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Arap Anarbaev

ENGLISH
LEXICOLOGY

(a course of lectures)

Арап Анарбаев

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Рецензенты: кандидат филологических наук доцент, Мараш-Оглы Ш. В. Кандидат филологических наук, доцент К. Н. Назаров.

Ошский Государственный Университет

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1. THE OBJECT OF LEXICOLOGY

Problems for discussion.

1. The subject-matter of lexicology.
2. Types of lexicology
3. Diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of the vocabulary of the language.
4. The relationships existing between words.
5. The connection of lexicology with other aspects of the language.

1. The object of lexicology

Lexicology (from of. Lexis "word" and logos "learning") is a branch of linguistics, which studies the vocabulary of a language. Its basic task is to study the origin, the different properties of the vocabulary of a language. The term <u>vocabulary</u> is used to denote the system formed by the sum total of all the words and word equivalents that the language possesses. Lexicology is concerned with words and set phrases, which function in speech. Lexicology also studies all kinds of semantic relations (synonyms, antonyms etc.) and semantic grouping (semantic fields).

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

<u>General lexicology</u> is a part of general linguistics, which studies the general properties of words, the specific features of words of any particular language. It studies the peculiarities of words common to all the language^ General lexicology attempts to find out the universals of vocabulary development and patterns. Linguistic phenomena and properties common to all languages are generally called language universals.
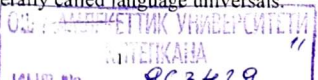
<u>Special lexicology</u> devotes its attention to the description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language. Special lexicology deals with the words of a definite language. Ex.: English lexicology, Russian lexicology, Kyrghyz lexicology and so on.

The evolution of any vocabulary, as well as of its single element, forms the object of <u>historical lexicology</u>. This branch of linguistics discusses the origin of various words, their change and development and investigates the linguistic and extralinguistic forces modifying their structure, meaning and usage. In the past historical treatment was always combined with the comparative method.

In descriptive lexicology the words "to take", "to adopt" are considered as being English not differing from such native words as "child", "foot" etc. But in historical lexicology they are treated as borrowed words

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

Comparative lexicology deals with the properties of the vocabulary of two or more languages. In comparative lexicology the main characteristic features of the words of two or more languages are compared.

Ex. Russian-English lexicology, English-French lexicology and etc.

The distinction between the two basically different ways in which language may be viewed, the historical or diachronistic (Gr., dia 'through' and chronos "time') and the descriptive or synchronistic (Gr, syn 'together', 'with'), is a methodological distinction, a difference of approach, artificially separating for the purpose of study what is real language is inseparable, because actually every linguistic structure and system exists in a state of constant development. The distinction between a synchronistic and diachronistic approach is due to the Swiss philologist Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913).

Linguisystic relationships between words are classified into syntagmatic and paradigmatic.

Syntagmatic relationships are based on the linear character of speech, i.e. on the influence of context. The context is the minimum stretch of speech which is necessary to bring out the meaning of a word. Ex. take tea (чай ичүү— пить чай) take tram (трамвайга чыгуу- ехать в трамвае).

Sintagmaic relationships are studied by means of contextual, distributional, transformational and some other types of analysis.

The paradigmatic relationships are the relations between words within the vocabulary, polysemy, synonymy, antonyms of words etc. These are two approaches to the study of the vocabulary of language - diachronic and synchronic approach deals with the vocabulary as it exists at a given time, at the present time. The diachronic approach studies the changes and the development of vocabulary in the course of time. Ex. synchronically the words "help", "accept", "work", "produce" are all of them English words. But diachronically they came from different

languages. Such words as "childhood", "friendship", "freedom" were at one time compound words, because the suffixes - dom, - hood. - ship were independent words but synchronically they are derived words because 'dom' and 'hood' became suffixes.

In the 1 9'h century and at the beginning of the 20th century lexicology was mainly based on historical principles. At the present time the following method of linguistic research are widely used by lexicologists, distributional, transformational, analysis into immediate constituents, statistical, componential, comparative etc.

Lexicology has some subdivisions, such as:

1) Semasiology (deals with the meaning of the word):

2) Wordformation (studies all possible ways of the formation of new words in English);

3) Etymology (studies the origin of words);

4) Phraseology (studies the set-expressions, pliraseological units);

5) Lexicography (studies compiling dictionaries).

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

The wordformaton. The semantic structure of correlated words and their usage in speech are different in different languages. Every language has its own lexical system.

Lexicology is closely connected with other aspects of the language: grammar, phonetics, the history of the language and stylistics. Lexicology is connected with grammar because the word seldom occurs in isolation words alone do not form communication. It is only when words are

connected and joined by the grammar rules of a language communication becomes possible On the other hand grammatical form and function of the word affect its lexical meaning. For example. When the verb "go" in the continuous tenses is followed by "to" and an infinitive; it expresses a future action. Ex. He is not going to read this book. Participle II of the verb "be" denotes the negative meaning. Ex. The house is gone.

So the lexical meanings of the words are grammatically conditioned. Lexicology is linked with phonetics because the order and the arrangement of phonemes are related to its meaning. Ex. the words "tip" and "pit" consist of the same phonemes and it is the arrangement of phonemes alone which determines the meaning of the words. The arrangement of phonemes in the words "increase'" and "increase" is the same. Only stress determines the difference in meaning.

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

There is also a close relationship between lexicology and stylistics. The words "to begin" and "to commence" mean one and the same meaning but they can never be used interchangeable because they have different stylistic references.

QUESTIONS:

1) What is the subject-matter of lexicology

2) What types of lexicology do you know?

3) What is the difference between general and special lexicologies?

4) What is the difference between descriptive and historical lexicologies?

5) What are the differences between comparative and noncomparative lexicologies?

6) What is the difference between the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relationships in words?

7) What do you know about diaehronic and synchronic approaches to the study of the vocabulary of the language?

8) What are the method of linguistic analysis used in modern lexicology?

9) What can you say about the connection of lexicology with other aspects of the language?

10) Is lexicology connected with grammar (phonetics, stylistics. history of the language)?

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THE ENGLISH WORD AS A STRUCTURE

Problems for discussion

1. The morphemic structure of the word.

2. The difference between the morpheme, the phoneme and the word.

3. Types of morphemes.

4. The stem and its types.

5. Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the analysis of the stem of the word.

6. Wordformation.

7. Diaehronic and synchronic study of wordformation.

8. Types of wordformation.

9. Affixation and its subdivision.

10. The difference between suffixes and prefixes.

The.morphemic structrure of the word. Most of the words have a composite nature and they are made up of morphemes. A morpheme is the smallest indivisiable, two-faced language unit.

The term morpheme is derived from Gr morphe «form» + -eme. The Greek suffix -eme has been adopted by linguists denote the smallest unit or the minimum distinctive feature. The morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of a form. A form in these cases is a recurring discrete unit of speech.

Morphemes are subdivided into roots and affixes. The latter are further subdivided, according to their position, into prefixes, suffixes and infixes and according to their function and meaning, into derivational and functional affixes, the latter also called ending or outer formatives.

Morphemes might be divided into phonemes. But if we divide morphemes into phonemes, phonemes unlike morphemes have no meaning, (ex. T/ea/ch/er - teacher). Phonemes are used to make up morphemes. So the difference between morphemes and phonemes is that morphemes have meaning but phonemes have not. A morpheme differs from a word too. Unlike a word a morpheme does not occur separately in speech. It occurs in speech as a constituent part of a word.

Morphemes are divided into two; **free** and **bound**. Free morpheme is a morpheme which is identical with the word form. Ex. In the word "denationalize" only nation can be said as a free morpheme, as it is like a word form and can be used in isolation, de-.-al; -ize are bound morphemes because they cannot be used separately and do not coincide with word forms.

According to the number of morphemes words are divided into monomorphemic and polymorphemic. Monomorphemic words consist of one root -morpheme.

Ex. Boy, girl, dog. cat. Polymorphenic words consist of more than two or more morphemes.

Ex. Teacher. Unreasonable.

