTLARI**  
**FANINING ISHCHI O'QUV DASTURI**  
 (III- kurslar uchun)

Bilim sohasi: 100 000 – Gumanitar  
 Ta'lim sohasi: 110 000 – Pedagogika  
 Bakalavriat yo'nalishi: 60112600– Maktabgacha va boshlang'ich ta'limda  
 xorijiy til va adabiyoti (ingliz tili)

№	Mashg'ulot turi	Ajratilgan soat	Semestr	
			6	
			Ajratilgan soat	Ajratilgan kredit
1	Ma'ruza	30	30	5
2	Seminar	60	60	
3	Mustaqil ta'lim soati	60	60	
4	Jami auditoriya soatlari	90	90	
5	Umumiy o'quv soatlari	150	150	

**CHIRCHIQ – 2022**

Fanning ishchi o'quv dasturi O'zbekiston Respublikasi Oliy va o'rta maxsus ta'lim vazirligining 20\_\_-yil "\_\_\_\_" dagi \_\_\_\_-sonli buyrug'i bilan tasdiqlangan "O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari" namunaviy o'quv dasturi asosida ishlab chiqildi.

Fanning ishchi o'quv dasturi Chirchiq davlat pedagogika universiteti kengashining 2022-yil "20" 08 dagi "1"-sonli bayoni bilan tasdiqlangan.

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Fanning ishchi o'quv dasturi Chirchiq davlat pedagogika universiteti "Boshlang'ich ta'lim" fakulteti kengashining 2022-yil "20" 08 dagi "1"-sonli majlisida muhokamadan o'tkazilgan.

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Fanning ishchi o'quv dasturi Chirchiq davlat pedagogika universiteti "Boshlang'ich ta'lim" fakulteti "Boshlang'ich ta'lim nazariyasi" kafedrasining 2022-yil "\_\_\_\_" dagi \_\_\_\_-sonli majlisida ko'rib chiqilgan va tasdiqlashga tavsiya qilingan.

**Kafedra mudiri:**

  
**Sh.I. Botirova**



# I.O'quv fanining maqsadi va vazifasi

Fanni o'qitishdan maqsad – talabalarni bolalar adabiyoti namoyandalari va ularning asarlari bilan tanishtirish, ijod namunalarni tahlil qilish orqali ulardagi nazariy va amaliy bilimlarni shakllantirish, tashriy va hodiriy-estetik ruhani rivojlantirishdir.

Fanning vazifasi – talabalarga bolalar adabiyotidagi janr va bosqichlarni, shuningdek, muayyan mamalakat bolalar adabiyoti taraqqiyoti tarixiy jarayonlar bilan bog'liqligini o'rgatish, turli davr va turli milliy adabiyotlarga tegishli bo'lgan yirik bolalar adabiyoti vakillari hayoti, ijodiy yo'li, asarlari va ularning hodiriy ahamiyati haqida chuqur bilim berishdan iborat.

## I.MA'RUZA MASHG'ULOTLARI

VI-semestr

Masg'ulot mavzolari		Ajratilgan vaqt
№		
1.	Introduction. Phonetics as a Branch of Linguistics.	2
2.	Phonological Theories.	2
3.	Syllable Formation and Syllable Division in English.	2
4.	Word Stress in English.	2
5.	The Functions of Sentence Stress.	2
6.	Intonation Structure of English. Intonation patterns. Functions of Intonation.	2
7.	The Articulatory and Acoustic Aspects of the English Speech Sounds.	2
8.	The Phonological Aspect of the English Speech Sounds.	2
9.	Stylistic Use of Intonation.	2
10.	Varieties of English pronunciation	2
11.	Introduction into Lexicology. Lexicology as a science. General characteristic features of Modern English	2
12.	Morphological structure of the English words	2
13.	Semantic structure of the English word. Changes in semantic structure	2
14.	Homonymy and polysemy	2
15.	Criteria of synonymy and classification of synonyms	2

# Definition of antonyms. Classification of antonyms

Jami (VI-semester) 30 soal

## 2. Seminar mashe' ulotlari VI- semester

No	Mashe' ulot mavzulari	Ajratilgan soal
1.	Introduction. Phonetics as a Branch of Linguistics.	4
2.	Phonological Theories.	2
3.	Word Stress in English.	4
4.	The Functions of Sentence Stress. Intonation Structure of English.	4
5.	Intonation patterns. Functions of Intonation.	2
6.	The Articulatory and Acoustic Aspects of the English Speech Sounds.	4
7.	The Phonological Aspect of the English Speech Sounds.	2
8.	Stylistic Use of Intonation.	4
9.	Varieties of English pronunciation	2
10.	The System of English Phonemes. Syllable Formation and Syllable Division in English.	4
11.	Homonyms. The classification of homonyms.	2
12.	Homonymy and polysamy	2
13.	Criteria of synonymy and classification of synonyms	2
14.	Definition of antonyms. Classification of antonyms	4
15.	Word formation and ways of word formation. Affixation and its subdivisions.	4
16.	Conversion	2

10. Арнольда И.В. Лексикология современного английского языка. – М.: Флинта, 2004. – 384 с.
11. Мусаев К.М., Кудряков М.И. Иллюстрация-русско-английский словарь. – Т.: Фан, 2001. – 776 с.
12. Моллер В. К. Англо-русский словарь. – М.: Корнус, 2004. – 767 с.
13. Хоксис/Л. М. The Oxford dictionary of the English language. – М.: Астрель, 2002. – 828 с.

### Internet saytlari

1. English Pronunciation. <http://international.one.be.ca/pronunciation>
2. ESL Resource Center. <http://esluc.com/eslcenter.htm>
3. Learn to spell confidently. [www.spelling.henryscott.net](http://www.spelling.henryscott.net)



"oniqarsiz"		
savvarga ega emaslik, bilmaslik.		
baholash	Baho	O'tkazish vaqti
og'zaki savol-hamda amaliy ulotda k etib olinadi.		
nazorat	5	
iy nazorat	5	
iy nazorat		
akultet ii bilan tashqiqlanadi.		
dars dagi, oraliq bahosi, xamda baholar semestr qo'yiladi		

#### labiyotlar va elektron ta'lim resurslari ro'yxati

##### osiy darslik va o'quv qo'llanmalar

- сербийская Л.А. Основы общей фонетики. – М.: Астрель, 2002. – 192 с.
- фонетика современного английского языка. 3-е издание, 2002. – 201 с.
- Phonetics and Phonology. A practical course. Oxford. p.430.
- др. Теоретическая фонетика английского языка. – М.: Астрель, 2004. – 210 с.
- инголт К.П. Теория фонетики английского языка. – М.: Астрель, 2004. – 250 с.
- ингов А. А. A practical course in English Lexicology. – М.: Астрель, 2006. – 168 с.
- al course in English lexicology. – М.: Астрель, 2003.553
- Illustrated English Dictionary. – М.: Астрель, 2003.553
- русский словарь. – М.: Русский язык, 2002. – 590 с.

17.	Word combination in Modern English	2
18.	Phraseology in Modern English.	4
19.	Phraseological units with different components.	4

Jami(VI-semestr) 60 soat

Seminar mashg'ulotlar multimedia qurilmalari va boshqa texnologiyalar bilan jihozlangan auditoriyada har bir akadem guruhida alohida o'tkaziladi. Mashg ulotlarni olib borish usullari turli-tuman ko'rinishda bo'lsa-da, faol va interfaol metodlar ko'proq qo'llanilishi maqsadga muvofiq. Shuningdek, "Keys-stadi" texnologiyasi ishlatiladi, keyslar mazmuni o'qituvchi tomonidan belgilanadi. Ko'rgazmali materiallar va axborotlar multimedia qurilmalari yordamida uzatiladi.

#### 3. Mustaqil ta'lim

Nö	Mavzular	Ajratilgan soat
1.	Introduction. Phonetics as a Branch of Linguistics.	2
2.	Phonological Theories.	2
3.	The System of English Phonemes. Syllable Formation and Syllable Division in English.	2
4.	Word Stress in English.	2
5.	The Functions of Sentence Stress.	2
6.	Intonation Structure of English. Intonation patterns. Functions of Intonation.	2
7.	The Articulatory Aspect of the English Speech Sounds.	2
8.	The Acoustic Aspect of the English Speech Sounds.	2
9.	The Phonological Aspect of the English Speech Sounds.	2
10.	Phonostylistics as a Branch of Phonetics.	2
11.	Stylistic Use of Intonation.	2
12.	Syllable Formation and Syllable Division in English.	2
13.	Word Stress in English.	2



14	The Functions of Sentence Stress.	2
15	Intonation Structure of English. Intonation patterns. Functions of Intonation.	2
16	The Articulatory and Acoustic Aspects of the English Speech Sounds.	2
17	The Phonological Aspect of the English Speech Sounds.	2
18	Introduction into Lexicology, Lexicology as a science. General characteristic features of Modern English	2
19	Morphological structure of the English words	2
20	Semantic structure of the English word. Changes in semantic structure	2
21	Homonymy and polysemy	2
22	Criteria of synonymy and classification of synonyms	2
23	Definition of antonyms. Classification of antonyms	2
24	Semantic systems in English. Neologisms absolute and archaic words	2
25	Word formation and ways of word formation	2
26	Affixation and its subdivisions. Conversion	2
27	Word combination in Modern English	4
28	Phraseology in Modern English. Phraseological units with different components	4

Mustaqil o'zlashtiriladigan mavzular bo'yicha talabalar tomonidan mustaqil ishlarni bajarish va ularni taqdimot sifatida qilinadi. Talabalar tomonidan mustaqil ishlarni bajarish va ularni taqdimot sifatida qilinadi. Talabalar tomonidan mustaqil ishlarni bajarish va ularni taqdimot sifatida qilinadi.

Jami (VI semester) 60 soat

iqblisodiyotida qo'llaga kiritilayotgan yutuqlarning asoslarini bog'lash, tahlil etish, o'z fikrlarini hayotiy misollar bilan yoritishga yo'naltiradi.

#### 4. Kreditlarni olish uchun talabalar:

Fanga oid nazariy va uslubiy tushunchalarni to'la o'zlashtirish, tahlil natijalarini to'g'ri aks ettirish, o'rganilayotgan jarayonlar haqida mustaqil mushohada yuritish va joriy, oralq nazorat shakllarida berilgan vazifa va topshiriqlarni bajarish, yakuniy nazorat bo'yicha yozma ishini topshirish.

#### 5. Fan bo'yicha talabalar bilimni baholash va nazorat qilish mezonlari

O'zbekiston Respublikasi Oliy va o'rta maxsus ta'lim vazirining 2018-yil 9-avgustdagi 19-2018-sonli buyrug'i bilan tasdiqlangan, O'zbekiston Respublikasi Adliya vazirligidan 2018-yil 26-sentyabrda 3069-son bilan ro'yxatdan o'tkazilgan "Oliy ta'lim muassasalarida talabalar bilimni nazorat qilish va baholash tizimi to'g'risidagi" nizomga muvofiq ishlab chiqildi.

1	2
Baholash usullari	Yozma ishlarni, og'zaki so'rov, test
Baholash mezonlari	<p>5- "a'lo"</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- xulosa va qaror qabul qilish;</li> <li>- ijodiy fikrlay olish;</li> <li>- mushohada yuritish;</li> <li>- olgan bilimlarini amalda qo'llay olish;</li> <li>- mohiyatini tushunish;</li> <li>- bilish, aytib berish;</li> <li>- tasavvurga ega bo'lish</li> </ul> <p>4- "yaxshi"</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- mushohada yuritish;</li> <li>- olgan bilimlarini amalda qo'llay olish;</li> <li>- mohiyatini tushunish;</li> <li>- bilish, aytib berish;</li> <li>- tasavvurga ega bo'lish.</li> </ul> <p>3- "qoniqarli"</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- mohiyatini tushunish;</li> <li>- bilish, aytib berish;</li> <li>- tasavvurga ega bo'lish.</li> </ul>



# 1-MAVZU. INTRODUCTION INTO LEXICOLOGY. LEXICOLOGY AS A SCIENCE.

## GENERAL CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES OF MODERN ENGLISH

1. The object of Lexicology
2. The theoretical and practical value of english lexicology
3. The connection of lexicology with phonetics, stylistics, grammar and other branches of linguistics

Lexicology (from Gr *lexis* 'word' and *logos* 'learning') is the part of linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of the language and the properties of words as the main units of language. The term *vocabulary* is used to denote the system formed by the sum total of all the words and *word equivalents* that the language possesses. The term *word* denotes the basic unit of a given language resulting from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment. A word therefore is simultaneously a semantic, grammatical and phonological unit.

Thus, in the word *boy* the group of sounds [bOI] is associated with the meaning 'a male child up to the age of 17 or 18' (also with some other meanings, but this is the most frequent) and with a definite grammatical employment, i.e. it is a noun and thus has a plural form — *boys*, it is a personal noun and has the Genitive form *boy's* (e. g. *the boy's mother*), it may be used in certain syntactic functions.

The general study of words and vocabulary, irrespective of the specific features of any particular language, is known as *general lexicology*. Linguistic phenomena and properties common to all languages are generally referred to as *language universals*. *Special lexicology* devotes its attention to the description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language.

It goes without saying that every special lexicology is based on the principles of general lexicology, and the latter forms a part of general linguistics. Much material that holds good for any language is therefore also included, especially with reference to principles, concepts and terms. The illustrative examples are everywhere drawn from the English language as spoken in Great Britain.

A great deal has been written in recent years to provide a theoretical basis on which the vocabularies of different languages can be compared and described. This relatively new branch of study is called *contrastive lexicology*. Most obviously, we shall be particularly concerned with comparing English and Russian words.

The evolution of any vocabulary, as well as of its single elements, forms the object of *historical lexicology* or etymology. This branch of linguistics discusses the origin of various words, their change and development, and investigates the linguistic and extra-linguistic forces modifying their structure, meaning and usage. In the past historical treatment was always combined with the comparative method. Historical lexicology has been criticised for its atomistic approach, i.e. for treating every word as an individual and isolated unit. This drawback is, however, not intrinsic to the science itself. Historical study of words is not necessarily atomistic. In the light of recent investigations it becomes clear that there is no reason why historical lexicology cannot survey the evolution of a vocabulary as an adaptive system, showing its change and development in the course of time.

*Descriptive lexicology* deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development. It studies the functions of words and their specific structure as a characteristic inherent in the system. The descriptive lexicology of the English language deals with the English word in its morphological and semantical structures, investigating the interdependence between these two aspects. These structures are identified and distinguished by contrasting the nature and arrangement of their elements.

It will, for instance, contrast the word *boy* with its derivatives: *boyhood*, *boyish*, *boyishly*, etc. It will describe its semantic structure comprising alongside with its most frequent meaning, such variants as 'a son of any age', 'a male servant', and observe its syntactic functioning and



combining possibilities. This word, for instance, can be also used vocatively in such combinations as *old boy*, *my dear boy*, and attributively, meaning 'male', as in *boy-friend*.

Lexicology also studies all kinds of semantic grouping and semantic relations: synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, semantic fields, etc.

Meaning relations as a whole are dealt with in *semantics* — the study of meaning which is relevant both for lexicology and grammar.

The distinction between the two basically different ways in which language may be viewed, the *historical* or *diachronic* (Gr *dia* 'through' and *chronos* 'time') and the *descriptive* or *synchronic* (Gr *syn* 'together', 'with'), is a methodological distinction, a difference of approach, artificially separating for the purpose of study what in real language is inseparable, because actually every linguistic structure and system exists in a state of constant development. The distinction between a synchronic and a diachronic approach is due to the Swiss philologist Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913).<sup>1</sup> Indebted as we are to him for this important dichotomy, we cannot accept either his axiom that synchronic linguistics is concerned with systems and diachronic linguistics with single units or the rigorous separation between the two. Subsequent investigations have shown the possibility and the necessity of introducing the historical point of view into systematic studies of languages.

