МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
ЗАПОРІЗЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ

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ЛЕКСИКОЛОГІЯ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ

Навчальний посібник
для здобувачів ступеня вищої освіти бакалавра спеціальності «Філологія»
освітньо-професійної програми «Мова і література (англійська)»

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Навчальний посібник призначений забезпечити фундаментальні знання про словниковий склад сучасної англійської мови, закономірності його розвитку, функціонування та шляхи збагачення. До кожної теми подано план. Стисло розкрито зміст лекцій та практичних занять, обґрунтовано важливі теоретичні положення, які підкріплюються прикладами. Кожна тема містить перелік термінів, список рекомендованої літератури, контрольні питання. Видання сприятиме систематизації теоретичного матеріалу та його ефективному засвоєнню, а також належній організації самостійної роботи студентів при підготовці до лекційних і практичних занять.

Для здобувачів ступеня вищої освіти бакалавра спеціальності «Філологія» освітньо-професійної програми «Мова і література (англійська)». Посібник може також бути використано студентами факультету іноземної філології, які вивчають англійську мову як другу іноземну..

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ПЕРЕДМОВА

«Лексикологія англійської мови» належить до циклу фундаментальних, професійно-орієнтованих дисциплін. Метою вивчення цього курсу є вдосконалення професійної компетенції студентів і формування фундаментальних знань про словниковий склад сучасної англійської мови, закономірності її еволюції в поліетнічну систему, яка досягла статусу мови глобального спілкування. Дисципліна інтегрує 2 аспекти: виклад теорії слова та її демонстрацію в дії. Досягнення поставленої мети реалізується у взаємозв'язку з такими цілями навчання, як комунікативна, когнітивна, освітня, професійна, емоційно-розвиваюча та виховна.

Основними ***завданнями*** вивчення дисципліни *«Лексикологія англійської мови)»* є:

− формування у студентів уявлення про системність лексичного складу англійської мови;

− вивчення основних джерел та шляхів збагачення лексики;

− ознайомлення студентів з особливостями англійської фразеології;

− поглиблення у студентів знань про функційне розшарування лексичних одиниць сучасної англійської мови;

− вивчення основних типів морфологічної будови слів;

− формування у студентів знань про способи та засоби словотворення, їх продуктивність;

− вивчення особливостей розвитку лексики, спричинених процесом трансформації англійської мови у національно негомогенну систему;

− ознайомлення студентів з основними проблемами сучасної англомовної лексикографії, типами словників та історією їх укладання.

У результаті вивчення навчальної дисципліни студент повинен ***знати****:*

– термінологічний апарат лексикології та визначення основних понять (лексика, лексичне значення, семантична структура, морфологічна будова, засоби словотворення, лексикографія, тощо);

– особливості походження слів;

– головні історичні етапи формування англійського лексикону;

– типи парадигматичних зв'язків в лексиці;

– види фразеологізмів;

– своєрідність стилістичного розшарування лексичних одиниць сучасної англійської мови;

– особливості морфологічної будови слів;

– продуктивні та непродуктивні способи і засоби словотворення;

– історію та основні проблеми укладання англомовних словників, особливості їх структури;

Студент повинен ***уміти:***

– користуватися довідковою літературою, конспектувати, систематизувати теоретичний матеріал;

– коректно вживати терміни лексикології;

– визначати етимологію лексичних одиниць та ступінь асиміляції запозичень;

– характеризувати семантичну структуру слів;

– аналізувати семантичні зв'язки та види семантичних угруповань в лексиці;

– розрізняти джерела, шляхи, механізми, а також результати семантичної деривації;

– визначати та характеризувати морфологічну будову слів;

– розрізняти шляхи, способи та засоби словотворення;

– користуватися лексикографічними довідниками, визначати їх тип;

– характеризувати лексичний склад основних (первинних) варіантів сучасної англійської мови.

Посібник складається з передмови, списку умовних скорочень та символів, 2 розділів, контрольних питань, тестових завдань, а також списків рекомендованої літератури й використаних джерел.

Перший розділ містить конспект лекційних занять і знайомить студентів із загальнотеоретичними питаннями лексикології. У цій частині посібника схарактеризовано об'єкт, предмет, завдання та методи лексикології; подано відомості про етимологію та особливості історичних змін у складі англійського лексикону; розглянуто структуру лексичного значення, чинники її формування, а також із семантичні угруповання слів, особливості фразеологічної системи й стилістичного розшарування лексичних одиниць сучасної англійської мови.

У другому розділі подано матеріали для організації самостійної роботи студентів при підготовці до практичних занять. Завдання спрямовані на ефективне засвоєння студентами таких питань: класифікація морфем за різними критеріями; основні типи морфологічної будови слів; продуктивні й непродуктивні способи словотворення в сучасній англійській мові.

Для кожної теми окреслено мету і завдання (OBJECTIVES), подано план (OUTLINE) та стислий зміст лекції (SYNOPSYS), запропоновано список рекомендованої літератури, який складається з обов'язкових (RECOMMENDED READING) і додаткових (FURTHER READING) для опрацювання джерел, а також інтернет-ресурсів (INTERNET RESOURCES). З метою полегшення опрацювання змісту заняття й забезпечення якісного засвоєння інформації

студентам подається список основних термінів (IMPORTANT CONCEPTS AND TERMS). Закріпленню теоретичного матеріалу сприятимуть питання наприкінці кожної теми (REVIEW QUESTIONS). Окремі з цих питань є дискусійними й стимулюють формування самостійності суджень, уміння аналізувати дані та аргументувати висновки, розуміти основні тенденції та рушійні сили формування словникового складу сучасної англійської мови.

Посібник може бути використаний як під час аудиторних занять, так і для самостійної роботи.

LIST OF TECHNICAL ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

abbrev.	-	abbreviation
A.D.	-	L. Anno Domini (in the year of the Christ")
ADJ., adj.	-	adjective
adv.	-	adverb
AFr.	-	Anglo-French
Alb.	-	Albanian
AmE	-	American English
Arm.	-	Armenian
AusE	-	Australian English
Av.	-	Avestan
B.C.	-	Before Christ
BE	-	British English
Br.dial.	-	British dialect
Bulg.	-	Bulgarian
c (as in *c* 1200)	-	L. circa ("approximately")
c. (as in mid-13th c.)	-	century
cf.	-	confer ("compare")
conj.	-	conjunction
Dan.	-	Danish
Du.	-	Dutch
E.	-	English; Modern English
e.g.	-	L. exempli gratia ("for example")
esp.	-	especially
fig.	-	figurative
Ger.	-	German
Goth.	-	Gothic
Gr.	-	Greek
Heb.	-	Hebrew
Hin.	-	Hindi
i.e.	-	L. id est ("that is")
ibid.	-	L. ibidem (used to refer to a book or article that has already been mentioned)
inf.	-	infinitive
interj.	-	interjection
Ir.	-	Irish
L.	-	Latin
lit.	-	literally

Lith.	-	Lithuanian
MDu.	-	Middle Dutch
ME.	-	Middle English
N., n.	-	noun
NGmc.	-	North Germanic
NP	-	noun phrase
OChS.	-	Old Church Slavic
OE.	-	Old English (=Anglo-Saxon)
OFr.	-	Old French
OFris.	-	Old Frisian
OHG.	-	Old High German
OIcl.	-	Old Icelandic
OInd.	-	Old Indic
OIr.	-	Old Irish
ON.	-	Old Norse
OPers.	-	Old Persian
OS.	-	Old Saxon
PGmc.	-	Proto-Germanic
PIE	-	Proto-Indo-European
pl.	-	plural
Pol.	-	Polish
Port.	-	Portuguese
prep.	-	preposition
sg.	-	singular
Skt.	-	Sanskrit
smb.	-	somebody
smth.	-	something
Swed.	-	Swedish
Toch. A	-	Tocharian A
Toch. B	-	Tocharian B
Turk.	-	Turkish
Ukr.	-	Ukrainian
V., v.	-	verb
Viet.	-	Vietnamese
<	-	developed from
>	-	developed into
*	-	hypothetical form or / and meaning

PART 1
THE ENGLISH WORD: THEORETICAL ISSUES

1 THE EVOLUTION OF ENGLISH WORDS

LEXICOLOGY AS A BRANCH OF LINGUISTICS

OBJECTIVES

This theme introduces the discipline of lexicology. The issues discussed here embrace lexicology branches, its subject matter, methods, and the systemic character of vocabulary.

YOU WILL STUDY

– types and branches of lexicology;
– basic concepts of lexicology;
– the subject matter of lexicology; the difference between a word and word equivalent;
– the relations of lexicology to other levels of linguistic structure such as phonetical, morphological, grammatical, and syntactical levels;
– lexicon as a system; approaches to classification of words and criteria of their grouping;
– the concept of basic vocabulary;
– the difference between content and functional words;
– various methods of lexicological research.

OUTLINE

1. Lexicology as a branch of linguistics. Object, main concepts, theoretical and practical value of lexicology.
2. Lexicology in its relations to other levels of linguistic structure and other branches of linguistics.
3. Vocabulary as a system.
4. Methods of lexicological research.

RECOMMENDED READING

Ilienko O. L., Kamienieva I. A., Moshtagh Ye. S. English Lexicology : tutorial. Kharkiv : Publishing House I. Ivanchenka, 2020. P. 5-10.

FURTHER READING

Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2017. С. 10-13.

INTERNET RESOURCES

Konopka K. Lexicology. Introduction. URL: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LppcFSF3Iq0 (accessed 01. 06. 2024).

KEY TERMS

applied lexicology, descriptive / synchronic lexicology, etymology, general lexicology, historical / diachronic lexicology, IC's analysis, lexeme, lexical system, lexicography, lexicology, lexicon, onomasiology, onomastics, paradigmatic relations, phraseology, semasiology, set expression, special lexicology, syntagmatic relations, terminology, vocabulary, word equivalent, word, word stock / stock of words

Lexicology is a branch of linguistics that inquires into a language's lexicon. The term '**lexicon**' is used in several meanings. It is employed to refer to the **vocabulary** of a language, technically, its **lexical items** or **lexemes**, especially when these are listed in a dictionary. The second meaning of the term 'lexicon' is widely used in generative grammar to denote the component containing all the information about the structural properties of lexical items.

The term 'lexical item' is synonymous with the term 'lexeme' which stands for the smallest distinctive unit in the lexicon of a language. A lexeme is different than a word as it may consist of only one or more than one words, for instance, verbs, such as *go* or phrasal verbs, such as *go down*. It is important to note that a lexeme is an abstract concept and subsumes several variant forms (*go – goes, going, gone, went*, each of which is a word).

There are many possible definitions of 'word'. A word is a unit of spoken and written speech. It can stand alone as a complete utterance and consists of morphemes, the smallest meaningful units of language. In other perspective, a **word** is a minimal free form of a language that has a given sound, meaning, and syntactic function.

To sum up, there are four important attributes of a word including that it is a minimal free form of a language; a unity of sound; a unity of meaning; and a form that can function alone in a sentence.

A word is a symbol that stands for something else in the world outside the language system, such as people, things, places, properties, processes, actions and activities. etc. In spite of the fact that the connection between the word's form and meaning is almost always symbolic (i.e. arbitrary), and there is no logical relationship between the sound which stands for a thing or an idea and the actual thing and idea itself, the form-meaning correspondence is often motivated.

As to vocabulary (or lexicon), it is understood as a set of lexical items (i.e. words) in a particular language or of an individual. Vocabulary size estimation is a daunting task. According to D. Crystal (Crystal 1999: 359), an individual's active vocabulary

estimates from 20,000 to 50,000 words, whereas passive vocabulary tends to count twice or thrice more. As to the scope of words in a particular language, for example in English, its largest dictionaries register over half a million items. However, they do not consider all archaic words, nor they register items found in various regional and social dialects. Neither do the dictionaries include all the scientific nomenclature, such as names of plants and animals. Thus the vocabulary of a particular language is made up by the total number of words used in a particular historical period of a language development.

Lexicology is a theoretically oriented study into the morphological structures of words and word equivalents, their semantic structures, relations, historical development, formation and usages. **General lexicology** deals with words without considering the particular features of a language. **Special lexicology** looks into typical characteristics of the vocabulary in a given language.

There are several branches of lexicology. They are onomasiology, semasiology, onomastics, etymology, phraseology, terminology, lexicography.

Onomasiology deals with naming processes and focuses on the sets of associated concepts in relation to the linguistic forms which designate them. Onomasiological study is directed from concepts to items they are related to. That is contrasted to **semasiological** direction from items to related concepts. Thus semantics is the study of meanings.

Onomastics can be described as a branch of semantics dealing with the history and origin of proper names. It is subdivided into **anthroponymy** (or onomatology), the study of personal names, such as given names (*George* 'earth-worker; farmer'), surnames (*Chandler*, *Webster*, *Butcher*), nicknames (*Blue, Bluey* "a man with red hair"), clan names (*the Maxwells, Johnstones* "Scottish Lowland clans"), etc., and **toponymy** (or toponomastics) which is interested in the names of places (*Penzance* in Cornwall (lit.) 'holy headland').

Terminology studies sets of words used in a particular subject, theory, profession, or technical application, such as medicine, golf, insurance, etc. (a legal term *without let or hindrance* "freely").

Etymology looks into the source of vocabulary and word origin (*glass* n. < OE *glæs* "glass; a glass" < PGmc * *glasam* "glass" < PIE **ghel-* "to shine").

Phraseology is the theory of set expressions (to catch someone's eye "to cause someone to notice something or someone").

Lexicography is the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries.

Lexicology deals with other academic disciplines, such as phonetics, grammar and stylistics. Ties between lexicology and phonetics can be exemplified by word-formation processes, for example, the shift of accent off the initial syllable of the base to the terminal syllable as in *project* n. /ˈprɒdʒ.ekt/ (*c* 1400) "a plan, draft, scheme" >

project v. /prəˈdʒekt/ (late 15c.) “to plan”). Interdependence of lexical and grammatical phenomena is found in various types of transpositions, such as denominative verbs and lexicalization of plural: e.g. *look* v. “use eyes for seeing” > *look* n. sg. “act of looking” > n. sg. “a particular case of looking” > n. pl. *looks* “a person’s appearance; visual or facial expression”. The relationship between of lexicology and stylistics can be exemplified by the stylistic differentiation of the vocabulary and sets of stylistic synonyms: *father – dad* (informal) – *progenitor* (formal) “a father”.

The vocabulary of a language is not a chaotic mass but a set of interrelated units organized in to a **system**. There are two main types of relations in lexicon: **paradigmatic** and **syntagmatic**. Paradigms are formed by substitutional relations that a lexical item establishes with other units in a particular context. A good example of a paradigm is a set of words derived from the same root: e.g. *hand* n. > *handy* adj., *handful* adj., *hand-crafted* adj., etc. Syntagmas are produced by linear order strings of related constituents as in collocations, e.g. *bosom friend* “a friend that you like a lot and have a very close relationship”.

Words that constitute the vocabulary can be classified according to different criteria, and grouped for different purposes. There is no optimum for all kinds of grouping that is why various approaches are to be applied to the systematization of the vocabulary, not the system itself. The most important classifications are approached from the point of frequency, notion, and origin.

The first approach distinguishes between **basic** and **non-basic** words. In English, **basic word stock** is the foundation of the lexical system. Having been accumulated over centuries, it forms the common core and constitutes a small percentage of the English words. Being the most important part of English, basic word stock is characterized by (1) all national character; (2) historical stability; (3) productivity; (4) polysemy; and (5) collocability. For instance, the word *hand* is used in all varieties of the English language; has been functioning since the early history of English (OE *hond, hand* n. “the human hand; side, part, direction”); was used as a stem for a number of derivatives (see examples above); has developed various meanings (“a part of the body; a long thin piece that points to the numbers on a clock; a set of cards that a player has in a game”) and a wide range of collocations (e. g. with verbs and prepositions – *to **hold** hands*, *to **shake** hands **with**, to **give / lend** smb. a hand **with**, to **keep** hands **off***, etc.). **Non-basic word stock** includes words whose functioning is less frequent and more restricted. That includes terms, jargonisms, slang or argot items, regionalisms, archaic words and neologisms.

By notion, there are content and functional words. **Content** (or notional, lexical) **words** denote clear notions, such as objects, phenomena, action, quality, state, degree, quantity. Content words are nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverb and numerals as they all contain at least one content morpheme. They overcome functional words in number.

Functional words (or grammatical, form words) are empty and do not have notions of their own but express the relation between notions, between words and between sentences. They are a small number including prepositions (*on, at*, etc.), conjunctions (*and, or*), auxiliaries (*will*) and determiners (*a, an, the*). According to COCA (COCA 1990-2017), the first fifteen most frequent words in English are functional words with the exception of the verbs *be* and *have*.

From the point of view of their origin, there are **native** words and **borrowings** (see Lecture 2).

There are other semantic and non-semantic groupings that can be distinguished according to the synchronic, diachronic, structural, etc. principles (Table 1).

Table 1. Lexical groupings

Aspect	Grouping	Subgrouping	Example
Structural dimension			
phonetic structure	alphabetical	A B C D E, etc.	*A, ab, aba, abac, abaca, aback, abactinal* etc.;
	rhyming		*ness, de**aness**, librar**ianess**, ti**taness**, sultaness, gl**ibness**, d**ubnes**s*, etc.;
word length	number of letters or syllables	monosyllables; polysyllables	*man, nice; in•ter•est•ing; Ren•ais•sance;*
morpho-logical structure	number and type of morphemes	root words (one free morpheme only)	*hand;*
		derivatives (min two morphemes, at least one is bound)	*hand**ed**, hand**edness**, hand**ful***
		compounds (min two free morphemes, bound morphemes are possible)	*hand-made, handclasp, hand-up, hand-to-scale;*
		compound derivatives (min 2 free morphemes, and 1 bound morpheme referring to the whole)	*hander-up; hand-tooled, hand-to-mouth;*

	common morpheme	root (word-family)	***hand**, **hand**clasp, **hand**ed, **hand**edness, **hand**-up, **hand**er-up, **hand**ful, **hand**-made, **hand**-pick, **hand**-picked, **hand**-to-mouth;*
		affix (word-family)	*hand**ful**, hope**ful**, fruit**ful**, beauti**ful**; **over**do, **over**eat, **over**sleep, **over**estimate;*
origin	source	native	*father, nose, cow, tree, red, be, to stand, to sit;* *to see, to hear, fox, grass, fur, head, old, good;* *bird, boy, lady, girl, lord, woman, daisy, always;*
		borrowing / loan-word	*face, husband, table;* *rajah, restaurant, cliché, datum; avocado, chao, lambada, pipe of peace, by heart, fair sex, superman*
Semantic dimension			
semantic and functional aspects	notion	content words (denoting clear notions)	nouns, verbs, adjectives, numerals, adverbs;
		functional words	conjunctions, auxiliaries, articles, prepositions;
lexico-grammatical aspect (several groupings constitute a part of speech)	common lexico-grammatical meaning, paradigm, substituting elements and possibly a characteristic set of affixes	nouns, etc.	personal names, animal names, collective names, abstract nouns, material nouns, object nouns, place names, etc.

linguistic and extra-linguistic aspects	the things which the words refer to are closely connected and occur together in reality; common part of speech and lexico-gram-matical group	thematic groups	terms of kinship (*father, mother, sister, son* etc); colours (*white, black, green, grey* etc);
	the things which the words refer to are closely connected and occur together in reality; the system of lo-gical notions; grammatical meaning is not consider-ed	ideographic groups	verbs, nouns, adjectives together in one group (*light* n., *shine* v, *bright* adj.)

lexical meaning	similarity of meaning	synonyms (identity in meaning, not distribution); euphemisms; lexical variants (similarity of form, meaning, and distribution) variation of graphical feature (spelling);	*nice – fine - beautiful, motherland - fatherland;* *to die - to pass away – to buy the farm*; *whisk**y** / whisk**ey*** (Irish English) “a strong, pale brown alcoholic drink, originally from Scotland and Ireland”;
		variation of morphological feature; variation of phonological feature	*whisk**y** / whisk**ey*** (Irish English) “a strong, pale brown alcoholic drink, originally from Scotland and Ireland”; *who**ever** / who**soever*** (old use for whoever) pron. “a person who; any person who”, *weazen / weazn**ed*** adj. “shriveled or dried up; withered”; *direct* /d**aɪ**ˈrekt/ and /d**ɪ**ˈrekt/ adj. “going in a straight line towards somewhere”;
	difference in meaning	antonyms	*up* vs *down, hopeful* vs *hopeless;*
		paronyms	*to **a**ffect* “to influence” vs *to **e**ffect* “to produce;
		malapropisms	*to dance a flam**ing**o* (instead of *flam**enc**o), reprehend* (instead of *comprehend*);
	relations of inclusion	hyperonym vs hyponym	*animal (cat, dog, pig)*
	semantic structure	monosemic	*radar, biochemistry*
		polysemic	*face, hand, to go, heavy*

		everysemic (semantic diffusion / words with multiple definitions / words with the capacity to refer to an unlimited number of referents);	*thing, stuff; to get;*
	semantic unity, structural stability, figurativeness	phraseological units	*to show the white feather, to buy smth. for a song, a snake in the grass, to bear a grudge*;
		phraseological expressions	*The devil is not as black as it's painted*;
		free phrases	*to come home*
motivation		motivated - phonetically, morphologically, semantically;	***buzz**; **sl**ing, **sl**y, **sl**oppy; **ex-**president*; ***mouth** of the river;*
		non-motivated	*to earn, table*;
Functional dimension			
sociolin-guistic aspect	neutral		*to speak, man, often*;
	register (differences in communi-cative situations and levels of formality)	formal and informative (literary / bookish / learned words); technical vocabulary;	*cordial* "friendly, but formal and polite", *to commence* "to begin"; *without let or hindrance* (legal term) "freely";
		informal and casual (common / colloquial);	*granny, let-down, baby-sit, touchy;* *bro* (< *brother*) "a familiar from of address";
			whatchamacallit, whodunit, absobludylutely;
	function and region	unrestricted (standard variety);	British English, American English, Canadian English, etc.;
		restricted (dialect, pidgin);	Aboriginal English; Chinook jargon, etc.;

stylistic aspect	style (differences in linguistic expression) emotionality (attitude)	popular	*vast* "very great in size, amount, degree, or especially in extent or range";
		poetic	*vasty* adj. "vast" (*call spirits from* ***the vasty deep*** (i.e. the ocean) - William Shakespeare);
		neutral	*wind; breast*;
pragmatic aspect	emotionality (attitude) currency (period)	pragmatically marked - appreciative derogatory and expletive;	*zephyr* "a light wind" (literary, high-elevated / poetic word); profanity (*tit* (offensive) "a woman's breasts"), blasphemy ***(Yeezus*** vs *Jesus)*; obscenity, oath or swear words;
		emotive, emotional, intensifying;	*darling; drunkard*; *Alas! Nonsense*! *awfully, marvelously, tremendously*;
		neologisms (recent coinage);	*Nick* ("newly-industrializing company), *teledish* ("aerial")
quantita-tive change; time axis	currency (period)	archaic (now rare, but having character-istics of a much earlier time);	*ere* prep., conj. (literary or old use) "before", *quoth* v. (old use or humorous) "said";
		obsolete (in existence, but regarded useless or no longer applicable); historical (in existence, but used only or mainly in a historical context);	*twattle*, *twaddle* v. (Dialectal, England) "to talk idly"; (AusE) *blackbird* n. (obsolete) "an Aboriginal, esp. in the phr. *blackbird shooting*"; (historical) "a Pacific islander brought to Australia as a labourer, a kanaka";
		basic (frequent)	*be, have, a, the, of, hand*

frequency	occurrence, function and region	non-basic / periph-ery (slang, argot, terminology, dialectal words, neologisms, nonce-words)	*He **ha-ha'd*** (i.e. "laughed").

As is clear from the above-mentioned examples, lexicon is a polydimensional and a highly organized system. It is apparent that the members of lexical groupings are members of the whole. They are linguistic realities existing between single words and within the total vocabulary of a language. Members of such lexical groupings as semantic fields are characterized by:

- sharing a common concept, for instance, *sadness, sorrow, grieving, depression, ruthlessness, loneliness*, etc. are in the group of NEGATIVE EMOTIONS;

- being not synonymous but having some common denominator of meaning (shared semantic component), such as *SADNESS* (*depression, despair, hopelessness*, etc.), *ANXIETY* (*fear, worry, concern, nervousness, panic*, etc.), *ANGER* (*irritation, frustration, annoyance, rage,* etc.);

- semantic interdependence and delimitation;

- combining into a higher unit (e.g. *POWER*) and resolution into different parts (*revolution, revolt, coup, uprising, riot*) (Dobrovol'skij 2013).

There are two main approaches to the study of words: **synchronic** (or **structural**, **descriptive**) and **diachronic (historical)**. Descriptive lexicology deals with the vocabulary of a particular period of language development, its regular features found in distribution and occurrences of the units. In contrast, historical, lexicology deals with the vocabulary development and comparison of the words and morphemes with those from which they were derived.

Methods employed in lexicological research include distributional analysis, method of oppositions, IC's analysis, transformational analysis, componential analysis, comparative and contrastive methods, contextual method, statistical methods, etc.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

– What is the subject matter of lexicology?
– Prove that lexicology should be viewed in relation to other branches of linguistics.
– How are lexical units interrelated to language units of other levels? Give a few examples.
– Comment on a polydimensional nature of the vocabulary?
– What types of relations are found in the lexical system?
– Why is it difficult to define 'word'?

– Give comments on paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations in the lexical system of English. Illustrate the difference between them.

– Give comments on historical and descriptive approaches to the study of words.

– What is meant by ‘collocation’?

– According to what criteria can words be classified?

– How English words can be classified? What are the most important classifications of words? Why?

– What category of words constitutes the foundation of the lexical system? Are these words a majority? What are their characteristic features?

– What classes of words are distinguished by notion?

– Why functional words are referred to as ‘empty’?

– What criterion is applied to distinguish native words from borrowings?

ETYMOLOGY OF ENGLISH WORDS

OBJECTIVES

This topic introduces the origin and sources of Modern English vocabulary. The main focus here is on borrowings that attest to various types of contact between English and other languages.

YOU WILL STUDY

- native and borrowed words;
- the difference between the term ‘loan’ and ‘borrowing’;
- origin of native words;
- causes, ways and aspects of borrowings;
- how borrowings differ in terms of their assimilation degree;
- whether words can be borrowed into several languages simultaneously.

OUTLINE

1. The development and growth of the English vocabulary.
2. The origin of the English words.
    2.1. Native word-stock.
        2.1.1. Indo-European words.
        2.1.2. Common Germanic words.
        2.1.3. English words.
    2.2 Types of borrowings.
        2.2.1. Source and origin.
        2.2.2. Donor languages, etymological doublets and hybrids.
        2.2.3. Borrowed aspects.
        2.2.4. Assimilation.
3. Internationalisms.

RECOMMENDED READING

Ilienko O. L., Kamienieva I. A., Moshtagh Ye. S. English Lexicology : tutorial. Kharkiv : Publishing House I. Ivanchenka, 2020. P. 113-122.

FURTHER READING

Квеселевич Д. І., Сасіна В. П. Практикум з лексикології сучасної англійської мови: Навчальний посібник. Вінниця : Вид-во “Нова книга”, 2001. С. 6-15.

Ніколенко, А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. С. 13-26.

INTERNET RESOURCES

Word origins. *English Oxford living Dictionaries*. Oxford : Oxford University Press, 2018. URL: https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/explore/word-origins

KEY TERMS

alien, assimilation, barbarism, borrowing / loan word, cognate word, denizen, direct borrowing, English proper element, etymological doublets / triplets, etymological hybrids, etymon, folk / popular etymology, Germanic element, indirect borrowing, Indo-European element, internationalism, lexical / translation calque, morphemic borrowings, native word-stock, oral borrowing, origin, phonetic borrowing, semantic calque / borrowing, source, written borrowing

Ethnologue (2013) records about 136 language families (Langdon, Saenz 2016: 15) divided on the basis of similarities in their basic word stock and grammar. One of them is the Indo-European language family which is further subdivided into lower units called language groups with membership of related language clusters. Modern English belongs to the Germanic group embracing other West Germanic tongues (German, Dutch, Frisian, Afrikaans, Yiddish, etc.), the North / Scandinavian languages (Danish, Faroese, Norwegian, Swedish, Icelandic) and several extinct languages of the East Germanic group (Gothic, Burgundian, Vandalic).

The prehistoric Proto-Indo-European (PIE) **parent language**, which was highly inflecting, gave rise to the members of Indo-European family including languages of Europe, the Near East, and India.

Although the history of English in the mainland (i.e. the British Isles) starts in the 5th century A.D. with the arrival of the Germanic tribes from the continent, the first inhabitants of the area who left some linguistic traces were the speakers of Celtic dialects (800 B.C.) and the Roman Legions which brought Latin (55-54 B.C., 45 A.D.).

Three important periods can be distinguished in the history of the English vocabulary. They coincide with the traditional periodization of English and include Old, Middle and Modern English. The lexicon of **Old English**, or **Anglo-Saxon,** (450-1150) consisted of 50,000 to 60,000 words mostly of native, Latin or Scandinavian (about 900 words) origin. During the **Middle English** period (1150-1500), the lexicon was enlarged by 9,000 words of French origin that poured into English (and 75% of them are still in use today) due to the 300-year Norman rule and by 2,500 words of Dutch origin that found their way into English owing to the trade relations between England and Holland. In **Modern English** (1500 – up to present), both borrowing and word-formation are productive in vocabulary expansion and new words are multiplied in all spheres of life. What follows is a brief historical survey of events that influenced the English vocabulary development (Table 2).

