

**A PRACTICAL COURSE
IN ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY**

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PREFACE

This book may be used as a practical course in Modern English Lexicology for the students of English faculties of Foreign Language Institutes. Practical lessons, seminars are very important for mastering the crucial problems of Lexicology.

Unfortunately, however, there are no special books for the practical aid of Lexicology, hence, at the seminar classes the students are largely confined by the theoretical review of the themes discussed by the text-book and in the lectures.

The book «Practical Course in English Lexicology» is intended as a practical aid to supplement the theoretical Course in Modern English Lexicology.

The subject matter corresponds to the programme on English Lexicology issued by the USSR Ministry of Public Education. Its aim is to assist the students of foreign language Institutes in their study of the fundamentals of English Lexicology.

The authors have tried to take into consideration the latest achievements in linguistic science made in the Soviet Union and abroad.

The authors will welcome any comment and criticism that will help to improve the book.

The Authors

LESSON 1

LEXICOLOGY AS A SCIENCE

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. The subject-matter of lexicology. 2. Types of lexicology. 3. The connection of lexicology with other aspects of the language. 4. The relationships existing between words. 5. Diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of the vocabulary of the language. 6. The methods of linguistic research used in lexicology. 7. Subdivisions of lexicology.

TEXT

Lexicology 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. In other words, lexicology is concerned with words and set phrases which function in speech. Lexicology also studies all kinds of semantic relations (synonyms, antonyms etc) and semantic grouping (semantic fields). Etymologically the word «lexicology» is a Greek word: «Lexic» means «word» and «logos» — learning.

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

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

Special lexicology deals with the words of a definite language. *Ex.:* English lexicology¹, Russian lexicology², Uzbek lexicology³ and so on.

¹R. G. Ginzburg, S. S. Khidekel, G. Y. Knyazeva, A. A. Sankin. A course in modern English Lexicology. M., 1978.

²Н. М. Шанский. Лексикология современного русского языка. М., 1972.

³Ўзбек тили лексикологияси. Тошкент, 1981.

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

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

Comparative lexicology¹ deals with the properties of the vocabulary of two or more languages. In comparative lexicology the main characteristic features of the words of two or more languages are compared. *Ex.* Russian—English lexicology, English—French lexicology and etc.

Lexicology is closely connected with other aspects of the language: grammar, phonetics, the history of the language and stylistics.

Lexicology is connected with grammar because the word seldom occurs in isolation. Words alone do not form communication. It is only when words are connected and joined by the grammar rules of a language communication becomes possible. On the other hand grammatical form and function of the word affect its lexical meaning.² *For example.* When the verb «go» in the continuous tenses is followed by «to» and an infinitive, it expresses a future action. *Ex.* He is not going to read this book. Participle II of the verb «go» following the link 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 «increáse» 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

¹ В.Г. Гак. Сопоставительная лексикология. М., 1977.

² I. V. Arnold. The English Word. М., 1986.

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.

The relationship existing between words may be either **syntagmatic** or **paradigmatic**. The **syntagmatic relationship** is found in the context. The context is the minimum stretch of speech which is necessary to bring out the meaning of a word. *Ex.* **take tea** (чай ичмоқ — пить чай), **take tram** (трамвайда юрмоқ — ехать на трамвае).

The **paradigmatic relationship** is the relations between words within the vocabulary: polysemy, synonymy, antonymy of words etc. There are two approaches to the study of the vocabulary of a language — **diachronic** and **synchronic**.

Synchronic approach deals with the vocabulary as it exists at a given time, at the present time. The diachronic approach studies the changes and the development of vocabulary 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», «kingdom», «friendship», «freedom» were at one time compound words because the suffixes **-dom**, **-hood**, **-ship** were independent words but synchronically they are derived words because «**dom**» and «**hood**» 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.

The choice of the method in each case depends on what method will yield the most reliable results in each particular case.

Lexicology has some subdivisions such as:

- 1) **Semasiology** (deals with the meaning of the word);
- 2) **Wordformation** (studies all possible ways of the formation of new words in English);

3) *Etymology* (studies the origin of words);

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

5) *Lexicography* (studies compiling dictionaries).

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

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

hand

«қўл»

1) қўл (рука); 2) ҳайвонларнинг олдинги оёқлари (лапа); 3) тараф (сторона, положение); 4) бошқариш (контроль, власть); 5) розилик, ваъда (согласие, обещание); 6) ёрдам (помощь); 7) бир ўйинчини қўлидаги карта (карты, исходившиеся на руках у одного игрока); 8) ишчи (рабочий); 9) денгизчи (матрос); 10) бажарувчи шахс (исполнитель, автор); 11) бир тўда одам (компания, группа); 12) уста (мастер); 13) эпчиллик (ловкость); 14) ёзув, хат (почерк); 15) қарсақлар (аплодисменты); 16) манба (источник); 17) соат стрелкаси (стрелка); 18) кўрсаткич (указатель); 19) қанот (крыло); 20) боғлам, даста (пучок); 21) кафт (ладонь); 22) сон гўшти (окорок); 23) жиллов (повод).

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

As can be seen from the above only some meanings may be described as identical but others are different.

The correlated words «hand» and «қўл» may be the components of different phraseological units «hand».

hand	«қўл»
the hand of god — худо рози (божья воля)	қўли очиқ (щедрый)
at the hand — ёнида, яқинида (близко, рядом)	қўл келмоқ (подходить)
to live from hand to mouth — зўрға кун кўрмоқ (перебиваться)	қўл тегизмоқ (трогать)
at any hand — ҳар эҳтимолга кўра (во всяком случае)	қўлни қўлтиққа урмоқ (потерять безнадежным отчаяться)
to have clean hands — ҳақиқатгўй бўлмоқ (быть честным)	қўлга тушмоқ (поймать) қўли эгри (нечестный) қўли қаттиқ (жадный) қўнглига қўл солмоқ (узнавать намерение)

Besides that the correlated words in English and in Uzbek may coin different derivatives.

The verb «to take» does not coincide in the number of meanings with its corresponding word «олмоқ».

Ex. to take an exam — имтиҳон топширмоқ (сдавать экзамен); to take tea — чой ичмоқ (пить чай); to take off — ечинмоқ (раздеваться).

имтиҳон олмоқ (принимать экзамен) — to give an examination; дам олмоқ (отдыхать) — to have a rest; расм олмоқ (фотографировать) — to photograph.

In the semantic structure of the Uzbek word there may be a definite figurative meaning which its corresponding English word doesn't possess.

Ex.: Бу воқеа менга катта мактаб бўлди (Это событие было для меня уроком). This event was a good lesson to me (not «this event was a good school to me»).

The norm of lexical valency of a word in English is not the same as in Uzbek. *Ex.* In Uzbek the verb «кўтармоқ» (поднимать) may be combined with the nouns «қўл» (рука) and «стул» (стул). However, its corresponding English verb «to raise» can be combined only with the noun «hand» («to raise hand» but not «to raise chair» (to lift chair). The number of English synonymic sets may be substituted by one word in Uzbek. *Ex.* the verbs «accept», «admit», «adopt», «take», «receive» correspond to the meanings of the Uzbek

word «қабул қилмоқ» (принимать). In English to the Uzbek word «рассом» (художник) correspond three words. They are: painter, artist, drawer. In Uzbek 6 words are used to express the notion «blow» (уриш, зарб, зарба, урилиш, тақиллатиш, тегиш). In English more than 20 words denote this notion. They are: blow, smack, slap, whack, poke, dig, rap, knock, stroke etc. The correlated words «to make» and «қилмоқ» have different lexical valancies.

to make soup — шўрва қилмоқ (пиширмоқ) (готовить суп),
to make tea — чой дамламоқ (заварить чай),
to make a table — стол ясамоқ (сделать стол),
дарс қилмоқ (готовить уроки) — to do lessons,
телефон қилмоқ (позвонить) — to ring up,
ният қилмоқ (желать доброе) — to wish,
ҳаракат қилмоқ (стараться) — to try etc.

Exercises

Ex. 1. Read the following passage and render in your own words Uriel Weinreich's ideas on the subject.

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

Ex. 2. Answer the following questions.

1. What is the subject-matter of lexicology? What types of lexicology do you know? 3. What is the difference between general and special lexicologies? 4. What is the difference between descriptive and historical lexicologies? 5. What is the difference between comparative and noncomparative lexicologies? 6. What can you say about the connection of lexicology with other aspects of the language? 7. How is lexicology connected with grammar (phonetics, stylistics, his-

tory of the language)? 8. What are the main relationships between the words? 9. What is the difference between the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relationships in words? 10. What do you know about diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of the vocabulary of the language? 11. What are the methods of linguistic analysis used in Modern Lexicology? 12. What are the main subdivisions of lexicology?

Ex. 3. Below are listed some types of lexicology. Tell the type of each of them:

English lexicology, English-Russian lexicology, Lexicology of the language, Uzbek lexicology, Historical lexicology.

Ex. 4. Call the names of lexicology which you know in many languages and tell to which type of lexicology they belong.

Ex. 5. Explain the meaning of words pit, tip, 'increase, increase, present, présent, care, race connecting them with the links of Lexicology with phonetics.

Ex. 6. Explain the synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of the following words:

childhood, kingdom, friendship, help, take, work, write, produce, accept.

Ex. 7. What subdivision of lexicology do we call if we:

deal with the meaning of the word;
study all possible ways of the formation of new words in English;
study the origin of words;
are busy with the set-expressions, phraseological units;
study compiling dictionaries.

Ex. 8. Read and retell the extract.

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

Ex. 9. Compare the semantic structure of the following correlated words in English and Uzbek and explain their interdependence.

Elbow

- 1) тирсак (локоть);
- 2) муйилиш, эгилиш (изгиб, поворот);
- 3) кичкина қўл — (ручка, подлокотник);
- 4) тех. тўғри тизза (прямое колено трубы, отвод, угольник);
- 5) майда макарон (рожки макаронные).

Nail

- 1) тирноқ (ноготь);
- 2) мих (гвоздь);
- 3) оғз. узунлик ўлчови (мера длины);
- 4) жарг. сигарет (сигарета)

Тирсак (локоть)

- 1) қўлнинг билак суяги, елка суяги билан қўшила-диган бўғим (локоть);
- 2) нарсаларнинг бурчак ҳосил қилиб букилган жойи, трубанинг тирсаги (изгиб трубы).

Тирноқ (ноготь)

- 1) бармоқлар учининг орқа томонидаги этга ёпишган шох моддали ҳимоя тўқимаси (ноготь);
- 2) баъзи ҳайвон ва қушларнинг панжаси (лапа);
- 3) кўчма: фарзанд, бола (ребенок);
- 4) кўчма: махсус баланд симёғочларга кўтарилиш учун оёқ (подтяжка);
- 5) қўштирноқ (кавычка)

RECOMMENDED LITERATURE

1. Р. З. Гинзбург, С. С. Хидекель, Г. Ю. Князева, А. А. Санкин. Лексикология английского языка. М., 1979.
2. С. С. Хидекель, Р. З. Гинзбург, Г. Ю. Князева, А. А. Санкин. Английская лексикология в выдержках и извлечениях. Л., 1969.
3. А. И. Смирницкий. Лексикология английского языка. М., 1956.
4. М. И. Фомина. Современный русский язык. Лексикология. М., 1983.
5. Дж. Буранов. Сравнительная типология английского и тюркских языков. М., 1983.
6. У. Қ. Юсупов. Проблемы сопоставительной лингвистики. АДД. М., 1983. стр. 21—25.

LESSON 2

LEXICOGRAPHY

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. English dictionaries and their development. 2. Types of dictionaries. 3. The selection of lexical units in dictionaries. 4. The entry of dictionaries. 5. The structure of English dictionaries.

TEXT

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

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

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

Lexicography depends on its development in the solution of some general problems of lexicology. So, lexicography is closely connected with the problems of lexicology. The compilers approach to lexicological problems differently. For example, there is no clear border-line between homonymy and polysemy in different dictionaries. Thus in some dictionaries words such as fly — пашша (муха), (a two winged insect) and fly — тугма учун материал (материал для пуговиц), (a flap of cloth covering the buttons on a garment) are treated as two different words and in others (*Ex.* the Concise Oxford Dictionary and the Advanced Learners Dictionary of Current English) — as different meanings of one and the same word.

There are **encyclopaedic** and **linguistic** dictionaries. An Encyclopaedic dictionary gives the information of extralinguistic world. It gives the information about the important

events, animals, and all branches of knowledge. They deal not with words, but with facts and concepts.

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

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

Most of these dictionaries present the spelling, usage, pronunciation and meaning of words, grammatical information, origin of words, derivatives, phraseology, etymology, synonyms and antonyms. Pronunciation is shown either by means of the International phonetic transcription or in British phonetic notation which is somewhat different in each of the larger reference books.

Ex. [ɔ:] is given as **oh**, **aw**, **ô**, **ôr**, etc.

Translation dictionaries or parallel are word-books containing vocabulary items in one language and their equivalents in another language.

Ex. Russian-English Dictionary under the edition of prof. A. I. Smirnitsky. The English-Russian dictionary by Müller, New English-Russian Dictionary by I. R. Galperin. The Pocket English-Russian Dictionary, by Беньюк, Чернюк. English-Uzbek dictionary by J. Buranov and K. R. Rahmanberdiev etc.

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

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

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

Specialized dictionaries give us the information of one or two particular peculiarities of words (*ex.* synonyms, collocability, frequency, etymology, pronunciation, phraseological units etc).

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

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

There are other types of specialized dictionaries. Dictionaries of collocations. A Reum's Dictionary of English Style, Dictionaries of word Frequency (Dictionary of frequency Value of Combinability of words. Moscow 1976). The Teacher's Book of 30.000 words by E. S. Thorndike and Lorge. Michail West. A General Service List of English Words. Etymological dictionaries; *Ex.* W. Skeat's Etymological Dictionary of the English Language. Pronouncing dictionaries: English Pronouncing Dictionary by D. Jones etc.

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

Dictionaries can't possibly register all occasional words. It is impossible to present all occurring technical terms because they are too numerous (*ex.* there are more than 400.000 chemical terminology in English). Therefore selection is made according to the aim of the dictionary.

The choice of correct equivalents depends on the type of the dictionary, and on the aim of the compilers.

Different types of dictionaries differ in their aim, in the information they provide and in their size. They differ in the structure and content of the entry.

The most complicated type of entry is found in explanatory dictionaries. The entry of an explanatory dictionary of the synchronic type usually presents the following data: accepted spelling, pronunciation, grammatical characteristics, the indication of the part of speech, definition of meanings, modern currency, illustrative examples, derivatives, phraseological units, etymology, synonyms, antonyms etc. The entry of translation dictionaries presents the meanings of words with the help of other languages.

Selection and the arrangement of meanings of words in different dictionaries are different. They depend on the aim of the compilers. Diachronic dictionaries list more meanings than synchronic dictionaries of current English as they give not only the meanings in present-day use but also those

which have already become archaic or obsolete. The SOD gives 8 meanings of the verb 'warrant' but lists only five. The meanings of words in a dictionary can be defined by means of phrases, synonymously. *Ex.* Frequency dictionaries, spelling books, etymological, ideographic and other dictionaries may have good examples.

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

Exercises

Ex. 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What does lexicography study? 2. When was the first English dictionary published? 3. When did other dictionaries appear? 4. What types of dictionaries do you know? 5. What do the general dictionaries present? 6. What do the translation dictionaries contain? 7. What is the aim of a learner's dictionary? 8. What information do the specialized dictionaries give us? 9. What is the selection of words in compiling dictionaries? 10. What does the entry of a word in the dictionary contain? 11. What is the structure of dictionaries?

Ex. 2. Compare the following dictionary entries from the point of view of the way lexical meanings are presented.

awful

I. N. C. Wyld. The Universal Dictionary of the English Language.

1. a) apt to fill others with awe, inspiring awe; dreadful, appalling; b) deserving and inspiring respect and reverence, solemnly impressive awful dignity.

2. (colloq) used as a mere intensive: an awful nuisance: awful nonsense.

II. The Concise Oxford Dictionary.

awful

inspiring awe, worthy of profound respect; solemnly impressive, (arch) reverential: (sl— notable in its kind as — scrawl, bore, relief, something.

III. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English.

awful

1. dreadful, impressive, causing awe. He died and death. His sufferings were to behold.

2. (colloq intensive) very bad, very great; extreme of its kind, what an- nuisance! what — handwriting (weather)!

IV. Collin's New English Dictionary.

awful

full of awe, filling with fear and admiration; impressive. venerable; ugly; unsightly; extremely.

V. Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language.

awful

1. inspiring awe. 2. terrifying, appalling. 3. worthy of reverence and solemn respect. 4. (colloq) a) very bad, ugly, disagreeable: unpleasant, etc; as, an awful joke, b) great as, an awful bore.