Morphemes are arranged in the word according to certain rules. The relations within the word and the interrelations between different types and

classes of words are called derivational relations. The basic unit at the derivational level is the stem.

The stem is a part of the word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm In the word forms «talk, talks, talked. talking)) we can receive the. stem «talk». There are three structural types of stems: simple, derived and compound. A stem is a part of the word which is identical with a root morpheme and to which the grammatical elements are added.

Ex. Book, tram, teach, table, girl, boy. A derived stem is such a stem which can be divided into a root and affix: girl<u>ish</u>, agree<u>ment</u>, accept<u>able</u>, teach<u>er</u>.

But derived stems are not always polymorphemic. Compound stems are stems which consist of two or more stems. Ex. match-box, paintbox, play-boy, book-case, door handle etc. We must differ two approaches to the analysis of word structure: diachconic and synchronic words like «kingdom», «childhood», «friendship» are called words which have a derived stem because in modern English the element-dom». «hood», «ship» are suffixes. However they consisted of two root morphemes in old English and they were compound words. Synchronically the word «lord» has a simple stem but diachronically it had a compound stem. (O.E. hiatweard). The verbs "misappoint", "return", "remark" and others have no derived stems but simple stems because in modern English these words are not divided into return, disappoint etc because there are semantic relations between ((disappoint)) (dis-appint) and "return", and return etc.

Wordformation.

Wordformation is the creation of new words from the elements existing in the language. Every language has its own structural patterns of wordformation. Words like (writer), (worker), (teacher), (manager) and many others follow the structural pattern of wordformation (w+er). Wordformation may be studied synchronieally and diachronically. Synchronically we study those of wordformation which characterize the present-day English linguistic system, while diachronically we investigate the history of wordformation. The synchronie type of wordformation does not always coincide with the historical system of wordformation. Ex. The words (return) and (turn) historically had semantic relation and (return) was considered as a word derived from (turn). But synchronically these words have no semantic relations and we cannot say that (return) is derived from turn.

Synchronically the most important and the most productive ways of wordfomation are: affixation, conversion, wordcomposition. Beside them there are other types of wordformation such as: shortening, soundinterchange, blending, bakformation. Two types of wordformation may be distinguished: word-derivation and word- composition. Word formed by word-derivation have only one stem and one or more derivational affixes (ex. Kindness from kind). Some derived words have no affixes through conversion (ex. To paper from paper). Words formed by word composition have two or more stems (ex. Bookcase, note-book). Besides there are words created by derivation and composition Such words are called derivational compounds (ex. Longlegged).

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

Affixation.

A suffix is a derivational morpheme following the stem and forming a new derivate in a different part of speech or a different word class (Ex. Hand + full).

A prefix is a derivational morpheme standing before the root and. modifying meaning (Ex. Un + like). Prefixes modify the lexical meaning of the stem meaning

i.e. the prefixed derivative mostly belongs to a different part of speech. Ex. like(v.)-dislike (v). kind(adj) - unkind (adj). But suffixes transfer words to a different part of speech Ex. teach - teacher.

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

Within the parts of speech suffixes have been classified semantically according to lexico - grammatical groups, and last but not least, according to the types of stems they are added to.

Noun forming suffixes:

- age (bondage, breakage), - ance-ence (assistance, expirience); - ancy-ency (vacancy, tendency). - ant/ - ent (disinfectant, student); - dom (kingdom, freedom); -ship (friendship) and others.

Numeral suffixes:

- foid (tofold): -teen(fourteen); -th (seventh); -ty (sixty)

Adjective - forming suffixes:

- able/ -ible/ -uble (unbearable, audible, soluble); -IC (public)

- ant/ -ent (repentant, dependent);

- ary (revolutionary), -ful (delightful)

- ian (Australian) and others.

Verb - forming suffixes:

- ate (facilitate), -er (glimmer), -en (shorten): -fy-ify (testiy, spesify, solidify);

-ize (equalize); -ish (establish).

Adverb - forming suffixes:

-ly (coldly); -ward/-wards (upward, northwards); -wise (likewise) Lexico - grammatical groups:

Abstract nouns are signalled by the following suffixes: - ago, - ance / once, -ancy/ - ency, - dom, - hood, - ing, -ment, ness and others.

Personal nouns that are emotionally neutral occur with the following suffixes:

- an (grammarian) -ant/ -ent (servant, student)

- arian (vegetarian), - ee (nominee) er – (exporter) and a few others Feminine suffixes may be classed as a subgroup of personal noun suffixes. These are few and not frequent:

-ess(actress), I

-in (heroine), - nix (testatrix), -ette (suffragette)

In English there about 25 prefixes which can transfer words to a different part of speech» Ex - head(n) - behead(v): bus(n) - debus(v) brown(adj) - embrown(v), large(adjj) - enelarge(v)

An infix is an affix placed within the word, like - n- in stand. There are different classifications of affixes in linguistic literature. Affixes may be divided into dead and living.

Dead affixes are those which are no longer felt in Modern English as component parts of words. They can be singled out only by an etymological analysis. Ex. Admit (from ad + mittere): dead, seed, (d) flight, bright) (t)

Living affixes are easily singled out from a word. Ex. Freedom, childhood, marriage.

Living affixes are traditionally in their turn divided into **productive and non-productive. Productive affixes** are those which are characterized by their ability lo make new words. Ex. - er (baker; lander — косм корабль); - ist (leftist - левый)

- ism. -ish (badlish), -ing, -ness, -ation. -ee. -ry, -or, -once, -ic are productive suffixes,

- re-, un, -non-, anti- etc arc productive prefixes. Non -productive affixes arc those which are not used to form new words in Modern English: ex. -ard, -cy, -ive, -en, -dom, -ship, -ful. -en, -ify, etc. There are non productive suffixes, -in (if),-ir (im), mis-, dis are non - productive prefixes. Some linguists distinguish between two types of prefixes:

1) Those which are like functional words (such as prepositions or adverbs) (ex. out-, over-, up-, etc)

2) Those which are not correlated with any independent words (ex. Un- . dis-. re- mis, etc)

QUESTIONS:

1. What is a morpheme?

2. What is the difference between a morpheme and a phoneme? A morpheme and a word?

3. What types of morphemes do you know?

4. What is the stem? What types of stems do you know?

5. What are the synchronic and diachronic approaches to the analysis of the stem?

6. What is the subject - matter of wordformation?

7. What can you say about the types of wordformation?

8. What do you understand by affixation'.'

9. What is affixation subdivided into?

10. What is a prefix and a suffix?

11. What do you understand by dead and living affixes?

12. What difference can you see. between productive and non-productive affixes?

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3. SHORTENED WORDS

Problems for discussion

1. **Shortening and its characteristic features.**
2. **Clippings and abbreviations.**
3. **Sound interchange.**
4. **Back-formation.**
5. **Blending.**
6. **Conversion.**

1. Shortening and its characteristic features.

Word-building processes involve not only qualitative but also quantitative changes. Thus, derivation and compounding represent addition, as affixes and free stems, respectively, are added to the underlying form.

The shortening of words means substituting a part for a whole, part of the word is taken away and used for the whole.

Ex.:   demo (n.) from "demonstration"

vac. (n.) from "vacuum cleaner"

doc. (n.) from "doctor" frig,

fridge (n.) from "refrigerator"

fig (n.) from "figure"

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

Ex : exam (colloq.) - examination (neutral)

chap (colloq.) - Chapman (neutral)

Shortened words are structurally simple words and in most cases have the same lexical meaning as the longer words from which they are derived. Shortening is not a derivational process because there are no structural patterns after therefore we can't say that shortening is a derivational word formation. Every kind of shortening differs from derivation, composition and conversion in being not a new arrangement of existing morphemes, but often a source of new ones.

The spoken and the written forms of the English language have their own patterns of shortening, but as there is a constant exchange between both spheres, it is sometimes difficult to tell where a given shortening really originated.

Shortening of spoken words consist in the reduction of a word to one of its parts, as a result of which the new form acquires some linguistic value of its own.

2. Clippings and abbreviations.

Clipping consists in the cutting off of one or several syllables of a word. In many cases the stressed syllables are preserved.