Table 2. Etymology and history of the English vocabulary

period	events	words and their origins
1st c. B.C.	Roman-Germanic contacts on the continent	**Germanic tribal dialects**: cattle-breeding vocabulary of Indo-European and Germanic origin – OE. *meoluc* (West Saxon), *milc* (Anglian) < PGmc. **meluks* "milk" < PIE. **melg-* "to wipe; to rub off; to stroke; to milk (in reference to the hand motion involved in milking an animal)"; OE. *mete* "food; item of food" < PGmc. **mati* < PIE **mad-* "moist, wet (also with reference to food qualities)"; **Latin, 1st group**: names of everyday objects (*cup* < L. *cuppa, kitchen* < L. *coquina, port* < L. *portus*), fruits (*pear* < L. *pirum, cherry* < L. *cerasum, plum* < L. *prunus)*, vegetables (*beet* < *L. bēta, pea* < *L. pisum),* various types of food and drink (*butter* < L. *būtyrum, cheese* < L. *caseus*, *pepper* < L. *piper, wine* < L. *vinum*), and some other words *(mill* < L. *molina, plant* < L. *planta)*;
5th c. – 6th c. A.D.	Celtic–Germanic contacts in the British Isles	**Celtic**: names for nature and culture objects (*bald, druid, glen, down, bard, cradle)*, proper names (*Avon, Dover, Devon, Dunwich, Duncombe, Holcombe, Kent, London* < Celtic *llyn-* "river" + *dun* "a fortified hill")*;* **Latin words through Celtic:** *street* < L. *strata via* "paved road"*, wall* < L. *vallum* "wall, rampart; a row of stakes");
7th c. A.D.	the adoption of Christianity	**Latin, 2nd group and Greek:** terms related to Christianization (*priest* < L. *presbyter*, *bishop* < L. *episcopus, monk* < L. *monachus*, *alter, apostle, candle, cross, mass, nun, pope*) and education (*school* < L. *schola* "intermission of work; leisure for learning; learned conversation; lecture; meeting place for teachers and students, place of instruction; disciples of a teacher, sect" < Gr. *skhole* "spare time, leisure, rest, ease; that in which leisure is employed; learned discussion", *dean*, *magister, verse*);

late 8th c. – mid-11th c.	the Viking Age	**Scandinavian:** names related to sea (*band, bank, fish*), law (*law*), everyday objects (*cake, egg, knife, window*), animals (*bull)*, kinship and relations (*husband, kid, sister; fellow*), activities, states, and desires (*to call, to die, to get, to give, to give in, to guess, to scream, to take, to take off, to want*), qualities (*happy, ill, low, odd, ugly, weak, window, wrong*), proper names (*Derby, Rugby, Whitby, Althorpe, Linthorpe, Braithwaite, Cowperthwaite, Brimtoft, Eastoft; Asa, Brunild, Eric, Goldcytel, Guthrun, Hacun, Harald, Ingede, Leofstegen, Rainald, Sigwar, Swartric*), pronominal forms with 'th' (*their, them, they*), semantic loans (*bread* < OE. *brēad* "a piece of food" ← ON., Cf. OE. *half* "bread"; *dream* < OE. *drēam* "joy, mirth, noisy merriment" ← ON. *draumr* "dream", Cf. OE. *swefn* "sleep"; *to dwell* < OE. *dwellan* "to mislead, deceive < to make a fool of, to lead astray" ← ON. *dvöl* "hinder, delay; linger"; *gift* < OE. *gift* "bride-price, marriage gift (by the groom), dowry" ← ON. *gift*, *gipt* "gift; good luck", Cf. OE. *giefu* "a giving, gift"), some other words of Scandinavian origin easily recognizable by their form (***sk**ill, **sk**in, **sk**irt, **sk**y)*;
1066 – 13th c.	the Norman invasion	**Norman dialect of French**: administrative (*administer, council, empire, government, parliament, state*), military (*army, battle, officer, power* "ability, vigor, esp. in battle", *soldier, war),* and legal terms (*advocate, barrister, court, crime, inquest, judge, justice, petition, prison, sentence),* names for fashion items (*coat, collar, embroidery, lace, pleat*) and precious ornaments (*topaz, emerald, pearl*), food and cooking terms (*appetite, to roast, to stew, dinner, lunch, supper*), educational terms (*pupil, lesson, library, science, pencil, pen*); names referring to everyday life (*autumn, uncle, river, plate, table, saucer*);

14th c. and later	the Renaissance cultural contacts between the European sates	**Parisian dialect of French:** through literature: *regime, routine, police, machine, ballet, matinee, scene, technique, bourgeoisie*); **Latin, 3rd group** through literature: terms of law, theology, medicine, literature, science (*allegory, history, script, solar, tract. ulcer, major, minor, music, datum, to elect, to create, method)*; **Greek**: scientific and artistic terms (*atom, cycle, ethics, esthete)*; **Low German, Dutch**: *skipper, dock, reef, deck, leak, nap, kit, mast*; **Italian**: *bank, bankrupt, volcano, manifesto, grotto, fresco, carnival, gondola, bandit, contraband, balcony, portico, violin, parapet*; **Spanish and Portuguese**: *alligator, apricot, armada, banana, bravado, cocoa, embargo, mosquito, negro*;
16th c. – 17th c.	the age of voyages and discoveries	**French:** *anatomy, bizarre, duel, genteel, judge, invoice, naturalize, progress*; **Low German and Dutch**: *yacht, smuggler, smack, brandy-wine, sketch, easel. Landscape;* **North and South America:** *potato, tobacco, hammock, hurricane, pineapple, chocolate, tomato, wigwam, squaw, tomahawk, squash, powwow*;
18th c.	the exploration of the New World	**Canadian Eskimo**: *amisk, atigi;* **Amerindian**: *Apache, Canada, canoe, moccasin, squaw, totem;* **India**: *polo, pajamas, veranda, toddy*;
late 18th c. – 20th c. **1941-1945** **1959-1975** **1985-1990**	the discovery of the Southern hemisphere and Asia the Pacific War the Vietnam War	**Australian Aboriginal**: *kangaroo, koala, dingo, tattoo, boomerang;* **Maori**: *kiwi, Maori, moa;* **South African Dutch, Afrikaans**: *dropper, pedicant;* **African languages**: *eat-up;* **Chinese**: *ketchup, mandarine, tea, chow-chow;* **Philippine**: *boondock;* **Japanese**: *banzai, tatami, kamikadze; papa-san, mama-san, baby-san;* **Vietnamese**: *ao dai*; also **English**: *body bag, body count;*

mid-21st c.	the establishment of the European Union	**English**: *Euro-, euro, euro-equity issue, Eurobond, Eurocheque, European Free Trade Association, Eurocurrency, euromarket / Euromarket, Euromoney.*

It should be pointed out that there are native words and borrowings. In fact, English vocabulary is truly heterogeneous from the point of view of its **immediate sources**, i.e. languages from which words were brought into English. In terms of the **origin** (or **ultimate source**), i.e. a language to which the word may be traced, the English word stock includes about 98% of Indo-European vocabulary (Stockwell 2001: 51). For example, the source of the word *window* was Scandinavian as it was borrowed from Old Norse in *c* 1200 (ON. *vindauga* "lit. wind eye" < *vindr* "wind" + *auga* "eye") to replace OE. *eagþyrl* "lit. eye-hole", *eagduru* "lit. eye door" (originally and unglazed hole in a roof). However, the ultimate source of the element ON. *auga* stems from the PIE root **okw*- "eye", and ON. *vindr* is a reflex of PIE. **we-nt-o*- "blowing", **we*- "to blow". Thus *window* is a Scandinavian borrowing whose origin is Proto-Indo-European.

Native (Anglo-Saxon) words, brought to Britain in the fifth century by the Germanic tribes, represent the original word stock. They constitute about 35 – 40 % and stand at the core of the language. Native words are characterized by the following features:

- they are neutral in function and possess high lexical and grammatical valency;
- they are highly frequent in occurrence (almost 80% of 500 most frequent words in English);
- from the semantic point of view, they are general (terms of kinship, names of important objects of nature, qualities, everyday activities and actions, etc.) and polysemantic (*hand* "body part; clock/watch; cards; person; help; involvement; clapping; writing; measurement);
- their morphological structure is simple and monosyllabic (see examples that follow);
- they possess a great word building capacity and become centers of word families (*hand > handy, handyman, handfast, handful, hand-basket, hand-cloth, handicraft, handiwork*), form a great deal of phraseological units (*at the hands of, have one's hands full, to keep a firm hand on*, etc.).

The native element is represented by words of Indo-European and common Germanic origin. They are linguistic forms historically derived from the same source, such as the various words for 'father' are said to be **cognates**: PIE **pətḗ(r)*- "father" > OInd. *pitár*-, Av. *pitar*-, Arm. *hair*, Gr. πατήρ, πατρός, L. *pater, -tris*, Goth. *fadar*, OIcl. *faðir*, OE. *fæder*, OHG. *fater*, Toch. A *pācar*, B *pacer*.

The **Indo-European** words have roots with cognates in all or almost all Indo-European languages. For example, PIE. **pēd-, pōd-* "foot; genitalia" is a hypothetical source for the reflexes in Indo-Iranian (OInd. *pad-* "foot", Skt. *padam* "foot", Av. *pad-* "foot", OPers. *pādaibiyā* "on foot"), Greek (Gr. *pos* "foot"), Italic (L. *pēs, pĕdis* "foot"), Baltic (Lith. *padas* "sole", *pėda* "footstep"), Celtic (OIr. *īs* "below"), Germanic (OIcl. *fōtr* "foot", OE. *fōt*, Goth. *fōtus* "foot", Ger. *Fuß* "foot"), Albanian (Alb. *posh* in *përposh* "under", *posh-të* "under, downwards"), and Slavic (OChS. **podъ* "bottom, underground", prep. *podъ* "below, under") [IEED] groups. The Indo-European words include terms of kinship (*father, mother, son, daughter*), parts of human body (*foot, nose, heart*), animals (*bear*, *cow, fox, swine*), time (*day, night*), heavenly bodies (*sun, moon, star*), states and actions (*be, stand, sit, eat*), qualities (*red, new, glad*), numerals from one to hundred; personal (except *they*) and demonstrative pronouns.

The **Germanic** words have cognates in all or almost all Germanic languages. For example, PGmc. **gaukaz* (imitative) "a cuckoo" is a hypothetical source for the reflexes in Ger. *Gauch*, OHG. *gouh*, OS. *gōk*, OE. *gēac*, OIcl. *gaukr*, Swed. *gök* [Левицкий 2009-1: 205-206]. The group of common Germanic words comprises names of body parts (*hand, finger, head*), landscape features (*sea*), natural phenomena (*storm*), plants (*grass, oak*), activities and perception (*see, give, speak*, etc.).

The etymological analysis of lexicon is complicated by a number of words of uncertain origins with no cognates in any other Germanic language. Highly likely, they evolved in English. The **English proper** items can be instanced by *daisy* < OE. *dægesege* < *dæges eage* "lit. day's eye" (HOED 2001-2018) and *bird* < OE. *bridd* "young bird, nestling". The word *lady* developed from (*c* 1200) *lafdi*, *lavede* (< OE. *hlæfdige* (Northumbrian *hlafdia*, Mercian *hlafdie* "mistress of a household, wife of a lord", apparently lit. "one who kneads bread" from < *half-* "bread" + *-dige* "maid", *dæge* "maker of dough"). This etymology is comparable to that of *lord* (mid-13th c., *laverd, loverd* < OE. *hlaford* "master of the household, ruler, feudal lord, superior; husband; God", which was a contraction of OE. *hlafweard* "lit. one who guards the loafs"). Although such origins are regarded as "not very plausible" [OED 2004], nobody seems to have other explanations. English proper words found as borrowings in other languages.

Every etymological dictionary contains numerous words of unknown origin. Thus *ship* and *shilling* have sets of cognates in all Germanic languages but the origins of OE. *scip* "ship, boat" and OE. *scilling* "a coin consisting of varying number of pence (on the continent, a common scale was 12 pennies to a shilling, 20 shillings to a pound)" are obscure: ON., OS., OFris., Goth. *skip*, Dan. *skib*, Swed. *skepp*, MDu. *scip*, Du. *schip*, OHG. *skif*, Ger. *Schiff* < PGmc. **skipam*, and OS., Dan., Swed., OFris., OHG. *skilling*, ON. *skillingr*, Du. *schelling*, Ger. *Schilling*, Goth. *skilliggs* < PGmc.

**skilliŋgoz-* (OED 2001 – 2018; OED 2004; AHID 1993: 1257-1258).

Another example of etymological mystery is *slum* (1825) "dirty back alley of a city, street of poor or low people", especially *back slum*, originally a slang or cant item meaning "room", as in *back room* whose origin is unknown (HOED 2001-2018; Sedgwick 2009: 167).

Word etymologies stimulate linguistic disputes and disagreements causing **etymological fallacy**, i.e. a view that it is the earlier (earliest) meaning of the word is correct. One may argue that the "true" meaning of *history* is not "a relation of incidents (true or false)" but "investigation; enquiry" as it appeared in Classical Greek (*historia* "a learning or knowing by inquiry; an account of one's inquiries, history, record, narrative") (OED 2001 – 2018). According to D. Crystal (CPDL 1999: 110-111), such version is fallacious because there is always an older meaning, or sense, that remains unknown as in case of *history*, Gr. *historien* "to inquire" < Gr. *histor* "a wise man, judge" < PIE **wid-tor-* "someone who sees" < PIE **weid-* "to see".

Native Indo-European and Germanic words are to be distinguished from the loans in English that derive ultimately from the same ancient root. For instance, from Proto-Indo-European via Italic languages (*glacial* (1650s) "cold, icy" < Fr. *glacial* < L. *glacialis* "icy, frozen, full of ice" < L. *glacies* "ice" < PIE. **gel-* "cold; to freeze" [OED 2001 – 2018; OED 2004]), Germanic tongues (*fjord* (1670s) < ON. *fjörðr* "an inlet, estuary" < NGmc. **ferthuz* "place for crossing over, ford" < PIE. **pertu-*, **per-* "to lead, pass over" [ibid.]), or Indic languages (*rajah, raja* (1550s) "king or prince of India" < Hindi < Skt. *rajan* "king", *rai* "kingdom, kingship', *rajati* "he rules" (cf. L. *rex*, OIr. *rig*) < PIE. **reg-* "move in a straight line; to direct in a straight line, hence to lead, rule" [ibid.]), etc.

Note that the term '**borrowing'** is applied to both "a process of borrowing" and "a word which was borrowed", whereas '**loan'** is only used in the latter meaning to denote "a borrowed item".

Borrowings differ from native words by their phonetic and morphological structures, and grammatical forms. A large number of loans are not motivated semantically. English is "a heavy borrower" ("a friendly to borrow language") where loans constitute approximately 60-70 percent of the Modern English vocabulary.

The most important factor leading to borrowing is language contact. Three types of impact are possible depending on the relationship between contacting languages: superstratum, substratum, adstratum. The situation of **superstratum** reflects the influence of politically and culturally dominant language in the area such as Norman French in England during the Norman conquest when borrowing was especially heavy in officialdom. **Substratum** effects are evident in the impact of a nondominant language on a dominant one, such as Amerindian borrowings in American and Canadian Englishes, Aboriginal loans in Australian English, and early Celtic elements

in English. Substratum borrowing is restricted to place names and other culture-specific names that fill in cultural and lexical gaps. **Adstratum** influence refers to the contact situation with no dominant language, as in the case of English and Scandinavian interaction. Adstratum borrowings usually include common, everyday words and for the speakers are often indistinguishable from the native elements of the lexicon.

Borrowings can be approached from several points of view (Table 3).

Table 3. Classification of borrowings in the English language

Point of view	**Type of borrowing**	**Example**
linguistic archeology	Latin basic / continental (before 5th c. A.D.);	*street, wine, butter*;
	Latin religious (6th c. -7th c. A.D.);	*mask, monk, nun*;
	Latin literary (Renaissance);	*democratic, juvenile, enthusiasm*;
	Latin scientific (17th c.-18th c.), etc.;	*nucleus, formula*;
source	External	
	Classical - Latin	*circus* (late 14th c.) "large, oblong unroofed enclosures used for races, etc., in ancient Rome" < **L.** *circus* "ring, circular line; circular arenas for performances and contests and oval courses for racing (*Circus Maximus*), **also Gr.** *kirkos* "a circle, a ring" < PIE. **kirko*-, reduplication < PIE. * *sker*- "to turn, bend";
	Romance – French	*mutton* (13th c.) "flesh of sheep used as food" < **OFr.** (the 12th century) *moton* "mutton; ram; wether, sheep";
	Italian	*bankrupt* adj. (1560s) "the state of one unable to pay just debts or meet obligations" < **It.** *banca rotta* "lit. a broken bench" < *banca*- "lit. moneylender's shop, bench" -*rotta* "broken, defeated, interrupted";

	Portuguese Spanish, etc.	*madeira* (1540s) "white wine" < "an island in the Atlantic ocean" < **Port**. *madeira* "wood, because the island formerly was thickly wooded"; *toreador* (1610s) "bullfighter on horseback (as opposed to *torero* who kills on foot)" < **Sp.** *toreador* < Sp. *torear* "to participate in bullfight" < Sp. *toro* "bull";
	Internal from specialized language to general one (determinologisation); from general language to specialist one (terminologisation); from one domain to another domain (nomadisation); from regional to general use;	*satellite* (1660s) SPACE "planet that revolves about a larger one" > GENERAL USE (1800) "the country that is dependent or subservient to another" (*satellite country / city*); *cat* OE (*c* 700) "a domestic cat" > NAUTICAL "a cathead; a device for raising an anchor to the cathead"; *satellite* (1660s) SPACE "planet that revolves about a larger one" > (mid-20th c.) PHYSICS "a natural object moving around a larger object in space, or an artificial object sent up into space to travel around the earth" (*weather satellite*); COMMUNICATIONS (*satellite television*); *collie* (1650s) "a breed of dog, a kind of sheep-dog much esteemed in Scotland" < possibly **dialectal** *coaly* "coal-black (the colour of some breeds)", Cf. *colley* (1793) "a sheep with black face and legs"; ME. *colfox* "a coal-fox, a variety of fox with tail and both ears tipped with black; *collet* (**Somerset dialect**) "a blackbird";
way	direct (when a word passes from one language to English);	*bait* (*c* 1300) "food on a hook or trap to attract prey" < **ON.** *beita*

	indirect (when a word passes from one language to another, and to English);	"food, bait, especially for fish" < ON. *beita* "to cause to bite"; *tomato* (1753) < *tomate* (*c* 1300) < **Sp**. *tomate* (mid-16th century) < **Nahuatle (Aztecan)** *tomatl* "a tomato, lit. swelling fruit" < Nahuatle *tomana* "lit. to swell";
	oral written	Aboriginal words in overseas Englishes (*boomerang* (1827) "a missile weapon used by Australian aborigines" < *wo-mur-rang* (1798) < an extinct Australian Aboriginal language of New South Wales); Parisian French words that passed through French literature
aspect	phonetic (loan word proper)	*chair, bank, apparatchik, soprano, duet, lobby, iceberg*;
	morphemic (often resulting in etymological hybrids whose structural elements are derived from different languages)	*unmistakeable* which is made up of the English prefixes *un-* + *-mis-*, the Scandinavian root *-take-,* and the Romance suffix *-able*;
	lexical / translation (calque)	*pipe of peace* "calumet, a highly ornamental ceremonial pipe of the American Indians", *fair sex (*< Fr. *par coeur)* "women in general";
	semantic (calque)	OE. *dwellan* "to lead astray" > "to dwell" (under the influence of ON. *dvelja* "abide");
assimilation	denizen (fully-assimilated);	*face, husband, table;*
	alien (partially-assimilated);	*rajah, restaurant, cliché, datum*
	barbarism / exotism (non-assimilated)	*avocado, chao, lambada*

In discussing borrowing, it is important to distinguish between its **source** and **origin**. A linguistic form in a foreign language that is the source of a particular loanword is called **etymon**. Loans with several etymons are found in **chain**

borrowings adopted in English indirectly, i.e. from one language via another one. For instance, the word *paper* entered English in the mid-14th century via Anglo-French *paper* (OFr. *papier* "paper, document") from Latin *papyrus* "paper made of papyrus stalks". The Latin word was undoubtedly formed from Greek *papyros* "any plant of the paper plant genus" of Egyptian origin. The linguistic forms found in French, Latin, and Greek are considered to be the etymons, whereas the etymological source of English *paper* is found in French and Egyptian is regarded as its origin.

There are various types of lexical material importation from **donor** (foreign) languages into the **recipient** (native) language. With influence on the structure and content of loans, such innovations occur as **loanwords** and **loan coinages**.

Loanwords comprise several types:

- **pure loanwords** whose shape and meaning are imported into the recipient language (*parole* n /pəˈroʊl/ (1610s) "word of honour; especially promise by a prisoner of war not to escape" < Fr. "word, speech" (in *parole d'honneur* "word of honour");
- **hybrid loans**, or **loanblends** found in analyzable derivatives and compounds with structures containing partly borrowed material and partly native elements as in the compound made by the combination of Hawaiian *poi-* and English *-dog* > *poi dog* "a small Polynesian dog which was brought to the islands by the early Hawaiian settlers and became famous for its skill in hunting wild pigs in the mountain undergrowth" (Carr 1972: 11).

In loan coinages, or loanshifts, the recipient language reproduces a foreign word by means of native elements. Loanshifts occur as **loan formations (creations)** and **semantic loans (extensions)** (Rash 2013: 18-21).

Loan formations include three subtypes: loan translations, loan renditions, and creations.

Loan translations are exact replicas of donor models and occur as importations of morphemic structures in compounds, derivatives or phrases where foreign elements are substituted by native morphemes; in other words, loan translations are word-to-word or morpheme-to-morpheme translations, such as *Sunday* < L. *solis dies*, *to seize the day* "1. To enjoy the present and not to worry about the future; to live for the moment; 2. To make the most of the day by achieving fulfillment in a philosophical or spiritual sense; 3. To attack the day's efforts with vigor and purpose" < L. *capre diem* "seize the day". In English, there are phraseological calques from French such as Fr. *marché aux puces* > *flea market* n. (1910) "a market, usually taking place outside, where old or used goods are sold cheaply". The popular explanation is that "there are so many second-hand articles sold of all kinds that they are believed to gather fleas" (HOED 2001-2018).

Loan renditions, found in compounds and derivatives, are partial replicas of donor models because the elements in the resulting unit do not exactly correspond to

the elements in original one. For example, L. *superbire* "be proud" was paralleled in Old English *oferhygdian*, which is made by the combination of OE. *ofer-* (the translation of L. *super-*) and OE. *-hygdian* (which does not correspond to L. *bire*). Another Latin word *domus* "race, family" was rendered in Old English as *gehusscipe* "lit. house-ship" but not with the help of OE. *hus* "house" (WBEASE 2013).

Loan creations are no replicas at all and occur in cases when neither loan translation nor loan rendition is possible for formal or semantic reasons. For instance, *comet* n. (*c* 1200) "a class of celestial bodies which move about the sun in great, elliptical orbits" was borrowed via OFr. *comete* from L. *cometa*. The earliest etymon of the word is found in Greek *(aster) kometes* "lit. long-haired (star)" < *kome* "hair of the head" (cf. *koman* "let the hair grow long"), which is of unknown origin motivated by the resemblance of a comet's tail to streaming hair, hence glossed as a loan creation *feaxede steorra* "lit. haired star" (A History… 2008: 222). Other examples of loan creations are relatively free renderings of Latin simplex terms by Old English complex terms (L. *Syllaba* > OE. *stæfgefeg* "lit. joining of letters, L. *sincopa* > OE. *wanung* "lit. disappearance"), or by means of periphrastic solutions in cases when the original terms were complex ones and could be rendered by syntactic paraphrases (L. *pronomen* > OE. *naman speliend* "lit. representative of the name", L. *dirivativa* > OE. *ða ðe cumað of oðrum namum* "lit. those which come from another noun") (Kastovsky 2010: 171).

It is noteworthy that calques, more productive at the earlier historical stages of English, were substituted with borrowings in the later periods. The word *unicorn* was borrowed in the early 13th century via Old French (*unicorne*) from Latin (*unicornis* "lit. having one horn") to substitute OE. *anhorn* as a loan translation of L. *unicornis*.

According to (Durkin 2014: 264), O.E.D. contains over 300 entries with headwords first dated between 1150 and 1500 that do not register direct Latin etymons but detect their possible semantic influences.

Semantic loans (extensions) are produced by the addition of some semantic value to the existing native words under the influence of a foreign word meaning. Such cases include **analogical** and **substitutive extensions**.

Analogical extensions are possible when a target and a source models share some meaning. That is why one of the source model's meanings is imposed on the replica's meaning. Analogical extensions vary as **semantic** and **phonetic analogies**.

Semantic analogies, including homologues and synonymous calques, are such analogical extensions where a target model semantically resembles the source model.

In **homologues calques**, the model and the copy are similar in form and semantic scope. For example, both *chattel* and *cattle* were borrowed into English from Anglo-French: AFr. *catel* "property, goods" < OFr. *chatel* "chattels, goods, wealth, possessions, property; profit; cattle". The earlier meaning of *cattle* (mid-13th c.)

"property of any kind, including money, land, income" shifted to "movable property, livestock" in later Middle English (early 14th c.) due to the semantic borrowing of AFr. *chatel* "cattle" (Durkin 2014: 271).

Homologues calques also occur through **back borrowing**, or **reborrowing** which is the result of more than one loan. In case of back borrowing, the recipient language coincides with the source. The word *list* "a narrow strip" is an element of Indo-European word stock: OE *līste* "border, hem, edge, strip" < PGmc. **liston* < PIE. **leizd-* "border, land". From Germanic sources (cf. OHG. *lista* "strip, border, list", ON. *lista* "border, selvage", OE. *līste*) it was transferred to Romance languages where it acquired the meaning of "enumeration" and later reborrowed into English (OFr. *liste* "border, band, row, group; strip of paper", OIt. *lista* "border, strip of paper, list" > *list* (c 1600) "catalogue consisting of names in a row or series" from strips of paper used as a sort of catalogue).

In **synonymous calques**, a model and a copy share a common semantic value. For example, the early and rare meaning of the word *knowingly* "recognisably" shows a loan translation of L. *cognoscibiliter* "recognizably; in an observable, perceivable manner". However, the later meaning of *knowingly* "consciously, intentionally" developed due to the loan translation of L. *scienter* (Durkin 2014: 264) "expertly, skillfully, wisely" (ДЛРС 2008: 690). As a result, it is the example of the semantic borrowing.

Phonetic analogy, or **contamination**, implies that the resemblance between the source and target models is purely phonetic. Such formal similarity can cause the analogical leveling (i.e. the spread of the pattern) and result in the semantic change under the influence of another form. This process is observable in the phonetic adaptions of semantically related words, such as *female* and *male*. At first, it may seem that *female* was derived from *male* by prefixation, but in fact it was historically unrelated to it. Why did it happen? In the 14th c., the word L. *fēmella* "a girl" (originally a diminutive form of L. *fēmina* "woman") was borrowed from Old French into Middle English and sounded differently than the word *male* as *femelle* rhymed with *querele* "quarrel". The word *male* derives from L. *masle* < L. *masculus*. The shared elements in the form (*-m-* and *-l-*) and relatedness to the same semantic sphere ('an adult human being') encouraged the change in the spelling of the word *femelle* into *female* under the influence of *male*.

From the evolutionary perspective, the instance of spelling change in *female* under the influence of male is to be discussed as a case of **analogical levelling**, or the **spread of a dominant pattern**, when a change in a language occurs due to the pressure of another form. *Female - male* is not a single case demonstrating the phonetic adaptation of borrowings on the basis of semantic similarity between lexical items. This kind of change was frequent in French loans entering Middle English.

It is necessary to point out that it is not only semantic similarity that causes formal modifications. The visa versa process may take place when formal similarity pushes the words towards semantic similarity. A convincing instance of semantic adaptation on the basis of formal likeness is provided by the changes in the semantic structure of the word *fruition* under the influence of *fruit*. *Fruition* entered English in the early 15th c. in the meaning of "act of enjoying" due to the borrowing of OFr. *fruition* < L. *fruitionem* "enjoyment" < L. *frui* "to use, to enjoy". In 1885 the word developed another meaning of "act or state of bearing fruit" from association with *fruit*, which was a much older word in English (*fruit* (late 12th c.) "any vegetable product useful to humans or animals" < OFr. *fruit* "fruit, fruit eaten as dessert" < L. *fructus* "enjoyment, delight, satisfaction; proceeds, produce, fruit, crops" < L. *frui* "to use, to enjoy"). It is clear that such contaminations occur in etymological doublets developing from the multiple borrowing of one and the same etymon, such as *fruit* and *fruition* from L. *frui.*

As follows from the above-discussed cases, the amount of form or meaning importation calls for discussion. Is the meaning or form in a target language half a form / meaning or a whole form / meaning imported? The answer to this question may be drawn from distinguishing **calques** (see above) and **partial calques**, also referred to as **loan blends**, **partial loan-translations, semi-calques.** Partial calques import some part(s) of the model unit, not others.

Instances of partial loan-translations include the word *iceberg* "a glacier humped like a hill; a detached piece of a glacier or ice pack at sea" borrowed from Du. *ijsberg*, lit. "ice-mountain" (*ijs*- "ice" + *-berg* "mountain"); *liverwurst* AmE "a type of cooked sausage that contains liver and is usually eaten cold on bread" (< Ger. *Leberwurst*), in contrast to calquing the whole structure in BE (*liver sausage*); *apple strudel* "a type of cake made from apple that is wrapped in a thin layer of pastry and then baked" (< Ger. *Apfelstrudel*). Other examples are borrowings from English into other languages: Ir. *Saorview* "the Irish digital television service" (< E. *Freeview*).