Ex. 3. Explain to what type of dictionaries the following dictionaries belong:

1. R. Soule. A Dictionary of English Synonyms and Synonymous Expressions.

2. Webster's Dictionary of Synonyms.

3. The Oxford Dictionary of English Proverbs.

4. W. Skeat. Etymological Dictionary of the English Language.

5. P. M. Roget. Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases.

6. V. K. Müller. The English-Russian Dictionary.

7. A. S. Hornby, E. V. Gatenly and H. Wakefield. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English.

8. H. Weiser. The Learner's English-Russian Dictionary.

9. The New English Dictionary on Historical Principles (NED).

10. The Concise Oxford Dictionary of the Current English (COD).

11. A. Reum. Dictionary of English Style.

12. E. L. Thorndike, I. Lorge. The Teacher's Book of 30.000 Words.

13. A. V. Koonin. An Anglo-Russian Phraseological Dictionary.

Ex 4. Compare the entry for the word *arrive* given in the following dictionaries.

arrive

Concise Oxford Dictionary

v. i. come to destination (lit, and fig) or end of journey (at Bath, in Paris, upon scene, at conclusion; as Gallicism) establish one's repute or position; (of things) be brought; (of time) come; (of events) come about. [f. OF «ariver» f. L. «arribare» f. L. A Dripare come to shore (ripa)]

Webster's Collegiate Dictionary.

arrive

v. i. (OF. ariver, deriv. of L. ad to+ripa shore, bank)

1. Obs. To come to the shore. 2. To reach a place; as, to arrive at home. 3. To gain an object, attain a state by effort, study, etc; as, to arrive at a conclusion. 4. to come; —said of time. 5. To attain success or recognition.

syn. arrive, come, arrive implies more definitely than come the attainment of a destination. — *v. t.* Archaic. To reach; come to.

Большой англо-русский словарь. под ред. Гальперина И. Р.

arrive

v. i. (at, in, upon) — прибывать приезжать, to ~ in London — прибыть в Лондон: the police ~ d upon the scene — на место происшествия прибыла полиция; to ~ punctually (tardily, in good time) — прибыть точно, с опозданием, вовремя; sold «to ~» — ком.к прибытию (условие сделки при продаже товара, находящегося в пути) 2. (at) ~ ~ достигать (чего-л, приходиться (к чему-л): to ~ at understanding — достигать взаимопонимания; to ~ at a decision — принять решение: to ~ at a conclusion — прийти к заключению.

M. West. The General Service List.

arrive

v. 532. 1) Arrive home in London. Arrive at an age when ... 74%; 2) The parcel has arrived. The time has arrived when ... 11%; 3) Arrive at a conclusion ... 12%.

Oxford Etymological Dictionary

236738 17

arrive

+ bring or come to shore, land XIII; come to the end of journey, a goal, etc, XIV; + reach (a port, etc) XVI; come to pass XVII.—OF ariver (mod, arriver, arrive, happen) -Pr. aribar, Sp arribar: Rom + arripare come to land, f ad+ ripo shore (of River) Formerly sometimes inflected + arove + ariven; cf STRIVE.
Jones' Pronouncing Dictionary

arrive

arriv/e-s,-ing, ed-al/s -ə'raiv-ə, ɪŋ,-d, -əɪ/z

Ex. 5. Find the number of meanings, etymology, frequency value, synonyms, phraseological units of the following words using different types of dictionaries.

face, fox, give, hand, ape.

Ex. 6. Read and retell the following extract:

«Students should know something about the large, unabridged dictionaries to which they have ready access in college. They might well be given brief sketches of the Oxford English Dictionary, The English Dialect by Joseph Wright, the old Century Dictionary (12 volumes) and the modern unabridged Webster. These may be called the «Big Four» in the dictionary field.

An acquaintance with these larger works will not only make the students aware of what kind of information about words is available in them, but it will leave him much better prepared to make efficient use of the desk—size dictionary with which he has some familiarity. «clinic» is from a Greek word meaning a bed, and the meanings of the word and those of its derivatives and combination stem from this significance. (*Mitford M. Mathews*)

Ex. 7. Retell and compare the entries of OED with other dictionaries.

The Oxford English Dictionary (OED) is not a dictionary to which you turn to see whether or not a certain word is a «good» word to use. It is a book which attempts scientifically to record the history and development of every printed word in the language from the time of King Alfred to the current date of publication . . . the OED does not try to set a standard for English. It tells you as completely as possible what the language is and where it has been.

The entries for single words in the OED «after» run on

four pages. The word «set» with its definition and other materials fills more than eighteen pages, «go» fills thirty — five columns and over seventy separate senses or given for «get».

In all the OED contains over 414.000 definitions, which are in turn illustrated by almost two million quotations. The total number of words in all the volumes is estimated at fifty million.

Thus, the OED records 414,825 words, of which 240.165 are main words, 67,105 subordinate words, 47,800 special combinations and 59.755 obvious combinations. There are about 500.000 definitions and more than 1,800,000 illustrative quotations. There are 16,570 pages in its 13 volumes. (*L. I. Stupin.*)

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LESSON 3

THE STRUCTURE OF THE WORD

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. The morphemic structure of the word. 2. The difference between the morpheme, the phoneme and the word. 3. The morphemic analysis of the word with the help of I. C. method. 4. Types of morphemes. 5. The stem and its types. 6. Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the analysis of the stem of the word.

TEXT

Most of the words have a composite nature and they are made up morphemes. A morpheme is the smallest indivisible, two — faced language unit. 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 meanings but phonemes have not. A morpheme differs from a word too. Unlike a word a morpheme does not occur separately in speech. It occurs in speech as a constituent part of a word.

How do we analyse the composite nature of words? The method by which the segmentation of words into morphemes is carried out is known as I. C. analysis (the immediate constituents method) Let's analyse the word «denationalize» with the help of I. C. method.

de /nation/al/ize

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

Morphemes are divided into two: **free** and **bound**. **Free morpheme** is a morpheme which is identical with the word-form. In our example only «nation» can be said as a free morpheme, as it is like a wordform and can be used in isolation, de-, -al, -ize, are **bound morphemes** because they can't be used separately and do not coincide with wordforms.

According to the number of morphemes words are divided into **monomorphemic** and **polymorphemic**. **Monomorphemic words** consist of one root — morpheme. *Ex.* boy, girl, dog, cat. **Polymorphemic 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». The stem which comes in the paradigm boy, boys, boy's, boys' is boy. In «teacher», «teacher's», «teachers», «teachers» the stem is «teacher».

There are three structural types of stems: **simple, derived and compound**. A **simple stem** is a part of the word which is identical with a root morpheme and to which the grammatical elements are added. *Ex: book, tram, teach, table, girl, boy*. A **derived stem** is such a stem which can be divided into a root and an affix: *girlish, agreement, acceptable, teacher*. But derived stems are not always polymorphimic. *Ex: The stem of the verb «to fish»* though it has no an affix in its structure it should be considered to be a derived stem as it is felt by the native speaker as more complex and semantically dependant on the simple stem of the noun «fish». **Compound stems** are stems which consist of two or more stems *Ex: match-box, paint-box, play-boy, bookcase, doorhandle* 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 (O.E. hlafweard). The verbs «disappoint», «return», «remark» and others have no derived stems but simple stems because in Modern English these words are not divided into re — turn, dis — appoint etc because there are no semantic relations between «disappoint» (разочаровываться) and «appoint», «return» and «turn» etc.

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

1. English: simple word — Uzbek: derived word
carpice — инжиқлик (from инжиқ)

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

In Uzbek the root morphemes coincide with the stem and a wordform. They take affixal morphemes and the soundform of the root-morpheme is not changed.

Ex. бош — a root-morpheme and the stem of the word — бошланмоқ (бош + ла + н + моқ) темир — a root morpheme and the stem is «темир», темирчилик (темир + чи + лик).

In English the root-morpheme also coincides with the stem in its sound form.

Ex. «friend» — the root morpheme is identical with the stem. The suffix «*ship*» is added to the stem «friend + ship» — «friendship». Like that read — reader (read + er). In English there are some morphemes the isolation of which from other morphemes makes it meaningless.

Ex. pocket (pock), hamlet (ham). The morphemes «pock», «ham» are unique morphemes, because they have no meaning.

Exercises

Ex. 1. Divide the words into morphemes and explain to what type of morpheme it belongs.

unreasonable, worker, foretell, marriage, repeat, friendly,

development, humanity, score, cold, nameless, helpful, text-book, unfriendly, bookcase, sugar, cotton.

Ex. 2. Divide the words into morphemes with the help of I.C. analysis.

chalky, cheerless, fearful, helpless, glassful, outspcak, innumerable, nonbeliever, discharge, collectivism, preference, spaceman, approver, Armenian, examination, typist.

Ex.3. Read the following extract and give your own examples of free and bound morphemes. Retell it in your own words.

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

Ex. 4. Answer the following questions.

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

Ex. 5. Do you agree with what is said in this extract? Discuss it.

«Will division into syllables do? Obviously not, for syllables are «mechanical» and «metrical», mere equal ticks of a click or beats in a bar. If I divide the word «metrical» into «met — ri — cal», I have learned nothing new about the word:

these three syllables are not functional as neutrons, protons, electrons are functional. But if I divide the word as **metr-ic-al**, I have done something rather different. I have indicated that is made of the root «metr» which refers to measurement and is found in «mstronome» and in a different phonetic disguise in «metre», «kilometre» and the rest **-ic** which is an adjectival ending found also in «toxic», «psychic» etc; **-al**, which is an unambiguous adjectival ending, as in «festal», «vernal» «partial». I have split «metrical» into three contributory forms which (remembering that Greek «morph» — means «form») I can call morphemes» (Anthony Burgess).

Ex. 6. Put the simple, derived and compound stems in columns.

girlish, clever, agreement, snowball, fellow, sailor, accept, unemployment, door-handle, advantage, person, post-office, drug-store, lorry, autumn.

Ex. 7. Find the stems in the following words.

workers, poned, teachers, blackest, reading, bigger, student's, singer's, ask, asked, playing, joined, boy's, girls', offices, pupil's, redder, dogs.

Ex. 8. Analyse the details of Hockett's procedure of determining morphemes.

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

Ex. 9. Analyse the following words. On the morphemic level and then on the derivational level.

Ailment, air, beggarly, governmental, eyelet, unsystematic, speechless, intake, nourishment, workmanship, writer, notebook, good, effect, classroom, blackness.

Ex. 10. Find in the text simple, derived and compound stems and explain them to your friend. Answer the question for the last paragraph.

«It will be safe to assume that all know what is meant by the word «word». I may consider that my typing fingers know it, defining a word as what comes between two spaces. The Greeks saw the word as the minimal unit of speech to them, too, the atom was minimal unit of matter. Our own age has learnt to split the atom and also the word.

If atoms are divisible into protons, electrons and neutrons, what are words divisible into?» (*Anthony Burgess*).

Ex. 11. a) Find the correspondants of the following English words in Uzbek and analyse their structure in two languages.

guide, groundwork, grey, grave-stone, ice-floe, pink, quiksilver rescue, reproach.

b) Make up your own examples to the following patterns in English and Uzbek.

Eng: simple stem — Uzb: derived stem

Eng: simple stem — Uzb: compound stem

Eng: simple stem — Uzb: word-group

Eng: derived stem — Uzb: word-group

Eng: compound stem — Uzb: simple stem

Eng: derived stem — Uzb: simple stem

Eng: compound stem — Uzb: derived stem

Ex. 12. Compare the structure of the following words in English and Uzbek and define the types of morphemes.

painter — расом, panic-monger — ваҳимачи, pathless — текширилмаган, resemblance — ўхшашлик, reign — подшолик, swimmer — сузувчи.

Ex. 13. Find the correspondance of the English simple, derived and compound stems in Uzbek.

fruit, landlord, conductor, strong, sorrow, letter-box, textbook, driver, boat, close, bridge, door-handle, meat.

Ex. 14. Find the Uzbek equivalents of the following words and analyse them on the morphemic and derivational levels.

gloomy, great, habitation, handkerchief, iceman, notwithstanding, offender, openminded, rapidly, refresher, scatter-brain.

Ex. 15. Find the free and bound morphemes in the following English and Uzbek words.

a) streamlet, ringlet, agreement, quickly, information, du-chess, lioness, acceptable, friendliness, disagreeable;

b) таркибий, тугаллик, алоқадор, чуқурча, ошхона, қийинчилик, парҳезли, ҳаяжонланиш, гулчилик, гулфуриш.

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LESSON 4

WORDFORMATION

THE PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

The Subject matter of wordformation. Diachronic and synchronic study of wordformation. Types of wordformation. Ways of wordformation.

TEXT

Wordformation is the creation of new words from the elements existing in the language. Every language has its own structural patterns of wordformation. Words like «**writer**», «**worker**», «**teacher**», «**manager**» and many others follow the structural pattern of wordformation «**V + er**». 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 **childhood**, **kingdom** were compound words: hood > OE had (state, rank), dom > OE dom condemn. But synchronically they are considered as derived words because «-dom,» «-hood» became affixes. The words «return» and «turn» historically had semantic relations and «return» was considered as a word derived from «turn». But synchronically these words have no semantic relations and we can't say that «return» is derived from «turn».

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

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

Two types of wordformation may be distinguished: word-derivation and word-composition. Words formed by word-derivation have only one stem and one or more derivational affixes (*ex.* kindness from kind). Some derived words have no affixes because derivation is achieved through conversion (*ex.* to paper from paper). Words formed by wordcomposition 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.

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

The Comparative value of the wordformation of English and Uzbek languages demands further investigations.

Exercises

Ex. 1. Answer the following questions.

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

Ex. 2. Compare the ideas given by the following linguists and discuss their likeness and difference in their point of view.

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

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

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

Ex. 3. Discuss Marchand's point of view to wordformation.

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

Mere semantic correlation is not enough to establish a phonological (phonemic), morpho-phonemic opposition. For the speaker «dine» and «dinner», «maintain» and «maintenance» and many others are semantically connected but a derivative connection has not developed out of such pairs, so their opposition is not relevant to wordformation. (*Marchand*.)

Ex. 4. Find the equivalents of the following ways of wordformation in your mother tongue. Affixation, suffixation, prefixation, conversion, word-composition, shortening, blending, backformation, soundinterchange.

Ex. 5. Find the definitions of the following terms from the dictionary of linguistic terms (Ахманова О.С. Словарь лингвистических терминов. М., 1969) and discuss them:

Wordformation, affixation, prefixes, compound words, diachronic and synchronic, conversion, productivity, derivation, pattern.

Ex. 6. Point out the types of wordformation in the following words:

reader, governer, specialist, engine-driver, dog-bite, ashtray, looking-glass, a button — to button, chalk — to chalk, pain — to pain, to break — a break.

beg — beggar, smoke — fog = smog, 'increase — incréase.

Ex. 7. Read the following sentences. Define the means by which the words in bold type are built.

1. He took the **hours-old** dish away. 2. Beside the car an old, **grey-bearded** labourer was leaning on a stick, talking to the chauffeur. 3. And she was followed to the car by a thin **shopgirl**, staggering under an immense white paper **armful** that looked like a baby in long clothes. 4. I need not say that such a breach of confidence is **unthinkable**. 5. He rolled cigarettes in the **cowboy** fashion with exquisite **deftness**, manipulating the tobacco and brown paper 6. Your baloon-like mind is entirely filled with egotistical gas.

Ex. 8. Translate the following words into your mother-tongue and explain the type of wordformation in English and in your mother-tongue.

lawful, incidental, faintly, eagerness, driver, dragon-fly, downright, drawbridge, dish-wash, disputable, disrelish, compatriot, composer, coat.

Ex. 9. Retell the extract in your own words.

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

By wordformation on a foreign basis of coining I understand derivation on the morphologic basis of another language. In English and German to give three principal European Languages, most learned, scientific or technical words are formed on the morphologic basis of Latin or Greek.

(H. Marchand)

Ex. 10. Make up words in English and in Uzbek according to these patterns:

v+er	Ф+чи	a+ly	Сиф.+Сиф.
v+ance	Ф+иш	N+ness	От+сиз
N+N	от+от	N+y	от+от

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LESSON 5

AFFIXATION

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. *Affixation and its subdivision.* 2. *The difference between suffixes and prefixes.* 3. *The origin of affixes.* 4. *Homonymic and synonymic affixes.* 5. *The polysemy of affixes.*

TEXT

Affixation is the formation of words with the help of derivational affixes. Affixation is subdivided into prefixation and suffixation. *Ex.* if a prefix «*dis*» is added to the stem «*like*» (dislike) or suffix «*ful*» to «*law*» (lawful) we say a word is built by an affixation. Derivational morphemes added before the stem of a word are called **prefixes** (*Ex.* **un+like**) and the derivational morphemes added after the stem of the word are called **suffixes** (**hand+ful**). Prefixes modify the lexical meaning of the stem meaning i. e. the prefixed derivative mostly belongs to the same part of speech. *Ex.* like (*v.*) — dislike (*v.*), kind (*adj.*) — unkind (*adj.*) but suffixes transfer words to a different part of speech, *ex.* teach (*v.*) — teacher (*n.*). But new investigations into the problem of prefixation in English showed interesting results. It appears that the traditional opinion, current among linguists

that prefixes modify only the lexical meaning of words without changing the part of speech is not quite correct. In English there are about 25 prefixes which can transfer words to a different part of speech. *Ex.* — head (*n*) — **behead** (*v*), bus(*n*) — **debus**(*v*), brown (*adj*) — **embrown**(*v*), title(*n*) — **entitle**(*v*), large (*adj*). — **enlarge** (*v*), camp(*n*). — **encamp**(*v*), war(*n*). — **prewar** (*adj*). If it is so we can say that there is no functional difference between suffixes and prefixes. Besides there are linguists¹ who treat prefixes as a part of word-composition. They think that a prefix has the same function as the first component of a compound word. Other linguists² consider prefixes as derivational affixes which differ essentially from root — morphemes and stems. From the point of view of their origin affixes may be native and borrowed. The suffixes **-ness**, **-ish**, **-dom**, **-ful**, **-less**, **-ship** and prefixes **be-**, **mis-**, **un-**, **fore-**, etc are of native origin. But the affixes **-able**, **-ment**, **-ation**, **-ism**, **-ist**, **re-**, **anti-**, **dis-**, etc are of borrowed origin. They came from the Greek, Latin and French languages. Many of the suffixes and prefixes of native origin were independent words. In the course of time they have lost their independence and turned into derivational affixes. *Ex.* **-dom**, **-hood**. /O. E. had — state, rank, **-dom** (dom condemn, **-ship** has developed from noun «scipe» (meaning: state); the adjective forming suffix «**-ly**» has developed from the noun «**lic**» (body, shape). The prefixes **out-**, **under-**, **over** etc also have developed out of independent words.

