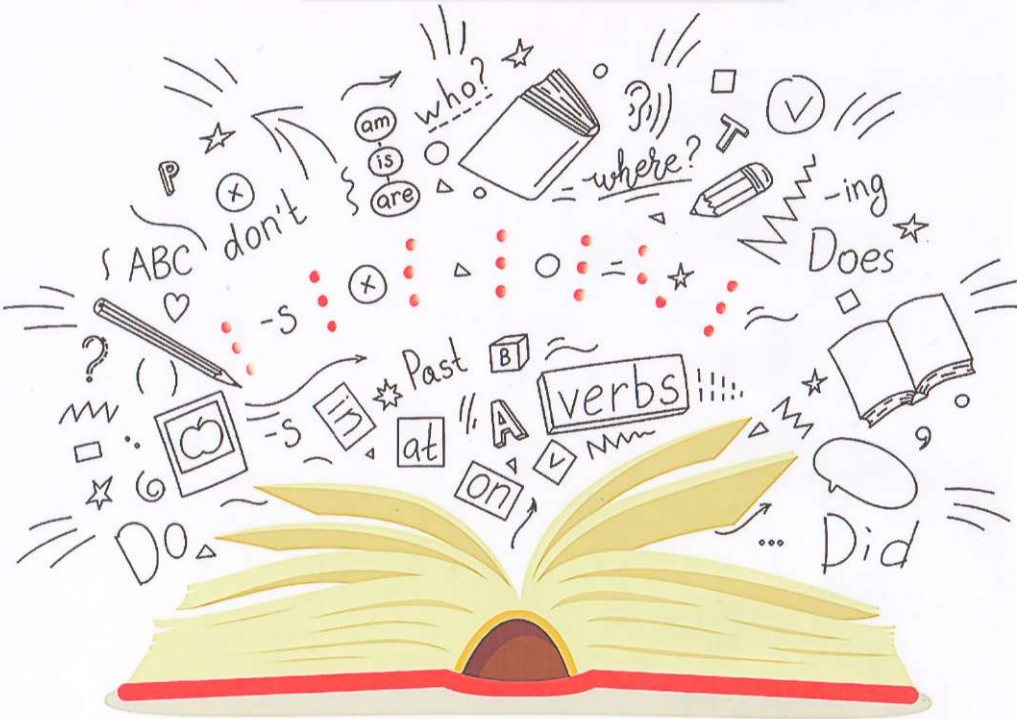
I.A. Siddikova

ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY AND LEXICOGRAPHY



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Мазкур дарслик сўзнинг семантикаси, сўз ясалаши, сўз бирикмалари, фразеологик бирликлар, инглиз тили сўзларнинг этимологиси, инглиз тили лексикография асослари ва бошқа каби лексикологиянинг асосий муаммоларини қамраб олади.

Дарслик хорижий тиллар ва филология факультетлари талабалари учун мољжанланган.

В учебнике освещены основные проблемы лексикологии, как семасиология, структура слова, словосложение и словообразование, словосочетания и фразеологические единицы, этимология словарного состава английского языка, основы английской лексикографии и др.

Учебник предназначается для студентов институтов иностранных языков и филологических факультетов.

The textbook covers the main problems of lexicology, such as semasiology, word structure, word composition and word formation, word combinations and phraseological units, the etymology of the vocabulary of the English language, the basics of English lexicography, etc.

The textbook is intended for students of institutes of foreign languages and philological faculties.

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PREFASE

In this textbook the reader will find the fundamentals of the word theory and of the main problems associated with English vocabulary, its characteristics and subdivisions. The book contains both theory and exercises for seminar and independent work.

The book is intended for English language students at Universities (3d and 4th years of studies) taking the course of English lexicology and fully meets the requirements of the programme in the subject. It may also be of interest to all readers, whose command of English is sufficient to enable them to read texts of average difficulty and who would like to gain some information about the vocabulary resources of Modern English (for example, about synonyms and antonyms), about the complex nature of the word's meaning and the modern methods of its investigation, about English idioms, about those changes that English vocabulary underwent in its historical development and about some main aspects of English lexicography. One can hardly acquire a perfect command of English without having knowledge of all these things, for a perfect command of a language implies the conscious approach to the language's resources and at least a partial understanding of the "inner mechanism" which makes the huge language system work.

The authors tried to present the material in an easy and comprehensible style and, at the same time, to meet the reader on the level of a half-informal talk.

The author

I. 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
6. Features of the words

Key words: lexicology, types of lexicology, semantic relations, syntagmatic relationship, paradigmatic relationship, subdivisions of lexicology, diachronic approach, synchronic approach, word.

Lexicology (from Gr. 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.

Another definition: *lexicology* is the part of linguistics which studies the vocabulary and characteristic features of words. It investigates various meaning relations existing in the language and how words provide and support meaningful communication.

The term vocabulary is used to denote the system formed by the sum total of all the words and word equivalents that the language possesses. Lexicology is concerned with words and set phrases, which function in speech. Phonetics, for instance, investigating the phonetic structure of language, i.e. its system of phonemes and intonation patterns, is concerned with the study of the outer sound form of the word. Grammar, which is inseparably bound up with Lexicology, is the study of the grammatical structure of language. It is concerned with the various means of expressing grammatical relations between words and with the patterns after which words are combined into word-groups and sentences. Lexicology also studies all kinds of semantic *relations (synonyms, a*ntonyms etc.) and semantic grouping (semantic fields). Lexicology is concerned with words, variable word-groups, phraseological units, and with morphemes which make up words.

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

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

Special (or *individual*) *lexicology* devotes its attention to the escription of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given anguage. Special lexicology deals with the words of a definite language. .: *English lexicology, Russian lexicology, Uzbek lexicology* and so on.

The evolution of any vocabulary, as well as of its single element, rms the object of *historical or (diachronic)lexicology*. This branch of nguistics discusses the origin of various words, their change and evelopment, and investigates the linguistic and extralinguistic forces odifying their structure, meaning and usage. In the past historical eatment was always combined with the comparative method.

Ex. In descriptive lexicology the words "*to take*", "*to adopt*" are onsidered as being English not differing from such nature words as *hild*", "*foot*" etc. But in historical lexicology they are treated as orrowed words.

Descriptive lexicology deals with the vocabulary of a given stage of its development. It studies the function of words and their specific tructure as a characteristic inherent in the system. The descriptive exicology of the English language deals with the English word in its orphological and semantically structures, investigating the terdependence between these two aspects. These structures are identified id distinguished by contrasting the nature and arrangement of their ements.

Comparative lexicology deals with the properties of the vocabulary two or more languages. In comparative lexicology the main haracteristic features of the words of two or more languages are ompared. Lexicology can be *contrastive* too. Comparative lexicology udies closely related languages from the point of view of their imilarities and differences. Contrastive lexicology studies both related nd nonrelated languages and establishes its differences and similarities.

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

Applied lexicology studies how the knowledge of lexicological problems can be applied to such spheres as translation, lexicography and so on. *Lexicography* is the science of dictionary making (or compiling).

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). Today these two approaches are closely interconnected because the synchronic state of a language is the result of the historical development.

Lexicology studies various lexical units: morphemes, words, variable word-groups and phraseological units. We proceed from the assumption that the *word* is the basic unit of language system, the largest on the morphologic and the smallest on the syntactic plane of linguistic analysis. The word is a structural and semantic entity within the language system.

Linguistic 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 (чой ичмок– пить чай), take tram (трамвайда юрмок – ехать в трамвае).* Syntagmatic relationships are studied by means of contextual distributional, transformational and some other types of analysis.

The paradigmatic relationship is the relations between words within the vocabulary: polysemy, synonymy, antonymy 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 19th 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, phraseological units);
5. Lexicography (studies compiling dictionaries).

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

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

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 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 on 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.

Word is the principle and basic unit of the language system, the largest on the morphologic and smallest on the syntactic plan of linguistic analysis.

Main features of the words:

1) reproducibility (воспроизводимость) means that we can reproduce one and the same word as many times as we need;

2) isoability (выделимость) – a word is a logically complete stretch of speech which can be reproduced in isolation;

3) positional mobility (позиционная самостоятельность) – a word can take any position within a sentence;

4) indivisibility (неделимость) – the word cannot be cut into smaller units without a disturbance of meaning Ex.: *marry-go-round, ladybird;*

5) wholeformedness (цельнооформленность) – the word is dressed in a morphological form only once. Here lies the difference between a word and a word combination because a word combination is not characterized by v and each element of a word combination has its own morphological form. Ex.: *blue bottle as* «синяя бутылка» - blue bottle as «василёк»;

6) semantic integrity (семантическая целостность) – the word expresses only one concept; polysemantic words have many meanings but they all united by the common idea.

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 lexicology?
4. What is the difference between descriptive and historical lexicology?

5. What is the difference between comparative and special lexicology?
6. What is the difference between the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relationships in words?
7. What do you know about diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of the vocabulary of the language?
8. What are the subdivisions of Lexicology?
9. What is a word? What are the main features of the words?

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II. THE ORIGIN OF ENGLISH WORDS

Problems for discussion

1. The Etymology of English Words
2. Borrowed words
3. Classification of borrowings
4. Translation loans
5. The Etymological Structure of the English Vocabulary
6. Types of assimilation
7. Barbarisms and International words
8. Etymological Doublets

Key words: etymology of words, borrowing, origin of borrowing, classification of borrowings, new words, translation loans, semantic loans, assimilation, barbarisms, international words.

The Etymology of English Words. By *etymology* of words is understood their origin. Etymologically the vocabulary of the English language is far from being homogeneous. It consists of two layers - the native stock of words and the borrowed stock of words. Numerically the borrowed stock of words is considerably larger than the native stock of words. In fact native words comprise only 30 % of the total number of words in the English vocabulary but the native words form the bulk of the most frequent words actually used in speech and writing. Besides the native words have a wider range of lexical and grammatical valency, they are highly polysemantic and productive in forming word clusters and set expressions.

Borrowing. *A borrowing (or loan word or borrowed word)* is a word taken from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the receiving language.

Reasons for borrowing: 1) to name new objects; 2) to differentiate the existing concepts. Ex.: "*to love*" and "*to adore*"; 3) to express new concepts; 4) words can be borrowed blindly for no reason at all. There is no gap in the vocabulary which needs to be filled in.

In many cases a borrowed word especially one borrowed long ago is practically indistinguishable from a native word without a thorough etymological analysis (*street, school, face*). The number of borrowings in the vocabulary of a language and the role played by them is determined by the historical development of the nation speaking the language. The most

ffective way of borrowing is direct borrowing from another language as ie result of contacts with the people of another country or with their iterature. But a word may also be borrowed indirectly not from the source nguage but through another language. When analysing borrowed words ie must distinguish between the two terms - "source of borrowing" and rigin of borrowing". The first term is applied to the language from which e word was immediately borrowed, the second - to the language to which he word may be ultimately traced e.g. *table* - source of borrowing - rench, origin of borrowing - Latin elephant - source of borrowing - ench, origin-Egypt convene - source of borrowing - French, origin-Latin. he closer the two interacting languages are in structure the easier it is for ords of one language to penetrate into the other.

Ways of borrowing new words: 1) cultural and language contacts;) the spread of religion; 3) wars, conquests and invasions; 4) globalization; global systems of communication (Internet); 6) occasional borrowings. nglish language is a unique mixture of Germanic, Romanic elements, which as resulted in the international character of the vocabulary.

About 70-80% of words in English are borrowed.

Classification of borrowings: 1) according to what is borrowed 1. borrowings proper – these are words borrowed from another language nd assimilated to this or that extend; 1.2. translation loans / calques – the w word is created from the native material according to a foreign pattern hich is borrowed; the word is usually created by means of word-for-word r morpheme-for-morpheme translation. Ex.: *master piece* (from German Meisterstück);1.3. semantic borrowings / semantic loans – the eaning is borrowed from another language; a new appears due to ie influence of a related word in another language. Ex.: *pioneer*. This ord in English has two meaning: an explorer and a member of Pioneer rganization; 1.4. morphemic borrowing – a morpheme is borrowed. Ex.: кс" from English "*ex*"; 2) according to the degree of assimilation.

Assimilation is a partial or total conformation of a borrowed word to he phonetic, graphical or morphological standards of the receiving nguage and its semantics. 2.1. completely assimilated – we cannot guess ie origin from the form of the word. Ex.: *street, cheese*; 2.2. partially ssimilated. 2.2.1. words which are not assimilated semantically (blind orrowings) – they do not form derivatives, they do not develop new eaning, they do not form collocation and rarely enter phraseological its. Ex.: *mantilla* (from Spanish); 2.2.2. borrowings not assimilated

grammatically – they don't have the system of grammatical forms peculiar to the part of speech to which they belong. Ex.: *criterion – criteria; crisis – crises. BUT: index – indices / indexes*; 2.2.3. borrowings not assimilated phonetically. Usually it is French borrowings, which still has the stress on the last syllable. Ex.: *machine, garage*; 2.2.4. borrowing not assimilated graphically – their spelling includes foreign letter symbols. Ex.: *Tromsø, café;* 2.3. not assimilated at all /barbarism - words which are not assimilated in any way, for which there are corresponding English equivalents. Ex.: *ciao* (Italian) – *bye* (English); *hors d'oeuvre* (French).

The fate of borrowed words in English: 1) they can become completely assimilated; 2) they can change their meaning in competition with the native words. Ex.: In French "*large*" meant "*wide*", but it was not needed, now "*large*" mean "*big in size*"; 3) a native word can change its meaning under the influence of the borrowed one. Ex.: *heofon* (OE), *steorfan* (OE); 4) sometimes native words can disappeared under the influence of borrowed ones. Ex.: "*niman*" (OE) disappeared under the influence of "*take*"; 5) word can become frequent. Ex.: *they, them, their* (Scandinavian borrowings); 6) borrowed word can disappear after a period of time; 7) a native word and a borrowed can exist as an absolute synonyms, as free variant.

There are different ways of classifying the borrowed stock of words. First of all the borrowed stock of words may be classified according to the nature of the borrowing itself as borrowings proper, translation loans and semantic loans.

Translation loans are words or expressions formed from the elements existing in the English language according to the patterns of the source language (*the moment of truth* - sp. el momento de la verdad).

Latin Loans are classified into the subgroups.

1. Early Latin Loans. Those are the words which came into English through the language of Anglo-Saxon tribes. The tribes had been in contact with Roman civilisation and had adopted several Latin words denoting objects belonging to that civilisation long before the invasion of Angles, Saxons and Jutes into Britain *(cup, kitchen, mill, port, wine).*

2. Later Latin Borrowings. To this group belong the words which penetrated the English vocabulary in the sixth and seventh centuries, when the people of England were converted to Christianity *(priest, bishop, nun, candle).*

3. The third period of Latin includes words which came into English due to two historical events: the Norman conquest in 1066 and the

Renaissance or the Revival of Learning. Some words came into English through French but some were taken directly from Latin *(major, minor, intelligent, permanent)*.

4. The Latest Stratum of Latin Words. The words of this period are mainly abstract and scientific words *(nylon, molecular, vaccine, phenomenon, vacuum)*.

Norman-French Borrowings may be subdivided into subgroups:

1. Early loans - 12th - 15th century
2. Later loans - beginning from the 16th century.

The Early French borrowings are simple short words, naturalised in accordance with the English language system *(state, power, war, pen, river)* Later French borrowings can be identified by their peculiarities of form and pronunciation *(regime, police, ballet, scene, bourgeois)*.

The Etymological Structure of the English Vocabulary

The Native element:

I. Indo-European element
II. Germanic element
III. English proper element (brought by Angles, Saxons and Jutes not earlier than 5th c. A.D.)

The Borrowed Element:

I. Celtic (5-6th c. A.D.)
II. Latin: 1st group: B.C.
2nd group: 7 th c. A.D.
3d group: the Renaissance period
III. Scandinavian (8-11 th c. A.D.)
IV. French: 1. Norman borrowings (11-13th c. A.D.); 2. Parisian borrowings (Renaissance)
V. Greek
VI. Italian (Renaissance and later)
VII. Spanish (Renaissance)
VIII. German
IX. Indian and others

By the *native element* we mean words which were not borrowed from other languages but represent the original stock of this particular language.

Assimilation is the process of changing the adopted word. The process of assimilation of borrowings includes changes in sound form of morphological structure, grammar characteristics, meaning and usage.

Phonetic assimilation comprises changes in sound form and stress. Sounds that were alien to the English language were fitted into its scheme of sounds, e.g. In the recent French borrowings *communique, cafe* the long [e] and [e] are rendered with the help of [ei]. The accent is usually transferred to the first syllable in the words from foreign sources.

The degree of phonetic adaptation depends on the period of borrowing: the earlier the period the more completed this adaptation. While such words as *"table", "plate"* borrowed from French in the 8th - 11th centuries can be considered fully assimilated, later Parisian borrowings (15th c.) such as *regime, valise, cafe"* are still pronounced in a French manner.

With the famous Battle of Hastings, when the English were defeated by the Normans under William the Conqueror, we come to the eventful epoch of the Norman Conquest. The epoch can well be called eventful not only in national, social, political and human terms, but also in linguistic terms. England became a bi-lingual country, and the impact on the English vocabulary made over this two-hundred-years period is immense: French words from the Norman dialect penetrated every aspect of social life. Here is a very brief list of examples of *Norman French borrowings.*

Administrative words: *state, government, parliament, council, power.*

Legal terms: *court, judge, justice, crime, prison.*

Military terms: *army, war, soldier, officer, battle, enemy.*

Educational terms: *pupil, lesson, library, science, pen, pencil.*

Everyday life was not unaffected by the powerful influence of French words. Numerous terms of everyday life were also borrowed from French in this period: e. g. *table, plate, saucer, dinner, supper, river, autumn uncle,* etc.

The Renaissance Period. In England, as in all European countries, this period was marked by significant developments in science, art and culture and, also, by a revival of interest in the ancient civilisations of Greece and Rome and their languages. Hence, there occurred a considerable number of Latin and Greek borrowings. In contrast to the earliest Latin borrowings (1st c. B. C.), the Renaissance ones were rarely concrete names. They were mostly abstract words (e. g. *major, minor, filial, moderate, intelligent, permanent, to elect, to create).* There were naturally numerous scientific and artistic terms *(datum, status,*

phenomenon, philosophy, method, music). The same is true of Greek Renaissance borrowings (e. g. *atom, cycle, ethics, esthete).*

Grammatical adaption is usually a less lasting process, because in order to function adequately in the recipient language a borrowing must completely change its paradigm. Though there are some well-known exceptions as plural forms of the English Renaissance borrowings - *datum* pl. *data, criterion* - pl. *criteria* and others.

The process of semantic assimilation has many forms: *narrowing* of meanings (usually polysemantic words are borrowed in one of the meanings); *specialisation* or *generalisation* of meanings, acquiring new meanings in the recipient language, shifting a primary meaning to the position of a secondary meaning.

Completely assimilated borrowings are the words, which have undergone all types of assimilation. Such words are frequently used and are stylistically neutral; they may occur as dominant words in a synonymic group. They take an active part in word-formation.

Partially assimilated borrowings are the words which lack one of the types of assimilation. They are subdivided into the groups:

1) borrowings not assimilated semantically (e.g. *shah, rajah).* Such words usually denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from which they came;

2) loan words not assimilated grammatically, e.g. nouns borrowed from Latin or Greek which keep their original plural forms *(datum - data, phenomenon - phenomena)*;

3) loan words not completely assimilated phonetically. These words contain peculiarities in stress, combinations of sounds that are not standard for English *(machine, camouflage, tobacco)*;

4) loan words not completely assimilated graphically (e.g. *ballet, cafe, cliche).*

Barbarisms are words from other languages used by the English people in conversation or in writing but not assimilated in any way, and for which there are corresponding English equivalents e.g. *ciao* Italian - *good-bye* English,

The borrowed stock of the English vocabulary contains not only words but a great number of suffixes and prefixes. When these first appeared in the English language they were parts of words and only later began a life of their own as word-building elements of the English language *(-age, -ance, -ess, -merit)* This brought about the creation of

hybrid words like *shortage, hindrance, lovable* and many others in which a borrowed suffix is joined to a native root. A reverse process is also possible.

In many cases one and the same word was borrowed twice either from the same language or from different languages. This accounts for the existence of the so called etymological doublets like *canal - channel* (Latin -French), *skirt - shirt* (Sc. - English), *balsam - halm* (Greek - French).

International words. There exist many words that were borrowed by several languages. Such words are mostly of Latin and Greek origin and convey notions which are significant in the field of communication in different countries. Here belong names of sciences *(philosophy, physics, chemistry, linguistics),* terms of art *(music, theatre, drama, artist, comedy),* political terms *(politics, policy, democracy, progress).* The English language became a source for international sports terms *(football, hockey, cricket, rugby, tennis).*

Fruits and foodstuffs imported from exotic countries often transport their names too and, being simultaneously imported to many countries, become international: *coffee, cocoa, chocolate, coca-cola, banana, mango, avocado, grapefruit.*

Etymological Doublets.The words *shirt* and *skirt* etymologically descend from the same root. *Shirt* is a native word, and *skirt* (as the initial *sk* suggests), is a Scandinavian borrowing. Their phonemic shape is different, and yet there is a certain resemblance which reflects their common origin. Their meanings are also different but easily associated: they both denote articles of clothing.

Such words as these two originating from the same etymological source, but differing in phonemic shape and in meaning are called *etymological doublets.*

They may enter the vocabulary by different routes. Some of these pairs, like *shirt* and *skirt,* consist of a native word and a borrowed word: *shrew,* n. (E.) — *screw,* n. (Sc.).

Others are represented by two borrowings from different languages which are historically descended from the same root: *senior* (Lat.) — *sir* (Fr.), *canal* (Lat.) — *channel* (Fr.), *captain* (Lat.) — *chieftan* (Fr.).

Still others were borrowed from the same language twice, but in different periods: *corpse* [ko:ps] (Norm. Fr.) — *corps* [ko:] (Par. Fr.), *travel* (Norm. Fr.) — *travail* (Par. Fr.), *cavalry* (Norm. Fr.) — *chivalry* (Par. Fr.), *gaol* (Norm. Fr.) — *jail* (Par. Fr.).

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

A doublet may also consist of a shortened word and the one from which it was derived (see Ch. 6 for a description of shortening as a type of word-building): *history — story, fantasy — fancy, fanatic — fan, defence — fence, courtesy — curtsy, shadow — shade.*

QUESTIONS

1. What does Etymology study?
2. What is a borrowing?
3. What are the reasons for borrowing?
4. What are the ways of borrowing new words?
5. What is the classification of borrowings?
6. What is the fate of borrowed words in English?
7. What is the Etymological Structure of the English Vocabulary?
8. What is the process of assimilation? What are the types of assimilation do you know?
9. What is the grammatical adaption?
10. Explain the definition and examples to the terms barbarisms and international words etymological doublets.

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III. 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 the its types
5. Wordformation. Diachronic and synchronic study of wordformation
6. Types of wordformation
7. Affixation and its subdivision
8. The difference between suffixes and prefixes

Key words: word, morpheme, phoneme, stem, derivation, wordformation, affixation, synchronic, diachronic, suffix, prefix.

Most of the words have a composite nature and they are made up *morphemes*. The morpheme is the smallest indivisible, two-faced language unit.

The term *morpheme* is derived from Gr. morphe «*form*» + *-erne*». The Greek suffix-*eme* has been adopted by linguists) denote the smallest unit or the minimum distinctive feature. (Cf. Phoneme, sememe). The *morpheme* is the smallest meaningful unit of 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 word.

Morphemes are divided into two: *free and bound.* Free morpheme is a morpheme which identical with the word form *(pay, sum, form)*. Ex. In the word «*denationalize*» only *nation* can be said as a *free* morpheme, as it

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. Morphemes which are not found in isolation are called *bound* morphemes *(-er un-, -less).*

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

The segmentation of words is generally carried out according to the method of Immediate and Ultimate Constituents. This method is based upon the binary principle, i.e. each stage of procedure involves two components the word immediately breaks into. At each stage these two components are referred to as the Immediate Constituents (IC). Each IC at the next stage of analysis is in turn broken into smaller meaningful elements. The analysis is completed when we arrive at constituents incapable of further division, i.e. morphemes. These are referred to as Ultimate Constituents (UC). The analysis of word-structure on the morphemic level must naturally proceed to the stage of UC-s.

Allomorphes are the phonemic variants of the given morpheme e.g. *il-, im-, ir-,* are the allomorphes of the prefix *in- (illiterate, important, irregular, inconstant).*

According to the number of morphemes words are divided into *monomorphic* and *polymorphic. Monomorphic* words consist of one root-morpheme. Ex. *boy, girl, dog, cat. Polymorphic* words consist of more than two morphemes. Ex. *Teach/er, un/reason/able.* 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*: girlish, agreement, acceptable, teacher.*

But derived stems are not always polymorphic. *Compound stems* are sterns 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: diachronic and synchronic words like *«kingdom», «childhood», «friendship»* are called words which have a derived stem because in Modern English the elements *«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. (0.E. hlafweard). The verbs *disappoint, return, remark* and others have no derived stems but simple stems because as Modern English these words are not divided into *re-turn, dis-appoint* etc. because there are semantic relations between "*disappoint*", "*return*" and "*turn*" etc.

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 wordrformation (w+er)). Wordformation may be studied synchronically 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 synchronic 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 wordformation are: affixation, conversion, wordcomposition. Beside them there are other types of worformation such as: *shortenily, soundinterchange, blending, backformation*. 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. *long legged*).

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

Derived words are those composed of one root-morpheme and one more derivational morpheme *(consignment, outgoing, publicity)*.

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

Compound words contain at least two root-morphemes *(warehouse, camera-man),*

Compound words proper are formed by joining together stems of words already available in the language. Compound proper is a word, the two Immediate Constituents of which are stems of notional words, e.g. *ice-cold (N + A), ill-luck(A+N).*

Derivational compound is a word formed by a simultaneous process of composition and derivation. Derivational compound is formed by composing a new stem that does not exist outside this pattern and to which suffix is added. Derivational compound is a word consisting of two Immediate Constituents, only one of which is a compound stem of notional words, while the other is a derivational affix, e.g. *blue - eyed - (A+N) + ed* In coordinative compounds neither of the components dominates the other, both are structurally and semantically independent and constitute two structural and semantic centres, e.g. *breath-taking, self-discipline, word-formation.*

Productivity is the ability to form new words after existing patterns which are readily understood by the speakers of a language. Synchronically the most important and the most productive ways of word-formation are affixation, conversion, word-composition and abbreviation (contraction). In the course of time the productivity of this or that way of word-formation may change. Sound interchange or gradation *(blood - to bleed, to abide -abode, to strike - stroke)* was a productive way of word building in old English and is important for a diachronic study of the English language. It has lost its productivity in Modern English and no new word can be coined by means of sound gradation. Affixation on the contrary was productive in Old English and is still one of the most productive ways of word building in Modern English.

Word-composition is another type of word-building which is highly productive. That is when new words are produced by combining two or more stems.

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

Suffixation is more productive than prefixation. In Modern English suffixation is a characteristic of noun and adjective formation, while prefixation is typical of verb formation *(incoming, trainee, principal, promotion).*

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 dervative 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 (v) - teacher (n)*.

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

Numeral suffixes:

- fold (lwofold); -teen (fourteen); -th (seventh); -ty (sixty)

Adjective - forming suffixes:

- able/ -ible/ -uble (unbearable, andible, soluble); -ic (public)
- ant/ -ent (repentant, depenpent);
- ary (revolutionary); -ful (delightful)
- ian (Australian) and others.

Verb - forming suffixes:

- ate (facilitate); -er (glimmer); -en (shorten); -fy/-ify (temfy, speechify, solidify);
-ize (equalize); -ish (establish).

Advert) - forming suffixes:

-ly (coldly); -ward/-wards (upward, northwards); -wise (likewise) Lexico-grammatikal 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 heutrai occur with the following suffixes:

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

- arian (vegetarian), - ee (ea aminee), - 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), l

-ine (heroine), - rix (testatrix), -ette (suffragette)

In English there about 25 prefixes which can transfers words to a different past of speech. Ex. - head(n) - hehead(v); bus(n) - debus(v)

frown(adj) - embrown(v); large(adjj) - entarge(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 d 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 to make new words. Ex. - *er (baker, lander* – космич. корабль); - *ist (leftist* – левый) - *ism, -ish (badlish), -ing, -ness, -ation, - ee, -ry, -or, -once, -ic* are productive suffixes, - *re-, un, -non-, anti-* etc are productive prefixes. *Non -productive* affixes are those which are not used to form new words in Modern English: ex. *-ard, -cy, -ive, -en, -dom, -ship, -ful, -en, -ify*, etc are non producfive suffixes; *in (il)-, ir (im)-, mis-, dis-* are not - productive prefixes. In many cases the choice of the affixes is a mean of differentiating of meaning: *uninterested – disinterested, distrust – mistrust.*

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 are the aims and principles of morphemic and word-formation analysis?
2. What can you say about the types of word formation?
3. What is a morpheme?
4. What is the difference between a morpheme and a phoneme? A morpheme and a word?
5. What types of morphemes do you know?
6. What is the stem? What types of stems do you know?
7. What are he synchronic and diachronic approaches to the analysis of the stem?
8. What do you understand by affixation?
9. What is an 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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IV. SHORTENED WORDS

Problems for discussion

1. Shortening and its characteristic features
2. Clipping and abbreviations
3. Back-formation (or Reversion)
4. Blending
5. Sound and stress interchange (distinctive stress, the shift of stress
6. Onomatopoeia
7. Conversion

Key words: shortening, clipping, abbreviation, sound interchange, back-formation, blending, onomatopoeia, conversion

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* (or *contraction*) 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. or fridge (n.) from "refrigerator"
fig (n.) from "figure"
hols (n) from " holydays"
props (n) from "properties"

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)

The shortening of words involves the shortening of both words and word-groups. Distinction should be made between shortening of a word in written speech (*graphical* abbreviation) and in the sphere of oral intercourse (*lexical* abbreviation).

Lexical abbreviations may be used both in written and in oral speech. Lexical abbreviation is the process of forming a word out of the initial

elements (letters, morphemes) of a word combination by a simultaneous operation of shortening and compounding.

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 wordformation. 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 f its parts, as a result of which the new form acquires some linguistic value of its own.

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* (*apocope*) words that have been shortened at the end.

Ex: *doc-doctor, mit-mitten, vet-veterinary;*
ad. – "advertisement", lab – "laboratory";
Jap. – "Japanese", sis.-"sister";
gent – "gentleman", lib – "liberty", cert – "certainly"

2) *initial clipping* (*aphaeresis)*: 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; ma'm – "madam"*;

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

Ex.: *flu.- "influenza"; tec. – "detective"; frig –" refrigerator*".

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; M.P.; UNO.

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. – "preparation";
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*".

Sound and stress interchange (distinctive stress, the shift of stress). The essence of it is that to form a new word the stress of the word is shifted to a new syllable. 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. It mostly occurs in

nouns and verbs. Some phonetic changes may accompany the shift of the stress.

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

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

Ex.: *full (n) – to full (v); food (n) - to feed (v); blood (n) – to bleed (v); export (n) - to export (v); increase (n) - to increase(v); break - breach, long – length.*

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

Ex.: *advice – to advice; use – to use;*
speak – to speech; defense – defend; offence – offend.

Back formation. *Back formation* is a term borrowed from diachronic linguistics. Back formation is a semi-productive type of word-building. It denotes the derivation of new words by subtracting a real or supposed affix from existing words through misinterpretation of their structure. It is mostly active in compound verbs, and is combined with word-composition

Ex.: *to bach* from *bachelor*, to *collocate* from *collocation*, *to compute* from *computer*, *to emote* from *emotion*.

The basis of this type of word-building is compound words and word-combinations having verbal nouns, gerunds, participles or other derivative nouns as their second component (*rush-development*, *finger-printing*, *well-wisher*). These compounds and word-combinations are wrongly considered to be formed from compound verbs which are nonexistent in reality. This gives a rise to such verbs as: *to rush-develop*, *to finger-print*, *to well-wish*.

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 "*smong*" is composed of the parts of nouns "*smoke*" *and* "*fog*"; *slimnastics* < *slim*+*gymnasttcs*; *mimsy* < *miserable*+*flimsy*; *galumph* < *gallop*+*triumph*; *neutopia* < *new*+*utopia*.

The process of formation is also called *telescoping*. The result of blending is an unanalysable simple word.

Ex.: *dramedy* (drama, comedy), *faction* (fact fiction), *Chunnel* (channel, cannal), Medicare (medical care), Slanguist (slang linguist).

The analysis into immediate constituents is helpful in so far as it permits the definition of a blend as a word with the first consistent represented by a stem whose final part may be missing, and the second constituent when used in a series of similar blends, may turn into a suffix "*-on*" is, for instance, well under way in such terms as "*nylon, rayon, silon*", formed from the final element of "*cotton*". This process seems to be very active. In present-day English numerous new words have been coined recently: *Reaganomics, Irangate, blacksploitation, workaholic, foodoholic, scanorama etc.*

Onomatopoeia. *Onomatopoeia* (sound-imitation, echoism) is the naming of an action or thing by a more or less exact reproduction of a natural sound associated with it *(babble, crow, twitter)*. Semantically, according to the source of sound onomatopoeic words fall into a few very definite groups. Many verbs denote sounds produced by human beings in the process of communication or in expressing their feelings *(babble, chatter, giggle, grumble, murmur, mutter, titter, whisper)*. There are sounds produced by animals, birds and insects *(buzz, cackle, croak, crow, hiss, howl, moo, mew, roar)*.

Besides the verbs imitating the sound of water *(bubble, splash)*, there are others imitating the noise of metallic things *(clink, tinkle)* or forceful motion *(clash, crash, whack, whip, whisk)*.

Sentence – condensation. Sentence - condensation is the formation of new words by substantivising the whole locutions *(forget-me-not, merry-go-round)*.

Conversion. *Conversion* is a highly productive way of forming new words in 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.