Partial transportation of meaning is found in **substitutive extensions** where there is no common meaning between the loan and the original. But there is some similarity in their basic meanings that stimulates some new meaning. This process can be illustrated by the evolution of the semantic structure of the word *cniht*. In Old English it was used as "boy; servant" (*tyn wintra cniht* "a boy of ten years", *He seðle gesette in ðære cneohtas and geonge menn lǽrde wǽron* "he set up a school in which boys and young men were taught" (BASD 2010, MV: 162); *Karl þæs cincges cniht* (BASD 2010, SV: 130). It is believed that the new meaning "a disciple, scholar" developed under the influence of L. *discipulus* "learner, pupil, student" (Haugen 1972: 328; Kastovsky 2010: 167): OE *leorning-cniht* as in *Se hǽþena scop and his cniht* "historicus ejusque breviator"; *Paulus manode his cneoht* (*discipulum*) (BASD 2010, SV: 130).

More complex cases of borrowing include loan phrases, false and multiple loans.

Loan phrases deal with imitations of whole phrases in a target language where there is no equivalent for the transported item. For instance, *c'est la vie* /ˌseɪ lə ˈviː/ means "that's life" in French. It is used as a standalone exclamation to make a minor disappointment seem less important, to say that that type of situation happen in life, and one is not able to do anything about it: *I can't go to the game on Saturday - I've got to work. Oh well, c'est la vie* (CD 2018). The phrase *c'est la vie* is similar in meaning to the English phrase *that's the way it goes*.

False borrowing, or **pseudo-borrowing**, is the process of new structure formation out of foreign morphemes yet without copying the model which does not necessarily exist in a source language. In other words, these are borrowed items which look like genuine ones and are readily recognized as such. In reality, they are used differently in a target language. False borrowings are often compounds. Good examples are found among the so-called pseudo-anglicisms (Holden 2018): Ukr. *фейсконтроль* (*feiskontrol)* "to check whether a person looks appropriate" based on the combination of the morphemes *face-* + *-control*); Pol. *dyskont* "a discount store" based on English *discount*, Du. *coffeeshop* "a cannabis shop" which is different from English *coffee shop* "a coffee bar, an informal restaurant where drinks and small meals are served, sometimes in a larger shop or building (e.g. *a hospital coffee shop*); a shop where different types of coffee are sold, either to drink or as beans or powder" ((CD 2018).

Multiple borrowings lead to alternative forms called **etymological doublets**. These are two or even more words of the same language that are derived from the same etymon and are currently used as having different meanings.

Etymological doublets enter English by different routes:

- they may be pairs of words comprising a native element and a borrowing (***shirt*** < **OE**. *scyrte* "skirt, tunic" < PGmc. **skurtjon* "a short garment" < PIE **sker-* "to cut" and ***skirt*** "a lower part of woman's dress" < **ON.** *skyrta* "a shirt, a kind of kirtle");

- they may be borrowings from different languages which are historically descended from the same language, like French and Latin (***base*** "bottom of anything considered as its support, foundation, pedestal", **early 14th c.** < **OFr.** ***bas*** "depth" < **L.** ***basis*** "foundation" < Gr. *basis* "a going, a step; a stand, base, that whereon one stands" < Gr. *bainein* "to go, walk, step" < PIE **gwa-* "to go, come" and ***basis*** "bottom or foundation", **1570s** < **L.** ***basis*** "foundation" < Gr. *basis* "a going, a step; a stand, base, that whereon one stands" < Gr. *bainein* "to go, walk, step" < PIE **gwa-* "to go, come");

- they may be borrowings from cognate languages which are genetically different from the ultimate source, like French and Latin borrowings from Hebrew (***balm*** "oily resinous aromatic substance naturally from shrubs of the genus *Commiphora*",

c 1200 < **OFr.** *basme, baume, balme* "balsam, balm" < **ultimately from Hebrew** (Semitic) *basam* "spice" and ***balsam*** "aromatic resin used for healing wounds and soothing pains", 1570s < **L.** *balsamum* "gum of the balsam tree" < **ultimately from Hebrew** (Semitic) *basam* "spice");

- they may be borrowed from the same language several times in different periods and occur as etymological doublets or triplets (***hostel*** "an inn, house of entertainment", **early 13th c. < OFr.** ***ostel, hostel*** "house, home, dwelling; inn, lodgings, shelter" < L. *hospitale* "inn; large house"; ***hospital*** "shelter for the needy", **mid-13th c**. < **OFr.** ***hospital, ospital*** "hostel, shelter, lodging" < L. *hospitale* "inn; large house"; ***hotel*** "public official residence; large private residence", **1640s** < ***Fr. hôtel*** "a mansion, palace, large house" < **OFr.** ***hospital, ospital*** "lodging");

- they may be pairs of words including a shortened word and a lexical unit from which a derivative was produced ***(fanatic*** "an insane person", 1520s < L. *fanaticus* "mad, enthusiastic, inspired by a god; furious, mad" and ***fan*** "a devotee", 1889 < **a shortening of** ***fanatic*** in American English, originally of baseball enthusiasts, probably influenced by the collective noun *the fancy* "followers of a certain hobby or sport (especially boxing)";

- they may be words that only differ in some unimportant suffix (***apprentice*** "one bound by legal agreement to an employer to learn a craft or trade", *c* 1300 < OFr. *aprentiz* "someone learning" < L. *apprehendere* "take hold of, grasp" and ***prentice***, ***prentis*** *c* 1300, a shortened form of *apprentice* which long was more usual in English).

Despite their apparent difference in form, etymological doublets are nevertheless, from an etymological point of view, one and the same.

Words of foreign origin are involved into the diachronic processes of adaptation in English. As the degree of **assimilation** varies, the classification of lexical material integration can be approached according to graphological, phonological, morphological, and semantic criteria.

The first type embraces completely naturalized words called **denizens**. Their foreign origin is unidentifiable for speakers and established by etymological analysis. The word *sky* (*c* 1200) "a cloud" was borrowed from ON *sky* "cloud" (PGmc **skeujam* "cloud, cloud cover" < PIE ***(s)keu-*** "to cover, conceal"), followed the rules of English pronunciation and grammar (Cf. *sky* /skaı/, *fly* /flaı/, *dry* /draı/; *sky* – pl. *sk**ies***, ***a*** *blue sky*, *in* ***the*** *sky*). It also became a productive base for word-formation (*sky-high*, *sky-dive*, *sky-writing*) and semantic derivation (*skies* "clouds" > "the upper regions of the air" > "the sky in a particular state or place" (*the sunny skies of Florida*), being idiomatically used (*the skies limit* "there is no limit").

The second type of borrowings consists of **aliens**. They are partially naturalized transfers retaining their original spelling (*café*, also *cafe* (1802) "coffee-house,

restaurant" < Fr. *café* "coffee, coffee-house") and pronunciation (*coup de théâtre* /ˌ**ku**: **də teɪˈɑː.trə**/, pl. *coups de théâtre* "a sudden and surprising event, especially in a play"). Aliens may remain resistant to grammar rules of the recipient language. For instance, in contrast to most English nouns that are made plural by simply adding *-s* to the root, *datum* "a single piece of information" follows Latin rules of pluralization: pl. *data*, classical plural of L. *datum* "(thing) given" neuter past participle of L. *dare* "to give". Some aliens do not confirm the semantic laws of the recipient language and appear to be monosyllable adoptions denoting notions of source cultures: *rajah* (1550s) "a male Indian ruler" < Hin. < Skt. *rajan* "king", *rajati* "he rules" < PIE **reg-* "to move in a straight line".

The third type includes **barbarisms**, i.e. unassimilated foreign words which are used in oral or written communication and have corresponding English equivalents (*tête-à-tête* adv. /ˌteɪt.əˈteɪt/ "**in private** with only two people together").

The degree of assimilation depends on the frequency of a foreign word usage (the more frequent words show higher degree of adaptation), time of borrowing (older words become more thoroughly naturalized), way of borrowing (compared to written loans, oral borrowings are more rapidly and completely assimilated).

Words can be borrowed simultaneously into many languages to become **internationalisms**. They are found in various semantic fields: science (*mathematics*, *algebra*), flora and fauna (*anaconda*, *kiwi*), sport (*football*), everyday life (*leggings*). There are direct borrowings and calques among internationalisms.

International loan-translations are exemplified by the world-wide spread of E. *sky-scraper*: Alb. *qiellgërvishtës* (lit. "sky-scraper"), Afrikaans *wolkekrabber* ("clouds-scraper"), Arabic ناطحة سحاب (*nāṭiḥat saḥāb* "cloud-butter"), Arm. երկնաքեր (*yerk-n-a-ker* "sky-scratcher"), Dan. *skyskraber* ("cloud-scraper"), Du. *wolkenkrabber* ("clouds-scratcher"), Estonian *pilvelõhkuja* ("cloud-breaker"), Finnish *pilvenpiirtäjä* ("cloud-sketcher"), Fr. *gratte-ciel* ("scrapes-sky"), Pol. *drapacz chmur* ("cloud-scraper"), Port. *arranha-céus* ("scrapes-skies"), Tagalog *gusaling tukudlangit* ("building poking the sky"), Tamil வானளாவி (*vāṉaḷāvi* "sky-reacher"), Thai ตึกระฟ้า (*tụkrafâ* "sky-scraping building"), Turk. *Gökdelen* ("sky-piercer"), Ukr. *Хмарочос* (*hmaročos* "cloud-scratcher"), Viet. *nhà chọc trời* ("sky-poking building"), etc.

Internationalization of the meaning of E. *mouse* "a computer mouse, for its resemblance to the animal" is supported by the fact that in many languages the meanings of equivalent words have been extended from 'animal' to 'computer device': Arm. մկնիկ (*mknik*, diminutive of "mouse"), Bulg. *мишка* (mishka), Du. *muis*, Fr. *souris*, Gr. ποντίκι (*pontíki*), Heb. עכבר (*akhbár*), Port. *rato*, Lingala *mpóko*, Malay *tetikus*, Mongolian *хулгана*, Swahili *kipanya*, Sw. *mus*, Turk. *fare*, Viet. *chuột* to name

but a few.

The discussion of etymological composition of the English vocabulary would be incomplete without cases of **folk etymology**. It arises when a word is associated with some form or meaning and assumed to come from a particular etymon, different from its true derivation. A word which provides a translation or explanation of another word is known as a ***gloss***: *spit and image* 'the very likeness" is folk etymologized and glossed as *spitting image* (HOED 2001-2018) which appears in the phrase *to be the spitting image of smb.* "to look extremely similar to someone" (CD 2018).

The word *crayfish* "Norway lobster, a small freshwater lobster" was borrowed as *crevis* from OFr. *crevise* "a crayfish" in the early 14th c. In the 16th c. it acquired its folk etymology spelling *crayfish* under the influence of its false etymon *fish*.

The true story of the word *asparagus* "a plant with pale, green, juicy stems that are cooked and eaten as a vegetable" is that it is of uncertain origin and arrive in English via L. *asparagus*, *sparagus* from Gr. *asparagos / aspharagos*. Although this plant was known in Old English as *eorðnafela*, the classical Latin form, attested from the mid-16th c., was preferred by herbalists and botanists. From the 17th-19th c., the common form was folk-etymologized as *sparrowgrass* when *asparagus* had "an air of stiffness and pedantry", according to John Walker's *Critical Pronouncing Dictionary*, 1791 (HOED 2001-2018).

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is understood by the term 'native word'?
2. What is the difference in the employment of the terms 'loan' and 'borrowing'?
3. What are the motives for borrowing? Consider need-filling, prestige, fashion, etc.
4. What historical and social factors conditioned a powerful flow of French borrowings into English in the 11th and the 13th c.?
5. How are loan-translations formed?
6. What distinguishes loan-blends from other types of borrowing?
7. How does analogy operate concerning borrowing?
8. Do loans arrive due to direct or indirect contact?
9. What structural and semantic modifications are borrowings subject to during their adaptation in a target language?
10. How can you regard multiple borrowings?
11. What is the proportion of native words to borrowings in English?
12. What is the role of the native words in English?
13. What is the general impact of borrowing on English? Does it bring profit or cause loss?
14. What is the effect of the abundance of synonyms created by borrowing, especially from the classical languages?

15. Do you agree with Otto Jespersen who states that “Loan-words have been called the milestones of philology, because in a great many instances they permit us to fix approximately the dates of linguistic changes? But they might with just as much right be termed some of the milestones of general history, because they show us the general course of civilization and the wanderings of intentions and institutions, and in many cases give us valuable information as to the inner life of nations”?

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH WORD-STOCK

OBJECTIVES

This topic treats the historical dynamics of the English vocabulary by a survey of the processes of archaization and new word formation. It is to satisfy students' interest about vocabulary loss and extension.

YOU WILL STUDY

- causes of lexical loss and expansion;
- how to distinguish between archaic words and historisms;
- types of elements that are not generally used anymore;
- ways of forming new words;
- difference between neologisms and occasionalisms.

OUTLINE

1. Causes and channels of vocabulary change.
2. Archaic words in English.
3. Historisms.
4. Types of coinage.
5. Occasional words and potential formations.

RECOMMENDED READING

Ilienko O. L., Kamienieva I. A., Moshtagh Ye. S. English Lexicology : tutorial. Kharkiv : Publishing House I. Ivanchenka, 2020. P. 111-122.

FURTHER READING

Ніколенко, А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. С. 237-238, 254-255.

INTERNET RESOURCES

(NWBCD) New Words. *About Words. A Blog from Cambridge Dictionary*. Cambridge Dictionary. Oxford : Oxford University Press, 2018. URL: https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/

KEY TERMS

archaism, coinage, grammatical archaism, historism, lexical/ proper archaism, morphological archaism, morphological neologism, neologism, neology, nonce, word/form(ation), obsolescence, obsolete word, originator, partial archaism, phonetic

archaism, phonological neologism, phraseological neologism, proper neologism, semantic archaism, semantic neologism, spelling archaism, transnomination

Lexicon change is a natural process in any living language. There are many various stimuli for the vocabulary change. Some lexical items go out of general use as they become obsolete. New words and expressions are added to satisfy communicative preferences and needs of speakers. Languages are constantly fluctuating between lexical loss and extension.

Causes of vocabulary historical dynamics may be summarized as follows.

On the one hand, changes in life-style have ousted old concepts, related to Anglo-Saxon, Anglo-Norman, Elizabethan and other important historical epochs. For instance, the activity of *upknocking* (the 19th c.) "an employment of someone who went house to house in early morning hours to awake the workers" became defunct after the advent of alarm-clocks. On the other, social, economic and political changes bring about a great deal of new concepts, relating to various spheres:

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY (*sliver building* (21 Jan. 2016, hereinafter the date of publication) n. "an extremely tall, narrow skyscraper", *nanotecture* (28 Mar. 2016) n. "small-scale, experimental architecture" (28 Mar. 2016), *immersive hybrid reality* (24 Oct. 2016) n. "a set of images and sounds, produced by a computer, that seem to represent a workplace environment" (NWBCD 2018));

FOOD (*raw water* (7 Jan. 2018) n. "water that is unfiltered and untreated, thought by some people to be a healthier alternative to tap water", *root-to-stem* (15 Nov. 2017) adj. "referring to a trend in cooking that involves using as much of a fruit or vegetable as possible" (NWBCD 2018));

CLOTHING (*slow fashion* (11 Oct. 2017) n. "the activity of making and buying clothes that are of high quality and designed to last, with low impact on the environment" (NWBCD 2018));

MUSIC, TELEVISION AND FILMS, LITERATURE (*postmateriality* (15 Feb. 2016) n. "in the digital age, after materials such as film and tape stopped being used to record sound and images", *up lit* (2 Aug. 2017) n. "a literary genre comprising books that make the reader feel optimistic" (NWBCD 2018));

POLITICS (*prebuttle* (05 Jan. 2016) n. "an argument against something that has not yet been said", *Brexiter / Brexiteer* (20 Feb. 2016) n. "one who favours Brexit, (=Britain leaving the EU)", *Trumpism* (13 Jan. 2016) n. "the views and cultural and political statements of Donald Trump" (NWBCD 2018));

ECONOMY (*zebra* (23 Nov. 2017) n. "a new company that aims to improve society as well as to make a profit" (NWBCD 2018));

EDUCATION (*parennial* (4 Nov. 2017) n. "a parent who is a member of the millennial generation, born between the early 1980s and the early 2000s", *monster*

parent (22 Jul. 2017) n. “a parent who is excessively authoritarian and over-protective, and who tends to interfere in their children’s education” (NWBCD 2018));

NATURE AND ECOLOGY (*forest city* (30 June 2017) n. “a city with a very large number of plants and trees that absorb substances causing pollution and create a healthy atmosphere”, *Wood Wide Web* (28 Aug. 2016) n. “the underground network of roots and fungi that links trees and other plants to each other”, *thundersnow* (17 Jan. 2017) n. **“**a thunderstorm with snow instead of the more usual heavy rain” (NWBCD 2018));

WOMEN’S ISSUES (*the Paula principle* (12 Mar. 2017) n. “a theory that most women have a job that does not allow them to fulfil their competence”, *Instagirl* (5 Mar. 2017) n. “a female model who has a large number of followers on Instagram, a social media site for sharing photographs” (NWBCD 2018)).

Lexical changes may also be induced by culture and language contacts leading to borrowings (see Lecture 2). Loans start competing with the existing words and phrases and make them to fade as archaisms (*any-* in *anykyn* “any kind” and other compounds) or provincial vocabulary (*anywhen* survived as common only in Southern English dialects).

New words are sometimes thought of as more colorful and expressive means of communication. They are likely to be used in place of their drab counterparts: *to dement* “to drive mad” (1540s), *demented* “mad” (1640s) was superseded in this meaning by *mad* as in *mad as a March hare* attested from 1520s, via notion of breeding season, *mad as a hatter* from 1829, according to a popular supposition that erratic behaviour is caused by prolonged exposure to poison mercuric nitrate, used in felt hats making.

Newly introduced words sound less awkward than their archaic forerunners.

The channels of vocabulary development include morphological derivation (creation), semantic change, borrowing, reviving archaic or obsolete words, and coinage. **Morphological derivation** deals with the formation of new words by means of the existing material (roots and affixes). It is the most important way of vocabulary expansion. **Semantic change** (semantic derivation) takes place when an existing form develops a new meaning to satisfy the new communication need. As a result, it is not the number of word forms that grows but new usages.

Borrowing also plays a vital role in the lexicon development.

Reviving archaic or obsolete words gives no longer used words some new meanings to meet new need. For instance, old short forms sound more efficient and ease communication (*morn* “morning”, *eve* “*evening*”), or sound more attractive and expressive *(errant* “wandering” as in *errant knights*). Archaic words may undergo a sudden and unexplained revival (*kin* “relatives; one’s family” is currently used in American English.

When a word totally goes out of general use, it would be referred to as **obsolete / archaic**. The name for the thing which is no longer in use becomes a **historism**. **Coinage** is the creation of totally new words (*xerox, kleenex, nylon, aspirin*).

Archaic elements in the English vocabulary can be classified as follows.

Semantic archaisms retained their forms but acquired new meanings or stylistic coloring: *fair* "beautiful".

Lexical/proper archaisms are no longer in general spoken or written use, but can be found in poetry, nursery rhymes, etc.: *steed* "horse", *to behold* "to see", *belike* "probably", *forebears* "ancestors", *to wit* "namely".

Phonetic/ spelling archaisms, morphological archaisms denote existing things but to a certain extent are ousted by their variants: *wilt* (*will*), *olde* (*old*), *o'er* (over), *e'er* (*ever*), *beaute**ous*** (*beauti**ful***), ***be**paint* (*paint*), *dark**some*** (*dark*), *oft* (*oft**en***).

Grammatical archaisms are archaic grammar forms: *go**est**, go**eth** (goes), sp**a**ke (spoke), got**ten** (got*).

Partial archaisms are older forms used in Modern English in other functions:

- archaic participles as verbal adjectives only (*a **hidden** meaning/ The meaning is **hid**; a **rotten** plank/ The plank was **rotted** by water; a **drunken** man/ The man has **drunk** much wine*);
- as parts of compounds (***oft**-told, garlic, play**wright***);
- survived in idioms (*Many a little makes a **mickel***);
- as proper names (*Webster*, *Chandler*).

Historisms are found in many spheres.

- transport means (*berlin, brougham, fly, gig*);
- vehicles (*prairie schooner, caravel, galleon*);
- weapons (*breastplate, crossbow, arrow*);
- social sphere (*cannibal, brother colonist, absentee* in Australian English; *double-decker* in New Zealand English*; free township, Indian brandy* in Canadian English; *Conestoga wagon, farthingale* in US English; *breakwater, civilized labour* in South African English).

Neology is the subbranch of lexicology which studies coinage. **Neologism** is the creation of a new lexical item, as response to changed circumstances in the external world, which achieves some currency within a speech community; also called **coinage**.

There are three main types of neologisms according to the way they are formed:

- **semantic neologism** - a lexical unit existing in the language can change its meaning to denote a new object or phenomenon (*to cowboy* "to drive recklessly", *shit* "something excellent");
- **transnomination -**a new lexical unit can develop in language to denote an object or phenomenon which already has some lexical unit to denote it (*slum* > *ghetto* > *inner town/city*);

- **proper neologism -** a new lexical unit can be introduced to denote a new object or phenomenon (*yarg* "a mild white moist cheese made in Cornwall; *thigmorphogenesis*).

As to the aspect involved into coinage, neologisms can be subdivided into:

- **phonological** neologisms that are formed by combining unique combinations of sounds, the so-called ***artificial*** neologisms (*rah-rah* "a short skirt worn by the girls during parades");
- **borrowings** that belong to phonetic neologisms, or ***strong*** neologisms (*geige* "Chinese perestroika");
- **semantic** neologisms (*to cowboy* "to drive recklessly", *shit* "something excellent");
- **syntactical** neologisms that do not belong to the group of strong neologisms, they are built on patterns existing in the language;
- **morphological** (word-building) neologisms that are compounds of affixed words of different types;
- **phraseological** neologisms (forming word-groups). See examples in Table 4.

Nonce word, or **nonce form(ation)** is a word which a speaker consciously invents or accidentally uses on a single occasion, in order to solve an immediate problem of communication (*circumtreeviation* "the way a dog on a lead tends to walk round a tree on the opposite side to the way a its owner wants it to go").

Table 4 Types of coinage

CLASS	**GROUP**	**SUBGROUP, TYPE OF FORMATION**	**EXAMPLES**
phonetic	artificial		*rah-rah*, "a type of skirt", *yecky/ yucky* "repulsive";
	phonetic borrowing		*solidarnosc* (Polish), *dolce vita* (Italian), *Berufsverbot* (German)
morpho-logical	compound	neutral	*to catlick* "to wash the dishes carelessly"; *selflife* "term of validity", *free-fall* "a sudden severe decline, esp. in stock-market proces, which shows no sign of stopping"; *materclass; Amerenglish* "Ameican English";

		particle compound	*in-* "modern, the most fashionable"	*in-crowd; in-group, in-language, in-thing*;
			-in "protest, strike"	*sit-in* "a strike when workers remain at their working places"; *laugh-in* "organized laughing during a speech"; *read-in* "competition of reciters";
		block compound	spelt with a break	*pile up* "traffic jam"; *trade off* "exchange, substitution"
		affixed compound		*rubber-neck* "a tourist who remains in the coach and is not curious about the country"; *white-collardom*; *topsy-turvidom; righ-wingish; show-offy*;
		identical meaning component	*-basher (bang+smash)*	*IRA-basher* "person who is against IRA"; *Paki-basher* "a person who is against Pakistan";
			-manship "ability, skill, knowhow"	*lifemanship* "ability to prosper in life"; *showmanship* "skill to show off";
			-hop "to move from place to place very quickly"	*to job-hop; to tavern-hop; to bed-hop*;
		conversion		*to Micky-mouse, to hero-worship; to frontpage*
		backformation		*to freeload < freeloader, freeloading* "about people who go to receptions of different types to have free meals"; *to massproduce*;
		analogy		*snowmobile* (automobile); *danceaholic* (alcoholic); *moneygram* (telegram);

			-free "devoid of what is expressed by the first component"	*waste-free; alcohol-free; nuclear-free; E-free* "without additives";
			-friendly	*ozone-friendly; planet-friendly; audience-friendly; customer-friendly*;
			-happy "fond of what is expressed by the first component"	*travel-happy; queue-happy; power-happy*;
			-proof "defended from what is expressed by the first component"	*germ-proof; burglar-proof; depression-proof*;
			-oriented	*money-oriented; computer-oriented; change-oriented; leisure-oriented; job-oriented*;
			-wide; -intensive	*personnel-wide, Industry-wide; profit-intensive, neologism-intensive, labor-intensive*
		terminolo-gical neo-logism, or neoclassical	built on the pattern of Latin or Greek compounds	[Gr. *aer* "air"] > *aerogram, aeronaut, aerospace, aerocapture*; [Gr. *mania* "madness"] > *discomania, Beatlesmania*
syntac-tical	with conjunction stems of different types			*middle-of-the-roader; no-where-goer; roam-a-phone; do-it-yourselfer; me-too-ism; me-first-ism; here-and-now; all-or-none; hard-to-get*

	shortened or abbreviated forms		*kidvid* “a child who is a compulsive watcher of TV or video”; *vid* “short video film”; *sexploitation* (‘sex’- + -‘exploitation’); *resto* “restaurant”; *dinky* “dual income no kids yet”; *super G* “super giant slalom”; *SIDS* “sudden infant death syndrome)”;
	phraseological	phraseological units with transferred meanings	*fudge and dodge* “avoidance of definite decisions”; *to nose out* "to find out"; *talk'n chalk* “traditional method of teaching”;
		set non-idiomatic expressions	*Rubic's clock/ cube; acid rain; a whizz kid* “a very clever and ambitious young man, who makes a quick progress in his career”;
substi-tution	*elder → older*		*older* (in the family and age);
	such →that		***that*** *kind of…*
	so → that		*Not* ***that*** *simple*;
	as…as → not this		*It can't be* ***this*** *cold tomorrow*;
	typical → very much		*This is* ***very much*** *the case.*
	to have → to get		*He* ***got*** *his hair cut.*
	to be → to get		*to* ***get*** *born.*

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is understood by the term ‘obsolete word’?
2. What is meant by ‘neologism’?
3. Are nonce-words coined for stylistic purposes?
4. Why do lexical units become obsolete?
5. Comment on the difference between archaisms and historisms?
6. What causes the revival of archaic words?
7. What are the most important ways of neologism formation?
8. Comment on the archaization of meaning.
9. Give examples of semantic neologisms and comment them.

2 THE MEANINGS AND FUNCTIONING OF ENGLISH WORDS

SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH WORDS

OBJECTIVES

This topic discusses lexical meaning of words and word-equivalents, its types and structure.

YOU WILL STUDY

– about the subject matter of semasiology;
– types of meaning motivation;
– the structure and types of lexical meaning;
– difference between nominative aspect and connotations;
– types of connotations;
– configurations of semantic shifts;
– causes and mechanisms of meaning change;
– outcomes of lexical meaning development.

OUTLINE

1. Word meaning and motivation.
2. Types of lexical meaning.
3. Semantic structure of the word.
4. Change/ shift of meaning.
5. Outcomes or results of semantic shift.

RECOMMENDED READING

Ilienko O. L., Kamienieva I. A., Moshtagh Ye. S. English Lexicology : tutorial. Kharkiv : Publishing House I. Ivanchenka, 2020. P. 81-100.

FURTHER READING

Квеселевич Д. І., Сасіна В. П. Практикум з лексикології сучасної англійської мови: Навчальний посібник. Вінниця : Вид-во “Нова книга”, 2001. С. 52-66.

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INTERNET RESOURCES

Lexical Meaning: Words. *Glossary of Grammatical and Rhetorical Terms*. ToughtCo. URL: https://www.thoughtco.com/lexical-meaning-words-1691048

Denotation. *Glossary of Grammatical and Rhetorical Terms*. ToughtCo. URL: https://www.thoughtco.com/what-is-denotation-1690436

Polysemy: Words and Meanings. *Glossary of Grammatical and Rhetorical Terms*. ToughtCo. URL: https://www.thoughtco.com/polysemy-words-and-meanings-1691642

Semantic Change. *Glossary of Grammatical and Rhetorical Terms*. ToughtCo. URL: https://www.thoughtco.com/semantic-change-words-1692078

KEY TERMS

amelioration of meaning, broadening of meaning, conceptual nominative meaning, connotative associative meaning, dead metaphor, degradation of meaning, elevation of meaning, emotive intensification, enantiosemy, etymological motivation, extension of meaning, figurative secondary meaning, generalization of meaning, grammatical meaning, lexical meaning, metaphor, metonymy, monosemy, morphological motivation, narrowing of meaning, nominative lexical meaning, onomatopoetic motivation, pejoration of meaning, phraseologically bound lexical meaning, polysemy, primary direct meaning, restriction of meaning, secondary meaning, semantic diffusion, semantic motivation, semantic structure, shift to opposite, specialization of meaning, stylistic associative meaning, synecdoche, synesthesia (Br. synaesthesia), widening of meaning

The meaning of linguistic units, first of all, that of words and word equivalents is studied by a branch of linguistics called **semasiology**.

Lexical meaning reflects the concept expressed by the given word.

The interrelation between the structural pattern of the word and its lexical meaning is called **motivation.** There are three main types of motivation: phonetical motivation, morphological motivation, and semantic motivation.