Language is the reality of thought, and thought develops together with the development of society, therefore language and its vocabulary must be studied in the light of social history. Every new phenomenon in human society and in human activity in general, which is of any importance for communication, finds a reflection in vocabulary. A word, through its meaning rendering some notion, is a generalised reflection of reality; it is therefore impossible to understand its development if one is ignorant of the changes in social, political or everyday life, production or science, manners or culture it serves to reflect. These extra-linguistic forces influencing the development of words are considered in historical lexicology.

Although the important distinction between a diachronic and a synchronic, a linguistic and an extralinguistic approach must always be borne in mind, yet it is of paramount importance for the student to take into consideration that in language reality all the aspects are interdependent and cannot be understood one without the other. Every linguistic investigation must strike a reasonable balance between them.

## **2. The theoretical and practical value of English lexicology**

The importance of English lexicology is based not on the size of its vocabulary, however big it is, but on the fact that at present it is the world's most widely used language. One of the most fundamental works on the English language of the present — "A Grammar of Contemporary English" by R. Quirk, S. Greenbaum, G. Leech and J. Svartvik (1978) — gives the following data: it is spoken as a native language by nearly three hundred million people in Britain, the United States, Ireland, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa and some other countries. The knowledge of English is widely spread geographically — it is in fact used in all continents. It is also spoken in many countries as a second language and used in official and business activities there. This is the case in India, Pakistan and many other former British colonies. English is also one of the working languages of the United Nations and the universal language of international aviation. More than a half world's scientific literature is published in English and 60% of the world's radio broadcasts are in English. For all these reasons it is widely studied all over the world as a foreign language.

The theoretical value of lexicology becomes obvious if we realise that it forms the study of one of the three main aspects of language, i.e. its vocabulary, the other two being its grammar and sound system. The theory of meaning was originally developed within the limits of philosophical science. The relationship between the name and the thing named has in the course of history constituted one of the key questions in gnostic theories and therefore in the struggle of materialistic and idealistic trends. The idealistic point of view assumes that the earlier forms of words disclose their real correct meaning, and that originally language was created by some superior reason so that later changes of any kind are looked upon as distortions and corruption.



The materialistic approach considers the origin, development and current use of words as depending upon the needs of social communication. The dialectics of its growth is determined by its interaction with the development of human practice and mind. Words serve as names for things, actions, qualities, etc. and by their modification become better adapted to the needs of the speakers. This proves the fallacy of one of the characteristic trends in modern idealistic linguistics, the so-called Sapir-Whorf thesis according to which the linguistic system of one's native language not only expresses one's thoughts but also determines them. This view is incorrect, because our mind reflects the surrounding world not only through language but also directly.

Lexicology came into being to meet the demands of many different branches of applied linguistics, namely of lexicography, standardisation of terminology, information retrieval, literary criticism and especially of foreign language teaching.

Its importance in training a would-be teacher of languages is of a quite special character and cannot be overestimated as it helps to stimulate a systematic approach to the facts of vocabulary and an organised comparison of the foreign and native language. It is particularly useful in building up the learner's vocabulary by an effective selection, grouping and analysis of new words. New words are better remembered if they are given not at random but organised in thematic groups, word-families, synonymic series, etc.

A good knowledge of the system of word-formation furnishes a tool helping the student to guess and retain in his memory the meaning of new words on the basis of their motivation and by comparing and contrasting them with the previously learned elements and patterns.

The knowledge, for instance, of the meaning of negative, reversative and pejorative prefixes and patterns of derivation may be helpful in understanding new words. For example such words as *immovable* a, *deforestation* n and *miscalculate* v will be readily understood as 'that cannot be moved', 'clearing land from forests' and 'to calculate wrongly'.

By drawing his pupils' attention to the combining characteristics of words the teacher will prevent many mistakes.<sup>1</sup> It will be word-groups falling into patterns, instead of lists of unrelated items, that will be presented in the classroom.

— A working knowledge and understanding of functional styles and stylistic synonyms is indispensable when literary texts are used as a basis for acquiring oral skills, for analytical reading, discussing fiction and translation. Lexicology not only gives a systematic description of the present make-up of the vocabulary, but also helps students to master characteristics or distribution — structural patterns in which the words occur and their lexical collocations, the literary standards of word usage. The correct use of words is an important counterpart of expressive and effective speech.

An exact knowledge of the vocabulary system is also necessary in connection with technical teaching means.

Lexicology plays a prominent part in the general linguistic training of every philologist by summing up the knowledge acquired during all his years at the foreign language faculty. It also imparts the necessary skills of using different kinds of dictionaries and reference books, and prepares for future independent work on increasing and improving one's vocabulary.

### **3. The connection of lexicology with phonetics, stylistics, grammar and other branches of linguistics**

The treatment of words in lexicology cannot be divorced from the study of all the other elements in the language system to which words belong. It should be always borne in mind that in reality, in the actual process of communication, all these elements are interdependent and stand in definite relations to one another. We separate them for convenience of study, and yet to separate them for analysis is pointless, unless we are afterwards able to put them back together to achieve a synthesis and see their interdependence and development in the language system as a whole.

The word, as it has already been stated, is studied in several branches of linguistics and not in lexicology only, and the latter, in its turn, is closely connected with general linguistics, the history



of the language, phonetics, stylistics, grammar and such new branches of our science as sociolinguistics, paralinguistics, pragmalinguistics and some others.<sup>1</sup>

The importance of the connection between lexicology and phonetics stands explained if we remember that a word is an association of a given group of sounds with a given meaning, so that *top* is one word, and *tip* is another. Phonemes have no meaning of their own but they serve to distinguish between meanings. Their function is building up morphemes, and it is on the level of morphemes that the form-meaning unity is introduced into language. We may say therefore that phonemes participate in signification.

Word-unity is conditioned by a number of phonological features. Phonemes follow each other in a fixed sequence so that [pit] is different from [tip]. The importance of the phonemic make-up may be revealed by the substitution test which isolates the central phoneme of *hope* by setting it against *hop*, *hoop*, *heap* or *hip*.

An accidental or jocular transposition of the initial sounds of two or more words, the so-called spoonerisms illustrate the same

Pragmalinguistics — the branch of linguistics concerned with the relation of speech and its users and the influence of speech upon listeners.

Discrimination between the words may be based upon stress: the word '*import*' is recognised as a noun and distinguished from the verb *im'port* due to the position of stress. Stress also distinguishes compounds from otherwise homonymous word-groups: '*blackbird* : : '*black* '*bird*. Each language also possesses certain phonological features marking word-limits.

Historical phonetics and historical phonology can be of great use in the diachronic study of synonyms, homonyms and polysemy. When sound changes loosen the ties between members of the same word-family, this is an important factor in facilitating semantic changes.

The words *whole*, *heal*, *hail*, for instance, are etymologically related.<sup>2</sup> The word *whole* originally meant 'unharméd', 'unwounded'. The early verb *whole* meant 'to make whole', hence 'heal'. Its sense of 'healthy' led to its use as a salutation, as in *hail!* Having in the course of historical development lost their phonetic similarity, these words cannot now exercise any restrictive influence upon one another's semantic development. Thus, *hail* occurs now in the meaning of 'call', even with the purpose to stop and arrest (used by sentinels).

Meaning in its turn is indispensable to phonemic analysis because to establish the phonemic difference between [ou] and [o] it is sufficient to know that [houp] means something different from [hop].

All these considerations are not meant to be in any way exhaustive, they can only give a general idea of the possible interdependence of the two branches of linguistics.

Stylistics, although from a different angle, studies many problems treated in lexicology. These are the problems of meaning, connotations, synonymy, functional differentiation of vocabulary according to the sphere of communication and some other issues. For a reader without some awareness of the connotations and history of words, the images hidden in their root and their stylistic properties, a substantial part of the meaning of a literary text, whether prosaic or poetic, may be lost.

Thus, for instance, the mood of despair in O. Wilde's poem "Taedium Vitae" (Weariness of Life) is felt due to an accumulation of epithets expressed by words with negative, derogatory connotations, such as: *desperate*, *paltry*, *gaudy*, *base*, *lackeyed*, *slandorous*, *lowliest*, *meanest*.

An awareness of all the characteristic features of words is not only rewarded because one can feel the effect of hidden connotations and imagery, but because without it one cannot grasp the whole essence of the message the poem has to convey.

The difference and interconnection between grammar and lexicology is one of the important controversial issues in linguistics and as it is basic to the problems under discussion in this book, it is necessary to dwell upon it a little more than has been done for phonetics and stylistics.

A close connection between lexicology and grammar is conditioned by the manifold and inseverable ties between the objects of their study. Even isolated words as presented in a



dictionary bear a definite relation to the grammatical system of the language because they belong to some part of speech and conform to some lexico-grammatical characteristics of the word class to which they belong. Words seldom occur in isolation. They are arranged in certain patterns conveying the relations between the things for which they stand, therefore alongside with their lexical meaning they possess some grammatical meaning. Cf. *head of the committee* and *to head a committee*.

The two kinds of meaning are often interdependent. That is to say, certain grammatical functions and meanings are possible only for the words whose lexical meaning makes them fit for these functions, and, on the other hand, some lexical meanings in some words occur only in definite grammatical functions and forms and in definite grammatical patterns.

For example, the functions of a link verb with a predicative expressed by an adjective cannot be fulfilled by every intransitive verb but are often taken up by verbs of motion: *come true, fall ill, go wrong, turn red, run dry* and other similar combinations all render the meaning of 'become sth'. The function is of long standing in English and can be illustrated by a line from A. Pope who, protesting against blank verse, wrote: *It is not poetry, but prose run mad.*<sup>1</sup>

On the other hand the grammatical form and function of the word affect its lexical meaning. A well-known example is the same verb *go* when in the continuous tenses, followed by *to* and an infinitive (except *go* and *come*), it serves to express an action in the near and immediate future, or an intention of future action: *You're not going to sit there saying nothing all the evening, both of you, are you?* (Simpson)

Participle II of the same verb following the link verb *be* denotes absence: *The house is gone.*

In subordinate clauses after *as* the verb *go* implies comparison with the average: ... *how a novel that has now had a fairly long life, as novels go, has come to be written* (Maugham). The subject of the verb *go* in this construction is as a rule an inanimate noun.

The adjective *hard* followed by the infinitive of any verb means 'difficult': *One of the hardest things to remember is that a man's merit in one sphere is no guarantee of his merit in another.* Lexical meanings in the above cases are said to be grammatically conditioned, and their indicating context is called syntactic or mixed. The point has attracted the attention of many authors.<sup>1</sup>

The number of words in each language being very great, any lexical meaning has a much lower probability of occurrence than grammatical meanings and therefore carries the greatest amount of information in any discourse determining what the sentence is about.

W. Chafe, whose influence in the present-day semantic syntax is quite considerable, points out the many constraints which limit the co-occurrence of words. He considers the verb as of paramount importance in sentence semantic structure, and argues that it is the verb that dictates the presence and character of the noun as its subject or object. Thus, the verbs *frighten, amuse* and *awaken* can have only animate nouns as their objects.

The constraint is even narrower if we take the verbs *say, talk* or *think* for which only animate human subjects are possible. It is obvious that not all animate nouns are human.

This view is, however, if not mistaken, at least one-sided, because the opposite is also true: it may happen that the same verb changes its meaning, when used with personal (human) names and with names of objects. Compare: *The new girl gave him a strange smile* (she smiled at him) and *The new teeth gave him a strange smile.*

These are by no means the only relations of vocabulary and grammar. We shall not attempt to enumerate all the possible problems. Let us turn now to another point of interest, namely the survival of two grammatically equivalent forms of the same word when they help to distinguish between its lexical meanings. Some nouns, for instance, have two separate plurals, one keeping the etymological plural form, and the other with the usual English ending *-s*. For example, the form *brothers* is used to express the family relationship, whereas the old form *brethren* survives in ecclesiastical usage or serves to indicate the members of some club or society; the scientific plural of *index*, is usually *indices*, in more general senses the plural is *indexes*. The plural of



*genius* meaning a person of exceptional intellect is *geniuses*, *genius* in the sense of evil or good spirit has the plural form *genii*.

The ties between lexicology and grammar are particularly strong in the sphere of word-formation which before lexicology became a separate branch of linguistics had even been considered as part of grammar. The characteristic features of English word-building, the morphological structure of the English word are dependent upon the peculiarity of the English grammatical system. The analytical character of the language is largely responsible for the wide spread of conversion<sup>1</sup> and for the remarkable flexibility of the vocabulary manifest in the ease with which many nonce-words<sup>2</sup> are formed on the spur of the moment.

This brief account of the interdependence between the two important parts of linguistics must suffice for the present. In future we shall have to return to the problem and treat some parts of it more extensively.

## 2-MAVZU. GENERAL CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES OF MODERN ENGLISH. THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AS A VOCABULARY SYSTEM

1. Ways of enriching vocabulary
2. The classification of the English vocabulary
  - Morphological grouping
  - Thematic and ideographic groups
  - Terminological systems
  - Different types of non-semantic groupings.

### 1. Ways of enriching vocabulary

By the *vocabulary* of a language is understood the total sum of its words. Another term for vocabulary is the stock of words.

The vocabulary of the language is not homogeneous (однородный). It is an adaptive system constantly adjusting itself to the changing conditions of human communication and cultural surroundings.

The number of words in a language is not constant and the increase is usually greater than the leak out (утечка). This process may be obtained (получен) by its results that is neologisms (1rd).

Productive word formation patterns are the most effective means of enriching vocabulary:

- 1) Affixation (electronics, psycho-linguistics)
- 2) Conversion (a sputnik – to sputnik). It is a process of forming new words by the changing the part of speech without any morphemic changes.
- 3) Back-derivation (to laze from lazy). With morphemic changes.
- 4) Shortening (laboratory – lab). By reducing (cutting) part of a word.

Third. Semantic extension of words (приобретение словом ещё одного значения) is a powerful source of enriching a vocabulary. It consists in splitting (расщепление) of polysemy (многозначность) that results in appearance of new vocabulary units (homonyms). “Heel – the traitor (хитрец) has lost all connections with the heel – the back part of human foot.”

Fourth. Borrowing – is active only in the field of scientific terminology. “Blitzkrieg, used it stops to be considered new or else it may not be accepted and vanish from the vocabulary.

When we consider the lexical system of a language as an adaptive system developing for many centuries. We have to contrast the innovations with words that dropped from the language (Obsolete words – устаревшие) or survive only in special contexts (archaisms and historicalisms).



Archaisms are words that were once common but now are replaced by synonyms (betwixt is replaced between).

When the thing named is no longer used its name become a historism (Phaeton – фэтон-автомобиль)

## **2. The classification of the English vocabulary.**

### **1. Morphological and lexico-grammatical grouping:**

On the morphological level the words are subdivided into 4 groups according to their morphological structure (the number and type of morphemes which compose (составлять, образовывать) them):

- a) Root words (ex. Dog, hand) состоящая из 1 корня
- b) Derivatives (производные) (Handy, handful)
- c) Compound words (ex. Handball, handbag)
- d) Compound derivatives (Left-handed) (помимо 2 корней ещё и суффиксы)

Another type of traditional lexical grouping is word families (этимологически родственные слова). The words are grouped here according to the root-morpheme (Handy, handsome, handicraft), according to the common suffix or prefix (troublesome, gladsome, gruesome).

Thematic and ideographic groups. The basis of thematic grouping is not only linguistic (that is words belong to the same part of speech) but also extra linguistic (that means that the words are associated because the things they name occur together and are closely connected in reality, (Ex. Thematic – color terms, military terms and medical terms)

All the elements of thematic groups remain within the limits of the same part of speech. When grammatical meaning is not taken into consideration we obtain the so-called ideographic groups. Words are classed here according to their signification that is the system of logical notions (ex. Light (noun), bright (adj), shine (verb) are united into one ideographic group as they are all connected with a notion of light. (Слова в идеографической не принадлежат к одной част речи, но связаны с каким-то одним феноменом).