Conversion is sometimes referred to as an affixless way of word-building, a process of making a new word from some existing root word by changing the category of a part of speech without changing the morphemic shape of the original root-word. The transposition of a word from one part of speech into another brings about changes of the paradigm.

Conversion is not only highly productive but also a particularly English way of word-building. It is explained by the analytical structure of Modern English and by the simplicity of paradigms of English parts of speech. A great number of one-syllable words are another factor that facilitates conversion.

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-affixed word-building does not help us to distinguish the cases of conversion and soundinterchange. *Ex. sing – song, paper n - paper v.*

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

Prof. A. L. Smirnitsky 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 Uzbek: *китоблар, китобнинг, китобни, китобга, китоодан, китобда, китоби, китобим, китобинг, -лар,-нинг,-ни,-га,-дан,-да, и,-им, -инг* ate are the paradigms of the noun «китоб». In English *book, books'; book's;* -s, 's, s' are the paradigms of the noun «*book*»; *book v—booked, (he) bo^ks, booking, booked*,-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 diachronic. On the diachronic level we study the origin of conversion, how the converted pairs appeared in the language. Conversion was born in XIII century as a result of the disappearance of inflexions in the course of the historical development of the English language in Middle English.

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*;

2) nouns converted from verbs: *to jump - a jump, to move - a move, to help - a help, to drive - a drive, to walk - a walk.*

Verbs can also be made from adjectives: *to pale, to yellow, to cool, to grey, to rough* (e. g. We decided to rough it in the tents as the weather was warm), etc.

Other parts of speech are not entirely unsusceptible to conversion as the following examples show: *to down, to out* (as in a newspaper heading *Diplomatist Outed from Budapest), the ups and downs, the ins and outs,* ..., n, (as in *the like of me and the like of you).*

Derivations from the stems of other parts of speech are less common. Cf. 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 takeoff etc.*

A word made by conversion has a different meaning from that of the word from which it was made though the two meanings can be associated. There are certain regularities in these associations which can be roughly classified. For instance, in the group of verbs made from nouns some of the regular semantic associations are as indicated in the following list:

I. The noun is the name of a tool or implement, the verb denotes an action performed by the tool: *to hammer, to nail, to pin, to brush, to comb, to pencil.*

II. The noun is the name of an animal, the verb denotes an action or aspect of behaviour considered typical of this animal: *to dog, to wolf, to monkey, to ape, to fox, to rat.* Yet, *to fish* does not mean "to behave like a fish" but "to try to catch fish". The same meaning of hunting activities is conveyed by the verb *to whale* and one of the meanings of *to rat;* the other is "to turn in former, squeal" (sl.).

The name of a part of the human body — an action performed by it: *to hand, to leg* (sl.), *to eye, to elbow, to shoulder, to nose, to mouth.* However, *to face* does not imply doing something by or even with one's face but turning it in a certain direction. *To back* means either "to move

backwards" or, in the figurative sense, "to support somebody or something".

The name of a profession or occupation — an activity typical of it: *to nurse, to cook, to maid, to groom.*

V. The name of a place — the process of occupying the place or of putting smth./smb. in it *(to room, to house, to place, to table, to cage).*

VI. The name of a container — the act of putting smth. within the container *(to can, to bottle, to pocket).*

VII. The name of a meal — the process of taking it *(to lunch, to supper).*

The suggested groups do not include all the great variety of verbs made from nouns by conversion. They just represent the most obvious cases and illustrate, convincingly enough, the great variety of semantic interrelations within so-called converted pairs and the complex nature of the logical associations which specify them.

Typical semantic relations within a converted pair:

I. Verbs converted from noun (denominal verbs) denote:

1) action characteristic of the object *ape (n) - to ape (v; butcher (n) - to butcher (v);*

2) instrumental use of the object *screw (n) - to screw (v) whip (n) - to whip (v);*

3) acquisition or addition of the object *fish (n) - to fish (v);*

II. Nouns converted from verbs (deverbal nouns) denote:

1) instance of the action: *to jump (v) -jump (n); to move (v) - move (n);*

2) agent of the action: *to help (v) - help (n), to switch (v) - switch (n);*

3) place of action: *to drive (v) - drive (n), to walk (v) - walk (n);*

4) object or result of the action: to peel (v) - peel (n), to find (v) - find (n).

QUESTIONS

1. What do you understand by the term "shortening" (or contraction)? Give the definition and examples.
2. What is the peculiarity of shortened words?
3. What is the classification of the clippings?
4. What distinction is made between abbreviation and clippings?
5. What do you understand by the term sound interchange?
6. What do you understand by the term back-formation? Give the definition and examples.

7. What do you understand by the term blending? Give the definition and examples.
8. What is the origin of conversion?
9. What are the most common types of conversion do you know?

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V. 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

Key words: semasiology, word, meaning, approach, grammatical meaning, lexical meaning, connotations, polysemy, semantic structure.

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 follows: 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.

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 problems 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 in 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.

Referential approach to meaning. The common feature of any referential approach is that meaning is in some form or other connected with the referent (object of reality denoted by the word). The meaning is formulated by establishing the interdependence between words and objects of reality they denote. So, meaning is often understood as an object or phenomenon in the outside world that is referred to by a word.

Functional approach to meaning. In most present-day methods of lexicological analysis words are studied in context; a word is defined by its functioning within a phrase or a sentence. This functional approach is attempted in contextual analysis, semantic syntax and some other branches of linguistics. The meaning of linguistic unit is studied only through its relation to other linguistic units. So meaning is viewed as the function of a word in speech.

Meaning and concept. When examining a word one can see that its meaning though closely connected with the underlying concept is not identical with it.

To begin with, concept is a category of human cognition. Concept is the thought of the object that singles out the most typical, the most essential features of the object.

So all concepts are almost the same for the whole of humanity in one and the same period of its historical development. The meanings of words, however, are different in different languages. That is to say, words expressing identical concept may have different semantic structures in different languages. E.g. the concept of "a building for human habitation" is expressed in English by the word "house", in Russian - "*дом*", but their meanings are not identical as *house* does not possess the meaning of "fixed residence of family or household", which is part of the meaning of the Russian word *дом;* it is expressed by another English word *home*.

The difference between meaning and concept can also be observed by comparing synonymous words and word-groups expressing the same concept but possessing linguistic meaning which is felt as different in each of the units, e.g. *big, large; to die to pass away, to join the majority, to kick the bucket; child, baby, babe, infant.*

Concepts are always emotionally neutral as they are a category of thought. Language, however, expresses all possible aspects of human consciousness. Therefore the meaning of many words not only conveys some reflection of objective reality but also the speaker's attitude to what he is speaking about, his state of mind. Thus, though the synonyms *big, large, tremendous* denote the same concept of size, the emotive charge of the word *tremendous* is much heavier than that of the other word.

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

Types of meanings. There are two main types of meaning:

- the grammatical meaning,
- the lexical meaning.

The grammatical meaning is the formal meaning of a word. It is defined as the meaning belonging to the lexico-grammatical classes and grammatical categories. It is expressed by the word's form. Every word belongs to a definite part of speech and every part of speech has a certain grammatical categories.The verbs have tense, voice, mood, person etc.; 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 units words into big groups such as parts of speech.

The grammatical meaning is more abstract and more generalised than the lexical meaning. It is recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words as the meaning of plurality in the following words *students, boob, windows, compositions*.

The definitions of *lexical meaning* given by various authors, though different in detail, agree in the basic principle: they all point out that lexical meaning is the realisation of concept or emotion by means of a definite language system:

1) The component of meaning proper to the word as a linguistic unit, i.e. recurrent in all the forms of this word and in all possible distributions of these forms. (Ginzburg R.S., Rayevskaya N.N. and others).

2) The semantic invariant of the grammatical variation of a word (Nikitin M.V.).

3) The material meaning of a word, i.e. the meaning of the main material part of the word which reflects the concept the given word

expresses and the basic properties of the thing (phenomenon, quality, state, etc.) the word denotes. (Mednikova E.M.).

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 denotation meaning;

2) the connotational meaning.

The conceptual content of a word is expressed in its denotative meaning.

Denotational meaning makes communication possible because words denote 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.

Connotation is the *pragmatic* communicative value the word receives depending on where, when, how, by whom, for what purpose and in what contexts it may be used.

There are four main types of *connotations* stylistic, emotional, evaluative and expressive or intensifying. *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.

Stylistic connotations is what the word conveys about the speaker's attitude to the social circumstances and the appropriate functional style *(slay* vs *kill)*, evaluative connotation may show his approval or disapproval of the object spoken *of (clique* vs *group)*, emotional connotation conveys the speaker's emotions *(mummy* vs *mother)*, the degree of intensity *(adore* vs *love)* is conveyed by expressive or intensifying connotation.

The interdependence of connotations with denotative meaning is also different for different types of connotations. Thus, for instance, emotional connotation comes into being on the basis of denotative meaning but in the course of time may substitute it by other types of connotation with general emphasis, evaluation and colloquial stylistic overtone. E.g. *terrific* which

originally meant 'frightening' is now a colloquialism meaning 'very, very good' or 'very great': *terrific beauty, terrific pleasure.*

The orientation toward the subject-matter, characteristic of the denotative meaning, is substituted here by pragmatic orientation toward speaker and listener; it is not so much what is spoken about as the attitude to it that matters.

Fulfilling the significative and the communicative functions of the word the denotative meaning is present in every word and may be regarded as the central factor in the functioning of language.

The expressive function of the language (the speaker's feelings) and the pragmatic function (the effect of words upon listeners) are rendered in connotations. Unlike the denotative meaning, connotations are optional.

Connotation differs from the implicational meaning of the word. Implicational meaning is the implied information associated with the word, with what the speakers know about the referent. A *wolf* is known to be greedy and cruel (implicational meaning) but the denotative meaning of this word does not include these features. The denotative or the intentional meaning of the word *wolf* does «a wild animal resemble a dog that kills sheep and sometimes even attacks men". Its figurative meaning is derived from implied information, from what we know about wolves - "a cruel greedy person", also the adjective wolfish means "greedy".

The Semantic Structure of Polysemantic Words. *Polysemy* is the existence within one word of several connected meanings. These meanings appeared as a result of the development and changes of its original meaning.

Polysemy is very characteristic of the English vocabulary due to the monosyllabic character of English words and the predominance of root words. The greater the frequency of the word, the greater the number of meanings that constitute its semantic structure.

Polysemy exists in the language but not in speech. The meaning of a word in speech is always predetermined by the context, all unnecessary meanings are cancelled and the meaning of the word is clear. There are three types of polysemy:
1) *radiation*. In case of radiation the first meaning is in the center and all other meanings are formed from it.

Ex.: *face*. In the center – "the front part of human head". Meanings formed from the center: "face of the clock"; "face of the card"; "face of the company";

) concatenation / chain polysemy. Secondary meanings develop like a hain. Sometimes it is very difficult to trace the last meaning to the first ne.

Ex.: *crust. Heart, outer part of bread → Heart, outer part of nything → Hard layer of a soft snow → A gloomy person → Impudence*;

3) mixed type. This type is the most common. Ex.: *to dress*. The first nter – "to cover the body". Meanings formed from this center: "We n't dress for dinner nowadays"; "The princess is dressed by the best signers"; "*to dress the ballet*"; "*to dress the wound*". The second center "to get smb ready for smth". Meanings formed from this center: "*to dress nb's hair*" (уложить); "*to dress a chicken*" (выпотрошить); "*to dress a rse*" (почистить); "*to dress a salad*" (добавить специй); "*to dress oldiers*" (проводить смотр войск); "*to dress leather*" (обрабатывать жу); "*to dress stone*" (делать огранку).

Words are divided into two: *polysemantic* and *monosemantic* words.

Monosemantic words have only one meaning. *Monosemantic* words re mostly scientific terms:

Ex. *hydrogen, lasar*.

Polisemantic words are words which have more than two meanings.

Ex. The word "*man*" has eleven meanings in modern English.

MAN – 1) одам; 2) адвокат; 3) эркак; 4) кўрқмас одам; 5) одамийлик; 6) хизматкор; 7) ишчи; 8) эр; 9) денгизчилар; 10) вассал; 11) пешка пиеда (шахматда).

The word in one of its meanings is termed as lexico-semantic variant f this word. For example the word *table* has at least 9 lexico-semantic variants: 1. a piece of furniture; 2. the persons seated at a table; 3. *sing.* the od put on a table, meals; 4. a thin flat piece of stone, metal, wood, etc.; *pl.* slabs of stone; 6. words cut into them or written on them (the ten ables); 7. an orderly arrangement of facts, figures, etc.; 8. part of a achine-tool on which the work is put to be operated on; 9. a level area, a lateau.

The problem in polysemy is that of interrelation of different lexico-emantic variants. There may be no single semantic component common o all lexico-semantic variants but every variant has something in common th at least one of the others.

All lexico-semantic variants of a word taken together form its semantic tructure or semantic paradigm. The word *face,* for example, according to he dictionary data has the following semantic structure:

1. The front part of the head: *He fell on his face,*

2. Look, expression: *a sad face, smiling faces, she is a good judge of faces.*

3. Surface, facade: *face of a clock, face of a building, He laid his cards face down.*

4. *fig.* Impudence, boldness, courage; *put a good/brave/ boldface on smth, put a new face on smth, the face of it, have the face to do, save one's face.*

5. Style of typecast for printing: *bold-face type.*

In polysemy we are faced with the problem of interrelation and interdependence of various meanings in the semantic structure of one and the same word.

No general or complete scheme of types of lexical meanings as elements of a word's semantic structure has so far been accepted by linguists. There are various points of view. The following terms may be found with different authors: direct / figurative, other oppositions are: main - derived; primary / secondary; concrete/ abstract; central/ peripheral; general/ special; narrow / extended and so on.

Meaning is direct when it nominates the referent without the help of a context, in isolation; meaning is figurative when the referent is named and at the same time characterised through its similarity with other objects, e.g. *tough meat* - direct meaning, *tough politician* - figurative meaning. Similar examples are: *head - head of a cabbage, foot -foot of a mountain, face - put a new face on smth.*

Polysemy may be analysed from two ways: diachronically and synchronically. If polysemy analysed 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 *ота*,

Secondary is – ёши улуғ, аъзо, кабила бошлиғи, рухоний.

The meaning of the word *table* in Old English was the meaning "a flat slab of stone or wood". It was its primary meaning; others were

secondary and appeared later. They had been derived from the primary meaning.

Synchronically polysemy is understood as the coexistence of various meanings of the word at a certain historical period of the development of English. In that case the problem of interrelation and interdependence of individual meanings making up the semantic structure of the word must be investigated from different points of view, that of main/ derived, central /peripheric meanings.

An objective criterion of determining the main or central meaning is the frequency of its occurrence in speech. Thus, the main meaning of the word *table* in Modern English is "a piece of furniture".

Polysemy is a phenomenon of language, not of speech. As a rule the contextual meaning represents only one of the possible lexico-semantic variants of the word. So polysemy does not interfere with the communicative function of the language because the situation and the context cancel all the unwanted meanings, as in the following sentences: *The steak is tough- This is a tough problem -Prof. Holborn is a tough examiner.*

By the term "*context*" we understand the minimal stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word. The context individualises the meanings, brings them out. The two main types of linguistic contexts which serve to determine individual meanings of words are the lexical context and the grammatical context. These types are differentiated depending on whether the lexical or the grammatical aspect is predominant in determining the meaning.

In lexical context of primary importance are lexical groups combined with the polysemantic words under consideration.

The adjective *heavy* in isolation possesses the meaning "of great weight, weighty". When combined with the lexical group of words denoting natural phenomena as *wind, storm,* etc. it means "striking, following with force, abundant", e.g. *heavy rain, wind, storm,* etc. In combination with the words *industry, arms, artillery* and the like, *heavy* has the meaning "the larger kind of something as heavy industry, artillery"

In grammatical context it is the grammatical (mainly the syntactic) structure of the context that serves to determine various individual meanings of a polysemantic word. Consider the following examples: *1) I made Peter study; He made her laugh; They made him work* (sing, dance, write...) 2) *My friend made a good teacher 3) He made a good husband.*

In the pattern "to make + N (Pr)+ V inf' the word *make* has the meaning "to force", and in the pattern "to make + A + N" it has the meaning "*to turn out to be*". Here the grammatical context helps to determine the meaning of the word "*to make*".

So, linguistic (verbal) contexts comprise lexical and grammatical contexts. They are opposed to extra linguistic contexts (non-verbal). In extra- linguistic contexts the meaning of the word is determined not only by linguistic factors but also by the actual situation in which the word is used.

Extension (widening of meaning). The extension of semantic capacity of a word, i.e. the expansion of polysemy in the course of its historical development, e.g. *manuscript* originally "smth hand-written".

Narrowing of meaning. The restriction of the semantic capacity of a word in the historical development, e.g. *meat* in OE meant "food and drink".

Elevation (or amelioration). The semantic change in the word which rises it from humble beginning to a position of greater importance, e.g. *minister* in earlier times meant merely "a servant".

Degradation (or_degerieration). The semantic change, by which, for one reason or another, a word falls into disrepute, or acquires some derogatory emotive charge, e.g. *silly* originally meant "*happy*".

The change in the denotational component brings about the extension or the restriction of meaning. The change in the connotational component may result in the degradation - pejorative or ameliorative development of meaning.

Metaphor. The transfer of name based on the association of similarity. It is the application of a name or a descriptive term to an object to which it is not literally applicable, e.g. *head of an army, eye of a needle*.

Metonymy. The transfer of name based on the association of contiguity. It is a universal device in which the name of one thing is changed for that of another, to which it is related by association of ideas, as having close relationship to one another, e.g. *the chair* may mean "the chairman", *the bar* -"the lawyers".

QUESTIONS

1. What is the definition of the term "meaning of a word"?
2. What is referential approach to meaning?
3. What is functional approach to meaning?
4. What is the difference between meaning and concept?
5. What is the grammatical meaning of the word?
6. Which types of the lexical meaning do you know?
7. What are the stylistic connotations?
8. What do you understand by the term polysemy?
9. What are polysemantic and monosemantic words?
10. What is context?

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VI. 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. Semantic contrastives. Antonyms and their classification

Key words: word, homonyms, homonyms proper, homophones, homographs, paronyms, synonyms, synonymic dominant, antonyms, conversives

Homonyms. The problem of polysemy is closely connected with the problem of homonymy. Homonyms are words which have the same form but are different in meaning. "The same form" implies identity in sound form or spelling, i.e. all the three aspects are taken into account: sound-form, graphic form and meaning.

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

Ex.: *ball*-бал, *ball*-мяч;

toast - поджаривать хлеб, *toast* - провозглашать тост.

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

Homonyms are classified into: *homonyms proper; homophones; homographs.*

Homonyms proper (or perfect, absolute) 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.

Homophones 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.

Homographs are words which are different in sound and in meaning but accidentally identical in spelling.

Ex.: *lead [li:d] – lead [led];*
tear [teə] – tear [tiə]
bow [bou] - bow [bau]
wind [wind] – wind [waind]

Homoforms - words identical in some of their grammatical forms. *To bound (jump, spring)* - *bound (past* participle of the verb *bind); found (establish)* - *found* (past participle of the verb *find).*

Paronyms are words that are alike in form, but different in meaning and usage. They are liable to be mixed and sometimes mistakenly interchanged. The term paronym comes from the Greek *para* "beside" and *onoma* "name". Examples are: *precede - proceed, preposition - proposition, popular - populous.* Homonyms in English are very numerous. Oxford English Dictionary registers 2540 homonyms, of which 89% are monosyllabic words and 9,1% are two-syllable words.

So, most homonyms are monosyllabic words. The trend towards monosyllabism, greatly increased by the loss of inflections and shortening, must have contributed much toward increasing the number of homonyms in English. Among the other ways of creating homonyms the following processes must be mentioned: conversion which serves the creating of *grammatical homonyms*, e.g. *iron -to iron, work - to work,* etc.; polysemy - as soon as a derived meaning is no longer felt to be connected with the primary meaning at all (as in *bar* - балка; *bar* - бар; bar - адвокатура) polysemy breaks up and separate words come into existence, quite different in meaning from the basic word but identical in spelling.

From the viewpoint of their origin homonyms are sometimes divided into historical and etymological.

Historical homonyms are those which result from the breaking up of polysemy; then one polysemantic word will split up into two or more separate words, e.g. *to bear /терпеть/ - to bear /родить; pupil /ученик/ - pupil /зрачок; plant /растение / - plant /завод.*

Etymological homonyms are words of different origin which come to be alike in sound or in spelling (and may be both written and pronounced alike).

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

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.

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

Ex.: *sea – to sea,*
seal – a sea animal,
to seal – to close tightly,
work – to work,
well – adverb,
well – колодец.

Grammatical homonymy in the homonymy of the different word forms of one and the same word (part of speech)

Ex.: *boys – boy's,*
asked - Past tense,
asked - Participal 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 were one word *(M.E. flour)*.

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

Ex.: OE ic and OE aze have become identical in pronunciation. I (pron.) and eye (n.), *love* (v.) – love n (OE lufulufian).

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.

6. Borrowed words may become homonyms as a result of phonetic convergence:

Ex.: Scandinavian "*ras*" and French "*rase*" are homonymous in English: *race* – состязание, *race* – рейс; *case* – падеж, *case* – чемодан, *case* – случай.

Borrowed and native words can coincide in form, thus producing homonyms (as in the above given examples).

In other cases homonyms are a result of borrowing when several different words become identical in sound or spelling. E.g. the Latin *vitim* - "wrong", "an immoral habit" has given the English *vice* - "evil conduct"; the Latin *vitis* -"spiral" has given the English "*vice*" - "apparatus with strong jaws in which things can be hold tightly"; the Latin *vice* - "*instead of*", "in place of" will be found in *vice - president.*

It should be noted that the most debatable problem in homonymy is the demarcation line between homonymy and polysemy, i.e. between different meanings of one word and the meanings of two or more homonymous words. 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:

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

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

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

Between words and sentences. Ex.: *I don't care. Took 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.

Synonymy is the coincidence in the essential meaning of words which usually preserve their differences in connotations and stylistic characteristics.

Synonyms are 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. These words are distinguished by different shades of meaning, connotations and stylistic features.

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, very,* modify the word "*change*" is the synonymic dominant.

The words *face, visage, countenance* have a common denotational meaning "the front of the head" which makes them close synonyms. *Face* is the dominant, the most general word; *countenance* is the same part of the head with the reference to the expression it bears; *visage* is a formal word, chiefly literary, for *face* or *countenance.*

In the series *leave, depart, quit, retire, clear out* the verb *leave,* being general and most neutral term can stand for each of the other four terms.

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). *Dog,* in its turn, may serve as a generic term for different breeds such as *bull-dog, collie, poodle,* etc.

One must bear in mind that the majority of frequent words are polysemantic and it is precisely the frequent words that have many synonyms. The result is that a polysemantic word may belong in its various meanings to several different synonymic groups. Kharitonchic Z. gives the example of 9 synonymic groups the word *part* enters as the result

of a very wide polysemy: 1) piece, parcel, section, segment, fragment, etc; 2) member, organ, constituent, element, component, etc; 3) share, portion, lot; 4) concern, interest, participation; 5) allotment, lot, dividend, apportionment; 6) business, charge, duty, office, function, work; 7) side, party, interest, concern, faction; 8) character, role, cue, lines; 9) portion, passage, clause, paragraph.

The semantic structures of two polysemantic words sometimes coincide in more than one meaning, but never completely. L. Bloomfield and E. Nida suppose even that there are no actual synonyms, i.e. forms which have identical meanings.

In a great number of cases the semantic difference between two or more synonyms is supported by the difference in valency. An example of this is offered by the verbs *win* and *gain* both may be used in combination with the noun *victory: to win a victory, to gain a victory.* But with the word *war* only *win* is possible: *to win a war.*

Criteria of synonymity is interchangeability. It should be pointed out that neither the traditional definition of synonyms nor the new version provide for any objective criterion of similarity of meaning. It is solely based on the linguistic intuition of the analyst.

Recently there has been introduced into the definition of synonymity the criterion of interchangeability in linguistic contexts that is synonyms are supposed to be words which can replace each other in a given context without the slightest alteration either in the denotational or connotational meaning. But this is possible only in some contexts, in others their meanings may not coincide, e.g. the comparison of the sentences "the rainfall in April was abnormal" and "the rainfall in April was exceptional" may give us grounds for assuming that *exceptional* and *abnormal* are synonyms. The same adjectives in a different context are by no means synonymous, as we may see by comparing "my son is exceptional" and "my son is abnormal" (B. Quirk, the Use of English, London 1962, p. 129).

Peace and *tranquility* are ordinarily listed as synonyms, but they are far from being identical in meaning. One may speak of *a peace conference,* but not *tranquility conference.* (E.Nida, The Descriptive analysis of words).

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

According to whether the difference is in denotational or connotational component synonyms are classified into ideographic and stylistic. Synonyms which differ in their denotational meanings are called *ideographic* synonyms. Ideographic synonyms denote different shades of meaning or different degrees of a given quality. They are nearly identical in one or more denotational meanings and interchangeable at least in some contexts, e.g. *beautiful - fine - handsome -pretty Beautiful* conveys, for instance, the strongest meaning; it marks the possession of that quality in its fullest extent, while the other terms denote the possession of it in part only. *Fineness, handsomeness* and *prettiness* are to beauty as parts to a whole.

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

In the synonymic group *choose, select, opt, elect, pick* the word *choose* has the most general meaning, the others are characterised by differences clearly statable: *select* implies a wide choice of possibilities *(select* a Christmas present for a child), *opt* implies an alternative (either this, or that as in Fewer students are *opting* for science courses nowadays); *pick* often implies collecting and keeping for future use *(pick* new words), *elect* implies choosing by vote *(elect* a president; *elect* smb. (to be) chairman).

Stylistic synonyms differ not so much in denotational as in emotive value or stylistic sphere of application.

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 coloured words
to see	*to behold (bookish)*
a girl	*a maiden (poetic)*
money	*dough (colloquial)*
food	*grub (colloquial)*
to live	*to hand out (colloquial)*

Literary language often uses poetic words, archaisms as stylistic alternatives of neutral words, e.g. *maid* for *girl, bliss* for *happiness, steed* for *horse, quit* for *leave.*

Calling and vocation in the synonymic group occupation, calling, vocation, business are high-flown as compared to occupation and business.

In a stylistic opposition of synonyms the basis of comparison is again the denotational meaning and the distinctive feature is the presence or absence of a stylistic colouring which may also be accompanied by a difference in emotional colouring.

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 seving as a means of emphasis. Prof. Aznaurova E.S. points out that stylistic synonyms carry emotional evaluative information.

Synonyms are distributionally different words. Ex.: "too", "also", "as well" are synonyms. They also occur in different surroundings. The synonyms differ in their collocability. 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*
to buy a house	*to book a house*

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 valency.

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.*

In many cases a stylistic synonym has an element of elevation in its meaning, *e.g. face - visage, girl - maiden.* Along with elevation of meaning there is the reverse process of degradation: to *begin - to fire away, to eat - to devour, to steal - to pinch, face - muzzle.* According to the

criterion of interchangeability in context synonyms are classified into *total, relative* and *contextual.*

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.

Relative Synonyms. Some authors class groups like *ask - beg - implore,* or *like - love - adore, gift -talent - genius, famous - celebrated-eminent* as relative synonyms, as they denote different degree of the same notion or different shades of meanings and can be substituted only in some contexts.

Contextual or context - dependent synonyms are similar in meaning only under some specific distributional conditions. It may happen that the difference between the meanings of two words is contextually neutralised.

E.g. *buy* and *get* would not generally be taken as synonymous, but they are synonyms in the following examples: I'll go to the shop and *buy* some bread. I'll go to the shop and *get* some bread.

The verbs *"bear", "suffer"* and *"stand"* are semantically different and not interchangeable except when used in the negative form; *can't stand* it is equal to can't bear it 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).*

The main *sources* of synonyms are :

1. One of the sources of synonymy is borrowing. Synonymy has its characteristic patterns in each language. Its peculiar feature in English is the contrast between simple *native* words stylistically neutral, *literary* words borrowed from French and *learned* words of Greco-Latin origin.

Native English: *to ask, to end, to rise, teaching, belly.*

French Borrowings: *to question, to finish, to mount, guidance, stomach.*

Latin borrowings: *to interrogate, to complete, to ascend, instruction, abdomen.* Borrowings: *to ask – to question: (F) – to interrogate. (L) to begin (A.S) – to commence (F) – to initiate (L – rise (F)) – ascend (L);*

There are also words that came from dialects, in the last hundred years, from American English, in particular, e.g. *long distance call* AE - *trunk call* BE, *radio* AE - *wireless* BE.

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.*

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

Ex.: сокрушитель – *crusher* (полицейский)
тюрьма – *can* (дословно - консервная банка)
убить – *to bump off* (дословно – пристукнуть)
казнить – *to fry* (дословно – зажарить)

Synonyms are also created by means of all word-forming processes productive in the language.

Synonymic differentiation. It must be noted that synonyms may influence each other semantically in two diametrically opposite ways: one of them is dissimilation or differentiation, the other is the reverse process , i.e. assimilation.

Many words now marked in the dictionaries as "archaic" or "obsolete" have dropped out of the language in the competition of synonyms, others survived with a meaning more or less different from the original one. This process is called synonymic differentiation and is so current that is regarded as an inherent law of language development.

The development of the synonymic group land has been studied by A.A. Ufimtseva. When in the 13 century soil was borrowed from French into English its meaning was "a strip of land". OE synonyms eorpe, land, folde ment "the upper layer of earth in which plants grow". Now, if two words coincide in meaning and use, the tendency is for one of them to drop out of the language. Folde became identical to eorpe and in the fight for survival the letter won. The polysemantic word land underwent an intense semantic development in a different direction and so dropped out

of this synonymic series. It was natural for soil to fill this lexical gap and become the main name for the notion "the mould in which plants grow". The noun earth retained this meaning throughout its history whereas the word ground, in which this meaning was formerly absent, developed it. As a result this synonymic group comprises at present soil, earth, ground.

Semantic contrastives. Antonyms. There are three types of semantic contrastives: 1) antonymy; 2) converseness; 3) complimentarity.

Antonyms are words which belong to the same part of speech and are identical in style but have contrary meanings or contradictory notions. According to the character of semantic opposition antonyms are subdivided into *antonyms proper, complete* and *conversitives*. The semantic polarity in antonyms proper is relative, the opposition is gradual, it may embrace several elements characterised by different degrees of the same property. They always imply comparison. *Large* and *little* or *small* denote polar degrees of the same notion, i.e. size.

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

Complementaries are words characterised only by a binary opposition which may have only two members.

Conversives are words which denote one and the same referent as viewed from different points of view, that of the subject and that of the object, e.g. *buy-sell, give-receive.*

Morphologically antonyms are subdivided into *root* (absolute) antonyms (*good - bad, beautiful – ugly*) and *derivational* antonyms. These antonyms are formed by affixes (*apper – disapper, kind – unkind, to like – dislike, happy – unhappy*). Derivational antonyms have the same root but different affixes.

Antonyms are not always interchangeable in certain contexts.

Ex.: "*rich voice*" cannot 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.*

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

Polysemantic words may have antonyms in some of their meanings and non in the others. Ex.: when the word "*criticism*" means "*blame*" its antonym is "*praise*", when it means "*рецензия*" it has no antonym.

Conversives. Converseness is a type of semantic opposition which is based on describing one and the same situation from different angles, from the point of view of different participants of the situation and their roles. Ex.: *to buy – to sell; to give – to take; left - right.* Sometimes conversives are called mirror-image relationship.

Classification of conversives:

1) lexical conversives – they are formed from different roots. Ex.: *to buy – to sell*; 2) morphological conversives – formed from the same root. Ex.: *interesting – interested; worrying – worried*; 3) grammatical conversives – based on the opposition between active and passive forms. Ex.: *to write – to be written*; 4) conversives in which the oppositeness of meaning is realized within the semantics of one and the same word. Ex.: *to burn; to smell; to taste.*

Complimentaries. Complimentarity is a type of semantic opposition which is characterised only by a binary opposition which may have only two members; the denial of one member of the opposition implies the assertion of the other e.g. not *male means female.* It is the type of oppositeness which is based on "*yes/no*"- decision. Ex.: *male – female; boy – girl; married – single.*

Complimentaries are not gradable. Antonyms do not contradict each other, but complimentaries always do. Ex.: *A small elephant is a large animal.* – It is possible. / *A male elephant is a female animal.* – It is not possible.

QUESTIONS

1. What is homonymy and its classification?
2. What are the sources of homonyms?
3. What is synonymy?
4. What is the dominant of a synonymic group?
5. What is the difference between ideographic synonyms and stylistic ones?
6. What are the main sources of synonyms?
7. What are the semantic contrastives?
8. What is the classification of antonyms?
9. What is the interchangeability of antonyms in context?
10. What is the classification of conversives?

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VII. THE STRUCTURE OF WORD-GROUPS

Problems for discussion

1. Component members in word-groups
2. Semantic analysis of word-groups
3. Grammatical analysis of word-groups
4. Valency or collocability of words

Key words: word-groups, component members, set expressions, free, subordinative word-groups, meaning, grammatical valency, classification.

Every utterance is a patterned, rhythmed and segmented sequence of signals. On the lexical level these signals building up the utterance are not exclusively words. Alongside with separate words speakers use larger blocks consisting of more than one word. Words combined to express ideas and thoughts make up *word-groups.*

The degree of structural and semantic cohesion of words within word-groups may vary. Some word-groups are functionally and semantically inseparable, e.g. *rough diamond, cooked goose, to stew in one's own juice.* Such word-groups are traditionally described as set-phrases or phraseological units. Characteristic features of phraseological units are non-motivation for idiomaticity and stability of context. They cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready-made units.

The component members in other word-groups possess greater semantic and structural independence, e.g. *to cause misunderstanding, to shine brightly, linguistic phenomenon, red rose.* Word-groups of this type are defined as free word-groups for free phrases. They are freely made up in speech by the speakers according to the needs of communication.