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

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

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

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

The verb suffix **-en** (1) added to a noun and adjective stem is homonymous to the adjective forming suffix **-en** (2) which

¹ H. Marchand. *op. cit.*

² E. Krusinga. *A Handbook of Present-Day English*, pt. II, L. 1959.

is added to a noun stem. Ex. to strengthen, to soften, and wooden, golden.

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

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

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

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

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

Thus, affixes have different characteristic features.

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

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

Diminutive	Suffixes
In English	In Uzbek
-ie (birdie), -let (cloudlet), -ling (wolfling), -ette (mountainette), -ock (hillock), -y (Jony), -et (whip-pet), -kin (tigerkin),	-акай (йўл-йўлакай), -алак (дўнга-лак), -гина (қизгина), -жон (дада-жон), -ка (йўлка), -кач (тахтакач), -кина (гўдаккина), -лоқ (қизалоқ), -ой (Салимаой), -он (ўғлон), -оқ (бошоқ), -ча (аравача), -чак (тугун-чак), -чиқ (қопчиқ), -чоқ (қўзичоқ)

As compared with the Uzbek language the negative affixes are more widely used in English.

In Uzbek: **-сиз** (қўлсиз), **бе-**(бераҳм), **но-**(нохуш)

In English: **-less** — (handless), **a-, an-** (anomalous);
-un-(unkind) **dis-**(dislike), **anti-**(antibiotic),
de-(decode), **in-**(innocent) **ir-**(irregular),
im-(impossible), **non-**(nondeductive)

Though the number of Uzbek prefixes is very few (they are 8) they are capable of changing words from one part of speech into another. *Ex.* адаб. (сущ.) — боадаб (прил.), ҳосил (сущ.) — серҳосил (прил.), илож (сущ.) — ноилож (прил.), бахт (сущ.) — бебахт (прил.), ранг (сущ.) — нимранг (прил.).

Exercises

Ex. 1. Answer the following questions.

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

Ex. 2. Put in column the words formed with the help of suffixes and prefixes and translate them into your mother-tongue.

unacceptable, prefabricate, prejudice, lawful, different, reasonable, wireless, handy, floater, speaker, slowly, reddish, Londoner, doubtful, unkind, childish, courageous, Japanese, Arabian, handless.

Ex. 3. Find the origin of the following affixes looking up Concise Oxford English dictionary.

un-, -able, -ism, -hood, -ist, re-, -dom, -ment, -ness.

Ex. 4. Find the meaning of the following affixes looking up a dictionary.

-er, -y, -able, -ness, -dis, re-.

Ex. 5. Find the definitions of the following terms in the dictionary of linguistic terms by O. S. Akhmanova and render them illustrating with your examples.

prefix, suffix, native, borrowed, homonymy, synonymy, polysemy, semantic grouping.

Ex. 6. Find the synonyms of the following affixes:

dis-, -er, -ize, -y.

Ex. 7. Find the homonyms of the following affixes and use them in your examples.

-ly, -en, -ful, un-, -er.

Ex. 8. Read and retell the following extract.

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

(H. Marchand)

Ex. 9. Retell in your own words the following extract.

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

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

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

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

2) in the suffix «*-ling*» which is simply the extended form of the suffix *-ing* in words whose stem ended in *-l* . . .

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

Ex. 10. State the correspondants to the English suffixes «-er», «-or» in your mother-tongue.

Londoner, loader, sweeper, translator, driver, fighter, sailor, New-Yorker, protector, speaker, governor, owner, leader, worker, regulator, oppressor.

Ex. 11. Paraphrase the word-groups into derived words. Express them in one word using the suffixes.

A specialist in Latin, a follower of Marx's teaching, one who writes novels, one who plays the piano, one who drives a car, the state of being happy, one who lives in a village, a specialist in agronomy.

Ex. 12. Change the following wordgroups according to the pattern.

a) **Pattern:** one who lives in London — Londoner.

one who teaches, one who lives on an island, one who dances, one who interprets, one who protects, one who receives, one who reads, one who advises, one who speaks.

b) **Pattern:** the state of being glad — gladness.

the state of being kind, the state of being joyful, the state of being ready, the state of being unbearable, the state of being weary.

Ex. 13. Translate the following into your mother-tongue.

State the correspondants to the diminutive suffixes -ie, -y, -let.

ducky, sonny, booklet, nutlet, pondlet, birdie, dolly, doggie, girlie, auntie, lakelet, oaklet, budlet, circlet, Bobby, Annie, puppy, Daddy, laddie, ringlet, toothlet, leaflet, streamlet, pussy.

Ex. 14. Translate the following into your mother-tongue. State the correspondants to the English suffixes in your mother-tongue.

worker, sailor, visitor, humanism, niceness, carefulness, changeable, checkable, windowless, expressionless, affected, gifted, striped, silly, icy, milky, blackish, reddish, womanish, friendly, ugly, beautiful, helpful, dutiful, useless, careless, thoughtless, doubtful, solitary, industrial, formal, confidence, dangerous, nervous, jealous, weakly, strongly, slowly, softly, honestly.

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LESSON 6

THE CLASSIFICATION OF AFFIXES

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Dead and living affixes. 2. Productive and non-productive affixes. 3. Productivity and the frequency of affixes. 4. Classification of affixes according to their structure. 5. Classification of affixes according to their meaning. 6. The division of affixes according to what part of speech they form. 7. The stylistic reference of affixes.

TEXT

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 L **ad** + **mit-**tere); deed, 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 — косм. корабль (космик кема); **-ist** (leftist — левый (чап тараф)) **-ism, -ish** (baldish) **-ing, -ness, -ation, -ee, -ry, -or -ance, ic** are productive suffixes **re-, un-, non-, anti-** etc are productive prefixes.

Non-productive affixes are those which are not used to form new words in Modern English. *Ex.* **-ard, -cy, -ive, -en, -dom, -ship, -ful, -en, -ify** etc are not productive suffixes; **in (il) ir (im-), mis- dis-**, are non-productive prefixes. The **no** affixes may occur in a great number of words but if they are not used to form new words in Modern English they are not productive.

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

Some linguists¹ distinguish between two types of prefixes:

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

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

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

Prefixes and suffixes may be classified according to their meaning.

¹Е. С. Кубрякова. Что такое словообразование? М., 1965.

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

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

1) the agent suffixes: **-er, -or, -ist, -ee** etc. (baker, sailor, typist, employee); 2) appurtenance: **-an, -ian, -ese** (Arabian, Russian, Chinese, Japanese); 3) collectivity: **-age, -dom, -hood, -ery** (peasantry, marriage, kingdom, childhood); 4) diminutiveness: **-let, -ock, -ie** etc (birdie, cloudlet, hillock); 5) quantitiveness¹: **-ful, -ous, -y, -ive, -ly, -some**.

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

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

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

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

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

Exercises

Ex. 1. Answer the following questions:

1. What do you understand by dead and living affixes?
2. What difference can you see between productive and non-productive affixes?
3. What do the recent investigations pro-

¹3. Т. Тухтаходжаева. Выражение категории квантификации и оценки в словообразовательной системе совр. англ. языка. Автореферат дисс. канд. филол. наук. М., 1982.

ve on the productivity of affixes? 4. What is understood by the frequency of affixes? 5. Why can't we say the prefixes **out-**, **up-**, **under-** etc. to be semibound morphemes? 6. How do we classify the prefixes according to their meaning? 7. How can we divide the suffixes according to their meaning? 8. What stems are the suffixes added to? 9. What do you say about the stylistic reference of affixes?

Ex. 2. Translate the following word groups into your mother-tongue. Define the part of speech of the stems to which the suffixes and prefixes are added.

unanswerable questions, a debatable point, interesting book, useful work, joyous party, nervous man, attractive girl, activity punishable by law, exhausting journey, doubtful problem, a little girlie.

Ex. 3. Find productive and non-productive affixes in the following group:

un-, dis-, -er, -or, -ism-, mis-, -ant, -ous, -al, -dom, -hood, -ive, -ful, -y, -able, -ian, anti-, fore-.

Ex. 4. Define the meanings of the affixes in the following words.

discount, inhabitant, correspondent, librarian, afternoon, prohistory, postposition, decode, rewrite, misfortune, unfunny, stony, cloudy, bushy, boiler, packer, driver, foolish, womanish, babyish.

Ex. 5. Find from the list the frequent and productive affixes and explain the difference between them.

-ful, -en, -ize, -ly, -age, anti-, -ive, -er, -ment, -some, -able, -less, -ward, -dom, -hood, -ation, -ness, -let, -ie, un-, -ist, -tron, -form, -ic.

Ex. 6. Put in columns the following affixes according to what part of speech they form:

-er, -dom, -ian, -able, -en, -fy, -ful, -ness, -ous, -ation, -or, -less, -ize, -ly, -ward, -ation, -ic, -hood, -ant, -age, en-, be-, de-, sub-, post-, -ment.

Ex. 7. Define the stylistic reference of the following affixes:

-ary, -ette, per-, peri-, pseudo-, able-, -er, proto-, -ance, -al, -or, -ness, -ure, -ful, -less, -let, -ive, -ity, -ize, bi-.

Ex. 8. Look up the dictionary of linguistic terms by O. S. Akhmanova and find the definition of the following terms. Render them in your own words:

productivity, frequency, stylistics, neutral words, diminutiveness, collectivity, appurtenance.

Ex. 9. Analyse the following words.

ailment, disturbance, runner, speechless, unsystematic, workmanship, fruitfulness, governmental, expressionless, intake, disbelief, disclaim, unpleasant, readable, wonderful, replace, misfortune, acceptable, painlessly.

Ex. 10. Find the correspondents to the English diminutive affixes in your mother-tongue.

ringlet	hillock	hillock
booklet	pathlet	bullock
girlie	toothlet	rillock
birdie	oaklet	pollock

Ex. 11. Translate the following words into English using the negative affixes:

қўлсиз, ёрдамсиз, онгсиз, ишонмаслик, [номаълум, кечирилмас, кутилмаган, касалманд, адолатсиз, партия сафида эмас, бўлмағур гап, тажрибасиз, натижасиз, ахлоқсиз, сезилмайдиган, ўтиб бўлмайдиган, ҳаяжонсиз, бебахтлик, ахлоқсизлик қилмоқ, омадсизлик, нотўғри тушунтирмақ, муваффақиятсизлик, кўнгил ғаш бўлиш, ёмон идора қилиш, ишончсизлик, нотўғри ишлатиш, ноқулайлик, давом эттирмай қўймоқ.

Ex. 12. Read and retell the extract in your own words.

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

Ex. 13. Discuss the different points of view on productivity of an affix.

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

«A derivational pattern or a derivational affix are qualified as productive provided there are in word-stock dozens and hundreds of derived words built on the pattern or with the help of the suffix in question». Derivational productivity is distinguished from wordformation activity by which is meant the ability of an affix to produce new words. (E. C. Кубрякова)

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

«The productivity of any pattern-derivational, inflectional or syntactical — is the relative freedom with which speakers coin new grammatical forms by it. Thus the formation of English noun-plurals with *z*, *s*, *iz* is highly productive. The addition of *-ly* to produce an adverbial is fairly productive. (Ch. Hockett.)

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LESSON 7

WORD CLUSTER

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. The degree of derivation in word cluster. 2. The structure of a word cluster. 3. Derivational and semantic relations of words in a word cluster. 4. Word cluster and Word family. 5. The development of the word cluster.

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

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

Ex. to lead, leader, leadership etc.

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

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

The terms can give a large word cluster. *Ex.* the word cluster of polymer (*хим полимер*) include the following words: polymerize, polymerization, copolymer, copolymerize, copolymerization, etc.

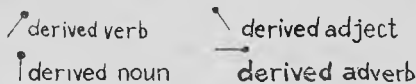
The stems of words making up a word cluster enter into derivational relations of different degrees. The zero degree of derivation is a simple word or a word which its stem is homonymous with a word form and often with a root morpheme. *Ex.* boy, atom, devote, girl etc.

Derived words which are formed from the simple stems and which are formed by the application of one derivational affix are described as words having the first degree of derivation. *Ex.* boyish, atomic, girlish, devotion etc.

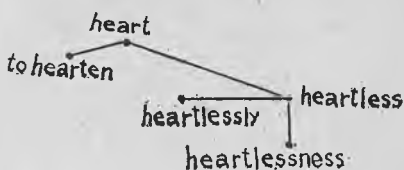
Derived words which are formed by two stages of coining are the second degree of derivation. *Ex.* boyishness, atomical, girlishness, devotional.

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

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



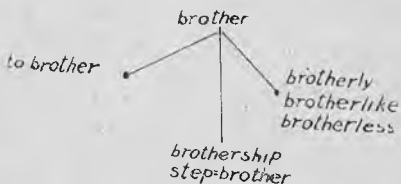
A word cluster includes the derivatives which are structurally and semantically related. If we can't see these connections we can't include the derivative into a word cluster.



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

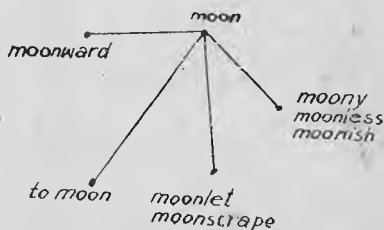
On the first step of the word cluster the derivatives of the first degree of derivation are in most cases nouns, verbs and adjectives.

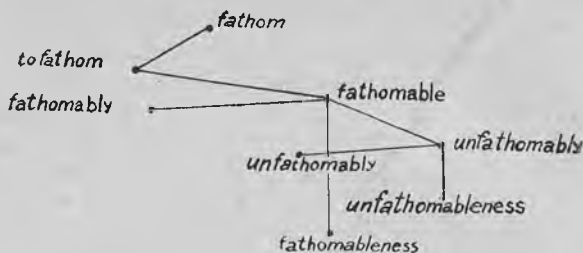
From the stem of the verb we can form only 3 parts of speech—**verbs, nouns and adjectives**. But from the stem of the noun are formed 4 parts of speech. *Ex.* the nouns **bed, breast, earth, foot, god, head, home, land** etc may give 4 parts of speech on the first step of the word cluster.



The length (the final step of a word cluster) includes 4 steps. Thus, the word clusters of different parts of speech may have different peculiarities.

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





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

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

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

Ex. In the 15 th century the Latin words in English such as «to suspect», «to fix», «to interrupt» each of them had only one derivative but the words of Scandinavian origin «to trust», «to remark», «to guess» gave 5 derivatives at that period of time.

The Scandinavian verbs to dirty, to near, to skin gave 1 or 2 derivatives after the 15 th century. But the Latin borrowings to «describe», «to suggest», «to persuade» gave 20 derivatives and each of them forms a large word cluster.

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

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

Ex. heart — юрак, hearten — руҳлантирмоқ, heartless — бераҳм, hearty — самимий, hook — илгак, hooked — эгик, букик, hooker — балиқ овлайдиган кема, hope — умид, ишонч, hopeful — умид қилувчи, hopefulness — келажакка ишонч, hopelessness — иложсизлик.

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

Exercise

Ex. 1. Answer the following questions:

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



Ex. 2. Define the degree of derivation of the following words:

1. city, citify, cityism, cityful, cityish, citywards, cityite, citiness, citied, citiward, cityless.

2. family, familial, subfamily, superfamily, non-family, familist, familism, non-familial.

Ex. 3. Make up a diagram representing graphically the derivative relations of the following words within a word cluster:

1. finger, fingerlet, fingerling, finger (v), fingered, fingerless, fingerish, fingery, unfingered, fingerer, fingering, re-finger, forefinger, fingerable, fingerative.

2. baron, baronize, baronial, baronry, barony, baroness, baronage, baronet, baronetical, baronetcy, baronetess, baronethood, baronetship.

Ex. 4. Define the semantic and structural relations of words and say whether they may be included into a word cluster.

knee — kneel, hand — handle, violon — violonist, please — displeasе, book — booklet, turn — return, accept — acceptable, atom — atomic.

Ex. 5. Make a word cluster of the following words finding their derivatives:

atom, comfort, care, reason.

Ex. 6. Choose from the following list the members of a word cluster and word-family. Explain the reason for it.

cat, catty, kitten, kittenhood, cattish, brother, brotherly, brotherhood, fraternal, mother, maternal, motherhood, think, thinkable, thinking, thought, thoughtful.

Ex. 7. Find from the etymological dictionaries the origin and the time of the occurrence of the members of the word cluster with the words *boy, mother, take, translate*. Discuss the development of their clusters.

Ex. 8. Find the definitions of the following terms from the dictionary of linguistic terms by O. S. Akhmanova:

word cluster, derivation, derived word, structural and semantic relations.