Third classification, Terminological systems. Terminology constitutes the greatest part of every language vocabulary. Terms are words or word groups used to name a notion, characteristic of some special field of knowledge, industry or culture. These words (terms) are monosemantic, have no contextual meaning and are free from emotional coloring, Terms are not separates from the rest of vocabulary. With the development of civilization many special notions become known to the layman (обыватель) and form part and parcel (неотъемлемая часть) of everyday speech. (vitamin, computer).

Fourth classification. Different types of non-semantic groupings. The simplest non-semantic grouping is the alphabetical organization of written words. It is of great practical value as it is the most universal way of searching for the necessary word, but its theoretical value is almost null because no property of the word can be predicted from the letter the word begins with.

The rhyming group contain the words arranged according to the similarity of their ends. Such dictionaries are intended mostly for poets.

It's based on the length of words. There's a number of words they contain. It may be useful for communication, engineering, automatic reading of messages and correction of mistakes.

Next group is based on a statistical analysis of frequency of words. These figures show important correlations (взаимосвязь) between quantitative and qualitative characteristic of lexical units.

### **English vocabulary as a system**

Learning objectives: after you have studied the lecture you should be able:

1. To define vocabulary as a system.
2. To speak about: a) morphological grouping;  
b) lexico-grammatical grouping



- c) thematic and ideographic organization;
- d) synonymic grouping (including antonyms).
- 3. To describe the notion of semantic field, including terminology.

Literature to be studied:

1. Seminars in English lexicology. By Mednikova, pp. 51-53.
2. A course in Modern English lexicology. By Ginzburg R. and others.
3. The English Word. By Arnold I.V. pp. 199-213.

Some foreign scholars claim that in contrast to Grammar, the vocabulary of a language is not systematic, but *chaotic*.

In Russian linguistics lexicology exists as an independent discipline, as a part of the curriculum in our Universities. Russian lexicologists have worked out a comprehensive review of different types of word-groupings suggested in modern linguistics, both in the country and abroad. A short *survey* of formal and semantic types of groupings with a word-stock will help you in obtaining an idea of the lexical system in general.

*One of the earliest* and most obvious non-semantic grouping is the alphabetical organization of the word-stock, which is represented in most dictionaries. It is of great practical value in the search for the necessary word, but its theoretical value is almost *null*, because no other property of the word can be predicted from the letter or letters the word begins with.

### **Morphological groupings.**

On the morphological level words are divided into four groups according to their morphological structure:

- 1) *root or morpheme words* (dog, hand);
- 2) *derivatives*, which contain no less than two morphemes (dogged (упрямый), doggedly; handy, handful);
- 3) *compound words* consisting of not less than two free morphemes (dog-cheap - "very cheap", dog-days - "hottest part of the year"; handbook, handball)
- 4) *compound derivatives* (dog-legged - "crooked or bent like a dog's hind leg", left-handed).

This grouping is considered to be the basis for lexicology.

*Another type* of traditional lexicological grouping as known as *word-families* such as: hand, handy, handicraft, handbag, handball, handful, hand-made, handsome, etc.

A very important type of non-semantic grouping for isolated lexical units is based on a statistical analysis of their frequency. Frequency counts carried out for practical purposes of lexicology, language teaching and shorthand show important correlations between quantitative and qualitative characteristics of lexical units, the most frequent words being polysemantic and stylistically neutral. The frequency analysis singles out two classes:

- 1) *notional words*;
- 2) *form (or functional) words*.

Notional words constitute the bulk of the existing word-stock, according to the recent counts given for the first 1000 most frequently occurring words they make up 93% of the total number.

All notional lexical units are traditionally subdivided into parts of speech: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs. Nouns numerically make the largest class - about 39% of all notional words; verbs come second - 25% of words; they are followed by adjectives - 17% and adverbs - 12%.

*Form or functional words* - the remaining 7% of the total vocabulary - are prepositions, articles, conjunctions, which primarily denote various relations between notional words. Their grammatical meaning dominates over their lexical meaning. They make a specific group of about 150 units.

### **Lexico-grammatical grouping.**

By a lexico-grammatical group we understand a class of words which have a common lexico-grammatical meaning, a common paradigm, the same substituting elements and possibly a characteristic set of suffixes rendering the lexico-grammatical meaning.

Lexico-grammatical groups should not be confused with parts of speech. For instance, *audience* and *honesty* belong to the same part of speech but to different lexico-



grammatical groups because their lexico-grammatical meaning is different.

### **Common Denominator of Meaning, Semantic Fields.**

Words may also be classified according to the concepts underlying their meaning. This classification is closely connected with the theory of *semantic fields*. By the term "semantic fields" we understand closely knit sectors of vocabulary each characterized by a common concept. The words *blue, red, yellow, black*, etc. may be described as making up the semantic field of colours, the words *mother, father, sister, cousin*, etc. - as members of the semantic field of kinship terms, the words *joy, happiness, gaiety, enjoyment*, etc. as belonging to the field of pleasurable emotions, and so on.

The members of the semantic fields are not synonymous but all of them are joined together by some common semantic component - the concept of colours or the concept of kinship, etc. This semantic component common to all members of the field is sometimes described as the common denominator of meaning. All members of the field are semantically interdependent as each member helps to delimit and determine the meaning of its neighbours and is semantically delimited and determined by them. It follows that the word meaning is to a great extent determined by the place it occupies in its semantic field.

It is argued that we cannot possibly know the exact meaning of the word if we do not know the structure of the semantic field to which the word belongs, the number of the members and the concepts covered by them, etc. The meaning of the word *captain*, e.g. cannot be properly understood until we know the semantic field in which this term operates - *the army, the navy, or the merchant service*. It follows that the meaning of the word *captain* is determined by the place it occupies among the terms of the relevant rank system. In other words we know what *captain* means only if we know whether his subordinate is called *mate or first officer* (merchant service), *commander* (navy) or *lieutenant* (army).

Semantic dependence of the word on the structure of the field may be also illustrated by comparing members of analogous conceptual fields in different languages. Comparing, e.g. kinship terms in Russian and in English we observe that the meaning of the English term *mother-in-law* is different from either the Russian *мёща* or *свекровь*, as the English term covers the whole area which in Russian is divided between the two words. The same is true of the members of the semantic field of colours (cf. *blue* - синий, голубой), of human body (cf. *hand, arm* - рука) and others.

The theory of semantic field is severely criticized by Soviet linguists mainly on philosophical grounds as some of the proponents of the semantic-field theory hold the idealistic view that language is a kind of self-contained entity standing between man and the world of reality (Zwischenwelt). The followers of this theory argue that semantic fields reveal the fact that human experience is analysed and elaborated in a unique way, differing from one language to another. Broadly speaking they assert that people speaking different languages actually have different concepts, as it is through language that we see the real world around us. In short, they deny the primacy of matter forgetting that our concepts are formed not only through linguistic experience, but primarily through our actual contact with the real world. We know what *hot* means not only because we know the word *hot*, but also because we burn our fingers when we touch something very hot. A detailed critical analysis of the theory of semantic fields is the subject-matter of general linguists. Here we are concerned with the theory only as a means of semantic classification of vocabulary items.

Two more points should be discussed in this connection. Firstly, semantic groups may be very extensive and may cover big conceptual areas, e.g. *man-universe*, etc. There may be, however, comparatively small lexical groups of words linked by a common denominator of meaning. The words *bread, cheese, milk, meat*, etc. make up the semantic field with the concept of food as the common denominator of meaning. Such smaller lexical groups seem to play a very important role in determining individual meanings of polysemantic words in lexical contexts. Analysing polysemantic verbs we see that the verb *take*, e.g. in combination with the lexical group denoting means of transportation is synonymous with the verb *go* (*take the tram, the*



*bus*, etc.). When combined with members of another lexical group possessing another semantic denominator, the same verb is synonymous with *to drink* (*to take tea, coffee*, etc.). Such word-groups are often used not only in scientific lexicological analysis, but also in practical class-room teaching. In a number of textbooks we find words with some common denominator of meaning listed under the headings *Flower, Fruit, Domestic Animals*, and so on.

In other words **lexical** or **semantic field** is the organization of related words and expressions into a system which shows their relationship to one another.

For example, kinship terms such as father, mother, sister, brother, uncle, aunt belong to a lexical field whose relevant features include generation, sex, membership of the father's or mother's side of the family, etc.

The absence of a word in a particular place in a lexical field of a language is called a **lexical gap**.

For example, in English there is no singular noun that covers both cow and bull as *horse* covers stallion and mare.

### **Common Contextual Associations. Thematic Groups.**

Another type of classification almost universally used in practical class-room teaching is known as *thematic grouping*. Classification of vocabulary items into thematic groups is based on the *co-occurrence* of words in certain repeatedly used contexts.

In linguistic contexts co-occurrence may be observed on different levels. On the level of word-groups the word *question*, e.g., is often found in collocation with the verbs *raise*, *put forward*, *discuss*, etc., with the adjectives *urgent*, *vital*, *disputable* and so on. The verb *accept* occurs in numerous contexts together with the nouns *proposal*, *invitation*, *plan* and others.

As a rule, thematic groups deal with contexts on the level of the sentence (or utterance). Words in thematic groups are joined together by common contextual associations within the framework of the sentence and reflect the interlinking words, e.g. *tree-grow-green*; *journey-train-taxi-bags-ticket* or *sun-shine-brightly-blue-sky*, is due to the regular co-occurrence of these words in similar sentences. Unlike members of synonymic sets or semantic fields, words making up a thematic group belong to different parts of speech and do not possess any common denominator of meaning.

Contextual associations formed by the speaker of a language are usually conditioned by the context of situation which necessitates the use of certain words. When watching a play, e.g., we naturally speak of the actors who act the main parts, of good (or bad) staging of the play, of the wonderful scenery and so on. When we go shopping it is usual to speak of the prices, of the goods we buy, of the shops, etc. (*In practical language learning thematic groups are often listed under various headings, e.g. At the Theatre, At School, Shopping, and are often found in textbooks and courses of conversational English*).

### **Thematic and ideographic organization of a vocabulary.**

It is a further subdivision within the lexico-grammatical grouping. The basis of grouping is not only *linguistic* but also *extra-linguistic*. The words are associated because the things they name occur together and are closely connected in reality, e.g., terms of *kinship*. Names of parts of the human body, colour terms, etc.

*The ideographic groupings* are independent of classification into parts of speech, as grammatical meaning is not taken into consideration. Words and expressions are here classed not according to their lexico-grammatical meaning but strictly according to their signification, i.e. to their system of logical notions. These subgroups may compare nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs together, provided they refer to the same notion. Under alphabetical order the words which in the human mind go close together (father, brother, uncle, etc.) are placed in various parts of a dictionary. So, some lexicographers place such groups of lexical units in the company they usually keep in every day life, in our minds. These dictionaries are called ideographical or ideological.

*Synonymic grouping* is a special case of lexico-grammatical grouping based on semantic



proximity of words belonging to the same part of speech. Taking up similarity of meaning and contrasts of phonetic shape we observe that every language in its vocabulary has a variety of words kindred (родственный) or similar in meaning but distinct in morphemic composition, phonetic shape and usage. These words express the most delicate shades of thought, feelings and are explained in the dictionaries of synonyms.

*Antonyms* have been traditionally defined as words of opposite meaning. Their distinction from synonyms is semantic polarity. The English language is rich in synonyms and antonyms, their study reveals the systematic character of the English vocabulary.

Special terminology.

Sharply defined extensive semantic fields are found in terminological systems. Terminology constitutes the greatest part of every language vocabulary. A *term* is a word or word-group used to name a notion characteristic of some special field of knowledge, e.g., linguistics, cybernetics, industry, culture, informatics. Almost every system of terms is nowadays fixed and analyzed in numerous special dictionaries of the English language. ?

Hyponymy (включение).

Another type of paradigmatic relation is *hyponymy*. The notion of hyponymy is traditional enough; it has been long recognized as one of the main-principles in the organization of the vocabulary of all languages. For instance, *animal* is a *generic* term as compared to the *specific* names: wolf, dog, mouse. Dog, in its turn, may serve as a generic term for different breeds such as bull-dog, collie, poodle.

In other words, this type of relationship means the "inclusion" of a more specific term in a more general term, which has been established by some scientists in terms of logic of classes\*. For example, the meaning of *tulips* is said to be included in the meaning of "flower", and so on.

So, the *word-stock* is not only a sum total of all the words of a language, but a very complicated set of various relationships between different groupings, layers, between the vocabulary as a whole and isolated individual lexical units.

### 3-MA'RUZA. SEMASIOLOGY. SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH WORD. WORD MEANING. APPROACHES TO WORD MEANING

1. Semasiology
2. Semantic structure of the English word
3. The problem of word meaning
4. The main semantic processes

#### 1. The problem of word meaning

The branch of Linguistics which studies the meaning of different linguistic units is called **Semantics**. The part of Lexicology which studies the meaning and the development of meaning of words is called **Semasiology**.

There are different approaches to the problem of word meaning: 1) The **referential**, or **denotational approach** is characterized by the thought that (тем что) the essence (суть) of meaning lies in the interconnection and interdependence between: the word as the sound form, the referent, and the concept. Here **meaning** is the realization of the concept/notion by means of a definite language system. 2) The **functional**, or **contextual approach** is characterized by the idea that the meaning of a linguistic unit may be studied only through its relation to other linguistic units. Thus, **meaning** is understood as the function of linguistic signs, or their use in context.

Word meaning is represented by different types of meaning: grammatical, lexical, lexico-grammatical.

**Grammatical meaning** is the component of word meaning, recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words. It is expressed by:



1. word-form (such as books, girls, boys – the meaning of plurality; looked, asked – tense meaning);
2. the position of the word in relation to other words (e.g. He sings well, She dances badly – 'sings' and 'dances' are found in identical positions between a pronoun and an adverb, their identical distribution proves that they have identical gr.m.)

**Lexico-grammatical meaning** of the word is the common denominator (знаменатель) to all the meanings of the words belonging to a certain lexico-grammatical class or group of words.

**Lexical meaning** is the component of word meaning recurrent in all the forms of the word. The word forms go, goes, went, gone, going have different gr.m., but they have one and the same l.m. 'the process of movement'.

The **main component of L.m.** are:

1. the **denotational meaning** of words is the same for all the speakers. It is the realization of the concept by means of the given language.
2. The **pragmatic aspect** of l.m. is the part of meaning, that conveys information on the situation of communication: information on the 'time and space' relationship of the participants, information on the participants in the given language community, information on the register of communication.
3. The **connotational meaning** conveys the speaker's attitude toward what he is speaking about. There are 4 main types of connotations: a) The **emotional** connotation expresses human emotions and feelings (e.g. daddy, father); b) The **evaluative** connotation expresses approval or disapproval (e.g. agent and spy, planning and scheming=planning secretly); c) The **intensifying** connotation adds emphasis (усиление) to the meaning. (e.g. enormous, huge, tremendous=very); d) The **stylistic** connotation determines the functional speech style characteristic of the word usage (dad-father-parent; colloquial-neutral-bookish).

**Polysemy** is the ability of a word to have more than one m-g. The causes of the development of polysemy in Eng. are: 1) the great amount of monosyllabic root words; 2) an abundance of words of long duration, which in the course of time were used to express more new m-gs thus becoming highly polysemantic. Monosemantic words, i.e. words which have only one m-g form. They are mostly names of birds (blackbird, swallow), animals (walrus, weasel), fishes (ruff, perch) & special terms (systole, phoneme). The bulk of Eng. words are polysemantic, i.e. they have several m-gs. The m-g in speech is contextual. In a definite context any polysemantic word expresses only one m-g. A word in one of its m-g in which it is used in speech is called a lexico-semantic variant of a word. The semantic structure of a polysemantic word presents a set of interrelated & interdependent lexico-semantic variants. We distinguish on the synchronic level: - the basic (major) & the minor; - the central & the marginal; - direct & transferred (figurative); -. Every LSV is connected with the major m-g due to the existence of the common semantic components/ semes. The seme is the smallest further indivisible unit of m-g, the smallest unit of the plan of content. The analysis of the m-g into these components, or semes, is called the **componential analysis**.