Phonetical motivation is observed in words whose sound-clusters imitate the sounds they signify (*boom, cuckoo, hiss, titter, whisper, murmur*). **Morphological motivation** is apparent in derived words and nonidiomatic compounds due to their word-formation pattern: *worker (work-* “action” + *-er* “doer of the action”) “one who works”, *shoemaker* (*shoe-* “object of the action”, *-make-* “action” + *-er* “doer of the action”) “one who makes shoes”. **Semantic motivation** is the relationship between the direct and the transferred meaning of the word: *the mouth of a river* “a place where river flows into the sea” < *mouth* “the opening in the face of an animal or a person”. The mistaken motivation due to the fancied analogy of borrowings with well-known native words is called **folk** (false) **etymology** (see Lecture 2).

One should distinguish three main types of the lexical meaning of words.

Nominative meaning is the direct meaning of the word, immediately referring to objects in extralinguistic reality. It includes denotational and connotational components. **Denotation** is the expression of the direct meaning proper of the word

without any emotive evaluation or stylistic colouring. **Connotation** is the supplementary expressive meaning presented either by emotive charge (*girlie* (informal) "typical of females, or suitable for females rather than males" as in *Sometimes she speaks in this silly, girlie voice* (disapproving)) or by stylistic reference (*girl* (neutral) vs *maiden* (poetic) vs *lass* (folk.) vs *chic* (slang).

Syntactically conditioned meaning manifests itself in different colligations: *ask smth., ask smb. about (after, for) smth., ask for smb., ask for smth., ask smb. to smth.*

Phraseologically bound meaning is idiomatic and manifests itself only in certain phraseological units: *buy smth. for a song* "to buy smth. very cheaply".

The **semantic structure**, or **semantic paradigm**, of words, is made by **lexico-semantic variants** (**LSV**s) of a word. Although there may be no semantic component common to all LSVs, every meaning has something in common with at least one of the others. The main types of semantic structure include monosemy, polysemy, everysemy / semantic diffusion.

Monosemy is the existence within one word of only one meaning. Monosemic words are comparatively few in number and include mainly scientific terms **(***gerontology* "the study of old age and of the changes it causes in the body").

Polysemy is the existence within one word of several connected meanings. One of them is the main (central) meaning, whereas the rest are associated (marginal) meanings. Associated meanings of the word become evident in certain, lexical and grammatical contexts. Polysemic words constitute the bulk of the English vocabulary (*face* n. "the front of the head; the expression of the countenance; the main or front surface; the surface that is marked; appearance; dignity").

A special case of polysemy is **bisemy**, i.e. the existence of a two-fold meaning as in the word *aeroplane*. It was originally (1866) used in reference to surfaces such as shell casings of beetle wings. Before this sense became outdated, it had been extended to "the wing of a heavier-than-air flying machine". In 1873 the word underwent metonymic extension and was attested in reference to the machine itself. In contemporary English, the semantic structure of *aeroplane* is bisemic: "1. a heavier-than-air craft kept aloft by the upward thrust exerted by the passing air on its fixed wings and driven by propellers or jet propulsion; 2. any similar heavier-than-air craft, as a glider or helicopter".

S. Ulmann described bisemy in words with "antonymous senses attached to the same name" (Ulmann 1963: 120): *dust* v. "1. to **remove** dust from the surface of smth.; 2. to **cover** smth. with a light powder". The existence of opposite LSVs in a semantic structure of a word is called **enantiosemy**. Lexical enantiosemy covers various types of contrasts between LSVs:

- evaluative contrasts (*bad* "unpleasant; causing difficulties or harm" and "very satisfactory, enjoyable, pleasant" as in *That pizza was totally bad out!* (UD 2018));

- directional or locative polarities (*up* BE "central" as in *to travel up to London* vs AmE "peripheral"; *down* AmE "central" as in *downtown* vs BE "peripheral");
- agentive contrasts (*crammer* BE "a tutor, a book, or a school that helps you to learn quickly for an exam" vs AmE "a nerd student");
- reverse or reciprocal actions (*rent* v. AmE "to receive an amount of money for the use of a room, car, house, etc." vs BE "to pay for the use of a room, car, house, etc.").

Enantiosemy creates ambiguity in speech. The problem of semantic confusion cannot be resolved without a proper context. For instance, when the word *half* adv. "to a great amount or extent" and "partially, incompletely, to some extent" is used in the sentence "*The displays of mercy in this life*, *cannot half equal those which will succeed*" (Smith 1829: 247), it is not clear whether "displays of mercy" are more or less important than those "which will succeed".

The most important source of enantiosemy is the possibility, or necessity, to apply a twofold perspective to the phenomenon in question. Expressing emotions maybe interpreted positively (*Poetry, for her, is an eloquent language that best expresses emotionality, sensuality and ethereal moments* (ODE 2015)) or negatively (*Her qualities were valued but her emotionality surprised the team* (ODE 2015)). One of the perspectives may be culturally preferable as it happens with emotionality in Britain – *People are not concerned with discussing their emotional states; emotionality in most instances is negatively valued* (CD 2018, from *Cambridge English Corpus*).

Everysemy is observed in words with a very wide conceptual volume (*thing, stuff, get*) and understood as capacity of a term to refer to an indefinite quantity of denotata, i.e. actually existing objects referred to by a word, sign, or linguistic expression. The following contexts contain convincing instances of the word *thing* n. used to refer to an unlimited number of referents: OBJECT (*There are some nice things in the shops this summer.*); FOOD (*I don't eat sweet things.*); BUSINESS, WORK (*… the financial end of things*); POSSESSION (*All their things were destroyed in the fire.*); SPEECH, SUBJECT (*It was an unkind thing to say.*); IDEA, INFORMATION (*Your information is correct but you left out one thing.*); VALUE (*I value freedom above all things.*); SITUATION (*Be true to yourself in all things.*); EVERYTHING (*Don't worry about a thing.*); A FORM OF ADDRESS (*I can't believe you won – you lucky thing!*); AN OBJECT OF PITY OR SYMPATHY (*Poor things were kept in cages without room to move.*) (CD 2018).

Enantiosemy and everysemy are related to **semantic syncretism**. It is understood as an integration of different, opposite and sometimes even incompatible semantic components. In fact, the semantic syncretism is a hypothesized chain of historical changes of a word's meanings. As a rule, etymologists make statements about the initial and the terminal units of a historical semantic chain while intermediate

transformations receive many alterative interpretations. Syncretic senses (PIE **sker-* "to cut; to bend; to tie" (IEED: 933-947) are treated as either (a) variant senses of a single meaning (PIE **sker-* "to cut; to turn, bend; to tie, plait"), or (b) homonymic developments (PIE **(s)ker-$_1$* "to shrink, wrinkle; dry, thin"; **(s)ker-$_2$*, **skerə-*, **skrē-* "to spring, to turn"; **(s)ker-$_3$* "to turn, bend"; **(s)ker-$_4$*, **(s)kerə-*, **(s)krē-* "to cut") , or (c) primary and derived LSVs.

If the polysemantic structure of the word is subjected to a diachronic semantic analysis, it becomes clear that the word, as a rule, retains its original meaning but at the same time acquires several new ones. LSVs can be discussed in terms of oppositions: direct - indirect, main – derived, primary – secondary, primary – etymological, concrete – abstract, central – peripheral, archaic – actual, general – special.

The **direct** (Ukr. пряме) meaning of the word is manifested in isolation, through direct reference / naming (*hand* n. "the part of the human body") while **indirect** / **figurative** (Ukr. непряме / фігуративне) meaning calls for characterization of the referent through other phenomenon (*hand* n. "help with doing smth. that needs a lot of effort").

Main (Ukr. основне / ядерне / головне) and **derived** (Ukr. другорядне / похідне) meanings are distinguished in the descriptive perspective while **primary** (Ukr. первинне / вихідне) and **secondary** (Ukr. вторинне) ones are approached historically (*hand* n. MAIN; PRIMARY "the human hand" (OE. *hond*, *hand*) > DERIVED; SECONDARY "side; part direction" > "power; control, possession" > (1580s) "manual worker", etc. This is not to say that the main meaning is the earliest. It is identified by several criteria rather than simply by historical one. Paradigmatically, the main meaning is a core one, related to all other lexical meanings of the word directly or through a single LSV. Syntagmatically, it is contextually independent. In addition, it is the most frequent to manifest in speech irrespective of the social identity of the speakers (Левицкий 2006: 174-176).

In diachronic perspective, it is necessary to differentiate between **primary** and **etymological** (Ukr. етимологічне) meanings. Primary meaning is the earliest established meaning of the word in the language of its origin, or in case of borrowing in the target language. Etymological meaning should rather be defined as a motif, or a hypothetical semantic etymon which is not necessarily identical to the primary meaning as in *porcupine*: PRIMARY MEANING - (*c* 1400) "an animal with a covering of long, sharp quills (as stiff as needles) on its back", ETYMOLOGICAL MEANING - "spiny pig" < L. *porcus* "hog" + *spina* "thorn, spine" (Левицкий 2006: 348-349).

The **concrete** meaning of the word refers to a material object, something clear and certain, existing in a form that can be seen or felt: *sweat* n. 1. "perspiration, salty colourless liquid that one excretes through their skin" as in *beads of sweat* (CD 2018).

It contrast, the **abstract** meaning appeals to an idea, quality, not a material object: *sweat* n. 2. "effort or work" as in *They lived off the sweat and toil of others* (CD 2018).

Speakers have natural instincts they exploit about language. Language users feel that some senses are more important than others, hence more central. The **central** meaning is psychologically focal and contains central conceptual features. Empirical evidence on the issue of meanings indicates that not all the aspects of a word's meaning are equally dependent on the context (see Tabossi 1996: 23). The feature could be central (e.g. 'a *skunk* has a smell') or peripheral to the word's meaning (e.g. 'a *roof* can be walked upon'). Speakers have intuitions about whether the object denoted by the word has the property.

In many cases, the central meaning coincides with the main meaning, but it is not always so. Neither does it necessarily coincide with the actual frequency of occurrence: central meaning may be different than the most frequent one. To distinguish between central and **peripheral** / **marginal** meanings, it is important to understand how language users judge about the importance of features. The central meaning appeals to the center of the category of objects while the periphery is fuzzy, with no clear-cut boundaries. Central meanings of words are usually sources for metaphorical extensions. For instance, in English (*eye*) and Dutch (*oog*), "human eye" is the central, prototypical meaning producing such metaphorical extensions as *an eye of the needle* / Du. *het oog van een naald* (in the sense of 'a hole that is the thread goes through'), *eye of a potato* / Du. *het oog van een aardappel* ('a spot from which a new stem and leaves will grow') (McCarthy 1990: 25-26). Obviously, the feature 'a penetrable hole' is a prototypical / central one. This is supported by a number of words for "window" in different archaic languages: ON. *vindauga* (lit. 'wind eye'), OE. *eagþyrl* (lit. 'eye-hole'), OE. *eagduru* (lit. 'eye-door'), cf. OFris. *andern* for "window" (lit. 'breath-door', not 'eye-door'). Peripheral extensions of the central meaning of *eye* may differ from those of Du. *oog*. The meanings "attention" (*to catch one's eye*) and "watchful attention or supervision" (*to keep an eye on*) find better correspondence with Du. *aandacht* (a), (b) than *oog*. In occurrences with *oog* (c), it is important that the agent is watching someone or something, not just staying with them. Cf.:

(a) *Here's a fellow trying to catch your eye, sir*. ('attract smb.'s attention'),
Du. *Die knaap probeert uw aandacht te trekken*.;

(b) *I see the value of keeping your eye on the ball*. ('stay with, deal with the ball'),
Du. *Ik zie de waarde van je aandacht bij de bal te houden*.;

(c) *Let's keep an eye on him*. ('to watch, look at him for a period of time')
Du. *We houden een oogje op hem*.; (*oogje* "lit. little eye").

Cultures can make different choices as to the prototypical center as well. The central feature for *leg* 'one of the parts used for standing or walking' manifests in English as *a human leg*, *a leg of the table*, etc. But Spanish distinguishes between

human '*piernas'* and '*patas'* of tables (McCarthy 1990: 26).

Archaic and actual / contemporary meanings are different in function. The **archaic** meaning is old-fashioned while the **actual** meaning, a preserved old or newly developed sense, is common: *fair* adj. OE. *fæger* "pleasant to the sight (if people, body features, objects, places, etc.); bright, clear, not rainy (of weather)" > OLD USE OR LITERARY "(of a woman) beautiful" as in *a fair maiden*; PRESERVED OLDEST SENSE "(of weather) suitable, agreeable" as in *fair weather was forecast*; MAIN MODERN SENSES (*c* 1200) *faire* "(of persons) light complexion or colour of hair and eye, not dusky or sallow" as contrasted to *browne* reflecting tastes in beauty; (13th c.) "according with propriety; according with justice" as in *it's not fair that she's allowed to go and I'm not!*; (*c* 1300) "above average, considerable, sizable" as in *a fair-sized garden*, a fair amount of rain; (mid-14th c.) "equitable, impartial, just, free from bias" as in *his criticism was fair comment*; (later 14th c.) "(of wind, not excessive; favorable for a ship's passage" as in *a fair wind and a calm sea*; (1860) "comparatively good" as in *a scale of poor, fair, good and excellent*, etc.

The **general** meaning of a word is neutral and used in a wide range of contexts. It is independent of communicative situation, style or register. A **special** meaning is given to a term or a professional jargonism, slang expression, etc. (Table 5).

Table 5. Instances of the coexistence of general and special meanings in the semantic structure of the word

	GENERAL MEANING	SPECIAL MEANING
cat n.	"a small animal with fur, four legs, a tail, claws, usually kept as a pet";	"a device for raising an anchor to the cathead" (nautical);
acute adj.	"intensive" as in *acute pain* "severe pain" in everyday usage	*acute* when used by a physician, refers to 'timing', not 'intensity' to describe symptoms, or in *acute onset* "the one that starts quickly", *acute episode* "the one that lasts for a short time", *acute back pain* "the one that lasts for six weeks", *sub-acute / chronic back pain* "the one that lasts longer than six weeks" despite the fact that medical definition doesn't include the quality of the pain (Hall 2011: 104-105).
cabbage n.	"a large, ground vegetable with green leaves that can be eaten cooked or uncooked";	"cash money" (slang).

All the different meanings of a single word might be spin-offs from some basic central sense. It is a basic word element that identifies the central meaning of a word and serves as a foundation for developing other meanings. That is realized in three **configurations of the semantic structure development**: concatenation, radiation, and a mixed type.

Concatenation occurs as the conjunction of the meanings, left-to-right, so to speak (Fig. 1):

boomer n.

Br. dial. *boomer* "anything very large of its kind"	→	AusE (1830) "a large kangaroo, esp. an adult male"	→	AusE (1843) "a large or otherwise remarkable specimen of its kind".

boomerang n.

[Dharuk *bumarin*^{y}]	→	AusE (*c* 1790) "an Aboriginal weapon: a crescent-shaped wooden implement used as a missile or club, in hunting or warfare, and for recreational purposes. The best known type of boomerang can be made to circle in flight and return to the thrower"	→	AusE (1846) *fig*. with reference to smth. that returns to or recoils upon its author".

Fig. 1 Configurations of lexical meaning development: concatenation

Radiation is a multi-directional semantic shifting form a single center. For instance, such present meanings of the word *horse* have developed from the single primary sense 'an animal species, *Equus caballus*' (Fig 2):

(16th c.)"*Pegasus*, a constellation" (Greek mythology)	←	(9th c.) OE *hors* "horse, Equus cabllus" ↓ (16th c.) "cavalry soldiers" (i.e. 'that who mounts upon')	→	(18th c.) "a four-legged support" (i.e. 'that which is mounted upon')

Fig. 2 Configurations of lexical meaning development: radiation

A great number of words follow a combination of concatenation and radiation. The relationship between the original and derived meanings may be vague which is not a typical problem for a user. When one really deals with a semantic shift, the most of the meanings can be understood. For instance, the verb *commit* did not enter the English language in its primary meaning: L. *committere* < *com-* "with, together" + *-mittere* "to release, let go; sent, throw". That fact makes the evolution of modern meanings in English not entirely clear. Anyway, the semantic shifts in this word followed the combination of concatenation and radiation (Fig. 3):

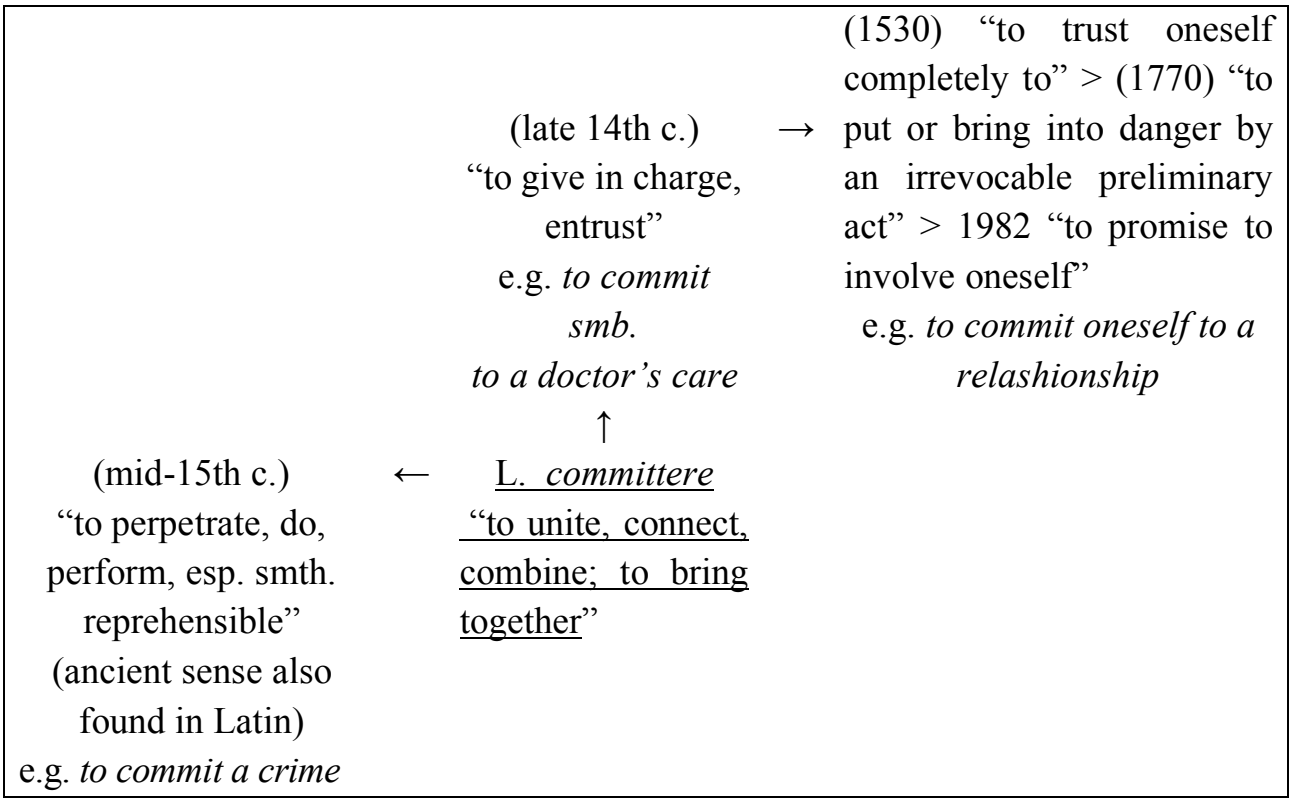


Fig. 3 Configurations of lexical meaning development: combination of concatenation and radiation

Causes of meaning change and variation may be extralinguistic and linguistic.

Extralinguistic / primary / external reasons are determined by 'communicative needs' in a wide sense. Among these reasons are **cognitive stimuli** that include historical, social, and cultural imperatives, and **emotive stimuli** connected with psychological imperatives. Extralinguistic factors of meaning change are primary and very powerful. Firstly, they are intertwined with the human need to cognize the world, operate with notions, and create names to various phenomena. Secondly, speakers cannot stay indifferent to the environment, they react to it by means of self- and emotional expression.

In some cases, meanings change because the objects that the words once described have themselves changed: *pen* n. originally meant "feather". In the 18th c. there were

changes in writing technology. First steel, then fountain, ballpoint, and felt tip pens were invented.

Social ethos finds its way to semantic correlatives. For instance, the earliest meaning of *luxury* (14th c.) "lust, lasciviousness or sinful self-indulgence" has ameliorated due to the change from the medieval ascetic to modern hedonistic concept of GOOD LIFE. The term *politician* (1580) "person skilled in politics" has lost its negative overtones (Hughes 1989: 7). The unfavourable etymological meaning of *aristocracy* (Gr. *aristokratia* "rule of the best") echoed in English in 1560s as "government by those who are the best people", became paramount in the 17th c., has lost its popularity nowadays (cf. "a class of people of high social rank").

Psychological motives are clearly reflected in *dog* n. "a woman who is not attractive", (sl.) "a man who is unpleasant or not to be trusted", and *dog* v. "to follow smb. closely and continuously" (*The reporters dogged him for answers* (CD 2018)).

Due to **creativity** and the need to maintain **expressivity** the meaning of *cool* was extended from the sphere of physical attribute to emotional state: OE *col* "not warm" > (early 14th c.) "manifesting coldness, apathy, or dislike" > (late 1940s) as a general term of approval.

Linguistic / secondary / internal reasons of meaning change deal with the language state and systemic relations in lexicon such as contextual influence, borrowing, clash of synonyms or homonyms, analogy, sound-symbolism, etc.

Contextual influence can be drastic to the meaning shift, its restriction or stretching. For instance, the more basic physical (spacial) meaning of OE. *lang* "extending from one end to another; tall" (as in *long legs*) was metaphorically extended to a more abstract temporal meaning of "drawn out in duration" (as in *long wait*).

Another example is the verb *fight* which was originally used with the preposition *with*. As fight implies opposition, the preposition was soon dropped and the verb acquired the meaning of "to use effort to stop smth.", e.g. *to fight the disease*, *~ crime*, etc. (Mott 2003: 202).

Difference in colligation of the word *ill* explains its semantic shift. Cf.: the predicative usage as in *to be / feel /remain*, etc. *ill* "not feeling well" and the attributive usage in *ill opinion* "bad, unsuitable". Phraseologisation will lead to further extension (*ill person* > *ill humour* "unkind").

Word-formation processes may interfere into words' semantic structure as in shifting of *daily* "occurring every day" to "a daily newspaper" owing to the shortening of *daily paper*.

Oppositions of contexts and **differences in prosody** are important for meaning change. In a prosodically unmarked context *bear* v. means "to carry, endure" (*I can't bear a heavy load*) while it appeals to "to tolerate, endure" in a prosodically marked context (*I can't bear the sight of that man*).

In other cases, meaning change is caused by **semantic confusion**. The word *since* originally meant "after that" (OE *sið ðan*), and from the 1510s is used as a preposition "from the time when", hence "as a consequence of the fact that".

Borrowing can produce semantic influence on the existing words and cause the **clash / conflict of synonyms**. The word *deer* was used in OE. in the generic sense: OE. *deor* "wild animal beast, any wild quadruped". *Deor* as "a large animal with four legs that eats grass and leaves" started to substitute the word OE. *heorot* "deer", obviously due to the fact that deer was hunters' favourite animal of the chase. The tendency was accelerated by the borrowings (OFr. *beste* "wild animal, beast" > OE. *beste* (*c* 1200) "wild animal, beast"; L. *animale* "a living being that breathes" > ME. (early 14th c.) "any sentient living creature"), that entered the English vocabulary at different stages of its evolution, and the meaning change in *deer* was complete by the 15th c. The conflict of synonyms occurred as *beast* ousted *deer* in its generic meaning, and later the word *animal* drove out *beast* in its common sense.

The influence of **analogy** and **semantic laws** (i.e. semantic changes that regularly occur in different languages) can be demonstrated by the evolution of the words *stale* and *dry*. They have developed synonymic meanings as they intersected at the sense "uninteresting". Cf.: OE. *dryge* "with no water or other liquid in" > "barren" > 'not producing or creating anything new', hence (1620s) "uninteresting, tedious" as in *dry book, ~ talk, ~ subject* and *stale* (early 13th c.) "(about beer, ale, etc.) having stood long enough to clear" > 'stood long enough', hence "firm" > 'firm', hence "not fresh" > 'not fresh', hence (1560s) "familiar, boring, uninteresting" as in *stale news, ~ jokes*. A convincing instance of how analogy, formal similarity in particular, makes words change their meanings is provided by *fruition* and *fruit* (see Lecture 2).

Another reason of semantic drift is **sound-symbolism**. Its influence appears in the word *miniature* (1580s) "a reduced image". Pictures in medieval manuscripts were made small and that was why they were called miniatures: It. *miniature* "manuscript illumination or small picture painted with minium" < L. *miniare* "to paint red" < L. *minium* "red lead, chemical used to make red ink". Without a doubt, the emergence of that sense is also due to the influence of other Latin words meaning "small" (*minor*, *minimus*, *minutus*, etc.) because they resemble *miniare*, *miniature* in shape (Rausch 2013: 88) and their structure contains the sound /i/ that is suggestive of 'lightness, smallness, shortness, weakness, insignificance, etc.' and universally associated with it (Jespersen 1964: 401-403).

Language internal metonymy takes place due to **sound contamination.** Words that resemble each other in sound come to develop similar meanings: *heart* ***render****ing* malapropistically developed the meaning of *heart* ***render****ing* "heart tearing". However, the usage of *rendering* in that meaning is uncommon: *The true ground of action is the outrage and deprivation; the injury the father sustains in the loss of his child; the*

heart-rendering [read heart-rending] agony his must suffer in the destruction of his dearest hope (GDMLU 2001: 399). In fact, the native term *heart-rending* (1680s) "causing great sympathy or sadness, heartbreaking" < OE. *rendan*, *hrendan* "to tear, cut down" < PGmc. **rendan* "to cut" is of different origin. The word *rendering* is a development of a French borrowing: *render* < (1792) "melting of fat" < OFr. *rendre* "to give back, present, yield".

Mechanisms of semantic shift include semantic addition, deletion / loss, substitution, simplification, reverse, and transfer. **Semantic addition** is the incorporation of another seme into the content (*mafia* "a group of criminals" > "a group of people linked to mafia") whereas **semantic deletion** is found in the loss of a seme (*bank* "an organization where people invest and borrow money" ['a collection point' + financial sense] > "a place that stores blood and human organs for later use" as in *blood bank, sperm~* ['a collection point' + LACUNA]. A good, though different, example of semantic deletion is the meaning loss leading to the split of polysemy (see Lecture 5). **Semantic substitution** can be exemplified by *dove* "a bird, often a symbol of peace" ['peaceful' + 'bird'] > "a politician, who prefers to solve problems using peaceful methods" ['peaceful' + 'person']. **Semantic simplification** is the result of demotivation, in some cases accompanied by the change of the morphological structure of a word: *lord* "a male peer; smb. who has a lot of power" < OE. *hlaford* "a master of a household" < OE. *half-* "bread, loaf" + OE. *-weard* "keeper, guardian". **Semantic reverse** requires the presence of an antonymic seme in the new meaning (see for *enantiosemy* above and Lecture 5): *garble* v. (late 15th c.) "to sort out the finer parts by the removal of what is objectionable" ['remove'] > (1860s) "to mix up, confuse or distort language" ['mix up']. **Transfers** are realized as metaphoric and metonymic extensions (see below).

The **outcomes of semantic shifts** are seen as extension or specialization, and as pejoration and amelioration.

The **extension** / **generalization** / **widening** / **broadening** of meaning takes place when the name is applied to a wider range of referents. The **specialization** / **narrowing** of meaning is necessitated by the application of a word to a smaller number of referents. In logical perspective, extension is seen as a shift from a lower level of a category to a higher one (species name > generic name) whereas specialization is opposite to it (generic name > species name). For instance, the meaning of OE. *bereærn* "a place for storing barley" was extended to "a covered building for storing grain, hay", (early 18th c.) "any large, barn-like building". Conversely, the meaning of OE. *wif* "a woman, lady" was specialized to E. *wife* "a female spouse".

The **pejoration** / **degradation** / **deterioration** is traced in the meanings of words whose 'important' semes were substituted by 'humble' ones, for instance, the sense development of OE. *gesælig* "happy" (E. *silly*) moved to (*c* 1200) "blessed", "pious",

"innocent", to (late 13th c.) "harmless", "pitiable", to (c 1300) "weak", to (1570s) "feeble in mind, lacking reason, foolish". The **amelioration** / **elevation** of meaning is realized in the opposite way: OE. *fonned* "unwise, foolish" (< OE. *fonne* "a stupid person, a fool") ameliorated through the sense of 'foolishly tender' to (1570s) "having strong affections for". Nevertheless, semantic pejoraton or amelioration do not necessarily evidence the attitudinal or evaluative change to the opposite: *governor* (originally) "steersman, pilot" > (*c* 1300) "personal protector, keeper, guide" > (late 14th c.) "a head of a province; a head of an institution".

Other types of semantic shifts are lateral shift, shift to the opposite (enantiosemy, see above), weakening and intensification, shift in social connotation.

Lateral shift is a semantic process involving historical reordering of implied senses: OE. *hærfest* "autumn, period between August and November" was used with only implied reference to 'gathering crops'> under the influence of the borrowing *autumn* and the use of *fall* in its seasonal sense (mid-13th c.) "the time of gathering crops", which only implies "autumn".