Ex. 9. Explain the semantic and structural relations of the following derivatives of the verbs:

1) possess — эгалламоқ (владеть), possession — эгаллаш (владение), possessioner — хўжайин (владелец), possessor — хўжайин (владелец), possessory — эга бўлмоқ, (относящийся к владению), possessive — мулкка эга бўлмоқ (относящийся к собственности),

2) read — ўқимоқ (читать), read *adj* — ўқимишли (начитанный), read *n* — ўқиш (чтение), readable — ўқиб бўладиган (удобочитаемый), readability — ўқиб бўлишлик (удобочитаемость), reader — ўқувчи (читатель), readership — ўқувчилар доираси (круг читателей), reading *n* — ўқиш (чтение), reading *adj* — ўқиётган (читающий), reread — қайта ўқимоқ (перечитать).

3) sport *n* — спорт (спорт), sporter — спортсмен (спортсмен), sportful — хушчақчақ, ҳазилкаш (веселый, шуточный), sporting — спортга доир (спортивный), sporting — спорт би-

лан шуғ улланиш (увлекающийся спортом), sportless — спорт билан шуғулланишга шароит бўлмастик (не располагающий возможностями для спорта), sporty — спортсменларча (спортивный), sportsman — спортсмен (спортсмен), sportsmanlike — спортсменларча (спортивный), sportsmanship — спорт бўйича қобилият (спортивное мастерство).

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LESSON 8

CONVERSION

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. *Different points of view to the study of conversion.*
2. *The study of conversion on the diachronic level.*
3. *The study of conversion on the synchronic level.*
4. *The most common types of conversion.*
5. *The connection of derived and underlying word in converted pairs.*

TEXT

Conversion is a very 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.

There are a lot of approaches to the study of conversion. Some linguists think that conversion is the formation of

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

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

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

Prof. A. L. Smirnitsky³ says that conversion is the formation of a new word by a change of paradigm. It is the paradigm that is used as a wordbuilding means. *Ex.* in Uzbek: китоблар, китобнинг, китобни, китобга, китобдан, китобда, китоби, китобим, китобинг, -лар, -нинг, -ни, -га, -дан, -да, и, -им, -инг etc are the paradigms of the noun «китоб». In English book, books'; book's; -s, 's, s' are the paradigms of the noun «book»; book *v* — booked, (he) books, booking, booked, -ed, ed (the ending of P II) -s, -ing, are the paradigms of the verb «to book». So conversion can be described as a morphological way of forming words.

There are two approaches to the study of conversion: 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.

¹ H. Marchand. The Categories and Types of Present day English word formation. Wiesbaden, 1960.

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

³ А. И. Смирницкий. Лексикология английского языка. М., 1956. стр. 71.

Ex. to motor — travel by car
to phone — use the telephone
to wire — send a telegram

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

1) verbs converted from nouns:

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

2) nouns converted from verbs:

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

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

New words formed from simple or root stems are more frequent than those formed from suffixed stems. No verbal formations from prefixed stems are found.

In converted pairs the derived word and the underlying word are connected with each other in their meaning. The derived verb shows the act performed by the thing denoted by the noun.

Ex. «to finger» means «to touch with the finger», «to hand» means «to give the hand», «to help with the hand», «to train» means «to go by train», «to bus» means «to go by bus», «to week-end» means «to spend the week-end».

Derived nouns denote the act or the result of an action.

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

The problem of the criterion of semantic derivation was raised in linguistic literature not so long ago. Prof. Smirnitsky was the first to put forward the theory of semantic

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

derivation in his book on English Lexicology. Later on P. A. Soboleva developed Smirnitsky's ideas and worked out three more criteria.

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

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

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

Ex. hand (*n*) — handed, handful, handy, handless etc.

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

Exercises

Ex. 1. Answer the following questions.

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

Ex. 2. State what part of speech is the words given in bold type.

1. Gardeners **water** lawns. 2. **Water** lilies wither quickly. 3. Rustam is a **pilot**. 4. Ann and Sarie **pilot** planes. 5.

Don't baby her. 6. The baby is playing. 7. They walk on the road. 8. He went for a walk.

Ex. 3. Explain how the following pairs differ according to A. I' Smirnitsky's point of view.

eye—to eye, face—to face, water—to water, hand—to hand, run—to run, mine—to mine, jerk—to jerk, air—to air.

Ex. 4. Discuss the following point of view to conversion and compare it with A. I. Smirnitsky's opinion.

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

Ex. 5. Explain the origin of converted pairs.

O. E. lufu — Mid E luf — Mod. E love n., lufian — luf — love v., weorc — weorc — work n, wyrca — wyrc — work v, andswaru — andswar — answer n., andswarian — andswar — answer v.

Ex. 6. Convert verbs from nouns and nouns from verbs and translate them into your mother-tongue.

a) ape, whip, fish, butcher, skin, hand, coat, hammer, elbow, head, parrot, b) drive, walk, switch, find, move, jump, answer, show, fall, work.

Ex. 7. Explain the meaning of the derived and underlying words in the following converted pairs:

finger—to finger, to knock—a knock, to move—a move, to run—a run, a bus—to bus, a hand—to hand, to jump—a jump, a father—to father.

Ex. 8. Find the following terms from the dictionary of linguistic terms by O. S. Akhmanova and try to speak on them.

conversion — конверсия, paradigm — парадигма, soundinterchange — чередование звуков, morphological category —

морфологическая категория, inflexions — инфлексия, frequency — частотность.

Ex. 9. Translate the following from Russian into English.

перо — писать пером, пить — напиток, падать — падением, убивать — убийство, боль — причинять боль, ломать — поломка, сухой — сушить, конец недели — проводить конец недели, мел — писать мелом, карман — положить в карман, пуговица — застегивать пуговицы, попугай — повторять как попугай.

Ex. 10. Translate into Uzbek or Russian.

powder—to powder, nurse—to nurse, torture—to torture, garage — to garage, cool — to cool, thin—to thin, quiet — to quiet, tame—to tame, doctor—to doctor, tailor—to tailor; warm—to warm, narrow—to narrow, pale—to pale, wolf—to wolf.

Ex. 11. Define what part of speech the nouns given in bold type are and what parts of speech they are derived from.

1. People in red coats came in **fives** and **threes**. 2. Tom was greeted with silent **bows** and **nods**. 3. There were two large **stands** for paper in his house. 4. She is still worrying herself with stupid **ifs** and **wheres**. 5. There are all **equals**. 6. It was always a **must** with them. 7. She was suddenly awakened by a violent **pull**. 8. The station is half—an hour's walk from our house. 9. The **run** of Mrs Herbert was very interesting. 10. «Everybody has **colds**» — said aunt Kate.

Ex. 12. Give the English correspondants to the following Uzbek words and expressions:

тузатмоқ — врач, бўри — бўридек оч бўлмақ, кумуш — кумуш билан қохламоқ, насос — насос билан ишламоқ, қамчин — қамчин билан урмоқ, ташвиш — ташвиш келтирмоқ, сўз — сўз билан ифодаламоқ, салқин — салқин қилмоқ, кўр — кўр қилмоқ, зарар — зарар келтирмоқ, маймун — маймунга ўхшаб ҳаракат қилмоқ.

Ex. 13. Express the following wordgroups in one word.

Model: «to put smth. into a pocket — to pocket»

to put smb (smth) into a case, to put smth. into a bottle, to put smb into jail, to act as a doctor, to act as a tailor, to act in the manner of a slave, to cause pain, to cause sorrow, to act like a monkey, to act as a nurse, to put smth into a garage.

Ex. 14. Read the following extract and discuss the difference between conversion and substantivization».

« . . . it is necessary to recognize various stages of conversion: in «The poor are with us always» the adjective is not completely converted into a noun, but in «He sold his goods» has disappeared so completely that the word can take the plural ending «—s» like any other noun. When a word has changed its function to such an extent that it is capable of taking on newinflectional endings then the process of conversion may be considered complete. Moreover, conversion may be regarded as complete when a word has been substantivized to the point where it can be modified by adjectives, as in «the others, a lunatic, goodreading»; or verbalized to the point where it can be modified by adverbs as in «telephone soon», «motor often» . . . The substantivization of adjectives has always been an important process in English and is active today. Some of the earlier substantivizations have been so long established as nouns that English-speakers no longer realize that they ever were adjectives; in many instances, however, the substantival use of the adjective is only temporary, and as soon as the need is past, the word reverts to its usual adjectival function . . . » (A. Q. Kennedy).

Ex. 15. Discuss the following problems. Give your arguments for this problem.

1. Conversion is a non-affixal word-building. Is that really so?

2. Conversion was born as a result of the disappearance of inflexions in the course of the historical development of the English language. Do you agree?

3. It is difficult to define which of the two words within converted pairs is the derived member. Is this true?

4. There is no conversion in Uzbek. Do you agree with this statement?

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LESSON 9

WORDCOMPOSITION

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION.

1. Compound words and their meanings. 2. The motivation of compounds. 3. The classification of compound words. 4. The types of relations of components in compound words. 5. The difference between the compound words and word groups. 6. Synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of compounds.

TEXT

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

Ex. taxi-driver, paint-box, bookcase.

A compound word has a single semantic structure. We distinguish the meaning of the compound words from the combined lexical meanings of its components. *Ex.* «pencil-case» is a case for pencils. The meaning of the compound words is derived not only from the combined lexical meanings of its components but also from the order and arrangement of the stems. A change in the order of components of compound words brings a change in their lexical meaning.

Ex. life-boat — a boat of special construction for saving lives. boat-life — life on board of a ship.

a fruit-market — market where fruit is sold, market-fruit — fruit for selling.

Compound words are classified into **completely motivated**, **partially motivated** and **non-motivated** compound words. In completely motivated compound words the lexical meaning of compounds is easily deduced from the lexical meanings of the stems.

Ex. book-case, foot-step, door-handle, bottle-opener.

The compound words a **flower-bed**, **walk-up** are partially motivated compounds because we can guess their meaning partially. The compounds in which the connection between the meaning and structure and the meanings of components of compounds can not be seen from the meaning of its components are called non-motivated compound words.

Ex. wall-flower — a woman who remains at wall and is not invited to a dance.

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

Compound words may be classified from the functional

point of view or according to their belonging to different parts of speech.

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

ADJ — social-economic, hard-working, man-made, well-behaved, well-read, dry-drink, V-whitewash, housekeep, etc.

ADV — indoors, within, outside.

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

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

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

Ex. door-step, looking-glass, table-cloth, whitewash, book-case, bookshelf.

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

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

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

Ex. road-building, baby-sitter, woman-doctor.

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

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

Structurally compounds are inseparable because if we change

the places of components of compounds we see the change of meaning in compounds or they will not be compounds.

Ex. **boat-life** — life on ship, **life-boat** — a boat which is used for saving. If we change the places of components of compound word **long-legged** in this way «**legged long**» it will be not a compound word. So the inseparability in structure of compounds can be seen in their specific order and arrangement of stems.

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

Ex. 'mad-'doctor, 'washing-'machine, 'money-'order etc.

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

Ex. a'green-house — a 'glass-house, a'green 'house (word group) — a house that is painted green, 'dancing-girl — a dancer, 'dancing 'girl — a girl who is dancing. Graphically compounds have two types of spelling — they are written either together or with a hyphen.

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

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

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

Some compounds which were formed in old English can't be considered compound words. The morphological structure of a word loses the meaning and undergoes phonetic changes. This case is called simplification.

¹ O. Jespersen. A Modern English Grammar on Historical Principles. L. 1946; E. Kruisinga. A Handbook of Present — day English. Groningen, 1932, part II.

Ex. woman OE — wifmæn (woman — person), daisy OE — daʒs eāʒe (day's eye).

Many compounds are polysemantic. *Ex.* the verb to white-wash has the following meanings:

1) make white with whitewash

1) to gloss or cover up vices, crimes etc.

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

Exercises

Ex. 1. Answer the following questions:

1. What is understood by the compound words? 2. What is the meaning of a compound word? 3. What is the motivation of the compound words? 4. How do we classify compound words from the functional point of view? 4. How do we classify compound words from the point of view how the components are joined together? 6. What is the classification of compound words according to different ways of compounding? 7. What are the coordinative and subordinative relations in compound words? 8. What is the difference between compound words and word groups? 9. What is the inseparability of compound words? 10. What types of inseparability of compound words do you know? 11. What are the synchronic and diachronic approaches to the study of compound words? 12. What is the polysemy of compound words?

Ex. 2. Analyse the structure of the following compound words and put in column according to the principles of their classification.

bluebell, fountain-pen, blotting-paper, bedroom, camp-stool, drugstore, hand-glass, man-eater, ice-cold, red-hot, stone-wall, white-wash, work-day, box-office, dressmaker, bare-foot, moonbeam, classroom.

Ex. 3. Translate the following compound verbs and prove that these words are compound words (the criterion here are stress, spelling, semantic isolation).

finger-print, peacock, weekend, tiptoe, postcard, sunburn. type-write, boot-lick, button-mend, care-take, love-make, house-keep, boot-leg, short-circuit, lip-stick.

Ex. 4. Read and retell the following points of view to compound words and express your attitude towards them.

«Many scholars have claimed that a compound is determined by the underlying concept, others have advocated stress-

some even seek the solution of the problem in spelling ... Jespersen also introduced the criterion of concept and rejected Bloomfield's criterion of stress. As for the criterion of stress, it holds for certain types only ...

For a combination to be a compound there is one condition to be fulfilled: the compound must be morphologically isolated from a parallel syntactic group. «Blackbird» has the morpho-phonetic stress pattern of a compound «black market», has not, despite its phrasal meaning; the latter therefore is a syntactic group, morphologically speaking stress is a criterion here. (*H. Marchand*)

Ex. 5. Compare the following points of view and express your attitude towards them.

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

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

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

Ex. 5. Analyse the following compounds according to their motivation.

bluebell, blotting-paper, beforehand, bedtime, bedroom, outside, bootmaker, dressmaker, hand-glass, dairyaid, tablecloth, door-handle, classroom, bookcase, snowball.

Ex. 7. Analyse the structure of the following compound words. Define the way the stems are joined together.

Anglo-Saxon, sportsman, snowball, rain-coat, paint-box, door-step, landsman, speedometer, bench-mark, homework, handicraft, pickpocket, grammar-school, sitting-room.

Ex. 8. Arrange the following compound words in columns finding compound words proper, derivational compounds.

one-eyed, snow-storm, pay-day, backbone, letterbox, school-boyishness, doll-faced, hollow-cheeked, hair-pin, moon-lit, paper-wrapped, gray-haired, empty-handed.

Ex. 9. Define compound words and free word groups.

pen-knife, a green house, a dancing-hall, stone wall, mad-doctor, woman-doctor, make up, make-up, break-up, breakup, mix up, mix-up, walk-out, walkout.

Ex. 10. Express the following in one word.

Model: as thin as paper — paper-thin

as black as coal, as cold as stone, as red as blood, as white as chalk, as deaf as stone, as sly as a fox, as sure as a cock, as high as knee, as grey as a dove, as blind as a bat.

Ex. 11. Find the correspondants to the following Uzbek compound words in English.

кўзойнак, лампашиша, тошбақа, кўршапалак, очиқ кўнгил, очкўз, тошбағир, икки ғилдиракли, ишёқмас, тинчлик-севар, ўқиб чиқди, ўқиб бера қолди, тасдиқ қилмоқ, ғам емоқ, ёзиб бермоқ, ҳайрон бўлмоқ.

Ex. 12. Explain the meanings of the words underlined. Translate them into your mother-tongue.

one-eyed — man, two-edged dagger, doll-faced girl, enemy-held territory, mud-splashed boots, hand-knitted gloves.

Ex. 13. Explain the Uzbek correspondants of the following English compound words.

fireman — ўт ўчирувчи, firework — мушак, firstnight — премьерa, flower-bed — гулхона, gate-keeper — дарвозабон, goatherd — эчкибоқар, humpback — букри, hammersmith — темирчи, mother-of-pearl — садаф, peacock — товус, raincoat — плащ.

Ex. 14. Read the extract and retell it in your own words. Find the same cases in compound words in your mother-tongue.

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

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

Ex. 15. Translate the following compound words into your mother-tongue. Comment on the meanings of them.

witch-doctor, woman-doctor, prayer-book, horse-doctor, pencil-box, paint-box, hand-bag, hand-glass, hand-shake, search-light, sun-light, stop-light, break-down, take-in, tip-off, runaway, girl-page, inkstain, bluebell, mainland, peace-lover, hair-curler, bottle-opener, kettle-holder.

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LESSON 10

SHORTENED WORDS AND OTHER MINOR WAYS OF WORDFORMATION

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Shortening and its characteristic features. 2. Clippings and abbreviations. 3. Clippings and the original words. 4. Soundinterchange. 5. Backformation. 6. Blending.

TEXT

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

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

Ex. exam (colloq) examination (neutral), chapman (neutral), chap (colloq).

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

Abbreviations consist of the first letters of a word group or a compound word (CPSU, YCL, USA, BBC, NATO) or the component of a two member word group H (hydrogin)—bomb, V. — Day — Victory Day) is shortened. The last one is not changed. Clipping consists in the cutting off of one or several syllables of a word. In many cases the stressed syllables are preserved. *Ex. Sis.* (sister), **Jap** (Japanese), **doc** (doctor), **phone** (telephone), **lab** (laboratory).

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

Clippings and abbreviations have some peculiarities as simple words. They take the plural endings and that of the possessive case. They take grammatical inflexions. *ex. exams, docs, cars, doc's* they are used with articles: **the USA, a lab, a vac, a doc**, etc. They may take derivational affixes: **YCL-er, M. P-ess hanky** (from handkerchief), **unkie** (from uncle).