Set expressions are contrasted to free phrases and semi-fixed combinations. All these different stages of restrictions imposed upon co-occurrence of words, upon the lexical filling of structural patterns which are specific for every language. The restriction may be independent of the ties existing in extra-linguistic reality between the object spoken of and be conditioned by purely linguistic factors, or have extralinguistic causes in the history of the people. In free word-combination the linguistic factors are chiefly connected with grammatical properties of words.

Free word-groups of syntactically connected notional words within a sentence, which by itself is not a sentence. This definition is recognised more or less universally in this country and abroad. Though other linguistics define the term word-group differently - as any group of words connected semantically and grammatically which does not make up a sentence by itself. From this point of view words-components of a word-group may belong to any part of speech, therefore such groups as *the morning, the window,* and *Bill* are also considered to be word-groups (though they comprise only one notional word and one form-word).

Structurally word-groups may be approached in various ways. All word-groups may be analysed by the criterion of distribution into two big classes. Distribution is understood as the whole complex of contexts in which the given lexical unit can be used. If the word-group has the same linguistic distribution as one of its members, It is described as *endocentric,* i.e. having one central member functionally equivalent to the whole word-group. The word-groups, e.g. *red flower, bravery of all kinds,* are distributionally identical with their central components *flower* and *bravery:* I saw a red flower - I saw a flower. I appreciate bravery of all kinds - I appreciate bravery.

If the distribution of the word-group is different from either of its members, it is regarded as *exocentric,* i.e. as having no such central member, for instance *side by side* or *grow smaller* and others where the component words are not syntactically substitutable for the whole word-group.

In *endocentric* word-groups the central component that has the same distribution as the whole group is clearly the dominant member or the head to which all other members of the group are subordinated. In the word-group *red flower* the head is the noun *flower* and in the word-group *kind of people* the head is the adjective *kind.*

Word-groups are also classified according to their syntactic pattern into predicative and non-predicative groups. Such word-groups, e.g. *John works, he went* that have a syntactic structure similar to that of a sentence, are classified as predicative, and all others as non-predicative. Non-predicative word-groups may be subdivided according to the type of syntactic relation between the components into subordinative and coordinative. Such word-groups as *red flower, a man of wisdom and the like* are termed subordinative in which *flower* and *man* are head-words and *red, of wisdom* are subordinated to them respectively and function as their attributes.

Such phrases as *woman and child, day and night, do or die* are classified as coordinative. Both members in these word-groups are functionally and semantically equal.

Subordinative word-groups may be classified according to their head-words into nominal groups *(red flower)*, adjectival groups *(kind to people)*, verbal groups *(to speak well)*, pronominal *(all of them)*, stativa1 *(fast asleep)*. The head is not necessarily the component that occurs first in the word-group. In such nominal word-groups as e.g. *very great bravery, bravery in the struggle* the noun *bravery* is the head whether followed or preceded by other words.

The lexical meaning of the word-group may be defined as the combined lexical meaning of the component words. Thus the lexical meaning of the word-group *red flower* may be described denotationally as the combined meaning of the words *red* and *flower*. It should be pointed out, however, that the term combined lexical meaning is not to imply that the meaning of the word-group is a mere additive result of all the lexical meaning of the component members. As a rule, the meaning of the component words are mutually dependant and the meaning of the word-group naturally predominates over the lexical meanings of its constituents.

Word-groups possess not only the lexical meaning, but also the meaning conveyed by the pattern of arrangement of their constituents. Such word-groups as *school grammar* and *grammar school* are semantically different because of the difference in the pattern of arrangement of the component words. It is assumed that the structural pattern of word-group is the carrier of a certain semantic component which does not necessarily depend on the actual lexical meaning of its members. In the example discussed above *school grammar* the structural meaning of the word-group may be abstracted from the group and described as "quality-substance" meaning. This is the meaning expressed by the pattern of the word-group but not by either the word *school* or the word *grammar*. It follows that we have to distinguish between the structural meaning of a given type of word-group as such and the lexical meaning of its constituents.

The lexical and structural components of meaning in word-groups are interdependent and inseparable. The inseparability of these two semantic components in word-groups can be illustrated by the semantic analysis of individual word-groups in which the norms of conventional collocability of words seem to be deliberately overstepped. For instance, in the word-group *all the sun long* we observe a departure from the norm of lexical valency represented by such word-groups as *all the day long, all the night long, all the*

week long, and a few others. The structural pattern of these word-groups in ordinary usage and the word-group *all the sun long* is identical. The generalised meaning of the pattern may be described as "a unit of time". Replacing *day, night, week* by another noun the *sun* we do not find any change in the structural meaning of the pattern. The group *all the sun long* functions semantically as a unit of time. The noun *sun,* however, included in the group continues to carry its own lexical meaning (not "a unit of time") which violates the norms of collocability in this word-group. It follows that the meaning of the word-group is derived from the combined lexical meanings of its constituents and is inseparable from the meaning of the pattern of their arrangement. Two basic linguistic factors which unite words into word-groups and which largely account for their combinability are *lexical valency* or *collocability* and *grammatical valency.*

Words are known to be used in lexical context, i.e. in combination with other words. The aptness of a word to appear in various combinations, with other words is qualified as its lexical *collocability* or *valency.*

The range of a potential lexical collocability of words is restricted by the inner structure of the language wordstock. This can be easily observed in the examples as follows: though the words *bend, curl* are registered by the dictionaries as synonyms their collocability is different, for they tend to combine with different words: e.g. *to bend a bar/ wire/pipe/ bow/ stick/ head/ knees to curl hair/ moustache/ a hat brim/waves/ lips.*

There can be cases of synonymic groups where one synonym would have the widest possible range of collocability (like *shake* which enters combinations with an immense number of words including *earth, air, mountains, convictions, beliefs, spears, walls, souls, tablecloths, bosoms, carpets etc.) while* another will have the limitation inherent in its semantic structure (like *wag* which means < to shake a thing by one end >, and confined to rigid group of nouns - *tail, finger, head, tongue, beard, chin).* There is certain norm of lexical valency for each word and any intentional departure from this norm is qualified as a stylistic device, e.g.: *tons of words, a life ago, years of dust.*

Words traditionally collocated in speech tend to make up so called ***clichés*** or *traditional word combinations.* In traditional combinations words retain their full semantic independence although they are limited in their combinative power (e.g.: *to wage a war, to render a service, to make friends).* Words in traditional combinations are combined according to the

patterns of grammatical structure of the given language. Traditional combinations fall into structural types as:

1. V+N combinations. E.G.: *deal a blow, bear a grudge, take a fancy etc.*

2. V+ preposition +N: *fall into disgrace, go into details, go into particular, take into account, come into being etc.*

3. V + Adj.: *work hard, rain heavily etc.*

4. V + Adj.: *set free, make sure, put right etc.*

5. Adj. + N.: *maiden voyage, ready money, dead silence, feline eyes, aquiline nose, auspicious circumstances etc.*

6. N + V: *time passes / flies / elapses, options differ, tastes vary etc.*

7. N + preposition + N: *breach of promise, flow of words, flash of hope, flood of tears.*

Grammatical combinability also tells upon the freedom of bringing words together. The aptness of a word to appear in specific grammatical (syntactic) structures is termed *grammatical valency*.

The *grammatical valency* of words may be different. The range of it is delimited by the part of speech the word belongs to. This statement, though, does not entitle to say that grammatical valency of words belonging to the same part of speech is identical. E.g.: the two synonyms *clever* and *intelligent* are said to possess different grammatical valency as the word *clever* can fit the syntactic pattern of Adj. + preposition *at* + N *clever at physics, clever at social sciences*, whereas the word *intelligent* can never be found in exactly the same syntactic pattern.

Unlike frequent departures from the norms of lexical *valency*, departures from the grammatical valency norms are not admissible unless a speaker purposefully wants to make the word group unintelligible to native speakers. Thus, the main approaches towards word - groups classification are as follows:

1. According to the criterion of distribution word-groups are classified into: endocentric e.g. having one central member functionally equivalent to the whole word group; exocentric e.g. having the distribution different from that of either of its members. Here component words are not syntactically substituable for the whole word group. E.g.: *red flower* - the word group whose distribution does not differ from the distribution of its head word, the noun *flower*. As in *I gave her a red flower. I gave her a flower;* E.g.: *Side by side, by leaps and bounds.*

2. According to the syntactic pattern word-groups are classified into: predicative *They knew; Children believe; Weather permitting;*

coordinative *say or die; come and go;* subordinative *a man of property, domesticated animals.*

3. According to the part of speech the head word belongs to subordinative free word groups may fail into: nominal - *stone, wall, wild, life,* adjectival *necessary to know, kind to people,* verbal *work hard, go smoothly, adverbial very fluently, rather sharply, very well, so quickly;* numerical - *five of them, hundreds of refugees;* pronominal - *some of them, all of us, nothing to do;* stativa1 - *fast ,asleep, full, aware.*

Word-groups may be also analysed from the point of view of their motivation. Word groups may be described as lexically motivated if the combined lexical meaning of the group is deducible from the meaning of its components. The degrees of motivation may be different and range from complete motivation to lack of it. Free word - groups, however, are characterised by complete motivation, as their components carry their individual lexical meanings.

QUESTIONS

1. What are the. component members in word-groups?
2. What are the main approaches towards word-groups classification?
3. What is the structure of Subordinative word-groups?
4. What is the peculiarities of lexical and structural components of meaning in word-groups?
5. What are the structures of clichés?
6. What is the lexical valency?
7. What is the grammatical valency?
8. What are the structural types of traditional combinations?

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VIII. LEXICAL SYSTEMS. NEOLOGISMS. PHRASEOLOGY

Problems for discussion

1. The English vocabulary as an adaptive system
2. Neologisms
3. Semantic fields
4. Phraseology
5. Hyponymy

Key words: adaptive system, neologism, semantic fields, thematic groups, unit, collocation, fusion, set expression, idiom, proverb, saying, quotation, hyponymy.

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 pragmatic 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 are by studying new words or neologisms.

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 for 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.

New notions constantly come into being, requiring new words to name them. New words and expressions or neologisms are created for new things irrespective of their scale of importance. They may be all important and concern some social relationships such as a new form of state (people's Republic), or the thing may be quite insignificant and short-lived, like fashions in dancing, clothing, hairdo or footwear (rollneck). In every case either the old words are appropriately changed in meaning or new words are borrowed, or more often coined out of the existing language material either according to the patterns and ways already productive in the language at a given stage of its development or creating new ones. Neologisms may be divided into:

1) root words;

Ex. *jeep, sputnik, lunnik.*

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:

1) wordformation;

Ex: *-ics: psycholinguistics, ectronics. -nik: fllmmk, folknik.*

2) semantic extension;

Ex: *to screen - to classify.*

3) borrowing;

Ex: *telecast, telestar, sputnik, lunnik.*

Semantic fields. Words joined together by one common semantic component from *semantic fields*. The German linguist Yost Trier shows that the significance of each unit in the semantic field is determined by its neighbors. A. Shaikevitch says that semantically related words must occur near one another in the text. If the words often occur in the text together they must be semantically related and they form a *semantic field.*

The intense development of science and industry has called forth the invention and introduction of an immense number of new words and changed the meaning of old ones.

Ex: *aerobics, black hole, computer, hardware, software, isotope, feedback, penicillin, pulsar, super-market*

For a reliable mass of evidence on the new English vocabulary the reader is referred to lexicographic sources. New additions to the English

vocabulary are collected in addenda to explanatory dictionaries and in special dictionaries of new words. One should consult the supplementary volume of the English-Russian Dictionary edited by I.R.Galperin, the three supplementary volumes of The Oxford English Dictionary, The Longman Dictionary of New Words and the dictionaries of New English which are usually referred to as Barnhart Dictionaries.

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. Our present state of knowledge is however, insufficient to present the whole of the vocabulary as one articulated system, so we deal with it as if it were a set of interrelated systems.

By a lexico-grammatical group we understand a class of words which have a common lexico-grammatical meaning, common paradigm, the same substituting elements and possible characteristic set of suffixes rendering the lexico-grammatical meaning. These groups are subsets of the parts of speech, several lexico-grammatical groups constitute one part of speech. Thus English nouns are subdivided approximately into the following lexico-grammatical groups: personal names, animal names, collective names (for people), collective names (for animals), abstract nouns, material nouns, object nouns, proper names for people, toponymic names.

Another traditional lexicological grouping is known as word-families in which the words are grouped according to the root-morpheme, for example: *dog, doggish, doglike, dogg), to dog, dogged, doggedly, doggedness, dog-days, dog-biscuit, dogcart, etc.*

Semantic field is a closely knit sector of vocabulary characterised by a common concept (e.g. in the semantic field of space we find nouns (expanse, extent, surface); verbs (extend, spread, span); adjectives (spacious, roomy, vast, broad)). The members of the semantic fields are not synonymous but all of them are joined together by some common semantic component. This semantic component common to all the members of the field is sometimes described as the common denominator of meaning, like the concept of kinship, concept of colour, parts of the human body and so on. The basis of grouping in this case is not only linguistic but also extra-linguistic: the words are associated, because the things they name occur together and are closely connected in reality.

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

Thematic (or ideographic) groups are groups of words joined together by common contextual associations within the framework of the sentence and reflect the interlinking of things and events in objective reality. Contextual associations are formed as a result of regular co-occurrence of words in similar repeatedly used contexts. Thematic or ideographic groups are independent of classification into parts of speech. Words and expression are here classed not according to their lexico-grammatical meaning but strictly according to their signification, i.e. to the system of logical notions.

Ex: *tree - grow - green; journey - train, taxi, bus - ticket; sunshine – brightly - blue - sky.*

Phraseology. *Phraseology* studies the set-expressions, phraseological units. Functionally and semantically inseparable units are usually called phraseological units. *Phraseological unit* is a non-motivated word-group that cannot be freely made up in speech but is reproduced as a readymade unit. 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.*

Reproducibility is regular use of phraseological units in speech as single unchangeable collocations.

Idiomaticity is the quality of phraseological unit, when the meaning of the whole is not deducible from the sum of the meanings of the parts.

Stability of a phraseological unit implies that it exists as a ready-made linguistic unit which does not allow of any variability of its lexical components of grammatical structure.

In lexicology there is great ambiguity of the terms phraseology and idioms. Opinions differ as to how phraseology should be defined, classified, described and analysed. The word "phraseology has very different meanings in our country and in Great Britain or the United States, In linguistic literature the term is used for the expressions where the meaning of one element is dependent on the other, irrespective of the structure and properties of the unit (V.V. Vinogradov); with other authors it denotes only such set expressions which do not possess expressiveness or emotional colouring (A.I. Smirnitsky), and also vice versa: only those that are imaginative, expressive and emotional (I.V.Arnold). N.N.

Amosova calls such expressions fixed context units, i.e. units in which it is impossible to substitute any of the components without changing the meaning not only of the whole unit but also of the elements that remain intact. O.S. Ahmanova insists on the semantic integrity of such phrases prevailing over the structural separateness of their elements. A.V. Koonin lays stress on the structural separateness of the elements in a phraseological unit, on the change of meaning in the whole as compared with its elements taken separately and on a certain minimum stability.

In English and American linguistics no special branch of study exists, and the term "phraseology" has a stylistic meaning, according to Webster's dictionary 'mode of expression, peculiarities of diction, i.e. choice and arrangement of words and phrases characteristic of some author or some literary work'.

Difference in terminology (*"set-phrases", "idioms", "word-equivalents"*) reflects certain differences in the main criteria used to distinguish types of phraseological units and free word-groups. The term "*set phrase*" implies that the basic criterion of differentiation is stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure of word-groups.

The term "*idiom*" generally implies that the essential feature of the linguistic units is idiomaticity or lack of motivation.

The term "*word-equivalent*" stresses not only semantic but also functional inseparability of certain word groups, their aptness to function in speech as single words.

The essential features of phraseological units are: a) lack of semantic motivation; b) lexical and grammatical stability. As far as semantic motivation is concerned phraseological units are extremely varied from motivated (by simple addition of denotational meaning) like a *sight for sore eyes* and *to know the ropes* to partially motivated (when one of the words is used in a not direct meaning) or to demotivated (completely non-motivated) like *tit for tat, red-tape.*

Lexical and grammatical stability of phraseological units is displayed in the fact that no substitution of any elements whatever is possible in the following stereotyped (unchangeable) set expressions, which differ in many other respects; *all the world and his wife, red tape, calf love, heads or tails, first night, to gild the pill, to hope for the best, busy as a bee, fair and square, stuff and nonsense time and again.*

In a free phrase the semantic correlative ties are fundamentally different. The information is additive and each element has a much greater

semantic independence where each component may be substituted without affecting the meaning of the other: *cut bread, cut cheese, eat bread.* Information is additive in the sense that the amount of information we had on receiving the first signal, i.e. having heard or read the word *cut,* is increased, the listener obtains further details and learns what is cut. The reference of *cut* is unchanged. Every notional word can form additional syntactic ties with other words outside the expression. In a set expression information furnished by each element is not additive: actually it does not exist before we get the whole. No substitution for either *cut or figure* can be made without completely ruining the following: *I had an uneasy fear that he might cut a poor figure beside all these clever Russian officers* (Shaw). *He was not managing to cut much of a figure* (Murdoch). The only substitution admissible for the expression *cut a poor figure* concerns the adjective.

Semantic approach stresses the importance of idiomaticity, functional - syntactic inseparability, contextual - stability of context combined with idiomaticity. In his classification of V.V. Vinogradov developed some points first advanced by the Swiss linguist Charles Bally. The classification is based upon the motivation of the unit, i.e. the relationship existing between the meaning of the whole and the meaning of its component parts. The degree of motivation is correlated with the rigidity, indivisibility and semantic unity of the expression, i.e with the possibility of changing the form or the order of components, and of substituting the whole by a single word. According to the type of motivation three types of phraseological units are suggested, *phraseological combinations, phraseological unities,* and *phraseological fusions.*

The *Phraseological Collocations* (Combinations), are partially motivated, they contain one component used in its direct meaning while the other is used figuratively: *meet the demand, meet the necessity, meet the requirements.*

Phraseological unities are much more numerous. They are clearly motivated. The emotional quality is based upon the image created by the whole as in *to stick (to stand) to one's guns,* i.e. refuse to change one's statements or opinions in the face of opposition', implying courage and integrity. The example reveals another characteristic of the type, the possibility of synonymic substitution, which can be only very limited, e. g. *to know the way the wind is blowing.*

Phraseological fusions, completely non-motivated word-groups, (e.g. *tit for tat)*, represent as their name suggests the highest stage of blending together. The meaning of components is completely absorbed by the meaning of the whole, by its expressiveness and emotional properties. Phraseological fusions are specific for every language and do not lend themselves to literal translation into other languages.

Semantic stylistic features contracting set expressions into units of fixed context are simile, contrast, metaphor and synonymy. For example: *as like as two peas, as old as the hills and older than the hills* (simile); *from beginning to end, for love or money, more or less, sooner or later* (contrast); a *lame duck, a pack of lies, arms race, to swallow the pill, in a nutshell* (metaphor); *by leaps and bounds, proud and haughty* (synonymy). A few more combinations of different features in the same phrase are: *as good as gold, as pleased as Punch, as fit as a fiddle* (alliteration, simile); *now or never, to kill or cure* (alliteration and contrast). More rarely there is an intentional pun: *as cross as two sticks* means 'very angry'. This play upon words makes the phrase jocular.

There are, of course, other cases when set expressions lose their metaphorical picturesqueness, having preserved some fossilised words and phrases, the meaning of which is no longer correctly understood. For instance, the expression *buy a pig in a poke* may be still used, although *poke* 'bag' (cf. *pouch, pocket)* does not occur in other contexts. Expressions taken from obsolete sports and occupations may survive in their new figurative meaning. In these cases the euphonic qualities of the expression are even more important. A muscular and irreducible phrase is also memorable. The muscular feeling is of special importance in slogans and battle cries. *Saint George and the Dragon for Merrie England,* the medieval battle cry, was a rhythmic unit to which a man on a horse could swing his sword. The modern *Scholarships not battleships!* can be conveniently scanned by a marching crowd.

N.N. Amosova's approach is contextological. She defines phraseological units as units of fixed context. Fixed context is defined as a context characterised by a specific and unchanging sequence of definite lexical components, and a peculiar semantic relationship between them. Units of fixed context are subdivided into phrasemes and idioms. Phrasemes are always binary: one component has a phraseologically bound meaning, the other serves as the determining context *(small talk, small hours, small change).* In idioms the new meaning is created by the

whole, though every element may have its original meaning weakened or even completely lost: *in the nick of time* 'at the exact moment'. Idioms may be motivated or demotivated. A motivated idiom is homonymous to a free phrase, but this phrase is used figuratively: *take the bull by the horns* 'to face dangers without fear. *In the nick of time* is demotivated, because the word *nick* is obsolete. Both phrasemes and idioms may be movable (changeable) or immovable.

A.V. Koonin's classification is based on the functions of the units fulfil in speech. They may be nominating *(a bull in a china shop),* interjectinal (*a pretty kettle of fish),* communicative *(familiarity breeds contempt),* or nominating-communicative *(pull somebody's leg).* Further classification into subclasses depends on whether the units are changeable or unchangeable, whether the meaning of the one element remains free, and, more generally, on the interdependence between the meaning of the elements and the meaning of the set expression.

Formal classification distinguishes set expressions that are nominal phrases: *the root of the trouble;* verbal phrases: *put one's best foot forward;* adjectival phrases: *as good as gold; red as a cherry;* adverbial phrases. *from head to foot;* prepositional phrases: *in the course of;* conjunctional phrases: as *long as, on the other hand,* interjectional phrases: *Well, I never!*

A stereotyped sentence also introduced into speech as a ready-made formula which may be illustrated by: *Never say die!* 'never give up hope', *take your time* 'do not hurry.

This classification takes into consideration not only the type of component parts but also the functioning of the whole, thus, *tooth and nail* is not a nominal but an adverbial unit, because it serves to modify a verb *(e. g. fight tooth and nail).*

Within each of these classes a further subdivision is as follows:

a) Set expressions functioning like nouns: N+N: *maiden name* 'the surname of a woman before she was married'; *brains trust* 'a committee of experts' N's+N: *cat's paw* 'one who is used for the convenience of a cleverer and stronger person' (the expression comes from a fable in which a monkey wanting to eat some chestnuts that were on a hot stove, but not wishing to burn himself while getting them, seised a cat and holding its paw in his own used it to knock the chestnuts to the ground) Ns'+N: *ladies' man* 'one who makes special effort to charm or please women'. N+prp+N: *the arm of the law, skeleton in the cupboard.* N+A: *blight errant* (the

phrase is today applied to any chivalrous man ready to help and protect oppressed and helpless people). N+and+N: *lord and master* 'husband'; *all the world and his wife.* A+N: *high tea* 'an evening meal which combines meat or some similar extra dish with the usual tea'. N+ subordinate clause: *ships that pass in the night* 'chance acquaintances'.

b) Set expressions functioning like verbs: V+N: *take advantage*

V+and+V: *pick and choose*

V+(one's)+N+(prp): *snap one's fingers at*

V+one+N: *give one the bird* 'to fire smb'

V+subordinate clause: *see how the land lies* 'to discover the state of affairs'.

c) Set expressions functioning like adjectives:

A+and+A: *high and mighty*

(as)+A+as+N: *as old as the hills, as mad as a hatter.*

d) Set expressions functioning like adverbs: N+N: *tooth and nail*

prp+N: *by heart, of course* adv+prp+N: *once in a blue moon* prp+N+or+N: *by hook or by crook* cj+clause: *before one can say Jack Robinson.*

e) Set expressions functioning like prepositions: prp+N+prp: *in consequence of.*

f) Set expressions functioning like interjections: these are often structured as imperative sentences: *Bless (one's) soul! God bless me! Hang it (all)!*

4. Phraseological stability is based upon:

a) the stability of use;

b) the stability of meaning;

c) lexical stability;

d) syntactic stability;

e) rhythmic characteristics, rhyme and imagery.

5. *Proverbs, sayings, familiar quotations and cliches.* Proverbs, saying and quotation exist also as readymade units with a specialized meaning of their own which cannot be deduced from the meaning of their components. Therefore they may be included in phraseological units. Ex: *To be or not to be.*

The place of proverbs, sayings and familiar quotations with respect to set expressions is a controversial issue. A proverb is a short familiar epigrammatic saying expressing popular wisdom, a truth or a moral lesson in a concise and imaginative way. Proverbs have much in common with

set expressions, because their lexical components are also constant, their meaning is traditional and mostly figurative, and they are introduced into speech ready-made. Another reason why proverbs must be taken into consideration together with set expressions is that they often form the basis of set expressions. E. g. *the last straw breaks the camel's back: the last straw; a drowning man will clutch at a straw: clutch at a straw; it is useless to lock the stable door when the steed is stolen: :lock the stable door.*

As to familiar quotations, they are different from proverbs in their origin. They come from literature and become part of the language, so that many people using them do not even know that they are quoting, and very few could accurately name the play or passage on which they are drawing even when they are aware of using a quotation from W. Shakespeare.

The Shakespearian quotations have become and remain extremely numerous — they have contributed enormously to the store of the language. Very many come from "Hamlet", for example: *Something is rotten in the state of Denmark; Brevity is the soul of wit; The rest is silence; Thus conscience does make cowards of us all; There are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio.*

Some quotations are so often used that they come to be considered cliches. The term is used to denote such phrases as have become hackneyed and stale. Being constantly and mechanically repeated they have lost their original expressiveness. The following are perhaps the most generally recognised: *the acid test, ample opportunities, astronomical figures, the arms of Morpheus, to break the ice, the irony of fate,* etc.

Even these few examples clearly show that proverbs are different from those phraseological units which have been discussed above. The first distinctive feature that strikes one is the obvious structural dissimilarity. Phraseological units, as we have seen, are a kind of ready-made blocks which fit into the structure of a sentence performing a certain syntactical function, more or less as words do. E. g. *George liked her for she never put on airs* (predicate). *Big bugs like him care nothing about small fry like ourselves,* (a) subject, b) prepositional object).

Proverbs, if viewed in their structural aspect, are sentences, and so cannot be used in the way in which phraseological units are used in the above examples.

If one compares proverbs and phraseological units in the semantic aspect, the difference seems to become even more obvious. Proverbs could

be best compared with minute fables for, like the latter, they sum up the collective experience of the community. They moralise *(Hell is paved with good intentions)*, give advice *(Don't judge a tree by its bark)*, give warning *(If you sing before breakfast, you will cry before night)*, admonish *(Liars should have good memories)*, criticise *(Everyone calls his own geese swans)*.

No phraseological unit ever does any of these things. They do not stand for whole statements as proverbs do but for a single concept. Their function in speech is purely *nominative* (i. e. they denote an object, an act, etc.). The function of proverbs in speech, though, is *communicative* (i. e. they impart certain information).

The question of whether or not proverbs should be regarded as a subtype of phraseological units and studied together with the phraseology of a language is a controversial one.

Professor A. V. Koonin includes proverbs in his classification of phraseological units and labels them *communicative phraseological units*. From his point of view, one of the main criteria of a phraseological unit is its stability. If the quotient of phraseological stability in a word-group is not below the minimum, it means that we are dealing with a phraseological unit. The structural type — that is, whether the unit is a combination of words or a sentence — is irrelevant.

It may be added, as one more argument in support of this concept, that there does not seem to exist any rigid or permanent border-line between proverbs and phraseological units as the latter rather frequently originate from the former.

So, the phraseological unit the last straw originated from the proverb The last straw breaks the camel's back, the phraseological unit birds of a feather from the proverb Birds of a feather flock together, the phraseological unit to catch at a straw (straws) from A drowning man catches at straws.

What is more, some of the proverbs are easily transformed into phraseological units. E.g. *Don't put all your eggs in one basket > to put all one's eggs in one basket; don't cast pearls before swine > to cast pearls before swine.*

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 father*),

verb equivalents (*take place, break the news*), adverb equivalents (*in the long run, high and low*). The history of many phraseologisms 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.

Hyponymy. *Hyponymy* is the semantic relationship of inclusion existing between elements of various levels. Thus, e.g. *vehicle* includes *car, bus, taxi; oak* implies *tree, horse* implies *animal; table* implies *furniture.* The *hyponymic relationship* is the relationship between the meaning of the general and the individual terms.

A hyperonym is a generic term which serves as the name of the general as distinguished from the names of the species-hyponyms. In other words the more specific term is called the hyponym. For instance, *animal* is a generic term as compared to the specific names *wolf, dog* or *mouse* (these are called equonyms) *Dog,* in its turn, may serve as a generic term for different breeds such as *bull-dog, collie, poodle,* etc.

QUESTIONS

1. What are the most common peculiarities of phraseological units?
2. What is V.V. Vinogradov's classification of phraseological units based on?
3. What can you say about A.V. Koonin's classification of phraseological units?
4. Who does include proverbs, sayings and quotation in his classification?
5. What are the semantic fields?
6. What types of neologisms do you know?
7. What does hyponymy mean?

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IX. THE VARIETIES OF ENGLISH

Problems for discussion

1. Standard English
2. Accents, dialects and variants
3. Dialectology and Regional Dialects
4. Influence to British English
5. Cockney dialect
6. Some Differences between British English and American English

Key words: standard, language, variant, dialect, accent, regional, influence, local, development, differences.

The Standard Language. *British English variation* is traditionally called the Standard English (according to lexical and grammatical characters). It is the speech of upper-class Londoners which carries the Saxon elements. If we think of Standard English, it is the version we believe is found in printed English in newspapers and books, is widely used in the mass media and is taught in most schools. It is the variety we normally try to teach to those who want to learn English as a second or foreign language. It is clearly associated with education and broadcasting in public contexts and is more easily described in terms of the written language (i.e. vocabulary, spelling, grammar) than the spoken language. Its vocabulary is contrasted to dialect words or dialectisms.

If we are thinking of that general variety used in public broadcasting in the United States, we can refer more specifically to Standard American English or, in Britain, to Standard British English. In other parts of the world, we can talk about other recognized varieties such as Standard Australian English, Standard Canadian English or Standard Indian English.

The Differences between accents and dialects. Whether we think we speak a standard variety of English or not, we all speak with an *accent*. It is a myth that some speakers have accents while others do not. We might feel that some speakers have very distinct or easily recognized types of accent while others may have more subtle or less noticeable accents, but every language-user speaks with an accent. Technically, the term 'accent' is restricted to the description of aspects of pronunciation that identify where an individual speaker is from, regionally or socially. It is different

from the term *dialect*, which is used to describe features of grammar and vocabulary as well as aspects of pronunciation.

We recognize that the sentence *You don't know what you're talking about* will generally 'look' the same whether spoken with an American accent or a Scottish accent. Both speakers will be using Standard English forms, but have different pronunciations. However, this next sentence – *Ye dinnae ken whit yer haverin' aboot* – has the same meaning as the first, but has been written out in an approximation of what a person who speaks one dialect of Scottish English might say. There are differences in pronunciation (e.g. *whit*, *aboot*), but there are also examples of different vocabulary (e.g. *ken*, *haverin'*) and a different grammatical form (*dinnae*).

While differences in vocabulary are often easily recognized, dialect variations in the meaning of grammatical constructions are less frequently documented. In the following example (from Trudgill, 1983) two British English speaking visitors (**B** and **C**) and a local Irish English speaker (**A**) are involved in a conversation in Donegal, Ireland.

A: How long are youse here?

B: Till after Easter.

(Speaker A looks puzzled.)

C: We came on Sunday.

A: Ah. Youse're here a while then.

It seems that the construction *How long are youse here?*, in speaker **A**'s dialect, is used with a meaning close to the structure 'How long have you been here?' referring to past time. Speaker **B**, however, answers as if the question was referring to future time ('How long are you going to be here?'). When speaker **C** answers with a past-time response (*We came on Sunday*), speaker **A** acknowledges it and repeats his use of a present tense (*Youse're here*) to refer to past time. Note that the dialect form *youse* (= 'You' plural) seems to be understood by the visitors though it is unlikely to be part of their own dialect.

Dialectology and Regional Dialects. Despite occasional difficulties, there is a general impression of mutual intelligibility among many speakers of different dialects of English. This is one of the criteria used in the study of dialects, or *dialectology*, to distinguish between two different dialects of the same language (whose speakers can usually understand each other) and two different languages (whose speakers can't usually understand each other). This is not the only, or the most reliable, way of identifying dialects, but it is helpful in establishing the fact that each

different dialect, like each language, is equally worthy of analysis. It is important to recognize, from a linguistic point of view, that none of the varieties of a language is inherently 'better' than any other. They are simply different. From a social point of view, however, some varieties do become more prestigious. In fact, the variety that develops as the standard language has usually been one socially prestigious dialect, originally connected with a political or cultural center (e.g. London for British English and Paris for French). Yet, there always continue to be other varieties of a language spoken in different regions.

Regional *dialects* in the English language are very wide. These variations formed within long years after the results of the historical progress, in the beginning of XVIII century. Even in the United Kingdom there are England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland dialects. Today, English is spread over the whole world and it means that it has several variations in different places. The regional dialects reflect all the new words in the social lifestyle, in flora and fauna of these places. And such kinds of words being the dialect of one place are not understandable to another group of people who live in other place or otherwise, the new word is widely used and understood by everyone. It enters the dictionary of the language and stays there for a long time.

Nowadays, American and Australian varieties of English influence to Standard English language. The new words which are formed in American English

Influence to British English. The influence of American English is mostly reflected in Canadian English and this process is rapidly growing. The varieties of English language may be called either international variety (ex: British and American variety) or dialect variety (Cockney and Hampshire dialect). While speaking about variations we point out the northern and southern English, Irish English and Welsh English. It doesn't mean that there is only one English, one Irish or one Welsh accent in Great Britain. No, within one accent there are several accents which have their own specific phonetic characters.

While talking about the regional dialects it is interesting to speak about "Pidgin" English. (The mixture of Chinese and English). It was the language of sailors and merchants who travelled through the world and spread their new words. Such kinds of words influenced to English language from the XVIII century. For example, the word "*bob*", "*bobbery*"

(*noise, disturbance*) were pidgin words and they transferred to English language. Now they are widely used in English.