Clipping is classified into the following types depending on which part of the word is clipped:

1)   final clipping ■ words that have been shortened at the end. Fix: ad. - "advertisement"; lab - "laboratory":

Jap. - "Japanese"; si s -"sister"

2)   initial clipping- words that have been shortened at the beginning.

Ex.: car. - "motor-car": phone. - "telephone":

van. - "caravan": cast. - "broadcast

3)   medial clipping: words in which syllables have been omitted from the middle so called syncope

Ex.: maths, -"mathematics"; specs. - "spectacles

4)   final and initial clipping may be combined words that have been shortened at the beginning and at the end. These are few an d definitely colloquial:

Ex.: flu -"influenza"; tec.-"detective"

It is worthy of note that, what is retained is the   stressed syllable of the prototype.

Clippings do not always coincide in meaning with the original word.

Ex.: "doc." and "doctor" - have the meaning "one who practices medicine, but "doctor" is also "the highest degree given by a university to a scholar or scientist" and "a person who has received such a degree" whereas "doc" is not used with these meanings.

Abbreviations consist of the first letters of a word group or a compound word or the component of a two member word group is shortened

Ex.: CPSU; YCL, USA; BBC; NATO.

The last one is not changed.
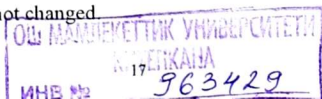
Ex.: V. -Day.- "Victory Day".

Among abbreviations there are homonyms. One and the same sound and graphical complex may be different words.

Ex.: vac.-"vacation";

vac. - "vacuum cleaner";

prep.-"preposition";

prep. - "preparaty school"

In abbreviations we stress each letter.

Ex.: TUC [ti:'ju:'si:] - Trade Union Congress.

If they are pronounced in accordance with the rules of phonetics we stress the first syllable.

Ex.: NATO ['nejtou].

Clippings and abbreviations have some peculiarities as simple words: they take the plural endings and that of the possessive case, they take grammatical inflexions.

Ex.: 'exams; docs; cars: doc's"

They are used with articles:

Ex.: "the USA; a lab: a vac; a doc"

They may take derivational affixes:

Ex.: "YCL-er;M.P.-ess".

3. Sound interchange.

Sound interchange may be defined as an opposition in which words or word forms are differentiated due to an alternation in the phonetic composition of the root.

The process is not active in the language at present, and oppositions like those listed above swivel in the vocabulary exist only as remnants of previous stages.

Sound interchange may be considered as a way of forming words only diachronically because in Modem English we can't find a single word which can be formed by changing the root-vowel of a word or by shifting the place of the stress. Sound interchange is nonproductive.

Sound interchange may be divided into vowel interchange and consonant interchange.

Ex.: full (a) -to fill (v), food (if) - to feed (v)

blood (n) - to bleed tv)

Here we have vowel interchange and by means of vowel interchange we can distinguish different parts *oi* speech. There are some examples of consonant interchange:

Ex.: advice - to advise; use - to use;

speak - to speech, defense - defend; offence - oftend.

4. Backformation.

Backformation is a term borrowed from diachronic linguistics. It denotes the derivation of new words by subtracting a real or supposed affix from existing words through misinterpretation of their structure.

Ex.: The nouns "beggar, butler, cobbler, typewriter" are very much like the nouns "actor, painter, teacher" which have the suffixes -"er, -or". On the analogy ot the derivatives "teacher, speaker, reader" the words "beggar, butter, cobbler, typewriter" synchronically are derived from "to beg, to butle, to cob, to typewrite" because we do not feel any difference

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between the relationship "speak - speaker" and "beg-beggar", but if we study their origin we see "bute" was derived from "butlers", "to beg" was derived from "beggar".

These examples are sufficient to show how structural changes taking place in back formation became possible because of semantic changes that preceded them the change of meaning resulted in demotivation, and this paved the way for phonic changes, assimilation, loss of sound and the like, which in their turn led to morphemic alternations that became meaningful.

5. Blending.

There is a specific group that has attracted special attention of several authors and was even given several different names blends, blendings. fusions or portmanteau words.

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

Ex: The noun "smog" is composed of the parts of nouns "smoke" and "log"

The result of blending is an unanalysable simple word.

The analysis into immediate constituents is helpful so far as it permits the definition of a blend as a л void with the first contilunt represented by a stem whose final part may be missing and the second constituent when used m a series ol similar blends, may turn into a suffix "-on" is. for instance, well underway in such terms as "nylon, silon". formed from the final element of "cotton".

Blends, although not very numerous altogether, seem to be on the rise especially in terminology and also m trade advertisements.

CONVERSION

Conversion is a very productive way of forming new words m Modern English, (ex. work—to work, pen—to pen, to walk -walk). The term conversion was first used by Sweet in his book «New English Grammar in 1892.

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

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

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

Prof. A.L. Smimitsky says that conversion is the formation of a new word by a change of paradigm. It is the paradigm that is used as a wordbuilding means. Ex, in Kyrgyz: китептер, китептин. китеби, китебим, китебиң, -лар, -дын, -нин,   -не, -дан, -да, -и, -им, -иц ete. are the paradigms of the noun (китеп). In English book, books'; book's, -s, 's, s¹ are the paradigms of the noun «book)); book v—booked, he books, booking, booked, -ed, **ed** (the **ending of P II**)-s, -ing, are the paradigms of the verb «to book». So conversion can be described as a morphological way of forming words.

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

Ex. lufu — luf— love n.

lufian — luf— love v

andswarn —— andswar — answer n

andswarian —andswar — answer v

Some new words formed by conversion were created on the analogy of the semantic patterns existed in the language.

Ex. to motor —travel by car

to phone—use the telephone

to wire—send a telegram

On the synchronic level conversion is considered as a type of forming new words by means of paradigms The two words differ only in their paradigms. Synchronically the most common types of conversion are the creation of verbs from nouns and the formation of nouns from verbs:

1) verbs converted from nouns:

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

2) nouns converted from verbs:

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

Derivations irom the stems of other parts ol speech are less common. Fx. wrong (adj) — to wrong, up (adj) — to up. down (adv)—to down.

Nouns may be also formed from verb + postpositive phrases. Ex: to make up— a make up. To call up— a call up, to take off— a take-off etc.

QUESTIONS

1. What do you understand by the term "shortening"?
2. What is the peculiarity of shortened words?
3. What is the classification of the clippings?
4. What distinction is made between abbreviations and clippings?
5. What do you understand by the term sound interchange"
6. What is understood by the term 'back formation"?
7. When was the term "conversion" first used?
8. What is the origin of conversion?
9. What are the most common types of conversion you know?

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4. SEMASIOLOGY

Problems for discussion

1. **Semasiology and its subject - matter.**
2. **The definition of the term "meaning of the word".**
3. **Types of meanings.**
4. **The Semantic Structure of Polysemantic Words**

1. Semasiology and its subject matter.

The branch of linguistics concerned with the meaning of words and word equivalents is called semasiology. The name comes from the Greek "semasia" -

signification.

The main objects of semasiological study are following: semantic development of words, its causes and classification, relevant distinctive features and types of lexical meaning, polysemy and semantic structure of words, semantic grouping and connections in the vocabulary system, synonyms, antonyms, and terminological systems.

2. The definition and its term "meaning of the word"

The definition of lexical meaning has been attempted more than once in accordance with the main principles of different linguistic schools. The disciples of F. De Saussure consider meaning to be the relation between the object or notion named, and the name itself. Descriptive linguistics of the Bloomfieldian trend defines the meaning as the situation in which the word is uttered. Both ways of approach afford no possibility of a further investigation of semantic problem:- in strictly linguistic terms, and

therefore, if taken as a basis for general linguistic theory, give no insight into the mechanism of meaning. Some of L.Bloomfield's successors went so far as to exclude semasiology from linguistics on the ground that meaning could not be studied "objectively", and was not part of language but "an aspect of the use to which language is put" This point of view was never generally accepted. The more general opinion is well revealed in R.Yakobson's pun. He said: "Linguistics without meaning is meaningless". This crisis of semasiology has been over for some twenty years now, and the problem of meaning has provided material for a great number of books. articles and dissertations.