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

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

Ex. vac-vacation; **vac**-vacuum cleaner; **prep**-preparation; **prep**-preparatory school.

In abbreviations we stress each letter.

Ex. TUC [ˈtiːˈjuːˈsiː] — Trade Union Congress.

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

Ex. NATO [ˈneɪtəʊ], UNO [ˈjuːnəʊ]

Soundinterchange. Sound interchange is an alternation in the phonetic composition of the root. *Ex.* food (*n*)—feed (*v*), speak (*v*)—speech (*n*), strong (*adj*)—strength (*n*).

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

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

Back-formation. The term «back-formation» has a diachronic relevance (historical meaning).

Ex. The nouns **beggar**, **butler**, **cobbler**, **typewriter** are very much like the nouns **actor**, **painter**, **teacher**, which have the suffixes **-er**, **-or**. On the analogy of the derivatives **teacher**, **speaker**, **reader** the words **beggar**, **butler**, **cobler**, **typewriter** etc. synchronically are derived from to beg, to butle, to cob, to typewrite, because we do not feel any difference between the relationship «speak—speaker» and «beg—beggar». But if we study their origin we see **butle** was derived from «**butler**», «**to beg**» was derived from «**beggar**» (begar comes from french «begard», «begart»). So backformation «denotes the derivation of new words by subtracting a real or supposed affix from existing words through misinterpretation of their structure».¹

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

Ex. The noun «smog» is composed of the parts of nouns «smoke» and «fog» (sm (oke+f) og). The result of blending is an **unanalysable** simple word. We do not analyse the blended words (sm+fog) because their parts can't be called morphemes.

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

Ex. clash=clap+crash; flush=flash+blush, slanguage=slang+language, brunch=breakfast+lunch, smare=smoke+haze, seadrome=sea+airdrome). There are many blends in the terminological vocabulary. *Ex.* racon=radar+beacon, transceiver=transmitter+receiver.

Exercises

Ex. 1. Answer the following questions:

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

Ex. 2. The following words are the original words and their clippings. Using a dictionary explain their meanings.

defence—fence, defender—fender, example,—sample, alone—lone, amend—mend, attend—tend, assize—size, laboratory—lab.

Ex. 3. Find clippings and abbreviations and give their original forms:

bus, CPSU, auto, D—day, doc, Lat, U. N. O, USSR. V—day, Wed, Mon, MN, tend, prof, A—bomb, Mike.

Ex. 4. Define vowel interchange and consonant interchange.

strong—strengh, food—feed, advise—advice, use—use, speak—speech, offence—offend, defence—defend, break—breach.

Ex. 5. Read the following passage and explain the principles of backformation.

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

Back-formation is not much importance in the growth of the vocabulary, but there are a few examples of its operation in our times. One is the verb «automate», «introduce automatic machinery into (an industry, a factory), formed from the noun «automation» on the analogy of such pairs a «inflate—inflation, meditate—meditation»; the noun «automation» is itself a new word, presumably formed from «automatic» (Charles Barber).

Ex. 6. Find the original components of the following blends and give their equivalents in your mother-tongue.

brunch, windoor, smog, twinight, slanguage, seadrome, flush, clash.

Ex. 7. Read the extract and retell it in your own words.

Blending can be considered . . . as the method of merging (connecting) parts of words into one new word as when «sm+oke» and «fog» derived from «smog». Thus blending is compounding by means of curtailed (shortened) words. However, the clusters «sm» and «og» were morphemes only for the individual speaker who blended them while in terms of the linguistic system as recognized by the community, there are not signs at all. Blending, therefore, has no grammatical, but a stylistic status. The result of blending is . . . an unanalysable, simple word, not a motivated syntagma. (*H. Marchand*)

Ex. 8. Explain the following terms in English and in your mother-tongue illustrating them with your own examples from the English and your native language:

blending, shortening, clipping, abbreviation, backformation, soundinterchange.

Ex. 9. Learn the following shortened words by heart:

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

Ex. 10. Translate the following clippings into your mother-tongue:

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

Ex. 11. Find the shortened forms of the following words:

government, graduate, human, information, Institute, international, February, German, Democratic Republic, Executive Committee, North Atlantic Treaty Organization, Mister, Mistress, Military policy, temperature.

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LESSON 11

SEMASIOLOGY

THE SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF THE WORD

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Semasiology and its subject matter. 2. The definition of the term «meaning of the word». 3. Referential and functional approaches to the study of meaning. 4. Types of meanings. 5. Motivation and its different types.

TEXT

Semasiology is concerned with the meaning of words, studies the types of meaning, the change of meaning, the semantic structure of words, semantic groupings, synonyms,

antonyms, homonyms etc. There is no generally accepted definition of the term «meaning of the word».

F. de Saussure, a well-known Swiss linguist, says that the meaning is the relation between the object or notion named and the name itself.

L. Bloomfield, a well-known American linguist, points out that the meaning is the situation in which the word is uttered. The situations prompt people to utter speech.

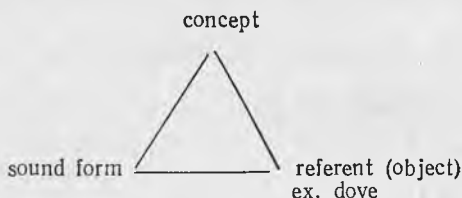
Ex. if we want to know the meaning of the word «apple» we must make a situation for it.

Our Soviet linguists say that the meaning is the realization of the notion by means of a definite language system (by a linguistic sign).

So the term «meaning» is a subject of discussion among the linguists. There are two main approaches to the study of the meaning of a word.

1) referential approach, 2) functional approach.

The referential approach treats the meaning of a word as a relation between the object (the referent), notion and its name (the word)



As can be seen from the diagram the sound form of the word (ex. «dove») is connected with our concept of the bird which it denotes and through it with the referent. Treating the meaning of a word by the referential approach is not quite clear. This point of view can hardly be accepted because meaning is not identical with the referent, there are words which do not denote a referent, ex. angel [eɪndʒɪl]. Besides one and the same referent may be denoted by different words. Ex. synonyms. But the sound form of the word is not identical with its meaning. Ex. homonyms. ex. spring— —баҳор, spring—булоқ. Besides a change in the sound-form do not affect its meaning. Ex. In O. E. *lufian* [luvɪən]— —Mod. E *love* [lʌv].

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

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

The functional approach treats the meaning as the relation of one word to another. By this approach the meaning can be studied only through context, through its relation to other words. *Ex.* to take the tram (a taxi), to take off, to take care of, to take ill, to take a degree, to take cold, to take it easy, to take on, to take place, to take tea, to take a bath, to take five minutes, to take notice, to take part in, to take a book, etc.

to make	a table	to look	forward
	a teacher		at
	smb do		after
	out		for
	up		through
	up one's mind		pale
			like

There are two main types of meaning:

1) the grammatical meaning, 2. 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. *Ex.* 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 unites words into big groups such as parts of speech.

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

The lexical meaning of a word falls into two:

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

Denotational meaning makes communication possible because words denote things, concepts, they name them. *Ex.* the denotational meaning of the word «table» is a piece of furniture consisting of a flat top with four supports (called legs). **The connotational meaning** is a meaning which has a stylistic shade. It serves to express all sorts of emotions, expressiveness. Connotation may be shortly defined as emotional and evaluative component of the lexical meaning, Comparing the meanings of English words «well-known», «famous», «notorious» we see that all these words express the denotational meaning «widely known». But the word «famous» has a positive evaluative meaning and «notorious» has a negative evaluation. So, the words «well-known», «famous», «notorious» differ in their emotional colouring and evaluation.

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

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

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

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

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

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

word and «to commence» stylistically is a literary word. In Uzbek «ora» is a neutral word but «ада», «дада» are colloquial.

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

Ex. «note-book». The morpheme «note» serves to distinguish the word from other words: exercise-book, copy-book or: bookshelf, bookcase. The functional meaning may be seen in derivational morphemes. If we see the words with the suffixes **-ment, -er, -ity, -or** we say that they are nouns.

Eg. establishment, plurality, teacher, translator, sailor.

If **-ful, -less, -able, -al** etc. are present in words we say adjectives. *Ex.* helpful, handless, guiltless, readable, national, writable, operational, openable, proposal.

The distributional meaning is found in all words having more than one morpheme. It is found in the arrangement and order of morphemes making up the word.

Ex. «teacher» but not *erteach.

«boyiness» but not *nessboyish.

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

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

The meaning of a word may be realized by its structure. A direct connection between the structural pattern of the word and its meaning is called the **motivation** of a word.

Motivation may be morphological, phonetical and semantic.

The relationship between morphemic structure and meaning is called morphological motivation. From this point of view the words may be motivated and non-motivated. *Ex.* sing, tell, eat, read, open, go are non-motivated words because each of them have simple stem and one morpheme. If we can see a direct connection between the structural pattern of the word and its meaning we say that this word is motiva-

ted. So in most cases the derived and compound words are motivated and simple words are non-motivated. *Ex.* eatable, readable, reader, doll-faced, singer are motivated but eat, read, doll, sing are non-motivated: ring, finger are non-motivated but finger-ring is motivated. The words may be partially motivated. *Ex.* «cranberry» is partially motivated because the morpheme «cran» has no meaning.

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

When the meaning of a word is metaphorically extended or when a word is used as a metaphorically extension of the central meaning we say the word is semantically motivated.

Ex. «He is my mother». Here «mother» is used metaphorically, the whole sentence means that «he looks after me like my mother». So the word «mother» is semantically motivated. «He is a fox». («He is cunning»), fox is semantically motivated.

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

Ex. the word «essex», «norfolk», «sutton» were non-motivated in old English. But «East-Saxon», «North + Folk», «South Town» in Modern English are motivated. If we compare the motivation of words in different languages it may differ considerably.

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

Exercises.

Ex. 1. Answer the following questions.

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

Ex. 2. Read the following extract and retell it in your own words.

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

Ex. 3. Using a dictionary state the meaning of these words and make a context where these meanings of the words are applied.

solar, question, to wage, to strain, milky, soft, green, lake, go.

Ex. 4. Determine the semantic motivation of the following words, mother, fox, monkey, snake, parrot, donkey, father.

Ex. 5. Define the grammatical and lexical meanings of the following words.

book, box, pen, pencil, teacher, writer, to join, to come, to go, to see, red, black, white, yellow, thin, thick, kindly, nicely, beautifully, handfully.

Ex. 6. Find the definition of the following terms looking up the dictionary of linguistic terms by O.S. Akhmanova and say them in your own words:

meaning (значение), referent (референт), motivation (мотивация), lexical meaning (лексическое значение), denotation (денотат), connotation (коннотация), function (функция), distribution (дистрибуция), metaphor (метафора).

Ex. 7. Define the differential, distributional and functional meanings of the following words.

bookcase, bookshop, bookshelf, bookseller, bookstall, bookworm, book-maker, book-keeper, note-book, copy-book, grammar-book, teacher, boyishness, childhood, readable, establishment, sailor, beautiful, national.

Ex. 8. Read the following passage and try to find your own examples to illustrate the point of view.

... words refer not only to thing but to the user's own feelings. The common term for the word's objective reference is «denotation». The common term for a word's emotional content is connotation. «Fragrance» (аромат), reek (вонь, скверный запах) odor (запах, аромат, благоухание) denote «smell». But «fragrance» connotes the speaker's approval of

the smell, «reek» connotes his «revulsion (внезапные изменение чувств) and «odor» carries no connotation at all. (Richard M: Eastman).

Ex. 9. Discuss the following groups of words from the point of view of their denotational and connotational meanings.

1) fat, stout, plump; 2) friend, crony, buddy, companion; 3) abridge, shorten, epitomize; 4) lament, mourn, deplore, grieve for etc.

Ex. 10. Compare the points of view to the term *meaning*.

Meaning is the reverberation in the human consciousness of an object of extralinguistic reality (a phenomenon, a relationship, a quality, a process) which becomes a fact of language because of its constant indissoluble association with a definite linguistic expression». (E. M. Mednikova)

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

«Meaning may be viewed as the function of [distribution] ... the meaning of linguistic unit may be studied only through its relation to other linguistic units. (P. S. Ginzburg et. al)

Ex. 11. Find the grammatical, lexical and types of lexical meanings of the following words according to the marks in their definitions.

Nose: *n* I. 1 нос; to blow one's nose—сморкаться; to speak through one's (the) nose—гнусовать, говорить в нос; to hold one's nose—зажимать нос; 2. морда, рыло (*у животных*). 3) 1) чутьё, нюх, обаяние; a dog with a good pose—собака с хорошим чутьём; 2) *перен.* нюх, чутьё; to have a good pose for smth—иметь хороший нюх на что либо (*о человеке*); 4. *диал.* запах, аромат (*сена, чая и т.п.*); букет (*вина*); 5. *жарг.* шпион, доносчик; провокатор, 6. *редк.* поиски, разнюхивание, to have a pose around ходить всюду и высматривать.

II. 1. носик, горлышко (*у сосуда*); 2. *мор.* нос (*корабля*); 3). *ав.* 1) носовая часть, 2) передний край, носок (*крыля*); 4. *тех.* рабочий выступ (*кулачка*); утолщение палец; 5. головка (*взрывателя*). 6. *геогр.* нос (*на барограмме*); *мед.* риноларинго-

логического отделения ~ agent (gas) *воен.* отравляющее вещество раздражающего действия на носоглотку, *pose* сара *воен жарг.* противогаз; *pose cone* — носовой конус, *pose-wheel* — носовое колесо.

Ex. 12. Retell the following extract and make up topics for discussion.

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

Ex. 13. State what shade of meaning the words given in bold type imply. Give their contextual Uzbek equivalents.

1. We're looking for ideas — especially about the war.
2. He warmed to his **conception** of himself.
3. So that's the **notion** he concluded after five minutes.
4. Oh, just let me **mark** that, she said quickly.
5. He looked at the page which she **checked**.
6. I hate to give an idea without money **on the line**.
7. The last door **in the line** belonged to a man he didn't like.
8. And it **turned out** he's the man who painted the pictures many years ago.
9. After a minute she **turned to** Pete.
10. He had been **in business** for twenty years.

Ex. 14. Compare the meanings of the correlated words:

Осмон

Sky

1. Ер устида гумбаз шаклида кўри-
ниб турган мовий фазо; само,
фалак, кўк.
2. Кўчма. Жуда баланд етиб бўл-
майдиган даражада юқори.

1. Осмон.
2. Иқлим. оби ҳаво.
3. under the open sky—
очиқ ҳавода.

Ex. 15. Translate the following sentences into English. Pay attention to the correspondants of the Uzbek words given in bold type.

1. Севгига тушган **доғни** дарё қадар кўз ёши тўкиш билан тозалаб бўлармишми?

2. Ёввойи ўт — ҳосилнинг душмани.

3. Вали Ғулومнинг ёниб куйлаганига, кўзларининг ғўзалар ичида нигорон **бўзлашига** ҳайрон бўлади.

4. Менинг зарбим қаттиқ, йил — ўн икки ой колхозчига тинчлик бермайман.

5. Онажон — деди Отабек, сизнинг **заҳарли** сўзларингизга нима дейишга ҳам ҳайронман.

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LESSON 12

CHANGE OF MEANING OF WORDS

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. The causes of semantic change. 2. Metaphor and metonymy. 3. A metaphor and a simile. 4. The extension and the restriction of meaning of words. 5. The deterioration and amelioration of meaning of words.

TEXT

The meaning of a word is a changeable category. The causes of semantic changes may be either linguistic or extra-linguistic. Extra-linguistic causes are different changes in the life of the people speaking the language, the coming into existence of new notions and objects, changes in economic and social life, changes of ideas and etc.

Ex. the word «mill» originally meant ручная мельница. The development of industry gave use to the meaning «mill»

предприятие, завод. *Ex.* a cotton mill, a steel mill. The word «atom» meant indivisible substance. Now the scientists discovered that atom can be divided and this changes our concept of atomic indivisibility. A change in the meaning may be brought about by different linguistic developments in the lexical system as a whole.

The word may change its meaning by the shortening of a word group. *Ex.* The old meaning of the verb «to starve» was «to die» and it was often used in the word group «to starve of hunger». The modern meaning of the verb «to starve» is the result of the shortening of the word group, «to starve of hunger».

The meaning of the word «weekly» a newspaper published weekly is the shortened form of the word group «weekly newspaper», «a musical» is the shortened form of the word group «a musical comedy» etc.

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

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

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

<i>Ex.</i> warm voice	warm temperature
cold voice	cold temperature

The similarity may be based on several shapes.

1) similarity of form. *Ex.* eye of a needle, a head of a pin; 2) similarity of function. *Ex.* the head of the state, the head of the demonstration; 3) similarity of position. *Ex.* the foot of the mountain, a foot of the page, the top of the table, the leg of the table.

The usage of proper names for common nouns may cause a metaphor too. Some scientists use widely some characters. *Ex.* He is a pushkin of our days (he is a very strong poet).

She is a tursunoy (she is a very good cotton picker). Sometimes the names of animals are used to denote the human qualities.

Ex. She is a fox (she is very cunning). She is a parrot (She is talkative).

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

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

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

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

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

word «season» was «spring». The new meaning is any part of the year. Here is another example. The old meaning of «to bootleg» was to sell alcoholic drinks illegally» New meaning is «to sell anything illegally».

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

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

The meaning of a word may become deteriorated as a result of semantic change. *Ex.* the old meaning of «villain» was «farm labourer», new meaning is злодей, негодяй (ярамац). The old meaning of «knave» was —мальчик, бола, new meaning is «мошенник» (қаллоб).