One period of Pidgin English was the times of slave commerce. During those times human bargainers sold black people to American plantations and with this way they influenced to the progress and spread of pidgin language and formation of new language variation. While working in these plantations these slaves used their own words during their speech and with this way they spread out new words to English language. Thus, new language variation - the pidgin or the language of black people from Africa (Black English) expanded through the world. For example: *poto-poto* (mud), *obcan-troki* (tortoise) and so on. (Steward, "Differences between Black English and Standard English" 1996).

Even the merchants Jon Atkins made the tapes of the speeches of African slaves and that tape is now kept in the library of Washington University.

American linguist Steward made a lot of efforts to explore the differences between Black English and Standard English. Some words like *goeber* (*peanut*), *Juke* (*box*) and others entered to the English language dictionary. The word *goeber* is, I think of, African origin. In Haussa (West African tongue), *guya* is ground-nut.(A.F. Chamberlain: Science, Vol. 12, No 284).

Such kinds of words like *uh-huh* (yes) is understood in the U.S. either by black or white people. However, people from Great Britain don't understand and don't accept these words. (Steward, "Differences between Black English and Standard English", 1996).

In order to differentiate the specific characteristics of various dialects, first of all we have to get information about the roots of the people who lived here. That's why the historical-geographical map of the U.S. was created after the studies of the people from different regions. It was founded that 1291 families firstly came to New England and 687 families came to Virginia from England. (H. Kurath, "Differences in Spoken American English"). The studies show that these families that came from England kept their dialects and pronunciation style. Despite the changes they tried to keep the original form of some words.

There are some Indian words in American dictionary as *big canal, big chief, big heart, big medicine, big talk* and *big water* and so on. In the United States there are several area names with words *big, great* and *grand.* Indians influenced a lot to English language as the first settlers to

the United States. Also, they influenced to the languages of other nations. At the same time, Europeans saved the lexical foundation of their language with main role of patriotism of white people. So, as the sailor terms, the Pidgin English was brought to the new world and mixed with other variations, then travelled to other coasts.

The source of the first foreign words in Pidgin English goes back to Portuguese language. This fact shows us that the first people who settled in America from Europe were Portuguese people. They mixed with native Indian tribes, formed native pidgin groups and their dialect influenced to English language.

Cockney dialect. 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.

The pronunciation of poor-class is the Cockney accent which carries the mixture of Saxon elements. The Cockney dialect of London is the pure social dialect of England. It started to spread over from London in the XVIII- XIX centuries. So, the Cockney accent changed its social character. During those times the British English changed into views of social levels and all the people of different classes started to speak in Received Pronunciation (RP). People started to pay attention to their pronunciation. Despite, that Standard English is accepted by everyone, the pronunciation doesn't carry an importance. The history of Cockney dialect goes back to the period when Anglo-Saxons captured England. This fact tells us that there was another social dialect in London during those times. After the war, during the urbanization, the influence of Standard English to dialects increased. The word "Diglossia" started to be used in terminology and linguistics.

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.

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.

English is spoken on all five continents. With regard to numbers of speakers it is only exceeded by Chinese (in its various forms) and Spanish. But in terms of geographical spread it stands at the top of the league. The distribution is a direct consequence of English colonial policy, starting in Ireland in the late 12th century and continuing well into the 19th century, reaching its peak at the end of the reign of Queen Victoria and embodied in the saying 'the sun never sets on the British Empire'. For the present overview the varieties of English in the modern world are divided into four geographical groups as follows.

1) Britain
   England
   Scotland
   Wales
   Ireland

2) America
   United States
   Canada
   African American Vernacular English
   The Caribbean

3) Africa
   West Africa
   South Africa
   East Africa

4) Asia, Pacific
   India and South-East Asia
   Australia and New Zealand
   The Pacific islands region

The two main groups are Britain and America. For each there are standard forms of English which are used as yardsticks for comparing other varieties of the respective areas.

In Britain the standard is called Received Pronunciation. The term stems from Daniel Jones at the beginning of the present century and refers to the pronunciation of English which is accepted - that is, received - in English society. BBC English, Oxford English, Queen's English (formerly King's English) are alternative terms which are not favoured by linguists as they are imprecise or simply incorrect.

In America there is a standard which is referred to by any of a number of titles, General American and Network American English being the two most common. There is a geographical area where this English is spoken and it is defined negatively as the rest of the United States outside

of New England (the north east) and the South. General American is spoken by the majority of Americans, including many in the North-East and South and thus contrasts strongly with Received Pronunciation which is a prestige sociolect spoken by only a few percent of all the British. The southern United States occupy a unique position as the English characteristic of this area is found typically among the African American sections of the community. These are the descendents of the slaves originally imported into the Caribbean area, chiefly by the English from the 16th century onwards. Their English is quite different from that of the rest of the United States and has far more in common with that of the various Anglophone Caribbean islands.

In the development of the language English has shown variation with a number of features on different linguistic levels. In those cases where the variation has been between dialects and/or sociolects and the arising standard the features in question have become indicators of non-standardness. Consciousness of this is frequently present with speakers and it forms part of what is sometimes called 'panlectal' knowledge of language, i.e. part of the awareness of inherent variation in a language which people acquire with their particular variety of the language in question. In English the indicators of non-standardness are chiefly phonological but there are also morphological and syntactical features, the most salient of which are indicated below. The standard referred to here is Received Pronunciation and the variation applies chiefly to forms of British English.

Phonology

1) Presence of syllable-final /r/ *card* /k<:rd/
2) Lack of initial /h-/ *happy* /.pi/
3) Glottalisation of /t/ *bottle* /b>?)/
4) No lowering of /u/ *but* /but/
5) Short /a/ before /f, s, 2/ *bath* /ba2/
6) Use of /w/ *which* /wit$/
7) Alveolarisation of /n/ *walking* /wo:k(/
8) Yod deletion in /ju:/ *news* /nu:z/ *tune* /tu:n/
9) No lexical distribution of /./ and /<:/ *grand* /grand/, *cancel* /ka(:)ns)/
10) Short vowel distinction before /r/ *fern* /fern/ # *burn* /bvrn/
11) Unshifted long /u:/: *town* /tu:n/

Morphology

1) Contraction of *am + not*: *amn't* or *aren't* and of *is + not*: *isn't* or *ain't*

2) Use of /i:/ for /ai/ with possessive pronoun *my*

3) Use of demonstrative pronouns for possessive pronouns: *them boys*

4) A distinctive form for the second person plural: *ye, yez, youse*

5) Use of objective forms for subject, e.g. *us* for *we*

6) Unmarked adverbs (deletion of final /i:/): *He's awful busy these days*

7) Differences between weak and strong verbs

8) Zero marking for plurals, often with numerals: *He's been here five year now*

Syntax

1) Use of past participle as preterite: *I done the work, I seen him*

2) Narrative present with generalised -s: *I hops out of the car and finds him lying on the ground*

3) Additional aspectual distinctions such as the habitual: *He does be working all night*. Perfective with participle after object: *He has the book read.*

4) Double or multiple negation: *They don't do nothing for nobody.*

5) Use of for with infinitives: *He went out for to get some milk.*

6) Deletion of copula and/or auxiliary: *She a farmer's daughter, He gone home.*

7) Zero subject in relative clauses: *There's a man wants to see you.*

8) Never as past tense negative: *I never done the work (= I didn't do...)*

9) Lack of negative attraction: *Anyone wasn't interested in linguistics.*

10) Passive with get: *His car got stolen last week.*

11) Different use of prepositions, e.g. *on* to express relevance: *They broke the glass on me.*

12) Overuse of the definite article: *He asked the both of them.*

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 cannot be called a dialect although it is a regional variety, because it 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.

In phonetics: *class, ask, after, dance* are pronounced not by [α:] but by [χ].

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 in 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.

Some Differences between British English and American English:

1. In British English, *got* is used both as the past tense and as the past participle of the verb *get*; *gotten* is not used. In American English, *got* is used as the past tense, while either *got* or *gotten* is used as the past participle, depending on, among other things, the meaning of the verb.

2. *For* corresponds to *in /favour/favor/ of* only in the sense 'be supportive of', e.g. *Jag rostade for det har forslaget.*

3. This difference concerns the use of the suffi x *-ise/-ize* to form verbs, e.g. *real* + *-ize* > *realize*. The form *-ize* is used in both British and American English; the form *-ise* is chiefl y used in British English, where it is more frequent than *-ize*.

4. When the English word corresponds to Swedish *taxameter* or *matare*, it is spelt *meter* in both British and American English (the pronunciation is the same).

5. However, computer programs are usually spelt *programs* even in British English.

6. The two English words are not completely equivalent: a British academic year is often divided into three *terms*, while it is more usual for an American academic year to be divided into two *semesters*.

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 of 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. What is Standard English?
2. What are the variants of English in Great Britain?
3. What dialects and accents of the English language do you know?
4. What are the phonetic differences of English in Great Britain and in the USA?

5. What are the grammatical differences of English in Great Britain and in the USA?
6. What are the lexical differences of English in Great Britain and in the USA?
7. What are the causes has English language become the state language of different countries in Asia and in Africa?

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X. LEXICOGRAPHY: ITS BASIS NOTIONS AND FUNCTIONS

Problems for discussion

1. The subject matter and essence of lexicography
2. The origin and concepts of lexicology and lexicography
3. Common features and difference. Some approaches to the problem
4. Aims and functions of lexicography
5. Periods of practical lexicography

Key words: lexicography, dictionary, glossaries, monolingual, bilingual, unilingual, general, special.

Lexicography is the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries. It's an important part of applied linguistics. The word "lexicography" is of the Greek origin as well as lexicography: λεξίκός belonging to word and λόγοξ means learning, if we translate it into English it means "learning of words".

Lexicography is the part of lexis dealing with the body of a language and the properties of words as the main units of language (words, words combinations)

Lexicography and lexicology have a common object of study for they describe the vocabulary of a language.

The essential difference between them lies in the degree of systematization and completeness. Lexicography aims at systematization revealing characteristic features of words. The field of lexicography is the semantic, formal, and functional description of all individual words. Dictionaries aim at a more or less complete description.

Lexicology shows that the vocabulary of every particular language is not a chaos of diversified phenomena but a homogeneous whole, a system constituted by independent elements related in certain specific ways.

Lexicography this section of linguistics concerns practices of theory of compiling dictionaries. Every theory is a result of practical needs. Practical lexicography and theoretical one are closely connected carrying out different socially important functions:

1) educational function presupposes teaching language both native and foreign;

2) 'legislative' function studies and problems of description and normalization of language; it relates with describing standardizing native language forming a certain language norm;

3) communicative function deals with realizing intercultural communications;

4) scientific function fulfills studying vocabulary of a language periods of practical lexicography.

In the long perspective of human evolutionary development dictionaries have been known through only a slight fraction of language history. People at first simply talked without having authoritative packing from reference books. As far as practical lexicography is concerned it has nearly one and the same history that is divided into 3 periods:

1. pre-dictionary period;
2. period of early dictionaries;
3. period of developed lexicography.

The main function of predictionary periods is to explain words which are difficult to understand.

In the long perspective of human evolutionary development dictionaries have been known through only a slight fraction of language history. People at first simply talked without having authoritative backing from reference books.

The first glosses appeared in Sumerain in the 25th c. B.C. The term "gloss" is of Greek origin and first it means "tongue", "language". Glosses mean series of verbal interpretations of a text. Then glosses appeared in Western Europe in the
8th c. A.D., and in Russia they occurred in the 11th c. A.D.

Glossaries, collections of glosses pertained to one book or author, e.g. Vedadated to the 1st millennium B.C. in India, Homer, his glossaries dated to the 5th c.B.C. in Greece.

Collections of words for educational purposes are called vocabularias, e.g.Hettite-Akkadian-Sumerian plates, tablets dated to 14-13 c.c. B.C.

Thematic group of words pertained to the 2nd millennium B.C. They were found precisely in 1750 B.C. in Egypt.

The 2nd period is the period of early dictionaries, its function is to study literary languages which differ even now with many peoples from spoken speech:

Sanskrit lexicons pertained to the 8-6th c.c. B.C., ancient Greek lexicons dates to 10 c. B.C.

A short Akkadian wordlist from central Mesopotamia has survived from the 7th c. B.C.

The Western tradition of dictionary making began among the Greeks, although not until the language had changed so much that explanations and commentaries were needed. After a 1st c. A.D. lexicon was compiled in Greek, the most important being those of the Atticists in the 2nd c. that of Photius and the Suda in the Middle Ages.

Later on passive translated vocabularies appeared in which foreign vocabulary is explained with the help of a language of a people, e.g. Arabic-Persian – 11 c. A.D., Latin-English – 15 c. A.D., Church-Slavonic-Russian – 16 c. A.D.

Then the reverse process took place: translated dictionaries of active type arose, where the initial language was existing, living language (e.g. English-Latin, French-Latin 16 c., Russian-Latin-Greek – 18 c.) and besides bilingual dictionaries of the living languages appeared.

Explanatory dictionaries arose in countries with hieroglyphic orthography, e.g. in China – in the 3 c. B.C., in Japan in the 8th c. B.C.

Chaotic lexicography becomes regularly developed when national literary
languages appeared, so the third period – period of developed lexicography took its place. The main function of which is describing and normalizing. It enhanced social linguistic culture. Philological societies and academies were founded which created explanatory, encyclopaedic dictionaries, such as "Halian Academic Dictionary by Crusca 1612, Russian Academic Dictionary, 1789-1794.

As far as special dictionaries are concerned they were also published such as dictionary of grammar, synompus, phraseology; dialectal, orthographic, orthoepic, terminological dictionaries and others.

It should be bear in mind that dictionaries and its compiling were closely connected with the period of their creation, leading philosophic schools.

In the 17-18th c.c. Enlightenments epoch and ideas of famous philosophers such as Fransis Bacon and Rene Dekartes were reflected in vocabularies.

Jater on ideas of positivism influenced French dictionaries in the 19th c. e.g. a famous dictionary of E. Littre (1863-1872). Evolution theories and

comparative linguistics brought out one of the problem, the problem of solving etymological questions in lexicography, strengthening the role of history from 18th c. In the 20th c. lexicography acquired industrial character: dictionaries of related languages, reverse dictionaries, dictionaries of frequent words, concordances, dictionaries of the writers' languages appeared.

Computer and computerised techniques in lexicography are being applied from 1950. The whole institutes and centres of lexicography were created.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the origin of the terms "lexicology" and "lexicography"? What do they mean?
2. What do lexicography and lexicology have in common? Enumerate their differences.
3. Enumerate main functions of practical lexicography.
4. What periods is practical lexicography divided into?

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XI. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF BRITISH LEXICOGRAPHY (VIII-XVIII CC.)

Problems for discussion

1. Historical backgrounds from classical times
2. The origin of English lexicography:
- manuscript glossaries;
- bilingual glossaries;
- translating dictionaries.
3. Samuel Johnson's dictionary

Key words: definition, glossary, development, vocabulary, influences, lexicographer.

A need for a glossary or dictionary has been belt in cultural growth of many civilized peoples at a fairly early period.

What is "dictionary"? The word "dictionary" comes from the Latin "dictio", "the art of speaking" and "dictionarius", "a collection of words". According to Encyclopedia Britannica definition, "dictionary is used to denote a book listing words of a language with their meanings and often with data regarding pronunciation, usage and/or origin".

Because Latin was a much-used language of great prestige well into modern times, its monumental dictionaries were important and later influenced English lexicography. At least five medieval scholastics-Papias the Lombard, Alexander Neckham, Johannes de Garlandia (John Garland), Hugo of Pisa and Giovanni Balbi of Genoa – turned their attention to dictionaries.

It should be noted that the word "dictionary" was firstly used in a manuscript of Latin words by John Garland in 1225. The mammoth work of Ambrogio Calepino, published at Reggio, in 1502, incorporating several other languages besides Latin, was so popular that "calepin" came to be an ordinary word for a dictionary. It was a tendency to call it so that's why several centuries later cansed people to say "Look in Johnson", or 'Look in Webster".

The history of dictionary making for the English language goes as far back as the Old English period. According to L.P.Stupin the 1st stage of English lexicography began when bilingual manuscript glossaries appeared (7-14 cc). The earliest manuscript glossaries such as Corpus,

Leiden, Epinal, Erurt Glossaries belonged to the 8th –9th centuries. These famous glossaries were called after their keeping place.

The origin of the bilingual lists can be traced to a practice of the early Middle Ages, that of writing interlinear glosses – explanations of difficult words – in manuscripts. Some of these have survived from the 7th and 8th centuries – and in some cases they preserve the earliest recorded forms in English.

The first bilingual glossary to find its way into print was a French – English vocabulary for the use of travellers, printed in England by William Caxton, without a title page, in 1480. It consisted of words and expressions appeared in parallel columns on 26 leaves.

Next came a Latin-English vocabulary by a noted grammarian, John Stanbridge, published by Richard Pynson in 1496 and reprinted frequently.

But far more substantial in character was an English-Latin vocabulary called the Promptorius puerorum ("Storehouse [of words] for Children") brought out by Pynson in 1499. It was commonly attribute to Geoffrey the Grammarian (Galfridus Grammaticus), a Dominican friar of Norfolk.

It was the 2nd stage of English lexicography which is characterized by creating both manuscript and printed glossaries, including rather simple wordlists(14-15cc).

The 3-d stage is concerned with printed bilingual glossaries having broaden word lists and versatile characteristics of words(15-16).

The next important dictionary to be published was an English-French one by John (or Jepan) Palsgrave in 1530 "les claircis-sement de la langue francoise ("Education of the French Tongue") Palsgrave was a tutor of French in London, and a letter has survived shoving that he arranged with his printer that no copy should be sold without his permission.

A Welsh-English dictionary by William Salesbury in 1547 brought another language in requisition.

The encouragement of Henry VIII was responsible for animporsant Latin-English dictionary that appeared in 1538 from the hand of Sir Thomas Elyot. It is the first work which took to itself in England what was destined to be the famous name of Dictionary and it was actually in alphabetical order. He was the1st author who used the word 'dictionary'to his reference book in English, The 4th stage of English lexicography is characterized by perfecting anddeveloping of translating dictionaries of new western European languages (16c).

Of all the works which we have yet considered, Latin was an essential element. But a new stage of development was marked by the appearance of English dictionaries with another modern language. In 1521 the "Introductory to write and to pronounce French" by Alexander Barelay was issued from the press of Robert Coplande; in 1527 Giles du Guez, French teacher to the Lady Mary, after wards Queen Mary published his "Introductory for to learn, to read, to pronounce and to speak French truly". In addition to grammatical rules and dialogues, it contains a select vocabulary of English and French. Next to French, the continent all languages most important to English-men in 16th century, were Italian and Spanish of both of which accordingly, dictionaries were published before the end of the century. In 1599 Richard Minshen produced a still more ambitions work – a polyglot dictionary of English ten other languages, British or Welsh, Low Dutch, High Dutch, French, Italian, Spanish, Nortuguese, Latin, Greek and Hebrew, which he entitled "Ductor in Linguas", the Grude into Tongues.

The mainstream of English lexicography is the wordlist explained in English. The first known English-English glossary grew out of the desire of the supporters of the Reformation that even the most humble Englishman should be able to understand the Scriptures [the Bible]. The schoolmasters also had a strong interest in the development of dictionaries.

The 1st unilingual English dictionary "A Table Alphabetical of Hard Words" by a schoolmaster Robert Cawdrey appeared in 1604. It consisted of but one hundred and twenty pages, where he set forth the proper spelling and meaning of some 3.000 words. It was for ladies or any other unskillful person. It included archaic words, Latin non frequent borrowings and even slang jargon words. The fifth period of EL deals with dictionaries of difficult words (17c).

John Kersey was the 1st lexicographer who had paid attention to the simpliest common words publishing his "A New English Dictionary: or, a lompleat Collection of Most Proper and Significant Words, Commonly Used in Language..." in London in 1702.

The son of Milton's sister Anne, Edward Phillips, published his "New World of Words in 1658. After his death "The New World of Words: or a Universal English Dictionary" was brought out by John Kersey in London 1706, this edition is called "the Dictionary of Kersey-Phillips". It included a considerable number of obsolete words, chiefly

from Spenser and his contemporaries, in some cases erroneously explained.

The notion that an English Dictionary ought to contain all English words had apparently as yet occurred to no one ; but this farther step in the evolution of modern dictionary was now about to be made, and the man who made it, was one of most deserving in the annals of English lexicography. Nathaniel Bailey was famous his "Universal Etymological English Dictionary, published in 1721.

He aimed at including all English words; yet not for the were boast of "completeness", but for a practical purpose, pointing out words etymology and pronunciation. So the 6 th stage of El is characterized by preparing an explanatory dictionary of the English national language.

During the second quarter of 18th century, the feeling arouse among literary men as well as among the looksellers that the time had come for preparation of a 'Standard Dictionary' of English tongue , which should register the proper sense and use of every word and phrase, from which no polite writer henceforth would be expected to deviate. The turning point in the history of English tongue was 1st modern dictionary of English-Latin by Samuel Johnson. It's full title was "A Dictionary of the English Language in Which the Words are Deduced from their Originals and Illustrated in their General Significations by Examples from the Best Writes" (1755).

Samuel Johnson. In the early eighteenth century several English lexicography projects were proposed on the model of the French and Italian academy dictionaries, with the aim not only of inventorizing and defining all the words in English, but also of 'fixing' the language in its then supposed state of excellence. This aim eventually bore fruit in Samuel Johnson's *Dictionary* (1755), but with some interesting modifications of purpose, arising from Johnson's profound understanding of the nature of language.

Samuel Johnson set himself the task of making a different kind of dictionary, one that would include all the words in English, not just the difficult ones. In addition would show how to divide words into syllables and where words came from. He would establish a consistent system of defining words and draw from his own gigantic learning to provide, for the 1st time in any dictionary, illustrative quotations from famous writers.

Samuel Johnson, underfunded and working almost alone in a Fleet Street garret room, defined some 43.000 words and illuminated their

meanings with more than 114.000 supporting quotations drown from every of literature. This task took nearer nine than three years, but the results more than justified Johnson's ambitions hopes. The two huge tomes, each the size of a lectern Bible and each of which would fill about five fat volumes today, were an immediate success upon their publication.

Johnson was not only a lexicographer but also a major intellect: essayist, poet, biographer, critic, editor, and conversationalist. He set out with the aim, suggested to him by a consortium of booksellers, of 'fixing' the language, but in the course of the work, he came to recognize that a living language cannot be 'fixed': language change is inevitable. The lexicographer must therefore set out to observe and describe, rather than to pontificate and prescribe. The *Preface*, in particular, deals with many of the issues that concern modern lexicologists, as explained in Hanks (2005): issues that were not revisited until the work of twentieth century scholars—philosophers of language such as I. A. Richards, Ludwig Wittgenstein, and Hilary Putnam, anthropologists such as Bronislaw Malinowski and Eleanor Rosch, and linguists such as J. R. Firth and J. M. Sinclair. Johnson's recognition that language change is inevitable spared the English language the impertinence of an academy of learned men (and, later, women) impotently debating the acceptability or otherwise of behavioural phenomena (patterns of word meaning and word use) which in reality they have no power to alter.

Among Johnson's many merits and influences as a lexicographer are the following:

- Extensive use of illustrative citations from literature—not only to prove the existence of a particular sense of a word, but also to illustrate elegant usage and to delight and educate the reader.
- Arrangement of senses in a rational order, so that each dictionary entry stands as a coherent discourse, reflecting meaning development, influenced by but not governed by etymology and not just a list of senses in historical order.
- Extensive use of Aristotelian-Leibnizian principles of definition—stating first what kind of thing in general a word denotes and then adding carefully selected differentia.
- Respect for the vagaries of a living language—he recorded word meanings as he found them, not necessarily as he may have wished them to be. He confined his value judgments to a few acerbic comments (e.g. *clever*, "a low word") and he observed, for example, that, although

previous English lexicographers had found it convenient to define *ardent* as meaning 'burning', this etymological sense of the word never made the transfer from Latin to English.

- Effective treatment of phrasal verbs.

Johnson's great work raised English lexicography to a higher level. In his hands it became a department of literature. Johnson's contribution to lexicographic practice is considered to be as follows: two basic principles of vocabulary entry arrangements such as

1. clear differentiation and numbering of word meanings;
2. including a lot of illustrations providing quotations origin.

Johnson's was the standard dictionary of English until the end of the 19th century, when it was superseded by the Philological Society's *New English Dictionary on Historical Principles* (*NED*, 1884–1928).

Dr. William Kenrick compiled "A New Dictionary of the English Language" in1773, later Thomas Sheridan respelled this dictionary in 1780 under the title "A General Dictionary of English Language" and at last John Walker whose authority long remained as supreme in the field of pronunciation as that of Johnson in definition and illustration produced his famous "Critical Pronouncing Dictionary and Expositor of the English Language" in 1791.

To sum it up from the 1st quarter of the 19th century the lexicographical supremacy of Johnson's Dictionary was undisputed, and eminent students busied themselves in trying to supplement and perfect it.

QUESTIONS

1. Enumerate the earliest manuscript glossaries.
2. What was William Carton famous for?
3. Who was the first man to compile an English-French dictionary? When was it happened?
4. What was Thomas Elyot famous for?
5. Who was the anther of the first unilingual dictionary? When was it published?
6. Who was the author of the first etymological dictionary? What was its title, year of publication?
7. What was the title of Samuel Johnson's dictionary? When was it published? His contributions to English lexicography.
8. Who compiled the 1st pronouncing dictionary?

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XII. THE HISTORY OF THE OXFORD ENGLISH DICTIONARY AND ITS PECULIARITIES (XIX – XXcc)

Problems for discussion

1. The Golden Age of English lexicography
2. The origin of the "OED"
3. The main principles and peculiarities of the "OED"
4. The "OED" as the definitive historical dictionary of the English language
5. http://www.britannica.com/ OED

Key words: lexicographer, *NED*, *NED*, historical principles, language.

Noah Webster, an American lexicographer, had spent many years in compiling a laborious "Synopsis" of 20 languages, but he lacked an awareness of the systematic relationships in the Indo-European family of languages. Germanic scholars such as Jacob Grimm, Franz Bopp, and Rasmus Rask had developed a rigorous science of "comparative philology" and a new era of dictionary making was called for. Even as early as 1812 Franz Passow had published an essay in which he set forth the canons of a new lexicography, stressing the importance of the use of quotations arranged chronologically in order to exhibit the history of each word.

Among scholars in England the historical outlook took an important step forward in 1808 in the work of John Jamieson on the language of *Scotland*. His Etymological Dictionary if the Scottish language marked a turning point in the history of lexicography. Even as late as 1835 the critic Richard Garnett said that "the only good English dictionary we possess is Dr. Jamieson's Scottish one."

Another collector James Jermyn, showed by his publications between 1815 and 1848 that he had the largest body of quotations assembled before that of *The Oxford English Dictionary*.

Charles Richardson was also an industrious collector, impressed by idea that definitions are unnecessary, the quotations alone are sufficient and he proceeded to carry this into practice illustrating each group of words by a large series of quotations. He quoted from authors back to the

year 1300. His work *New Dictionary of the English Language* (1836 – 1837) still would continue to be a valuable repetory of illustrations.

Scholars more and more felt the need for a full historical dictionary that would display the English language in accordance with the most rigorous scientific principles of lexicography.

The philological society, founded in 1842, established an Unregistered Words Committee, but upon hearing two papers by Richard Chenevix Trench in 1857 – "On Some Deficiencies in Our English Dictionaries" – the society changed itsplan to the making of "A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles" (NED). It was R. Trench who called upon the Philological Society to undertake the collection of materials to complete the work already done by Bailey, Johnson, Todd, Webster, Richardson and others, such dictionary would register all omitted words and senses and supply all the historical information in which these works were lacking, and above all, should give every notable point in the life-history of every word.

Forward steps were taken under two editors, Herbert Coleridge and Frederick James Turnivall, until in 1879, *James Augustus Henry Murray*, a Scott known for his brilliance in philology, was engaged as editor.

Part I was finished in 1884, later, three other editors were added, each editing independently with his own staff – Henry Bradley, in the North of England, in 1888, William Alexander Craigie, another Scott, in 1901 and Charles Talbut Onions, the only "Southerner", in 1914. The work was finished in 1928, in over 15.000 pages with three long columns each.

It was a consolidation of a century's work of 4 generations of lexicographers. It was initially published in a series of 125 slim fascicles between the years 1884 – 1928.

The *NED* was published by Oxford University Press and in the 1930s it was re-christened *The Oxford English Dictionary* (*OED*). It was followed by a shortened version, the *Shorter Oxford English Dictionary (SOED)*, in two large volumes—whose title is sometimes wrongly thought to be some kind of joke, since it is so very much bigger than most other English dictionaries—and by a plethora of regional works on similar principles, including the *Dictionary of American English (DAE)*, the *Dictionary of the Older Scottish Tongue (DOST)*, the *Scottish National Dictionary (SND)*, the *Australian National Dictionary (AND)*, and the *Dictionary of South African English (DSAE)*, among others. The work was

reprinted, with a supplement, in 12 volumes in 1933 with the title "The Oxford English Dictionary", and as the OED it has been known ever since, a definitive historical dictionary of the English language.

Arranged mostly in order of historical occurrence, the definitions in the OED are illustrated with about 2.400.000 dated quotations from English-language literature and records. The aim of the dictionary (as stated in the 1933 edition) is "to present in alphabetical series the words that have formed the English vocabulary from the time of the earliest records down to the present day, with all the relevant facts concerning their form, sense-history and etymology."

The OED covers words from across the English-speaking world, from North America to South Africa, from Australia and New Zealand to the Caribbean. It also offers the best in etymological analysis and in listing of variant spelling, and it shows pronunciation using the International Phonetic Alphabet. It was also the supreme example of a general 19th-century European movement to compile historical dictionaries of national languages, which included the *Deutsches Worterbuch* of the brothers Grimm, the *Tresor de la langue francaise*, the *Woordenboek der Nederlandsche Taal*, and many others. A dictionary on historical principles places the etymology at the start of each entry and traces the semantic development of the word by arranging senses in historical order.

The Oxford English Dictionary is not an arbiter of proper usage, despite its widespread reputation to the contrary. The Dictionary is intended to be descriptive, not prescriptive. In other words, its content should be viewed as an objective reflection of English language usage, not a subjective collection of usage '*dos*' and '*don'ts*'. However, it includes information on which usages are or have been popularly regarded as 'incorrect'.

As far as making it modern the 2nd edition of the OED own as OED 2 was published in 20 volumes in 1989 by the Oxford University Press/ its co-editors were John A. Simpson and Edmund S.C. Weiner.

In 1992 the first CD-ROM version of the OED is published, the OED is now being fully revised, with new material published in parts online. It has been a great success. The electronic format has revolutionized the way people use the Dictionary to search and retrieve information. Complex investigations into word origins and quotations that would have been impossible to conduct using the print edition now take only a few seconds.

The Oxford English Dictionary has been the last word on words for over a century. But, as with a respected professor or admired parent, we count on its wisdom and authority without thinking much about how it was acquired. To sum it up, the OED is the accepted authority on the evolution of the English language of the last millenium. It is an unsurpassed guide to the meaning, history, and pronunciation of over half a million words, both present and past.

The OED is a living document that has been growing and changing for 140 years. Far more than a convenient place to look up words and their origins, the OED is an irreplaceable part of English culture. It not only provides an important record of the evolution of our language, but also documents the continuing development of our society. It is certain to continue in this role as we enter the new country.

QUESTIONS

1. Whose lexicographic works are considered to be the famous in Europe in the 19th century?
2. Why do we call the OED a definitive diachronic dictionary of the English language? Whose ideas formed the basis of this dictionary?
3. Speak on its date of publication, original name, lexicographic concept and purpose.

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XIII. THE HISTORICAL SIGNPOSTS OF AMERICAN LEXICOGRAPHY

Problems for discussion

1. The origin of American lexicography. "A School Dictionary" by S. Johnson
2. Webster's dictionaries
3. "The war of dictionaries": Webster versus Worcester
4. Other dictionaries published in the USA

Key words: dictionary, publish, American dictionary, Webster's dictionary, Merriam Webster's *Third New International Dictionary.*

It is known that the English language was brought to the North American continent by English settlers at the very beginning of the 17th century. By the end of the 18th century the population of the United States of America was an about 4 mln person 90% of whom was British.

Americans have had additional reasons for their homage to the dictionary. In colonial times Americans felt themselves to be far from the centre of civilization. They were willing to accept a book standard in order to learn what they thought prevailed in England. This linguistic colonialism lasted a long time and set the pattern of accepting the dictionary as a "law giver".

First lexicographical editions were just compilations of a poor quality of English explanatory dictionaries of the 18th century. Most of them were compiled for schools. Curiously enough, the 1st American dictionary of the English language was made by a man whose name was also Samuel Johnson.

Curiously enough, the 1st American dictionary of the English language was made by a man whose name was also Samuel Johnson.

Samuel Johnson Jr., a Connecticut schoolmaster, published in 1798 a small book entitled "A School Dictionary" (4100 words). It contained parts of speech, brief definitions (of 2-3 words) on etymology.

Another book "A Selected Pronouncing and Accented Dictionary" of the same author with John Eliott was published in 1800 which showed already some signs of Americanization. It included for instance word like *tomahawk* and *wampum* borrowed into English from the Indian languages.

J.Pickering published "A Vocabulary or Collection of Words and Phrases which have been supposed to be peculiar to the United States of America" in 1816. It was the first work collecting all Americanisms in which the author criticized their antinorm, anti-British character. It should be mentioned that American dictionaries from the end of the 18th century till the thirties of the 19th century were published almost for special usage in schools.

It was Noah Webster considered being the father of American lexicography. He defended Americans' right to create their own words. N. Webster realized the importance of language for the development of a nation, and devoted his energy to giving the American English the status of an independent language, distinct from British English.

In 1828 his famous "An American Dictionary of the English language" in 2 volumes appeared in New York. This dictionary creating American English norm sustained numerous revised and enlarged editions.