So far we have been discussing the concept of meaning, different types of word-meanings and the changes they undergo in the course of the historical development of the English language. When analysing the word-meaning we observe, however, that words as a rule are not units of a single meaning. Monosemantic words, i.e. words having only one meaning are comparatively few in number, these are mainly scientific terms, such as hydrogen, molecule and the like. The bulk of English words are **polysemantic**, that is to say possess more than one meaning.

The actual number of meanings of the commonly used words ranges from five to about a hundred. In fact, the commoner the word the more meanings it has. The word table, e.g., has at least nine meanings in Modern English: 1. a piece of furniture; 2. the persons seated at a table; 3. *sing.* the food put on a table, meals; 4. a thin flat piece of stone, metal, wood, etc.; 5. *pl.* slabs of stone; 6. words cut into them or written on them (the ten tables); 7. an orderly arrangement of facts, figures, etc.; 8. part of a machine-tool on which the work is put to be operated on; 9. a level area, a plateau. Each of the individual meanings can be described in terms of the types of meanings discussed above. We may, e.g., analyse the eighth meaning of the word table into the part-of-speech meaning — that of the noun (which presupposes the grammatical meanings of number and case) combined with the lexical meaning made up of two components. The denotational semantic component which can be interpreted as the dictionary definition (part of a machine-tool on which the work is put) and the connotational component



which can be identified as a specific stylistic reference of this particular meaning of the word table (technical terminology). Cf. the Russian *плитка, стол станка*.

In polysemantic words, however, we are faced not with the problem of analysis of individual meanings, but primarily with the problem of the interrelation and interdependence of the various meanings in the semantic structure of one and the same word.

If polysemy is viewed diachronically, it is understood as the growth and development of or, in general, as a change in the semantic structure of the word. Polysemy in diachronic terms implies that a word may retain its previous meaning or meanings and at the same time acquire one or several new ones. Then the problem of the interrelation and interdependence of individual meanings of a polysemantic word may be roughly formulated as follows: did the word always possess all its meanings or did some of them appear earlier than the others? are the new meanings dependent on the meanings already existing? and if so what is the nature of this dependence? can we observe any changes in the arrangement of the meanings? and so on. In the course of a diachronic semantic analysis of the polysemantic word table we find that of all the meanings it has in Modern English, the primary meaning is 'a flat slab of stone or wood', which is proper to the word in the Old English period (*OE. tabule* from *L. tabula*); all other meanings are secondary as they are derived from the primary meaning of the word and appeared later than the primary meaning. The terms *secondary* and *derived* meaning are to a certain extent synonymous. When we describe the meaning of the word as "secondary" we imply that it could not have appeared before the primary meaning was in existence. When we refer to the meaning as "derived" we imply not only that, but also that it is dependent on the primary meaning and somehow subordinate to it. In the case of the word table, e.g., we may say that the meaning 'the food put on the table' is a secondary meaning as it is derived from the meaning 'a piece of furniture (on which meals are laid out)'.

It follows that the main source of polysemy is a change in the semantic structure of the word. Polysemy may also arise from homonymy. When two words become identical in sound-form, the meanings of the two words are felt as making

up one semantic structure. Thus, the human ear and the ear of corn are from the diachronic point of view two homonyms. One is etymologically related to *L. auris*, the other to *L. acus, aceris*. Synchronically, however, they are perceived as two meanings of one and the same word. The ear of corn is felt to be a metaphor of the usual type (cf. the eye of the needle, the foot of the mountain) and consequently as one of the derived or, synchronically, minor meanings of the polysemantic word ear.<sup>1</sup> Cases 1 In dictionaries ear (*L. auris*) and ear (*L. acus, aceris*) are usually treated as two homonymous words as dictionary compilers as a rule go by etymological criterion.

The words of different languages which are similar or identical in lexical meaning, especially in the denotational meaning are termed *correlated words*. The wording of the habitual question of English learners, e.g. "What is the English for *стол*?", and the answer "The English for *стол* is 'table'" also shows that we take the words table *стол* to be correlated. Semantic correlation.

#### 4-MA'RUZA. TYPES OF MEANING. WORD MEANING AND MOTIVATION

1. Types of word meaning
2. Word meaning and motivation
3. Types of word meaning (classifications):

According to the aspect relation of a word to the components of the situation where it is used:

Referential meaning — determined by the relation of linguistic sign to the referent in the material world



Significative meaning — determined by the relation of a linguistic sign to its user, the speaker's intention

Differential (systematic) meaning — determined by the relation of the given linguistic sign to other signs in the language system of speech

Another typology is based on the conception of word meaning as specific structure:

Part-of-speech meaning (functional) Grammatical — may be defined as the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words, as, e.g., the tense meaning in the word-forms of verbs (asked, thought, walked, etc.) or the case meaning in the word-forms of various nouns (girl's, boy's, night's, etc.). Lexical — may be described as the component of meaning proper to the word as a linguistic unit, i.e. recurrent in all the forms of this word. E.g. the word-forms go, goes, went, going, gone possess different grammatical meanings of tense, person and so on, but in each of these forms we find one and the same semantic component denoting the process of movement.

DENOTATIONAL (reference of a word or other lexical unit to individual object or concept) REVEALED IN THE DICTIONARY DEFINITION

CONNOTATIONAL (includes ideas or emotions)

- ⊗ Emotional implications (personal, studied by pragmatics)
- ⊗ Emotive charge (may be inherent in word meaning or created by prefixes and suffixes)
- ⊗ Stylistic reference (refers the word to a certain style register (neutral, colloquial, literary) This may be best illustrated by comparing words almost identical in their denotational meaning, e. g., 'parent — father — dad'. In comparison with the word father which is stylistically neutral, dad stands out as colloquial and parent is felt as bookish.

Motivation is the suggestion of the meaning of the word by the lexical form of the word.

Morphological motivation implies a direct connection between the lexical meaning of the component morphemes, the pattern of their arrangement and the meaning of the word. The degree of morphological motivation may be different varying from the extreme of complete motivation to lack of motivation. (The words finger-ring and ring-finger, e.g., contain two morphemes, the combined lexical meaning of which is the same; the difference in the meaning of these words can be accounted for by the difference in the arrangement of the component morphemes).

Phonetical motivation implies a direct connection between the phonetic structure of the word and its meaning. Phonetical motivation is not universally recognised in modern linguistic science. It is argued that speech sounds may suggest spatial and visual dimensions, shape, size, etc. Experiments carried out by a group of linguists showed that back open vowels are suggestive of big size, heavy weight, dark colour, etc.

Words as swish, sizzle, boom, splash, etc. may be defined as phonetically motivated because the soundclusters [swiʃ, sizl, bum, splæʃ] are a direct imitation of the sounds these words denote.

Semantic motivation implies a direct connection between the central and marginal meanings of the word. This connection may be regarded as a metaphoric extension of the central meaning based on the similarity of different classes of referents denoted by the word. (For example, a woman who has given birth is called a mother; by extension, any act that gives birth is associated with being a mother, Cf. also mother country, a mother's mark (=a birthmark), mother tongue, etc.).



## 5-MA'RUZA. CHANGES IN WORD MEANING

### 1. Changes in word meaning

### 2. The main semantic processes

**Specialization** or narrowing of m-ng indicates that the word passes from general usage & acquires some special m-ng. When the m-ng is specialized, the range of the notion is narrowed, i.e. the word can name, fewer objects, but the content of the notion is enriched, the notion will include a greater number of relevant features. O.E. "deor" - "wild beast" means now only "wild animal of a particular species" - "олень"; "girl" in O.E. meant "a child of any sex", now only "a female child". Common nouns are often specialized in toponymics (place names) becoming proper names, e.g. The City (the business part of London), the Tower (of London) - a fortress and a palace & now a museum.

**Generalizing** or widening of m-ng. The word having a special m-ng due to wide use gets widened in m-ng: thing, business. In case of generalization the range of the new notion is wider than that of the original one, but the content of the notion becomes poorer. In many cases it is a kind of transition from a concrete m-ng to an abstract one. In O.E. "season" meant only "spring time" then it acquired the m-ng "time for sowing & in Modern Eng it means "any of the 4 seasons". The process of gener-n is mostly at work in creating generic terms, words which can be applied to a great number of individual members of a big class of words: thing, business, to have, to do.

**Elevation** & degradation of m-ng are the semantic changes determined by social evaluation of the thing or phenomenon named & emotional tone. As the referent of the word comes up or down the social scale, its m-ng is either elevated or becomes pejorative. examples of elevation: Minister - in earlier times meant merely "a servant", now it means "an important public official". Comrade - is a Spanish bor-r-ng which originally meant "a room-mate". Smart - in earlier times meant "causing pain", now it is syn-mous with "chic". Knight - O.E. "lad, servant, soldier" now "a nobleman".

**Degradation** of m-ng is the reverse of elevation often reflecting relations b/w classes. O.E. "cnafa" meant "a boy", the ruling classes called their servants "knaves" and the word got a negative emotive colouring. Now it means "негодяй. плут". "vulgar, silly, insane, idiot" originally were neutral words m-ng correspondently; vulgar - "common, ordinary", silly - "happy", insane - "not well", idiot - "a private person". We speak of gener-n, special-n, elevation, degradation when we compare the results of the development of the semantic structure of words.

## 6-MA'RUZA. HOMONYMS. THE SOURCES OF HOMONYMS. THE CLASSIFICATION OF HOMONYMS

### 1. Definition of homonyms

### 2. Classifications of homonyms

### 3. Sources of homonymy



### 1. Definition of homonyms

Homonyms are words identical in sound and spelling or at least in one of these aspects, but different in their meaning and distribution. The term is derived from Greek (homos – the same, onoma – name, i.e. the same name combined with the difference of meaning).

E.g. bank: 1) a shore, a river bank; 2) a financial institution;

Ball: 1) any spherical body; 2) a large dancing party.

Homonyms exist in many languages but in English this language phenomenon is especially frequent, mostly in monosyllabic words (nearly 90 % of homonyms).

### 2. Classifications of homonyms

The most widely accepted classification is that recognising homonyms proper, homophones and homographs.

Homonyms proper are words identical in pronunciation and spelling (back, ball, bark).

Homophones are words of the same sound but of different spelling and meaning (air-heir, arms- alms- милостыня, buy- by).

Homographs are words different in sound and in meaning but identical in spelling (bow - [bou], [bau]).

According to Prof. Smirnitsky homonyms fall into: full homonyms and partial homonyms. Full homonyms are words representing the same category of parts of speech and having the same paradigm (match - game match - a stick for burning smth.).

Partial are subdivided into:

- simple lexico-grammatical partial homonyms ( belong to one part of speech, there's one identical form in a paradigm which is never the same form. (to found- to establish; found - Past indefinite from to find) .

- complex lexico-grammatical partial homonyms ( different part of speech, one identical form in a paradigm) (rose(n) - rose (v))

- partial lexical homonyms ( of the same part of speech identical only in their corresponding forms) to lie (lay, lain) , to lie (lied, lied) to can (canned, canned) can ( could )

The third classification is based on the similarity of the paradigms (grammatical forms each homonym possesses). E.g. match-matches: match – matches, such homonyms are called full. Homonyms that coincide in one or two members (not in all members) of their paradigms are called partial. E.g. to lie- lying-lied – lied : to lie-lying- lay-lain ; left : to leave-leaving-left-left.

### 3. Sources of homonymy.

There are several sources of homonymy.

1. Phonetic changes. In the course of the language development two or more words that were pronounced differently may develop identical sound form, e.g. knight-night, sea-see, write-right.
2. Borrowing. A borrowed word may duplicate in form a native word or another borrowing, e.g. write (native) – rite (Latin ritus), fair (adj, native) – fair (noun, French), bank (shore, native)-bank (institution, Italian).
3. Wordbuilding:
  - a. conversion, e.g. pale-to pale, water –to water, comb-to comb;
  - b. shortening, e.g. fan – fan (from fanatic), van – from vanguard and from caravan;
  - c. sound imitation, e.g. bang – to bang; mew –mew- mew.
4. Splitting polysemy, e.g. board. It is difficult to establish exact criteria by which disintegration of polysemy could be detected.

The knowledge of etymology and other languages will help to supply the missing links. The imprecision of the criteria is recorded in the data of different dictionaries which often contradict each other. E.g. board is represented as two homonyms in Muller's dictionary, as three homonyms in Arakin's dictionary and as one polysemantic word in Hornby's dictionary.



## 7-MA'RUZA. POLYSEMANTIC WORDS. THE PROBLEM OF HOMONYMY AND POLYSEMY

1. What is polysemy
2. What is homonymy
3. Difference between homonymy and polysemy

### 1. What is polysemy

Polysemy and Homonymy are two similar concepts in linguistics. Both of them refer to words having multiple meanings. **Polysemy refers to the coexistence of many possible meanings for a word or phrase. Homonymy refers to the existence of two or more words having the same spelling or pronunciation but different meanings and origins.**

This is the main difference between polysemy and homonymy

### 1. What is Polysemy

Polysemy refers to words or phrases with different, but related meanings. A word becomes polysemous if it can be used to express different meanings. The difference between these meanings can be obvious or subtle. It is sometimes difficult to determine whether a word is polysemous or not because the relations between words can be vague and unclear. But, examining the origins of the words can help to decide whether a word is polysemic or homonymous.

The following sentences contain some examples of polysemy.

*He drank a glass of milk.*

*He forgot to milk the cow.*

*The enraged actor sued the newspaper.*

*He read the newspaper.*

*His cottage is near a small wood.*

*The statue was made out of a block of wood.*

*He fixed his hair.*

*They fixed a date for the wedding.*

Although the meanings of the underlined word pairs only have a subtle difference. The origins of the words are related. Such words are generally listed in dictionaries under one entry; numbers may be used to denote the subtle differences.

### 2. What is Homonymy

Homonymy refers to two unrelated words that look or sound the same. Two or more words become homonyms if they either sound the same (homophones), have the same spelling (homographs), or if they both homophones and homographs, but do not have related meanings. Given below are some examples of homonyms:

Stalk

- The main stem of a herbaceous plant
- Pursue or approach stealthily

Sow

- adult female pig
- to plant seeds in a ground

The above two examples are both written and read alike; they have the same spellings and sounds. Some words do not have the same spellings, but they share same the same pronunciation. For example, *Read vs Reed, Right vs Write, Pray vs Prey.*

### 3. Difference between polysemy and homonymy

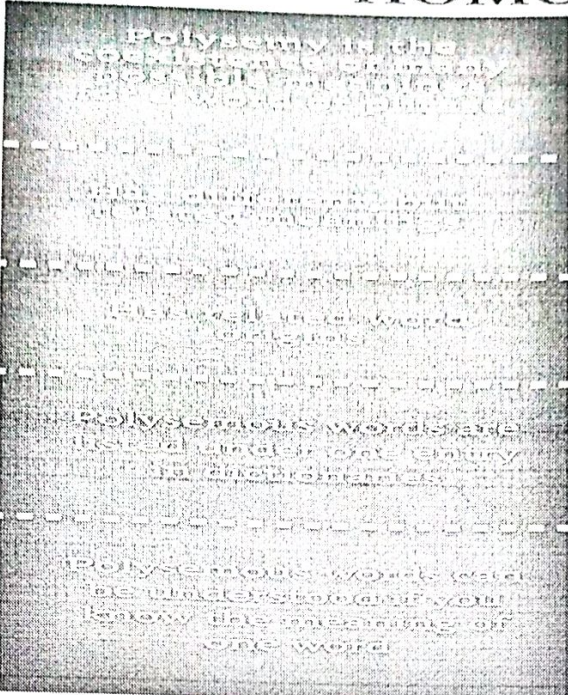
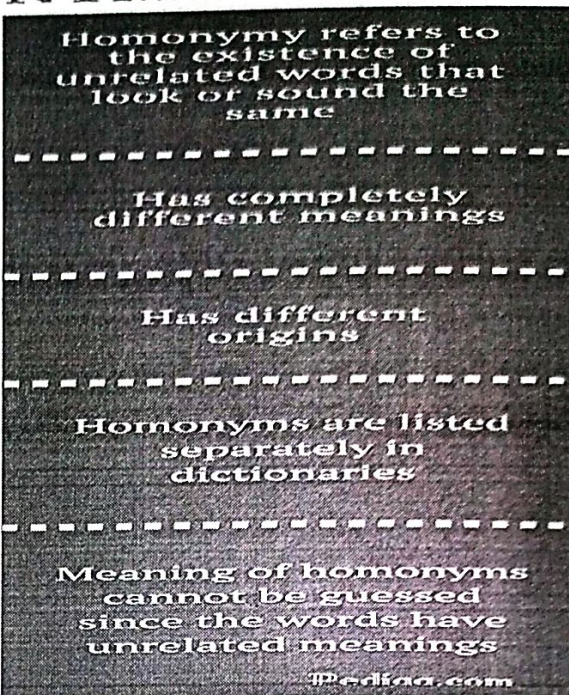
**Polysemous** words can be understood if you know the meaning of one word.