In our country the definitions of meaning given by various authors, though different in detail agree m the basic principle; they all point out that lexical meaning is the realization of concept or emotion by means of a definite language system.

The definition stresses that semantics studies only such meanings that can be expressed, that is concepts bound by signs.

3. Types of meanings.

There are two main types of meaning:

1) the grammatical meaning,
2) the lexical meaning.

The grammatical meaning is the formal meamng of a word. It is defined as the meaning belonging to the lexico-grammatical classes and grammatical categories. It is expressed by the word's form. Every word belongs to a definite part of speech and every part of speech has certain grammatical categories

The   verbs have tense, voice, mood, person etc.

The nouns have the categories of case, number etc.

Ex. the words "asked", thought", 'talked", "took", "ran" - have the grammatical meaning of tense.

The grammatical meaning unite words into big groups such as parts of speech.

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

The lexical meaning of a word falls into two:

1) the denotational meaning;

2) the connotational meaning.

Denotational meaning makes communication possible because a word denotes things, concepts, they name them.

Ex. the denotational meaning of the word "table" is a piece of furniture consisting of a flat top with four supports.

Connotational meaning is a meaning which has a stylistic shade; It serves to express all sorts of emotions expressiveness. Connotation may be shortly defined as emotional and evaluative component of the lexical meaning. Comparing the meanings of English words "well-known", "famous", "notorious" we see that all these words express the denotational meaning "widely-known". But the word "famous" has a positive evaluative meaning and "notorious" has a negative evaluation. So, the 'words "well-known", "famous", "notorious" differ in their emotional colouring and evaluation.

4. The Semantic Structure of Polysemantic Words.

Polysemy is the existence within one word of several connected meanings. These meanings appeared as a resuli of the development and changes of its original meaning.

Words are divided into two: polysemantic and monosemantic words Monosemantic words have only one meaning. Monosemantic words are mostly scientific terms:

Ex. Hydrogen.

Polisemantic words arc words which have more than two meanings.

Ex. The word man has several meanings in modern English.

MAN 1) адам

2) адвокат

3) эркек

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

Ex. "father" - the primary meaning is ата.
Secondary is - жашы чон адам, журт башы.

Synchronically polysemy is understood as the coexistence of various meanings of the word at a certain historical period of the development of English.

QUESTIONS

1. What does semasiology study?

2. What is the definition of the term "meaning of a word?

3. What is the difference between the grammatical meaning and the lexical

meaning?

4. What types of the lexical meaning do you know-?

5. What is understood by the term "polysemy?

6. What is the difference between polysemantic and monosemantic words?

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5. ENGLISH VOCABULARY AS A SYSTEM.
HOMONYMS. SYNONYMS. ANTONYMS.

Problems for discussion:

1. Homonyms and their classification.
2. The sources of homonyms.
3. Polysemy and homonymy
4. Synonyms and their classification.
5. The sources of synonyms.
6. Antonyms and their classification.

Homonyms.

Two or more words identical in sound and spelling, but different in meaning, distribution and (in many cases) origin are called homonyms The term s derived from Greek ("homos" - "similar" and "onoma" - "name").

Ex.: ball-бал, ball-мяч;

toast-поджаривать хлеб, toast-провозглашать тост

Homonyms must be studied diachronieally and synchronically Diachrotnically we study the origin of homonyms, the sources of homonyms the time of their appearance in the language. Synchronically we analyse the present pecularities of homonyms, their classification, etc. Homonyms are classified into:

1. Homonyms proper,
2. Homophones,
3. Homographs.

Homonyms proper are words identical in pronunciation and spelling and different in meaning.

Ex.: fast-quickly, fast- to do smth, quickly;

back-назад, back-спина,

spring-пружина, spring-весна, spring-родник.

<u>Homophones</u> are words of the same sound form but of different spelling and meaning. Ex.:

> air-воздух, heir-наследник:
>
> pail-ведро, pale-бледный:
>
> son-сын, sun-солнце,
>
> hymn-him,
>
> knight-night,
>
> peace-piece,
>
> write-right,
>
> see-sea,
>
> read-reed.

<u>Homographs</u> are words which are different in sound and in meaning but identical in spelling. Ex.:   lead [li: d] - lead [ledJ;

> tear [tea] -tear [tia]
>
> wind [wind] - wind [waind]

Prof. Smirnitsky has suggested his classification of homonyms based on the

lexico-grammatical principle:

1. Lexical homonyms are those words which belong to one part of speech but they differ only in their lexical meaning.

Ex.:   seal - a sea animal,

seal - a design printed on paper stamp;

hair — hare.

ball-ball.

2. Lexico-grammatical homonyms are those words which differ in their lexical and grammatical meanings.

Ex.:　sea-to see.

　　　seal - a sea animal,

　　　to seal - to close tightly,

　　　work - to work,

　　　well - adverb,

　　　well - колодец.

3. Grammatical bomonymy is the homonymy of different word forms of one and the same word (part of speech)

Ex.:　boys - boy's,

　　　asked - past tense,

　　　asked - parlicipal II.

There are some sources of homonyms. They are:

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

Ex.:　spring-пружина,

　　　spring-родник,

　　　spring-весна:

Can be etymologically traced back to the same source, "flower" and "flour"

Which originally was one word (M.E. flour)?

2. Many homonyms came as a result of converging sound development.

Ex.: OE ic and OE ase have become identical in pronunciation. 1 (pron.) and eye (n.). love (v.) — love n (OE lufulufįan).

3. Many homonyms arose from conversion, they have related meanings.

Ex.: paper - to paper,
 support - to support.

4. The formation of different grammatical forms may cause homonyms' girl's -
girls .

5. Barrowed words may become homonyms as a result of phonetic convergience.

Ex.: Scandinavian "ras" and French "rase" are homonyms in English:

гасе - состязание, гасе - рейс: case - падеж, case - чемодан, case - случай.

Homonymy and polysemy are different categories. In polysemy we deal with the different meanings of the same word. In homonymy we have different words which have their own meanings.

In modern English homonyms are widely spread. Homonymic relation can be
found not only in words but also:

1. Between morphemes. Ex.: It's raining. Flattering won't help. Fill your
glasses. All is well that ends well.

2. Between words and morphemes. Ex.: He couldn't get over the shock. The watch is shockproof

3. Between words and word-combinations. Ex.: Don't run away. The runaway was caught.

4. Between words and sentences. Ex.: I don't care . Look and I don't care attitude.

Homonyms differ in their wordformational activity. Ex.: "affect"[1] - has 8 derivatives, whereas, "affect" 2- has 3.

Synonyms.

Grouping of words is based upon similarities and contrasts. The similarity of meanings is found in synonymic groups.

Synonyms arc words belonging to the same part of speech, different in morphemic composition and phonetic shape, but identical or similar in meaning and interchangeable at least in some contexts.

Ex.: jump, hop, leap, spring, defend, protect, guard, shield: go, leave, depart; error mistake. Complete synonyms do not exist. Bloomfield says each linguistic form has a constant and specific meaning.

The basis of a synonymic opposition is formed by the first of the above named components, i.e. the denotational component. It will be remembered that the term opposition means the relationship of partial difference between two partially similar elements of a language. A common denotational component brings the words together into a synonymic group.

Each synonymic group contains one word the meaning of which has no additional connotations (it can be used in different styles). This word is called a synonymic dominant. Ex.: in the group: change, alter, vary, modify the word "change" is the synonymic dominant.

The synonymic dominant should not be confused with a generic term. A generic term is relative. It serves as the name for the notion of the genus as distinguished from the names of the species. For instance, animal is a generic term as compared to the specific names dog. wolf or mouse (which are not synonyms). <u>DOG</u>. in its turn , may serve as a generic term for different breeds such as <u>bull-dog, collie, poodle,</u> etc.

Synonyms may also differ in emotional coloring which may be present in one element of the group and absolute in all or some of the others.