Webster's dictionary enjoyed great popularity from its first editions, which was due not only to the accuracy and clarity of definitions but also to the richness of additional information of encyclopedic character, which had become a tradition in American lexicography. In the USA lexicographical activity has been unceasing since 1828. In the middle years of the 19th century, a "war of the dictionaries" was carried on between the supporters of Noah Webster and those of his rival, Joseph Emerson Worcester. This "war" outbursted when Joseph Worcester published his reference book reflecting Johnson's traditions. N. Webster on the contrary was quite opposite British influence in the USA. He accused Worcester of plagiarism. To a large extent, this was a competition between publishers who wished to preempt the market in the lower schools, but literary people took sides on the basis of other issues.

In particular, the contentions Noah Webster had gained a reputation as a reformer of spelling and a champion of American innovations, while the quiet Worcester followed traditions. In 1846 Worcester brought out an important new work "A Universal and Critical Dictionary of the English Language", which included many neologisms of the time, and in the next year Webster's son-in-law, Chauncey Allen Goodrich, edited an improved "American Dictionary of the deceased Webster. In this edition the Webster interests were taken over by an aggressive publishing firm, the G&C Merriam Company.

Their agents were very active in the "war of the dictionaries" and sometimes secured an order, by decree of a state legislature, for their book to be placed in every schoolhouse of the state. Worcester's climatic edition of 1860, "A Dictionary of the English language", gave him the edge in the "war", and James Russell Lowell declared: "From this long conflict Dr. Worcester has unquestionable come off victorious."

The Merriams, however, brought out their answer in 1864, popularly called "the unabridged", with etymologies supplied by a famous German scholar, Karl August Friedrich Mahn. Thereafter, the Worcester series received no major reediting, and its faltering publishers allowed to pass into history.

At last there was but one winner – the American lexicographic practice. One of the best English dictionaries ever compiled was issued in 24 parts from 1889 to 1891 as "The Century Dictionary", edited by William Dwight Whitney. It contained much encyclopedic material but bears comparison even with the OED. The history of this dictionary dated back to John Ogilvie's "The Imperial Dictionary of the English Language: A Complete Encyclopedic Lexicon, Literary, Scientific and Technological on the Basis of Webster's English Dictionary", 2 volumes, London, 1847 – 1850. This work was noteworthy due to the following reasons:

1) Encyclopedic character of presenting material;

2) Webster's Dictionary was taken as a starting point.

It should be noted that in 1823 Isaac Kauffman Funk brought out "A Standard Dictionary of the English Language", its chief innovation being the giving of definitions in the order of their importance, not the historical order. Thus, at the turn of the new century, the US had four reputable dictionaries: Webster's,

Worcester's (already becoming moribund), *the Century*, and Funk's *Standard*. England was also well served by many (the original dates given here) – John Ogilvie (1850), P. Austin Nuttall (1855), Robert Gordon Latham (1866, reediting

Todd's Johnson of 1818), Robert Hunter (1879), and Charles Annandale (1882).

The Century Dictionary (1891), Funk's and Wagnall's Standard Dictionary (1895) and the Random House Dictionary of the English Language (1967) continued to appear in variously named subsequent editions including abridged versions.

A synchronic review of the language in the middle of the 20th century was presented by Random House Dictionary of the English Language (1967).

Merriam Webster's *Third New International Dictionary* (*MWIII*, 1961) is a large American dictionary on historical principles, with impressive coverage of technical terminology in fields ranging from Agriculture to Zoology. Its definitions for everyday words are sometimes less than satisfactory, as a glance at entries such as *door, hotel, sugar,* and *mimosa* will show. The root of *MWIII*'s problematic definitions lies in a failure to distinguish word meaning from concept meaning, compounded by the editor's instruction to his staff that all explanations should be couched in terms of a single one-phrase definition.

sugar: a sweet crystallizable substance that consists entirely or essentially of sucrose that is colorless or white when pure and usu. yellowish to brown otherwise, that occurs naturally in the most readilyavailable amounts in sugarcane, sugar beet, sugar maple, sorghum and sugar palms, that is obtained commercially principally by processing the juice expressed from sugarcane or the aqueous extract of sliced sugar beets and refining so that the final product is the same regardless of the source, and that forms an important article of human food and is used chiefly as a condiment and preservative for other foods and for drugs and in the chemical industry as an intermediate. (MWIII, 1961)

This starts well enough, defining the meaning of the noun *sugar* by stating a genus term ("a crystallizable substance") and adding differentiae ("sweet", "consists of sucrose"). However (setting aside any doubts we may have about whether sugar can be sugar before it is crystallized), we can see that the definition begins to go haywire after "sucrose". It is a rule of English grammar that a restrictive relative clause governed by *that* modifies the meaning of the preceding noun, but the natural interpretation of the relative clause in question would be incorrect, for it is not intended to distinguish one kind of *sucrose*, namely the colorless or white kind, from other kinds of sucrose; instead, it is a further differentia of "crystallizable substance". From here on the syntax, structure, and wording of the definition become increasingly bizarre until a mystical point of incomprehensibility is reached, culminating in a final homage to jargon (and insult to comprehensibility) with the use of the word *intermediate* in a sense that is highly specific to chemistry.

We may identify at least three principal problems, which (in less extreme forms) are pervasive in modern lexicography: 1) confusion of essential properties (e.g. "*sweet*", "*consists of sucrose*"), which may reasonably be expected to contribute to a definition, with accidental properties (e.g. "used as a condiment and preservative for other foods and for drugs"), which are incidental or indeed irrelevant to definition; 2) excessive reverence for scientific correctness coupled with indifference to making the text understandable by ordinary readers; 3) theoretical ignorance, in particular of the fuzzy and variable nature of word meaning. The latter problem is hardly surprising, as this dictionary was compiled in the 1950s, whereas the importance of prototype theory was not fully recognized until the 1970s. What is more surprising is that forty years later many 21st-century lexicographers continue to display profound ignorance of prototype theory.

MWIII was savaged in America by journalists and pedants alike when it was first published, mainly because it was perceived as being insufficiently prescriptive (see Sledd and Ebbit 1962, Morton 1994). However, the weaknesses of definition, lack of an apparatus for describing register, and hard-to-read typography are more serious faults, though not the main subject of the general outcry.

The Merriam dictionaries trace their history back to the *American Dictionary of the English Language* compiled by the polemical lexicographer Noah Webster in 1828. It contains no less than 70,000 entries. Webster (1758–1843) was an indefatigable collector of words with a rare gift for definition writing. Only some of his definitions were taken directly from Johnson's dictionary, and he introduced some sensible spelling reforms (*color, center*) into American English, although unfortunately some of them (e.g. *tung* for *tongue*) did not achieve acceptance by the American public. At the same time, he added and defined Americanisms such as *caucus* and *wigwam*. A fuller account of this extraordinary man, his achievement, and his legacy will be found in Micklethwait (2000). Unfortunately, his etymologies were influenced by his belief that modern languages, including English, are derived from something called Chaldaean, which he believed was the language used by Adam and God for their conversations in the Garden of Eden and the immediate precursor of Hebrew. After his death, his successors—including his son-in-law, Chauncey H. Goodrich, and the redoubtable Noah Porter, president of Yale College—quietly abandoned the Chaldaean hypothesis

and brought the etymologies into line with the findings of Germanic and Indo-European scholarship.

QUESTIONS

1. Who was at the cradle of American lexicography?
2. Who is considered to be the father of American lexicography? Why?
3. Who was the winner in the war of dictionaries in the 19th century?
4. Enumerate the companies to publish dictionaries in the 20th century.

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XIV. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF RUSSIAN LEXICOGRAPHY

Problems for discussion

1. Main signposts of Russian translating lexicography
2. Bilingual lexicography (Russian – English, English – Russian) in the XXth–XXIst cc
3. D. Apresjan's contribution to the theory of lexicography

Key words: Russian translating lexicography, aim, bilingual lexicographer, special dictionaries.

In Russia the 1st foreign manuscript dictionaries appeared in the 18th century. They aimed at: 1) explaining new necessary foreign terms for being quickly mastered by society; 2) opposing superfluous foreign words to Russian ones in order to show that foreign words are not necessary.

Appearance and development of bilingual English – Russian and Russian – English dictionaries are closely connected with the history of economic and political relations between Russia and England in the 2nd half of the 16th century. However, the first dictionary referred to the 18th century. It contained English vocabulary and its translation into Russian. It was a multilingual dictionary: Russian – Greek – Latin – French – German – English one which was published for the sake of young Russian people in Saint Petersburg in 1763 without a title page. G.A. Polyetika (Г.А. Полетика) is supposed to be its author. This dictionary included 32 word groups (nearly 4 thousand words) based on ideographic principles. Some years later P.I. Zhdanov (П.И. Жданов) published2 works: 1) The English and Russian Dictionary (Словарь Английской и Российской) in 1772; 2) "A New Dictionary of English and Russian" in 1784, which was arranged in alphabetical order containing 30 thousand words. It was for the first time in the history of Russian bilingual lexicography that vocabulary entries were arranged in alphabetic order, besides, it was made an attempt to differentiate word meanings, there were labels indicating grammar and word usage.

As far as translating lexicography is concerned a lot of bilingual dictionaries (English – Russian and Russian – English) are published annually in our country.

In XX c. the most reliable are New English – Russian Dictionary in 2 volumes under the guidance of I.R. Galperin (1972), containing 150 thousand words and Russian – English Dictionary, under the guidance of A.I. Smirnitsky (1948), containing 50 thousand words. Both of these dictionaries are constantly revised and perfected.

Two of the most important recent Russian contributors to linguistic theory have been lexicographers, namely Jurij D. Apresjan (born 1930) and Igor A. Mel'èuk (born 1932). Apresjan was a bilingual lexicographer at the Russian Academy of Sciences in Moscow, who, among other things, compiled an English-Russian Synonym Dictionary (1979). His observations of regular semantic patterns in language led to his theory of regular polysemy (Apresjan, 1973) and his book *Systematic Lexicography* (2000).

Apresjan argues that lexicographers have a duty to represent the particular world view that is encoded in the lexicon of a particular language. This leads to an interaction between words (which represent beliefs) and idiomatic phraseology. Apresjan argues that a command of lexical synonyms and their subtle differences plays a vital role in enabling a speaker to express his or her thoughts in any language or culture. He says, for example: Each of the adjectives *healthy, healthful, wholesome, salubrious*, and *salutary* has the sense 'fostering the improvement or maintenance of health'. Thus, if we say *a salubrious diet, salubrious food, or a salubrious way of life*, we are making no semantic error: in principle the synonym selected is capable of expressing the required idea and we may be assured that we will be correctly understood. Nevertheless, none of the above collocations is fully correct (the best choices will be: *a healthy diet; wholesome food, a healthy way of life*). Each of them violates a co-occurrence constraint, which, though not binding, is observed in pedantic and literary discourse, and requires that *salubrious*, unlike all its synonyms, be used chiefly with the nouns *air* and *climate*.

Here we see Apresjan, who did not have the advantage of corpus evidence and corpus tools, struggling, by using his intuitions to account for the phenomenon of collocational preferences, which no modern lexicographer can afford to ignore. The principle of collocational preference is correctly understood, but the details are sometimes wrong, because Apresjan did not have sufficient evidence at his disposal.

One more work of English lexicographers deserves our attention – The Oxford Russian Dictionary, edited by M. Wheels and B. Unbegaun,

published in 1997. It includes some new words being coined at the 2nd half of the XXth century. All of the given bilingual dictionaries concern general type, for they contain general lexis and its translation, such dictionaries are widespread and they are the most useful reference books for studying languages. However, there are a lot of dictionaries of special type, such as: 1) English – Russian Economic and Financial Dictionary compiled by A.V. Anikin (1993), containing 75 thousand words; 2) Dictionary of Law compiled by S.N. Andryanov, A.S. Berson and A.S. Nikiphorov (1993), containing 50 thousand terms; 3) English – Russian Building Dictionary compiled by S.N. Korchemkina, S.A. Kashkina, S.V. Kurbatova (1995), containing 55 thousand words; 4) English – Russian Printing Dictionary, compiled by A.V. Vinogradsky, M.G. Kosenko, etc. (1995), containing 30 thousand terms; 5) Russian – English Polytechnic Dictionary, reissued in 1996, containing 90 thousand terms.

It should be said about one more book "Translator's Russian – English Phraseological Dictionary", compiled by S.S. Kuzmin (2001), which can truly be called Dictionary of the 21st century. It includes 2 thousand Russian phraseological expressions and how to express them in English. The author's progressive ideas about the role of phraseology in communication give him every ground for addressing the dictionary to translators first of all.

At the end of the XXth century electronic versions of Multilex appeared, they are computerized dictionaries of new generation. We may enjoy their advantages and discuss their peculiarities. We'll dwell upon electronic dictionaries further on.

QUESTIONS

1. When did the first multilingual dictionary appear in Russia, its author, content?
2. What do you know about famous reliable dictionaries in the 20th century?
3. Give examples of Russian – English and English – Russian bilingual contemporary dictionaries. What do they aim at?

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XV. THEORETICAL LEXICOGRAPHY: PROBLEMS AND FUNCTIONS

Problems for discussion

1. The concept of "lexicography"
2. Aims and functions of lexicography
3. General typology of dictionaries
4. Analysis of macro- and micro-structure of dictionaries

Key words: theoretical lexicography, dictionary development, linguistic information, microstructure, macrostructure, common features, multiaspect.

Lexicography is the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries. The province of lexicography lies in the semantic, formal, and functional description of all individual words. Dictionaries aim at a more or less complete description, but in so doing cannot attain systematic treatment, so that every dictionary entry presents, as it, were, an independent problem.

We may say that lexicologists sort and present their material in a sequence depending upon their views concerning the vocabulary, whereas lexicographers have to arrange it most often according to a purely external characteristic, namely alphabetically.

Theoretical lexicography aims at:

1) codification of any modern language lexicon, carried out in various types of dictionaries based on historical learning;
2) systematization of characteristic features of words;
3) dictionary making providing foundation for fundamental research of dictionary development and their types.

Theoretical lexicography studies the following problems:

1) general typology developing of dictionaries and dictionaries of new types;
2) development of dictionary macrostructure;
3) development of dictionary microstructure.

Let's consider it in detail. Lexicography develops general typology of dictionaries and new types of dictionaries. It means that there are unilingual lexicography (compiling explanatory dictionaries), bilingual lexicography (compiling translating dictionaries), educational

lexicography (compiling dictionaries for language studying), and scientific-technological lexicography (making terminological dictionaries).

More detailed criteria on the term "dictionary" are necessary before the next problem should be considered.

Firstly: *dictionary* is a term used to denote a book listing words of a language with their meanings and often with data regarding pronunciation/ usage and/ or origin. Basically, a dictionary lists a set of words with information about them.

The list may attempt to be a complete inventory of a language or may be only a small segment of it.

A short list, sometimes at the back of a book is often called a *glossary*.

Secondly: *lexicon* is of Greek origin, *lexicos* – "relating to word". It is used to denote the system being formed by the total of all the words of a given language. It is better to use it when speaking of a dead or exotic language such as Greek/ Latin, or Hebrew/ Arabic Lexicon.

Thirdly: *reference book* containing words (or morphemes, phrases, idioms) arranged in a definite order (different one in various dictionaries), explains meanings of described units, gives different information about objects or presents translation into other languages or describes objects.

The *second* problem of theoretical lexicography deals with macrostructure of dictionary development. It embraces choice of vocabulary, principles of arranging words and entries. In addition to its basic function of defining words, a dictionary may provide linguistic information about their pronunciation, grammatical forms and functions, etymologies, syntactic peculiarities, variant spellings and antonyms.

A dictionary may also provide quotations illustrating a word's usage, and these may be dated to show the earliest known uses of the word in specified senses.

The *third* problem of theoretical lexicography concerns with microstructure of a dictionary, that is of a separate entry. It affects grammar and phonetic commentaries to a word and relates to classification and outlining of meanings, definitions, note system, supplementary materials. In addition balance of linguistic and encyclopedic information should be taken into consideration.

Modern lexicography outlines important social functions of dictionaries which record entire knowledge of a given epoch, which are as follows: 1) *informative* function; it reflects the shortest was that is through

notations to acquire knowledge; 2) *communicative* function, it gives readers the necessary words of native and foreign languages; 3) *nominative* function, it is originated from the Latin word "nomen", from times immemorial it is use to nominate objects. Dictionaries acquire greater and greater role in storing and transforming information.

General Typology of Dictionaries. There are lots of types of dictionaries which serve as the object of lexical description. Language is greater and various social demands of information grow rapidly. The demand for dictionaries is very great too.

It is impossible to give complete information about language which would satisfy the whole society of all its layers, so in many national lexicography there are hundreds and dozens of different dictionaries. There is no acclaimed typology of dictionaries. However, attempts to do it were made by our Russian scientists such as L.V. Schterba, P.N. Denisov, L.P. Stupin and by foreign linguists as well: B. Kemado, J. Malkilon, L. Zgusta.

Traditionally dictionaries are divided into types due to the following principles of classification:

Principles of Classification and Types of Dictionaries

1. Object of description

Linguistic dictionaries (lexicons) give information about language units in various aspects.

Encyclopedic dictionaries contain information about/ on objects, notions, things and events, being explained by language units

2. Selection of vocabulary (lexicon)

Thesauruses are dictionaries which lack principle of selection aiming at maximum fully represented all the words of a language and their usage in texts (e.g. explanatory dictionaries, frequent dictionaries, translating dictionaries, etc.)

Special dictionaries in which principle of selection of lexis is presented according to different criteria (e.g. dictionaries of synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, abbreviations, terminological, dialectal, etc.) which were reflected in booklet of (Л.В. Варпахович Лингвистика в таблицах и схемах. Минск, 2003. 128с.). Now we'll study it in detail. Due to the object of description dictionaries are divided into encyclopedic and linguistic.

What does any linguistic dictionary include? In linguistic dictionaries the word itself is described, the word is characterized as a language unit,

its meaning, grammar, orthographic, orthoepical and stylistic peculiarities are reflected.

What does any encyclopedic dictionary consist of? Encyclopedic dictionaries do not concentrate on words, one may say that objects, things, events are explained and connected with a certain word. No prepositions, pronouns, adverbs, interjections are used, verbs are rare. Many nouns, proper names are included there. To sum it up, encyclopedic dictionaries contain information of extralinguistic character.

Nevertheless linguistic and encyclopedic dictionaries have some common features such as:

1) often a common glossary or word list;
2) alphabetic arrangement of material;
3) partially common definitions.

As we have already mentioned, encyclopedic dictionaries are usually nonphilologically oriented. Linguistic dictionaries are compiled for philologists, linguists by lexicographers.

Strictly speaking, lexicography is the theory and practice of creating only linguistic dictionaries.

3. Coverage (the number of words being included into a dictionary).

Dictionaries: big average small. The next principle which should be mentioned is coverage or volume, i.e. the number of words which are included into this or that reference book. According to this reason there are three groups of dictionaries: big, average, small. Every dictionary presupposes very strict choice.

E.g. 1) "The Oxford English Dictionary" has more than 450,000 words, the maximum complete choice; 2) "Small Abridged Oxford Dictionary" includes 74.000 words, more than 40.000 entries; 3) "Oxford Illustrated Dictionary" consists of more than 30.000 words.

4. Number of languages in a dictionary

Monolingual (unilingual) one language dictionary.

Bilingual (two language dictionary) or *Multilingual* (polyglot dictionary) concerns the language of describing entries or units in the dictionary. If we use the means of the same language as the entry itself – it is a monolingual dictionary (or unilingual); if not – translating dictionary (bilingual or multilingual).

5. Volume of Description (functional peculiarities of a language)

Common literary – language - Language of science and technology - Language of territory dialects is connected with describing separate functional peculiarities of the language.

Any national language (not literary one) has some archistructure, which consists of : 1) common literary language; 2) language of science and technology; 3) language of territory, professional and social dialects.

6. Way of language unit description

General dictionaries contain multiaspect word description (e.g. explanatory dictionaries).

Special dictionaries reveal only some aspects of words or relations between them (e.g. etymological, wordbuilding, orphographical, dictionary of collocations, etc.) concerns way of language unit description. There are separate special dictionaries which are contrasted to general ones. The aim of special dictionaries is to cover only a certain specific part of vocabulary. To describe them we should mention dictionary of literary language, reflecting the language of iction, mass-media.

Types of Dictionaries Are Based On. Usually linguistic dictionaries are divided into: 1) general; 2) special; 3) unilingual or monolingual; 4) translating: bilingual or multilingual; 5) defining, explanatory; 6) universal (such as *Big Oxford Dictionary, Webster*).

The main types of dictionaries are also different in coverage, order of description, volume of description, etc.

The first type of linguistic dictionaries is language explanatory, in other words general, monolingual, unilingual dictionaries, showing the meaning, usage, grammar, phonetic and stylistic peculiarities of words. They appear on the level of national language created by Academies. They give all information about a word and they are the basis for creating other types of dictionaries, e.g. Big Oxford Dictionary, Collins English Language Dictionary, Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English. Linguistic encyclopaedias and thesauri would contain all lexicon of a given language.

The second type of dictionaries are special ones such as: dictionary of terms, dictionary of abbreviations, concordances dictionary, dictionaries of borrowings, neologisms, dictionary of proverbs, jargons, colloquial, dialectal dictionaries, etc.

E.g. dialectal dictionary may describe vocabulary of related dialects or one dialect. One of the best dictionaries of this kind is "The English Dialect Dictionary" compiled by Joseph Wright in 6 volumes was

published in Oxford in 1898 – 1905. It included dialects of England, Ireland, Scotland, Wales. Before this dictionary could appear a thorough study of English dialects had to be completed. With this aim in view Walter Skeat, famous for his "An Etymological English Dictionary" (1879 – 1882), founded the English Dialect Society as far back as 1873.

As far as American lexicography is concerned the following special dictionaries are considered to be reputable in the USA:
1) "Dictionary of American Regional English", University of Wisconsin, 1978 was issued by F.Y. Cassidy and all; 2) N. Wentworth published "American Dialect Dictionary" in 1944. Besides there are regional dictionaries describing the English language in the USA, Canada, Australia, India, New Zealand. One of this type is "Dictionary of American English on Historical Principles" [in 4 volumes, Chicago University, 1938 - 1944] published by W.A Craigi and G.K. Hulbert; 3) one more dictionary, being compiled by a Georgian scientist G. Zviadadze" Dictionary of Contemporary American English Contrasted with British English" and it was published in Tbilisi, 1981. It includes more than one thousand contrasted pairs of words.

Reference books concern territorial, local dialects, professional speech, jargons, reflecting oral colloquial speech differing from written or science and technique, terminology where word-book is lexicon of the certain scientific sublanguage.

Even special dictionaries may be subdivided depending on: 1) whether the words are chosen according to the sphere of human activity in which they are used (technical dictionaries); 2) the type of units themselves (e.g. phraseological dictionaries) or the relationships existing between them (e.g. dictionaries of synonyms, antonyms, etc.).

Very often frequency dictionaries give a bright picture of different types of a language.

Order of arranging words may be quite unusual in such type of dictionary as reverse: it presupposes comparing of 2 words from the end of it to the beginning (Cf. A.F. Brown. Normal and Reverse English Word List, 1968.).

The third type of dictionaries are translating ones which should be divided into 2 categories: active dictionaries and passive ones.

Passive dictionaries are those where the native language is in the right part of it, e.g. English – Russian, French – Russian, German –

Russian. Active dictionaries are those where the native language is in the left part of it, e.g. Russian – English, Russian – French, Russian – German.

E.g. Russian – English Dictionary by A.I. Smirnitsky (1991), English – Russian Dictionary by B.K. Muller (1988), New Big English – Russian Dictionary by U.D. Apresyan, E.M. Mednikova (1997), M.A. O'Brain New Russian – English and English – Russian Dictionary (1997), New English - Russian Dictionary by I.R. Galperin (1972).

QUESTIONS

1. Where does the province of lexicography lie?
2. What are the aims of theoretical lexicography?
3. What are the problems of theoretical lexicography?
4. Give definitions of the terms: "dictionary", "lexicon", "reference book".
5. What are the principles of dictionary classification?
6. Types of dictionaries are based on.

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XVI. PROBLEMS OF DICTIONARY SELECTING

Problems for discussion

1. Structure of a conventional dictionary
2. Entry of any linguistic dictionary and its structure
3. Problems of words choice

Key words: date of publication, dedication, editorial team,

First of all you ought to decide for what purpose you are in seared of a dictionary, secondary you ought to hear in mind merits and drawbacks of any dictionary; thirdly 3 main factors should be taken into consideration such as: date of publication, dedication and editorial team.

Date of publication is quite essential and important factor for the given dictionary. Where should we find it? It's indicated on the reverse side of the title page (in English editions). It's important to differentiate between new edition and new reprinting. New edition is a version which has been revised and improved. New reprinting presupposes that it has been only reprinted without revision of the dictionary.

Dedication is meant for whom it is prepared. It must be explained explicitly in the foreword/introductory part often given dictionary for whom it's designed, e.g. "Oxford Students Dictionary of Current English has been specially prepared for those learning English up to the intermediate level: for teachers of English, students, senior pupils.

Editorial team is no less important when selective, a dictionary. It means that the author's group which has contributed to the making of the dictionary is very important, especially when names of prominent scientists, linguist are mentioned. Modern lexicography outlines important social functions of dictionaries that record entire knowledge of a given epoch. Social functions of dictionaries are as follows 1) informative one reflects the shortest way that is through notations to acquire knowledge; 2) communicative one gives readers the necessary words of native and foreign languages; 3)nominative one originating long ago is used to nominate objects. Dictionaries acquire greater and greater role in storing and transforming information.

According to a famous French lexicographer Alan Rey: "Modern civilization is civilization of dictionaries". What does it mean? A.P.Lobodanov, one of our Russian scholar dwelt upon this problem: it

has 2 meanings - dictionary as an unique text and dictionary as the text of a language.

Let's discuss it in detail: a) dictionary as a unique text. The leading role of a dictionary is in capacity of a text. It embraces 3 items: 1) text organizes different aspects of life in a special manner; 2) from the point of view of thought, text allows itself to develop, to perfect, to foster standard of speech, for one learners both native and foreign languages; 3)text unites great national cultures as a mediator.

Thus dictionary is the main book of human life events and it is a tool of a person, society development, and their cultures and besides text is a way of preserving these cultures both historically and synchronically. Dictionary as a unique text embraces entire knowledge of the given epoch: b) in the second meaning dictionary as the text of a language contains systematic knowledge about it.

Due to its existent character, dictionary as a unique text presents a set of important distinctions and peculiarities such as 1) imperishable feature, keeping safe in historical culture2) absolute characteristics revealing dictionary as the text of a language embracing the "whole" language 3) capability of safe linguistic interpretation , for a dictionary contains this interpretation in one or another period of its existence. These peculiarities are revealed alongside with comparison of dictionary and other texts existence in historical culture, such as documents, poetry and fiction. None of these texts concerns language in its total volume, although they constitute the definite linguistic units. A well-known opinion of a famous French writer Anatole France confirms this idea:

"Dictionary is the book for the most part. The other books are included into it, one has only to extract them form the dictionary".

How do dictionaries realize the system of a vocabulary of a language in general? It should be beard in mind 4 main principles: 1) creation of a dictionary as a norm of thought: 2) formation of tradition in conventional dictionary description both as practice of language normalization and as the form of linguistic theory itself: 3) style revealing possibilities of language system through description of dictionary history and lexicographic traditions, 4) capabilities of a dictionary, as the language system, being described through analyses and record of sense level as opposed to grammar traditions of language description through expression level; capabilities of constructive interpretation of language theory and

practice relations in forming and normalizing of language through dictionary descriptions.

QUESTIONS

1. What is a conventional dictionary structure?
2. Give definition of a dictionary entry. What does it include?
3. Types of dictionary explanations.
4. What is metalanguage?
5. How is conceptual part of a dictionary realized itself?
6. Why is the problem of choice so urgent in lexicography?
7. What are the main problems of selecting dictionary?

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XVII. DICTIONARY STRUCTURE FROM THE SYNCHRONIC POINT OF VIEW

Problems for discussion

1. Structure of a Dictionary Entry
2. Metalanguage. Conceptual part
3. Synchronic Principles in American Tradition
4. The British Tradition
5. Dictionaries for language learning

Key words: structure, entry, arrangement of material, vocabulary, additional information, notion, dictionary explanation, translating dictionaries, metalanguage, synchronic principles.

The structural synchronic approach may be said to have grown into a whole system of procedures which can be used either successively or alternately. In general any contemporying conventional dictionary may include 6 main parts:

1) introduction or foreword;
2) the guide to dictionary usage;
3) key to transcription system;
4) a list of abbreviations and their explanations;
5) the main list of words – the dictionary itself;
6) supplementary material, e.g. proper names, geographical names, tables of measures and so on.

As far as the structure of a dictionary entry is concerned it depends on the type and function of a dictionary. In fast it consists of:

1) headword;
2) description of grammar, semantic styles and functional peculiaritios of a word;
3) documentary justifying and proving that no word exists in a language without examples: citations, illustrations are indicated there.

Strictly speaking dictionary structure in characterised by segmented arrangement of material: any word or group of words is followed by an in dependent text which is called a dictionary *entry*. It can be continuous, unbroken or it may be spit into zones of the main and additional information.

Dictionary *entry* is an equation between left part and the right one. The head word is given in its initial form: infinitive for Russian and English verbs, th1st person singular for Greek and Latin verbs.

In some types of dictionaries (ideographic, synonymous) notion is presented.

The word "ideographic" is originated from Greek: "idea" – "concept", "notion","grapho" I write", the whole word means 'I write notion".

As to frequency dictionaries they contain vocabulary or word lists where word usage frequencies are indicated.

Besides there are dictionaries with incomplete structure of an entry: the 1st and 2nd parts of equation coincide in such dictionaries as orthographic dictionaries reverse dictionaries.

In some dictionaries the right part is only a list of words, e.g. synomous, morphemic dictionaries, dictionary of rhymes. The right part of equation is mostly different in very dictionary.

As to monolingual (explanatory) dictionary explanation is presented with ideally the same number of semes as in the left part.

Definitions reflect the nearest notions and are not the same as in encyclopaedic dictionaries.

Dictionary explanation can be logical, linguistic, objective, word-building, formula.

Logical, e.g. *a square is a rectangle with equal sides*.

Linguistic, e.g. (through synonyms) *oblique – not straight* (косой).

Objective: *quarter is the 4th part of the year*.

Word-building formula: *lioness – a female lion*.

In translating dictionaries the right part contains equivalent, which may be translation, explanation or transcription. Explanations and traditions are made more precisely by examples, marks and illustrations.

In any language lexicography there is a special *metalanguage*. What is it? Metalanguage is a set of typical formulas to describe a word meaning. Besides metalanguage of a dictionary may include explanations, special marks such as short forms, labels, special signs, grammar codes. Let's explain them in detail:

1) short forms are abbreviations: sth, sb, E-east, W-west; 2) labels are subdivided into: a) words which are used mainly or only in one region or country: Am E, Br E, Can E, Ind E; b) words which are used in English but they are still borrowings for they are not completely assimilated:

French, Latin, Greek; c) of particular simulation usage such as: formal, informal, humorous, approving; d) of particular context: biblical, old-fashioned, old use, slang, taboo, trademark; 3) special signs or symbols are used to denote, for example, pronunciation|| sign of parallel separates pronunciation in Britain and in USA: [' ktɑ:s] || [kl.s]

' – main stress

_'– secondary stress

► Stem shift

[ ] – square brackets contain transcription of the headword.

Signs are usually used to substitute words or a word, e.g. a mark over the ,in Spanish that pronounces quite differently than n without this sign.

~ swung dash is used to substitute for a headword or initial form of a word in compounds, e.g. 1) sleeping: ~ bag, ~ car, ~ pill; 2) editor: ~ ur-chief. ◊ rhomb(us) is used for idioms or phrasealogical with; 3) grammar codes – such abbreviations are used to denote the following words: a – attributive; c – countable; α – an adjective that is used only following the noun, it is described usually after be or another verb marked "v"; e.g. *The children are asleep.*

p - plural, s – singular; e.g. *She rides a Mercedes.*

Dictionaries can use different types of scripts, tables, illustrations, graphical tools. Individual approach is quite obvious to any dictionary besides it contains type, volume and different lexicographical parameters development. Conceptual part of a dictionary is either implicitly realized in the very structure of a dictionary or explicitly explained in an introductory part.

Different lexicographic parameters are reflected in specific language, lexicographic traditions and individual views of lexicographers. The problem of choice is quite important in lexicography. Dictionaries are divided according to its information into:

extensive – i.e. maximum units, number and coverage;

reflective – i.e. restricting the choice of units due to the name of a dictionary.

The choice of words in a dictionary is based upon texts analyses, colloquial speech, patterns study plus individual experience of lexicographers. The main problems of lexicography are dealt with the selection of headwords, the arrangement and contents of the vocabulary

entry, the principles of sense definitions and the semantic and functional classification of words.

Synchronic principles in American tradition. In a dictionary on synchronic principles, the aim is to describe the current conventions of usage and meaning. The usual modern meaning of the word is placed first, followed by other, less frequent senses in some sort of logical order, and the etymology comes at the end. Thus, in the *(New) Oxford Dictionary of English* (1998; *(N)ODE3*), *camera* is defined first as "a device for recording visual images in the form of photographs or video signals". The sense "a chamber or round building" is recorded as a separate homograph—that is, it is regarded by the dictionary as a different word that just happens to have the same spelling.

The first dictionary to issue an explicit challenge to historical principles was Funk and Wagnall's *Standard Dictionary of the English Language* (1894–97; F&W). F&W was conceived as a popular dictionary, albeit on a grand scale, and its editors therefore made little attempt to justify their innovations in scholarly terms or to draw attention to the difficulty of what they were doing. F&W recognized that most ordinary dictionary users are more likely to want to know what a word means in the contemporary language than to ask questions about its etymology and archaic or historical usages.