Weakening, or **distortion** of meaning / **verbicide** occurs when an affectionate term is applied to a variety of trivia: *monstrous* (mid-15th c.) "unnatural" (*monstrous beasts*) > (*c* 1500) "bad, esp. because too big" (*monstrous repair bills*). Deflation is found in *a tremendous clap of thunder*, *ghastly wind*, *terrific idea*, *divine party*, *miracle product*, *dream house*, *magic cleaner*, *luxury margarine* as well as with such political adjectives as *fascist*, *democratic*, *bourgeois*, *reactionary* (Hughes 1989: 14).

Emotive intensification is related to formidable words applied in emotive, emphatic ways: *sensation* (1610s) "a reaction to external stimulation of the sense organs" (*sensation of pain*) > (1779) "a state of shock or surprise in a community" (*a publishing sensation*). Inflation is found in *phenomenal* (*phenomenal achievements*), *categorical*, *diametrical*, *desperately*, *abominably*; *little*, *tiny* (ibid.: 13), *great* (*great* OE. "big, tall" > "excellent" as in *a great idea*).

Shift in social connotation (ibid.: 17) involves the change of register and influences the appropriateness of usage. From the mid-17th c. to the early 20th c., especially in Edwardian society, *bloody* (*Not bloody likely!*) was a 'horrid word' and a serious violation of the polite register, in par with profane and obsolete words. Later its impolite connotations became milder giving the word bloody the status of an intensifier (*bloody drunk* "very drunk").

Different types of semantic extension are found in **transfers** between cognitive spheres / domains (e.g. PLANT > HUMAN as in the metaphoric shift *cabbage* "a type of culinary vegetable" > "a head") or within the domains (e.g. PRODUCER > PRODUCT as in the metonymic shift *merino* 'a breed of sheep" > "good-quality wool"). In terms of cognitive linguistics, knowledge and intuitions about phenomena are transferred from the SOURCE to the TARGET of metaphor or metonymy.

Linguistic metaphor is associating two referents which resemble each other. From classical point of view, metaphors are based on various types of similarity, for example, similarity of shape (*a head of cheese*), function, (*a bookworm*), position (*the foot of a mountain)*, colour (*black ingratitude*), temperature (*cold reason*), etc. Words denoting animals and their actions may be used metaphorically to denote human qualities. Such cases are known as **zoosemy**, e.g. *a fox* "a crafty person", *to wolf* "to eat greedily"). **Personification** is a transfer of human qualities and attributes to objects, natural phenomena, abstractions: *the head of the army*. **Metaphoric epithets,** denoting human qualities, are often applied to inanimate objects or abstractions: *cruel heat, a sorrowful bush, a sullen sky,* etc. **Proper names** often become **common nouns** as a result of metaphoric shifts: *Vandals* "the Germanic tribe that sacked Rome in 455" > *vandals* "destructive people".

Simile which is closely related to metaphor is a comparison of two referents. Contextual poetic similes (comparative constructions) make up one of the subjects of stylistics. Lexicology deals with two main types of linguistic similes: 1) stable idiomatic similes, for instance, as *merry as a cricket, as thin as a pole, like a bolt from the blue*, 2) comparative nominals. Collocations with comparative nominals are easily transformed into comparative constructions: *the catlike creature > the creature is like a cat.*

Special attention should be paid to **spacial metaphor**, which is a transfer from the sphere SPACE to some other sphere: SPACE / DIMENTION > TIME (*long time, a short night*), SPACE > ABSTRACTION (*de-* "down, away" in *despair* "lack/absence of hope", *extra-* "outside" in *extraordinary* "beyond the ordinary").

Transfer of sensation / synaesthesia takes place between two perceptual modalities or between two different aspects of one sensational modality. Hence, there are various patterns of synaesthesia. **Crossmodal / intermodal** transfers are based on coordination of information from different senses into a whole (AUDIO > VISUAL). In **intramodal** transfers, one submodality induces another: $VISUAL_1$ > $VISUAL_2$ (Table 6).

As is clear, metaphors are grounded on similarities between entities interpreted / mapped typically across different cognitive domains or within a single one because of "conceptual unity of domain" (Croft 2002: 161).

Other types of metaphoric shifts include the following: CONCRETE > ABSTRACT (*to catch the ball > to catch an idea*), ABSTRACT > CONCRETE (*X is the hope of the family*), SUBJECTIVE > OBJECTIVE (*pitiful* (1300) "merciful, compassionate" > (mid 15^{th} c.) "exciting or deserving pity").

Table 6 Lexical representations of synaesthesia

INCENTIVE / SOURCE		COSENSATION / TARGET		EXAMPLE
AUDIO	>	VISUAL		*loud colours*
VISUAL	>	AUDIO		*deep voice, frozen silence*
GUSTATORY	>	AUDIO		*sweet voice*
TACTILE	>	AUDIO		*harsh sound, silky voice*
TACTILE	>	GUSTATORY		*sharp taste*
TACTILE	>	OLFACTORY		*sharp smell*
GUSTATORY	>	OLFACTORY		*sweet aroma*
VISUAL (space, dimension)		VISUAL (colour)		*deep blue*
VISUAL (gravity)	>	VISUAL (shape)		*heavy line* "broad or coarse"

Linguistic metonymy is associating two referents which are in some way or other connected in reality. According to cognitive linguists (Lakoff & Turner 1989: 103), metonymic mapping occurs within a single domain which has a complex structure.

The simplest case of metonymy is **synecdoche**, i.e. the name of a part is applied to the whole (*pars pro toto*) or vice versa (*totum pro parte*), e.g. *a fleet of twenty **sail*** **(**the name of the part *sail* is used for the whole 'ship'); *to earn one's **bread*** (the name of the whole is applied to mean the part. In metonymic epithets certain properties of the whole are ascribed to the part, e.g. *clever fingers* "i.e. the person"; *threatening eyes* "i.e. the person", etc.

Other examples of metonymy include: the symbol for the thing signified *(from the cradle to the grave);* the instrument for the agent; the container for the thing contained *(the kettle is boiling);* the material for the thing made (*a copper, a glass*); the name of a scientist for physical units, inventions, etc.; the geographical name for the things produced there, and many other transfers.

Metonymy and metaphor should be treated as cognitive processes in which one conceptual entity, the vehicle, provides mental access to another conceptual entity, the target, between domains or within the same conceptual domain. That explains why metonymy can interact with metaphor. L. Goossens distinguishes between "pure metonyms" and "mixed cases", or **metaphtonymies** (e.g. the expression *she giggled* may be interpreted either metonymically as 'to say while giggling' ['giggle' instead of 'say' + 'giggle'] or metaphorically as 'as if giggling') (Gossens 2002: 356). There are **integrated metaphtonymies** when metonymy and metaphor are combined and **culminative metaphtonymyies** (ibid.: 369) when a metaphor is derived from metonymy or metonymy is derived from metaphor.

For instance, an integrated metaphtonymy is found in *to bite off one's tongue*. This informal expression is metonymic in the sense that *tongue* is interpreted as a part of *speech faculty* as a whole. At the same time, it is metaphoric in the sense 'be sorry for what one just said" (ibid.: 363-364).

Original metonymy (source) may derive metaphor (target), e.g. *to beat one's breast* "to be angry or very distressed" (Ruiz de Mendoza & Galera-Masegosa 2011: 11): METONYMY 'smb. openly shows their sadness and distress by beating their breast' > METAPHOR 'smb. shows their sorrow and distress ostensibly'. Conversely, original metaphor (source) may derive metonymy (target), e.g. *to knit one's brow(s)* "to think deeply or carefully about smth." (ibid.: 12): METAPHOR 'to knit brows = to wear an expression on one's face with one's eyebrows close together' > METONYMY 'to think about smth. with a serious expression.

To sum up, meanings change in many different ways and for numerous reasons which often interplay in the history of a language. Put simply, meaning shift is the manifestation of the natural tendency towards language variation. The most important stimulus is language optimization, i.e. its adaptability and adequacy for the communicative needs of speakers.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Comment on semantics as a branch of linguistics. What is the subject matter of semantics?
2. How could you account the structure of meaning?
3. What types of motivation are relevant for the discussion of lexical meaning?
4. Do words have meanings outside contexts?
5. What is the difference between nominative and connotational meanings?
6. How do words develop their meanings?
7. How can one distinguish between metaphoric and metonymic shifts?
8. What is the shift to the opposite?
9. What are the most productive types of metaphoric extension in English?
10. What are the most productive types of metonymic extension in English?

SEMANTIC GROUPS OF ENGLISH WORDS

OBJECTIVES

The topic introduces English vocabulary as a system and deals with semantic groupings of words.

YOU WILL STUDY

– semantic similarity, types of synonyms and the dominant member of the synonymic group;
– semantic contrast and types of antonyms;
– semantic incompatibility and types of homonyms;
– difference between lexical variants, synonyms, and paronyms.

OUTLINE

1. Synonymy: dominant members, absolute and partial synonymy.
2. Antonymy. Root and affixal antonyms.
3. Homonymy. Types and sources of homonyms.

RECOMMENDED READING

Ilienko O. L., Kamienieva I. A., Moshtagh Ye. S. English Lexicology : tutorial. Kharkiv : Publishing House I. Ivanchenka, 2020. P. 100-111.

FURTHER READING

Квеселевич Д. І., Сасіна В. П. Практикум з лексикології сучасної англійської мови. Навчальний посібник. Вінниця : Вид-во “Нова книга”, 2001. С. 67-82.

Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. С. 4-58.

INTERNET RESOURCES

Synonymy. *Glossary of Grammatical and Rhetorical Terms*. ThouhtCo. URL: https://www.thoughtco.com/synonymy-definition-1692019

What is antonymy? *Glossary of Grammatical and Rhetorical Terms*. ThoughtCo. URL: https://www.thoughtco.com/what-is-antonymy-1688992

KEY TERMS

absolute antonyms, absolute homonyms, absolute synonyms, affixal/ derivational antonyms, antonym, collocability, distribution, disintegration (split) of polysemy, dysphemism, etymological homonyms, euphemism, grammatical homonyms, homoforms, homographs, homonym, homophones, hyponym, ideographic synonyms,

lexical homonyms, lexical variant, paronyms, partial homonyms, root antonyms, stylistic synonyms, synonymic dominant, taboo, valency.

This lecture addresses the issues of correlation between expression and content. This goes in several cases:

- identical meanings based on the **relation of similarity** (synonymy);
- difference of meanings based on the **relations of direct opposition** (antonymy);
- difference in meaning based on the **relations of disintegration and incompatibility** (homonymy);
- related meanings based on the **relations of inclusion** (semantic field; hyponymy).

Synonyms are words belonging to the same part of speech, differing in sound form, and possessing one or more nearly identical (similar) denotational meanings. Synonyms that contain similar stems or affixes (*luxuriant* and *luxurious*, *economic* and *economical*) are not interchangeable under any conditions. For instance, although both *luxurious* and *luxuriant* mean "characterized by luxury", *luxuriant* implies 'abundance' whereas *luxurious* appeals to human luxury. Cf.: *luxuriant plants, ~forest, ~hair* (i.e. 'abundant, thickly strong'), *~carpet*, *~style of writing* (i.e. 'pleasantly thick or full') vs *luxurious house*, *~weekend* (i.e. 'very comfortable and expensive), *~stretch of a cat* (i.e. 'giving great pleasure').

There are **ideographic** synonyms which differ in shades of meaning (*quick* "happening or done with great speed" - *rapid* "fast or sudden" - *swift* "happen or move quickly, esp. in a smooth and easy way") and **stylistic** synonyms which differ in stylistic characteristics, e.g. *to eat* (neutral) - *to partake* (old-fashioned or humorous) - *to wolf* (informal). In many cases the synonymic group includes both ideographic and stylistic synonyms, e.g. *to begin, to start* (neutral) - *to commence*, *to initiate* (bookish).

Among stylistic synonyms, more "decent" synonymic substitutes, or **euphemisms**, are used instead of indecent, impolite or too direct words. They may have various causes: superstition (*devil - deuce, dickens*), social and moral taboos (*to copulate - to make love, make it*), the need to express something in a more delicate, softened way (*to die - to decease, drunk - mellow, stupid - unwise, to lie - to distort the facts*).

Ideographic and stylistic synonyms reveal how far is their interchangeability. If the semantic difference is predominantly objective, there is always some overlap in meanings (*wide* and *broad*). On the other hand, however close the words are in their objective meanings, the difference in style or register (emotive meaning) may prohibit interchangeability of synonyms (Cf.: *avaricious* (formal) "extremely willing to keep money or possessions" and *stingy* (informal, disapproving) "unwilling to spend money").

Absolute synonyms, which are quite alike in their meanings and stylistic colouring, are very rare. Absolute synonyms arise around a new invention and may persist for indefinite time until they are sorted out (*compounding – composition*, *fricative – spirant*). In ordinary language, one can occasionally find such 'integral' synonyms (Ullman 1979) that are for many purposes interchangeable. For instance, *almost* and *nearly* are used to refer to the progress of things, especially if we measure and count them (*almost / nearly all my friends, ~ 10 o'clock*) and with extreme adjectives (*almost / nearly perfect*, *~frozen, ~impossible)*. In spite of that there are differences: *almost* not *nearly* is used to soften the statements (*I almost wish I hadn't offered to pay*) and before *any* and negative words *none, never, nobody, nothing* (*almost any building*, *almost no confidence*, *she almost never rises*…).

Each group of synonyms comprises a **synonymic dominant**, i.e. the unit possessing the most general meaning of the kind: *to* ***shine*** *- to flash - to blaze - to gleam - to glisten - to sparkle - to glitter - to shimmer – to glimmer*.

Synonyms should not be confused with **lexical variants**. As variation is an intrinsic feature of human language, lexical variants are optional and stimulated by regional, individual, etc. usage of vocabulary. Such lexical variants as *northwards / northward, whatever / whatsoever* are not contextually conditioned and show similarity in form, meaning and distribution.

There are a variety of sources from which synonyms are assembled:

- borrowings from other languages or dialects that cross with native words (AusE *sheila* [probably from Irish proper name *Sheila*] – *girl*; *finish* v. (late 14th c. from OFr. *finiss-* – *end* v. from OE. *ende* "end; conclusion; boundary; district; species; class");
- obsolete names synonymous with actively used ones (AusE *gay house* (obsolete) - *brothel*);
- words with figurative and direct meanings (AusE *ratty – mad*);
- euphemistic substitutions and vulgarisms or other taboos (AmE *bushwa – bullshit*; *posterior – buttocks*; *elevated – drunk*; AmE *jeepers* (interj.) – *Jesus*; *big-boned – stout*).

Synonyms with similar stems (*historic*, *historical*; *conscious*, *conscientious*) are often confused with **paronyms**. Paronyms are accidentally kindred (***historical*** (early 15th c.) < L. *Historicus* < Gr. *historikos* < Gr. *histor* "wise man, judge" < PIE **weid-* "to see" and ***hysterical*** (1610s) < L. *hystericus* < Gr. *hysterikos* "suffering in the womb" < Gr. *hysteria* "womb"), or show resemblance caused by their common origin (*to affect* "to influence" – *to effect* "to produce" < L. *facere* "to make, do" < PIE **dhe-* "to set, put"). It is important that paronyms are words with similar but not identical phonemic representations. As to the type of formal similarity (Bolshakov (2005 : 806), paronyms may differ in their spelling (*h**i**storical* /hɪˈstɒr.ɪ.kəl/ and *h**y**sterical* /hɪˈster.ɪ.kəl/), acoustic features (*ingen**i**ous* /ɪnˈdʒ**i**ː.n**i**.əs/ "skillful, intelligent" and

*ingen**u**ous* /ɪnˈdʒ**e**n.j**u**.əs/ “honest, sincere, trusting”), or sets of morphemes (***re**prehend* “to express strong official disapproval” and ***com**prehend* “to understand completely”; *super**cilious*** /ˌsuː.pəˈsɪl.i.əs/ “behaving as if you are better than other people” and *super**ficial*** /ˌsuː.pəˈfɪʃ.əl/ “not serious”).

Being different in meaning and usage, paronyms show only partial similarity of morphemic structure and they just resemble each other. But they are, no doubt, different words, which are often erroneously or punningly used in speech. It is the mechanical likeness of the words that evokes their mutual attraction for stylistic effects:

“And how many hours a day did you do lessons?” said Alice, in a hurry to change the subject.

“Ten hours the first day,” said the Mock Turtle; “nine the next, and so on”.

“What a curious plan!” exclaimed Alice.

*“That’s the reason they’re called **lesson**s,” the Gryphon remarked: “because they **lessen** from day to day.”* (Carrol 1981 :74).

Words that have directly opposite meanings are called **antonyms**.

Antonyms fall into two main groups: **absolute**, or **root,** antonyms in which semantic opposition is expressed by different roots (*long - short, quickly – slowly*) and **derivational**, or **affixal,** antonyms whose contrast in meanings is achieved by special affixes or their absence (*fault**y** - fault**less**, appear – **dis**appear*). Discussing derivational antonyms, one should keep in mind that:

- antonymy achieved my means of the suffixes *-ful* and *-less* is not very productive, and many pairs of antonyms appeal to other affixation means (cf. *hope**ful** – hope**less***, but *success**ful** – **un**success**ful**, sel**fish** – sel**fless***);

- employment of negative affixes to the same stems does not necessarily bring to antonymy; cf. antonyms *to fasten – to **un**fasten* and other pairs of words with different but not antonymic meanings, such as *to man* “1. to supply with people (as for service); 2. to accustom (a bird, such as a hawk) to humans and the human environment; 3. to furnish with strength or powers of resistance” – *to **un**man* “to deprive of manly vigor, fortitude, or spirit”; *to appoint* “to choose someone officially for a job or responsibility” – *to **dis**appoint* “to fail to satisfy smb. in their hopes or wishes, or make smb. feel unhappy”).

Root antonyms express **contrary** / **graded** notions and may include intermediary units expressing continuity of quality between polar members (*hot – warm – cool – cold*). The most distant members of the group (*hot – cold*) will be absolute antonyms. Derivational antonyms express **contradictory** / **relational** notions that are inconsistent and denying each other. Thus, contradictory antonyms are involved into privative binary oppositions: *literate – illiterate*. However, do not assume that there are identical morphological patterns presuppose identical semantic relations. Cf.: *advantage –*

dis*advantage* and *appointment* which is not antonymous with *disappointment*.

It is important to mention some features of antonyms.

(a) They normally appear as pairs (*right – left*) and rarely include more words (*alive, undead – dead*; *wide, broad – narrow*).

(b) They belong to the same part of speech (*clever* adj. – *stupid* adj.) and are identical in style (*mom* and *dad* - *Be sure to tell your* **mom** *and* ***dad*** *that you'll be home late for supper*).

(c) Antonyms are identical in **distribution**, i.e. the range of positions in which they can occur because syntagmatic relations are regulated and restricted by the grammar rules, norms of combinability, and by logic or common sense as well. For instance, ADJ. + *ADVANTAGE / DISADVANTAGE* (*a big advantage / disadvantage*, *great ~*, *absolute ~*, *unfair ~*; V. + *ADVANTAGE / DISADVANTAGE* (*to have an advantage, to get ~, to gain ~, to bring ~* - *to cause a disadvanta*ge, *to place ~*, *to put ~*, *to add ~*).

(d) They are sometimes identical in lexical and grammatical valency. **Valency** is understood as a potential of a lexical unit to establish relations with other words.

Lexical valency is realized the aptness of words to appear in various collocations / combinations with other words. For instance, ***light*** and ***heavy*** in *light bag – heavy bag*, *light rain – heavy rain*, *light fog – heavy fog*, *light jacket – heavy jacket*, *light meal – heavy meal*, *light traffic – heavy traffic*, *light blow – heavy blow*.

Grammatical valency is found in the aptness of words to appear in specific grammatical (or rather syntactic) structures. Some antonyms show similarity in grammatical valency (*BE* + ADJ. + INF. - *to be eager / willing* ***to do*** *– to be* ***un****eager /* ***un****willing* ***to do***). Others vary in the structures they are incorporated into: V. + (PREP.) + N. - *to* ***ask*** *a question – to* ***respond to*** *a question*.

(e) Antonyms are sometimes identical in **semantic collocability**. In contrast to valency, it is an actual use of words in particular word-groups in communication. Grounded in the presence of common semes and the absence of contradictory semantic features in the combining words, semantic collocability of antonyms (and other types of words) depends on the type of the denotata of words and reflects the associative connections established between objects, properties or events in reality. Difference in semantic collocability of antonyms can be exemplified by *light* ("tender and momentary") *touch – heavy blow* instead of **heavy touch* because *touch* implies semes 'small amount', 'slight movement', 'insufficiency', 'weak influence' which are contradictory to 'a lot of weight', 'great force, amount, degree', 'thick, strong, solid, powerful' implied by 'heavy'.

(f) Antonyms regularly and frequently co-occur: *What are the* ***advantages*** *and* ***disadvantages*** *of outsourcing?*

Considering logic relations, or entailment, between notions, L. Lipka (Lipka

2002: 163–165) distinguishes various types of **oppositeness**, making **antonymy** a distinct subclass in addition to **complementarity** and **converseness**.

Complementarity is based on the logical implication combined with denial (*John is **married*** implies *John is **not single***, but *John is **not married*** implies *John is **single***) and is a special case of incompatibility effecting pairs of non-gradable (Jackson & Amvela 2007: 117) or non-qualifiable words, such as *go* v .– *stay* v. , *gather* v. – *scatter* v., *float* v. – *sink* v.; *male* n. – *female* n., *joy* n. – *sadness*, *sleep* n. – *insomnia* n., *sloth* n. – *diligence* n.; *clean* adj. – *dirty* adj., *true* adj. – *false* adj., *pure* adj.– *impure* adj., *singular* adj. – *plural* adj.; prep. *on* – prep. *off*.

For pairs of antonyms (*big - small*, *high- low*, *good – bad*) the assertion containing the first member implies the negation of the second member, but not vice versa: *John is good* entails that *John is not bad*. However, *John is not good* does not necessarily imply that *John is bad*. As is clear, antonymous adjectives behave like comparatives and are always gradable.

Converseness reveals the mirror-image relations, or functions, in which the order of the arguments is reversed. That is not confined to a particular word class: *husband* n. – *wife* n., *teacher* n. – *pupil* n., *trainer* n. – *trainee* n.; *precede* v. – *follow* v., *sell* v. – *buy* v., *send* v. – *receive* v., *own* v. – *belong to* v., *speak* v. – *listen* v.; *before* adv., conj., prep. – *after* adv., conj., prep. In permutation, the arguments imply each other and therefore have the same meaning. Instances of $NP_1 + NP_2 = NP_2 + NP_1$ are found in such cases as:

- comparative relations – *A mountain* (NP_1) *is **higher** than a hill* (NP_2) implies *A hill* (NP_2) *is **lower** than a mountain* (NP_1);
- locative relations - *There is a mirror* (NP_1) ***above** the sink* (NP_2) mirrors *There is a sink* (NP_2) ***below** the mirror* (NP_1);
- two-place predication – *The dinner* (NP_1) ***followed** the meeting* (NP_2) is equivalent to its passivization in *The meeting* (NP_2) *was **preceded** by the dinner* (NP_1);
- three-place predication – *John* (NP_1) ***bought** the car* (NP_3) *from Bill* (NP_2) is similar to *Bill* (NP_2) ***sold** the car* (NP_3) *to John* (NP_1), although different theme-rheme structure is assigned to the sentences.

Common groups of converse pairs include terms of kinship (*husband of – wife of*), social roles (*an employer of – an employee of*), directional opposites (see examples below) (Kreidler 2014: 71). However, converse pairs do not necessarily demonstrate converse opposition in all contexts. Cf. the usage of *child* and *children*, as they are discussed by L. Lipka (Lipka 2002: 165):

(a) *She was a child, when her parents died*.;

(b) *All their children are now grown up*.

Only in sentence (b) the word *children* is used in its relational sense (‘sons or daughters of any age’) and only this lexical unit is an instance of converseness (together

with *parents*) because it does not contain the feature [-adult] unlike *child* in sentence (a), in the meaning of which "a boy or a girl from the time of birth until she is an adult" the feature [-adult] is present.

Complementaries, antonyms and converses, united under the term 'antonyms', embrace lexical units that occur in pairs, hence interpreted as **binary contrasts**, or **two-member lexical fields**. This type of oppositeness is refined by the following subclasses: **directional** opposition (*up – down*, *before – after*, *right of – left of*, *inside – outside*, *in front of - behind*); **consequence** opposition (*learn – know*); **antipodal** opposition (*North – South*, *East – West*), **motion** in different directions (*come – go*, *arrive – depart*). Entailment, or logical basis, loses its importance in oppositions other than complementarity, antonymy, and converseness.

A further group is represented by **non-binary contrasts** including **scales** (*hot – warm – tepid – cool- cold*), **colours** (*black – grey – white*), **ranks** (*marshal – general – colonel – major – captain – private*), **cycles** with no outermost members (*winter – spring – summer – autumn*), **gradable** examination **marks** with **inner and outer pairs** of antonyms (*excellent – good – average – fair – poor*). Non-binary adjectives can be easily modified (Kreidler 2014: 69), and then language goes against logics because, for instance, there is no precise distinction location of (*very) clean* and (*very / slightly*) *dirty*. An animate entity can be either dead or alive while in language there are possibilities for *dead, quite dead – alive*, *very much alive*. We may disagree on the precise location of *open* and *closed* about the ajar door. Such modifications as *very young*, *rather old*, *quite wide*, *extremely narrow*, *hardly asleep* prove the non-binary character of the adjectives.

Words identical in form but quite different in their meaning and distribution are called **homonyms**. The traditional **formal classification** of homonyms includes absolute and partial homonyms.

Absolute homonyms are identical both in sound and spelling (*ball* "a toy" vs *ball* "a dancing event, party"; *bore* v. "to make a hole in smth." vs *bore* n. "smb. who talks a lot about boring subjects"). **Partial** homonyms are subdivided into homographs and homophones. **Homographs** which are identical in spelling but different in sound (*lead* /led/ "Pb, a chemical element that is very heavy, soft, dark grey, used for protection from radiation" vs *lead* /li:d/ "to control a group of people"; *polish* /ˈpɒl.ɪʃ/ v. "to rub smth. using a piece of cloth or a brush to clean it or make it shine" vs *Polish* /ˈpəʊ.lɪʃ/ n. "the language of Poland"). **Homophones** are identical in sound but different in spelling (*key* /ki:/ n. "a piece of metal cut into a special shape to be used for opening or closing a lock, etc." vs *quay* /ki:/ n. 'a long structure, where boats can be tied up to take on and off their goods").

By **the type of their meaning,** homonyms may be classified as lexical and grammatical homonyms, and homoforms.

Lexical homonyms belong to the same part of speech (*light* /laɪt/ **adj.** "not weighing a lot" vs *light* /laɪt/ **adj.** "bright"). **Grammatical** homonyms belong to different parts of speech, e.g. *light* /laɪt/ **adj.** "not weighing a lot" vs *light* **n.** /laɪt/ "the brightness that comes from the sun, fire, lamp, or bulb"). **Homoforms** are identical only in some of their paradigm constituents (*seize* v."to take smth. quickly and keep or hold it" vs *(he) sees*, which is Pr. Ind., 3d p. sing, of *see* v. /si:/ "be conscious of what is around you by using your eyes"; *whose* /hu:z/ vs *who's* /hu:z/, which is a contracted form of *who is*, *who was*, *who has*).

As to their **origin**, homonyms are subdivided into etymological and historical. **Etymological homonyms** are words with identical forms but different origins. They acquire similarity due to historical changes (*right* and *write*, *arms* and *alms* see below). **Historical homonyms** do not show any connection between their meanings at present, though the words can be traced back to the same etymological source. For instance, PIE **(o)nogh* "nail" > PGmc. *naglaz* > OE *negel* "metal pin" and OE *nægl* "fingernail (*handnægl),* toenail" > E. *nail*$_1$ n. "a thin, hard are that covers the upper side of the end of each finger and each toe"; *nail*$_2$ n. "a small, thin piece of metal with one pointed end and one flat end that you hit into smth. with a hammer in order to fasten or join it to smth. else" (cf. the examples of the split of polysemy, see below).

Homonymy is developed for different reasons. The main sources of homonymy include phonetic changes, borrowing, word-building processes, and the split of polysemy.

Due to **phonetic changes** that took place in the history of English, the words OE. *writan* "to score, outline, draw the figure of" < PGmc. **writan* "to scratch" and OE. *riht* "just, good, fair; proper; straight, not bent, direct, erect" < PGmc. **rehtan* < PIE **dek-* developed similarity in form. Thus, convergent processes resulted in the loss of original distinction between *write* v. /raɪt/ and *right* adj. /raɪt/ in Modern English.

Words of different origin become **etymological** homonyms when their formal coincidence is the result of various factors such as phonetical **changes in native and borrowed** words, changes in spelling, etc. For instance: the borrowing *arms* /ɑ:mz/ pl. n. "weapons and explosives used in fighting wars" < (*c* 1300) *armes* "weapons of a warrior" < OFr. *armes* "arms, weapons; war" (11th c.) < L. arma "weapons", lit. "tools, implements (of war)" < PIE **ar(ə)mo-* < PIE **ar-* "to fit together", hence the notion of *arms* is obviously 'that which is fitted together' vs the native word *alms* /ɑ:mz/ n. "charitable relief of the poor" < OE *ælmesse* "almsgiving, act of relieving the needy" < PGmc. **alemosna*.

Other cases of etymological homonymy occur because of chance similarity between borrowings from different sources or borrowings and existing words. Consider a few examples from Australian English. Coincidental similarity of forms is found in complete homonyms such as *wurley* /ˈwɜli/ (1839) n. "the temporary shelter

of an Aboriginal" borrowed from Gaurna, one of the autochthonous languages of Australia, and *wurley* /ˈwɜli/ n., a variant spelling of *whirly* (1894) n. "a whirlwind", an Australian coinage on the basis of transported *whirlwind*. The word *whirlwind*, probably formed on model of ON. *hvirfilvindr*, has been used in English since mid-14th c.