The meaning of **homonymous** words cannot be guessed since the words have unrelated

## **POLYSEMY VERSUS HOMONYMY**

meanings.

	
	Homonymy refers to the existence of unrelated words that look or sound the same
	Has completely different meanings
	Has different origins
	Homonyms are listed separately in dictionaries
	Meaning of homonyms cannot be guessed since the words have unrelated meanings
	Pediaa.com

## **8-MA`RUZA. SYNONYMS. CRITERIA OF SYNONYMY AND CLASSIFICATION OF SYNONYMS**

- 1. Definition of synonyms**
- 2. Classification of synonyms**
- 3. Criteria of synonymity**

### **1. Definition of synonyms**

Synonymy is one of the most controversial points in linguistics. Roughly we may say that when two or more different words are associated with the same or nearly the same denotative meaning, the words are synonyms.

Sometimes criterion of interchangeability has been applied to definition of synonyms. Accordingly, synonyms have been defined as words, which are interchangeable in at least some contexts without any considerable changes in denotative meaning. This criterion, however, has been much criticized. If all synonyms were interchangeable, they would become useless ballast in the language. Even those synonyms that seem to be interchangeable and are called total by Academician Vinogradov, still differ in their distribution, use, etc. e.g. cosmonaut is used in reference to European spacemen and astronaut – to American ones. Or offer is followed by a noun while suggest – by a gerund. So the prevailing majority of synonyms are partial.

Synonyms are united into synonymous rows. In each row there is one word, which presents a kind of centre of the group of synonyms. Its semantic structure is usually simple. This is the dominant synonym characterized by:

- high frequency of usage;
- broad combinability;
- broad general meaning;
- lack of connotations.



E.g. in the row: to look-to stare-to glare-to gaze-to peer-to peep-to glance-to glimpse-etc. the dominant synonym is the word to look.

## 2. Classification of synonyms

Synonyms can be classified as stylistic and ideographic. Stylistic synonyms differ in their stylistic connotations, e.g. father-parent-daddy; stomach-belly. Ideographic synonyms may differ in the following connotations:

- ✓ degree or intensity, e.g. to like-to admire –to <sup>love</sup> – to adore- to worship; to surprise – to astonish- to amaze- to astound;
- ✓ duration, e.g. to glance- to stare ; to say – to talk ;
- ✓ manner, e.g. to stagger – to trot – to pace – to march, etc.;
- ✓ cause, e.g. to shiver –to shudder ; to blush – to redden ;
- ✓ emotive connotation, e.g. alone – lonely;
- ✓ evaluative connotation, e.g. well-known – famous- celebrated- notorious, etc.

We can also single out contextual synonyms that are similar in meaning only under some specific distributional conditions, e.g. Go and *buy* some bread – Go and *get* some bread.

I cannot *stand* it any longer – I cannot *bear* it any longer. These words are not synonyms outside the specified contexts.

## 9-MA'RUZA. ANTONYMS. CLASSIFICATION OF ANTONYMS

### 1. Definition of antonyms

### 2. Semantic classification of antonyms

- contradictories
- contraries
- incompatibles

### 3. Morphological classifications of antonyms

#### 1. Definition of antonyms

**Antonyms** – a class of words grouped together on the basis of the semantic relations of opposition. Antonyms are words belonging to one part of speech sharing certain common semantic characteristics and in this respect they are similar to such semantic classes as synonyms, lexical sets, lexico-semantic groups. (**lexical sets** (предметные или тематические группы) - words denoting different things correlated on extralinguistic grounds: *lion, tiger, leopard, puma, cat* refer to the lexical set of "the animals of the cat family"; words describing different sides of one and the same general notion are united in a **lexico-semantic group**: group denoting "physical movement" – *to go, to turn, to run*). There exist different classifications of antonyms.

Structurally, antonyms can be divided into antonyms of the same root (1), e.g. *to do – to undo, cheerful – cheerless*, and antonyms of different roots (2), e.g. *day – night, rich – poor*.

#### 2. Semantic classification of antonyms

Semantically, antonyms may be classified into contradictories, contraries and incompatibles.

1. **Contradictories** represent the type of semantic relations that exist between pairs like, for example, *dead – alive, single – married*. Contradictory antonyms are mutually opposed, they deny one another. Contradictories form a privative binary opposition, they are members of two-term sets. To use one of the words is to contradict the other and to use "not" before one of them is to make it semantically equivalent to the other: *not dead = alive; not single = married*.

2. **Contraries** are antonyms that can be arranged into a series according to the increasing difference in one of their qualities. The most distant elements of this series will be classified as contrary notions. Contraries are **gradable antonyms**, they are polar members of a gradual opposition which may have intermediate members. This may be observed in *cold – hot* and *cool – warm* which are intermediate



members. Thus, we may regard as antonyms not only *cold* and *hot* but also *cold* and *warm*. Contrary antonyms may also be considered in terms of degrees of the quality involved. Thus, water may be *colder* *very cold*, and water in one glass may be *colder* than in another glass.

3. **Incompatibles** are antonyms which are characterized by the relations of exclusion. Semantic relations of incompatibility exist among antonyms with a common component of meaning and may be described as the reverse of hyponymy. For example, to say *morning* is to say *not afternoon*, *not evening*, *not night*. The use of one member of this set implies the exclusion of the other members of the set. Incompatibles differ from contradictories as incompatibles are members of the multiple-term sets while contradictories are members of two-term sets. A relation of incompatibility may be also observed between colour terms since the choice of *red*, for example, entails the exclusion of *black*, *blue*, *yellow*, etc.

#### **According to the character of semantic opposition:**

**Antonyms proper** (contrary antonyms) are antonyms which possess the following characteristics:

- they are gradable, i.e. there are some intermediate units between the most distant members of a set, e.g. *cold* – *cool* – *tepid* – *warm* – *hot*; *never* – *seldom* – *sometimes* – *often* – *always*;
- they are capable of comparison, e.g. *good* – *better* – *best* vs. *bad* – *worse* – *worst*;
- they can be modified by such intensifiers as *very*, *slightly*, *extremely*, *fairly*, *rather* etc., e.g. *huge* – *very big* – *BIG* – *quite big* – *medium-sized* – *quite small* – *SMALL* – *very small* – *tiny*;
- they do not deny one another, e.g. *She is not beautiful* ≠ *She is ugly*;
- they refer not to independent absolute qualities but to some implicit norm, e.g. *a big mouse* vs *a small elephant*.

**Contradictory antonyms** (complementary antonyms) are mutually opposed (exclusive) and deny one another, e.g. *male* – *female*; *married* – *single*; *asleep* – *awake*; *same* – *different*. Their features:

- not gradable;
- truly represent oppositeness of meaning;
- cannot be used in the comparative or superlative degree;
- the denial of one member of such antonymic opposition always implies the assertion of the other, e.g. *not dead* – *alive*.

**Conversive antonyms** (conversives) are words which denote one and the same situation as viewed from different points of view, with a reversal of the order of participants and their roles, e.g. *husband* – *wife*; *teacher* – *pupil*; *to buy* – *to sell*; *to lend* – *to borrow*; *to precede* – *to follow*. These antonyms are mutually dependent on each other and one item presupposes the other.

**Vectorial antonyms** (directional antonyms) are words denoting differently directed actions, features, e.g. *to rise* – *to fall*; *to arrive* – *to depart*; *to marry* – *to divorce*; *to learn* – *to forget*; *to appear* – *to disappear*.

### **3. Morphological and semantic classifications of antonyms.**

Morphological classification of antonyms by V. N. Komissarov (*Dictionary of English Antonyms*):

**root antonyms** (absolute antonyms) are antonyms having different roots, e.g. *clean* – *dirty*; *late* – *early*; *day* – *night*;

**derivational antonyms** are antonyms having the same root but different affixes, e.g. *to fasten* – *to unfasten*; *flexible* – *inflexible*; *useful* – *useless*.



## 10-MA'RUZA. SEMANTIC SYSTEMS IN ENGLISH. NEOLOGISMS ABSOLUTE AND ARCHAIC WORDS

1. Semantic system in English
2. Neologisms
3. Obsolete words
4. Archaic words

### 1. Semantic system in English

The **adaptive system approach** to vocabulary is still in its infancy, but it is already possible to hazard an interim estimate of its significance. Language as well as other adaptive systems, better studied in other branches of science, is capable of obtaining information from the extra-linguistic world and with the help of feedback makes use of it for self-optimisation. If the variation proves useful, it remains in the vocabulary. The process may be observed by its results, that is by studying new words or **neologisms**. New notions constantly come into being, requiring new words to name them. Sometimes a new name is introduced for a thing or notion that continues to exist, and the older name ceases to be used. The number of words in a language is therefore not constant, the increase, as a rule, more than makes up for the leak-out.

### 2. Neologisms

New words and expressions or **neologisms** are created for new things irrespective of their scale of importance. They may be all-important and concern some social relationships, such as a new form of state, e. g. *People's Republic*, or something threatening the very existence of humanity, like *nuclear war*. Or again the thing may be quite insignificant and short-lived, like fashions in dancing, clothing, hairdo or footwear (e. g. *roll-neck*). In every case either the old words are appropriately changed in meaning or new words are borrowed, or more often coined out of the existing language material either according to the patterns and ways already productive in the language at a given stage of its development or creating new ones.

A **neologism** (/ni: 'plədʒɪzəm/; is the name for a relatively new or isolated term, word, or phrase that may be in the process of entering common use, but that has not yet been accepted into mainstream language.<sup>[1][2]</sup> Neologisms are often directly attributable to a specific person, publication, period, or event. **Neolexia** ("new word", or the act of creating a new word) is a synonym. **Thus, a neologism is a newly coined word or phrase or a new meaning for an existing word, or a word borrowed from another language**

The intense development of science and industry has called forth the invention and introduction of an immense number of new words and changed the meanings of old ones, e. g. *aerobic*, *black hole*, *computer*, *isotope*, *feedback*, *penicillin*, *pulsar*, *quasar*, *tape-recorder*, *supermarket* and so on.

As a general rule neologisms are at first clearly motivated. An exception is shown by those based on borrowings or learned coinages which, though motivated at an early stage, very soon begin to function as indivisible signs. A good example is the much used term *cybernetics* 'study of systems of control and communication in living beings and man-made devices' coined by Norbert Wiener from the Greek word *kyberne-tes* 'steersman'+suffix *-ics*.

There are, however, cases when etymology of comparatively new words is obscure, as in the noun *boffin* 'a scientist engaged in research work' or in *gimmick* 'a tricky device' — an American slang word that is now often used in British English.

In the course of time the new word is accepted into the word-stock of the language and being often used ceases to be considered new, or else it may not be accepted for some reason or other and vanish from the language. The fate of neologisms is hardly predictable: some of them are short-lived, others, on the contrary, become durable as they are liked and accepted. Once accepted, they may serve as a basis for further word-formation: *gimmick*, *gimmickry*, *gimmicky*. *Zip* (an imitative word denoting a certain type of fastener) is hardly felt as new, but its derivatives — the verb *zip* (*zip from one place to another*), the corresponding personal noun *zipper* and the adjective *zippy* — appear to be neologisms.

#### A neologism can be:

A completely new word (e.g., *oversharers*)

A new combination of existing words (e.g., *digital detox*)



A new meaning for an existing word (e.g., sick)

### Examples of Neologisms

The following are examples of neologisms at the time of writing (2014):

**Oversharers:** People who post too much information (which is often boring or embarrassing) about themselves on line.

**Digital Detox:** Abstaining from electronic devices to re-engage with the physical world, typically to lower stress levels.

**Sick:** Good.

### Examples of Old "Neologisms"

The following former neologisms have been formally accepted into mainstream language (this usually means appearing in a respectable dictionary). As a result, they can no longer be classified as neologisms.

- **D'oh!:** An exclamation meaning damn (usually after a mistake by the speaker).
  - **Wicked:** Good or cool.
  - **To Google:** To look up information on the internet.
- Note: The term "old neologism" is an oxymoron (i.e., a self-contained contradiction).

### Examples of Neologisms under Transition

The following neologisms can be considered under transition. In other words, they are still neologisms, but it is likely they will be accepted into mainstream language soon.

- **Metrosexual:** A heterosexual man who likes the interests traditionally associated with women or homosexual men (e.g., shopping, fashion, his appearance).
- **Noob:** A person new to an online gaming community.
- **Staycation:** A vacation at home or near home (usually due to financial constraints preventing a holiday abroad).
- **Troll:** A person who posts obnoxious comments to an online community.

When we consider the lexical system of a language as an adaptive system developing for many centuries and reflecting the changing needs of the communication process, we have to contrast the innovations with words that dropped from the language (**o b s o l e t e** words) or survive only in special contexts (**a r c h a i s m s** and **h i s t o r i s m s**).

### 3. O B S O L E T E W O R D S

**Obsolete** indicates that a term is no longer in active use, except, for example, in literary quotation. **Obsolete** may apply to a word regarded as no longer acceptable or useful even though it is still in existence.

The meaning of these temporal labels can be somewhat different among dictionaries and thesauri. **Obsolete** indicates that a term is no longer in active use, except, for example, in literary quotation. **Obsolete** may apply to a word regarded as no longer acceptable or useful even though it is still in existence. Obsolete words and phrases are not easily understood by a modern reader, and obsolete senses of current terms." *Obsolete word* is a temporal label commonly used by lexicographers (that is, editors of dictionaries) to indicate that a word (or a particular form or sense of a word) is no longer in active use in speech and writing.

As Knud Sørensen points out, "it sometimes occurs that words which have become obsolete in Britain continue to be current in the United States (compare Amer. Engl. fall and Brit. Engl. autumn)" (*Languages in Contact and Contrast*, 1991).