Synonyms may be divided into:

1.   Ideographic synonyms,

2.   Stylistic synonyms.

Synonyms which differ in their denotational meanings are called <u>ideographic synonyms</u>. If the difference lies in their stylistic difference the synonyms are said to be stylistic. Ex.: beautiful (usually about girls) and handsome (usually about men). These are ideographic synonyms but " to die - to pass away", " to begin - to commence", " to sell - to behold": " to end - to complete", " horse - steed" are stylistic synonyms.

Neutral words	Stylistically colored words
to see	to behold (bookish)
a girl	a maiden (poetic)
money	dough (colloquial")
food	grub (colloquial)
to live	to hand out (colloquial)

In a stylistic opposition of synonyms the basis of comparison is again the denotatioual meaning and the distinctive feature is the presence or

absence of a stylistic coloring which may also be accompanied by a difference in emotional coloring.

The study of synonyms is a borderline province between semantics and stylistics on the one hand and semantics and phraseology on the other because of the synonymic collocations serving as a means of emphasis Prof. Aznaurova H.S. points out that stylistic synonyms carry emotional evaluative information.

Synonyms are distributionally different words. Ex.: "too", "also[1]", "as well" are synonyms. They also occur in different surroundings. The synonyms differ in their collocabihtv Ex: We compare the collocability of synonyms " to book' and "to buy".

Possible	Impossible
to book in advance	to buy in advance
to book somebody	to buy somebody
to book seats	to buy seats
to buy cheaply	to book cheaply
to buy from a person	to book from a person

In a great number of cases the semantic difference between two or more synonyms is supported by the difference in valency.

The difference in distribution may be syntactical morphological, lexical and surely deserves more attention than has been so far given to it.

Lexical difference in distribution is based on the difference in valence.

Ex.: win, gain. Both may be used in combination with the noun "victory": to win victory, to gain a victory. But with the word '"war" only "win" is possible: to win a war.

Contextual synonyms are similar in meaning only under some specific distributional conditions. The verbs "bear", "suffer" and "stand" are semantically different and not interchangeable except when used in the negative form; can't stand is equal to can't bear in the following words of an officer: I've swallowed too much of the beastly stuff. I can't stand it any longer. I'm going to the dressing - station. (Aldington).

Total synonymy, i.e. synonymy where the members of a synonymic group can replace each other in any given context, without the slightest alteration in denotative or emotional meaning and connotations, is an extremely rare occurrence. Examples of this type can be found in special literature among technical terms peculiar to this or that branch of knowledge. Ex.: In linguistics the terms "noun" and "substantive", "functional affix", "flection" and "inflection" are identical in meaning.

The mam sources of synonyms are :

1. Borrowings: to ask - to question: (K) - to interrogate. (I.) to begin (A.S) - to commence (F) - to initiate (E - rise (F)) - ascend (E):

2. The formation of verb + adverb (v+ adv) combinations like "have a smoke"

> to rest - to have a rest
>
> to swim - to have a swim
>
> to smoke - to have a smoke;

3. Shortening: vacation- vac, doctor - doc, sister - sis:

4. Conversion: laughter - laugh;

5 Many set expressions consisting of a verb with a postpositive element form synonyms:

> Ex.: to choose - to pick out

to continue - to go on

to return - bring back;

6. Euphemisms, i.e. words which are used instead of unpleasant words:

Ex.: drunk - merry

lodger - paying guest

to die - to go away

commandment - command;

7. Slang, i.e. emotionally colored words which are the secondary names of objects.

Ex.: сокрушить - crusher (полицейский)

тюрьма - can (дословно - консервная банка)

убить - to bump off   (дословно - пристукнута,)

казнить - to fry (дословно - зажарить)

Antonyms

Antonyms are words which belong to the same part of speech and have contrary meanings.

Ex.: kind - cruel, good - bad. big - small, little - much.

Antonyms may be divided into:

1. Root antonyms (absolute): Ex.: good - bad, beautiful - ugly;

2. Derivational antonyms. These antonyms are formed by affixes.

Ex.: kind - unkind, to like - dislike, happy - unhappy

Antonyms are not always interchangeable in certain contexts.

Ex.. " rich voice" can not be changed into "poor voice". The opposite of a "short person" is a tall person. "A short thing" - "long thing", "an old

book" - "a new book", "an old man" - "a young man", "a thin man" - "a fat man". Antonyms may" be found among qualitative adjectives as: good - bad, deep - shallow; nouns as: light -darkness; verbs as: "to give" and "to take"; 'adverbs as: quickly - slowly, early - late.

Many antonyms are explained by means of the negative particle "not".

Ex.: clean - not dirty, shallow - not deep.

Antonyms form pairs, not groups like synonyms: bad - good, big - little, old-new.

Polysemantic words may have antonyms in some of their meanings and поп in the others. Ex.: when the word "criticism" means "blame" its antonym is "praise", when it means "pencl 13\vi" it has no antonym.

QUESTIONS:

1. What is understood by the term "synonym"? Are there complete synonyms in English?

2. What is the dominant of a synonymic group?

3. What is the difference between ideographic synonyms and stylistic ones?

4 What is the collocability of synonyms?

5. What are the main sources of synonyms?

6. What is a homonym?

7. What is the classification of homonyms?

8. What is a homophone? Homograph?

9. What principle of classification of homonyms was given by Smirnitskv?

10. What are the main sources of homonyms?

11. Whal is the difference between homonymy and polysemy?

12. What is understood by the term "antonyms"?

13. What is the classification of antonyms?

14. What is the interehangeability of antonyms in context?

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6. LEXICAL SYSTEMS. NEOLOGISM. PHRASEOLOGY

Problems for discussion.

1. **The English vocabulary as an adaptive system.**

2. **Neologisms.**

3. **Semantic fields.**

4. **Phraseology.**

The adaptive system approach gives a more adequate account of the systematic phenomena of a vocabulary by explaining more facts about the functioning of words and providing more relevant generalizations, because we can take into account the influence of extra-linguistic reality. The study of vocabulary as an adaptive system reveals the paradlmatic essence of the communication process, the way language is used to influence the addressee.

There is a considerable difference of opinion as to the type of system involved, although the majority of linguists nowadays agree that the vocabulary should be studied as a system.

The adaptive system approach to vocabulary is still in its infancy, but it is already possible to hazard an interim estimate of its significance. Language as well as other adaptive systems, better studied in their branches of science, is capable of obtaining information from the extra-linguistic world and with the help of feedback makes use of it for self-optimization. If the variation proves useful, it remains in the vocabulary. The process may be observed by its results, that is by studying new words or neologisms.

Neologism is any word, which is formed according to the productive structural patterns or borrowed from another language and felt by the

speakers as something new. So neologisms are newly coined words or phrase or a new meaning tor an existing word or a word borrowed from another language. As a result of the development of science and industry many new words are appeared in the language. Ex: isotope, tape-recorder, supermarket.

Neologisms may be divided into:

1) root words

Ex: jeep, sputnik,

2) derived words;

Ex: collaborationist - one who in occupied territory works helpfully with the

enemy.

3) compound:

Ex: space-rocket; air-drop, microfilm-reader.

Neologisms are mainly formed by:

I) wordformation;

Ex: -ics: psycholinguistics,

electronics, -nik: fllmnk, folknik.

2) semantic extension; Ex: to screen - to classify.

3) borrowing:

Ex: telecast, telestar, sputnik, lunnik.

Words joined together" by one common semantic component are called semantic fields.

The German linguist Yost Trier shows that the significance of each unit in the semantic field is determined by its neighbours. A. Shalkevitch says that semantically related words must occur near one another in the

text. If the words often occur in the text together they must be semantically related and they form a semantic field.

Ex: faint, feeble, weary, sick, tedious and healthy - form one semantic field, face, head, arm, hand, foot etc - make up I semantic field with the notion of body.

Phraseology studies the set-expressions, phraseological units. Functionally and semantically inseparable units are usually called phraseological units. Phraseologocal units cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced already made uniis. The lexical components m the phraseological units are stable and they are non-motivated, its meaning cannot be deduced from the meaning of its components and they do nol allow their lexical components to be changed or substituted.