Exercises

Ex. 1. Answer the following questions.

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

Ex. 2. State what kind of semantic change was involved in the development of the words: consult dictionaries.

1) to starve (original meaning is «to die»); 2) to discipline (originally «provide discipline, train, control»); 3) fowl (originally «bird»); 4) deer (originally «beast»); 5) to refute (originally «disprove», «confute»).

Ex. 3. Define whether the words given in bold type are metaphors or metanonyms.

1. The kettle is boiling. 2. The words **stuck** in her throat. 3. I like **Lermontov**. 4. Never mind, let him **boil**. 5. **Arguing sharpens** one's intellect. 6. She is **wrapped up** in her children. 7. She is a **cat**. 8. Don't **jump** to conclusions.

Ex. 4. Read the following extract and explain what type of semantic change it is.

«If you live long enough you will find out to your grea-

test amazement that the adjective «nice» is not the only adjective the language possesses, in spite of the fact that in the first three years you do not need to learn.

Ex. 5. Find in your mother-tongue the examples of the change of meaning of the word as a result of shortening of word-groups. Translate the following into Uzbek:

the primary — the primary component of the binary system of a star; the secondary — the secondary component of the binary system of a star; the experimental — the experimental-part of investigation; antimicrobials — antimicrobial substances; the normals — the normal lines, the normal conditions; the means — mean terms, mean value, mean temperature, mean quantity; the ordinary — ordinary differential equations, ordinary figures; the fines — fines particles, fines fragments, fine filaments, fine threads.

Ex. 6. Read the following extract. Find your own examples to illustrate them in English and in Uzbek.

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

Ex. 7. Compare the metaphorical meanings of the correlated words in three languages.

English	Russian	Uzbek
Eagle	орёл (бургут)	бургут (орёл)
1. орёл (бургут)	1. хищная птица	1. большая хищная птица (энг катта йиртқич қуш)
2. монета с изображением орла (бургут расми бор танга)	2. перен. о гордом, смелом, сильном человеке (кучли; қўрқмас одам)	2. хищный человек (йиртқич, ёвуз)
3. созвездие (юлдузлар туркуми)		
4. жарг. курсант, день полочки (курсант, мояна олина диган кун)		

falcon

сокол

лочин

- | | | |
|------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| 1. сокол (лочин) | 1) хищная птица | 1) хищная птица |
| 2. ист. фалкон | (йиртқич қуш) | (йиртқич қуш) |
| | 2) перен. о молод- | 2) перен, стокатель- |
| | це (кўчма. эпчил) | ный человек (кўч- |
| | | ма. енгил, чаққон, |
| | | ғоят ғайратли одам) |

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LESSON 13

POLYSEMY

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Polysemantic and monosemantic words. 2. Diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of polysemy. 3. Context, its types and its role in determination of different meanings of words. 4. Frequency value and stylistic reference of different meanings of words. 5. The comparative study of different meanings of polysemantic words in different languages.

TEXT

Polysemy is the existence within one word of several connected meanings. These meanings appeared as a result of the development and changes of its original meaning. Words are divided into two: polysemantic and monosemantic words. Polysemantic words are words which have more than two meanings. Monosemantic words have only one meaning. *Ex.* The word «man» has eleven meanings in modern English.

1) человек (одам), 2) адвокат (адвокат), 3) мужчина (эркак), 4) мужественный человек (қўрқмас одам), 5) человечество (одамийлик), 6) слуга (хизматкор), 7) рабочий (иш-

чи), 8) муж (эр), 9) рядовые матросы (денгизчилар), 10) вассал (вассал), 11) пешка пиёда (*шахматда*).

The word «room» has 3 meanings:

1) комната (хона), 2) место (жой), 3) возможность (қулайлик).

The word «new» has 8 meanings:

1) новый (янги), 2) иной, другой (бошқа); 3) недавний (яқинда келтирилган); 4) свежий (янги); 5) современный (замонавий); 6) передовой (илғор); 7) вновь обнаруженный (қайта топилган); 8) незнакомый (беғона).

to paint	1. красить (бўямоқ)
	2. писать красками (бўёқ билан чизмоқ)
	3. описывать, изображать (тасвирламоқ)
	4. приукрашивать (бўяб кўрсатмоқ)
	5. румяниться, краситься (бўянмоқ)
	6. пьянствовать (маст бўлмоқ)
	7. смазывать (сурмоқ)

white

white cloud белое облако (оқ булутлар)

white collar *амер.* служащий (хизматкор)

white hair седой волос (оқ соч)

white lie невинная ложь (айбсиз хато)

white house белый дом (оқ уй)

white race счастливого пути (оқ йўл)

white witch добрая колдунья (меҳрибон сеҳргар)

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

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

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

Polysemy may be analysed from two ways: diachronical-

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

Ex. the primary meaning of the word «fox» is лиса, лисица (тулки урғочиси) but such meanings of this word as лисий мех (тулки жуни), первокурсник (биринчи курс студенти) are secondary meanings. Here are other examples: eye the primary meaning is «глаз (кўз), secondary is взгляд (нигоҳ), глазок в двери (эшикдаги кўрадиган тешик), ушко иголки (игна кўзи), петельки (тугма тақиладиган тешик); «father» — the primary meaning is отец (ота), secondary is старейший член (ёши улуг аъзо), родоначальник (қабилла бошлиғи), духовный отец (диний одам, руҳоний) etc «fish» — the primary meaning is рыба (балиқ), secondary is нахал, наглец (сурбет).

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

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

Ex. 1. It is a fox. Here «it» shows that the word «fox» is used in the meaning «лиса» («тулки»).

2. He is a fox. The presence of «he» shows that «fox» is in the meaning of «хитрый» («айёп»).

3. She will fox him. We find the meaning from the position of «fox». It stands after the auxiliary verb «will» and the direct object «him». Here it is used in the meaning of обманывать («алдамоқ»).

The meaning which is not dependent on context is the major (or basic) meaning of the word and the meanings which are dependent on the context are minor meanings. By context we mean the minimal stretch of speech determining

each individual meaning of the word. Ex. «to make» means «to produce smth». This is its basic meaning but other meanings are minor meanings because they can be found only in a context.

The meaning of a word may be determined either by its lexical or by its grammatical context.

Ex. the verb «to take» in such lexical distributions as: take + tea (coffee, medicine)—its meaning is пить (ичмоқ); take + care — заботиться (ғамхўрлик қилмоқ); take + off — раздеваться (ечмоқ); to take + tram, the metro, a bus — сесть на . . . (трамвайга, автобуса тушмоқ); The meaning «больной» of the adjective «ill» is brought out only by a syntactical pattern in which «ill» is used as a predicative (*ex.* the man is ill) while the syntactical pattern in which the word «ill» is used as an attribute, brings out the meaning — плохой (ёмон) вредный an ill man — плохой человек (ёмон одам).

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

The meanings of polysemantic words have different stylistic references. *Ex.* «jerk» in the meaning of «sudden movement» belongs to a neutral style but in the meaning of «an odd person» it is a slang (mostly expressive and ironical words). Stylistically neutral meanings are very frequent. In any historical period as a result of semantic development the secondary meaning of the word may become the central (major meaning of the word). *Ex.* revolution M. E. 1360 — 1460 meant «the revolving motion of celestial bodies», the meaning «революция» was the secondary, minor meaning. Now the meaning «революция» is the major meaning.

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

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

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

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

Exercises

Ex. 1. Answer the following questions:

1. What is understood by the term «polysemy»? 2. What is the difference between polysemantic and monosemantic words? 3. How do we analyse polysemy diachronically? 4. How do we classify the meanings of polysemantic words diachronically? 5. How do we classify the meanings of polysemantic words synchronically? 6. What is a context? 7. What types of contexts do you know? 8. What is the frequency value of meanings of polysemantic words? 9. What are the stylistic references of different meanings of words? 10. What is the semantic structure of correlated words in different languages? 11. What are the most characteristic features of polysemantic words.

Ex. 2. Define the major and minor meanings of the following words:

nut — орех, чайка, мелкий уголь, object — предмет, вещь, цель, намерение, объект, дополнение (*грам*), person — лицо, лицо (*грам*), внешность, sense — чувство, ощущение, здравый смысл, разум, значение, sentence — предложение, приговор, решение, shop — магазин, мастерская, цех.

Ex. 3. Determine the meanings of the verb «to get» in the following sentences.

1. Where did you get this hat? 2. How did you get there? 3. He got into his coat and left. 4. I can't get on this horse. 5. I got through half of the book only. 6. How many stations can you get on your radio-set? 5. Will you get off the tram? 8. At last I got rid of him.

Ex. 5. Translate the following sentences into your mother-tongue paying attention to the meaning of the verb «stand».

1. Will he stand us champagne? 2. She stood us a good dinner. 3. Who is going to stand treat? 4. I can't stand the man. 5. He could not stand the heat. 6. We stand a poor chance of winning. 7. Who stands to win. 8. What do we stand to gain by it.

Ex. 5. Make up lexical and grammatical context to determine the meanings of the following words.

to take, to make, to see, to look, room, ill, fox, hand, to get, to stand.

Ex. 6. Translate the following combination of words into your mother-tongue.

close a door, a window, shoot a bird, shoot a film, beat smb badly, beat smb at chess, a dull knife, a dull person, catch a cold, catch a bird, make a teacher, make a table.

Ex. 7. Explain the meaning of words given in bold type.

1. He bought a **chair** at the furniture store. 2. Please address the **chair**. 3. He will **chair** the meeting. 4. He was condemned to the electric **chair**. 5. He was appointed to the **chair** of lexics of junior courses. 6. My **father** came. 7. **Father** Tom came. 8. He was the **father** of the idea. 9. It is a **fox**. 10. He is a **fox**. 11. She will **fox** him. 12. He cut his **hand**. 13. He cut off a **hand** of bananas. 14. **Hand** me a book.

Ex 8. Compare the semantic structure of the following correlated words in English, Uzbek and Russian:

Вой	Бола	Мальчик
1. мальчик (бола)	1. ребенок (гўдак, чақалоқ)	1. ребенок мужского пола (ўғил бола)
2. разг. сын, мальчик (ўғил)	2. сын (фарзанд, ўғил-қиз)	2. <i>уст.</i> ученик в торговом предприятии (савдо соҳасидаги ўқувчи)
3. мор. юнга (юнга)	3. человек, действующий как ребенок (<i>кўчма.</i> ёши улғайган, аммо гў-	
4. бой (слуга) (хизматкор)		
5. диал. мужчина (эркак)		

6. разг. шампанское (шампан ичимлиги) даklarга ўхшаб иш тутадиган одам)
- 4) форма обращения пожилых людей молодым (кексаларнинг ёшларга муружаат формаси)
- 5) детеныш, птичка (ёш ҳайвон, парранда), кошечка (мушук бола)
6. маленькие вещи (бир турдаги каттакичик нарсаларнинг кичиги, кичкинаси)

Ex. 9. Read the following extract and retell the main content of it in your own words illustrating the points with the examples from your mother-tongue.

«The frequency of polysemy in different languages is a variable depending on a number of factors. The progress of civilization will make it necessary not only to form new words but to add fresh meanings to old ones: in Breal's formula, the more senses a term has accumulated, the more senses a term has accumulated the more diverse aspects of intellectual and social activity it represents. It would be interesting to explore over a wider field the relation between polysemy and cultural progress. Meanwhile, the frequency of polysemy will also depend on purely linguistic factors. As already noted, languages where derivation and composition are sparingly used will tend to fill gaps in vocabulary by adding new meanings to existing terms. Similarly polysemy will arise more often in generic words whose meaning varies according to context than in specific terms whose sense is less subject to variation. The relative frequency of polysemy in various languages may thus provide a further criterion for semantic typology, though once again it is hard to see now this feature could be exactly measured. (S. Ullmann).

Ex. 10. Give your point of view to this extract.

«Polysemy is a fertile source of ambiguity in language. In a limited number of cases, two major meanings of the same word are differentiated by formal means: for example,

flexion (brothers—brethren, hanged—hung); word order (ambassador extraordinary — extraordinary ambassador; spelling (discreet — discrete, draft — draught etc). In the last majority of cases, however, the context alone will suffice to exclude all irrelevant senses. When all these safeguards break down, a conflict between two or more incompatible meanings will ensure and this may lead to the disappearance of some of these meanings, or even to that of the word itself. In the present state of our knowledge it is impossible to say whether there are any general tendencies at work in these conflicts and in the way they are resolved. (*S. Ullmann*).

Ex. 11. Define the meanings of the verb «to get» in the following sentences.

1. Could you please tell me how to get to the post office? 2. Be sure to get there in time. 3. When you get to the end of the chapter put your hands up. 4. What time do you usually get in from work (college)? 5. John never gets in before six. 6. Did Mary ring? I don't know. I've only just got in. 7. What time does the train get in (to London)? 8. I left my keys at work, so I couldn't get into the flat. 9. Let's get out of here. Somebody might see us. 10. Get out before I throw you out. 11. They got on the bus. 12. The plane landed but the passengers were not allowed to get off. 13. Get into bed at once! 14. We didn't get to bed till nearly two o'clock. 15. Mary has applied to Oxford. Oh, yes? Do you think she'll get in? 16. She tried to get out of doing the washing up by pretending to be in a great hurry. 17. How are you getting on? 18. How are you getting on with your book? 19. How did you get on in your exam? 20. Don't invite Michael this time. He and David don't get on.

Ex. 12. Retell the extract illustrating the point with your own examples.

There is however, another aspect of polysemy which can be more precisely quantified: its relation to word — frequency. By systematically comparing the relative frequency of various words with the number of senses in which they are used, the late Q. K. Zipf arrived at an interesting conclusion which he termed the «principle of diversity of meanings». According to Zipf there is a direct relationship between the number of different meanings of a word and its relative frequency of occurrences. He even tried to find a mathematical formula for this relationship: his calculations sug-

gested that «different meanings of a word will tend to be equal to the square root of its relative frequency (with the possible exception of the few dozen most frequent words. (S. Ullman)

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LESSON 14

HOMONYMS

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. The definition of homonyms. 2. The classification of homonyms. 3. The sources of homonyms. 4. Polysemy and homonymy. 5. The wordformational activity of homonymic pairs.

TEXT

Two or more words identical in sound and spelling but different in meaning are called homonyms.

- Ex.* ball₁ — бал (рақс тури), ball₂ — мяч (копток)
toast₁ — поджаривать хлеб (нонни ёғда қовурмоқ)
toast₂ — провозглашать тост (ўтиришларда гапирмоқ)
rose₁ — роза (атир гул)
Rose₂ — имя девушки (қизнинг исми)
sound₁ — звук (товуш)
sound₂ — пролив (қуюлиш)
bark₁ — лай собаки (кучукнинг вовуллаши)
bark₂ — плывущий корабль (сузаётган кема)

Homonyms must be studied diachronically and synchronically. Diachronically we study the origin of homonyms, the sources of homonyms, the time of their appearance in

the language. Synchronically we analyse the present peculiarities of homonyms, their classification etc.

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

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

Ex. fast₁ — quickly, fast₂ — to do smth. quickly.

back₁ — назад (орқага)

back₂ — спина (орқа)

spring₁ — пружина (пружина)

spring₂ — весна (баҳор)

spring₃ — родник (булоқ)

Homophones are words of the same sound form but of different spelling and meaning.

Ex. air — воздух (ҳаво)

heir — наследник (ворис)

pail — ведро (челак)

pale — бледный (оқарган)

son — сын (ўғил)

sun — солнце (қуёш)

him — hymn

knight — night

piece — peace

write — right

see — sea

read — reed

pray — prey

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

Ex. lead [li:d] lead [led]

tear [tɛə] tear [tɪə]

wind [wɪnd] wind [waɪnd]

bow [bou] bow [bau]

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

He distinguished the following types of homonyms:

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

Ex. seal *n* — a sea animal

seal *n* — a design printed on paper, stamp.

hair_n — hare_n, ball_n — ball_n

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

Ex. sea — to see seal *n* — a sea animal, to seal *v* — to close tightly, work *n* — to work *v*, well *adv* — well *n* — колодец (қудуқ). There may be cases when lexico-grammatical homonyms are observed within the same part of speech.

Ex. The words «found» (past tense of «to find») and

«found» (present tense of «to found») differ both grammatically and lexically.

3) grammatical homonymy is the homonymy of the different wordforms of one and the same word (part of speech).

Ex. boys — boy's, asked₁ — past tense asked₂, p. II.

There are some sources of homonyms. They are:

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

Ex. spring₁ — пружина, spring₂ — родник, spring₃ — весна, can be etymologically traced back to the same source, «flower» and «flour» which originally were one word (M. E. flour). The meaning was «the flower» and «the finest part of wheat», now they are different words.

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

3) many homonyms arose from conversion, they have related meanings *Ex.* paper — to paper, support — to support.

Some linguists think that converted pairs must not be included in homonyms. This question demands further investigation.

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

5) borrowed words may become homonyms as a result of phonetic convergence.

Ex. Scandinavian «ras» and French *race* are homonymous in English:

race — состязание, race — рейс

case₁ — падеж, case₂ — чемодан, case₃ — случай

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

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

Ex. voice₁ — sounds uttered in speaking (sound)
voice₂ — mode of uttering sounds in speaking (sound)

voice₃ — the vibration of the vocal cords in sounds uttered (sound).

voice₄ — the form of the verb that express the relation of the subject to the action.

voice₁ — voice₂ — voice₃ — are not homonyms although they have different meanings because they can be substituted by the synonym «sound». As far as «voice₄» is concerned it is a homonym because it can't be substituted by the word «sound». V. Abayev gave etymological criterion. He says homonyms are words which have different sources and only coincided phonetically.