The *American College Dictionary* (*ACD* 1947), edited by Clarence Barnhart, was a dictionary that set out quite explicitly to place the current meaning of each word first, following (without acknowledgement to F&W) the commonsensical principles of organization first adumbrated by Isaac Funk half a century earlier. *ACD* represented the best practices of American synchronic lexicography in the twentieth century, and it was to become the ancestor of a worldwide family of derivative dictionaries, including the *Random House Dictionary of the English Language* (*RHD* 1966, 1987, American English); the *Hamlyn Encyclopedic World Dictionary* (1971, British English); and the *Macquarie Dictionary* (1981, Australian and New Zealand English). Lexicography is typically accretive—each new dictionary building on foundations laid by its predecessors.

In his preface to *ACD*, Barnhart explained his descriptive synchronic principles thus:

"This dictionary records the usage of the speakers and writers of our language; no dictionary founded on the methods of modern scholarship

can prescribe as to usage; it can only inform on the basis of the facts of usage. A good dictionary is a guide to usage much as a good map tells you the nature of the terrain over which you may want to travel. It is not the function of the dictionary-maker to tell you how to speak, any more than it is the function of the mapmaker to move rivers or rearrange mountains or fill in lakes. ... To select the words and meanings needed by the general user, we utilized the Lorge-Thorndike Semantic Count which measures the occurrences of various meanings in the general vocabulary. By using this count, which is based upon a reading of modern standard literature, we have been able to select the important meanings needed by the reader of today and to have some statistical assurance of the occurrence of the meanings. This count has also been of considerable importance in the arrangement of meanings, since it has enabled us to determine with some certainty which is the common meanings and to put them first".

Modern corpus-driven lexicographers may be forgiven a wry smile at Barnhart's glib assurances, for even with sophisticated computational techniques and corpora many times larger than that of Lorge and Thorndike, it is still difficult, for some words, to establish which meaning is the most frequent one. For example, what is the most frequent modern meaning of *admit*? Is it "to say reluctantly" or is it "to allow to enter"? It is difficult to answer such questions with confidence, even with corpus evidence. Without it, we are merely guessing. Moreover, there are no generally agreed criteria for deciding where one meaning of a word ends and another begins, nor even for what counts as a meaning. Indeed, some lexicographers (see Kilgarriff 1997) go so far as to deny the very existence of word meanings. Hanks (1994) agrees that, strictly speaking, words do not have meanings, but goes on to argue that what dictionaries offer are statements of 'meaning potentials'— the potential of a word to make a given meaning when used in a particular context. Should launching a boat be a separate sense of the verb *launch* from launching a newly built ship? *ACD* has them as separate senses of the verb *launch*, but many people would say that they are one and the same. *ACD* (1947) does not record *launching a missile or rocket*: that sense developed later. Many people nowadays would regard this as the most literal sense, which should come first. The language has changed in this respect, and synchronic lexicographers must respond accordingly. Even when one meaning of a word has been successfully distinguished from another, it is by no means clear which one should be placed first. For example, *ACD* gives as

definition 1 of the verb *launch*, "to set (a boat) afloat; lower into the water". Sense 4 is "to set going: *to launch a scheme*." Corpus analysis shows that sense 4 is much more common than sense 1, and the same was almost certainly true in 1947. Yet Barnhart's decision with regard to the arrangement of the senses of this word is defensible. The idea that launching is something that you do primarily to boats (or missiles) rather than schemes is cognitively salient for English speakers. For that reason it deserves first place, even in a synchronic dictionary.

Senses involving 'imageable' concrete objects and events have cognitive preference over abstract notions. Thus, "launching a boat or ship" can be seen as activating the most literal sense of this verb, while "launching a scheme (or a new product)" can be interpreted as a metaphor exploiting the boat or missile sense. If the most frequent sense of a word is perceived as being a linguistic metaphor exploiting another, more literal sense, it takes second place in Barnhart's dictionary, regardless of frequency.

The leading present-day dictionary in America on synchronic principles is the *American Heritage Dictionary* (1969; 4th edition 2006), which may be regarded as carrying on the tradition of F&W and ACD, even though there is no formal relationship among these works.

The British Tradition. In Britain, synchronic principles were introduced from America, first by the *Hamlyn Encyclopedic World Dictionary* (1971) and subsequently by *Collins English Dictionary* (CED; 1979), which greatly extended the lexicographic coverage of scientific and technical words compared with other dictionaries of the time. The one-volume *(New) Oxford Dictionary of English* (*NODE*, 1998; 2nd edition, *ODE* 2005; 3rd edition 2010) is a one-volume dictionary on synchronic principles, more similar in design and structure to *RHD*, *AHD*, and Collins than to the great historical dictionary (*OED*) published by the same publishing house. It is based on an unrivalled body of citation evidence, for it is the only dictionary of English aimed at general users to use analysis of corpus evidence as an organizing principle for arranging and refining the definitions of complex words, as well as a source of citations of actual usage. For unusual words and senses, it draws on citations collected by the *OED*'s traditional reading programme. Among other things, (*N*)*ODE* adopts a more sophisticated approach to word grammar than most monolingual dictionaries aimed at the home market. It attempts,

not always successfully, to identify "core meanings" and group subsenses under a core meaning.

Some readers may wonder why America's favourite dictionary (if sales are anything to go by) has not been mentioned in this brief survey of synchronic dictionaries. The dictionary in question is *Merriam Webster's Collegiate*. The reason for this omission is simple: the *Merriam Webster Collegiate* is a dictionary based on historical principles; it is not a synchronic dictionary. It is based on Merriam's vast *Third New International Dictionary* of 1961 and its two predecessors. The current edition of the Collegiate is the 11th edition (2001). According to the publisher, a 12th edition is due to appear in 2014. It will be interesting to see whether this new edition will adhere to the long-standing Merriam preference for historical principles.

Dictionaries for language learning. During the 1930s a major development in English lexicography took place in Japan, a development that was eventually to have an effect on lexicography in other languages too. The linguist Harold Palmer, founder of the Institute for Research in English Teaching, the English teacher A. S. Hornby, and some other teachers of English in Japan observed that the then-current dictionaries of English were not suitable for foreign learners of English and decided to do something about it. The result was the *Idiomatic and Syntactic Dictionary (ISED)*, developed and tested in Japanese classrooms and published by Kaitakusha just after the outbreak of World War II. This work was designed primarily as a dictionary for encoding purposes, that is, to help learners with their writing and speaking skills. It contains a deliberately limited selection of vocabulary—words that were in active use and that learners might be expected to know and to be able to use correctly and idiomatically. The apparatus gave a great deal of information about the syntactic structures associated with each word. Hornby's verb patterns in particular were in use among English language teachers for almost half a century before eventually being superseded by corpus-based research. *ISED* was republished unaltered in 1948 by Oxford University Press as *A Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, subsequently re-titled the *Oxford Advance Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (*OALDCE*). A massive influx of additional vocabulary items was added to the 2nd edition, which diminished rather than enhanced its original intention as an encoding tool forlearners. The editors had ceased to ask themselves the unanswerable question, "Does alearner need to know how to use this word

idiomatically?" For, of course, different learners need different words for different circumstances. The 6th edition, edited by Sally Wehmeier (2000), was extensively revised using evidence from the British National Corpus, while adhering to the principle that vocabulary selection, definitions, and examples of usage must be driven by classroom needs rather than corpus evidence. It is therefore unabashed about using invented examples alongside or instead of text-derived examples of usage. 2011 saw its eighth edition.

In 1978, the supremacy of *OALDCE* in the marketplace for EFL (English as a foreign language) was challenged by the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (*LDOCE*; http://www.ldoceonline.com/). This is the dictionary of choice for many researchers in computational linguistics. Like *OALDCE*, it is driven by perceived classroom needs, but was extensively revised in the 1990s using evidence from the British National Corpus. It devotes considerable attention to spoken English.

In 1987, with the publication of the COBUILD dictionary (an acronym for 'Collins Birmingham University International Language Database', 1987, 1995), a radical new kind of lexicography emerged: the corpus-driven dictionary. COBUILD's innovations included examples selected from actual usage for naturalness, rather than invented by the lexicographer or teacher, while its unique defining style expresses links between meaning and use by encoding the target word in its most typical phraseology (e.g. "when a horse ***gallops***, it runs very fast so that all four legs are off the ground at the same time"). The editor-in-chief of COBUILD, John Sinclair, briefed his editorial team: "Every distinction in meaning is associated with a distinction in form." This was more a signpost for the future than a practical guideline for interpreting the then-available evidence. A great deal more research is required to determine exactly what counts as a distinction in meaning, what counts as a distinction in form, and what is the nature of the association. COBUILD was the first ever large-scale corpus-based dictionary research project. Its principles were set out in an associated book of essays (Sinclair, ed., 1987). Unfortunately, a few years later the Cobuild research programme was cut short by News International, which had bought Collins, the publisher funding the work.

Another addition to the stock of corpus-based dictionaries for learners of English was the *Cambridge International Dictionary of English*

(*CIDE* 1995). Subsequent editions (2003, 2005, 2008) were published as the *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (http://dictionary.cambridge.org). This work has a number of associated data modules, such as lists of verb complementation patterns, semantic classifications of nouns, and semantic domain categories. The second edition and subsequent editions were re-titled *Cambridge Advanced Learners Dictionary* (*CALD*).

The most recent addition to the stock of such dictionaries published in Britain is the *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* (*MEDAL* 2002). This dictionary is corpus-based but not corpus-driven. It makes eclectic use of some of the principles developed for other major lexicographical projects, and pays special attention to two things in particular: conventional metaphors and collocations. For the latter, it uses the Sketch Engine, a computer program that identifies statistically significant collocations of each target word, which the lexicographers were in many cases able to associate with specific senses of the target word.

In 2008 Merriam-Webster brought out *Merriam-Webster's Advanced Learner's English Dictionary*. This is a practical American work, with a sensible selection of currently used words and meanings in American English. It owes more to the definitions in rival British EFL dictionaries than to the Merriam tradition of historical lexicography and it pays little or no attention to primary research in phraseology, cognitive linguistics, or corpus linguistics.

In his 1987 paper, entitled 'The nature of the evidence', Sinclair stresses the importance of distinguishing significant collocations from random co-occurrences. The first attempt to undertake statistical analysis of collocations in a corpus for lexicographical and other purposes was by Church and Hanks (1990), but it was not until Kilgarriff, Rychly, and their colleagues developed the Word Sketch Engine (Kilgarriff *et al.* 2004) that a user-friendly tool was made widely available for people to see at a glance how the meanings of a semantically complex word are associated with and indeed activated by its collocates.

QUESTIONS

1. What is a conventional dictionary structure?
2. Give definition of a dictionary entry. What does it include?
3. What are the types of dictionary explanations?
4. What is metalanguage?

5. How is conceptual part of a dictionary realized itself?
6. Why is the problem of choice so urgent in lexicography?
7. What are the main problems of selecting dictionary?

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XVIII. THE IMPACT OF COMPUTER TECHNOLOGY ON MODERN LEXICOGRAPHY

Problems for discussion

1. Computers and dictionary compilation
2. Lexical evidence
3. On-line dictionaries
4. Thesauruses and ontologies

Key words: dictionary, publication, meaning, word, entry, corpus evidence, examples, corpus linguistics, scientific concept, definitions, function of lexicography.

In the 1960s and 70s some adventurous lexicographers found that they could be freed by the computer from the tyranny of alphabetical order and proceed instead in a logical order, dictated by content rather than the vagaries of the alphabet. So, for example, the editor writing medical entries would work systematically through the field, starting, say, with definitions of terms denoting bones and organs of the body, before moving on to physiology, pathology, diseases, clinical psychology, and so on. Simultaneously, specialists in the arts could make their contributions by defining terms of, say, music, ballet, opera, and theatre, while others contributed the terminology of poetics, printing, and publishing. Mean while, a phonetician would write phonological transcriptions, while a team of etymologists summarized what is known about the origin and history of each word. It was no longer necessary for the special-subject editors to be polymaths with competence in grammar, phonology, and etymology. These various contributions were then slotted by computer into a framework of general definitions compiled by a team of general editors. A further group of editors would read through the text of each entry, correcting errors and inconsistencies, eliminating duplications, plugging gaps, and generally polishing up the work for publication. This, in very broad outline, is how the large one-volume synchronic dictionaries of the second half of the twentieth century (notably the *Random House Dictionary of the English Language*, *American Heritage Dictionary*, *Collins English Dictionary*, and *New Oxford Dictionary of English*) were compiled, with consequent improvements in quality and a dramatic reduction in elapsed time between start-up and publication. Because the

text is compiled in a database or structured text file and because each dictionary entry has a basic uniformity of structure, the dictionary text can be run through a typesetting program and output page proofs in a matter of hours rather than months.

This aspect of lexicographical technology encouraged the editors of such dictionaries to ride roughshod over the traditional distinction between a dictionary and an encyclopedia, and to take the view instead that a dictionary is a sort of collective cultural index, which must summarize, for the practical benefit of users, all the most salient cognitive and social features associated with the meaning of every word and name that is in common currency.

Lexical evidence. An even more important development, from the point of view of studying words and how they go together in idiomatic language use, was the emergence in the 1980s and 1990s of corpus linguistics. Up to that time, lexicographers had insufficient evidence to represent accurately the conventions of word meaning and word use. Corpus evidence changed the nature of lexicography. It demonstrated clearly that definitions in pre-corpus dictionaries had a tendency to be biased in favour of unusual rather than central and typical uses of words, and that introspection is not a good source of evidence. These developments have been fully described elsewhere, for example by Hanks (2009), and there is no need to repeat them here.

Just one example will suffice to illustrate the radical impact that corpus technology has begun to have on lexicography. This concerns the meaning of the conventional metaphor *gleam*. Conventional metaphors are secondary senses of words and as such are (or ought to be) recorded in dictionaries. There is no disputing that the primary meaning of *gleam* is "a faint or brief light", but what is its secondary meaning, applied to an emotion appearing briefly in someone's eyes? Consulting their intuitions, cognitive linguists have invented examples such as "Amusement gleamed in his eyes" as a supposed realization of the conceptual metaphor HAPPINESS IS LIGHT. This hypothesis appears to be supported by OED's sense 2b of the noun *gleam*, "a bright or joyous look." But, as Deignan (2005) points out, corpus evidence shows that in the 20th century (at any rate) a gleam in someone's eyes does not normally signal happiness, but rather cynical amusement, mischief, or even malice. And even OED, a historical, pre-corpus dictionary par excellence, supports its

definition with a citation from 1852 that might set alarm bells ringing in the head of an alert reader:

1852 H. B. Stowe *Uncle Tom's Cabin* vi. His black visage lighted up with a curious, mischievous gleam.

The following examples, selected from the British National Corpus (BNC), are typical of 20th-century usage of this word in its secondary, metaphorical sense.

Rosita looks at me indignantly, with a furious *gleam* in her eyes, a look of hatred.

He had a zealot's *gleam* in his dishwater eyes.

... the sardonic *gleam* in his eyes.

... a rather nasty *gleam* in his blue eyes.

[She] didn't understand the wicked *gleam* in his eye

His eyes *gleamed* malevolently.

These are only six of sixty or more examples in BNC that could have been selected to illustrate this point. They are not matched by other examples designating happiness. These examples also illustrate another important contribution of corpus linguistics to lexicography, namely the identification of collocations. Collocations are recurrent co-occurrences of words in different texts. The word *gleam* collocates significantly with *eye*, but also with the adjectives *sardonic, mischievous, unsettling, predatory, manic, visionary, wry, wicked, amused, cynical, fierce,* and *mad.* And a *gleam* is (in descending order of statistical significance) a gleam of *amusement, malice, triumph,* or *humour.* It seems safe to predict that dictionaries of the future, in the age of the Internet and large corpora, will pay far more careful attention than previously to collocation and phraseology, using various measures of statistical significance to identify salient collocations, and that this new trend, marching arm in arm with other developments such as construction grammar, will continue to bring about a change that has already begun in perceptions among linguists of the relationship between words and meaning.

On-line dictionaries. Ironically, the revolution that has brought exciting new potential for lexical description has at the same time destroyed the business model that traditionally would have funded such work. Compiling a new dictionary is a huge, expensive, labour-intensive task, but if every well-educated member of a community feels the need to own a dictionary the financial incentives are likewise substantial. In the heyday of synchronic lexicography in the 20th century, there were half a

dozen dictionary publishers competing for market share. With the advent of the Internet, all that has changed. The market for printed dictionaries on paper has sharply declined. Dictionaries are typically used for rapid and uncritical look-up, for which the Internet is ideally suited, but the Internet offers a free-for-all, in which some very inferior and indeed inaccurate products jostle for position with some very sophisticated accounts of words and their meanings. The OED on-line must be singled out for mention as an example of the best that on-line lexicography can offer. The content of the dictionary is based on 19th-century principles (this fact alone is a tribute to the robustness of James Murray's linguistic insight and lexicographic skill), while the techniques of information retrieval and presentation are at the cutting edge of modern lexicographical technology. It remains to be seen whether new business models (or funding models) will emerge that will enable new lexicographical projects to undertake large-scale, detailed (and possibly cross-linguistic) investigations of words, their collocations, their phraseological patterns and their meaning.

Thesauruses and ontologies. Thesaurus is the opposite of a dictionary. It is of Greek origin meaning "treasure", "treasure of words". In Latin *thesaurus* – "memoria omnium rerum". In English a thesaurus is a treasure or storehouse especially of words as a repository, "store of knowledge", the opposite to a dictionary.

The aims of thesaurus are: 1) to enrich individual lexicon of a user; 2) in information system and work – to unify and replace lexical units in a text by standard words and expressions [so called descriptors] in the process of codifying and indexing of documents.

It has 2 meanings: 1) a dictionary with maximum fully represented words of a given language with complete enumeration of examples, having been used in texts; 2) an ideographic dictionary in which semantic relations are shown between lexical units (synonymous, antonymous, gender relations, etc.).

In the first meaning Thesaurus is possible only for dead languages, e.g. Thesaurus Linguae Latinae, 1900 or Dictionary of the Polish Language [16th century] was published in 1966. It is impossible to cite all examples for the existing languages.

Nevertheless some attempts were made by Russian lexicographers: J.K. Grott, A.A. Shachmatov, L.V. Schterba.

The structural basis of thesaurus in the second meaning – hierarchic system of notions which allows to look for a lexical unit from notion

(meaning). To look for a notion from the word they use alphabetic order (alphabetical index).

There are some modern versions of thesauruses:

1) Roget's Pocket Thesaurus;
2) Roget's International Thesaurus;
3) Roget's Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases which is a classical American edition;
4) Collin's Paperback Thesaurus;
5) Webster's New Explorer Thesaurus

Almost all the dictionaries mentioned so far are semasiological – that is, they start with a word or phrase and ask how it spelled, how it is pronounced, what it means, etc. Before concluding, brief mention must be made of an alternative approach to the lexicon, namely onomasiology, which starts with a concept and asks, is there a word or phrase to express it?

During the European Enlightenment, starting in the 17th century, attempts were made to arrange all human knowledge in conceptual hierarchies. Since concepts can only be represented by words, this is necessarily a quasi-lexicographical undertaking.

The most important of these 17th-century conceptual and lexical models of the universe forms part of John Wilkins' *Essay towards a Real Character and a Philosophical Language* (1668), a vast and astonishing work (the term "Essay" in the title is misleading), which contains among other things an attempt to summarize and organize all conceptual knowledge. The starting point is that it seems obvious that a *dog* is a kind of *animal* and an *animal* is a kind of *physical object* and a *physical object* is a kind of *entity*. Wilkins assumed that all concepts could be arranged in hierarchies of this sort, applicable this hierarchical schema to all words and all concepts in a way that would be universal to all languages. This central part of Wilkins' *Essay* is a forerunner of Roget's famous *Thesaurus* (1852), as Peter Mark Roget himself acknowledged. It is also a direct predecessor of WordNet (Miller 1985, Fellbaum 1998). In the words of Eco (1995), Wilkins' *Essay* was "the most complete project for a universal and artificial philosophical language that the 17th century was ever to produce." As a preliminary step, Wilkins undertook a review of all knowledge, "to establish what the notions held in common by all rational beings really were". The philosopher and logician Leibniz attempted an emulation (in Latin) of Wilkins' work, including a "table of definitions",

but abandoned it after compiling only a few entries. The difficulty, in a world before Linnaeus, of building a satisfactory conceptual hierarchy of this sort can be illustrated with the word *dog*. Wilkins starts this part of his ontology by remarking that "Beasts" "may be distinguished by their several shapes, properties, uses, foods, their tameness or wildness, etc." He lumps dogs together with cats as being "rapacious" but not "cloven-footed". He distinguishes dogs from wolves because wolves howl but dogs bark, bay, or yelp. Here, as Eco remarked, Wilkins seems to be reaching for the modern concept of hypertext. "Rapacious beasts of the dog-kind" include not only *dogs* and *wolves*, but also *foxes* and *badgers* and "amphibious beasts of the dog-kind", namely *seals*. (Seals bark, don't they?)

Only a person of overweening intellectual self-confidence and demented energy could have even dreamed of such an undertaking. One of many questions begged by it is, can a Wilkinsian hierarchy of concepts be equated with or represented satisfactorily by a lexical hierarchy? It must be admitted that badgers and seals have quite a lot in common with dogs, wolves, and foxes. However, any schoolchild nowadays will tell you that neither seals nor badgers are really "of the dog-kind". The place of dog in a post-Linnaean hierarchy such as WordNet is rather different from the place assigned to it by Wilkins.

Confusion between scientific concept meaning and natural-language word meaning continues to bedevil the study of meaning in language and the false assumptions that it has generated must bear at least part of the responsibility for some of the failures of linguistics in Natural Language Processing. The attempt to make language precise was based on false assumptions about the relationship between scientific concepts and the everyday meaning of words and these are with us to this day. Lexicography has, so far, been slow to respond to the challenges and insights of 20th-century linguistic philosophy and anthropology.

Thus, dictionary definitions teeter uneasily on the sharp edge between the blindingly obvious and the philosophically profound. And then dictionaries nowadays are expected to give other information about words: most importantly about their orthography and morphology (inflections), but also about pronunciation, grammatical word class, and etymology or word history.

As a general rule, lexicography is accretive; one dictionary builds on another. Radical innovations do occur (*WDG*, for example, and

COBUILD), but they are few and far between. We have seen that there are many motivations for compiling a dictionary. In recent centuries, the main motive has been to compile an inventory of the words of a language, with summary information about conventions of usage and belief associated with each word. In the past, the function of lexicography was perceived more strongly as being to control and regulate the language. Sometimes a dictionary may have an influence on social attitudes to language.

QUESTIONS

1. How do machine aids facilitate lexicographic practice? To what extent?
2. Why are computerized versions so helpful?
3. Enumerate electronic versions of Multilex, their common characteristics and general peculiarities.
4. What other computerized encyclopedias do you know? Describe one of them.
5. What are the peculiarities of on-line dictionaries?
6. What can you say about thesauruses and ontologies?
7. What is the aim of thesaurus?
8. Speak on the meanings of thesaurus.
9. What was Peter Mark Roget famous for?
10. What is the structure of a thesaurus?
11. For whom is thesaurus designed?
12. What are the types of thesauruses?

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XIX. CORPUS LINGUISTICS AS A NEW ACHIEVEMENT IN MODERN LEXICOGRAPHY

Problems for discussion

1. The main corpus
2. Advantages and merits of this trend
3. Perspectives of Corpus Linguistics
4. The Longman Language Activator

Key words: corpus linguistics, dictionaries, advantages, reasons, corpus development, computer analysis, language units,

The conventional dictionary was improved through generations- to explain what some else has said or written, converting words into meanings for the passive partner in communication. For the active partner converting meaning into words a nes dictionary is necessary. There are new corpus based dictionaries.

They reflect corpus linguistics development. The corpora used for the Activator dictionary are described collectively as the Longman Corpus Network.

The Main Corpus, the Longman Lancaster Corpus is nearly 30 mln words made up of chunks of text up to 40000 words long from over 2000 books, periodicals and unpublished material from British, American and other varieties of English.

The 10 mln-word Spoken Corpus is developed by Longman as part of the British National Corpus and it is the 1st large-scale corpus of truly natural spontaneous speech.

The Longman Learners' Corpus of students' writing has given us insights into problems shared by students from more than 70 countries, the words and structures which students at different levels can already use successfully, e.g. the word 'mean' in the sense of 'not generous' is defined as a British use, because the analysis of the written corpus which is 40 % American demonstrates that 'mean' is more rarely used in this sense in American English. It is used to express the idea of 'deliberately unpleasant or nasty'.

Advantages of Spontaneous Speech Corpus are:

1) access to the language of spoken English; 2) natural ways of expressing ideas in the spoken medium. Many of these lexical items are

phrases rather than single words. For native speakers often use a phrase rather than a single word to express their ideas, e.g. 'be going' which means 'available': Is there any more wine going?

Corpus linguistics was produced in response the need to have new type of dictionary.

Creation of international basis of language units is a leading trend in English and English lexicography.

The head of the International English Language Corpus project was Greenbaum in 1970. Creation of the English language written and spoken speech corpus commenced with working out and development of important ideas in London University in 1988 such as: 1) comparison of English with other languages, 2) patterns to compare and study of dialects, 3) computerized study of material, 4) implication of analysis parameters, 5) system in discourse description,6/ pragmatics.

What are the reasons of corpus development? There are 3 of them: 1) practical to perfect knowledge and translation; 2) educational - Corpus is concerned with the core of the language; 3) social integration – English and its role in life of international community. There are 3 types of communities: 1) native English speaking countries; 2) countries where English is a second official language; 3) European countries where English is an international language.

In 1991 new projects appeared such as the British Corpus of the English language including more than one hundred million words plus texts of different genres. The most ambitious project, the Bank of English by Cobuild Collins including more than 200 mln words from written and oral sources were registered by computer analysis.

The Collins Cobuild English Dictionary is based on language usage in speech. Its first edition dates to 1987. They gather only/mainly modern texts as far back as 1990 and later origin, 25 % is American material, 5% is from other variants of English such as Australian, Canadian, Indian, Singaporean, the rest are British texts which are divided into: 1) written texts taken from newspapers, magazines, scientific and popular editions, letters, brochures; 2) nearly 2/3 of material is from mass media, besides international, national, local publications are included: to specify different stylistic peculiarities hundreds of notes were written on any topic; 3) non official spoken speech was represented by records of ordinary every day conversations – meetings, interviews, discussions.

It was rather difficult to get such material, to record it, to transcribe, then to put it in the computers. Nearly 5 mln. words were registered in such a way.

The *Survey of English Usage* was produced by London University. It outlines the following problems and perspectives of corpus linguistics: 1) to create a Corpus of written translations from European community languages into English different stylistic peculiarities hundreds of notes were written on any topic; 2) oral communication between speakers of different nationalities; 3) Euro-English is the English language for official publications at European commissions, conferences, and summits; 4) non official spoken speech was represented by records of ordinary every day conversations – meetings, interviews, discussions. It was rather difficult to get such material, to record it, to transcribe, then to put it in the computers. Nearly 5 mln. words were registered in such a way.

Thus the work hasn't yet finished in this field creation of new projects as well as detailed investigations and enlargement of old ones bear witness to it.

The *Longman Language* activator is a revolutionary dictionary for learners of English. It is a conceptually organized dictionary of the core of English, and has been designed to enable students of English to express themselves accurately and appropriately for each context. Around 20,000 meanings are arranged into 1052 concepts such as ANGRY, WALK , INTERESTED. Each concepts includes words within the same semantic set. Words are organized basic concepts and their differences are fully explained.

QUESTIONS

1. What dictionaries reflect new achievements in lexicography?
2. What is the name of the corpora used for the Activator?
3. What does the Main Corpus contain?
4. Want is Spoken Corpus?
5. What are advantages of Spontaneous Speech Corpus?
6. What are the reasons of corpus linguistics development?
7. When did new projects appear? What were they?

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XX. METHODS USED IN LEXICOLOGICAL RESEARCH

Problems for discussion

1. Phases of the scientific investigation process
2. Contrastive analysis of words
3. Statistical analysis
4. Immediate constituents analysis of words
5. Distributional analysis of words
6. Transformational analysis of words
7. Componential analysis of words
8. Method of semantic differentiation
9. Contextual analysis of words
10. The Perspectives of Modern English Lexicology.

Key words: scientific investigation, linguistics, methods, lexical unit context.

Every science has certain methods of investigation at its disposal. The process of scientific investigation may be subdivided into several ***phases***:

• *Observation* is the basic phase of all modern scientific investigations including linguistics. In other words, we deal with the inductive method of inquiry. The key role of the opening phase of linguistic analysis is that the statements of fact must be based on observation, not on unsupported authority, logical conclusions or personal preferences.

• *Classification* is the second phase that comes after observation. Every lexicological research is based on collecting linguistic examples. At this stage of linguistic analysis the stored facts, the collected data, and empirical material undergo some grouping.

• *Generalization* is the third stage of the linguistic analysis at which the collection of data and their classification must eventually lead to the formulation of a hypotheses, rule, or law.

• *Verification* is the phase of linguistic analysis that leads to the results of the scientific investigation. While doing research, any linguist encounters all the phases of investigation. To accomplish his goal the linguist uses different methods and procedures. They are *contrastive analysis, statistical analysis, method of immediate constituents, distributional* analysis, *transformational* analysis, *componential* analysis, method of *semantic differentiation* and *contextual* analysis etc.

Contrastive analysis is aimed at finding out similarities and differences in both related and non-related languages. For instance, contrastive analysis is applied in language teaching when we deal with such a phenomenon as linguistic interference. It was empirically shown that the mistakes which are made by foreign language students can be often the result of differences in structural patterns between the target language and the language of the learner. This naturally implies the necessity of a detailed comparison of the structure of a mother tongue and a foreign language.

For example: In English the word *"foot"* is used to denote the extremity of the leg. But in Uzbek and Russian there is no exact equivalent for *"foot"*. The words *"нога"*, *"оёк"* denote the whole leg including the foot.

In Russian or in Uzbek one word is used for the thing that tells the time соат, часы; but in English we used two words *"watch"* and *"clock"*.

Contrastive analysis can be carried out at three linguistic levels: phonology, grammar and lexis.

Statistical analysis is generally referred to as one of the principal branches of linguistics. Insights derived from statistical accounts of the vocabulary can be useful to the solution and clarification of specific problems connected with the qualitative and quantitative language use. Statistical inquiries have considerable importance because of their relevance to certain problems of the selection of vocabulary items for the purposes of language usage and language teaching. For instance, very few people know more than 10 % of the words in their mother tongue. During the day we usually pronounce about 48 000 words. We can survive in the alien environment using only 500 different words of the foreign language. It means that if we do not wish to waste time on committing to memorize

vocabulary items, which are never likely to be useful to the learner, we have to select only lexical units that are commonly used by a native speaker. In Modern Linguistics the issue of *Basic/Nuclear English* was investigated. Basic English was a project designed to provide a basic minimum vocabulary for the learning of general English. The project involved a word list of 850 words, the description of their functions and the relationships between them. Statistical regularities can be observed only if the phenomena under analysis are sufficiently numerous. Thus, the first requirement of any statistic investigation is the size of the sample material.

Method of Immediate Constituents was attempted to determine the ways in which lexical units are relevantly related to one another. It was discovered and illustrated that linguistic units have a hierarchical organization of binary constructions. The fundamental task of the method is to segment a set of lexical units into two maximally independent meaningful sequences. These independent meaningful sequences are called immediate constituents. The further segmentation of immediate constituents results in ultimate constituents, which means that no further semantic segmentation is possible for no meaning can be found. This method is extremely fruitful in discovering the derivational structure of words.

For example: A fat teacher's wife may mean that either the teacher is fat or his wife is fat.

A fat teacher's wife – means that the teacher is fat.
A fat/teacher's wife – means that the wife is fat.
A beautiful / woman doctor- means that the doctor is a beautiful woman.

Distributional analysis. By the term "distribution" we understand the occurrence of a lexical unit relative to another lexical units of the same levels: words to word, morpheme to morphemes. In other words, by this term we understand the position which lexical unit occupies or may occupy in the text or in the flow of speech. It is established that a certain component of the word-meaning is described when the word is identified distributionally. For example, in the sentence *The boy* ____ *home* the form which is missing is easily identified as a verb but not a noun, an adjective or an adverb. Thus, contextually only several verbs or rather word-forms can be inserted in the space: *goes, comes, runs, went, came, ran.* Thus, we see that the component of meaning that is distributionally identified is

actually the part-of-speech meaning. It is also observed that in a number of cases words have different lexical meanings in different distributional patterns. For example: The verb "*to treat*" has different lexical meanings in "*to treat smb kindly*" & "*to treat smb to ice-cream*".

Transformational analysis in lexicological investigations may be defined as repatterning of various distributional structures in order to discover difference or sameness of meaning of practically identical distributional patterns. Transformational analysis can be applied to reveal the difference in meaning in the example:

He made the boy a pipe —> He made a pipe for the boy.
He made the girl a star — He made a star for the girl.*

In the first example the transformation is possible and the meaning of the transformed sentence has not been changed. In the second case the transformation is impossible because it completely changes the meaning of the utterance. Types of transformation differ according to purposes for which transformations are used:

• *Permutation* - the repatterning on condition that the basic subordinative relationships between words and word-stems of the lexical units are not changed. For example, *"His work is excellent"* may be transformed into *"his excellent work, the excellence of his work, he works excellently "*.

• *Replacement* - the substitution of a component of the distributional structure by a member of a certain strictly defined set of lexical units (replacement of a notional verb by an auxiliary or link verb).

• *Addition (or expansion)* may be illustrated by the application of the procedure of addition to the classification of adjectives into two groups- adjectives denoting inherent and non-inherent qualities: *John is happy. John is tall* .We add a phrase *in Moscow* to the first sentence and get *John is happy in Moscow.* If we add the same phrase to the second sentence, it will become senseless. That is accounted by the difference in the meaning of adjectives denoting inherent (tall) and noninherent (happy) qualities.