In phraseological units the individual components do not seem to possess any lexical meaning outside the word group.

Ex: to take place, to lead the dance, to take care.

A.V.Kunin thinks that the phraseology must be an independent linguistics science and not a part of lexicology. His classification ol phraseological units is based on the functions of them in speech. They are: nominating, interjectional. and communicative.

V.V. Vinogradov classified phraseological units into three groups taking mto consideration their motivation. They are:

1) phraseological fusions: they are such units which are completely non-motivated word groups.

2) phraseological units;

3) phraseological collocations.

At present the term "phraseological unit" is usually used not to all set-expressions but only to those, which are completely or partially non-motivated.

According to their semantic and grammatical inseparability we may classify the phraseological units into: noun equivalents (heavy feather), verb equivalents (take place, break the news), adverb equivalents (in the long run, high and low).

Proverbs, saying sand quotation exist also as ready-made units with a specialized meaning of their own which can not be deduced from the meaning of their components. There fore they may be included in to phraseological units.

Ex: To be or not to be.
The history of main phrase-ologisms is an interesting record of the nation's past, of its way of life, customs and traditions. Many praseological units are connected with commerce.

Ex: to talk shop, to make the best of the bargain. Many phraseological units are associated with the sea (the waves).

Ex: all at sea, to sail under false colours. Many phraseological units were borrowed from the Bible.

Ex: Daily bread - хлеб насущный, средства к существованию
The usage of phraseological units in speech is a subject of research work of many linguists.

QUESTIONS

1. What are the semantic fields?

2. What are the most pecularities of phraseological units ?

3. What is the stability of phraseological units?

4. What is. the polysemy of phraseological units?

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7. REGIONAL VARIETIES OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

Problems for discussion

1. **Standard English variants and Dialects.**
2. **American English.**
3. **Canadian, Australian and Indian variants.**

Standard English - the official language of Great Britain taught a schools and universities, used by the press, the radio and the television and spoken by educated people may be defined as that form of English which is current and literary, substantially uniform and recognized as acceptable wherever English is spoken or understood. Its vocabulary is contrasted to dialect words or dialectisms.

Local dialects are varieties of the English language peculiar to some districts and having no normalized literary form are called **variants** In Great Britain there are two variants. Scottish English and Irish English, and five main groups of dialects; Northern, Midland, Eastern, Western and Southern. Every group contains several dialects

One of the most best known Southern dialects is **Cockney,** the regional dialect *of* London. According to E, Partridge and H.C. Wylde, this dialect exists on two levels. As spoken by the educated lower middle classes it is a regional dialect marked by some deviations in pronunciation but few in vocabulary and syntax. As spoken by the uneducated. Cockney differs from Standard English not only in pronunciation but also in vocabulary, morphology and syntax.

Dialects are now chiefly preserved in rural communities, in the speech of elderly people. Their boundaries have become less stable than

they used to be. The distinctive features are tending to disappear with the shifting of population due to the migration of working-class families in search of employment and the growing influence of urban life over the countryside. Dialects are said to undergo rapid changes under the pressure of Standard English taught at schools and the speech habits cultivated by radio, television and cinema.

Words from dialects and variants may penetrate into Standard English.

The variety of English spoken in the USA has received the name of American English. The term variant or variety appears most appropriate for several reasons. American English can not be called a dialect although it is a regional variety, becauseit has a literary normalized form called Standard American, whereas by definition given above a dialect has no literary form.

An Americanism may be defined as a word or a set expression peculiar to the English language as spoken in the USA.

The American variant of the English language differs from British English in pronunciation, some minor features in grammar, but chiefly in vocabulary. Many of the foreign elements borrowed into American English from the Indian languages or from Spanish penetrated very soon not only into British English but also into several other languages. Americanisms penetrate into Standard English and Briticisms come to be widely used in American speech. Americanisms mentioned as specific in manuals issued a few decades ago are now used on both sides of the Atlantic or substituted by terms formerly considered as specifically British. It was. for instance, customary to contrast the English word "autumn" with

the American "fall". In reality both words are used in both countries, only "autumn" is somewhat more elevated, while in England the word "fall" is now rare in literary use, though found m some dialects and surviving in set expressions:

Spring and fall , the fall of the year are still in fairly common use.

Cinema and TV are probably the most important channels for the passage of Americanisms into the language of Britain and other languages as well: the Germans adopted the word teenager and the French speak of l'automatisation. The influence of American advertising is also a vehicle of Americanisms . This is how the British term wireless is replaced by the Americanism radio.

The personal visits of British writers and scholars to the USA and all form of the personal contacts bring back Americanisms.

There are several other variants where difference from the British standard is normalized. Besides the Irish and Scottish variants that have been mentioned in the preceding paragraph, these are Australian English. Canadian English, Indian English. Each ot these has developed a literature of its own, and is characterized by peculiarities in phonetics, spelling, grammar and vocabulary.

Canadian English is influenced both by British and American English but it also has some specific features of its own. Specifically Canadian words are called Canadianisms. The vocabulary of all the variants is characterized by a high percentage of borrowings from the language of the people who inhabited the land before the English colonizers come. Many of them denote some specific realia **of** the new country: local animals, plants or weather conditions, new social relations,

new-trades and conditions of labor. At present there is no single "correct" English and the American, Canadian and Australian English have developed standards of their own. It would therefore have been impossible to attempt a lexicological description of all the variants simultaneously: the aim of this book was to describe mainly the vocabulary of British English.

QUESTIONS.

1. In what countries is the English language spoken?

2. What are the grammatical differences of English in Creat Britain and in the USA?

3 What arc the lexical differences of English in Great Britain and in the USA?

4. What are the semantic differences of English words in Great Britain and in the USA?

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8. LEXICOGRAPHY. METHODS USED IN LEXICOLOGICAL RESEARCH

Problems for discussion

1. **English dictionaries and their development.**
2. **Types of dictionaries.**
3. **The entry of dictionaries.**
4. **The structure of English dictionaries.**
5. **Different methods in lexicological research:**
   a) **contrastive analysis of words**
   b) **componential analysis of words**
   c) **immediate constituents analysis of words**
   d) **distributional analysis of words**
   e) **transformational analysis of words**
   f) **contextual analysis of words**

Lexicography.

Lexicography is a science of dictionary - compiling. Modem English lexicography appeared in the 15th century. In this period English - Latin dictionaries were in existence. The first dictionary of the English language was published in 1755 by Samuel Johnson, in which he gave the origin of words and examples from the works of the best writers.

Another major milestone is the New English Dictionary of Oxford English Dictionary It was written from 1888 up to 1928. It covers the vocabulary of English with a full historical evidence. It gives the full history of words. It has 13 volumes and supplement containing neologisms (new words).

The first important dictionary in American lexicography is Webster's American Dictionary of the English language It was published in 1828 in two volumes

The fundamental paper in lexicographic theory was written by L.V. Shcherba as far back as in 1940. A complete bibliography of the subject may be found in L. P. Stupin's works. Lexicography has a common object of study with lexicology, both describe the vocabulary of a language. The essential difference between the two lies in the degree of systematization and completeness each of them is able to achieve. Lexicology aims at systematization revealing characteristic features of words. Dictionaries aim at more or less complete description. The compilers approach to lexicological problems differently. For example, there is no clear border - line between homonymy and polysemy in different dictionaries. Thus in some dictionaries words such as fly - муха (чымын), (a two winged insect) and fly - материал для пуговиц топчу үчүн материал), (a flap of cloth covering the buttons on a garment) are treated as two different words and in others. (Ex. the Concise Oxford Dictionary and the Advanced Learners Dictionary of Current English) - as different meanings of one and the same word.

The term <u>dictionary</u> is used to denote a book listing words of a language with their meanings and often with data regarding pronunciation, usage and origin.

There are also dictionaries that concentrate their attention upon only one of these aspects: pronouncing (phonetical) dictionaries (by Daniel Jones) and etymological dictionaries (by Walter Skeat, by Erik Patridge, "The Oxford English Dictionary").