Numerous homonyms appeared as Aboriginal adaptations in Australian English: *womma*$_1$ /ˈwɒmə/ n. "honey ant" from Yankunytjatjara *wama* and *womma*$_2$ /ˈwɒmə/ n. "the python *Aspidites ramsayi* of arid Australia" from Diyari *wama*.

Homonymy is also produced as a result of **word-formation processes**:

- conversion (*pale*$_1$ /peıl/ adj. "of light colour, not bright or strong" > *pale*$_2$ /peıl/ v. "about a person's face: to lose its usual colour");

- shortening (AusE *Wirra*$_3$ /ˈwırə/ n. "abbrev. of *Wirraway*, the name of an Australian modification of the North American NA/6 military aircraft" vs AusE *wirra*$_1$ /ˈwırə/ n. "a shallow wooden scoop used by Aborigines as a container" from Western Desert language *wirra* vs the homophone *wirrah* /ˈwırə/ n. "either of two marine fish of rocky reefs of south-eastern Australia" borrowed from a New South Wales Aboriginal language; other examples include *rep*$_1$ n. "a kind of fabric usually made of silk, wool, or cotton" vs informal shortenings such as *rep*$_2$ n. < *reputation*, *rep*$_3$ n. < *sales representative*, *rep*$_4$ n. < *repertoire*, *Rep.*$_5$ n. < *Republican*);

- sound imitation (*mew*$_1$ /mju:/ n. "the soft crying sound that a cat makes" vs *mew*$_2$ n. "a seagull", *mew*$_3$ n. "a pen in which poultry is fattened", *mew*$_4$ n. "small terraced houses in central London").

Apart from conversion, all the above described cases have one feature in common: homonyms developed from two or more words and their similarity is accidental.

An important source of homonyms is the **disintegration (split) of polysemy**. Semantic changes and the loss of an integrating LSV in the semantic structure of a word stimulate divergence of an initially integral lexical unit. In spite of that, associative ties between the meanings of the newly formed words may remain very strong. That is why such cases are not always registered by dictionaries, even historically oriented ones.

The split of polysemy can be exemplified by the semantic structure development of the word *board*, where disintegration was due to the archaization of one of the LSVs. Sense 2 "table" is seldom used in Modern English as it was ousted by the word *table* borrowed from French in the late 12th c.

board n. **1.** "a long thin piece of timber" (OE. *bord*) >

2. (**late OE.) "a piece of furniture, table"** >

3. (early 14th c.) "food";

4. (1570s) "table where council is held";

5. (1610) "leadership council; persons having some management of some public or

private concern".

Another example is the word *key*, which "developed many different senses not really predictably related" (Meyer 2005: 150). According to P.G. Meyer (ibid.), there is a close relationship between senses 1 and 4, as well as between 10 and 14. Cf. instrumental semes in 1. 'instrument cut to fit' and 4. 'a means of success', and 'operating' semes in 10. 'pressed in operating' and 14. 'sets in a motion'. Although associative ties between 1 and 4 ('instrument') on the one hand and 10 and 14 ('operator') on the other hand are rather obscure:

key n. **1.** "a small metal instrument specially cut to fit into a lock and move its bolt" (OE. *cæg*);

4. "smth. that affords a means of access";

10. (since 1876) "one of a set of marked parts, designated areas, or levers pressed in operating a typewriter, computer terminal, calculator, etc.";

14. "(in a keyboard instrument) one of the levers that when depressed by the performer sets in a motion the playing mechanism".

These cases are not uncommon. Semantic extensions often lead to the establishment of homonyms. The original adjective *gay*$_1$ "happy" is semantically distant from the derived noun *gay*$_2$ "a person sexually attracted to people of the same sex, a homosexual". The lexical distinction between these words developed as a metaphoric and euphemistic extension on the original adjectival stem.

It is noteworthy that homonymy itself can be a source of language change. For instance, the word *cock* is still used in Britain to refer to "an adult male chicken" while it has died out in American English, that gives preference to *rooster*, and is very rare in Australian English because of the homonymy between *cock*$_1$ and tabooed *cock*$_2$ (offensive) "a penis" which developed as a metaphtonymic and euphemistic extension of *cock*$_1$ in the 1610s ('male fowl or bull' > 'fertilizer' > 'men, boys (as the sex that fertilizes)' > 'the part of male's body').

In somewhat different fashion, the Biblical *coney* "rabbit" (*c* 1200 *cony*) dropped out of English in the 19th c. because of the taboo homonym meaning "cunt" (Allan 2014: 153) picked up by the British slang as a punning synonym for *cunny* "cunt".

Homonymy should not be confounded with enantiosemy (see Lecture 4) or irony. The latter requires modifications in speech and must be pronounced with the appropriate prosody that help disambiguate implied meaning not explicit in linguistic surface structure. For instance, Ironic utterances are pronounced significantly slower than non-ironic ones (Bryant 2010). Enantiosemy appeals to denotational (specified in dictionary definitions) or connotational (given as evaluative labels) oppositeness: *precious* "1. valuable; **expensive**; 2. behaving in a very formal and unnatural way by giving **too much** attention to details (**disapproving)**".

Lexical units may be classified according to the concepts underlying their

meaning. Sectors of vocabulary which comprise words characterized by a common concept as the common denominator of their meaning are called **semantic (conceptual) fields**. For example, the words *enjoyment, gaiety, happiness, joy, passion, sorrow*, etc. belong to the semantic field of EMOTIONS. This field includes not only nouns, but also verbs (*to love, to hate, to enjoy*, etc.), such adjectives as *merry, sorrowful, passionate*, etc.

Relationship of inclusion are paradigmatic and hierarchical, i.e. require **superordinate**, **ordinate**, and **subordinate** terms to encode generality and specificity. They include hyponymy, partitivity, and conglomeration.

In **hyponymy** the meanings of the names of species (**hyponyms**, or subordinate terms) such as *bluebell, daisy, forget-me-not, rose, tulip*, etc. are included in the meaning of *flower* which functions as the generic term (**hyperonym**, or superordinate term). Obviously, hyponymy appeals to classifications of natural phenomena (animals, plants), but it is also found in the taxonomies of human artifacts: *container* > *pot*, *barrel* (*barrel*, *cask*, *keg*), *bag* (*sack*, *pouch*, *purse*), etc. (Jackson & Amvela 2007: 119).

It is important that a hyperonym entails the truth about a hyponym in the same proposition while a hyponym does not entail the truth about a hyperonym. Cf.:

All/ many/ some/ few ***dogs*** *chase cats* > *All/ many/ some/ few collies chase cats;*

All/ many/ some/ few ***collies*** *chase cats* ⊁ *All/ many/ some/ few dogs chase cats* (Kreidler 2014: 74).

Another type of inclusivity is **partitivity** found in **holonyms** (superordinate terms, names of the whole) and **meronyms** (subordinate terms, names of the part). In contrast to hyperonyms, which are just more general references, holonyms refer to totalities. To make the distinction between two superordinate terms, consider the definition of *plant* : "a living thing that grows in earth, in water, or on other plants, usually has a stem, leaves, roots, and flowers, and produces seeds". The first part ("a living thing that grows in earth, in water, or on other plants") defines *plant* as a hyperonym while the second part of the definition ("has a stem, leaves, roots, and flowers, and produces seeds") represents it as a holonym embracing such meronyms as *stem*, *leaf*, *root*, *flower*, and *seed*.

Depending on the level of the hierarchy, a meronym or a hyponym may be interpreted as a more general term:

SUPERORDINATE	*plant* (hyperonym)	>	***flower*** (hyponym);
	flower (hyperonym)	>	*rose*, *tulip*, etc. (hyponyms);
↓			
	plant (holonym)	>	***flower*** (meronym);
SUBORDINATE	***flower*** (holonym)	>	*petal*, *stamen* (meronyms).

In the whole-to-part relationship expressed by *hand – finger – nail*, *face – eye*, meronyms are **canonical** (i.e. necessary) because a finger is still a part of a hand even if it is removed. In contrast, in *chair – cushion* pair, the meronym is **facilitative** (i.e. optional) as cushions do exist without chairs.

Obviously, partitivity relations are established for concrete notions as the structure of objects is easier to cognize: *fountain-pen* > *cap* (*cap itself*, *clipper*), *barrel*, *nip*. However, abstract notions are also involved. That is true about successions or cycles like *day* > *day* (*dawn*, *morning*, *afternoon*), *night* (*twilight*, *evening*, *night*) (Jackson & Amvela 2007: 120).

Hyponymy and partitivity are different from **conglomerative** inclusivity dealing with a mixed mass, group or collection of things. The superordinate term is then a name of a group and the subordinate terms are the names of its members: *pack* > *wolf* (< *a pack of wolves*), *school* > *fish* (< *a school of fish*), etc.

In conclusion, English words can be grouped in different ways and according to various principles. However, the boundaries of those semantic groupings are not sharply cut which proves the systemic character of the lexicon as a whole, its continual, non-linear nature. A relevant and efficient description of lexicon can be achieved through the understanding of the intricate interrelationships and interdependence of lexical items, but not through studying them as separate units.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Why is the context essential for distinguishing different types of semantic groups?
2. What role does the context play in differentiating homonyms?
3. What are the grounds to argue that absolute synonymy does not exist?
4. What are the most typical differences between synonyms?
5. What are the most typical differences between antonyms?
6. What are the most typical differences between homonyms?
7. What are the most typical differences between paronyms?
8. In what way is antonymy connected to synonymy?
9. What is the best way to delimitate synonyms?
10. Why is there no sharp definition between polysemy and homonymy?
11. Why are whole/part relations established for concrete notions rather than abstract ones?

SET EXPRESSIONS IN ENGLISH

OBJECTIVES

This topic introduces English phraseology, one of the most discussed fields in lexicology. It treats a colorful and expressive part of the English vocabulary, its features, types, ways of forming, and functions. It also asks what distinguishes set expressions from words and free word-groups, raising the issue of considerable confusion about the terminology applied to these units.

YOU WILL STUDY

– a range of terms used to refer to phraseological units;
– about structural stability and semantic indivisibility of phraseological units;
– a variety of criteria employed to classifying phraseological units.

OUTLINE

1. English phraseology. Characteristics of phraseological units.
2. Variations of idioms.
3. Types of English phraseologisms.
4. Semantic relations in phraseology.
5. Use of idioms.

RECOMMENDED READING

Ilienko O. L., Kamienieva I. A., Moshtagh Ye. S. English Lexicology : tutorial. Kharkiv : Publishing House I. Ivanchenka, 2020. P. 100-111.

FURTHER READING

Квеселевич Д. І., Сасіна В. П. Практикум з лексикології сучасної англійської мови: Навчальний посібник. Вінниця : Вид-во “Нова книга”, 2001. С.84-94.

Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. С. 271-286.

INTERNET RESOURCES

Style: Rhetoric and Composition. *Glossary of Grammatical and Rhetorical Terms*. ThoughtCo. URL: https://www.thoughtco.com/style-rhetoric-and-composition-1692148

KEY TERMS

functional types of phraseological units, fusion, half-fusion, half-unity, idiom, nominative phraseological unit, nominative-communicative phraseological unit, non-

separability (inseparability), phraseological expression, phraseological antonym, phraseological homonym, phraseological synonym, phraseological unit, phraseological variant, proverb, reproducibility, saying, separability, stable idiomatic simile, structural types of phraseological units

In modern linguistics there is a considerable confusion about the terminology associated with phraseologisms. The terms **phraseologism** and **phraseological unit** are widely used by Ukrainian scholars, whereas the term **idiom** is preferred by Western linguists. Other technical words and expressions are also used in relation to a diversity of stereotyped forms: *set-expressions, set phrases, fixed word-groups, frozen expressions, collocations*. The terms *set phrase*, or *set expression*, are applied to refer to groups of words standing in fixed associations. They include restricted collocations (*to run amok),* catchphrases (*Just do it*), idioms (*in one's shirt sleeves*), various types of aphoristic utterances, such as proverbs and sayings (*Least said, soonest mended*) or quotations (*Patriotism is a large refuge of a scoundrel*, Samuel Jonson).

Idioms function as single units as they are semantically and often syntactically restricted sequences of words. The two **main features of phraseological units** are **semantic unity** and **structural stability**. The third important characteristic attributed to idioms is their **frequency**.

Semantic and structural invariability, which makes idioms different from free phrases and words, may be explained by **non-compositionality**.

Although idioms are equivalent to words (*to rain cats and dogs = to pour*) or free phrases (*red tape = bureaucratic rules*), they are not separable into structural elements. Words are resolved into morphemes, and free phrases are separated into words, whereas idioms are only analyzable as polycomponential, but not separable into words. Unlike free phrases, idioms are more fixed in wording and in grammatical ways as they do not allow synonymic substitutions (cf.: *he gave up the ghost* "he died", **he gave up the **apparition*** or **he **released** the ghost*), or passivization (modification of active transitive verb into passive) in speech and writing - **the **ghost was given up** by the man*, or pronominalization (noun > pronoun) - *she will be green with **envy** when I tell her that I've bought myself a new car* and **she will be green with **it** when I tell her that I've bought myself a new car*). Idioms hardly permit grammatical transformations (**they gave up the ghost**s*).

Idioms are characterized by metaphorical rather that literal meanings which are not always easily retrievable from the meanings of separate words included into the structure: *to spill the beans* "to reveal a secret" maybe interpreted as consisting of the verb *to spill* "to reveal" (on the basis of 'unwillingly to cause something to move outside') and the noun *beans* whose semantic relation with 'secret' is not obvious. In contrast, the semantic relations between the components of *to play with fire* "to act in

a dangerous way, take risks" are quite analyzable.

It should be noted that idiomaticity is gradable and apart from "true" idioms, there is a marginal class of **semi-idioms**, also called **semi-fixed / semi-free words-groups**, **non-phraseological word-groups, regular / standardized combinations**, which are semantically motivated conventional word-groups (cf.: *to do one's duty*, *to make money*, *to commit suicide*, *to render a service*, *to offer an apology; acute pain, sharp mind*). A. P. Cowie (Cowie 1981) insists on the continuum between free phrases and pure idioms: *to blow a trumpet* (a free combination) > *to blow a fuse* (a restricted collocation) > *to blow your own trumpet* (a figurative idiom) > *to blow the gaff* (a pure idiom).

Structural stability may be questioned as some phraseologisms vary by means of addition or deletion (***(as)*** *sharp as a razor*, cf. ***as*** *green as grass*; *to give a* ***(good)*** *run for his money*), replacement (*to cut off without a* ***shilling / penny***, *to take the shine* ***off / out of***, *to* ***bow / bend*** *the knee*; ***a / the*** *rule of thumb* and ***by*** *rule of thumb*), positional shift (***days*** *and nights* and ***nights*** *and days*; ***backwards*** *and forwards* and ***forwards*** *and backwards*; ***fortune's*** *wheel* and ***wheel of*** *fortune*), shortening (***something of the*** *kind / sort* and ***of the*** *kind / sort*), dismembering the whole frequently occurring in speech (cf. *a* ***square peg*** *in a* ***round hole*** and "*you're* ***a*** very ***round peg*** *stuck in* ***the squarest hole*** *on earth*" (Block 2010, ch. 10). However, the freedom for such manipulations is not absolute and the regulating principle ensures recognizability, understanding and appreciation of an idiom.

Semantic variation is found in phraseological polysemy: *at home* "1. comfortable and happy; 2. ready and expecting to welcome visitors; 3. familiar with, accustomed to".

The origin and sources of phraseological units explain how they evolved or were borrowed due to LANGUAGE AND CULTURE CONTACTS (*a dog in the manger* from one of Aesop's stories about a dog who would not eat the hay kept for horses and yet would drive the horses away so they could not eat it; *to flutter the dovecotes* from Shakespeare's *Coriolanus*, Act 5, scene 6, *c*1608 – "Like an eagle in a dovecote, I / Fluttered your Volscians in Corioli"); ALLUSIONS TO MEMORABLE EVENTS, OUTSTANDING PEOPLE, CUSTOMS AND TRADITIONS (*to have an ax to grind* from a story told by *Benjamin Franklin* (1706-90), the American politician; *to hit the hay/sack* from the fact that beds were formerly filled with hay or made from the same material as sacks); LANGUAGE PLAY (*donkey's years* from a play on words, instead of *donkey's ears* which are very long). LINGUISTIC CHANGE is, among other things, an important factor of phraseology formation: *give a dog a bad name* from a shortening of *give a dog a bad name and hang him*.

As to **semantic relations** in phraseology, one can find synonyms (*to skate on thin ice – to play with fire*) and antonyms that differ in one component (*by* ***all*** *means – by*

no *means*) or in a set of components (*a night owl – an early bird*).

Phraseological units may be grouped together according to many principles. A particular idiom may belong to various groups (Table 7).

Table 7 Classification of idioms

CRITERION	TYPE	SUBTYPE	EXAMPLE(S)
structure	***'to give up'*** type		*to nose out; to buy into; to sandwich in*
	'to be tired' type		*to be interested in; to be fond of*
	prepositional-nominal		*on the doorstep; on the nose*
	comparative		*to fit like a glove; (as) weak as a kitten*
	sentence type	**declarative**	*Time and tide wait for no man.*
		interrogative	*Could leopard change its spots?*
		imperative	*First think, then speak.; Don't count your chickens before they are hatched!;*
		exclamatory	*That's more like it!;*
ways and means of formation	**phono-logical motiva-tion** and phonetic manipula-tion (≈ 19,71% in English; allitera-tion – 17,84%,	**prototypical alliteration**, i.e. repetition of the word-initial consonant (≈ 15,03% of English repertoire) (Boers, Stengers 2008 : 73)	***l****ife and* ***l****imb*; ***t****oss and* ***t****urn*; ***fir****st and* ***f****oremo****st***;
		non-prototypical alliteration, i.e. repetition of other consonants than the word-initial one	***o****ff the cu****ff****, a****ll*** *he****ll*** *is* ***l****et* ***l****oose; **l**et s**l**eep*; *fir***st** *and la***st***,

	assonance – 3,41%) (Boers, Stengers 2008 : 73)	**prototypical assonance**, i.e. complete rhyme (≈ 1,87% of English repertoire) (Boers, Stengers 2008 : 73)	*fly h**igh**;*
		non-prototypical assonance, i.e. incomplete rhyme	*j**u**mp the g**u**n; r**ou**gh and t**u**mble*
		combination of alliteration and assonance (≈ 1,5% of English repertoire) (Boers, Stengers 2008 : 72)	***ki**th and **ki**n; through thick and thin; wh**eel** and d**eal**;*
	lexical manipula-tion	**tautology** (also **reiteration** / **synonymic duplication)**	*safe and sound*, *by hook or by crook*, *hustle and bustle*;
		repetition	*day by day*, *such and such*;
		juxtaposition (coordination) of antonyms	*year in, year out; to and fro; up and down; sooner or later*;
		simile	*as graceful as a swan; Time flies like an arrow;*
		metaphor	*a dark horse; a snake in the grass; the salt of the earth;*
		personification	*Actions speak louder than words;*
		metonymy	*live by one's pen; from cradle to grave;*
		synecdoche	*two heads are better than one;*
		euphemism	*the call of nature; to powder one's nose.*
etymology	**native**		*Alice in Wonderland* "very strange, unreal, or unnatural";
	borrowed		*In vino veritas* "In wine there is truth" (L.);

theme	e.g. associated with sea, or including ‘marine’ element		*to be in low waters; to be all at sea; to be in the wrong boat; to be in the same boat*;
semantic (motivation)	**fusion** non-motivated word-group		*white elephant; to pull smb’s leg*
	half-fusion word group with leading literal component and idiomatically fused components		*to buy for a song; to rain cats and dogs*;
	unity metaphorically motivated		*to make a mountain of a molehill* “to exaggerate trifles”;
	half-unity binary word-group with one literal component		*husband’s tea*; *French leave*;
	phraseological collocation standardized phrases with limited valency		*to make friends, to do one’s hair*;
	phraseological expressions proverbs, sayings, quotations		*No pains, no gains;*
grammatical function (part of speech)	**nominal /substantive** functioning as nouns		*common ground; the power behind the throne;*
	adjectival functioning as adjectives		*at pains at a premium;*
	verbal function-ing as verbs	***phrasal verbs*** V + Prep and/or Particle	*look into; get away with;*
		verb phrases	*call it a day; give one’s head; make hay;*
	adverbial functioning as adverbs		*to the life; in color; in practice;*
	interjectional functioning as interjections		**More power to someone’s elbow!**
communicative function	**nominative** correlating with different parts of speech		*a white elephant;*
	communicative proverbs and sayings		*Practice makes perfect.*

	nominative-communicative can be transformed into sentences	*to break the ice – the ice is broken;*
	pragmatic: responsives	*My Lord! Bless you!*
style and register (relation, attitude, emotion of speakers)	**neutral** used in all situations	*to bring up short;*
	formal used in official letters, public speeches; indicate formal relationship between speakers	*to lift up one's heart;*
	not formal inappropriate in formal situations	*for a rainy day;*
	literary used in formal literature, poetry	*a land of milk and honey*;
	colloquial used in speech rather than in writing	*in the same boat*;
	slang used in the speech of a specific social, age, etc. group; often also impolite or taboo, and never used in formal situations	*stoned out of one's mind / head*; *to be (strictly) for the birds*;
	derogatory intended to insult or to show scorn for the person or thing referred	*mutton dressed (up) as lamb;*
	impolite intended to insult or offend people	*to shit bricks*;
	taboo must not be used in polite conversation; usually contain slang words referring to sex or excrements	*f*** all;*
	euphemistic mild or indirect reference to something regarded as unpleasant or taboo	*to (go to) meet one's maker*; *of a certain age*;
	humorous intended to make the hearer be mused or laugh	*as the actress said to the bishop;*

	pompous used by a foolishly self-important speaker	*to darken someone's door(s);*
	rhetorical used in public speeches; often sound grand and important	*to lend an / one's ear;*
	old-fashioned used by older people; sound somewhat out od date	*to make bricks without straw.*

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What expressions are called phraseologisms?
2. What are their features?
3. What criteria are applied to distinguish different types of idioms?
4. What are the stylistic functions of idioms?
5. Comment on the types of semantic relations in phraseology.

STYLISTIC DIFFERENTIATION OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

OBJECTIVES

This topic introduces functional differentiation of the English words.

YOU WILL STUDY

– about styles and registers;
– about neutral, literary and colloquial words.

OUTLINE

1. Stylistically neutral words.
2. Literary-bookish words.
3. Colloquial words.
4. Types of stylistic oppositions.

RECOMMENDED READING

Квеселевич Д. І., Сасіна В. П. Практикум з лексикології сучасної англійської мови*:* Навчальний посібник. Вінниця : Вид-во “Нова книга”, 2001. С. 95-107.

FURTHER READING

Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. С. 244-256.

INTERNET RESOURCES

Style: Rhetoric and Composition. *Glossary of Grammatical and Rhetorical Terms*. ThoughtCo. URL: https://www.thoughtco.com/style-rhetoric-and-composition-1692148

Lecture 2. Stylistic Lexicology. URL: https://pereklad.nmu.org.ua/ua/LECTURE%202.pdf

KEY TERMS

cant/ argot/ criminal lingo, ersatz word, exclusively colloquial layer, formal word, functional style/ lexico-stylistic layer,, informal word, jargon, learned word, lexical suppletion, literary-colloquial word, neutral word/ basic vocabulary, officialese, poetic/ lofty word, professional terminology/ term, register, slang, sub-standard / non-literary colloquial word, swear / invective word, obscene word, syntagmatic doublets, vulgarism

Functional style may be treated as a system of (lexical) expressive means peculiar to a specific sphere of communication. Recently the term **register** has become popular to describe the special word-choice appropriate to a given social situation or literary context.

The lexicological approach to functional style is often based on the principal of lexical **oppositions**. Types of stylistic oppositions cover binary privative and equipollent ones.

Binary **privative opposition** is asymmetric and established when the distinctive feature is present in one member and absent in the other. It is the feature that is said to mark the opposition. The **marked / strong/ positive member** is the one with the distinctive feature, for instance stylistically neutral layer vs stylistically marked layer as in *horse* (*it's a beautiful horse but it's a bit frisky*) – *steed* (literary) "a horse that is ridden" (*a fine white steed*), or in *native people* vs *autochthonous population* (formal diction).

A **gradual opposition** includes a contrastive group of members which are distinguished not by the presence / absence of some feature but by the degree of the same feature. Names for "mentally ill" appear in higher registers (literary, academic, technical - *neurotic, psychotic*), in central layer (general neutral words - *insane*, *disordered*, *mad*), in lower layers (informal, colloquial - *all there*, *bonkers*, *cracker*, *loony*, slang - *bananas*, *screwy*, *wacky*, *a sausage short of a fry-up*).

An e**quipollent opposition** is based on the same kind of criterion and hence symmetric. Its members differ according to the changes in the distinctive feature. For instance, formal and informal diction vocabulary layers include a contrastive group of members which are distinguished by different positive features. Cf.: elevated terms (*inebrated*, *intoxicated*) and low register disphemisms (*slammed*, *sloshed*, *smashed*, *slewed*, *stewed*, *screwed*) (Hughes 1989: 20).

The most important criterion distinguishes two groups of vocabulary: stylistically neutral and stylistically marked words.

Neutral / basic vocabulary is formed by the living core of the vocabulary. Those are mostly native words or fully assimilated borrowings devoid of emotive colouring and used in all kinds of situations (formal and informal). Neutral words cohere around numerous various concepts, reflecting their nuances: generalized terms denoting physical objects (*plant* n., *salt* n., *bunch* n.), abstract concepts (*politeness* n., *love* n.), qualities (*wet* adj., *juicy* adj.), actions and states (*walk* v., *be* v., *disapprove* v.) or relational words (*and* conj., *but* conj., *to* prep.). Neutral words may develop stylistically marked, specialized meanings: *mean* adj. "not willing to give or share smth., especially money; unkind or unpleasant; (informal) very good; (informal) poor, dirty and of bad quality"; *finger* n. "one of the five digits of the hand; (Mechanical Engineering) a projecting machine part, esp. one serving as an indicator, guide, or guard".

The difference between **formal** and **informal** words is found in their origin, function and structure. Formal usage tends to be formed by the Norman French, Latin, and Greek input whereas informal usage derives from the Anglo-Saxon and Norse sources. Functional distinctions can be demonstrated via alternatives: old and new, blunt and refined, literary and recherché (*whore* "courtesan" used by the barbarous – *punk* used by the Gentle in the 16th c.) vs slang (*corny* AE. "old-fashioned, sentimental") and demotic (Scottish or Irish *lass* "a girl") expressions.

Formal / literary-bookish words include generalised national vocabulary. They are neither limited socially nor geographically, nor restricted to formal situations. Formal words are used by public speakers, in lectures or books. They are usually elaborate words that appear in speeches prepared in advance.

Learned words are dry lexical items (*to compute* "to count") used in fiction, scientific texts, documents, etc. Sometimes they are used in colloquial speech with stylistic purposes and producing a humorous effect (*catastrophe*, *commensurable*, *susceptible*, *dialysis, approximate, feasible*, etc.).

This group of words includes a great number of adjectives with neutral noun correlates. Pairs of neutral and learned words are referred to as **suppletion**. The term is usually applied to the use of the word which is an inflected form of another. However, the members of the pair are not cognate. Suppletion implies that there is a gap in the paradigm to be filled by a form "supplied" by a different paradigm. For instance, there are no derived forms of the noun *lip* (< OE. *lippa* "lip, one of the two sides of the mouth") to form the adjective and fill the paradigmatic gap, i.e. the gap cannot be deduced by applying simple rules of forming adjectives. That is why the meanings "sounds made with two lips" and "relating to the lips" are supplied by the adjective *labial* (1590s) "pertaining to lips", borrowed from Medieval Latin *labialis* "having to do with the lips", from L. *labium* "lip".

The group of learned words is extended by **archaic connectives** associated with printed page (*hereby*, *hereupon*, herein, furthermore, etc.) and **scientific expressions** (*in terms of*, *as follows*). Apart from that, there are **officialese** and **journalese** items used in bureaucratic, business language: *dipatch* v. "to send off", *summon* v. "to send for" (T*wo loads of cloth were dispatched to the factory on 12 December.; On 20 July, the town council was summoned to hear an emergency report on its finances* (CD 2018)).

Literary / refined words (see the examples above) are found in descriptive passages of literature and associated with lofty contexts. They are by far fully assimilated polysyllables borrowed from the Romance languages: *sol•i•tude* (mid-14th c.) "the quality or state of being alone" (< OFr. *solitude* "loneliness" < L. *solitudinem* "a being alone; wilderness, lonely place desert"); *fas•ci•na•tion* "the state of feeling an intense interest in smth." (*c* 1600 "the act of bewitching" < L. *fascinare*" bewitch,

enchant").

Poetic / "lofty" / elevated words are high-flown, sometimes with archaic colouring. Poetic words contrast with other stylistic subgroups because they are traditionally used in poetry. It is worth mentioning that there is no particular poetic style in English. The idiom of every poet is determined by individual experience, social environment, atmosphere, and mood. Poetic diction can be instanced by an extract from the elegiac ballad *The Castaway* written by Willian Cowper in 1799. The use of the poetic word *brine* "salt water" adds to the atmosphere of the stormy sea, despair of the crewman who is washed overboard, and the horror of the shipmates as they watch him without being able to help:

Not long beneath the ′whelming brine,
Expert to swim, he lay;
Nor soon he felt his strength decline,
Or courage die away;
But waged with death a lasting strife,
Supported by despair of life. (Cowper 1835: 459-460).