• *Deletion* is a procedure which shows whether one of the words is semantically subordinated to the other. For instance, the word-group *yellow tulips* may be further segmented and transformed into *tulips* without making the sentence senseless / *like yellow tulips* or / *like tulips.* The other word-group *red tape* can't be

transformed either into / *hate tape* or / *hate red* because we won't convey the meaning of the expression *red tape* (bureaucracy) in both transformed sentences because it functions as an inseparable phrase in the language.

Componential analysis. Componential analysis refers to a technique for describing relations of meaning by breaking down each word into the smallest units of meaning which are known as sememes or semes. The componential analysis is central to the conceptual area of semantics. The semantic features in lexical items are universal and they underlie our basic cognitive process for the ordering of meaning. The central part of componential analysis is the concept of binarism. Semantic features are marked on the basis of semantic opposition or contrast. For example, in the lexical item *woman* several sememes may be singled out, such as *human, adult, female.* The analysis of the word *man* will show the following sememes: *human, adult, male.*

Man	Woman
human	human
adult	adult
male	**female**

Here the component "*male*" distinguishes the word "*man*" from "*woman*".

The last component differentiates them and makes impossible to mix up the words in the process of communication.

Componential analysis is concerned with the sense relations between lexical items covered by such traditional terms as synonymy, antonymy. Componential analysis is practically always combined with transformational procedures or statistical analysis.

Method of semantic differential was worked out by a group of American psycholinguists. Words may have more than one meaning. Even one word usually implies some additional information which differentiates one word from another, that is the connotational aspect of the word. The technique of the semantic differential requires the subjects to judge - a series of concepts with respect to a set of antonymic adjective scale. For example: *A horse can be: good — bad fast — slow strong – weak hard — soft happy – sad.*

The meaning of the divisions is that each of the quality may be gradated representing extremely good, very good, neither good nor bad, slightly bad, extremely bad, and these grades can be marked by a plus: *And the horse may be very good, not bad, etc.*

The combination of different methods of analysis helps to classify the vocabulary as a whole and each lexical unit taken separately. It should be noted that one cannot investigate one side of the item paying no attention to the other *one*.

Contextual method 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, syntactical and mixed. Lexical context determines the meaning of the word *black* in the following examples. Black denotes colour when used with the key- word naming some material or thing. For example: *black velvet, black gloves*. When used with key- word denoting feeling or thought, it means *"sad"*, *"dismal"*. For example: *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. For example: make means *"to cause"* when followed by a complex object: *I couldn't make him understand a word I said.*

The Perspectives of Modern English Lexicology. Lexicology has its own main aims and tasks. Modern English lexicology investigates the problem of word structure and word formation, the classification of vocabulary units, description of the relations between different lexical layers of English vocabulary. As a science it has both theoretical and practical use. The theoretical value of Lexicology stems from the theory of meaning which was originally developed within the philosophical science. The relationship between the name and the thing constitutes one of the key questions of Gnostic theories. The research carried out in the frames of Lexicology meets the needs of many different sciences, such as lexicography, literary criticism, and foreign languages teaching.

Modern English Lexicology aims at giving a systematic description of the Modern English word-stock. Modern English Lexicology investigates the problems of word structure and word formation in Modern English, the semantic structure of English words, the main principles underlying the classification of vocabulary units into various groupings, the laws governing the replenishment of the vocabulary with new vocabulary units.

Modern English Lexicology forms part of the Theoretical Course of Modern English. It is inseparable from its other component parts, i.e., Grammar, Phonetics, Stylistics, the Course of History of the English Language. Moreover, the Course of Modern English Lexicology is of great practical importance because it is aimed both at summarising the practical material already familiar to the students from foreign language classes and at helping the students to develop the skills and habits of generalising the linguistic phenomena.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the definition of the term 'Lexicology'?
2. What is the subject matter of Lexicology?
3. What does the term 'word' denote?
4. What is the term 'vocabulary' used to denote?
5. What are the definitions of the term 'lexicon'?
6. What do General Lexicology and Special Lexicology study?
7. What branches of Linguistics is Lexicology closely connected with?
8. What are the general approaches to the study of language material?
9. What are the principal methods of scientific investigation?
10. What are all kinds of the analysis aimed at? Characterise each analysis.

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ASSIGNMENTS FOR SEMINARS
SEMINAR 1

ETYMOLOGICAL SURVEY OF THE ENGLISH WORD-STOCK

Topics for discussion:

1. Definition of terms native, borrowing, translation loan, semantic loan.
2. Words of native origin and their characteristics
3. Foreign elements in Modern English. Scandinavian borrowings, classical elements-Latin and Greek, French borrowings, Russian-English lexical correlations.
4. Assimilation of borrowings. Types and degrees of assimilation.
5. Etymological doublets, hybrids.
6. International words

Exercise 1.

Explain the origin of the following words: *father, brother, mother, dog, cat, sheep, wolf, house, life, earth, man, apple, live, go, give, begin, strong, long, wide, to, for, from, and, with, I, he, two, well, much, little.*

Exercise 2.

Analyse the following words from the point of view of the type and degree of assimilation. State which words are: a) completely assimilated; b) partially assimilated; c) non-assimilated: *prima-donna, ox, caftan, city, school, etc., mazurka, table, street, they, century, sky, wall, stimulus, reduce, cup, present.*

Exercise 3.

Comment on the different formation of the doublets and on the difference in meaning, if any: *balm-balsam, suit-suite, senior-sir, legal-loyal, skirt-shirt, emerald-smaragdus, major-mayor, pauper-poor, of-off, history-story, catch-chase.*

Exercise 4.

Read the following text. Find the international words. State to what sphere of human activity they belong. British dramatists.

In the past 20 years there has been a considerable increase in the number of new playwrights in Britain and this has been encouraged by the growth of new theatre companies. In 1956 the English Stage Company began productions with the object of bringing new writers into the theatre and providing training facilities for young actors, directors, and designers;

a large number of new dramatists emerged as a result of the company productions Television has been an important factor in the emergence of other dramatists who write primarily for it; both the BBC and IBA transmit a large number of single plays each year as well as drama series and serials.

Exercise 5.

1. Match the everyday nouns of Germanic origin in group A with the corresponding adjectives of Latin origin in group B.

A. brother, woman, friend, god, fun, year, mother, man, cat, dog, wind, brain, sight, touch, hand, house, earth, east.

B. maternal, canine, terrestrial, fraternal, manual, mental, divine, feline, oriental, cerebral,feminine, masculine, annual, amicable, visual, comic(al), tactile, domestic.

2. Usually there is a difference in meaning and use between the simple adjectives and the adjectives of Latin/Greek origin. E.g. **sunny day** vs. *solar energy*.

Choose the adjective that best fits the meaning of these sentences.

1) Animals which are active during the hours of darkness are called *nightly/nocturnal* animals.

2) Animals which are active during the day are called *diurnal/daily* animals.

3) There is now a *walking/pedestrian* precinct in the town/urban centre.

4) *Country/rural* people often find it difficult to adjust to an *urban/a* town environment.

5) Mr. Green is a *tooth/dental* surgeon.

6) This food is not *salty/saline* enough for my taste.

7) *Salty/saline* solutions are prepared in the laboratories.

8) Harvard has a world-famous *law/legal* school.

9) Every citizen has a *lawful/legal* right to protect himself against attack.

10) Many of Escher's paintings make use of *eye/optical* illusions.

Exercise 6.

Read and analyse the text

IS ENGLISH ENGLISH?

English is originally an Anglo-Saxon language with many words similar to those in German, Dutch or the Scandinavian languages. However, invasion by the French in the eleventh century lead to a large influx of words from French. Scholars drew on Latin and Greek to form many of the more literary words in the language. Over the centuries different nationalities have been particularly influential in particular spheres and this is reflected in English vocabulary: Italian has had a particular influence on music and the plastic arts, French on belles diplomacy, politics and cooking, German on philosophy, for example.

The British have long been travellers and drew on the languages of the countries they visited or colonised to enrich their own language still further, so that even languages which are linguistically very distant from each other have had some influence on English. Today English vocabulary is approximately half Germanic (from the Saxons and Vikings) and half Romance (from French and Latin). There are considerable borrowings from other languages.

Old English: shirt, life, death, earth, love, hate, heaven.

Old Norse: skirt, birth, window, ugly, wrong, they, them.

French: boil, roast, veal, beef, pork, village, painter, tailor, second, minute, hour, cousin, battle, banner, army, lieutenant, sergeant, duke, duchess.

Latin: index, item, major, memorandum.

Arabic: admiral, algebra, mattress, mohair, sherbet, harem.

Spanish: mosquito, cigar, canyon.

Italian : piano, violin, spaghetti.

Dutch: yacht, boss, deck.

Hindi: pajamas, shampoo, bungalow.

Turkish: yoghourt, kiosk.

There are also words from **Japanese** (tycoon, typhoon, karate). **Hungarian** (coach, paprika).

Classical Greek (theatre, astronomy, logic), **Russian** (vodka, troika, sputnik, glasnost,

perestroika), **Finnish** (sauna), **Chinese** (tea, silk), **Portuguese** (marmalade), **Czech** (robot).

Modern French (cafe, rendezvous), **Modern German** (kindergarten).

A language is never in a state of fixation but always changing. Inventions and discoveries in the scientific domain create whole vocabularies of their own and inevitably contain expressions of Latin and Greek origin. Science is one of the most powerful influences moulding the English language into fresh forms. Language faithfully reflects the spirit of the age so that words of longstanding can readily modify their meaning in accordance with the latest outlook of a given society.

SEMINAR 2
WORD-FORMATION IN MODERN ENGLISH

Topics for discussion:

1. The morphological structure of a word. The morpheme. The principles of morphemic analysis. Types of morphemes. Structural types of words: simple, derived, compound words.

2. Productivity. Productive and non-productive ways of word-formation.

3. Affixation. General characteristics of suffixes and prefixes. Classification of prefixes according to: a) their correlation with independent words; b) meaning; c) origin. Classification of suffixes according to: a) the part of speech formed; b) the criterion of sense; c) stylistic reference; d) origin.

4. Productive and non-productive affixes, dead and living affixes.

5. Word-composition. Classification of compound words: a)from the functional point of view; b)from the point of view of the way the components of the compound are linked together; c)from the point of view of different ways of composition

Exercise 1.

Analyse the following words morphologically and classify them according to what part of speech they belong to:

Post-election, appoint, historic, mainland, classical, letterbox, outcome, displease, step, incapable, supersubtle, illegible, incurable, adjustment, childhood, elastic, perceptible, inaccessible, partial, ownership, idealist, hero, long-term, corporate.

Exercise 2.

Analyse the structure of the following compounds and classify them into coordinative and subordinative, syntactic and asyntactic:

Bookbinder, doorbell, key-note, knife-and-fork, hot-tempered, dry-clean, care-free, policy-maker, mad-brained, five-fold, two-faced, body-guard, do-it-yourself, boogie-woogie. officer-director, driver-collector, building-site.

Exercise 3.

Classify the compound words in the following sentences into compounds proper and derivational compounds:

1) She is not a mind-reader. *2)* He was wearing a brand-new hat. 3) She never said she was homesick. 4) He took the hours-old dish away. 5) She was a frank-mannered, talkative young lady. 6) The five years of her husband's newspaper-ownership had familiarised her almost unconsciously with many of the mechanical aspects of a newspaper printing-shop. 7) The parlour, brick-floored, with bare table and shiny chairs and sofa stuffed with horsehair seemed never to have been used. 8) He was heart-sore over the sudden collapse of a promising career. 9) His heavy-lidded eyes and the disorder of his scanty hair made him look sleepy.

SEMINAR 3
WORD-FORMATION IN MODERN ENGLISH (CONTINUED)

Topics for discussion:

1. Conversion, its definition. The word-building means in conversion. Different view-points on conversion. Typical semantic relations within a converted pair (verbs converted from nouns, nouns converted from verbs).

2. Shortening. Lexical abbreviations. Acronyms. Clipping. Types of clipping.

3. Non-productive means of word formation. Blending. Back-formation. Onomatopoeia. Sentence - condensation. Sound and stress interchange.

Exercise 1.

Study the following passage and be ready to discuss denominal verbs in Modern English.

The meanings of ordinary denominal verbs are seem to be clear, bear at least an approximate relationship to their "parent" nouns, from which they were historically derived. The verb *bottle* bears some relation, at last diachronically, to its parent noun *bottle*. To illustrate the major relationships, we will present classification of more than 1300 denominal verbs collected from newspaper, magazines, novels, television. To make our task manageable, we have included only those verbs that fit these four guidelines:

(a) Each verb had to be formed from its parent noun without affixation (though with possible final voicing, as in *shelve).* This is by far the commonest method of forming denominal verbs in English.

(b) The parent noun of each verb had to denote a palpable object or property of such an object, as in *sack, knee,* and *author* - but not climax, function, or question.

(c) Each verb had to have a non-metaphorical concrete use as far as possible. This again was to help keep our theory of interpretation within limits, although in some cases we couldn't avoid examining certain extended meanings.

(d) Each verb had to be usable as a genuine finite verb. This excluded expressions like three - towered and six - legged, which occur only as denominal adjectives. (E. Clark and H. Clark. When nouns surface as verbs).

Exercise 2.

Comment on the formation of the words given below: *to burgle, to springclean, to typewrite, to beg, to note.*

Exercise 3.

Explain the formation of the following blends: *flush, glaze, good-bye, electrocute, pomato, twirl, dollarature, cablegram, galumph, frutopia drink.*

Exercise 4.

Give verbs corresponding to the nouns that have been underlined. Compare the place of the stress in the noun and the verb.

1. He looked up all among the trees he saw moving objects, red like poppies, or white like May-blossoms. 2.I am not sure that I can define my fears: but we all have a certain anxiety at present about our friends. 3. Accent is the elevation of the voice which distinguishes one part of a word from another. 4. Her conduct was deferential.

Exercise 5.

Abbreviate the following nouns to the first syllable.

Mitten, doctor, grandmother, cabriolet, public, house, gymnasium, proprietor, fraternity, labouratory, margarine, sister, mathematics, trigonometry, veterinary, gladiolus.

Exercise 6.

Supply the corresponding full names for the given abbreviations of American state (e.g. Colo - Colourado) and so: *Ala., Cal., Fla., Ga., Ill., Ind., Kan., Ken., Md., N.D., NJ, NY, Oreg., S.C., Tex.*

SEMINAR 4
SEMASIOLOGY

Topics for discussion:

1. Semasiology as the branch of linguistics. Referential and functional approaches to meaning. Definition of meaning.

2. Meaning and concept (notion).

3. Types of word meaning: lexical, grammatical meanings. Denotational and connotational components of lexical meaning. Implicational meaning.

4. Polysemy. The semantic structure of a polysemantic word.

5. Context. Types of context.

6. Change of meaning. Extension, narrowing, elevation, degradation of meaning of a word, metaphor, metonymy.

Exercise 1.

Using a dictionary determine the direct meaning of the underlined words, which are used here in their figurative metaphorical meanings.

1. Art is a vehicle of propaganda. 2. Raise the bonnet of the car. 3. Don't fumble for excuses. 4. He's always ready to shove the responsibility on others. 5. I'm sure he didn't steal the thing. It had been planted 6. This event is a milestone in the history of the country. 7. It will soil his reputation. 8. I'll swelter in this coat on such a hot day. 9. There is a snag in your argument 10. A smile creased his face. 11. I stumbled through the text somehow. 12. You have a fertile imagination.

Exercise 2.

Determine the meanings of the words *"house"*, *"white"*, *"die"* in the following contexts. Say what concept is realised in these lexical meanings. Discuss the problem "concept-meaning".

1. A house in the country. A full house. Every word was heard in all parts of the house. White House. An ancient trading house in the city. A noisy cheerful house. To keep house. To bring down the house. To leave one's father's house. On the house. 2. White clouds. White hair. A white elephant. The white race. White magic. White meat. As white as snow White wine. It's white of you. White lie. 3. Die of hunger. Die a violent death. Die in one's bed. The day is dying. Die to the world. I'm dying to know. His secret died with him. Die in harness. Die game. Never say die.

SEMINAR 5
ENGLISH VOCABULARY AS A SYSTEM

Topics for discussion:

1. Definition of the term "synonyms"'. A synonymic group and its dominant member.

2. Problem of classification of synonyms:

a) different principles of classification: according to difference in denotational component of meaning or in connotational component (ideographic or stylistic synonyms);

b) according to the criterion of interchangeability in linguistic context (relative, total and contextual synonyms).

3. Characteristic pattern of English synonyms.

4. The sources of synonymy.

5. Homonyms. Classification. Origin of homonyms.

Exercise 1.

Study the list of the synonyms given below and classify them into the following groups:

a) synonyms which display an obvious difference in denotational component of meaning (ideographical); b) synonyms which differ in connotational component of meaning (stylistic).

b) *Lazy, Idle, Indolent*:

The words mean "not active", "not in use or operation", "doing nothing".

Lazy - can be used without implying reproach or condemnation, e.g. lazy afternoon, the boy is too lazy to learn, I'm looking for a helper who is not incurably lazy.

Idle - suggests temporary inactivity or doing nothing through necessity, and hence carries no implication of faultfinding; e.g. The machines are idle during the noon hour Because supplies did not arrive that day, the work crew was idle for seven hours.

Indolent - is applied to someone who not only avoids effort but likes to indulge inrelaxation. E.g. John was a contented, indolent fisherman. Selling from door to door is no occupation for an indolent person.

Home. House

These words identify any kind of shelter that serves as the residence of a person, family or household. *House* lacks the associated meanings attributed to *home,* a term that suggests comfort, peace, love and family

ties. It may be said that what a builder erects is a *house* which, when lived in, becomes a *home*. Such a statement may be considered sentimental, echoing the lines of Edgar A. Guest ("It takes a heap o'livin' in a house t' make it home).

Sentiment or not, one usually speaks of "buying home" and "selling a house". But firemen put out a fire in a *house*, not a *home*, and reference is always made to a *house and let;* not a *home and let*. Conversely, one usually refers to a *home* for the aged, not a *house* for the aged. Since *home* and *house* are so subtly different in use, why not sometimes resort to *Residence* and *Dwelling* and save confusion ? (Harry Show. Dictionary of Problem Words and Expressions, 1975).

Exercise 2.

Define the stylistic colouring of the underlined words, substitute them with a neutral synonym from the list given below.

1. Their discourse was interrupted. 2. He was dressed like a toff. 3. She passed away. 4. The old man kicked the bucket. 5. Where is Daddy ? 6. Come on, let's put on steam. 7. Meet my better half. 8. He must have gone off his rodder. 9. Come down to brass tacks. 10. Jack took his departure. 11. Well, let's drift. 12. Somebody has nailed my bag. 13. This is a case for a vet 14. He is a joiner.

A doctor, to steal, to go, to leave, to go on, please, to put out, come to the point, to go out of one's mind, a wife, a father, to die, to talk, a gentleman, good company.

Exercise 3.

Using a dictionary state the main semantic differences between the members of the following synonymic groups. Say, whether these differences lie within the denotational or connotational components of meaning.

Gather, collect, assemble, congregate; discuss, argue, debate, dispute; help, aid, assist; employ, hire; mend, repair, patch, rebuild: occupation, calling, vocation, business; position, place, situation, post.

Exercise 4.

Fill in the blanks with a suitable paronym. Campaign, company.

1. The election, ... in England lasts about a month. 2. It was Napoleon's last.... 3. When ... stays too long, treat them like members of the family and they'll soon leave. 4. Misery loves... . 5. Come along for... 6. Two are..., three are none. 7. The film ... merged. 8. Don't talk about your diseases in ....

SEMINAR 6
THE VOCABULARY OF A LANGUAGE AS A SYSTEM (CONTINUED)

Topics for discussion:

1. The English vocabulary as an adaptive system. Neologisms.
2. Traditional lexicological grouping. Lexico-grammatical groups. Word-families.
3. The concept of polarity of meaning. Antonyms. Morphological classification of antonyms: absolute or root antonyms and derivational antonyms. Semantic classification of antonyms: antonyms proper, complementaries, conversives.
4. The theory of the semantic field. Common semantic denominator.
5. Thematic or ideographic groups. Common contextual associations,
6. Hyponymy, paradigmatic relation of inclusion. Hyponyms, hyperonyms, equonyms.

Exercise 1.

Comment on the way of formation of the following neologisms:

Accessorise, aeroneurosis, astrogation, built-in, de-orbit, gadgeteer, laseronic, robotics, sanforise, urbanologism, vitaminise.

Exercise 2.

Arrange the following units into three semantic fields - feelings, parts of the body, education.

Academy, affection, arm, back, belly, body, bood, brow, calf, calmness, cheek chest, classes, classmate, coaching, college, contempt, contentment, correspondence, course, curriculum, day-student, delight, don, drill, ear, education, elbow, encyclopedia, enthusiasm, envy, erudition, excitement, exercise, exhilaration, eye, face, faculty, finger, foot, forehead, frustration, grammar, hair, hand, happiness, head, headmaster, heel, homework, ignorance, impatience, indifference, indignation, instruction, jealousy, joint, kindness, knee, knowledge, knuckle, learning, lecturer, leg, limb, love, malice, master, neck, nose, passion, pedagogy, primer, rapture, relief, restlessness, satisfaction, scholar, science, temple, tenderness, textbook, tight, thrill, thumb, toe, torso, tutor, undergraduate, university, unrest, waist, wrath.

Exercise 3.

Classify the following pairs of antonyms given below:

Slow - fast, post-war - pre-war, happiness - unhappiness, above - below, asleep awake, appear - disappear, late - early, ugly - beautiful, distraction - attraction, spend – save

Exercise 4.

Put the following words into thematic groups according to their contextual associations:

Air, challenger, transaction, championship, classification, profit, dig, flower, globalisation, garden, green, marketing, grow, juice, competitive, jump, language, match, preconditions, meaning, outrun, restructuring, overrun, participate, diversifier, principles, race sports, bargaining, system, water, weed, ward, relaunch.

SEMINAR 7
FREE WORD-GROUPS

Topics for discussion:

1. The problem of definition of free word-groups. Various approaches to the definition of the term "word-group". Difference between a word-group and a set phrase.
2. Structure of free word-groups: syntactic connection as the criterion of classification (subordinative, coordinative, predicative), classification of subordinative free word-groups according to their head-words (nominal, adjectival, verbal etc.).
3. Meaning of free word-groups: lexical meaning, structural meaning, Interrelation of structural and lexical meanings in word-groups. Motivation in word-groups.
4. Lexical and grammatical valency.

Exercise 1.

Match the numbers on the left with the letters on the right.

1. dark	a. certainty
2. dead	b. drugs
3. dirty	c. horse
4. easy	d. line
5. hard	e. one
6. high	f. option
7. last	g. spirits
8. number	h. times
9. package	i. tour

10. party j. supply
11. short k. word
12. soft l. work

Exercise 2.

Read the text and insert the words missed.

1) Why do you always give me the ... to do - why don't you give it to someone else for a change?

2) She is a very stubborn person and always insists on having the ...

3) The MP was criticised by the Prime Minister for not towing the ...

4) Good jobs are in ... these days so you'll just have to take what you can get.

5) How do you feel about the use of...

Exercise 3.

Read the text and be prepared to discuss it.

In his book "Language" Leonard Bloomfield presents the following classification, illustrated by means of examples taken from English:

A. Endocentric constructions: 1) coordinative (or serial) and 2) subordinative (or attributive); B. Exocentric constructions.

Bloomfield's classification is made by means of criterion of distribution, i.e. syntactic use, in about the following way. A group is called coordinative, if it has the same distribution as two or more of its members: boys and girls; bread and butter; coffee, tea and milk. A group is called subordinative, if it has the same distribution as one of its members: fresh milk, very fresh. In "fresh milk" the member "*milk*" is called the "*head*" and "*fresh*"- the "*adjunct*". Coordinative and subordinative groups are called "endocentric".

A group is called exocentric, if it has a distribution different from either of the members, e.g. John ran; with John; if John ran away, (greater) than -John(...) (A. William de Groot. Classification of Word-Groups).

Answer the following questions:

1. What is the criterion of Bloomfield's classification of word-groups?
2. What is the difference between coordinative and subordinative groups in Bloomfield's classification?
3. What are the distinguishing features of endocentric and exocentric word-groups?

SEMINAR 8
PHRASEOLOGY

Topics for Discussion:

1. Free word combination and phraseological word combination. The problem of definition of phraseological word combination. The essential features of phraseological units: lack of semantic motivation (idiomaticity) and lexical and grammatical stability. The concept of reproducibility.
2. Different approaches to the classification of phraseological units: semantic, functional (according to their grammatical structure), contextual.
3. Academician V.V.Vinogradov's classification of phraseological units.
4. Stylistic aspect of phraseology. Polysemy and Synonymy of Phraseological Units.

Exercise 1.

Explain the meaning of the following combinations of words: a) as free word combinations and b) as phraseological units.

Be on firm ground, best man, the bird has flown, black ball, blow one's own trumpet (horn), break the ice, burn one's fingers, first night, keep one's head above water, meet smb. half-way, show smb. the door, run straight, touch bottom, throw dust in one's eyes, throw fat in the fire.

Exercise 2.

State which of the phraseological units are a) fusions b) unities c) collocations (combinations).

Bark up the wrong tree, air one's views, turn a blind eye to smth., to hit below the bolt, to lower one's colours, to make a mistake, once in a blue moon, to make haste, sharp words, to stick to one's guns, to know the way the wind is blowing, small talk, take the bull by the horns, pull smb's leg, cat's paw, lady's man, by heart, green room

Exercise 3.

Match the combinations on the left with explanations on the right:

1) put through	a) at the centre of public attention
2) put in a good word for	b) immediately or at the place of action
3) on the spot	c) connect by telephone
4) bring up	d) tolerate, endure
5) have your back against the wall	e) explain or communicate clearly

6) in the spotlight	f) consider carefully, assess
7) put up with	g) recommend someone
8) put across	h) raise, mention a matter
9) weigh up	i) say something irrelevant
10) get away from the point	j) be in a difficult situation

Exercise 4.

In the list below find set expressions, corresponding to the following definitions.

1. Express one's opinion openly, often with the suggestion of doing so to the annoyance of other people. 2. Direct one's attack, criticism or efforts to the wrong quarter. 3. Bear the 3 main stress or burden (of a task, contest, etc.). 4. Talk around the point instead of coming direct to the subject. 5. Fail to carry out one's promise. 6. Change ownership (generally used of a business). 7. Constantly follow smb. importunately, thrust one's presence upon smb. 8. Fail to gain any information, or achieve any result from inquiries, investigation, etc. 9. Be docile; give no trouble; do whatever smb. wishes. 10. Pay all the expenses incurred. 11. Do smth. completely; not stop at half-measures. 12. Give in, surrender. 13. Be almost decided to do smth. 14. State the real facts about a situation, guess accurately. 15. Push oneself in front of a queue in order to get on to a vehicle, or to get served with goods before one's turn. 16. Remain mentally calm, and keep control of oneself in an emergency or a difficult situation. 17. Know, from experience, the best way or method of doing something. 18. Help, assist. 19. Indulge in strong or violent language to relieve one's feelings. 20. Pass the time by continuing some kind of work or activity without getting any father to it. 21. Draw an inference from given facts. 22. Be in agreement, hold similar views. 23. Run away hurriedly. 24. Ignore smth, pretend not to see it. 25. Disclaim further responsibility or concern.

The list:

Jump the queue; bark up the wrong tree; foot the bill; let off steam; see eye to eye; air one's views; lend a hand; haul down one's flag; beat about the bush; take to one's heels; eat out of smb's hand; mark time; hit the nail on the head; keep ole's head; change hands; turn a blind eye to smth.; put two and two together; bear the brunt; know the ropes; have a good mind to do smth ; break one's word; draw a blank; go the whole hog; dog smb's footsteps; wash one's hands of smth.

SEMINAR 9
PHRASEOLOGY (continued)

Topics for discussion:

1. N.N.Amosova's concept of contextual analysis. Definition of fixed context.
2. S.V.Koonin's concept of phraseological units. Functional and semantic classification of phraseological units.
3. Formal and functional classification.
4. Phraseological stability.
5. Proverbs, sayings, familiar quotations and cliches.

Exercise 1.

Find phraseological units in the sentences given below. Translate phraseological units. Compare them with the relevant word-groups. Comment upon difference between free word-group and phraseological unit. Answer the questions following.

1. I've let the cat out of the bag already, Mr Corthali, and I might as well tell the whole thing now. 2. Suddenly Sugar screwed up his face in pain and grabbing one foot in his hands hopped around like a cat on hot bricks. "Can't we get a tram, Jack? My feet is giving me hell in these now (new) shoes." 3. No doubt a life devoted to pleasure must sometimes show the reverse side of the medal. 4. The day's news has knocked the bottom out of my life. 5. Cowperwood had decided that he didn't care to sail under any false colours so far as Addison was concerned. 6. Falstaff... I was beaten myself into all the colours of the rainbow. 7. About three weeks after the elephant's disappearance I was about to say one morning, that I should have to strike my colours and retire, when the great detective arrested the thought by proposing one more superb and masterly move. 8. We lived among bankers and city big wigs.

Questions:

1. What do we mean by the term 'fixed context'? Do phraseological units given above belong to 'phrasemes' or 'idioms'?
2. To which group do these phraseological units belong if we follow V.V.Vinogradov's classification?

Exercise 1.

Determine which of the underlined word-combinations are phraseological units.

1. Where do you think you lost your purse? 2. When losing the game one shouldn't lose one's temper. 3. Have a look at the reverse side of the coat. 4. The reverse side of the medal is that we'll have to do it ourselves. 5. Keep the butter in the refrigerator. 6. Keep an eye on the child. 7. He threw some cold water upon her. Wake up. 8. I didn't expect that he would throw cold water upon our project. 9. The tourists left the beaten track and saw a lot of interesting places, 10. The author leaves the beaten track and offers a new treatment of the subject. 11. I don't want to have a bushman's holiday. 12. Let's stretch a point for him. 13. The weak go to the wall. 14. She looks as if butter wouldn't melt in her mouth.

Exercise 2.

The following expressions can help you to describe people. Think literally and figuratively of people who

have head for heights
have got light fingers
are feeling under the weather
spend money like water
have got ants in their pants
have good ear for music
are in the red
have recently been given the brush off by somebody
easily fly off the handle

SEMINAR 10
THE VARIETIES OF ENGLISH

Topics for discussion:

1. Standard English
2. The Differences between accents, dialects and variants
3. Dialectology and Regional Dialects
4. Influence to British English
5. Cockney dialect
6. Some Differences between British English and American English

Exercise1.

Read and Learn.

British and American English

Vocabulary differences between British and American usage as well as differences in shade and meaning in the common stock of words are

also numerous. For instance, in Britain *an information bureau* is an *inquiry office*, a *ticket agent* is a *booking clerk*, a *freight car* is a goods *waggon*. *Dessert* in Britain means *fruit*, and you must use *sweet* if you want a *dessert*, while if you ask for *biscuits*, you will get *crackers*. The British equivalent of a *cigar-store* is a *tobacconist's*. Some of the biggest differences are in the words used for basic everyday things . such as common foods, household equipment, and the parts of a car. For example:

British word	**American word**
mobile phone	cellphone
petrol	gas
tap	faucet
cooker	stove
dustbin	garbage can
aubergine	eggplant
sweets	candy
bonnet	hood
boot	trunk
windscreen	windshield
chips	French fries, fries

Exercise 2.

Look at the following examples of American English and rewrite them in British English.

Did you take your vacation yet ?_____

Do you have a pen ? _____

He could have gotten killed . _____

He visited with his friends. _____

I saw him Friday _____

I stayed home last night. _____

It's a quarter after six. _____

He looked at me real strange_____

The bank works from Monday thru Friday ._____

Hi, is this Harold? _____

Pardon me, do you have...? _____

Exercise 3.

Change the following British words for their American equivalents.

A lorry, a fellow, a pavement, a lift, a postman, a tram, a railway, a film, holidays, a timetable, a form, a note, a hostel, a flat, a sweet, the

chemist's, a shop, trousers, a mackintosh, crisps, tap, football, petrol, dustbin, vest, cooker..

SEMINAR 11
FUNDAMENTALS OF ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY

Topics for Discussion

1. History of Lexicography: a) the history of British Lexicography; b) the history of American Lexicography.
2. The main problems in lexicography.
3. Types of dictionaries.

Exercise 1.

1. Analyse V. Muller's Anglo-Russian Dictionary, state what type it belongs to; comment on the principles of selection of words, structure of dictionary entry, what information about a word can be deduced from the dictionary entry.

2. Analyse I.R.Galperin's Big Anglo-Russian Dictionary, state what type it belongs to; comment on the principles of selection of words, structure of dictionary entry; what information about a word can be deduced from the dictionary entry.

3. According to the above suggested pattern (see the table) analyse the dictionaries: The Concise Oxford Dictionary, Webster's New World Dictionary.

Exercise 2.

Choose one word out of the following list: *head, hand, arm, body, thing, to go, to take, to be* and analyse its dictionary entry and its semantic structure as presented in the following dictionaries:

1. V.Muller's Anglo-Russian Dictionary;
2. The Concise Oxford English Dictionary;
3. The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary on Historical Principles
4. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English by L.S.Hornby

Answer the following questions

1. How are the dictionary entries (for the word under analysis) built in these dictionaries? What information is contained in the dictionary entry?

2. How many meanings constitute the semantic structure of the word? How are they explained?

3. What meaning comes first in different dictionaries? Explain the difference, if any.

4. What shapes of meanings are registered by the dictionary (main/derived, primary/secondary, direct/figurative, general/special).

THE SUGGESTED SCHEME OF LEXICOLOGICAL ANALYSIS

I. Etymology of the words, Identify native and foreign words in the text (of Greek. Latin, French, Italian, Spanish, Russian etc, origin). Determine the type of assimilation (phonetic, grammatical, lexical), the degree of assimilation (complete, partial, lack of assimilation).

II. Word-formation. Find productive and non-productive ways of word-formation in the text. Find derived and compound words in the text Determine the type of word-derivation (affixation or conversion). State morphemic structure of the derived words, types of morphemes Determine the type of compound words (compound proper, derivational compounds, words of secondary derivation). Find other cases of word formation in the text.