### FOLLOWING ARE SOME EXAMPLES OF OBSOLETE WORDS:

**ILLECEBROUS** "Illecebrous [ill-less-uh-brus] an **obsolete word** meaning 'attractive, alluring.' From a Latin word meaning 'to entice.'" (Erin McKean, *Totally Weird and Wonderful Words*. Oxford University Press, 2006)

**MAWK** "The underlying meaning of *mawkish* is 'maggotish.' It was derived from a now **obsolete word** *mawk*, which meant literally 'maggot' but was used figuratively (like *maggot* itself) for a 'whim' or 'fastidious fancy.' Hence *mawkish* originally meant 'nauseated, as if repelled by something one is too fastidious to eat.' In the 18th century the notion of 'sickness' or 'sickliness' produced the present-day sense 'over-sentimental.'" (John Ayto, *Word Origins*, 2nd ed. A & C Black, 2005)



**MUCKRAKE** "*Mudslinging* and *muckraking*--two words commonly connected with the pursuit of an elected office and the flotsam the campaigns leave in their wake. "Voters seem fairly familiar with the term used to describe malicious or scandalous attacks against opponents, but the latter 'm' word may be new for some people. It is an **obsolete word** describing a tool used to rake muck or dung and used in reference to a character in John Bunyan's classic *Pilgrim's Progress* [1678]--'the Man with the Muck-rake' who rejected salvation to focus on filth." (Vanessa Curry, "Don't Muck It Up, and We Won't Rake It." *The Daily Herald* [Columbia, TN], April 3, 2014)|

**SLUBBERDEGULLION** *Slubberdegullion* is "n: a slobbering or dirty fellow, a worthless sloven," 1610s, from *slubber* "to daub, smear, behave carelessly or negligently" (1520s), probably from Dutch or Low German (cf. *slobber* (v)). Second element appears to be an attempt to imitate French; or perhaps it is French, related to Old French *goalon* "a sloven." "Century Dictionary speculates the *-de-* means 'insignificant' or else is from *hobbledehoy*."

**SNOUTFAIR** Snoutfair is a person with a handsome countenance (literally, a fair snout). Its origins are from the 1500s.

**LUNTING** *Lunting* means to walk while smoking a pipe. Lunting is also the emanation of smoke or steam from a tobacco pipe, or the flame used to light a fire, torch, or pipe. The word *lunting* originated in the 1500s "from either the Dutch word 'lont' meaning a slow match or fuse or the Middle Low German 'lonte' meaning a wick."

**WITH SQUIRREL** *With squirrel* is a euphemism that means pregnant. It originated in the Ozark Mountains in the early 20th century.

**CURGLAFF** *Curglaff* is commonly felt by people in northern climes -- it is the shock that one feels when first plunging into cold water. The word *curglaff* originated from Scotland in the 1800s. (Also spelled *curgloff*).

**GROAK** To *groak* (verb) is to watch someone longingly while they are eating, in the hope that they will give you some of their food. The origin is possibly Scottish.

**COCKALORUM** *Cockalorum* is a little man who has an over-inflated opinion of himself and thinks himself more important than he is; also, boastful speech. The origin of *cockalorum* may be from the from the obsolete Flemish word *kockeloeren* of the 1700s, meaning "to crow."

#### SUBJECTIVE JUDGMENTS: *GRIEFSOME* IN THE OXFORD ENGLISH DICTIONARY (OED)

- "*Griefsome* was . . . labelled **obsolete** during the writing of the first edition of the *OED*. A few months later, however, one of the editors used *griefsome* in drafting the definition of *grievousness* ('the quality or condition of being griefsome'), as a draft proof still records. Here, intuition and usage failed to coincide; paradoxically *griefsome* was both obsolete (according to the label it had been given) and current (according to the usage of one of the editors).

#### 4. ARCHAIC WORDS

The word *archaism* is derived from the Greek word *archaikós* meaning "ancient."

The label **archaic** is used for words that were once common but are now rare. **Archaic** implies having the character or characteristics of a much earlier time. The word stock of a language is in an increasing state of change. In every period in the development of a literary language one can find words which will show more or less apparent changes in their meaning or usage, from full vigour, through a moribund state, to death, i.e. complete disappearance of the unit from the language.

We'll distinguish 3 stages in the aging process of words:

- 1) the beginning of the aging process when the word becomes rarely used. Such words are called *obsolescent*, i.e. they are in the stage of gradually passing out of general use;
- 2) The second group of archaic words are those that have already gone completely out of use but are still recognized by the English speaking community. These words are called *obsolete*.



3) The third group, which may be called archaic proper, are words which are no longer recognized in modern English, words that were in use in Old English and which have either dropped out of the language entirely or have changed in their appearance so much that they have become unrecognizable.

There is another class of words which is erroneously classed as archaic, historic words. Words of this type never disappear from the language.

Archaic words are used in historical novels, in official and diplomatic documents, in business letters, legal language, etc. Archaic words, word-forms and word combinations are also used to create an elevated effect.

#### I. What is Archaism?

To be *afear'd* used to mean not *to be scary*, but *to be afraid*. And how many people today understand that the word *wherefore* in "wherefore art thou Romeo" means *why not where*? How many people still say *shan't* (shall not) instead of *won't*? Perhaps in Britain, only. These words, which are so old that they have gone out of style, or few people know what they mean, are examples of *archaisms*.

#### II. Examples of Archaism

Because archaisms are, by definition, no longer used much, here are a few examples from Shakespeare and legal jargon, with their meanings explained:

##### Example 1

*This above all: to thine own self be true.*

This often quoted line from Shakespeare's *Hamlet* has an archaism—*thine*—as well as *archaic* sentence structure. The modern translation would be: *This above all: be true to yourself.*

##### Example 2

*Do you bite your thumb at us, sir?*

A modern response to this question would be, "Do I *what*?" This line is also from Shakespeare. The expression "to bite one's thumb" at someone once meant to bite and flick one's thumb towards someone, which was an offensive and insulting gesture.

##### Example 3

The language of lawyers and laws is filled with archaisms such as *heretofore*, *hereunto*, *thereof*, etc.

Often used in Shakespearean studies, this phrase may be translated to: *The lady solemnly declares too much, I think.*

This last example calls attention to the fact that although archaisms are not used much anymore, they *are* used. If a word or phrase is not used at all anymore, in any context, it is not an archaism; it is obsolete.

#### III. The Importance of Using Archaisms

Archaisms exist, naturally, because language is always changing through the years unless artificially held back. Shakespeare's English-Elizabethan English—evolved into the many dialects of modern English. Archaisms are most important because they remain in use in certain limited fields of activity—especially law, government, and religion—the most conservative and traditional areas of activity in our world. But archaisms can also be used by anyone anytime in speech or writing, to create an atmosphere of antiquity, and also, to give one's language a feeling of official-ness, royalty, or religious authority.

#### IV. Examples of Archaisms in Literature

Archaisms are prominent in classic literature because literature has to be old before it can become classic, and the older a work of literature becomes, the older its words become. What's less predictable is when a modern author uses archaisms with a certain purpose. *Example 1. If a body catch a body coming through the rye...*

## 11 - MA'RUZA. MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH WORDS

1. The morphological structure of a word. Morphemes. Types of morphemes. Allomorphs.



## 2. Structural types of words.

## 3. Principles of morphemic analysis.

## 4. Derivational level of analysis. Stems. Types of stems. Derivational types of words.

### 1. The morphological structure of a word. Morphemes. Types of Morphemes. Allomorphs.

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 morphē** "form" + **-eme**. The Greek suffix **-eme** has been adopted by linguistics to denote the smallest unit or the minimum **distinctive feature**. The morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of form. A form in these cases is 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, e.g. (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, e.g., 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 morpheme **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*.

## 2. Structural types of words.

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. The four types (root words, derived words, compound, shortenings) represent the main structural types of Modern English words, and conversion, derivation and composition the most productive ways of word building. According to the number of morphemes words can be classified into **monomorph**ic and **polymorph**ic.

**Monomorph**ic or **root-words** consist of only one root-morpheme, e.g. *small*, *dog*, *make*, *give*, etc. All polymorph word 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, e.g. *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% and adjectives about 4%. 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.

## 3. 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 as Ultimate Constituents. A synchronic morphological analysis is most effectively accomplished by the procedure known as the analysis into Immediate Constituents. 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+ { [ ( gent- + -le ) + -man ] + -ly}** Breaking a word into its Immediate Constituents we observe in each cut the structural order of the constituents. A diagram presenting the four cuts described looks as follows: 1. **un- / gentlemanly** 2. **un- / gentleman / -ly** 3. **un- / gentle / -man / -ly** 4. **un- / gentl / -e / -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. For example, the noun **friendliness** is first segmented into the ICs: [frendli-] recurring in the adjectives **friendly**-looking and **friendly** and [-nis] found in a countless number of nouns, such as **unhappiness**, **blackness**, **sameness**, etc. the IC [-nis] 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 [frendli-] is next broken into the ICs [-li] and [frend-] 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, e.g. 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 defies such analysis, as it 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 [rɪ-], [dɪ-] 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**, **re-organize**, **de-organize**, **de-code**. Moreover, neither the sound-cluster [rɪ-] or [dɪ-], nor the [-teɪn] or [-sɪ:v] possess any lexical or functional meaning of their own. Yet, these sound-clusters are felt as having a certain meaning because [rɪ-] 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. Pseudo-morphemes of the same kind are also encountered in words like **rusty-fusty**.

#### 4. Derivational level of analysis. Stems. Types of Stems. Derivational types of word.

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 **derivative or word-formation relations**.

The analysis of derivative 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 shape 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 derivative 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 monomorphic 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 derivative 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 IC's and the correlated stems. The derived stems are mostly polymorphic in which case the segmentation results only in one IC that is itself a stem, the other IC being necessarily a derivational affix. Derived stems are not necessarily polymorphic.

**Compound stems** are made up of two IC's, 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. In more complex cases the result of the analysis at the two levels sometimes seems even to contracted one another. The **derivational types of words** are classified according to the structure of their stems into **simple**, **derived** and **compound** words.

Derived words are those composed of one root-morpheme and one or more derivational morpheme.

Compound words contain at least two root-morphemes, the number of derivational morphemes being insignificant.

**Derivational compound** is a word formed by a simultaneous process of composition and derivational. **Compound words proper** are formed by joining together stems of word already available in the language.



## 12-MA'RUZA. WORD FORMATION AND WAYS OF WORD FORMATION

### 1. Word formation

#### 2. Ways of word formation

- compounding
- derivation
- affixation
- blending
- clipping
- acronyms
- other ways

#### Word formation

Word-formation tries to explain the processes through which we can create new word forms. We've already seen some of these at work when we looked at morphemes and word classes, but now we'll investigate them a little more closely, initially using exploratory methods again, rather than just looking at long lists of morphemes and listing their functions.

As far as morphological processes in word-formation are concerned, we can distinguish between a variety of major types, briefly introduced and summarised in the table below:

Major types of word formation processes	
Process	Function
affixation	changing words by adding morphemes in the front or the back of a free morpheme or base; sub-divided into <u>preffigation</u> & <u>suffigation</u>
zero-derivation	changing the word class without changing the word shape
compounding	creating new words by combining (mainly) free morphemes
backformation	creating new words from phrases
clipping & blending	abbreviating or 'fusing' words into new ones.
acronym formation	using initials to create short words

### 2. Ways of word formation

#### Compounding

Compounding forms a word out of two or more root morphemes. The words are called compounds or compound words.

In Linguistics, compounds can be either native or borrowed.

Native English roots are typically free morphemes, so that means native compounds are made out of independent words that can occur by themselves. Examples: *mailman* (composed of free root *mail* and free root *man*), *mail carrier*, *dog house*, *fireplace*, *fireplug* (a regional word for 'fire hydrant'), *fire hydrant*, *dry run*, *cupcake*, *cup holder*, *email*, *e-ticket*, *pick-up truck*, *talking-to*

Some compounds have a preposition as one of the component words as in the last 2 examples.

In Greek and Latin, in contrast to English, roots do not typically stand alone. So compounds are composed of bound roots. Compounds formed in English from borrowed Latin and Greek morphemes preserve this characteristic. Examples include *photograph*, *iatrogenic*, and many thousands of other classical words.

Note that compounds are written in various ways in English: with a space between the elements; with a hyphen between the elements; or simply with the two roots run together with no



separation. The way the word is written does not affect its status as a compound. Over time, the convention for writing compounds can change, usually in the direction from separate words (e.g. email used to be written with a hyphen. In the 19th century, today and tomorrow were sometimes still written *to-day* and *to-morrow*. The *to* originally was the preposition *to* with an older meaning 'at [a particular period of time]'. *Clock work* changed to *clock-work* and finally to one word with no break (*clockwork*). If you read older literature you might see some compound words that are now written as one word appearing with unfamiliar spaces or hyphens between the components.

Another thing to note about compounds is that they can combine words of different parts of speech. The list above shows mostly noun-noun compounds, which is probably the most common part of speech combination, but there are others, such as adjective-noun (*dry run*, *blackbird*, *hard drive*), verb-noun (*pick-pocket*, *cut-purse*, *lick-spittle*) and even verb-particle (where 'particle' means a word basically designating spatial expression that functions to complete a literal or metaphorical path), as in *run-through*, *hold-over*. Sometimes these compounds are different in the part of speech of the whole compound vs. the part of speech of its components. Note that the last two are actually nouns, despite their components.

Some compounds have more than two component words. These are formed by successively combining words into compounds, e.g. *pick-up truck*, formed from *pick-up* and *truck*, where the first component, *pick-up* is itself a compound formed from *pick* and *up*. Other examples are *ice-cream cone*, *no-fault insurance* and even more complex compounds like *top-rack dishwasher safe*.

There are a number of subtypes of compounds that do not have to do with part of speech, but rather the sound characteristics of the words. These subtypes are not mutually exclusive.

#### **Rhyming compounds** (subtype of compounds)

These words are compounded from two rhyming words. Examples: *love-dovey*, *chiller-killer*

There are words that are formally very similar to rhyming compounds, but are not quite compounds in English because the second element is not really a word--it is just a nonsense item added to a root word to form a rhyme. Examples:

*higgledy-piggledy*, *tootsie-wootsie*

This formation process is associated in English with child talk (and talk addressed to children), technically called hypocoristic language.

Examples: *bunnie-wunnie*, *Henny Penny*, *snuggly-wuggly*, *Georgie Porgie*, *Piggie-Wiggie*

Another word type that looks a bit like rhyming compounds comprises words that are formed of two elements that almost match, but differ in their vowels. Again, the second element is typically a nonsense form:

*pitter-patter*, *zigzag*, *tick-tock*, *riffraff*, *flipflop*

**Derivation** Derivation is the creation of words by modification of a root without the addition of other roots. Often the effect is a change in part of speech.

#### **Affixation** (Subtype

of

Derivation)

The most common type of derivation is the addition of one or more affixes to a root, as in the word *derivation* itself. This process is called affixation, a term which covers both prefixation and suffixation.

#### **Blending**

Blending is one of the most beloved of word formation processes in English. It is especially creative in that speakers take two words and merge them based not on morpheme structure but on sound structure. The resulting words are called blends.

Usually in word formation we combine roots or affixes along their edges: one morpheme comes to an end before the next one starts. For example, we form *derivation* out of the sequence of morphemes *de+riv+at(e)+ion*. One morpheme follows the next and each one has identifiable boundaries. The morphemes do not overlap.



But in blending, part of one word is stitched onto another word, without any regard for where one morpheme ends and another begins. For example, the word *swooshlika* 'Nike swoosh as a logo symbolizing corporate power and hegemony' was formed from *swoosh* and *swastika*. The *swoosh* part remains whole and recognizable in the blend, but the *tika* part is not a morpheme, either in the word *swastika* or in the blend. The blend is a perfect merger of form, and also of content. The meaning contains an implicit analogy between the *swastika* and the *swoosh*, and thus conceptually blends them into one new kind of thing having properties of both, but also combined properties of neither source. Other examples include *glitterati* (blending *glitter* and *literati*) 'Hollywood social set', *mockumentary* (*mock* and *documentary*) 'spoof documentary'.

The earliest blends in English only go back to the 19th century, with wordplay coinages by Lewis Carroll in *Jabberwocky*. For example, he introduced to the language *slithy*, formed from *lithe* and *slimy*, and *galumph*, (from *gallop* and *triumph*. Interestingly *galumph* has survived as a word in English, but it now seems to mean 'walk in a stomping, ungainly way'.

Some blends that have been around for quite a while include *brunch* (breakfast and lunch), *motel* (motor hotel), *electrocute* (electric and execute), *smog* (smoke and fog) and cheeseburger (cheese and hamburger). These go back to the first half of the twentieth century. Others, such as *stagflation* (stagnation and inflation), *spork* (spoon and fork), and *carjacking* (car and hijacking) arose since the 1970s.