Typical of the 18th c., poetic conventions started to decline in the early 19th c. Since then poetic words have become obsolete or rare. Nevertheless, many of them were revived to appear in dignified writing, e.g. *wroth* adj. < OE. *wrað* "angry" (lit. "tormented, twisted"):

Secretary: "The Dean is furious. He's waxing wroth."
Quincy Adams Wagstaf [Groucho]: "Is Roth out there too? Tell Roth to wax the Dean for a while." [*Horse Feathers*, 1932] (HOED 2001-2018).

Literary vocabulary also includes **professional terminology**, i.e words or word-groups employed by a particular branch of science.

Informal / colloquial words contrast with the formal layer. Used in one's immediate circle, they are typical for unpretentious, relaxed, free-and-easy style: *ad* "advertisement", *to center around* "to center on", *to hold on* "to wait", *kids* "children", etc. The colloquial layer comprises literary-colloquial, familiar colloquial, and low colloquial words.

Literary colloquial words are used by educated people in everyday conversations or in letters to friends: *granny, hi, chum* or *pal* "boy", *exam*.

Familiar/ exclusively colloquial layer (*to kid smb.* "to tease", *ta-ta* "good-bye", etc.) includes semantically diffused words, ersatz words (*whatchamacallit, whatsename, thingummy*), syntagmatic doublets (*Bobby boy; darling dear; you boys*). Such words verge on slang, the marker of particular age or social groups.

Sub-standard/ non-literary colloquial words include slang (*attic* "head", *saucers* "eyes"), professional jargon (*nuke* "nucleus", *smash-up* "accident"), vulgarisms (expletives such as *damn* and taboo such as *f****), cant / argot (criminal

slang – *hook* “life sentence”, *to rap* “to kill”), and dialectisms (*brass* “money”, *baccy* “tobacco” in broad Yorkshire), are much more emotional than other subgroups of the colloquial layer. Low colloquialisms are used for popular speech.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is the difference between register and style?
2. Give examples of lexical expressivity in Modern English. Comment them on.
3. What types of stylistic oppositions are found in the English vocabulary?
4. How do stylistic effects correlate context and situation of a word usage?

PART 2
ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY IN PRACTICE

1 THE STRUCTURE OF WORDS IN ENGLISH
MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF WORDS IN ENGLISH: TYPES OF MORPHEMES

OBJECTIVES

This practice session introduces a topic in morphology through types of morphemes and their functions. The issues discussed here will come up again in subsequent themes on simple and compound words, and word-building.

YOU WILL STUDY

- an internal structure of words in English;
- the most important components of word structure;
- how concepts are expressed by morphemes;
- how morphemes vary in terms of form, meaning and function;
- how morphemes, like phonemes, may have different forms;
- how morphemes contribute to the meaning and function of a larger word;
- more and less common affixes;
- etymology of morphemes.

OUTLINE

1. Morpheme as the smallest meaningful unit.
   - 1.1. Types of morphemes.
     - 1.1.1. Lexical, grammatical and lexico-grammatical morphemes.
     - 1.1.2. Root and affixational morphemes.
     - 1.1.3. Free, bound and semi-bound morphemes.
   - 1.2. Allomorphs.
2. Morphemic Structure of English words.
   - 2.1. Root, stem, bound base.
   - 2.2. Affix, semi-affix, superfix.
3. Types of affixes.
   - 3.1 Prefix, suffix, infix.
   - 3.2. Derivational and inflectional affixes.
   - 3.3. Native and borrowed affixes.
   - 3.4 Productive, semi-productive and non-productive affixes.
   - 3.5 Lexico-semantic groups of affixes.
   - 3.6 Valency of affixes and stems.
4. Completives (combining forms).
5. Splinters.

RECOMMENDED READING

Ilienko O. L., Kamienieva I. A., Moshtagh Ye. S.; English Lexicology : tutorial. Kharkiv : Publishing House I. Ivanchenka, 2020. P. 23-38.

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INTERNET RESOURCES

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Affixes. TutorVista.com, 2017. URL: http://english.tutorvista.com/literary-response/affixes.html

Infix Definition and Examples. Glossary of Grammatical and Rhetorical Terms. URL: https://www.thoughtco.com/infix-words-and-grammar-1691167

KEY TERMS

affix, allomorph, bound base, bound morpheme, completive/combining form, free morpheme, grammatical/functional morpheme, homonymic morphemes, infix, inflection, lexical morpheme, lexico-grammatical morpheme, morpheme, non-productive affix, polysemic morpheme, prefix, productive affix, root morpheme, semi-affix, semi-bound morpheme, semi-productive affix, splinter, stem suffix

Reading for this session on your own or partly alone, **it is important to consider the following points carefully**:

– a morpheme is a sign of language that is an association of linguistic meaning and its forms;

– morphemes are indivisible units and they typically have either a meaning or a grammatical function;

– according to their form morphemes can be free and bound;

– free morphemes are represented by content words and function words;

– bound morphemes are represented by affixes and stems;

– semi-bound morphemes do occur alone, however they can also function in a morphemic sequence as affixes; they resemble bound morphemes in that they are repeated elements in several words;

– according to their meaning morphemes can be lexical and grammatical;

– lexical morphemes can be free (roots) and bound (prefixes and suffixes);

– grammatical morphemes can be free (in function words) and bound (inflections);

– according to their position in a word, types of morphemes include root and non-root morphemes such as prefixes, infixes, suffixes, inflections;

– infixes, that occur within other morphemes, are far less common than prefixes and suffixes;

– a superfix is a suprasegmental feature having an identifiable meaning or grammatical function; it deals with the stress pattern to distinguish a noun from a verb;

– the most important components of word structure are roots and stems;

– roots and stems must be distinguished in terms of their structure as stems, unlike roots, include affixes;

– the common feature of roots and stems is that they can remain unchanged under certain conditions; although roots are the same throughout a word-formation paradigm, stems preserve their structure within a word-changing paradigm;

– allomorphs are positional variants of one and the same morpheme; they are different forms of a morpheme but not different morphemes;

– the concepts of productivity and frequency of affixes are related but do not coincide;

– productivity of morphemes is a synchronic feature and is estimated by the activity of morphemes in word-formation processes;

– in contrast, frequency is about the rate of recurrence and is estimated by the number of cases when a morpheme occurs within a given period;

– morphemes can express different concepts and enjoy different status, for instance, names of body parts that consist of free morphemes (*hand*, *head*, etc.) can occur as instrument incorporations (***breast****feed*);

– it is important to distinguish between the polysemy and homonymy of morphemes, although there is a great deal of overlap in meaning;

– the meanings expressed by a polysemic morpheme are related (e.g. *-er* ‘a doer of the action’ appears to be integrative for *–er* in the word *work**er***, where it stands for ‘someone who does’, and in *cook**er***, where it means ‘something that does’);

– homonymy in morphemes leads to semantic disintegration (cf. the above mentioned instances and *–er* with ‘frequentative’ meaning in *to twitt**er*** (<*to twit*);

– in terms of etymology, there are native and borrowed morphemes;

Pay attention to the terms that are used synonymously:

– blocked root / unique root / bound base / bound root;

– completive / combining form;

– content word / notional word;

– free morpheme / fully free morpheme;

– functional word / grammatical word;

– semi-bound morpheme / semi-free morpheme / quasi-affix / affixoid / semi-morpheme;

– stem / base.

ASSIGNMENTS

1. Look back at the new terms, match them to the themes and fill in the table:

Theme	Key terms
Morpheme as the smallest meaningful unit	_____ _____ _____ _____ _____
Morphological structure of English Words	_____ _____ _____ _____ _____

2. Write definitions for the following categories of morphemes.

1 *Point of view* semantic

Type and examples root - *man, street, act, black, green, see*

Definition _____
_____

2 *Point of view* semantic

Type and examples affix - ***un****happy*, *hope****less***, *read****ing***

Definition _____
_____

3 *Point of view* structural

Type and examples free - ***friend***, ***friend****less*, ***friend****ly*, ***act****or*, ***wait****ress*

Definition _____
_____

4 *Point of view* structural

Type and examples bound, prefix, derivational - ***dis****appear,* ***en****courage,* ***mis****taken*

Definition _____
_____

5 ***Point of view*** structural

Type and examples bound , infix - *sta****n****d*

Definition _____
_____

6 ***Point of view*** structural

Type and examples bound, suffix, inflectional -*bigg****er****, bigg****est***

Definition _____
_____

7 ***Point of view*** structural

Type and examples bound, suffix, derivational - *work****er****, princ****ess***

Definition _____
_____

8 ***Point of view*** structural

Type and examples semi-bound - ***half****-done*, *sports****man****, her****self***

Definition _____
_____

9 ***Point of view*** structural

Type and examples bound root (completive/ combining form) - *tele-* "far" *-scope* "seeing" (***tele/scope***), *-graph-* "write" (***tele/graph***), *aero-* "air" (***aero****space*); *-mania, -phile. -philia, -phobia, biblio-, multi-, neo-*

Definition _____
_____

10 ***Point of view*** structural

Type and splinter - *miniature* > ***mini-****, maximum* > ***maxi-****,*

examples *agriculture* > ***agri-****, biology* >***bio-****, ecology* >***eco-*** *(econote* "a short article on ecology", *ecomenu* "a selection of simple, healthful foods that make minimal demands on the environment"), *hamburger* > ***-burger*** *(cheeseburger, fishburger, beefburger), European* > ***Euro-*** *(Eurocard, Euromarket); sandwich* > ***-wich*** *(duckwich, turkeywich)*

Definition _____

_____

11 ***Point of view*** functional

Type and examples bound, affix - *dis-, -ish*

Definition _____

_____

12 ***Point of view*** functional

Type and examples bound, completive - *tele-*

Definition _____

_____

13 ***Point of view*** functional

Type and examples bound, blocked (unique) root - ***Fri****day,* ***cran****berry*

Definition _____

_____

14 ***Point of view*** functional

Type and examples grammatical, free, function word - *the, with, and*

Definition _____

_____

15 ***Point of view*** functional

Type and examples grammatical, bound, inflection -*cat****s***

Definition _____

16 ***Point of view***	functional
Type and examples	lexico-grammatical – *give* ***up****, look* ***for****, be* ***out***
Definition	_____
	_____

3. Provide 2 instances to exemplify the following categories:

allomorph _____
root _____
stem _____
bound base _____
affix _____
semi-affix _____
superfix _____
native prefix _____
native suffix _____
borrowed prefix _____
borrowed suffix _____
productive affix _____
semi-productive affix _____
non-productive affix _____
lexico-semantic group of affixes _____

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What are the functions of root morphemes?
2. What are the functions of suffixes?
3. What are the functions of prefixes?
4. What is the best way to classify prefixes? Why?
5. Comment on polysemic and synonymic correlations between affixes.
6. Comment on the homonymy in affixes.
7. What are the functions of inflections?
8. What are the functions of completives?
9. What is the difference between affixes and splinters?
10. What is the difference between lexical and grammatical morphemes?
11. What is the difference between the productivity and frequency of affixes?
12. Give comments on affixation on native and foreign basis.

MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF WORDS IN ENGLISH: SIMPLE, DERIVED, COMPOUND, AND SHORTENED WORDS

OBJECTIVES

This practice session provides a more complete treatment of the internal structure of words in English and emphasizes distinguishing features of compounds, striking differences between endocentric and exocentric types of compounds, etc. It also deals with immediate constituents analysis of word structure.

YOU WILL STUDY

- the difference between simple words and compounds;
- differences between derivation and inflection;
- properties of compounds;
- types of compounds;
- a range of meaning relationships expressed by English compounds;
- how to apply the immediate constituent analyses.

OUTLINE

1. Main structural types of English words.
1.1. Simple (root) words.
1.2. Derived words.
1.3. Compounds.
1.4. Shortenings.
2. Compounds.
2.1. Criteria for compounds. Compounds contrasted to other units (simple words, phrases)
2.2. Ways of forming compound words.
2.3. Types of compounds.
3. Immediate constituents.

RECOMMENDED READING

Ilienko O. L., Kamienieva I. A., Moshtagh Ye. S.; English Lexicology : tutorial. Kharkiv : Publishing House I. Ivanchenka, 2020. P. 23-58.

FURTHER READING

Квеселевич Д. І. Практикум з лексикології сучасної англійської мови : навчальний посібник. Вінниця : Вид-во “Нова книга”, 2001. С. 16-20.

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INTERNET RESOURCES

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KEY TERMS

compound word proper, compound-affixed word, compound-shortened word, coordinative compound, direct order/syntactic compound, endocentric compound, exocentric compound, idiomatic compound, immediate constituents, indirect order/ asyntactic compound, morphological compound, neutral/juxtapositional compound, nominative binomial, non-idiomatic compound, subordinative compound

Reading for this session on your own or partly alone, **it is important to give attention to the following facts**:

– words must be classified into at least two categories – simple and complex;

– a simple word consists of a single free morpheme (*cat*);

– a complex word (*cats*) includes a base morpheme (*cat-*) and a morpheme, or several morphemes, attached to it (*-s*);

– complex words that consist of two or more roots are referred to as compounds (*cat- + -fish > catfish)*;

– a class of compound adjectives combining two elements with the first one expressing a specific feature of the second one, and the last one taking its origin in a noun, are called bahuvrihi; they are rather closed compounds (*bluebell*, *bluestocking*) than hyphened ones (*blue-collar*);

– complex words made up of a base morpheme and an affix or several affixes are derived (*tree- + -less > treeless*);

– by immediate constituent analyses you divide words into successive layers of morphemes, or constituents, until the final layer; each constituent consists of only a meaningful part of a word, i. e. a single morpheme;

– for the segmentation of a word (e. g. *distastefully*) into minimal sound-meaningful units, it is important to apply the following basic strategies –

1/ compare forms that are partially similar as in ***distastefully*** vs ***distasteful***,

2/ contrast forms that are partially similar as in ***distastefully*** vs ***disgracefully***,

3/ associate the shared sound with the shared meaning and isolate it as in *distasteful-* ‘when you dislike something or find it unpleasant or unacceptable’ + ***-ly*** ‘added to the terminal of some words to mean *in a way when you dislike something or find it unpleasant or unacceptable*’,

4/ compare forms that are partially similar as in *dis****tasteful-*** vs ***tasteful***,

5/ contrast forms that are partially similar as in *dis**tasteful***- vs *dis**graceful***,

6/ associate the shared sound with the shared meaning and isolate it as in ***dis***- ‘added to the front of some words to form their opposites’ + -*tasteful*- ‘attractive and chosen for style and quality’,

7/ compare forms that are partially similar as in – *taste**ful***- vs *taste*,

8/ contrast forms that are partially similar as in – ***taste****ful*- vs ***grace****ful*,

9/ associate the shared sound with the shared meaning and isolate it as in – *taste*- ‘the flavour of something’ + -*ful*- ‘added to the root of some words to mean *having the stated quality to a high degree, or causing it*’,

10/ finally, perform the segmentation of a word into minimal sound-meaningful units – *distastefully* >*dis*- PREFIX+-*taste*-ROOT+ -*ful*- SUFFIX 1+ -*ly* SUFFIX 2.

Pay attention to the synonymously employed terms:

- compound word / composite / compound stem;
- direct order compound /syntactic compound;
- indirect order compound / asyntactic compound
- juxtapositional compound / proper compound / neutral compound;
- simple word / root word.

ASSIGNMENTS

1. Look back at the new terms, match them to the themes and fill in the table:

Theme	Key terms
Main structural types of English words	_____ _____ _____ _____ _____
Compounds	_____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

2. Provide 2 instances for the following categories:

simple (root) word	
derived word	
compound	
shortening	

3. There are several principles according to which compounds are classified. Look at the types of compounds found in English, study the examples, and decide on the criteria of their classification:

- the explicit/implicit type of determinatum;
- the meaning of the whole compound;
- the order of the components;
- the part of speech;
- the relations between the components;
- the structure;
- the way components are joined together;
- the ways of their forming

criteria	**types**		**examples**
…… ……	nouns; adjectives; verbs; adverbs; prepositions; numerals		*Baby-moon; free-for-all; to honeymoon; downdeep; within; fifty-five*
…… ……	based on	reduplication	*too-too, so-so*
		combination of conversion and sound interchange	*toy-boy; tip-top*
		partial conversion from word-group	*can-do; make-up*
		ellipses	*a drive-in* < *a drive-in cinema*
		back formation	*to fingerprint* < *finger-printing*
		analogy	*phone-in, lie-in* < *sit-in*
		contrast	*brain-gain* (Cf. *brain-drain)*
…… ……	neutral		*to window-shop*
	morphological	“*o*”; “*i*”; “*s*”	*astr**o**space; hand**i**craft; sport**s**man*
	syntactical		*here-**and**-now; do-**or**-die*

……	compound proper word	*train-sick; go-go*
……	compound-affixed word	*ear-minded; politically-minded; video player*
	compound consisting of three or more stems	*singer-songwriter; eggshell-thin*
	compound-shortened word	*V-day; Euro-dollar; intercom; AIDSophobia; three-D*

criteria	**types**		**examples**
…… …… …….	subordinate (relations)	comparative	*honey-sweet; eggshell-thin*
		limiting	*breast-high; knee-deep*
		emphatic	*dog-cheap*
		objective	*gold-rich*
		cause	*love-sick*
		space	*top-heavy*
		time	*spring-fresh*
		subjective	*foot-sore*
		functional	*raincoat*
		material	*clay-pipe*
		sex	*she-dog; Tom-cat*
	coordinative (relations)	combined functions	*Oxbridge; Anglo-Saxon; woman-doctor*
		tautological	*roadway; courtyard; fifty-fifty; no-no*
…… ……	syntactic		*killjoy*
	asyntactic		*nuclear-free*
…… ……	idiomatic		*blackboard*
	non-idiomatic		*wheelchair, speedometer*
…… …… ……	endocentric		*hairbrush; ashtray*
	exocentric		*pickpocket; greenhorn*

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is the difference between productivity and frequency of affixes?
2. Give comments on affixation on native and foreign basis.

3. What is the difference between compounds based on subordinate relations and compounds based on coordinative relations?
4. What relation is established between the components of an exocentric compound?
5. What relation is established between the components of an endocentric compound?
6. What phonetic feature helps to distinguish between a compound and a free phrase?
7. What semantic feature helps to distinguish between a compound and a free phrase?
8. What grammatical feature helps to distinguish between a compound and a free phrase?
9. What does the term '*bahuvrihi* (pl. *bahuvrihis*)' stand for?
10. What is an immediate constituent (IC)?

WORD FORMATION IN MODERN ENGLISH: PRODUCTIVE TYPES

OBJECTIVES

This practice session discusses the principles of word-formation and offers a survey of most common and central processes including derivation, conversion, and compounding.

YOU WILL STUDY

– how we make new words by adding prefixes, suffixes, and infixes;
– about words with multilayered internal structure;
– about restrictions on derivation;
– how we make new words by putting two or more existing stems together;
– how compounding interacts with derivation;
– how we can assign an already existing word to another syntactical category without adding affixes;
– about restrictions on conversion.

OUTLINE

1. The main types of word-formation processes.
    1.1. Derivation.
    1.2. Compounding.
    1.3. Productive and non-productive types.
2. Affixation.
    2.1. Prefixation.
    2.2. Suffixation.
    2.3. Mixed type.
3. Composition.
    3.1.Stem combinations.
    3.1.1. Juxtapositional compounds.
    3.1.2. Morphological compounds.
    3.1.3. Syntactic compounds.
    3.2.Stem repetitions.
    3.2.1. Reduplication.
    3.2.2. Ablaut (gradation).
    3.2.3. Rhyme compounds.
4. Conversion as a non-affixal type of word-formation. Types of transposition.
    4.1. Denominal verbs.
    4.2. Deverbal nouns.

4.3. Lexicalization of phrases.
4.4. Substantivation.
4.4.1. Complete substantivation.
4.4.2. Partial substantivation.
4.5. Adjectivization.

RECOMMENDED READING

Ilienko O. L., Kamienieva I. A., Moshtagh Ye. S.; English Lexicology : tutorial. Kharkiv : Publishing House I. Ivanchenka, 2020. P. 23-58.

FURTHER READING

Квеселевич Д. І. Практикум з лексикології сучасної англійської мови : навчальний посібник. Вінниця : Вид-во "Нова книга", 2001. С. 21-51.

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INTERNET RESOURCES

Kemmer S. Types of Word Formation Processes [Rice University. URL: http://www.ruf.rice.edu/~kemmer/Words/wordtypes.html

KEY TERMS

adjectivization, affixation, compounding/composition, conversion/zero derivation, derivation, juxtapositional compound, lexicalization, morphological compound, prefixation, reduplication, substantivation, suffixation, syntactic compound, word-formation

Reading for this session on your own or partly alone, **it is important to consider the following points carefully**:

– like inflection, derivation is marked by affixation;

– derivation is an affixational process of forming a new word with a meaning / or category distinct from that of its base;

– a derived word becomes an independent lexical item;

– multiple levels of word structure are created by derivation that occurrs more than once (*act* > *act**ive***> *activ**ate***> *activat**ion***);

– there are several constraints on derivation –

a. the ability of an affix to attach to a stem can be determined by the origin of a stem as with –*ant* that attaches to the stems of Latin origin and not to the native stems (***assist****ant*, but not ****help****ant*);
b. the ability of an affix to attach to a base can be determined by the phonological

properties of the base as with *–en* that combines only with monosyllabic base which ends with an obstruent (***whit****en*, but neither ****abstract****en* which is not monosyllabic, or ****blue****n* whose final sound is not an obstruent);

c. the ability of an affix to attach to a base can be determined by the syntactic category of the base as with *un-* which combines with adjectival bases, but not nominal ones (*un****healthy***, but not **un****health***, although it occurs in *un****happiness*** which is a result of the following derivational order – *happy* > ***un****happy* > *unhappi****ness***);

– compounding, which is a very popular technique of making new words in English, involves combination of two or more already existing words / stems;

– compounding is mostly found in nouns, verbs, or adjectives, and very rarely in prepositions (*in-* + *-to* > *into*);

– new words are sometimes yielded by the interaction of compounding and derivation ([*absorb-* + *-tion*] + *rate* > *absorption rate* n "the percentage of fixed costs (= costs that are the same each month) that a company pays for with the profits from particular products and services");

– conversion, which assigns an already existing word to another syntactic category without adding any affixes, is often considered as a type of derivation because it brings about the change in category and meaning;

– although conversion is usually restricted to words consisting of a single morpheme, in exceptional cases it can sometimes occur in words containing more morphemes as in *dirt-y* **adj** > *dirty* **v** (*Don't sit on the floor – you might* ***dirty*** *your dress*), or in *refer-ee* **n** > *referee* **v** (*They had to ask one of thespectators to* ***referee*** *(thematch)*);

– the most common cases of conversion in English are a verb derived from a noun (*milk* > *to* ***milk*** *a cow*), a noun derived from a verb (*to drink* > *a fizzy* ***drink***), and a verb derived from an adjective (*empty* > *to* ***empty*** *the dustbins*);

– less common cases of conversion yield a verb from a preposition (*down* prep > *The ice storm* ***has downed*** *the trees*) and a noun from an adjective (*bitter* (adj) *liquid* > *a pint of* ***bitter*** (n)).

Pay attention to the synonymously employed terms:

– compounding / composition;

– conversion / zero derivation / zero-inflection / affixless derivation / zero-suffixation;

– derivation / affixation;

– word formation / word building.

ASSIGNMENTS

1. Look back at the new terms, match them to the themes and fill in the table:

Theme	Key terms
Affixation	_____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____
Conversion	_____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____
Composition	_____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

2. Match the following types of word-formation (1-11) to categories A, B, and C:

A. highly-productive:_____
B. semi-productive: _____
C. non-productive: _____

affixation, conversion, compounding, shortening, forming phrasal verbs, back formation, blending, reduplication, sound imitation, sound interchange, change of stress

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What synonymous term is employed to mean '*word formation*'?
2. What synonymous term is employed to mean '*compounding*'?

3. In what way are compound verbs generally formed? Give two examples to illustrate your point.
4. Speak about word formation in its relation to grammar.
5. Should conversion be treated as morphological or morphological-syntactical word-building process?
6. Is conversion related to dropping of endings or simplification of stems? Provide examples.
7. What is the difference between partial and full conversion? Provide examples.
8. Can substantivation be treated as syntactical shortening (ellipsis)?
9. What spelling forms are found in Modern English compounds?
10. In what way are rhyme compounds generally formed? Give examples to illustrate your point.

WORD FORMATION IN MODERN ENGLISH: LESS PRODUCTIVE TYPES

OBJECTIVES

This practice session deals with less productive types of word formation in Modern English. They include shortening, reversion, and blending. It also focuses on minor processes that create new words.

YOU WILL STUDY

– about the products of clipping and their acceptance in general usage;

– how words can be formed by taking some or all initial letters of the words in a phrase or title;

– how to create new words by removing a supposed or real affix from another word in English;

– about blends, which are also called *portmanteau* words, or *telescopic* words;

– the least common types of word formation in Modern English.

OUTLINE

1. Shortening.
1.1. Contraction
1.1.1. Apocope.
1.1.2. Apheresis.
1.1.3. Syncope.
1.1.4. Mixed clipping.
1.2. Abbreviation.
1.2.1. Acronym
1.2.2. Alphabetic abbreviation
1.2.3. Compound abbreviation
1.2.4. Graphic abbreviation
1.2.5. Latin abbreviation
2. Reversion.
3. Blending.
4. Minor types of word-formation.
4.1. Change of stress.
4.2. Sound interchange.
4.3.Sound imitation.
4.4. Lexicalization of the plural of nouns.

RECOMMENDED READING

Ilienko O. L., Kamienieva I. A., Moshtagh Ye. S.; English Lexicology : tutorial. Kharkiv : Publishing House I. Ivanchenka, 2020. P. 23-58.

FURTHER READING

Квеселевич Д. І. Практикум з лексикології сучасної англійської мови: навчальний посібник. Вінниця : Вид-во "Нова книга", 2001. С. 21-51.

Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. С. 72-84.

INTERNET RESOURCES

Kemmer S. Types of Word Formation Processes. Rice University. URL: http://www.ruf.rice.edu/~kemmer/Words/wordtypes.html

Abbreviations, initials and acronyms. English Grammar Today. Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 2017. URL: http://dictionary.cambridge.org/grammar/british-grammar/about-words-clauses-and-sentences/abbreviations-initials-and-acronyms

KEY TERMS

abbreviation / initial shortening, ablaut /gradation, acronym, alphabetic abbreviation, apheresis/ initial clipping, apocope / final clipping, blend / blending, contraction/ clipping, graphic abbreviation, initialism, Latin abbreviation, reduplication, reversion /back formation, rhyme, shortening, sound imitation / onomatopoeia, sound interchange/ gradation, syncope / medial clipping

Reading for this session on your own or partly alone, **it is important to consider the following points carefully**:

– clippings, that are shortenings of polysyllabic words, are especially popular in colloquial speech (*Liz* < *Eli**z**abeth, prof* < ***prof**essor*); however, many of them are generally accepted (*zoo* < ***zoo**logical garden*);

– an acronym must be distinguished from an initialism (an alphabeticism) which is pronounced as a series of letters rather that a word;

– there are intermediate cases between acronyms and initialisms – *jeep* (<*JP* in "general purpose vehicle");

– abbreviation is particularly common in names of organizations, military, and scientific terminology;

– in back formation, word formation processes are reversed;

– as far as addition of *–er*, or *–or* to the stems is highly productive in English, many of words ending in *-er* or *–or* are considered to be the result of *verb +-er/-or*

combinations (e.g. original word *swindl**er*** n yielded *to swindle* v, and *edit**or*** n resulted in *to edit* v, etc.);

– blends are created from nonmorphemic parts of two already existing items;

– change of stress often accompanies conversion (*'import* n vs to *im'port* v);

– ablaut, or vowel interchange, is used to mark grammatical (*f**oo**t* sg vs *f**ee**t* pl) and lexical (*bl**oo**d* n vs to *bl**ee**d* v) contrasts;

– onomatopoeic words (e.g. *sizzle* "to make sound like cooking in hot fat") are not exact copies of noises, sounds, etc.;

– lexicalization of the plural of nouns demonstrates ties between lexicology and grammar as a grammatical phenomenon (a category of number) turns into a lexical one (word formation) as in *damage* "harm or injury" >*damages* pl > *damage**s*** pl "money that is paid to someone by a person or organization who has been responsible for causing them some injury or loss".

– **Pay attention to the synonymously employed terms:**

– ablaut /gradation;

– apheresis / initial clipping;

– apocope / final clipping;

– blend / blending / telescopic word / portmanteau word;

– contraction / clipping;

– reversion / back formation;

– sound imitation / onomatopoeia;

– sound interchange / gradation;

– syncope / medial clipping.

ASSIGNMENTS

1. Look back at the new terms, match them to the themes and fill in the table:

Theme	Key terms
Shortening	_____ _____ _____ _____
Minor types of word formation	_____ _____ _____ _____

2. Match the terms in column A to their synonyms in column B:

A	B
abbreviation	back formation
ablaut	clipping
apheresis	final clipping
apocope	gradation
contraction	gradation
reversion	initial clipping
sound imitation	initial shortening
sound interchange	medial clipping
syncope	onomatopoeia

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is '*portmanteau*'?
2. Are the terms '*blending*' and '*telescopic word*' used to refer to one and the same type of word formation?
3. Is blending a special type of compounding?
4. Are their different types of blending? Illustrate your point with examples.
5. What do initialisms and acronyms have in common?
6. Is there any difference between initialisms and acronyms? Illustrate your point with examples?
7. What do back formation and back-clipping have in common?
8. How do back formation and back-clipping co-exist?
9. What is the difference between back formation and back-clipping?
10. What do graphic abbreviations and shortened compounds have in common? What is the difference between them?