III. Free-word groups. Pick out from the text some free word-groups, determine their type according to the syntactic connection between the components. Classify the selected free word-groups according to the part of speech the head-word belongs to. Define the context (grammatical, lexical) for the headword in the selected word-groups.

IV. Phraseological Units. Find the phraseological units in the text. Making use of semantic, contextual and functional classifications of phraseological units define their types.

V. Semantics. Define the meanings of words in free word-groups which you selected for the analysis. Using the dictionary state whether the words are used in their main or derived meanings. Determine the context (lexical or grammatical) which helps to actualise the meaning of polysemantic word.

QUESTIONS

1. Subdivisions of Lexicology.
2. The suffixes of parts of speech
3. Productive and non-productive suffixes
4. Two types of prefixes
5. The classification of clippings
6. Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of conversion
7. The grammatical meaning of the word
8. The lexical meaning of the word
9. Types of lexical meaning
10. Polysemantic and monosemantic words
11. Homonymy and its classification
12. Types of conversion
13. Sources of homonyms
14. Contextual and total synonymy
15. The classification of antonyms
16. The V.V. Vinogradov's classification of phraseological units
17. The A.V. Koonin's classification of phraseological units
18. English proverbs, sayings and quotation
19. The phonetic difference of English in Great Britain and in the USA
20. The dialects of the English language
21. Standard English
22. The variants of English in Great Britain
23. Borrowings in the English language
24. Types of dictionaries
25. The history of English lexicography
26. The best known dictionaries
27. Translation dictionaries
28. Specialized dictionaries
29. The structure of the dictionary
30. The complicated type of entry in explanatory dictionaries
31. What is the subject – matter of lexicology?
32. What types of lexicology do you know?
33. What is the difference between general and special lexicologies?
34. What is the difference between descriptive and historical lexicology?

35. What is the difference between comparative and noncomparative lexicologies?
36. What is the difference between the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relationships in words?
37. What do you know about diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of the vocabulary of the language?
38. What is the matter of linguistic analysis used in Modern lexicology?
39. What can you say about the connection of lexicology with an other aspects of the language?
40. How is lexicology connected with grammar (phonetics, stylistics, history of the language)?
41. What is a morpheme?
42. What is the difference between a morpheme and a phoneme? A morpheme and a word?
43. What types of morphemes do you know?
44. What is the stem? What types of stems do you know?
45. What are he synchronic and diachronic approaches to the analysis of the stem?
46. What is the subject – matter of word formation?
47. What can you say about the types of word formation?
48. What do you understand by affixation?
49. What is a affixation subdivided into?
50. What is a prefix and a suffix?
51. What do you understand by dead and living affixes?
52. What difference can you see between productive and non-productive affixes?
53. What do you understand by the term "shortening"?
54. What is the peculiarity of shortened words?
55. What is the classification of the clippings?
56. What distinction is made between abbreviation and clippings?
57. What do you understand by the term sound interchange?
58. What is the origin of conversion?
59. What are the most common types of conversion do you know?
60. What does semasiology study?
61. What is the definition of the term "meaning of a word"?
62. What is the difference between the grammatical meaning and the lexical meaning?

63. Which types of the lexical meaning do you know?
64. What is the difference between polysemantic and monosemantic words?
65. Are these complete synonyms in English?
66. What is the dominant of a synonymic group?
67. What is the difference between idegraphic synonyms and stylistic ones?
68. What are the main sources of synonyms?
69. What is a homonym?
70. What is the classification of homonyms?
71. What is a homophone?
72. What principle of classification of homonyms was given by Smirnitskiy?
73. What are the main sources of homonyms?
74. What is the difference between homonyms and polysemy?
75. What is the classification of antonyms?
76. What is the interchangeability of antonyms in context?
77. What are the semantic fields?
78. What are the most common peculiarities of phraseological units
79. What is the polysemy of phraseological units?
80. What are the semantic differences of English words in Great Britain and in the USA?
81. The Lexical Meaning of the word and its Semantic Structure.
82. What Suffixes and Prefixes can help you to recognize the words of Latin and
French origin?
83. Why are words borrowed and which conditions stimulate the borrowing process?
84. Stages of Assimilation of the borrowed words.
85. Morphemes. Free and Bound Morphemes
86. Connotations. The Emotional Content
87. Denotative Meaning of a word.
88. Productive and Non-productive affixes
89. Significative Meaning. Grammatical Meaning
90. Aims and principles of Morphemic and Word-formation Analysis.
91. Etymologic Doublet
92. Semasiology and Semantics
93. Semantic Components.

94. The Lexical Meaning and the Notion- Types of Semantic Components distinguished within the Meaning.

95. Compound words. The Criteria of Compounds. Classification of Compounds

96. Derivational and Functional Affixes

97. What are the characteristic features of Translation Loans?

98. Connection of Lexicology with Phonetics, Stylistics and Grammar

99. Shortening (contraction). Give the definition and examples

100. Minor types of Modern word-building. Reduplication. Back-formation

101. Semantic change of a word

102. Theoretical and practical value of Lexicology.

103. Etymological structure of the English Vocabulary.

104. What is Phraseology?

105. Sources of Synonymy

106. Definitions of phraseology by Russian, British and the USA scholars.

107. Euphemisms.

108. Semi-Affixes.

109. International words.

110. Lexicology, its links with other branches of linguistics

111. Semiotics, types of signs, basic features and laws of linguistic signs.

112. Types of borrowings. Reasons for borrowings

113. Theory of nomination. Types of names.

114. Etymological classification of the English vocabulary

115. The word as the basic unit of the language.

116. Paradigmatic & syntagmatic relations of words.

117. What does the shortening mean?

118. Terms. Archaisms. Neologisms.

119. Theory of meaning. Types of meaning according Vinogradov.

120. Lexical and grammatical meaning. Lexicalization & grammaticalization.

121. Denotation and signification.

122. Cognitive & pragmatic meaning of the word. Denotative & connotative.

123. Componential analysis of meaning

124. Homonymy & polysemy. Sources of homonymy.

125. Semantic changes. The reasons of the semantic changes.

126. Tell about way of word-formation with prefix and suffix.

127. Phraseology. Types of phraseological units.

128. Word formation in English. Major types.
129. Explain necessity of creation universal dictionaries
130. Semantic contrasts. Antonyms & conversives
131. The native element of the English vocabulary
132. The structure of lexical meaning according to Nikitin
133. General Lexicology and Special Lexicology
134. Typology of semems
135. The general and individual lexicology
136. The Lexical Meaning of the word and its Semantic Structure
137. Why are words borrowed and which conditions stimulate the borrowing process?
138. Types of homonyms
139. What is the principle of construction of ideographic dictionaries?
140. Classification of Suffixes
141. Theory of the Word. Definitions
142. Morphological Structure of English Words
143. Descriptive Lexicology
144. Tell about professional (special) terminology
145. Prefixes. Valency
146. Morphemes. Free and Bound Morphemes
147. Denotional meaning of a word.
148. Productive and Non-productive affixes
149. The variants of English in Great Britain
150. What is the difference between descriptive and historical lexicology?

ACTIVITIES AND VARIANTS OF QUESTIONS FOR SELF-CONTROL

Basic Vocabulary

Basic Vocabulary	Informal	Formal
begin	start, get started	commence
continue	go on, get on	proceed
end	finish, be through, be over	terminate
child, baby	kid, brat, beam (dial.)	infant, babe (poet.)

Some Productive affixes

Noun-forming suffixes	-er, -ing, -ness, -ism(materialism), -ist (impressionist), -ance
Adjective-forming suffixes	-y, -ish, -ed (learned), -able, -less
Adverb-forming suffixes	-ly
Verb-forming suffixes	-ize/-ise (realize), -ate
Prefixes	un-(unhappy) , re-(reconstruct), dis-(disappoint)

Some Non-Productive affixes

Noun-forming suffixes	-th, -hood
Adjective-forming suffixes	-ly, -some, -en, -ous
Verb-forming suffixes	-en

French affixes

Nouns	The suffix *-ance*	Arrogance, endurance, hindrance, etc
	The suffix *-ence*	Consequence, intelligent, patience, etc.
	The suffix *-ment*	Appointment, development, experiment, etc.
	The suffix *-age*	Courage, marriage, passage, village, etc.
	The suffix *-ess*	Tigress, lioness, actress, adventuress, etc.

Adjectives	The suffix *-ous*	Curious, dangerous, joyous, serious, etc.
Verbs	The prefix *-en*	Enable, endear, enact, enfold, enslave, etc.

V-1

1. Lexicology, its links with other branches of linguistics
2. Semiotics, types of signs, basic features and laws of linguistic signs.
2. See if you can find the root words and their origin for the following words: - *megalomania; propinquity; pyromania.*

V-2

1. Theory of nomination. Types of names.
2. Theory of reference. Referential functions of the word. Intension & extension.
3. Explain the abbreviations: *DCCX; BBC*

V-3

1. The word as the basic unit of the language. Paradigmatic & syntagmatic relations of words.
2. Identity of unit problem.
3. What does the shortening mean? *adv; attr; cj; conj.*

V-4

1. Size-of-unit problem.
2 Theory of meaning. Types of meaning according Vinogradov.
3.See if you can find the root words and their origin for the following words: *egotism; ineluctable; upererogatory*

V-5

1. Lexical and grammatical meaning. Lexicalization & grammaticalization.
2. Denotation and signification.
3. Interpret the abbreviations: *CNN; WFP*

V-6

1. Cognitive & pragmatic meaning of the word. Denotative & connotative.
2. Componential analysis of meaning. Typology of semesiology.
3. See if you can find the root words and their origin for the following words: *iconoclasm; equipoise; ontiguous*

V-7

1. Homonymy & polysemy. Sources of homonymy. Mechanisms of polysemy.
2. Semantic changes. The reasons of the semantic changes.
3. What does the shortening mean? *demonstr.; emph; etc; imp.*

V-8

1. Metaphorization.
2. Word formation in English. Major types.
3. What does the shortening mean? *impers.; indef.; inf.; inter*

V-9

1. Social, stylistic & regional variants of English.
2. Semantic and non-semantic grouping of lexical units.
3. What does the shortening mean? *perf.; pers.; pl.; poss.*

V-10

1. Synonymy and its sources.
2. Semantic contrasts. Antonyms & conversives. Enantiosemy.
3. Interpret the abbreviations: *IELTS; TOEFL*

V-11

1. Terms. Archaisms. Neologisms.
2. Types of borrowings. Reasons for borrowings. Periods of borrowings.
3. What does the shortening mean? *p.p.; predict.; pref.; prep.*

V-12

1. Phraseology. Types of Phraseological units.
2. Etymological classification of the English vocabulary. The native element of the English vocabulary.

3. What does the shortening mean? *pres.p.; pron.; recipr.; refl.*

V-13

1. The structure of lexical meaning according to Nikitin.
2. Metonymy. Types of metonymy.
3. What does the shortening mean? *rel; sign;sl;v.*

V-14

1. The Object of Lexicology. General Lexicology and Special Lexicology!
2. Celtic borrowings in English. Date them and give examples.
3. Interpret the abbreviations: *NATO; MoF*

V-15

1. Words introduced into English Vocabulary during the period of Christianization.
2. Semantic structure of English words.
3. What does the shortening mean? *vi.; vt.*

V-16

1. Lexicology as a branch of linguistics. The general and individual lexicology
2. Tell about way of word-formation with prefix and suffix.
3. See if you can find the root words and their origin for the following words: *neurasthenia; sesquipedalian*

V-17

1. What are traditionally repeating combinations of words refer to? To what combinations do they resist?
2. Explain necessity of creation universal dictionaries.
3. Decide where following suffixes or prefixes and give examples. *-able-, -arch-, -ary-, -ee-.*

V-18

1. The role of a roof in word formation?
2. Tell about professional (special) terminology.
3. Interpret the abbreviations: *UNDP; US-AID*

V-19

1. What are the periods of form development in the history of practical Lexicology?
2. Explain the necessity of creating a dictionary of the author's language
3. Interpret the abbreviations: *AIDS; UNESCO*

V-20

1. Synecdoche: Its definition, characteristics and examples.
2. What is loan translation in the sphere of antagonisms?
3. Decide where following suffixes or prefixes and give examples: *-age-; -cy-; -eme-; -er.*

V-21

1. Explain what is the "reverse of word formation" (Inversion)
2. What means the idea of grammatical meaning of a given word or its separate form?
3. Decide where following suffixes or prefixes and give examples: *-ful-; -gate-; -ship-; -ment-*

V-22

1. Types of homonyms.
2. What is the principle of construction of ideographic dictionaries?
3. Decide where following suffixes or prefixes and give examples: *-auto-; -anti-; -co-; -in-*

V-23

1.Give examples of words, which are moved to public from professional due to theirs wide usage and special subjects' names, which they characterize.

2. The object of lexicology. General lexicology and special lexicology.
3. Interpret the abbreviations: *WWW; US-AID*

V-24

1. Celtic borrowings in English. Date them and give examples.
2. Words introduced into English Vocabulary during the period of Christianization.
3. Decide where following suffixes or prefixes and give examples:

-de-; -demo-; -di-; -hemi-

V-25

1. Semantic structure of English words.
2. Classification of Suffixes.
3. Decide where following suffixes or prefixes and give examples.
   -multi-; -uni-; -pre-; -pro-

V-26

1. What are the characteristic features of Scandinavian borrowings? Give examples.
2. Theory of the Word. Definitions.
3. What is the best Russian equivalent for the phrases?
   "To be a real cool cat "; "To blow one's stack";
   "To fly off the handle"

V-27

1. Morphological Structure of English Words.
2. Descriptive Lexicology.
3. Decide where following suffixes or prefixes and give examples:
   -mal-; -maxi-: -non-; -out-

V-28

1. Semasiology.
2. Prefixes. Valency.
3. Decide where following suffixes or prefixes and give examples:
   -trans-; -ultra-; -pre-; -post-

V-29

1. What are the characteristic features of words borrowed into English during the Renaissance?
2. The Lexical Meaning of the word and its Semantic Structure.
3. Make a morphological analysis of the words: *offspring, oncoming, oneself, online, onlooker*

V-30

1. What Suffixes and Prefixes can help you to recognize the words of Latin and

French origin?

2. Why are words borrowed and which conditions stimulate the borrowing process?

3. Make a morphological analysis of the words: *overhead, overland, overleaf, overload*

V-31

1. Stages of Assimilation of the borrowed words.
2. Valency.
3. Make a morphological analysis of the words: *underclothing, undercooked, undergo, undergrowth*

V-32

1. Morphemes. Free and Bound Morphemes
2. Connotations. The Emotional Content!
3. Interpret the abbreviations: *MA; MBA;PhD*

TOPICS FOR ESSAYS AND PRESENTATIONS

1. A Word as the Unit of Language and as the Unit of Speech.
2. Concept and Meaning.
3. Synchronic and Diachronic Approaches to the Study of Language.
4. Word of Native Origin and their Characteristics.
5. Foreign Elements in Modern English.
6. Etymological Doublets. Hybrids.
7. Assimilation of Borrowings.
8. Morphological Structure of a Word.
9. Structural Types of Words.
10. Productive Ways of Word-Formation.
11. Non-productive ways of Word-formation.
12. New Tendencies in Present-Day English Word-Formation.
13. Referential and Functional Approaches to the study of Word meaning.
14. Types of Word Meaning.
15. Main tendencies of the Change of meaning.
16. Polysemy. Synchronic and Diachronic Approaches to Polysemy.
17. The Semantic Structure of a Polysemantic Word.
18. Context. Linguistic and Non-linguistic Contexts.
19. Free Word-groups and Phraseological Units.
20. Classification of Free Word-groups
21. Classification of Phraseological Units
22. Homonyms
23. Synonyms. Paronyms.
24. Antonyms. Hyponymy.
25. Semantic grouping of the English Vocabulary
26. Vocabulary as an adaptive System.
27. Lexico-semantic Groups. Semantic Fields.
28. Some of the Main Problems of Lexicography
29. Main Types of English Dictionaries
30. Historical Development of British and American Lexicography.
31. Variants and Dialects of the English language
32. Regional and Social Varieties of English
33. The Theoretical and Practical Value of English Lexicology and its connection with other Branches of Linguistics.
34. Word-groups with Transferred Meanings
35. The Etymology of English Words

36. Meaning and Context
37. Change of Meaning of Words
38. Emotionally Coloured Words
39. Stylistic Difference of Words
40. The Classification of Borrowed Words
41. Assimilation of Borrowed Words
42. Attitudes Towards Dictionaries
43. Polysemy and Frequency of the Word
44. Synchronic and Diachronic Analysis of Polysemy
45. The Lexical Differences between the British and American Variants of English
46. Collocation and Lexical Valency of the English Words
47. Different Types of Motivation of the English Words
48. Words of the Same Form
49. Secondary Ways of Wordformation
50. Splinters and Their Properties
51. The Interrelation of Synonymy and Antonyms
52. Relations between Vocabulary and Culture

TESTS ON LEXICOLOGY

1. Lexicology is a branch of linguistics, which studies
a) * the vocabulary of a language
b) the origin of the words
c) the structure of the words
d) compiling dictionaries

2. The term vocabulary is used
a) to find out the universals of the language
b) * to denote the system formed by the sum total of all the words
c) to distinguish the meaning of the words
d) to form a new derivate in a different part of speech

3. There are ..... types of lexicology
a) 4
b) 6
c) * 5
d) 3

4. Affixes may be divided into:
a) polymorphemic, monomorphemic
b) productive and non – productive
c) compound and simple
d) * living and dead

5. General lexicology
a) devotes it attention to the description of the characteristic pecularities in the vocabulary of a given language
b) * is a part of general linguistics, which studies the general properties of words
c) discusses the origin of various words
d) deals with the properties of the vocabulary of two or more languages

6. Special lexicology
a) deals with the vocabulary of a given stage of its development
b) deals with the properties of the vocabulary of two or more languages
c) discusses the origin of various words

d) * devotes it attention to the description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language

7. Historical lexicology
a) studies the general properties of words
b) studies the description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary
c) * studies the origin of words
d) studies compiling dictionaries

8. Descriptive lexicology
a) * studies the vocabulary of a given stage of its development
b) studies the properties of the vocabulary of two or more languages
c) are studied by means of Contextual, distributional, transformational analysis
d) discusses the origin of various words.

9. Comparative lexicology
a) studies all possible ways of the formation of new words in English
b) studies the origin of words
c) studies compiling dictionaries
d) * studies the properties of the vocabulary of two or more languages

10. Syntagmatic relationship
a) * is based on the linear character of speech
b) is the minimum stretch of speech
c) is the relation between words within the vocabulary
d) is identified and distinguished by contrasting the nature and arrangement of the elements

11. The paradigmatic relationship
a) is based on the linear character of speech
b) * is the relation between words within the vocabulary
c) the semantic structure of correlated words
d) is the minimum stretch of speech

12. Linguistic relationships between words are classified into
a) phraseology and semasiology
b) etymology and lexicography

c) word formation and abbreviation
d) * syntagmatic and paradigmatic

13. Semasiology
a) is a very productive way of forming new words
b) means substituting a part for a whole word
c) * deals with the meaning of words and word equivalents
d) studies all possible ways of the formation of new words

14. .....studies all possible ways of the formation of new words in English
a) phraseology
b) etymology
c) semasiology
d) * word formation

15. ..... studies the origin of words
a) phraseology
b) * etymology
c) semasiology
d) word formation

16. .....studies the set-expressions
a) * phraseology
b) lexicography
c) semasiology
d) word formation

17. .....studies compiling dictionaries
a) semasiology
b) phraseology
c) lexicology
d) * lexicography

18. Every language.....
a) * has its own lexical system
b) has the different peculiarities
c) is linked with phonetics
d) connected and joined by the grammar rules

19. Lexicology is closely connected with
a) biology, philosophy, physics
b) * grammar, phonetics, history, stylistics
c) physiology, geography, chemistry, economics
d) lexicography, semasiology, phraseology, etymology

20. ..... is smallest indivisible, two – faced language unit
a) phoneme
b) stem
c) * morpheme
d) affix

21. Morphemes are subdivided into.....
a) * roots and affixes
b) stems and prefixes
c) suffixes and roots
d) infixes and stems

22. Affixes subdivided into
a) roots, stems infixes
b) phonemes, morphemes, stems
c) * prefixes, suffixes, infixes
d) prefixes, roots, stems

23. Phoneme.....
a) * have no meaning
b) have meaning
c) divided into morphemes
d) is used to make up morpheme

24. .....have meaning
a) phoneme
b) affix
c) * morpheme
d) root

25. Morphemes are divided into two:
a) stems and roots
b) suffix and prefix
c) dead and living

d) * free and bound

26. In the word "denationalize" only ....can be said as a free morpheme
a) – de-
b) –lize
c) * nation
d) – ali

27. According to the number of morphemes words are divided into:
a) compound and derived
b) simple and compound
c) * monomorphemic and polymorphemic
d) monomorphemic and compound

28. Polymorphemic words consist of
a) one morpheme
b) two morphemes
c) three morphemes
d) * more than two morphemes

29. Monomorphemic words consist of
a) * one root morpheme
b) two morphemes
c) three morphemes
d) four morphemes

30. The word "teacher" is
a) monomorphemic word
b) * polymorphemic word
c) compound word
d) simple word

31. The word "dog" is
a) simple word
b) compound word
c) polymorphemic word
d) *monomorphemic word

32. The relations within the word and interrelations between different types and classes of words are called.....
a) derivational level
b) derived stem
c) * derivational relations
d) compound words

33. The basic unit at the derivational level is..
a) the root
b) * the stem
c) the affix
d) the prefix

34. There are .....structural types of stems.
a) one
b) two
c) * three
d) four

35. The types of stems:
a) functional, correlated
b) productive and non – productive
c) dead and living
d) * simple, derived and compound

36. ..... is a part of the word which is identical with a root morpheme
a) * a stem
b) an affix
c) a suffix
d) a prefix

37. Derived stem divided into:
a) a root and suffix
b) a root and prefix
c) * a root and affix
d) a root and infix

38. Compound stems consists of.....
a) one and two stems

b) two and three stems
c) a root and stem
d) * two or more stems

39. The words "book-case, door-handle" are.....
a) simple words
b) * compound words
c) derived words
d) polymorphemic words

40. The words "agreement, teacher, girlish" have.....
a) simple stem
b) * derived stem
c) compound stem
d) monomorphemic words

41. The ..... studies the changes and the development of vocabulary in the course of time
a) syntagmatic
b) paradigmatic
c) synchronic
d) * diachronic

42. ..... deals with the vocabulary as its exists at a given time, at the present time
a) diachronic approach
b) * synchronic approach
c) syntagmatic relation
d) paradigmatic relation

43. ..... is a derivational morpheme following the stem and forming a new derivate in a different part of speech or a different word class.
a) prefix
b) * suffix
c) infix
d) stem

44. ..... is a derivational morpheme standing before the root and modifying meaning

a) * prefix
b) suffix
c) infix
d) stem

45. Noun – forming suffixes:
a) –ian, -ary
b) –ate, -er
c) * –dom, -ship
d) –ize, -ish

46. Adjective – forming suffixes:
a) –ly, -wise
b) * –ant, - ary
c) –er, -en
d) –ly, -wise

47. In English there about .... prefixes which can transfers words to a different part of speech
a) 26
b) * 25
c) 28
d) 30

48. ..... is an affix placed within the word
a) a prefix
b) a suffix
c) * an infix
d) root

49. Affixes may be divided into:
e) polymorphemic, monomorphemic
f) productive and non – productive
g) compound and simple
h) * living and dead

50. Living affixes divided into:
a) * productive and non – productive
b) functional and correlated
c) compound and simple
d) polymorphemic, monomorphemic

51. Productive prefixes are:
a) ry, or, ic
b) * re, um, non
c) cy, ive, en
d) mis, dis, il

52. Productive suffixes are:
a) re, um, non
b) cy, ive, en
c) * ing, ness, ry
d) mis, dis, il

53. Non – productive suffixes are:
a) * ful, en, ify
b) re, um, non
c) mis, dis, in
d) ism, ish,ry

54. Non – productive prefixes are:
a) * in, ir, im
b) ism, ish, ry
c) re, um, non
d) ness, ing, ce

55. The ..... Of words means substituting a part for a whole, part of the word is taken away and used for the whole
a) conversion
b) synonymy
c) * shortening
d) polysemy

56. Every kind of..... differs from derivation, composition and conversion in being not a new arrangement of existing morphemes.
a) clipping
b) * shortening
c) backformation
d) blending

57. There ..... types of clippings
a) three
b) five
c) two
d) * four

58. Words that have been shortened at the end , is called.....
a) medial clipping
b) final clipping
c) initial clipping
d) final and initial clipping

59. Words that have been shortened at the beginning, is called.....
a) medial clipping
b) final clipping
c) * initial clipping
d) final and initial clipping

60. Words in which syllables have been omitted from the middle, is called.....
a) * medial clipping
b) final clipping
c) initial clipping
d) final and initial clipping

61. The abbreviations "lab., gap., ad." Are.....
a) medial clipping
b) initial clipping
c) * final clipping
d) final and initial clippings

62. The abbreviations "phone., cast., van." Are .....
a) medial clipping
b) * initial clipping
c) final clipping
d) final and initial clippings

63. Conversion was born in ..... century.

a) * XIII
b) XII
c) XI
d) X

64. There are two types of meaning
a) denotation and connotation
b) grammatical and lexical
c) lexical and stylistic
d) grammatical and denotation

65. ..... is the existence within one word of several connected meaning
a) * Polysemy
b) Semasiology
c) Phraseology
d) Conversion

66. Words are divided into two:
a) monomorphimic and polymorphimic
b) * monosemantic and polysemantic
c) simple and compound
d) functional and correlated

67. .....are words identical in pronunciation and spelling and different in meaning
a) Homonyms
b) Homophones
c) Homographs
d) * Homonyms proper

68. ..... are words of the some sound form but of different spelling and meaning
a) Homonyms
b) * Homophones
c) Homographs
d) Homonyms proper

69. .....are words which are different in sound and in meanings but identical in spelling.

a) Homonyms
b) Homophones
c) * Homographs
d) Homonyms proper

70. Prof. Smirnitsky has suggested his classification of homonyms based on.....
a) ethymological principle
b) * lexico-grammatical principle
c) translation principle
d) lexico-syntactic principle

71. There are ..... sources of homonyms
a) * 5
b) 4
c) 6
d) 3

72. The words spring – пружина, spring –родник, spring - весна are
a) homographs
b) homophone
c) homonym
d) * homonym proper

73. ..... are words belonging to the same part of speech, different in morphemic composition and phonetic shape but identical or similar in meaning
a) Homonyms
b) * Synonyms
c) Antonyms
d) Phraseology

74. Each synonymic group contains one word the meaning of which has no additional connotations. This word is called.....
a) stylistic synonym
b) contextual synonym
c) * synonymic dominant
d) denotational component

75. There are . types of synonyms
a) 2
b) 3
c) * 4
d) 5

76. The dominant of the synonymic group "alone, solitary, lonely, lone, lonesome, forlorn, desolate" is.
a) * alone
b) solitary
c) lone
d) lonely

77. Synonyms which differ in their denotational meanings are called.
a) total synonyms
b) * ideographic synonyms
c) stylistic synonyms
d) contextual synonyms

78. ... are similar in meaning only under some specific distributional conditions
a) total synonyms
b) stylistic synonyms
c) * contextual synonyms
d) ideographic synonyms

79. If the difference lies in their stylistic difference the synonyms are said to be .....
a) ideographic
b) contextual
c) total
d) * stylistic

80. There are .... main sources of synonyms
a) * 7
b) 6
c) 5
d) 8

81. …… is emotionally colored words which are the secondary names of
objects
a. Euphemism
b. * Slang
c. Synonym
d. Borrowing

82. ……. Are words which are used instead of unpleasant words
a. * Euphemisms
b. Slang
c. Antonyms
d. Neologisms

83. …….. are words which belong to the same part of speech and have contrary meanings.
a. Synonyms
b. Homonyms
c. * antonyms
d. neologisms

84. There are …. Types of antonyms
a) * 2
b) 3
c) 4
d) 1

85. …. 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.
a. Phraseology
b. Borrowing
c. * Neologism
d. Synonym

86. Neologisms may be divided into:
a) total, contextual, stylistic
b) polysemantic, monosemantic
c) * root, derived, compound
d) root, derivational

87. Neologisms are mainly formed by:
a. * word formation, semantic extension, borrowing
b. derivation, root, abbreviation
c. conversion, word-combination
d. clipping, blending, backformation

88. Phraseology studies....
a. clippings
b. * set-expressions
c. blending
d. proverbs

89. "....." The official language of Great Britain taught at schools and Universities, used by the press, the radio and the television
a. Local dialects
b. British English
c. Canadian English
d. * Standard English

90. There are two types of dictionaries:
a. encyclopedic and linguistic
b. * general and special
c. unlingual and bilingual
d. translation and phonetic

91. Etymology is
A) the study of word formation.
B) *the study of the origin of words.
C) the study of the sounds of language.
D)the study of sound patterns.

92. These are suffixes forming nouns, except ...
A) –dom B) -ee
C) –ce D) *-ify

93. The formation of the word doable from the words "do" and "able" is called ....
A) compound B) prefixation

C) blend D)* suffixation

94. Connotation (connotative) –

a) *a term used in semantics part of a classification of types of meaning, opposed to denotation.

b) a term used in semantics as part of a classification of types of meaning;

opposed to connotation.

c) a term used in Generative linguistics to refer to a level of achievement in the writing of Grammars.

e) a term used in semantic analysis to refer to a lexical item which has a range of different meanings.

95. Denotation (denotative) –

a) a term used in semantics part of a classification of types of meaning, opposed to denotation

b) *a term used in semantics as part of a classification of types of meaning; opposed to connotation

c) a term used in Generative linguistics to refer to a level of achievement in the writing of Grammars

e)a term used in semantic analysis to refer to a lexical item which has a range of different meanings

96. Polysemy -

a) a term used in semantics part of a classification of types of meaning, opposed to denotation

b) a term used in semantics as part of a classification of types of meaning; opposed to connotation

c) a term used in Generative linguistics to refer to a level of achievement in the writing of Grammars

d) *a term used in semantic analysis to refer to a lexical item which has a range of different meanings

97. Explanatory –

a) a term used in semantics part of a classification of types of meaning, opposed to denotation

b) a term used in semantics as part of a classification of types of meaning; opposed to connotation

c) *a term used in Generative linguistics to refer to a level of achievement in the writing of Grammars

d) a term used in semantic analysis to refer to a lexical item which has a range of different meanings

98. Stem -

a) *a term often used in linguistics as a part of a classification of the kinds of elements operating within the structure of a word

b) a term used in Morphology referring to an affix which is added following a root or steam

c) a term used in morphology referring to an affix which is added Initially to a root or stem

d) terms used in historical linguistics to describe the changes in a language`s sound system over a period of time.

99. Suffix –

a) a term often used in linguistics as a part of a classification of the kinds of elements operating within the structure of a word

b) a term used by some European linguists to refer to minimal distinctive semantic features operating within a specific semantic field

c) *a term used in morphology referring to an affix which is added Initially to a root or stem

d) terms used in historical linguistics to describe the changes in a language`s sound system over a period of time

100. Sound change -

a) a term often used in linguistics as a part of a classification of the kinds of elements operating within the structure of a word

b) a term used by some European linguists to refer to minimal distinctive semantic features operating within a specific semantic field

c) a term used in morphology referring to an affix which is added Initially to a root or stem

d) * terms used in historical linguistics to describe the changes in a language`s sound system over a period of time

GLOSSARY

Abbreviation – an abbreviation sometimes used for adjective (especially in generative Grammar), and sometimes for adverb (ial) (especially in grammars written within the structuralist tradition). In Grovernment – 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.

Componential analysis - is a semantic theory which developed from a technique for the analysis of kinship vocabulary 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 c0mmunal) which are suggested by, or are 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.

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.

Contrastive analysis is the systematic study of a pair of languages with a view to identifying their structural differences and similarities. Historically it has been used to establish language genealogies.

Corpus linguistics is the study of language as expressed in *corpora* (samples) of "real world" text. Corpus linguistics proposes that reliable language analysis is more feasible with corpora collected in the field in its natural context ("realia"), and with minimal experimental-interference.

Denotation (denotative) - a term used in semantics as part of a classification of types of meaning; opposed to connotation." 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 iflection (al). Derivational affixes change the grammatical class of morphemes to which they are attached (as in suffixation, e.g. - *tion* is a noun -- forming derivational suffix).

Diachronic - one of the two main temporal dimensions of linguistic investigation introduced but the Swiss linguistic , Ferdinand de Saussure the other being synchronic . In diachronic linguistics , languages are studied from the point of view their historical development – for example, the changes which have taken plase 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,indentified 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 sociolinguists,and by applied linguists involved in foreign-or second-language teaching.

Dictionary entry - the **entry** in a **dictionary** of information about a word. lexical **entry**. headword - a word placed at the beginning of a line or

paragraph (as in a **dictionary entry**) citation form, **entry** word, main **entry** word - the form of a word that heads a lexical **entry** and is alphabetized in a **dictionary**.

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 in 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.

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. Eugene Coseriu(b.1921)), to refer to minimal distinctive semantic features operating within a specific semantic field.

Semantic field - theory is an approach which developed in the 1930 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 inter-relate and define each other in 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.

Special dictionaries either cover a specific part of the vocabulary or are prepared with some definite purpose. For example, the dictionaries of pronunciation, the reverse dictionaries, the frequency counts have special purpose but their word list is general.

Stem - 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 steam.

Synchronic - one of the two main temporal dimensions of linguistic investigation introduced by the other being Diachronic.

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

Syntagmatic - A fundamental terms in linguistics, originally introduced by the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure to refer to the seguential 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 linguistic to refer to a linguistic form which is one of a set of alternatives in a given contrecst.

Thesaurus - 1) a dictionary of synonyms and antonyms, such as the onlineThesaurus.com; 2) any dictionary, encyclopedia, or other comprehensive reference book.

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CONTENTS

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