Here are some more recent blends I have run across:

*mocktail* (mock and cocktail) 'cocktail with no alcohol'  
*splog* (spam and blog) 'fake blog designed to attract hits and raise Google-ranking'  
*Britpopperati* (Britpop and literati) 'those knowledgeable about current British pop music'

### Clipping

Clipping is a type of abbreviation of a word in which one part is 'clipped' off the rest, and the remaining word now means essentially the same thing as what the whole word means or meant. For example, the word *rifle* is a fairly modern clipping of an earlier compound *rifle gun*, meaning a gun with a rifled barrel. (*Rifled* means having a spiral groove causing the bullet to spin, and thus making it more accurate.) Another clipping is *burger*, formed by clipping off the beginning of the word *hamburger*. (This clipping could only come about once *hamburg+er* was reanalyzed as *ham+burger*.)

### Acronyms

Acronyms are formed by taking the initial letters of a phrase and making a word out of it. Acronyms provide a way of turning a phrase into a word. The classical acronym is also pronounced as a word. *Scuba* was formed from *self-contained underwater breathing apparatus*. The word *snafu* was originally WW2 army slang for Situation Normal All Fucked Up. Acronyms were being used more and more by military bureaucrats, and soldiers coined *snafu* in an apparent parody of this overused device. Sometimes an acronym uses not just the first letter, but the first syllable of a component word, for example *radar*, RAdio Detection And Ranging and *sonar*, SOund Navigation and Ranging. Radar forms an analogical model for both *sonar* and *lidar*, a technology that measures distance to a target and maps its surface by bouncing a laser off it. There is some evidence that *lidar* was not coined as an acronym, but instead as a blend of *light* and *radar*. Based on the word itself, either etymology appears to work, so many speakers assume that *lidar* is an acronym rather than a blend.

A German example that strings together the initial syllables of the words in the phrase, is *Gestapo*, from GEheime STAats POLizei 'Secret State Police'. Another is *Stasi*, from STAats SIcherheit 'State Security'. Acronyms are a subtype of initialism. Initialisms also include words made from the initial letters of a phrase but NOT pronounced as a normal word - it is instead pronounced as a string of letters. Organization names are often initialisms of this type.

Examples: NOW (National Organization of Women), US or U.S., USA or U.S.A. (United States), UN or U.N. (United Nations), IMF (International Monetary Fund), Some organizations ARE pronounced as a word: UNICEF, MADD (Mothers Against Drunk Driving)



The last example incorporates a meaning into the word that fits the nature of the organization. Sometimes this type is called a Reverse Acronym or a Backronym.

These can be thought of as a special case of acronyms.

Memos, email, and text messaging (text-speak) are modes of communication that give rise to both clippings and acronyms, since these word formation methods are designed to abbreviate. Some acronyms:

NB - Nota bene, literally 'note well'. Used by scholars making notes on texts. (A large number of other scholarly acronyms from Latin are used, probably most invented in the medieval period or Renaissance, not originally in Latin)

BRB - be right back (from 1980s, 90s)

FYI - for your information (from mid 20th century)

LOL - laughing out loud (early 21st century) - now pronounced either /lol/ or /el o el/; has spawned compounds like *Lolcats*.

ROFL - rolling on the floor laughing

ROFLMAO - rolling on the floor laughing my ass off

### Reanalysis

Sometimes speakers unconsciously change the morphological boundaries of a word, creating a new morph or making an old one unrecognizable. This happened in *hamburger*, which was originally *Hamburger steak* 'chopped and formed steak in the Hamburg style, then *hamburger* (*hamburg* + *er*), then *ham* + *burger*

### Folk etymology

A popular idea of a word's origin that is not in accordance with its real origin.

Many folk etymologies are cases of reanalysis in which the word is not only reanalysis but it changes under the influence of the new understanding of its morphemes. The result is that speakers think it has a different origin than it does.

### Analogy

Sometimes speakers take an existing word as a model and form other words using some of its morphemes as a fixed part, and changing one of them to something new, with an analogically similar meaning. *Cheeseburger* was formed on the analogy of *hamburger*, replacing a perceived morpheme *ham* with *cheese*. *carjack* and *skyjack* were also formed by analogy.

### Novel creation

In novel creation, a speaker or writer forms a word without starting from other morphemes. It is as if the word is formed out of 'whole cloth', without reusing any parts.

Some examples of now-conventionalized words that were novel creations include *blimp*, *googol* (the mathematical term), *bling*, and possibly *slang*, which emerged in the last 200 years with no obvious etymology. Some novel creations seem to display 'sound symbolism', in which a word's phonological form suggests its meaning in some way. For example, the sound of the word *bling* seems to evoke heavy jewelry making noise. Another novel creation whose sound seems to relate to its meaning is *badonkadonk*, 'female rear end', a reduplicated word which can remind English speakers of the repetitive movement of the rear end while walking.

### Creative respelling

Sometimes words are formed by simply changing the spelling of a word that the speaker wants to relate to the new word. Product names often involve creative respelling, such as *Mr. Kleen*.



### 13-MA'RUZA. AFFIXATION AND ITS SUBDIVISIONS. CONVERSION

#### 1. Affixation and its subdivisions

- prefixation
- suffixation
- other

#### 2. Conversion

##### 1. Affixation and its subdivisions

Affixation is the general process of attaching bound – rather than free – morphemes to a base. We can sub-divide the morphemes occurring in affixation processes further into the following types, based on their positions of attachment:

- prefixes attach at the beginning: {im}+{poss}{ible}, {un}+{able}
- suffixes attach at the end: {act}+{ress}, {baron}+{ess}
- circumfixes consist of two parts, a prefix and a suffix: Germ. {ge}+{geb}+{en}; both need to attach to create the final form
- infixes 'attach' (i.e. get inserted) in the middle: {ab}{so}{blood}{y}+lute}{ly}

To fully understand the word formation options affixation covers, we need to distinguish between its two major functions, the inflectional and the derivational one. While inflection, as we have seen, allow us to relate words to one another on the syntagmatic level, i.e. indicating what kinds of roles they perform on the clause level, how they combine with other words, or what kind of tense/aspect they may express, derivation makes it possible to create new words from old ones, either by changing their word class or modifying 'specifying' their meanings. In terms of their productivity, inflection has clearly diminished over time, whereas derivation still remains productive.

Although many affixes appear to have a relatively clearly defined function, recognising affix functionality is not always straightforward. Often what may superficially look like a specific affix (or a root) with a certain meaning may either be part of a longer unit, or not constitute an affix at all. Furthermore, we also encounter the same problem we saw earlier on (for instance with the {s} morpheme), i.e. that one and the same form may actually be multi-functional in representing a number of different meanings. In order to be able to understand this problem better, as well as to explore the potential functions of pre- and suffixes, let's investigate some presumed pre- or suffixes by removing them and observing whether this whether may lead to potential misinterpretations.

##### A) Suffixation

- is characteristic of noun and adjective formation

- a suffix usually changes not only the lexical meaning of a word but also its grammatical meaning or its word class, e.g. to *bake* – *baker*, *beauty* – *beautiful*

##### Noun-forming suffixes:

- or: actor, visitor, director
- er/er: speaker, engineer, opener
- ist: scientist, satirist, journalist
- ess: hostess, stewardess, actress
- ty/ity: cruelty, purity, stupidity
- ure/ture: failure, exposure, mixture
- dom: freedom, kingdom,
- age: passage, marriage, postage
- ance/ence: appearance, preference
- hood: likelihood, brotherhood, neighbourhood
- ing: reading, opening, beginning
- ion/sion/tion/ition/ation: operation, permission, description
- ness: kindness, goodness, willingness
- y/ery: difficulty, enquiry, robbery, slavery
- ship: partnership, membership, kinship
- ment: government, development, movement
- t: complaint, restraint

##### Adjective-forming suffixes:

- able/ible: comfortable, fashionable, sensible
- ic/atic: atomic, heroic, systematic



- ful: beautiful, helpful, careful
- y: bloody, dirty, sunny
- less: useless, homeless, careless
- al/ial/tial: personal, influential, preferential
- ive/ative/itive: active, creative, sensitive
- ant/ent: pleasant, different, excellent
- en: wooden, golden, woollen
- like: childlike, ladylike
- ing: amusing, interesting, charming
- ous: dangerous, famous, mysterious
- ish: bookish, childish, foolish
- ly: friendly, lovely, manly

► **Verb-forming suffixes:**

- ize/ise: civilize, modernize
- ify/fy/efy: simplify, glorify
- en, deepen, sharpen, lengthen

► **Adverb-forming suffixes:**

- ly: formally, calmly, easily
- ward/wards: homeward, afterwards, backwards
- wise/ways: clockwise, otherwise, sideways
- fold: twofold, threefold

**B) Prefixation**

- a prefix usually changes or concretizes the lexical meaning of a word and only rarely parts of speech, e. g. *write* – *rewrite*, *smoker* – *non-smoker*

- Prefixes are sometimes used to form new verb: *circle* – *encircle*, *large* – *enlarge* etc.

► **Negation or opposition:**

- un-: unable, unfair, unpack, unzip
- dis-: disagreeable, dislike
- a-: amoral, atypical
- in-: informal, inexperience
- im-: (before b, m, p) impossible, immoral
- il-: (before l) illegal, illogical
- ir-: (before r) irregular, irrational
- non-: nonsmoker, non-scientific
- de-: decode, defrost, devalue

► **Repetition, making it possible:**

- re-: reread, rebuild, reunited
- en-/em-: enrich, enlarge, embitter

► **Degree, measure or size:**

- super-: supersonic, superhuman
- semi-: semi-final, semidetached
- hyper-: hyperactive, hypersensitive
- ultra-: ultrahigh, ultraviolet
- over-: overtime, overpopulated

► **Time and place, order, relation:**

- post-: post-war, postpone, postgraduate
- inter-: international, intercontinental
- pre-: pre-war, prehistoric, prearrange
- ex-: ex-president, ex-husband, ex-film-star

► **Number and numeral relation:**

- bi-: bilateral, bilabial
- uni-: unisex, unicycle, unilateral
- auto-: autobiography, autopump, auto-suggestion
- multi-: multinational, multi-storey, multilingual

► **Attitude, collaboration, membership:**

- anti-: antisocial, antiwar, antifreeze



counter-: counter-offensive, counter-revolution  
pro-: pro-English, pro-vice-chancellor

### Pejoration:

mis-: misinform, mislead, misuse  
pseudo-: pseudo-scientific, pseudo-intellectual

## 2. Conversion

The process of coining a new word in a different part of speech and with a different distribution characteristic but without adding any derivative element, so that the basic form of the original and the basic form of the derived words are homonymous, is variously called **conversion**, zero derivation, root formation, transposition or functional change.

The essence of the phenomenon may be illustrated by the following example: *His voice silenced everyone else* (Snow). The word *silence* exists in the English language as a noun, and a verb may be formed from the same stem without adding any affix or without changing the stem in any other way, so that both basic forms are homonymous. Their distribution on the other hand is quite different. In our example *silence* not only takes the functional verbal suffix *-ed* but occupies the position of a verbal predicate having *voice* as a subject and *everyone else* as its object. Its lexico-grammatical meaning is also that of a verb. The difference between *silence* n and *silence* v is morphological, syntactic and semantic: the original and the resulting word are grammatically different; a new paradigm is acquired and the syntactic functions and ties are those of a verb. Compare also: *silence one's critics*; *silence enemy guns*.

The term basic forms used in the above definition means the word form in which the notion denoted is expressed in the most abstract way. For nouns it is the Common case singular, for verbs, the Infinitive.

Each of the five terms given above for the type of the word-formation process itself, i.e. conversion, zero derivation, root formation, transposition or functional change, has its drawbacks.

The term conversion is in a way misleading as actually nothing is converted: the original word continues its existence alongside the new one. As to zero derivation, it does not permit us to distinguish this type from sound interchange (*food* n — *feed* v) where no derivative morpheme is added either. The term root formation is not always suitable as the process can involve not only root words, but also words containing affixes and compounds (as was the case with the word *silence* above; compare also *audition* v, *featherbed* v). The terms functional change or transposition imply that the process in question concerns usage, not word-formation. This immediately brings us into an extremely controversial field.

Accepting the term functional change one must admit that one and the same word can belong to several parts of speech simultaneously. The majority of the Soviet linguists are convinced of the impossibility of a word belonging at the same time to several parts of speech, because this contradicts the basic definition of a word as a system of forms.<sup>1</sup> In what follows the term conversion will be used in preference to the other four, because in spite of its deficiencies it is more widely accepted to denote this word-forming process.

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

The study of conversion in present-day English is of great theoretical interest, as nowhere, perhaps, are the interdependence of vocabulary and grammar and the systematic character of language so obviously displayed. Studying it, one sees the dependence of word-building types on the character of word structure already frequent in the language.

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

Words	Parts of speech in which they occur
-------	-------------------------------------



	Noun	Verb	Adjective	Adverb	Other parts of speech
back home	+	+	+	+	+
silence	+	+	+	+	+
round	+	+	+	+	+

## 14 - MA'RUZA. WORD COMPOSITION. COMPOUNDING

1. Compounding – definition.
2. Types of compounds
3. Distinguishing Features of Compounds

Compound words are words consisting of at least two stems which occur in the language as free forms.

Most compounds have the primary stress on the first syllable, e.g., *blackboard*.

Compound adjectives and numerals have two primary stresses, e.g. *hot-tempered*, *new-born*, *seventy four*, *ninety one*.

1. Compounds are binary in structure (consist of two or more constituent lexemes), e.g., *vacuum-cleaner manufacturer* → *vacuum-cleaner* and *manufacturer*, while *vacuum-cleaner* → *vacuum* and *cleaner*.
2. Compounds usually have a head constituent. It is a part of the word which determines the syntactic properties of the whole lexeme, e.g. *snow-white* → the noun *snow* and the adjective *white*. *White* is the head constituent of *snow-white*.

Compound words can be found in all major syntactic categories:

- ☐ · nouns: *sunlight*, *longboat*;
- ☐ · verbs: *window shop*; *safeguard*;
- ☐ · adjectives: *duty-bound*, *ice-cold*;
- ☐ · prepositions: *into*, *onto*, *upon*.
- ☐ Morphologically compounds are classified according to the structure of immediate constituents:
  - ☐ · consisting of simple stems: *strawberry*, *blackbird*;
  - ☐ · where at least one of the constituents is a derived stem: *gascooker*, *mill-owner*;
  - ☐ · where one of the constituents is a clipped stem: *V-day*, *Xmas*;
  - where one of the constituents is a compound stem: *football player*, *wastepaper basket*.

Structurally compounds can be:

1. words which are formed by a mere juxtaposition, i.e. without any connecting elements: e.g. *saleboat*, *schoolboy*, *heartbreak*, *sunshine*;
2. stems which are connected with a vowel or a consonant placed between them: e.g. *salesman*, *handicraft*.
3. Semantically compounds may be non-idiomatic and idiomatic.
4. Compounds are non-idiomatic when they are motivated morphologically, e.g., *Suitcase* is a sum of meanings of the stems this compound word consists of (the meaning of each stem is retained).
5. When the compound is not motivated morphologically, it is idiomatic. The meaning of each component is either lost or weakened. It has a transferred meaning, e.g., *Butterball* – is not “a ball made of butter”, it is “someone who is fat, especially child”.