There are encyclopedic (non-linguistic) and linguistic dictionaries. An Encyclopedic dictionary gives the information of extralmguistic world. It gives the information about the important events, animals, and all branches of knowledge. They deal not with words but with facts and concepts.

There are two main types of dictionaries: <u>general</u> dictionaries and <u>special</u> dictionaries General dictionaries are divided into <u>explanatory</u> dictionaries and <u>parallel</u> or <u>translation</u> dictionaries <u>(bilingual</u> and <u>multilingual)</u>.

For dictionaries in which the words and their definitions belong to the same language the term <u>unilingual</u> or <u>explanatory</u> is used, whereas <u>bilingual</u> or <u>translation</u> dictionaries are those that explain words by giving their equivalents in another language. The most important unilingual dictionaries of the English language are "The Oxford English Dictionary". <u>Multilingual</u> or <u>polyglot</u> dictionaries are not numerous, they serve chiefly the purpose of comparing synonyms and terminology in various languages.

The best known explanatory dictionaries are: "The Shorter Oxford Dictionary" in two volumes, based on the NED, the COD (one volume). Chamber's 20f Century Dictionary (one volume), WNID. New Comprehensive Standard Dictionary, the New Random House Dictionary, Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, .etc.

Most of these dictionaries present the spelling, usage, pronunciation and meaning of words, grammatical information, origin of words, derivatives, phraseology, etymology, synonyms and antonyms. Pronunciation is shown either by means of the International phonetic

transcription or in British phonetic notation which is somewhat different in each of the larger reference books.

Ex. [:] is given as oh, aw, o. or, etc

The translation dictionaries are: Russian - English Dictionary under the edition of prof. A.I. Smirnitsky. New English - Russian Dictionary by I.R. Galperin, The Pocket English - Russian Dictionary by Бенюк, Чернюк, Kyrgyz - Rusian Dictionary by B.K.Youdahin.

The translation dictionaries are based on the comparative study of the languages. Among the general dictionaries we find Learner's Dictionary which is compiled for foreign language learners at different stages of advancement.

Ex. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English by Hornby. Latenby, Wakefield. It is a one - language (monolingual) dictionary compiled on the basis of COD. It differs from other dictionaries because it gives the information about the lexical or grammatical valency of words.

The Learner's English - Russian Dictionary by Folomkma, Weiser contains approximately 3.500 words.

<u>Specialized</u> dictionaries gives us the information of one or two particular peculiarities of words (ex. synonyms, oollocabihty, frequency, etymology, pronunciation, phraseological units, etc).

Special dictionaries may be further subdivided depending on whether the words are chosen according to the sphere of human activity in which they are used (technical dictionaries), the type of (he units themselves (e.g. phraseologieals dictionaries) or the relationships existing between them (e.g. dictionaries of synonyms).

The first subgroup embraces highly specialized dictionaries of limited scope which may appeal to a particular kind of reader. They register and explain technical terms for various branches of knowledge, art and trade, linguistic, medical, technical, economic terms, etc. Unilingual books of this type giving definitions of terms are called glossaries. They are often prepared by boards or commissions specially appointed for the task of improving technical terminology and nomenclature.

The best known dictionary of synonyms is Dictionary of English Synonyms, Expressions by Soule and Webster's Dictionary of Synonyms.

The best and most comprehensive collection of English phraseology is Л V. Koonin's English Phraseological Dictionary (in two volumes). The Oxford Dictionary of English Proverbs, Collin's Book of English Idioms,

There are other types of specialized dictionaries. Dictionaries of collocations. A Reumn's Dictionary of English Style. Dictionaries of Word Frequency (Dictionary of Frequency, Value of Combinability of Words. Moscow, 1976). Etymological dictionaries: W. Skeavs Etymological Dictionary of the English Language.

The most important problems the lexicographer comes across in compiling dictionaries are the selection of words. The selection, arrangement and definition of meanings and the illustrative examples to be supplied.

The most complicated type of entry is found in explanatory dictionaries. The entry of an explanatory dictionary of the synchronic type usually presents the following data: accepted spelling, pronunciation, grammatical characteristics, the indication of the part of speech, definition of meanings, modern currency, illustrative examples, derivatives,

phraseological units, etymology, synonyms, antonyms etc. The entry of translation dictionaries presents the meaning of words with the help of other languages.

Selection and the arrangement of meanings of words in different dictionaries are different. They depend on the aim of the compilers.

Diachronic dictionaries list more meanings than synchronic dictionaries of current English as they give not only the meanings in present-day use but also those which have already become archaic or gone out of use. Ex. SOD gives 8 meanings of the verb "arrive" while COD lists only five. The meanings of words in dictionaries may be defined by means of phrases, synonymous words and expressions. Frequency dictionaries, spelling books, etymological, ideographic and other dictionaries may have illustrative examples.

The structure of the dictionary consists of an Introduction and Guide to the use of the dictionary. It explains all the peculiarities of the dictionary and also gives a key to pronunciation, the list of abbreviations. Dictionaries have some supplementary material. It may include additions and various word-lists: geographical names, foreign words, tables of weights and measures.

Methods use in lexicological research.

In Modem English different methods are used in lexicological research:

1) Contrastive analysis; 2) Statistical methods of analysis, 3) Immediate

constituents analysis; 4) Distributional analysis; 5) Transformational analysis;

6) Componentional analysis; 7) Contextual analysis , etc.

Contrastive analysis is used to reveal the features of sameness and differences in the lexical meaning and the semantic structure of correlated words in both related and non-related languages.

In English the word "foot" is used to denote the extremity of the leg. But in Kyrgyz and Russian there is no exact equivalent for "foot". The words "nora", "bym" denote the whole leg including the foot.

Ex. In Russian or in Kyrgyz one word is used for the thing that tells the time <u>еоат. часы:</u> but in English we use two words "watch" and "clock".

<u>In English</u> : nephew, niece, <u>in Russian</u>. Двоюродный брат, двоюродная сестра; in Kyrgyz : «Жээм»;

In Kyrgyz: "сүрөтчү". in Russian: «художник», in English : "artist", "painter", "drawer".

The word "воспитывать" can have different equivalents in English: "educate, to raise, to bring up".

Anything which can be said in one language can be translated more or less into another. The correlated polysemantic words of different languages are not coextensive.

Polysemantic words may denote very different types of object but they are correlated in one basic meaning.

Englishman uses the word "head" to denote ' the following: head of a person head of a match , head of a bed , head of a table , head of a coin, head of an organization, head of a cane (камыш).

But in Russian different words have to be used : голова, изголовье, сторона головка; in Kyrgyz: баш , башчы, уста, учу.

One Russian word may correspond to a number of English words: тонкая книга - a thin book, тонкая ирония - subtle irony, тонкая талия - slim waist.

Componential analysis:

The term "componential analysis" was first used by W. Goodonough ("Componential analysis and the study of meaning", Language , 1956) and F Lounsbiiry (A. Semantic Analysis of the Rawnee Kinship used". Language. 1956).

The words have meaning and the smallest units of meaning are called sememes or components of meaning. The word "woman" has the following components of meaning "human", "female", "adult".

	human		human	
GIRL	female	BOY		male
	young		young	

The component "young" distinguishes the word "girl" from "woman".

	Human		human	
GIRL	female	BOY		male
	young		young	

Here the component "male" distinguishes the word "boy" from "girl".

Componential analysis deals with individual meanings. Different meanings of polysemantic words have different componential structure.

Ex. The comparison of two meanings- of the word "boy".

I a male child human   2 a male servant

human

        male   male

        young up to the   male

        age 17 or 18

Each part of speech has a distinguishing semantic feature. Nouns have the component "substantiality" or "thingness", adjectives have "quality" and so on.

The analysis helpes us to find out the correspondense between the semantic structure of correlated words or correlated meanings of words in different languages.

The componential analysis is widely used m modem linguistics.

(Nida E. Componential Analysis of Meaning. The Hague, 1977).

The Immediate Constituents Analysis (I.C.)