2 THE ISSUES OF APPLIED LEXICOLOGY

ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY

OBJECTIVES

This practice session provides treatment of English dictionaries, in particular their structure, practical needs and scholarly principles upon which a lexicographer may be expected to proceed.

YOU WILL STUDY

– about lexicography as a discipline that analyses and describes the semantic relationships within the lexicon of a language;

– how first English dictionaries were different from modern ones;

– what made Samuel Johnson's dictionary unique and how it became a British standard reference work;

– about Noah Webster's dictionary that was the first to document distinctively American vocabulary;

– according to which categories dictionaries can be distinguished;

– about the issues confronting English lexicographers.

OUTLINE

1. Lexicography as a branch of applied linguistics.
2. Types of dictionaries.
   - 2.1. General and special dictionaries.
   - 2.2. Unilingual and bi-/multilingual dictionaries.
   - 2.3. Dictionaries concentrated on one of the distinctive features of the word.
3. Historical development of British and American lexicography.
   - 3.1. *A Table Alphbeticall* by R. Cawdrey.
   - 3.2. Samuel Johnson's dictionary.
   - 3.3. OED - *Oxford English Dictionary*.
   - 3.4.*The American Dictionary of the English Language* by Noah Webster.
4. The main problems in lexicography.
   - 4.1. The selection of words.
   - 4.1.1. The selection of head-words: separate entries or one common head-word.
   - 4.1.2. The scope of historical element in a general descriptive dictionary.
   - 4.1.3. Selection between scientific and technical terms.
   - 4.1.4. The selection of words and their frequency.
   - 4.2. Arrangement of an entry.
   - 4.2.1. The sequence of meanings of a polysemantic word.
   - 4.2.2. The problem of definition: linguistic or encyclopedic.

RECOMMENDED READING

Ilienko O. L., Kamienieva I. A., Moshtagh Ye. S.; English Lexicology : tutorial. Kharkiv : Publishing House I. Ivanchenka, 2020. P. 23-58.

FURTHER READING

Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. – С. 419-426.

INTERNET RESOURCES

Canadian English Lexicography. Site for Language Management in Canada (SLMC). University of Ottawa.URL: https://slmc.uottawa.ca/?q=org_can_lexico_en

Erdmann P., See-Young Cho. A Brief History of English Lexicography. Berlin : Department of Linguistics, Technical University, 1997-2000. URL: http://angli02.kgw.tu-berlin.de/lexicography/b_history.html

History of English. The English Dictionary (Lexicography). YouTube, 2013. URL: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3rNlCzqAQRU

KEY TERMS

definition, dictionary, dictionary of word-frequency, encyclopedic dictionary, entry, etymological dictionary, explanatory dictionary, general lexicography, headword, ideographic dictionary, lemma, lexicography, linguistic dictionary, slang dictionary, special lexicography, translation dictionary, usage dictionary, word-list

Reading for this session on your own or partly alone, **it is important to give attention to the following facts**:

– first dictionaries were neither national nor concerned with any of the national languages as they concerned with Latin – the international language of medieval Europe;

– not before the early 18th century it was that hard-word dictionaries started to be replaced by word books giving an increasing attention to literary usage;

– S. Johnson's dictionary intended to "remove improprieties and absurdities" from English, to purify and fix it as well as enormously extend lexicographic techniques by

- -etymology revision;
- systematic use of illustrative quotations (examples from the best writers);
- fixed spellings of many disputed words;
- ingenuous definitions accompanied by irony, sarcasm and impressive epithets;

– There were several demerits of S. Johnson's work–

- he dealt with separate words and almost ignored set expressions;
- he assigned a prescriptive character to his dictionary;

– N. Webster's innovations included –
  - encyclopaedic supplements;
  - emphasis on Americanisms and insistence on American spellings and definitions;
  - really discriminating definitions;
  - clarity of definitions;
  - illustrative quotations;
  - more fully exhibition of the English vocabulary;
  - inclusion of borrowings from local languages;
  - the first native dictionary after S. Johnson's dictionary;
– N. Webster's dictionary had some deficiencies –
  - etymologies remained untouched;
  - rudimentary pronunciation notes;
– the conception of OED supported –
  - collection of quotations;
  - inclusion of new words;
  - keeping the main principle of historical presentation;
  - coverage of current literary and colloquial English;
  - accompaniment of definitions by quotations;

– it is necessary to distinguish between a dictionary (a book that lists words in an alphabetical order and describes their meanings) and an encyclopaedia (a collection of articles about every brand of knowledge);

– modern dictionaries often include information about spelling, syllabication, pronunciation, etymology (word derivation), usage, synonyms, and grammar, and sometimes illustrations as well;

– though encyclopaedic articles are arranged alphabetically, and often include definitions, their descriptions go far beyond the information given in a dictionary.

ASSIGNMENTS

1. Look back at the new terms, match them to the themes and fill in the table.

Theme	Key terms
Lexicography as a branch of applied linguistics	_____ _____ _____ _____ _____

Types of dictionaries	_____ _____ _____ _____
The main problems in lexicography	_____ _____ _____ _____

2. Sum up your knowledge of dictionary types and fill in the table:

Point of view	Types of Dictionaries
nature of word-list	
information supplied	
language of the explanation	
prospective user	

3. Analyze the metaphors for the concept 'dictionary' below. What aspects of dictionaries do you think they illuminate?

Campus Florum "field of flowers" (Thomas Wallensis, 1335);
(H)ortus "garden" (unknown author, 15thc.);
Promptorium "storehouse" (GalfrudusSanglicus, 1440);
Elegantiae "fine words" (Loretzo de Valla, 1444);
Aggregator "increaser" (Jacobus Donti, 1470);
Porta "gateway" (Adam von Rottweil, 1477);
Esclarcissement "enlighter" (John Palsgrave, 1530);
Bibliotheca "library" (John Rider, 1589);
Expositor "explainer" (John Bullokar, 1616).

4. What do the following titles help you understand about the approach of lexicographers to their dictionaries?

- *A **Table Alphabetical** of Hard Usual English Words* (R. Cawdrey, 1604);
- ***Thesaurus** of English Words and Phrases* (R. Roget, London, 1852);
- *Synonym **Finder*** (J. I. Rodale, NY, 1978);
- *Longman Language **Activator** (*M. Rundell, Harlow, 1999);
- ***ABC** of Dirty English: Foreigner's Guide* (A. Kudryavtsev, G. Kuropatkin, Minsk, 2001).

5. **Use the following terms to fill in the blanks in the summing up table**: *alphabetic dictionary, associative dictionary, bilingual dictionary, encyclopedic dictionary, general dictionary, ideographic dictionary, learner's dictionary, lexicography, linguistic dictionary, monolingual dictionary, morphemic dictionary*, *multilingual dictionary, orthoepic dictionary, practical lexicography, scientific dictionary, special dictionary, theoretical lexicography, thesauruses, translation dictionary.*

ART OF DICTIONARY MAKING

the theory and practice of dictionary-making	....	seeks to describe a language; establish norms; provide intercultural communication; teach native or foreign languages; present a scientific description of lexical items
	…… ……..	seeks to create a general typology of dictionaries; develop the macro- and microstructure of the dictionary

TYPES OF DICTIONARIES

content	…….....	different types of information about language units
	…….	some particular type of information about language units (synonymic, homonymic, terminological, onomastic, etc. groups)
description of lexical units	…….....	manifold description of language items
	…… ……. .	particular description of language items (etymology, word-formation, collocation, etc.)
selection principles	…… ……. ..	no selection criteria
		some particular selection criteria
arrangement principles	…… ….....	ABC order
		thematic arrangement
		associative principle
type of a language unit described	…… ……. .	smaller than a word (e.g. morpheme)
		a word

		larger than a word
language of presentation	…… …… ..	one language
		two languages
		more than two languages
purpose	…… …… .	for scientists (reverse, grammar dictionaries, etc.)
		for language studying (dictionaries of common difficulties, etc.)
		for comparing or contrasting, interpreting, etc.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What term can this definition be applied for: “a reference work which lists the words of one or more languages, usually in alphabetical order, along with information about their spelling, pronunciation, grammatical status, meaning, history, use”?
2. According to which criteria can dictionaries be classified?
3. What dictionary provides information about the language of a specialist field?
4. What dictionary is intended to provide a comprehensive description of the whole language, with special attention to vocabulary?
5. What dictionary is a hybrid type, combining linguistic information with encyclopedic?
6. Name the distinctive features of general dictionaries.
7. Name the distinctive features of encyclopedic dictionaries.
8. Name the distinctive features of terminological dictionaries.
9. Is the basic reference unit in a dictionary referred to as *entry*?
10. What comments are provided about the headword: formal properties; semantic properties; other (specify)?
11. If the word has more than one sense, is the information given for each of those?
12. What kind of information is provided for each of the senses?
13. What is the difference in definitions for *headword*, *entry* and *lemma*?
14. Why is the decision between homonymy and polysemy not easy to be made?

REGIONAL AND SOCIO-CULTURAL VARIATION OF THE ENGLISH WORD-STOCK

OBJECTIVES

This practice session covers several aspects of variation of English and actually reveals the true nature of language variation.

YOU WILL STUDY

- about the internal variation of language in styles and dialects;
- about regional, social, and ethnic dialects;
- the notion of mutual intelligibility;
- about the interplay of regional and social factors in language variation.

OUTLINE

1. Language vs variety. Types of English Varieties.
2. Regional and social varieties of English.
   - 2.1. Distinctive features: divergence in the English word-stock.
   - 2.2. Common features.
   - 2.2.1. The common core of the English word-stock.
   - 2.2.2. Internationalisms.
3. Groups of regionalisms.
4. Native words and loans. Borrowings in regional vocabularies.
5. Regional dictionaries.

RECOMMENDED READING

Ilienko O. L., Kamienieva I. A., Moshtagh Ye. S.; English Lexicology : tutorial. Kharkiv : Publishing House I. Ivanchenka, 2020. P. 23-58.

FURTHER READING

Квеселевич Д. І. Практикум з лексикології сучасної англійської мови: навчальний посібник. Вінниця : Вид-во “Нова книга”, 2001. – С. 108-111.

Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. – С. 314-415.

INTERNET RESOURCES

Canadian English Lexicography. Site for Language Management in Canada (SLMC). University of Ottawa.URL: https://slmc.uottawa.ca/?q=org_can_lexico_en

KEY TERMS

American English, Americanism, Australian English, Australianism, borrowing, British English, Briticism, Canadian English, Canadianism, (common) core word, dialect, international word, isogloss, New Zealand English, New Zealandism, proper regionalism, Standard English, variant / variety of English

Reading for this session on your own or partly alone, **it is important to give attention to the following facts**:

– on the one hand, language variation is stimulated by human creativity and flexibility; on the other hand, it is restricted by the rule-governing tendencies;

– variation has nothing to do with a language 'defect';

– a regionalism (such as an Americanism) is a word or phrase (or, less commonly, a feature of grammar, spelling, or pronunciation) that (supposedly) originated in the place where English had been transported to (the United States) and/or is used primarily in that place (by Americans);

– lexical variation is accompanied by addition of loan words (American English *tomato* form Aztec in American English and later extremely commonplace), loss of words (*I guess* "I reckon" has survived in AE but got out of usage in BE), change or substitution (AE *fall* "autumn", AE *sundown* "sunset", AE *ad* "advert < advertisement"), and coinage (noun-noun compounds that entered American English at a very early stage are words for indigenous animals, like *bullfrog* "a large American frog"; for trees and plants, like *cottonwood* "an American poplar tree"; and for phenomena like *log cabin* "the kind of simple structure many early immigrants lived in"; an early American coinage like *sunup* parallel to the Americanism *sundown*);

– regionalisms differ in pronunciation (*tomato* – BE /təˈm**ɑ**ː**.**təʊ/ vs AE/təˈm**eɪ**.ɾoʊ/, *advertisement* - BE /**ədˈvɜː.tɪs.**mənt/ vs AE /**æd.vɝ**ːˈ**taɪz.**mənt/), spelling (*colour* vs AE *col**or***, *travelling* vs AE *traveling*, *theater* vs AE *theat**re***), structure (BE *drug**s** problem* vs AE *drug problem*, BE *chemical**s** plant* vs AE *chemical plant*), meaning (BE *chips* "fried potatoes, **French fries**" vs AE *chips* "crisps; potato chips");

Pay attention to the synonymously employed terms: variant / variety

ASSIGNMENTS

1. Read the following piece of information on GLOBAL ENGLISH from *http://www.askoxford.com/globalenglish/?view=uk*.Do you agree that Oxford **dictionaries should try to include many regionalisms encountered in different English-speaking areas of the world? Why? Why not? Justify your opinion.**

English is spoken as a first language by more than 300 million people throughout

the world, and used as a second language by many millions more. One in five of the world's population speaks English with a good level of competence, and within the next few years the number of people speaking English as a second language will exceed the number of native speakers.

This could have a dramatic effect on the evolution of the language: in the process of being absorbed by new cultures, English develops to take account of local language needs, giving rise not just to new vocabulary but also to new forms of grammar and pronunciation.

At the same time, however, a standardized 'global' English is spread by the media and the Internet.

The main regional standards of English are British, US and Canadian, Australian and New Zealand, South African, Indian, and West Indian. Within each of these regional varieties a number of highly differentiated local dialects may be found.

2. Use a monolingual dictionary to show the difference between American and British usage of:

blow off stream, burn, dinner, journal, judge, lorry driver and truck driver, monkey wrench, tarpaulin, trial.

Recommended references:

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English. – 10th impr. – Harlow : Pearson Education Ltd, 2007. – 1950 p.;

Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture. – 4th impr. – Harlow : Pearson Education Ltd, 2000. – 1568 p.

Find more examples, give your comments.

3. Study the extracts of dictionary pages below. Which of the dictionaries do you think each extract comes from?

- *A Dictionary of South African English on Historical Principles* (ed. Penny Silva et al.), NY, 1996. (P. 9);
- *The Canadian Oxford Dictionary* (ed. K. Barber), Oxford, NY, 2001. (P. 475);
- *The Concise Australian National Dictionary* (ed. by J. Hughes), Melbourne, 1992. (P. 652);
- *The New Oxford American Dictionary* (ed. by E. J. Jewell, F. Abate). New York, Oxford, 2001. (P. 504).

n

. **1**. In the phr. ***Afrika sign, Afrika salute***, the African National Congress salute of a clenched fist with raised thumb.

of the language *Dispatches* (198 took turns with the microphone

Subsequently largely replaced by the ‘Black Power’ salute of a raised clenched fist.

[**1952** *Drum May* 35 (*caption*) Dr Dadoo, President of the Indian Congress, and Dr Moroka, President of the African Congress, making the Africa sign on the platform at the meeting.] *Ibid*. Nov. 15 (*caption*) First women <…>

1968J.LELIVE 18 Many Africa dark to expect to upbringing had kaans, the langu*ant,* *Grahamsto*Afriks, Geogra<…>

xanthorrhoea /zænθə’riə/ [The plant genus *Xanthorrhoea* was named by English botanist J.E.Smith (*Trans. Linn. Soc. London* (1789)IV. 219, f. Gr. *Ξανθόρς yellow*+ροία flowing, referring to the yellow resin exuded by the type species, *X. resinosa*]. Any plant of the genus *Xanthorrhoea* (fam. Xanthorrhoeaceae) of all States, varying in form from herb-like plants to small trees, many species bearing a tall flowering spike rising from the crown of grass-like leaves. See also GRASS-TREE 1. Also *attrib*., esp. as **xanthorrhoearesin**.

1814 R.Brown Gen. Remarks Bot. Terra Australis 44 Xanthorrhoea .. is in habit of the <…>

X-ray. Used *attrib*. to designate a style of Aboriginal painting which originated in Western Arnhem Land and which is characterized by the depiction of internal as well as external organs of the subject: see quot. 1978.

1943 *Primitive Art Exhib. Catal.* (Nat. Gallery & Nat. Museum Vic.) 2 Some of them .. are likely to appeal more strongly to the European than the ‘X-ray’ paintings from the Northern Territory of Australia, with their representations of the spine, ribs and inner organs. **1978** R.Edwards*Aboriginal Art in Aust*. 42 The famous X-ray paintings have their home in the west. <…>

Eskimo / 'eski¸mo: / *n. & adj*. •*n.* (*pl*. same or **–os**) **1** a member of an Aboriginal people inhabiting N Canada, Alaska, Greenland, and E Siberia. **2** the language of this people. •*adj*. of or relating to the Eskimos or their language. ¶In Canada, the word *Eskimo* has been superseded by Inuit with reference to the people and *Inuktitut* with reference to their language. [Danish from French *Esquimaux* (pl.) from Algonquian]<…>

D. **dol•lar** | 'dälər | ►**n.** The basic monetary unit of the US, Canada, Australia, and certain countries in the Pacific, Caribbean, Southeast Asia, Africa, and South America.

-PHRASES **dollars to doughnuts** informal used to emphasise one's certainty: *I'd **bet dollars to doughnuts** he is a medical student.*

-ORIGIN from early Flemish or Low German *daler,* from German *T(h)aler*, short for *Joachimsthaler*, a coin from the silver mine of *Joachimsthal* (Joachim's valley), now *Jáchymov* in the Czech Republic. The term was later applied to the coin used in the Spanish-American colonies, which was also widely used in the British north American colonies at the time of the American Revolution, hence adopted as the name of the US monetary unit in the late 18 th cent.

dol•lar ar•e•a ►n. the area of the world in which currency is linked to the US dollar.

dol•lar di•plo•ma•cy ►n. the use of a country's financial power to extend its international influence.

dol•lar gap ►n. the amount by which a country's import trade with the dollar area exceeds the corresponding export trade.

dol•lar•i•za•tion |ˌdäləri'zāSHən| (also **–sation**) **►n.** the process of aligning a country's currency with the US dollar.

■ the dominating effect of the US on the economy of a country.

dol•lar sign(also **dollar mark**) **►n.** the sign $, representing a dollar.

4. Look at the lexical items and their definitions that come from *The Dictionary of New Zealand English* (ed. by H. Orsman), Oxford, 1997. The entries provide information on the names by which New Zealand has been known. The extracts are given in alphabetical order as they go in the dictionary and supplied with the dates of the names' earliest record. As is clear from the extracts, the process of name-making became active during the particular historical periods. What events accelerated the formation of New Zealand English lexicon?

1832* Antipodes. [Spec. Use of *antipodes* places on the Earth directly opposite each other….] Usu. with init. cap., and with *the*. New Zealand regarded as the notional antipodes, geographic, cultural, and seasonal, of Britain [ODNZE, p. 11].

1857* Aotearoa /ˌæi^utiə'r^uə/…[Ma. /'aotea'roa/ *ao* cloud; daytime; world +*tea* white+ *roa* long, tall; or *aotea* bird…], New Zealand, esp. as the homeland of the Maori…

1927* As **Aotearoa New Zealand**, a symbolic name coined in the 1980s to represent the Maori and Pakeha components of New Zealand society and culture…[ODNZE, p. 13-14].

1840* colony. *Hist*. Usu. as **the Colony**, New Zealand regarded as a country existing as a political or administrative whole [ODNZE, p. 163].

1918* Diggerland [in analogy with MAORILAND], New Zealand [ODNZE, p. 207].

Dominion. Also *joc*. **Dominyong** (parodying the pronunciation of esp. Peter Frazer, Labour Prime Minister 1940-49), New Zealand as a self-governing country of the British Empire (now Commonwealth), esp. as **the Dominion**, a designation or title accepted in **1907***, formally defined in 1926 in the Balfour Report, integrated into the Imperial Statute of Westminster in 1931, and, being considered inappropriate as a descriptive title of an independent member of the Commonwealth, replaced by 'Realm' in the Royal Style and Title adopted in 1953 [ODNZE, p. 219].

1905* down under, New Zealand, esp. as part of Australasia [ODNZE, p. 225].

1917* Enzed /en'zed/. Also **En-Zed, En Zed, N.Z.** [f. a pronunciation of the individual letters of the standard abbrev. N.Z.], New Zealand [ODNZE, p. 246].

1926* fernland. Obs. [applied esp. by Australians, to New Zealand.] With init. cap., a name given to New Zealand by non-New Zealanders [ODNZE, p. 261].

1892* God's own. As **God's own country** [orig. US *God's (own) country*], New Zealand regarded, often ironically ('God's own country, and the devil's own mess'), as an earthly paradise, a catchphrase popularized during the political times of Richard John Seddon (Premier 1893-1906).

1916* *Ellipt*. **God's own**, often *joc*. form **Godzone** (**God-zone**, occas. **Gordzone**). New Zealand [ODNZE, p. 300].

1963* Kiwi-country, a jocular name for New Zealand as the native haunt of New Zealanders [ODNZE, 415].

1947* Kiwiland. New Zealand [ODNZE, p. 416].

1898* Land of the Long White Cloud. Also**Great White Cloud**, and in various shortened forms. Occas. with lower case initials. The most popular of several translations of *Aotearoa*, adopted, often ironically, as a romantic appellation for New Zealand [ODNZE, p. 437].

1863* Maoriland. In early use occas., as two words, New Zealand as the land of the Maori.

1865* Orig. or mainly a journalistic name for New Zealand as a whole (esp. freq. after the adoption of the term by the Sydney *Bulletin* in the 1880s), now infrequently used [ODNZE, p. 478-479].

1768* New Zealand. The name of a country and a biogeographic region [ODNZE, 530].

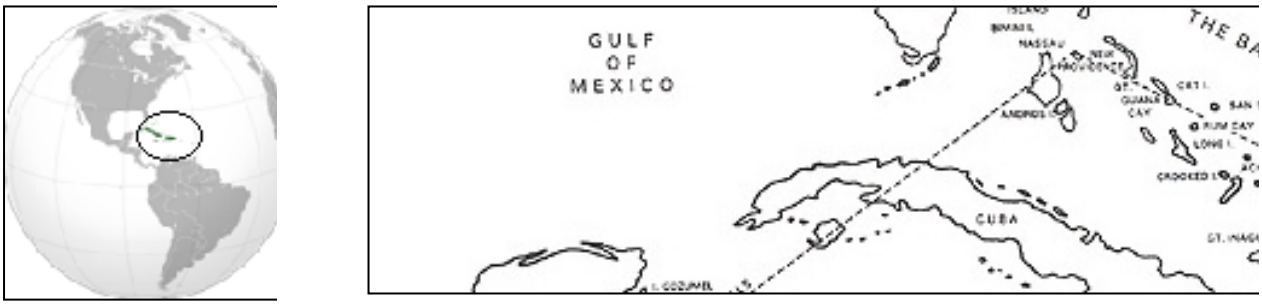
1906* Pig Island(s). [A name celebrating the long (since 1769) association of New Zealand with domestic pigs escaped into the wild…] Usu. init. caps. New Zealand. [ODNZE, p. 600].

1898* Southern Cross. *transf*. New Zealand, esp. in the phr. **under (beneath) the Southern Cross** [ODNZE, p. 759].

5. Read the description of *The Dictionary of Caribbean English Usage* (1996) compiled by R. Allsopp. What does it tell you about the historical value and regional character of the lexical items used in *Caribbean English*?

R. Allsopp's 'The Dictionary of Caribbean English Usage' (1996)

The Dictionary of Caribbean English Usage compiled by R. Allsopp, a linguistics scholar, who formerly worked at the University of the West Indies, Barbados, was first published in 1996 to record and promote a rich variety of words and phrases of Caribbean English usage.



Map of the Caribbean

These lexical items are spoken in the region of approximately one million square miles. While many of them are different from common English and may sound unusual or surprising (*spranksious* "bold; good-looking", *do-flicky* "a gadget or tool"), others have become recognized as a part of a familiar vocabulary (*to suck* "to experience hardship", *to kill* "to make ache with laughter"). Being essential components of everyday life in the region, Caribbean usages have become the markers of regional identity. Despite the decades of complaints about Caribbean English as the 'poor standard of English' used by the public, today it is a recognized alternative version of English. Its validity, cultural and historical value make Caribbean English part and parcel of the Anglophone heritage.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What are the local varieties of English?
2. Are the most striking peculiarities found in pronunciation, spelling, grammar, or vocabulary?
3. Can we support the hypothesis of "*American/Canadian/Australian/New Zealand Language*"?
4. Where is British English spoken?
5. Where is American English spoken?
6. Are there any regional varieties in American English?
7. What languages contributed to the US English vocabulary?

8. Provide a few examples of lexical differences between British English and American English.
9. Is Canadian English closer to American or British English?
10. Which of the English varieties was greatly influenced by the francophones?
11. Are there any uniquely Canadian English words?
12. Are there any regional varieties in Australian English?
13. What languages influenced the formation of the Australian English word-stock?
14. Are there any regional varieties in New Zealand English?
15. What languages influenced the formation of the New Zealand English word-stock?
16. Give a few examples of uniquely Australian English words.
17. Give a few examples of uniquely New Zealand English words?

TEST BANK

PROGRESS TEST 1

1/ The basic unit forming the word is the:
a. group of morphemes
b. morpheme
c. stem
d. inflection

2/ When an inflection is stripped from the word, what remains is a:
a. bound base
b. combining form
c. root
d. stem

3/ Unlike roots, ... are always (semi)bound morphemes.
a. affixes
b. only prefixes
c. only suffixes
d. stems

4/ Suffixes serve to supply the stem with components of ... meaning, and thus form different words.
a. contextual
b. lexical
c. lexico-grammatical
d. lexical and lexico-grammatical

5/ The following is the example of ...: *(emote- + icon- >emoticon)*
a. back formation
b. shortening
c. conversion
d. blending

6/ Prefixes which occur in speech in various utterances both as independent words and as derivational affixes (e.g. *to run out*, *to outgrow*) are qualified as:
a. bound morphemes
b. free morphemes
c. lexico-grammatical morphemes
d. none of these

7/ The compound below is an instance of a syntactical compound:
a. *Afro-Asian*
b. *bedroom*
c. *I-know-what-you're-going-to-say*

d. *man-of-war*

8/ An abbreviation which is read according to the rules of orthoepy as if it were an ordinary word (e.g. *NATO* /ˈneɪtoʊ/ "The North Atlantic Treaty Organization") is an instance of an:

a. acronym
b. alphabetic abbreviation
c. apheresis
d. apocope

9/ The following is the example of ...: (*loafer* > *to loaf*).

a. back formation
b. shortening
c. conversion
d. syntactic ellipses

10/ The following is the example of ...: (*The intellectuals are* ***muched*** *again*).

a. back formation
b. conversion
c. reversion
d. suffixation

PROGRESS TEST 2

1/ For dictionaries in which the words and their definitions are given in two different languages the term ... is used.

a. explanatory
b. translation
c. polyglot
d. none of these

2/ ... dictionaries represent the vocabulary as a whole with a degree of completeness depending upon the scope and bulk of the book in question.

a. Encyclopaedic
b. General
c. Special
d. Specialized

3/ A type of reference work arranged A-to-Z with in-depth articles, esp. about proper nouns, and which shares features of a general dictionary and encyclopedia, is considered as … .

a. a reference book other than a dictionary
b. a dictionary of proper names
c. an encyclopaedic dictionary
d. a general dictionary

4/ In 1775 Samuel Johnson, who was an English writer and scientist, compiled:

a. the first etymological dictionary

b. the first unilingual dictionary explaining difficult words

c. The Oxford English Dictionary (The OED) that contained 13 volumes

d. none of these

5/ The first monolingual dictionary in English was compiled by:

a. Robert Cawdrey in 1604

b. Samuel Johnson in 1775

c. NoahWebster in 1828

d. none of these

6/ American English is:

a. a dialect because it is peculiar to some region and has no normalised literary form

b. a regional variety because it has a literary normalised form called Standard American

c. is a separate language because it has developed a literature of its own, and is characterised by peculiarities in phonetics, spelling, grammar and vocabulary

d. none of these

7/ A *Briticism* is a word, idiom, or phrase … .

a. characteristic of or restricted to British English

b. characteristic of or restricted to English spoken in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland

c. characteristic of or restricted to British English, especially as compared with American English (as *lift* compared with *elevator*)

d. that originated in Britain but used actively in American English

8/ Australian English varieties (Broad, General, and Cultivated) are based on variations in … .

a. accent

b. grammar

c. spelling

d. word-stock

9/ New Zealand English has incorporated a great number of words from … .

a. Maori, the indigenous language of New Zealand

b. Maori, which is not indigenous to New Zealand but is one of migrant languages

c. American English

d. The slang of convicts transported to New Zealand in 1783 when the British Government sent a fleet of ships, the “First Fleet”, under the command of Captain Arthur Phillip, to establish a new penal colony in New South Wales

10/ The … variety of English was influenced by francophones.

a. Canadian
b. Jamaican
c. None of these
d. South African

KEYS

PROGRESS TEST 1

1 – b
2 – d
3 – a
4 – b
5 – d
6 – c
7 – d
8 – a
9 – a
10 – b

PROGRESS TEST 2

1 – b
2 – b
3 – b
4 – d
5 – a
6 – b
7 – b
8 – a
9 – a
10 – a

RECOMMENDED LITERATURE

COMPULSORY READING

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Навчальне видання
(англійською мовою)

Козлова Тетяна Олегівна

ЛЕКСИКОЛОГІЯ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ

Навчальний посібник для здобувачів ступеня вищої освіти бакалавра
спеціальності «Філологія»
освітньо-професійної програми «Мова і література (англійська)»

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