## Types of Compounds

Compounding exists in several different forms and parts of speech, including the following:

- Compound Adjective
- Compound Adverb
- Compound Noun
- Compound Tense
- Compound Verb
- Exocentric Compound
- Rhyming Compound
- Root Compound and Synthetic Compound
- Suspended Compound

## Examples and Observations

- "Compounds are not limited to two words, as shown by examples such as *bathroom towel-rack* and *community center finance committee*. Indeed, the process of compounding seems unlimited in English: starting with a word like *sailboat*, we can easily construct the compound *sailboat rigging*, from which we can, in turn, create *sailboat rigging design*, *sailboat rigging design training*, *sailboat rigging design training institute*, and so on." (Adrian Akmajian et al., "Linguistics: An Introduction to Language and Communication". MIT Press, 2001)
- "Trammell was, Hollenbeck said, 'just a *loud-mouthed backslapping small-town handshaker* who's got a job much too big for him.'" (Loren Ghiglione, "CBS's Don Hollenbeck". Columbia University Press, 2008)
- *Buffy*: No actual witches in your witch group?  
*Willow*: No. Bunch of *wannablessedbes*. You know, nowadays every girl with a henna tattoo and a spice rack thinks she's a sister to the dark ones." (Sarah Michelle Gellar and Alyson Hannigan in "Hush." "Buffy the Vampire Slayer", 1999)

## Stress Test

"Typically a compound begins as a kind of cliché, two words that are frequently found together, as are *air cargo* or *light colored*. If the association persists, the two words often turn into a compound, sometimes with a meaning that is simply the sum of the parts (*light switch*), sometimes with some sort of figurative new sense (*moonshine*). The semantic relationships of the parts can be of all kinds: a *window cleaner* cleans windows, but a *vacuum cleaner* does not clean vacuums. We can be sure we have a compound when the primary stress moves forward; normally a modifier will be less heavily stressed than the word it modifies, but in compounds, the first element is always more heavily stressed." (Kenneth G. Wilson, "The Columbia Guide to Standard American English". Columbia University Press, 1993)

## Distinguishing Features of Compounds

"[In most compounds] the rightmost morpheme determines the category of the entire word. Thus, *greenhouse* is a noun because its rightmost component is a noun, *spoonfeed* is a verb because *feed* also belongs to this category, and *nationwide* is an adjective just as *wide* is...  
"English orthography is not consistent in representing **compounds**, which are sometimes written as single words, sometimes with an intervening hyphen, and sometimes as separate words. In terms of pronunciation, however, there is an important generalization to be made. In particular, adjective-noun compounds are characterized by a more prominent stress on their first component..."

"A second distinguishing feature of compounds in English is that tense and plural markers cannot typically be attached to the first element, although they can be added to the compound as a whole. (There are some exceptions, however, such as *passers-by* and *parks supervisor*.)" (William O'Grady, J. Archibald, M. Aronoff, and J. Rees-Miller, "Contemporary Linguistics: An Introduction". Bedford/St. Martin's, 2001)

## Plurals of Compounds

"Compounds generally follow the regular rule by adding the regular -s inflection to their last element. . . .



The following two compounds are exceptional in taking the inflection on the first element:

*passer-by/passers-by*

*listener-in/listeners-in*

"A few compounds ending in *-ful* usually take the plural inflection on the last element, but have a less common plural with the inflection on the first element:

*mouthful/mouthfuls or mouthsful*

*spoonful/spoonfuls or spoonsful*

"Compounds ending in *-in-law* allow the plural either on the first element or (informally) on the last element:

*sister-in-law/sisters-in-law or sister-in-laws*"

(Sidney Greenbaum, "Oxford English Grammar". Oxford University Press, 1996)

### Compounds in the Dictionary

"Evidently, the definition of what counts as a single dictionary entry is fluid and allows for very wide margins; any attempt at further precision is impossible because of the unlimited potential for compounding and derivation. The *OED* [*Oxford English Dictionary*] policy on compounds and derivatives is indicative of how blurred the line between a 'headword' and a compound or a derivative can be:

Compounds are frequently collected together in a section or group of sections at or near the end of an entry. They are followed by a quotation paragraph in which examples of each compound are presented in alphabetical order of the compound. *Some major compounds are entered as headwords in their own right. . . .*

Clearly, the size of the dictionary records exceeds by far the vocabulary of an individual speaker." (Donka Minkova and Robert Stockwell, "English Words." "The Handbook of English Linguistics", ed. by Bas Aarts and April McMahon. Blackwell, 2006)

## 15 - MA'RUZA. THE ETYMOLOGY OF MODERN ENGLISH VOCABULARY

1. Words of native origin and their characteristics
2. Ways of borrowing into English
3. Criteria and assimilation of borrowings
4. Special type of borrowings

**Etymology is a branch of lexicology studying the origin of the words.**

**Etymologically the English vocabulary is divided into native and loan (borrowed) words.**

**A native word is a word which belongs to the original English word stock and is known from the earliest available manuscripts of the Old English period.**

### 1. Words of native origin and their characteristics

The native element of the English Vocabulary is composed of words of Anglo-Saxon origin brought to the British Isles from the continent in the fifth century by the Germanic tribes (племена): the Angles, the Saxons, the Jutes, and some words coined (образован) in English later.

They are subdivided into:

1. Words of the Indo-European stock;
2. Words of the common Germanic stock;
3. English words proper



The words having parallels in the vocabularies of different Indo-European languages form the oldest layer. Ex. English – star, German – Stern, Latin – Stella, Greek – Aster.

The words of Indo-European stock (IES) fall into definite semantic group:

1. Terms of kingship (родства): father, mother, daughter.
2. Natural phenomena (Sun, Moon, star, wind, storm)
3. Names of animals and birds (horse, goose)
4. Parts of human body (heart, eye)
5. Qualities and properties (old, young, cold)
6. Common actions (come, sit, stand)

By the **Indo-European element** are meant words of roots common to all or most languages of the Indo-European group. The words having **cognates** (words of the same etymological root, of common origin) in the vocabularies of different **Indo-European languages** form the oldest layer and denote elementary concepts without which no human communication would be possible. The following groups can be identified. a) family relations / kinship terms: *father, mother, brother, son, daughter, widow*; b) parts of the human body: *foot, nose, heart, knee, breast, heel, elbow*; c) animals, birds, fish, insects: *cow, swine, donkey, goose, bat, bee, calf, bull, raven, sheep, wolf*; d) plants: *tree, birch, corn, barley, wheat, willow, walnut, garlic, oak, lime, grass*; e) time of day: *day, night*; f) heavenly bodies and names of natural phenomena: *sun, moon, star, snow, rain, wind*; g) numerous adjectives denoting common qualities and properties: *red, new, glad, sad, cool, dark, sweet, young, light, long, broad*; h) The numerals from one to a hundred; i). pronouns – personal (except *they* which is a Scandinavian borrowing); demonstrative; j) numerous verbs: *be, stand, sit, eat, know*; k) some place names: *marsh, meadow, hill, land, acre, cliff*; l) names of things of everyday life, instruments, clothes, buildings (*nail, needle, rake roof, hammer, yard, box, boat, hat, jar, knife, spoon, shed, shelter etc.*)

A much bigger part of the native vocabulary is formed by words of the common Germanic stock, that is words having parallels in German, Norwegian, Dutch, and Icelandic. Ex. En: Summer and winter – Germ: Sommer/Winter)

**The Germanic element** represents words of roots common to all or most Germanic languages. Some of the main groups of Germanic words are the same as in the Indo-European element (cf.: *Star*: Germ. *Stern*, Lat. *Stella*, Gr. *aster*; *Sad*: Germ, *satt*, Lat. *satis*, Snsr. *sa-*; *Stand*: Germ, *stehen*, Lat. *stare*, R. *cmosimb*, Snsr. *st ha-*.

Here are some examples of English proper words. These words stand quite alone in the vocabulary system of Indo-European languages: *bird, boy, girl, lord, lady, woman, daisy, always*.

The English elements proper is specifically English having no cognates in other languages. Ex. Lady, always, girl, lord, daisy, boy.

**The foreign component in the English vocabulary.** No language is so composite and varied in vocabulary terms as English. In its 15 century history recorded in its manuscripts English happened to come in long and close contact with a number of foreign languages. As a result, many foreign words were borrowed by English.

The term **source of borrowing** should be distinguished from the term **origin of borrowing**. The former should be applied to the language from which the loan word was taken into English. The latter, on the other hand, refers to the language to which the word may be traced (e.g. *paper* < Fr *papier* < Lat *papyrus* < Gr *papyrus* has French as its source of borrowing and Greek as its origin).

Sometimes the word **borrowing** is used in a wider sense, being extended onto the so-called **translation-loans** (or **calques**) and **semantic borrowings**.

**Translation-loans** are words and expressions made from the material available in the language after the patterns characteristic of the given language, but under the influence of some



foreign words and expressions (e.g. *mother tongue* < *lingua maternal* (Latin); *wall newspaper* < *cmehazema* (Russian); *the fair sex* < *la beau sexe* (French), etc.)

Semantic borrowing is the appearance of a new meaning due to the influence of a related word in another language (e.g. the word *bureau* entered the political vocabulary, as in *Political bureau*, under the influence of Russian)

A special distinction should be made between true borrowings and words formed from Latin and Greek (e.g. *telephone*, *phonogram*, which were never part of Latin or Greek and they do not reflect any contacts with speakers of those languages).

## 2. Ways of borrowing into English.

A loan word or a borrowing is a words taken over from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language..

Borrowings can enter the languages in 2 ways:

1. Through oral speech (by immediate contact between peoples)
2. Through written speech (by indirect contact through books)

Oral borrowings took place mainly in the early periods of history (old borrowings from Latin: *inch*, *mill*, *street*). They are usually short and undergo more changes in the act of adoption.

Written speech (French *belles-lettres*) – preserve their spelling, They are often rather long and their assimilation is a laborious process.

## 3. Criteria and assimilation of borrowings

The criteria of borrowings are:

1. Certain pronunciation and spelling (*psychology* – Greek, *machine* – French)
2. Unusual morphological structure and grammatical forms (ex. Pl. *bacteria* Sg. *Bacterium* – Latin)
3. Specific lexical meaning (ex., *Pagoda*, *rickshaw* – Chinese)

The criteria of borrowings can be divided into **phonetical, grammatical and lexical**.

**The phonetical criteria** are strange sounds (sound combination, position of stress), its spelling and the correlation between sounds and letters (e.g. *waltz* (G.), *psychology* (GR), *communiqué* (Fr)), the initial position of sounds [v], [z] or the letters **x**, **j**, **z** is a valid sign that the word is borrowed (e.g. *volcano* (It.), *vaccine* (L.), *Jungle* (Hindi), *zinc* (G.), etc.)

**The morphological** structure of the word and its grammatical forms also indicate that the word is adopted from another language (e.g. the suffixes in the words *neurosis* (Gr.), *violoncello* (It.); the irregular plural forms *bacteria* (*bacterium*, L.), *papyra* (*papyrus*, Gr.), etc.

There are certain structural features which enable us to identify some words as borrowings and even to determine the source language. You can recognize such words by certain suffixes, prefixes or endings. The two tables below will help you.

Nouns	The suffix <i>-ion</i>	<i>communion</i> , <i>legion</i> , <i>opinion</i> , <i>union</i>
The suffix <i>-tion</i>	<i>relation</i> , <i>revolution</i> , <i>starvation</i> , <i>temptation</i>	
Verbs	The suffix <i>-ate</i> [eit]	<i>appreciate</i> , <i>create</i> , <i>congratulate</i>
The suffix <i>-ute</i> [ju:t]	<i>attribute</i> , <i>contribute</i> , <i>constitute</i> , <i>distribute</i> etc.	
The remnant suffix <i>-ct</i>	<i>act</i> , <i>conduct</i> , <i>collect</i> , <i>connect</i>	
The remnant suffix <i>-d(e)</i>	<i>applaud</i> , <i>divide</i> , <i>exclude</i> , <i>include</i>	



The prefix <i>dis-</i>	<i>disable, distract, disown, disagree</i>	
Adjectives	The suffix <i>-able</i>	<i>detestable, curable</i>
The suffix <i>-ate</i> [it]	<i>accurate, graduate</i>	
The suffix <i>-ant</i>	<i>arrogant, constant important, etc.</i>	
The suffix <i>-ent</i>	<i>absent, decent, evident</i>	
The suffix <i>-or</i>	<i>major, minor, junior, senior</i>	
The suffix <i>-al</i>	<i>cordial, final, fraternal, maternal etc.</i>	
The suffix <i>-ar</i>	<i>lunar, solar, familiar</i>	
Nouns	<i>-ance</i>	arrogance, hindrance
<i>-ence</i>	<i>consequence, patience</i>	
<i>-ment</i>	<i>appointment, experiment</i>	
<i>-age</i>	<i>courage, marriage</i>	
<i>-ess</i>	<i>tigress, lioness, adventuress</i>	
Adjectives	<i>-ous</i>	curious, dangerous, joyous, serious
Verbs	prefix <i>en-</i>	enable, endear, enslave

The lexical meaning of the word is also crucial (e.g. the concept denoted by the word *ricksha(w)*, *pagoda* (*Chin.*) make us sure that we deal with borrowings). Sometimes the form of the word together with its meaning in Modern English enables us to tell the source of borrowing (e.g. the diagraph **ch** as [ʃ] – a late French borrowing (in *machine*, *echelon*); as [k] – through Greek (*archaic*, *architect*); as [tʃ] – either an early borrowing (*chase*, *OFr.*, *cherry*, *L.*) or a word of Anglo-Saxon origin (*child*, *choose*))

All the above can be summarized in the format of the following table.

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

Let us turn to the first column of the table representing the native element, the original stock of the English vocabulary. The column consists of three groups, only the third being dated: the words of this group appeared in the English vocabulary in the 5th c. or later, that is, after the



Germanic tribes migrated to the British Isles. As to the Indo-European and Germanic groups, they are so old that they cannot be dated. It was mentioned in the historical survey opening this chapter that the tribal languages of the Angles, the Saxons, the Jutes, by the time of their migration, contained only words of Indo-European and Germanic roots plus a certain number of the earliest Latin borrowings.

Borrowed words are assimilated in 3 main ways:

1. Phonetic assimilation comprising changes in the sound, form and stress (ударение). Ex. Germ. Spitz / English Spitz.

2. Grammatical assimilation causing the loss of former grammatical categories and affixes and the acquirement (приобретение) of new paradigms (ex. Latin – Botanicus was turned into English Botanical)

3. Semantic assimilation comprising adjustment (приспособление) to the system of meaning of the vocabulary (ex. Gay was borrowed from French with several meaning noble of birth, bright shining, multicolored. Now it means joyful or high-spirited).

According to the degree of assimilation loan words fall into 3 groups:

1. Completely assimilated words that follow all morphological, phonological and orthographical standards of the receiving language (French 'pain' is readily combined with native affixes 'pained, painful, painless')

2. Partially assimilated words:

- Not assimilated semantically, because they denote objects and notions peculiar to a certain country (ex. Sombrero)

- Not assimilated grammatically (ex. Borrowings from Latin/Greek: formula/ae)

- Not assimilated phonetically (prestige, memoir – French)

- Not assimilated graphically (ex. The final silent 't' in ballet – French)

3. Barbarisms – words from other languages used by English people in conversation or in writing but not assimilated in any way for which there are corresponding English equivalents (ex. Chaos, adios).

#### **4. Special types of borrowings.**

The changes which a loan word had to undergo depending on the date of its penetration are the main cause for the existence of the so-called etymological doublets.

Etymological doublets are pairs of words, which have one and the same original form, but which have acquired different forms and even different meaning during the course of linguistic development. (ex. The words shirt and skirt etymologically descend from the same root. Shirt is a native word, skirt is a Scandinavian borrowing. Their phonetic shape is different, and yet there is a certain resemblance (сходство), which reflects their common origin. Their meanings are also different but easily associated: they both denote articles of clothing.

Words of identical origin can accrue in several languages as the result of simultaneous or successive (последовательный) borrowings from one ultimate source, these words are called international words (ex., gene, antibiotic).

Alongside (наряду) loan words proper we distinguish translation loans and semantic loans.

Translation loans are words borrowed not in the same phonemic shape they have been functioned in their own language, but after undergoing the process of translation (ex., wall newspaper from Russian стенная газета)

The semantic loan denotes the development of a new meaning in an English word due to the influence of a related word in another language.