Ex. race₁ (O. N. ras), race₂ (F. race).

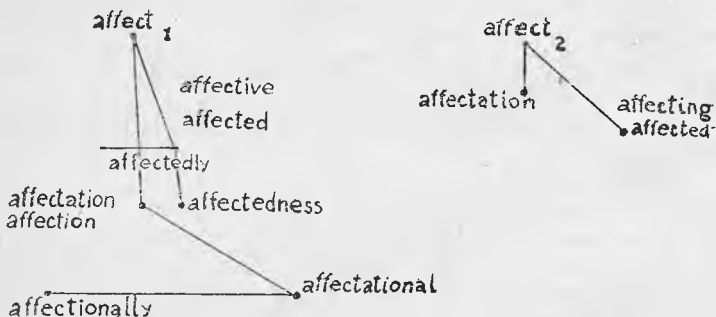
I (O. E. ic) — eye (O. E. ea³e)

So this question demands further investigation.

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

Homonyms differ in their wordformational activity.

Ex. «affect₁» — has 8 derivatives whereas, «affect₂» has 3;



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

Exercises

Ex. 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What is a homonym? 2. How do we analyse homonyms? 3. What is the classification of homonyms? 4. What

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

Ex. 2. Translate the following word combinations. Define homonyms or the different meanings of one polysemantic word.

chain of events, gold chain, a buttered toast, propose a toast, plunge into a river, plunge into work, textile industry, his patience and industry, stretch a cloth, stretch the standards, wax seal, live seal.

Ex. 3. Define homophones, homographs, homonyms proper.

air — воздух, heir — наследник, site — площадка, sight — зрение, desert — покидать, desert — пустыня, son — сын, sun — солнце, rep — ручка, rep — загонять в вагон, rep — писать, pill — грабить, pill — давать пилюли, plane — выравнивать, plain — сетовать, plane — самолет, plump — бухнуть-ся, plump — полнеть, paw — лапа, pour — лить.

Ex. 4. Define lexical, lexico-grammatical, grammatical homonyms in the following sentences:

1. I thought there might be a **scene**. 2. He had not **seen** his father. 3. We fight for **peace**. 4. Bring a **piece** of chalk. 4. He asked him to see a new film. 5. I have **asked** her to go to the Institute. 6. I have a **ball**. 7. He danced a **ball** at the party. 8. He reads a book. 9. Ann's books are on the table.

Ex. 5. Read and retell in your words.

«We can approach homonyms from a different point of view and classify them into lexical and grammatical homonyms. Lexical homonyms are words of the same part of speech but of quite a different meaning, so that there is no semantic relation between them, e. g.

match ₁ — матч	piece ₁ — кусок
match ₂ — спичка	peace ₂ — мир

Grammatical homonyms are words of different parts of speech:

work — работа	to work — работать
light — свет	light — светлый

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

Ex. 6. Give your point of view to this extract.

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

Ex. 7. Find homonyms for the following words.

bank, tail, son, ear, tear, light, sight, spring, fly, sound, flat, match, charge, race, ring, round.

Ex. 8. Give homophones for the following words:

fair, hare, I, week, write, plain, flour, night, sea, site, there.

Ex. 9. Explain the definition of the following terms using the dictionary of linguistic terms by Akhmanova O. S.

гомопун (омоним), homophone (омофон), homograph (омограф), гомопуну (омонимия), grammatical homonyms (грамматические омонимы).

Ex. 10. Say what linguistic phenomena these jokes are based on. Retell the jokes in your own words.

—«What's the difference between soldiers and girls?»

—«The soldier faced powder. Girls powder faces».

* * *

She: «Now that we're engaged, dear, you'll give me a ring, won't you?».

He: Yes, dear, certainly. What's your telephone number?

* * *

A Scotchman was going on an excursion to New York. He handed the agent a ten-dollar bill as the agent called. «Change at Jersey City».

«No jokes now — I want my change right away?» said the frightened Scotchman.

Ex. 11. Study the method of definition of homonyms and using this method prove that your own examples are homonyms.

Table

1) **table** — piece of furniture consisting of a flat top with (usu. four) supports (called legs)

2) **table** — (sing. only) people seated at a table

3) **table** — (sing, only) food provided at a table

4) **table** — list of orderly arrangement of facts, information, etc (use in columns)

We'll explain the second and the third meanings by substituting them with the help of the definition of the first meaning.

2) **table** — people seated at a piece of furniture;

3) **table** — food served at a piece of furniture. So these two meanings of the word «table» are the meanings of one word «table» because they can be substituted by the first meaning.

The fourth meaning «таблица» can't be substituted by the first meaning (list — number of names (persons, items) written or printed) This gives us the right that the fourth meaning of the word «table» is the homonym to the previous third meaning.

Beam

1) **beam** — long horizontal piece of squared timber or of steel supported at both ends, used to carry the weight of a building etc;

2) **beam** — horizontal cross timber in a ship, joining the sides and supporting the deck (s), the greatest width of a ship.

3) **beam** — crosspiece of a balance, from which the scales hang.

4) **beam** — ray or stream of light.

The first, second and third meanings are defined by the common semantic component and they may be defined with the words «horizontal and «timber» and may be transformed by the first meaning of the word. But the fourth meaning has no common semantic component with the first, second and third meanings (stream — steady frow (of light): light — that which makes thing visible).

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

Ex. 12. Read the extract and retell it in your own words.

« . . . the sense, it goes without saying, depends on the referent and the nature of the referent has to be defined by the context. Thus, the «cat» of «The cat sat on the mat» is different from the «cat» of «Bring back the cat for thugs and rapists». We cannot say that «cat» is a single word possessing two distinct meanings; there are two words phonemically identical but semantically different; we call these «homonyms». The «cat» of the second sentence refers back etymologically — by the grim fancy of «cat o'nine tails» — to the cat of the hearthrug, but word — origin can never be invoked, as we have already pointed out, in the examination of meanings. (*A. Burgers*)

Ex. 13. Read Ginzburg and other author's chapter on homonyms, discuss the following homonyms and find their Uzbek equivalents:

race₁ and race₂, flower₁, and flour₂, case₁ and case₂, seal₁ and seal₂, paper₁ and paper₂, knight and night.

Ex. 14. Translate the following Uzbek homonyms into English and make up your own examples with them.

1. Менинг дўстим Тошкентга эртага келади. «Роҳат» ни эшитиб Тантйбойвачча қичқирди ва «дўст» деб юборди. 2. Бу дунёда бизнинг ҳамма ишларимиз яхши бўлади. У дунё орттирмоқ учун Лондонга кетди. 3. Раҳим бобо соқолини ушлаб, бош чайқаб қўйди. Рустамжон унинг бош боласи эди. 4. Давлат плани албатта бажарилади. Фарзанд она ва ота учун катта давлат. 5. Кеча менинг дўстим Тошкентга келди. Бизнинг институтимизда юбилей кечаси бўлди. 6. Ой ер атрофида айланади. У уч ойдан кейин келади. 7. Тилнинг учи танглайга кўтарилади. Рус тили жуда ҳам бой тил ҳисобланади. 8. Эртага у келади. Сиз бугун эрта келибсиз.

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LESSON 15

THE VOCABULARY OF A LANGUAGE AS A SYSTEM

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. *Synonyms and their classification.*
2. *Antonyms and thier classification.*
3. *Neologisms, archaisms and obsolete words.*
4. *Emotionally coloured words.*
5. *Semantic fields.*

TEXT

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

Synonyms are words belonging to the same part of speech different in morphemic composition and phonemic shape but identical or similar in meaning and interchangeable at least in some contexts. *Ex.* jump, hop, leap, spring, defend, protect, guard shield; absence, privation, lack, want; error, mistake; go, leave, depart. Complete synonyms do not exist. Bloomfield says each linguistic form has a constant and specific meaning.

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

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.

Synonyms may be divided into:

- 1) ideographic synonyms; 2) stylistic synonyms.

Synonyms which differ in their denotational meanings are called **ideographic synonyms**. If the difference lies in their stylistic difference the synonyms are said to be stylistic. Ex. beautiful (usually about girls) and handsome (usually about men). These are ideographic synonyms but «to die — to pass away», «to begin — to commence», «to see — to behold», «to end — to complete», «horse — steed» are stylistic synonyms.

neutral words

to see
a girl
money
food
to live

stylistically coloured words

to behold (bookish)
a maiden (poetic)
dough (colloquial)
grub (colloquial)
to hand out (colloquial)

Prof. Aznaurova E. S. ¹points out that stylistic synonyms carry emotional evaluative information.

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

possible

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

impossible

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

The main sources of synonyms are:

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

2) The formation of verb + 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 con-

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

sisting of a verb with a postpositive element form synonyms: *ex.* to choose — to pick out, to continue — to go on, to return — to bring back.

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

7) slang. i. e. emotionally coloured words which are the secondary names of objects.

Ex. сокрушитель, — crusher (полицейский), тюрьма — — can (дословно консервная банка), убить — to bump off — — (дословно пристукнуть), казнить — to fry — (дословно зажарить), голова — bean (дословно боб) или mug (дословно кружка).

Antonyms are words which belong to the same part of speech and have contrary meanings. *Ex.* kind — cruel, good — — bad, big — small, little — much.

Antonyms may be divided into: 1) root antonyms: *ex.* good — bad, beautiful — ugly, kind — cruel, old — young.

2) derivational antonyms. These antonyms are formed by affixes. *Ex.* kind — unkind, to like — dislike, possible — impossible, regular, irregular. Antonyms are not always interchangeable in certain contexts. *Ex.* «rich voice» can not be changed into «poor voice». The opposite of a short person is a tall person. A short thing — long thing, an old book — — a new book, an old man — a young man, a thin man — a fat man, a thin book — a thick book.

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, alike — different, old — new.

Polysemantic words may have antonyms in some of their meanings and none in the others. *Ex.* when the word «criticism» means «blame» its antonym is «praise», when it means «рецензия» it has no antonym.¹

The majority of linguists nowadays agree that the vocabulary should be studied as a system. We must study interrelated systems. For different purposes of study different types of grouping of words may be effective.

¹ I. V. Arnold. Op. cit., p. 214.

Words joined together by one common semantic component form **semantic fields**. Ex. the semantic field of time.

The German linguist Jost Trier shows that the significance of each unit in the semantic field is determined by its neighbours. A. Shaikevitch says that semantically related words must occur near one another in the text. If the words often occur in the text together they must be semantically related and they form a semantic field.

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.

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. *Ex.* isotope, tape-recorder, supermarket, V-day (Victory day). The research of cosmic space by the Soviet people gave birth to new words: sputnik, lunik, space-rocket, space-ship. Neologisms may be divided into:

1) root words: *Ex.* jeep — a small light motor vehicle, zebra — street crossing place, sputnik, lunik etc;

2) derived words: *Ex.* collaborationist — one who in occupied territory works helpfully with the enemy, to accessorize — to provide with dress accessories;

3) compound: *Ex.* space — rocket, air — drop, microfilm-reader. New words are as a rule monosemantic. Terms, used in various fields of science and technique make the greater part of neologisms. New words belong only to the notional parts of speech: to nouns, verbs, adjectives etc.

Neologisms are mainly formed by: 1) wordformation (mainly productive type).

Ex. -gen, -ogen: **carinogen** (biological term)

-ics: **psycholinguistics**, **electronics**

sputnik — to **sputnik** (conversion)

— nik: **filmnik**, **folknik**.

2) semantic extension: heel — a tractor (old meaning: heel — the back part of foot); to screen — to classify, to select methodically (old meaning was — to separate coal into different sizes);

3) borrowing: telecast, telestar (Greek), sputnik, lunnik, udarnik (Russian).

Words may drop out as a result of the disappearance of the actual objects they denote. These words are called **obsolete words**.

The disappearance of words may be caused as a result of influence of borrowings.

Ex. the scandinavian «take» and «die» ousted O. E. *niman* and *sweldan*.

The French «army» and «place» replaced the O. E. *here* and *steps*. Words which are not used generally are called **archaisms**. Archaisms are used in poetic vocabulary.

Ex. *steed* (horse), *slay* (kill), *welkin* (sky)

Archaisms should be distinguished from historical terms or historicalisms which denote historical reality and commonly used in modern English.

Ex. *cannon-ball*, *chain mail*, *lance*, *archer*, *baldric* (belt for a sword).

Speech also expresses the speakers attitude to what he is talking about. The speaker may wish to warn, to influence people, to express his approval or disapproval. Words expressing emotion are called **emotionally coloured words**. Deminutive and derogatory affixes play an important role in forming emotionally coloured words.

Ex. *daddy*, *kiddykins*, *babykins*, *oldie*, *blackie*.

In Uzbek: *дадажон*, *сингилгинам*, *қизалоқ*, *бўталоқ*,
Interjections also express emotion without naming them:

Ah!, Hush!, Hell!, Nonsense!, Pooh;

In Uzbek: *вой*, *айланай*, *эҳ*.

The derogatory suffixes may form emotionally coloured words.

<i>Ex.</i> bastard — внебрачный ребенок	weakling — слабое существо
drunkard — пьяница	hibster — хиппи
dullard — тупица	

In Uzbek: *ойимча*, *ойимтилла*, *ўргилибгина кетай*

It is very interesting that many personal nouns formed by the composition from complete sentences or phrases in most cases are derogatory:

Ex. *also-run* — ну и скакун, непосредственность
never-say-die — несдающиеся, неприклонный
stick-in-the mud — отсталый человек, растяпа
die-hard — крайний консерватор, живучий

There are nouns formed by conversion which are used emotionally coloured:

a bare — скучный человек

a washout — пропавший человек

There are some words which indicate the special importance of the thing expressed. They are called **intensifiers**.

Ex. even, ever, all, so, awfully, tremendously, wonderfully, terribly.

awfully glad, terribly important . . .

The Uzbek words: оҳ, фиғон, афғон, фарёд are used as the intensifiers.

It should be pointed out that among the emotionally coloured words we can find words which express evaluation, judgement. They are called **evaluatory words**. Mostly names of animals have a strong evaluatory force.

Ex. «Silly ass» said Dick. «He's jealous because he didn't win a prize».

cattwitted — мелочный, dirty dog — грязный подлец,

colt — a young male horse used for a young unexperienced person, pup — щенок, They have negative evaluation.

But in English we have words which have positive evaluation, ex. bunny — кролик (ласк), bunting — птичка (ласк).

In the English language we can find a lot of vulgar words which are used in emotional speech: ex. Damn! Alas!

One and the same word may have different evaluation when it is used with words denoting different sex.

He is a bull (it has a positive evaluation)

She is a bull (it has a negative evaluation)

In Uzbek: «чехра» has positive evaluation but «башара» has negative;

On different occasions and situations the speaker uses different words, chooses different words in different spheres of communication. There are some words which are used in lecture, in a poem or when speaking to a child, an official person etc. They are very highly frequent words. These words are called **stylistically neutral words**.

Ex. evening, man, girl, table, horse, read, write, speak, beautiful, nice etc.

But we have a lot of words which cannot be used in any situation or we speak to any person. They are called **stylistically marked words**.

Ex. the English nouns «horse», «steed», «gee-gee» have

the same meaning, they all refer to the same animal but they are stylistically different.

«Horse» is stylistically neutral and may be used in any situation. «Steed» belongs to poetic vocabulary. It has a lofty meaning. «Gee-gee» — is a nursery word neutral in a child's speech. And it is not used in adult conversation. So stylistically coloured words are suitable only on certain definite occasions in specific conditions of communication.

Each stylistically coloured word has a neutral synonym:

Ex. steed — horse, ire — anger, sustain — suffer, obtain — get, accomodation — room, woe — sorrow, fair — beautiful, slay — kill.

Among the stylistically — coloured words we can find:

Slang- words. They are expressive, mostly ironical words. They serve to create fresh names for some things. They sound somewhat vulgar, harsh, mockingly, contemptuously.

Ex. The word «money» has the following slang words as: beans, brass, dibs, dough, chink, oof, wads.

The slang synonyms for word «head» are: attic, brain — — pan, hat, peg, nut, upper storey. The slang synonyms for the adjective «drunk» are: boozy, cock-eyed, high, soaked, tight.

Exercises:

Ex. 1. Answer the following questions:

1. What is understood by the term «synonym»? 2. Are there complete synonyms in English? 3. Can polysemantic words have the same synonyms in all their meanings?
4. What is the dominant of a synonymic group? 5. What is the difference between ideographic synonyms and stylistic ones? 6. Do the synonyms occur in the same surroundings?
7. What is the collocability of synonyms? 8. What are the main sources of synonyms? 9. What is understood by the term «antonyms»? 10. What is the classification of antonyms?
11. What is the interchangeability of antonyms in contexts? 12. What are the semantic fields? 13. What is the difference between neologisms and obsolete words? 14. What words are called emotionally coloured words? 15. What is the difference between stylistically marked words and stylistically neutral words?

Ex. 2. Find the synonyms of the following words:

short, thin, to like, possible, clever, to go, rich, big, heavy, beautiful, cruel.

Ex. 3. Find the dominant of the following synonymic groups.

absence, privation, lack, want, finish, complete, conclude, end; get, take, obtain, acquire, gain, win, earn, receive, accept, event, incident, episode, accident.