Attepts to determine the ways in which the units are related to one another. This method is based on a binary principle In each stage of the procedure we have two components. At each stage these two components are broken into two smallest meaningful elements. The analysis is ended when we arrive at the constituent which are not divided further. These constituents are called "the ultimate constituents".

The aim of the I.C. analysis is to segment a set of lexical units into two independent constituents. The meaning of the sentence, word group and the 1C. segmentation are interdependent.

Ex. A fat teacher's wife may mean that either the teacher is fat or his wife is fat.

A fat teacher's wife - means that the teacher is fat.

A fat/teacher's wife- means that the wife is fat.

A beautiful / woman doctor- means that the doctor is a beautiful woman.

This analysis is widely used in lexicological investigations and in the study of dervational structure of words and morphemic analysis of words.

<u>Distributional Analysis</u> is widely used in lexicological analysis. Distribution is the occurenee of words relatively to other words. It is the position which words occupy or may occur in Ihe text

The words have different lexical meanings in different distributional patterns. In different distributional structures the word "ill" has different meaning : ill look, ill luck, ill health- плохой: fall **ill**, be ill - больной.

Distributional analysis is widely used in wordformation :

N+ish-adj -many adjectives in- "ish" are formed from noun + stems denoting living beings . ex. Wolfish., boyish, girlish

<u>Transformational Analysis</u> . Sometimes the distributional analysis alone doesn't show whether the meaning is the same or different. In this case we use transformational analysis. Transformation is any repatterning, remarking of a word group.

Ex. To tear a curtain - the curtain has a tear . To cut a finger-the finger has a cut A paraphrase of a sentence in which some words are replaced by semantic equivalents is a lexical transformation.

<u>Contextual</u> <u>method</u> of linguistic research holds its own alongside statistical , structural and other development.

Contextual analysis concentrated its attention on determining the minimal stretch of speech and the conditions necessary and sufficient to reveal in which of its individual meanings the word in question is used.

Context may be subdivided into lexical, synactical and mixed. Lexical context determines the meaning of the word <u>black</u> in the following examples. Black denotes colour when used with the key- word naming some material or thing e.g. black velvet, black gloves. When used with key- word denoting feeling or thought it means "sad", "dismal", e.g. black thoughts, black despair.

If, on the other hand, the indicative power belongs to the syntactic pattern and not to the words which make it up, the context is called syntactic. E.g. make means " to cause " when followed by a complex object: I couldn't make him understand a word I said.

QUESTIONS:

1. What does lexicography study?
2. When was the first English dictionaiy published?
3. When did other dictionaries appear?
4. What types of dictionaries do you know?
5. What do the general dictionaries present?
6. What do the translation dictionaries contain?
7. What information do the specialized dictionaries give us?
8. What does the entry of a word in the dictionary contain?
9. What is the structure of dictionaries?
10. What do we reveal in contrastive analysis of words of different languages?

11 By whome was the term "componential" analysis first used?

12. What is a sememe or a component of meaning of a word?

I3. What is the method of immediate constituents analysis?

14. What is a distributional analysis?

15. What is the transformational analysis?

16. What is the contextual analysis?

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GLOSSARIE

Abbreviation - an abbreviation sometimes used for adjective (especially in generative Grammar), and sometimes for adverb (iaD (especially in grammars written within the structuralist tradition). In Grovemment - binding theory it stands for argument.

Affix - the collective term for the types of formative that can be used only when added to another morpheme (the root or stem) i.e. affixes are a type of "found" morpheme.

Antonym (y) - a term used in semantics as part of the study of oppositeness of meaning.

Back - formation - a term used in historical studies of morphology to refer to an abnormal type of word formation where a shorter word is derived by deleting an imagined affix from a longer form already present in the language.

Blend, blending - a process found in the analysis of Grammatical and lexical constructions, in which two elements which do not normally' occur, according the rules of the language, come together within a singe linguistic unit (a blend).

Borrow (ing) - a term used in comparative and historical linguistics to refer to linguistic forms being taken over by one language or dialect from another

Componentiial analysis is a semantic theory which developed from a technique for the analysis of kinship vucabularv devised by American anthropologists in the 1950 s. It claims that all lexical items can be analysed using a finite set of components (or "semantic features'), which, may. It is felt, be Universal.

Connotation (connotative) - a term used in semantics part of a classification of types of meaning, opposed to denotation. Its main application is with reference to the emotional associations (personal or communal) which are suggested by, or arc part of the meaning of, a linguistic unit, especially a lexical item.

Conversion - a term used in the study of word formation to refer to the derivational process whereby an item comes to belong to a new word - class without the addition of an affix, e.g. verbs /nouns: smell/taste/hit/walk/bottle/brake, adjectives/verbs: dirty/empty/lower.

Denotation (denotative) - a term used m semantics as part of a classification of types of meaning; opposed to connotation as denotative meaning'" - involves the relationship between a linguistic unit (especially a lexical item) and the non -linguistic entities to which it refers - it is thus equivalent to Referential meaning.

Derivation (-al, derive (d)) - a term used in morphology to refer to one of the two main categories or processes of word formation (derivational morphology), the other being aflection (al). Derivational affixes change the grammatical class of morphemes to which they are attached (as in suffixation, e.g. - lion is a noun -forming derivational suffix).

Diachronic - one of the two main temporal dimensions of linguistic investigation introduced by Swiss linguist. Ferdinand de Saussure, the other being synchronic. In diaehronie linguistics , languages are studied from the point of view their historical development ~ for example, the changes which have taken place between old and modern English could be

described in phonological , grammatical and semantic terms ("diachronic phonology /syntax/ semantic).

Dialect-A regionally or socially distinctive variety of language, indenified by a particular set of words and grammatical structures. Bilingual-the general sense of this term-a person who can speak two languages-provides a pre-theoretical frame of reference for linguistic study, a specially by sociolinguistics and by applied linguists involved in foreign-or second-language teaching.

Explanatory-A term used in Generative linguistics to refer to a level of achievement in the writing of Grammars.

Homonym(y)-A term used in semantic analysis to refer to lexical items which have the same form but differ m meaning.

Lexicography-is the art and science of dictionary-the basic notion is used in linguistics both as a datum and as a criterion of analysis: linguists study meaning, and also use meaning as a criterion for studying other aspects of language.

"Contextual", along with "textual meaning" is also used to refer to those factors which affect the interpretation of a sentence which derive from the rest of the discourse or text within which the sentence occur. Morpheme-the minimal distinctive unit of Grammar, and the central concern of morphology . Paradigmatic (paradigm)-A basic term in linguistics for the set of substitutional relationships a linguistic unit has with other units in a specific context.

Polysemy - A term used in semantic analysis to refer to a lexical item which has a range of different meanings, e.g. plain= "clear", "unadarned", "obvious" Prefix-A term used in morphology referring to an affix which is added Initially to a root or stem.

Seme-A term used by some European linguists (e.g Kugene Coseriu (.b. 1921)). to refer to minimal distinctive semantic features operating within a specific semantic field.

Semantic field theory is an approach which developed m the 1 93O s; it took the view that the vocabulary of language is not simply a listing of idependent items; but is organised into areas or fields, which words interrelate and define each other m various ways.

Semasiology- the scientific study of the properties of signalling systems .whether natural or artificial

Sound change - terms used in historical linguistics to describe the changes in a language's sound system over a period of time. Stern-A term often used in linguistics as a part of a classification of the kinds of elements operating within the structure of a word

Suffix- a term used in Morphology referring to an affix which is added following a root or stem.

Synehronic-one of the two main temporal dimensions of linguistic investigation introduced by the other being Diaehronic.

Synonym (y)-A term used in semantics to refer to a major type of sense relation be tween lexical items: lexical items which have the same meaning are synonyms.

Syntagmatic-A fundamental terms in linguistics, originally introduced by Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure to refer to the segmental characteristics of speech. Seen as a string of constituence in" linear order.

Transformation-a formal linguistic operation which enables two levels of structural representation to be placed in linguistics to refer to a linguistic form which is one of a set of alternatives in a given structural unit.

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FOR NOTES