Ex. 4. Put in column idiographic and stylistic synonyms:

to begin — to commence, to die — to kick the bucket, father — dad, to tell — to relate, quick — swift, rapid, to eat — to partake, to wolf, — to see, to stare, to glance.

Ex. 5. Translate the following sentences into your mother-tongue. Explain the change of the meaning of sentences when the synonyms are interchanged.

1. I did not listen to it — I did not hear it.
2. He suggested repeating the experiment. He offered to repeat the experiment.
3. He did not see me. — He didn't look at me.
4. He refused the job. — He gave up the job.
5. It was a murder. — It was manslaughter.

Ex. 6. Read and retell in your own words.

Some significant concentrations have for instance been discovered in Old English literature. In Beowulf there are 37 words for «hero» or «prince» and at least a dozen for «battle» and «fight». The same epic contains 17 expressions for «sea», to which 13 more may be added from other Old English poems. (S. Ullmann, p. 38).

Ex. 7. Learn the collocability of the following synonyms by heart. Make up sentences.

prison

1. in prison
2. put smb in prison
3. release smb from prison
4. —

jail

1. in jail
2. put smb in jail
3. release smb from jail
4. a jail bird

wage

1. wage struggle
2. wage a campaign
3. wage war

carry on

1. carry on struggle
2. carry on a campaign
3. —

Ex. 8. Find the antonyms of the following words:

big, beautiful, tall, old, clear, right, hot, pleasant, regular, honest, useful, happy, thin, black, poor, weak, good.

Ex. 9. Form derivational antonyms from the following root antonyms:

dark, kind, to like, to understand, to code, pleasant, happy, to appear, fortune, regular, to dress, equal, to load, usual.

Ex. 10. Find the opposites of the following word-combinations:

A tall building, a tall man, an old house, an old man, a dull knife, a dull pupil, a dull book, a thin book, a thin man, rich voice, rich man.

Ex. 11. Retell the extract and translate into your mother-tongue.

«By collocation» is meant the habitual association of a word in a language with other particular words in sentences. One of the meanings of «night» is its collocability with «dark» and of «dark», of course, collocation with «night». Word groups like «bright night», «dark day» «White coffee», «black coffee», «white race» all have a range of situation of reference. (R. H. Robins)

Ex. 12. Translate the following sentences into your mother-tongue.

1. It was bitter cold outside. 2. The chill air of the night seemed to lie on my limbs as heavy as a slab of marble. 3. Nothing moved, not a leaf quivered, the visible breaths of the dogs rising slowly and lingering in the frosty air. 4. The frigid wind blew yesterday in Tashkent. 5. He shivered from his standing in the freezing air. 6. It was a winter notable for its arctic frosts.

Ex. 13. Compare the antonyms of the correlated words in English, Uzbek and Russian.

big — little, катта — кичик, большой — маленький,
alive — dead, тирик — ўлик, живой — мертвый
bad — good, ёмон — яхши, плохой — хороший
buy — sell сотиб олмоқ, — сотмоқ, покупать — продавать
health — sickness, соғлиқ — касаллик, здоровье — болезнь

Ex. 14. Retell the extract in your own words. Give your point of view to it.

«In contemporary linguistics it has become almost axiomatic that complete synonymy does not exist. In the words of Bloomfield each linguistic form has a constant and specific meaning. If the forms are phonemically different, we

suppose that their meanings are also different. We suppose in short, that there are no actual synonyms». (S. Ullmann).

Ex. 15. Retell the following extract.

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

Ex. 16. State the equivalents of the following English neologisms in your mother-tongue.

isotope, feedback, supermarket, aerobic, computer, pulsar, radio detection, teach-in, roll-neck, fall-out, rehouse

RECOMMENDED LITERATURE

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LESSON 16

THE ENGLISH WORD-STOCK

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Etymological survey of the English word-stock. 2. The discussion of the role of words in the language. 3. The native words and their properties. 4. Borrowed words and their properties. 5. Linguistic and extra-linguistic factors to the borrowing of words.

TEXT

Etymologically the vocabulary of the English language consists of two groups — the native words and the borrowed words.

The etymological linguistic analysis showed that the borrowed stock of words is larger than the native stock of words. In fact native words comprise only 30% of the total number of words in the English vocabulary. A native word is a word which belongs to the original English stock, which belongs to Anglo-Saxon origin. To the native words we include words from Common Germanic language and from Indo-European stock.

Borrowed words are words taken over from other languages. Many linguists consider foreign influence plays the most important role in the history of the English language. But the grammar and phonetic system are very stable (unchangeable) and are not often influenced by other languages.

Besides when we speak about the role of native and borrowed words in the English language we must not take into consideration only the number of them but their semantic, stylistic character, their wordbuilding ability, frequency value, collocability (valency) and the productivity of their wordbuilding patterns. If we approach to the study of the role of native and borrowed words from this point of view we see, though the native words are not numerous they play an important role in the English language. They have high frequency value, great word-forming power, wide collocability, many meanings and they are stylistically neutral. Almost all words of native origin belong to very important semantic groups.

They include most of the auxiliary and model verbs: **shall, will, should, must, can, may**; pronouns: **I, he, my, your, his, who, whose**; prepositions: **in, out, on, under, for, of**; numerals: **one, two, three, four, five, six**, etc; conjunctions: **and, but, till, as**, etc.; words denoting parts of body: **head, hand, arm, back, foot, eye** etc; members of a family: **father, mother, brother, son, wife**; natural phenomena and planets: **snow, rain, wind, sun, moon**, animals: **horse, cow, sheep, cat**; common actions: **do, make, go, come, hear, see, eat, speak, talk** etc. All these words are very frequent words, we use them every day in our speech. Many words of native origin possess large clusters of derived and compound words in the present-day language.

Ex. help — helper, helpful, helpfully, helpfulness, helping, helpingly, helpable, helpably, helped, unhelpable etc.

Such affixes of native origin as **er, -ness, -ish, -ed, -un, -mis, -dom, -hood, -ly, -over, -out, -under** — are of native origin.

We see that the role of native words in the language is great. Many authors use native words more than foreign ones. Thus Shakespear used 90% native words and 10% foreign words. Swift used 75% native words.

Borrowed words have been called «the milestones of philology» — said O. Jespersen — because they permit us (show us) to fix approximatively the dates of linguistic changes. They show us the course of civilization and give us information of the nations».

The well-known linguist Shuchard said «No language is entirely pure», that all the languages are mixed. Borrowed words enter the language as a result of influence of two main causes or factors; linguistic and extra-linguistic. Economic, cultural, industrial, political relations of speakers of the language with other countries refer to extra-linguistic factors. The historical development of England also influenced the language. Due to the great influence of the Roman civilization Latin was for a long time used in England as the language of learning and religion. Old Norse of the Scandinavian tribes was the language of the conquerors (9 — 10 — 11 centuries). French (Norman dialect) was the language of the other conquerors who brought with them a lot of new notions of a higher social system, developed fuedalism. It was the language of upper classes, of official documents and school (11 — 14 cent). These factors are extra-linguistic ones.

The absence of equivalent words in the language to express new subjects or a phenomena makes people to borrow words. Ex. the words football, volleyball, michman in Russian; to economize the linguistic means, i. e. to use a foreign word instead of a long native expressions and others are called linguistic causes.

The closer the two interacting languages are in structure the easier it is for words of one language to penetrate into the other. The fact that Scandinavian borrowings have penetrated into such grammatical classes as prepositions and pronouns (they, them, their, both, same, till) can only be attributed to a similarity in the structure of the two languages.

Borrowings enter the language in two ways: through oral speech (by immediate contact between the people) and through written speech (by indirect contact through books). Words borrowed orally (inch, mill, street, map) are usually short and they undergo more changes in the act of adoption. Written borrowings (communique, belles-lettres, naïveté, psychology, pagoda etc) are often rather long and they are unknown to many people, speaking English.

Exercises:

Ex. 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What does the vocabulary of the English language consist of? 2. What words are called words of native origin? 3. What words are called borrowed words? 4. How do we define the role of words in the language? 5. Words of which origin play an important role in the English language? 6. What peculiarities have the native words in the English language? 7. What did scientists call the borrowed words? 8. What are the extra-linguistic causes of borrowings? 9. What are the linguistic causes of borrowings? 10. What are the two ways of borrowings in the English language?

Ex. 2. Learn the origin of the following words by heart.

Words of native origin	Words borrowed from diff. lang — ges
go, come, see, hand, head, ear, read, write, afford, bleed, blow, drive, dress, cook, build, bring, dry, eat, hear, house, make, look, light, leave, miss, nest, love, live, kiss, speak, sleep, sell, play, show etc.	mill (L) enemy (F), chauffeur (F), garage (F), restaurant (F), gymnastics (Gr), sympathy (L), pleasure (F), ballet (F), they (scand), street (L), get (scand), give (scand), cosmonaut (Russ), lunik (Russ), bosh (Turk), khan (Arab), rickshaw (chine), ugly (scand), jungle (hindi), take (scand).

Ex. 3. Find the meanings and derivatives of the following words and explain their role in the English language.

Native: help, make, head, man, hand, speak, build.

Borrowed: accept, garage, sympathy, ballet.

Ex. 4. Explain under what influence of the factor the Russian words occurred in the vocabulary of the English language.

cosmos, spaceship, lunik, cosmonaut, kholhoz, sputnik, tractor.

Ex. 5. Read and retell the extract and give your own examples:

A and B does not guarantee that one will borrow from the other. For a borrowing to occur, say from B to A, two conditions must be met:

1. The speaker of A must understand or think he understands the particular utterance in *ideolect* (language) B which contains the model.

2. The speaker of A must have motive, overt or covert, for the borrowing. (Hockett)

Ex. 6. The following words are used in Russian. Do you know the original words?

бизнесмен, битник, бутсы, кемпинг, сервис, рельс, хобби.

Ex. 7. Define borrowings adopted through books and through oral speech.

abandon, commence, street, army, sky, anger, comprehend, encounter, antonym, syntactic, hotel, saloon, machine, psychology, hypothesis.

Ex. 8. Read and retell this extract.

When in two languages we find no trace of the exchange of loanwords one way or the other, we are safe to infer that the two nations have had nothing to do with each other, but if they have been in contact, the number of the loan-words and still more the quality of the loan-words, if rightly interpreted, will inform us of their reciprocal relations, they will show us which of them has been the more fertile in ideas and on what domains of human activity each has been superior of the other. If all other sources of information were closed to us except such loan-words in our modern North-European languages as «piano», «soprano», «opera», «libretto», «tempo», «adagio» etc, we should still have no hesitation in drawing the conclusion that Italian music has played a great role all over Europe. (*O. Jespersen*).

Ex. 9. Read the extract and retell it.

« . . . in 1066 came the Norman conquest, an event which had more influence on the English language than any other from outside.

There is an important difference between the influence now to be examined and the earlier foreign influences. The native language was not completely driven out, leaving little impression on the language of the conquerors, as had hap-

pened when the Angles and Saxons conquered the Britons, nor modified by a related language, as in the case of the Scandinavian invasion, but instead a second language was established in the country in use side by side with the native language. The comparison may be carried further; Scandinavian first came into and influenced chiefly the north and north-east, whereas French was most influential in the south and south-east, a fact which became of increasing importance as a standard English language gradually developed in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Scandinavian modified the existing language through related words and construction, but French introduced entirely new words. Scandinavian made its way into the everyday speech of the people, whereas, although many French words eventually became part of our everyday speech and can hardly be recognized today as foreign loan-words, the French element was in the main composed of words reflecting a high state [of culture and influenced at first chiefly the language of the upper classes. (*J. A. Sheard.*)

Ex. 10. Give your reasons to the author's opinion on the influence of French borrowings in English.

« . . . The influence which French exerted on our language is seen in all aspects of life, social, political, and religions, and hardly any walk of life was unaffected by it. Had the Conquest not taken place it may be that English would have developed along entirely different lines, keeping in the main its Germanic characteristics particularly as regards vocabulary, much as the German and Scandinavian languages have done, and therefore lacking the tremendous number of Roman words which are now an accepted part of our language. It may be interesting to consider the general implication of such a large adoption of French loan words into English. The first point to be emphasized is that here we are not dealing with completely new ideas introduced from a different type of civilization and culture, but rather the imposing by a dominant race of their own terms for ideas which were already familiar to the subject race. Such a state of affairs obviously means that there will arise pairs of words, the native and the foreign term, for the same idea and a struggle for survival between the two, so that one of the words was eventually lost from the language, or survived only with some differentiation of meaning.

Let us first take examples of native words replaced by

French words; it is possible to compile a very long list, so here we must confine ourselves to a few, merely by way of illustration «cynecic» was replaced by «royal», «cynestol» by «throne», «cynehelm» by «crown», «dema» was replaced by «judge», «firen» by «crime» «rihtoew» by «justice», «sach» by «such», Much of the loss of Old English vocabulary can be accounted for by the influx of French words for the same or a similar idea in the Middle English period. (*I. Sheard*).

Ex. 11. Study the borrowed synonyms in Uzbek. Can you find analogous in the English language?

In Uzbek	From Tajik	From Arab	From Russian
айғоқчи алдамчи қўшин босқинчи қув	жосус фирибгар лашкар ҳийлагар	қаллоб аскар тажовузкор айёр, муғамбир, маккор ахмоқ бадаи	шпион, агент аферист армия агрессив
тентак гавда яша, яшавор из оқсуяк кучли очиқ, яққол, ёрқин, ойдин белги, таниқ тутқун аттанг теварак қоқиндиқ	гусхур тан балли, офарин нишон зодагон полвон равшан нишон, нишона банди афсус гирд гиргиттон	баракалла асар, асорат аслзода азамат аён аломат, ифода асир таассуф атроф садақанг кетай	молодец белоручка

Ex. 12. Discuss the following point of view to the borrowing.

«There is an important difference between the influence now to be examined and the earlier foreign influence. The native language was not completely driven out, leaving little impression on the language of the conquerors as had happened when the Angles and Saxons conquered the Britons nor modified by a related language as in the case of the Scandinavian invasion but instead a second language was established in the country in use side by side with the native language. The comparison may be carried further; scandinavian first came into and influenced chiefly the north and north-east, whereas

French was most influential in the south and south-east, a fact which became of increasing importance as a standard English language gradually developed in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Scandinavian modified the existing language through related words and construction, but French introduced entirely new words. Scandinavian made its way into the everyday speech of the people whereas, although mainly French words eventually became part of our everyday speech and can hardly be recognised today as foreign loan-words. The French element was in the main composed of words reflecting a high state of culture and influenced at first chiefly the language of the upper classes. Or we may look at the question from another angle: English had held its ground easily against the competition of the native Celtic of the subject race; it had had little competition from Latin, as a spoken language; it had been but little affected by the closely related Scandinavian the language of a conquering people, probably, because, the conquest did not last long and was closely followed by another conquest, and also because the peoples and languages were closely related. But now we find English facing the competition of an entirely different language, that of a conquering people who were able to maintain their position as distinctly foreign rulers for a comparatively long period. (I. Sheard)

Ex. 13. Discuss the meanings of the borrowings from the same language in English and in Uzbek.

«Final» (f. L.)

in English

final

in Uzbek

финал

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p>1) охирги тугалловчи қисми.
 2) охирги ҳал қилувчи ўйин.
 3) битирув имтиҳонлари
 4) газетанинг охирги нашри</p> | <p>1) Музыка, драма, опера, балет ёки адабий асарнинг охири, тугалловчи қисми, хотимаси
 2) спорт мусобақаларида ғолибни белгилайдиган охирги ҳал қилувчи ўйин</p> |
|---|--|

Ex. 15. Compare the structure of native words in English and in Uzbek.

In English

In Uzbek

<p>stone, tree, mother, bull, cat, crow, goose, wolf, arm, ear,</p>	<p>ер, ой, от, ол, тез, туз, қўл, кул, кун, дўқ, дўл, икки, ола,</p>
--	---

eye, bear, come, stand, hard, quick, slow, red, white, house, shoe, hat, cloth, iron, coal, room, care, hope, rain, storm, summer, winter, daughter, brother, star, water, wood, hill, heart, foot, life, need, rest, burn, buy, drive, hair, heep, learn, make, meet, rise, see, send, shoot, broad, dead, deaf, deep, bake, watch, cut, drop, earn, eat, know, laugh, look, love, etc.

олма, ориқ, этик, эрта, оғир, ош, бой, орқа, опа, ортиқ, ота, бўри, йўлбарс, ботир, белги, беш, олтин, айрим, айғир, қанча, буқа, мангу, байроқ, буюк, болға, куч, кеч, йўл, бор, кўк, муз, она, соғ, тоғ, тош, узук, улуг, уя, юз, юк, ўз, ўфил, кўзи, тўрт, кумуш, йўқ, ёш

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LESSON 17

THE ASSIMILATION OF BORROWED WORDS

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Kinds of borrowed words. 2. Phonetic assimilation of borrowed words. 3. Grammatical assimilation of borrowed words. 4. Lexical assimilation of borrowed words. 5. The degrees of assimilation.

TEXT

There are different kinds of borrowed words.

According to the nature of the borrowing borrowed words may be: 1) borrowings proper; 2) translation loans; 3) semantic loans.

Borrowings proper are words which are taken from another language with their sound, graphic forms and their meaning.

Ex. street, wine (from Latin), anger, scare (from Scandinavian), garage (from French).

Translation loans are words or expressions formed from the elements existing in the English language according to the patterns of the source language. *Ex.* collective-farm, five-year-plan, house of rest, peaceful coexistence.

A **semantic loan** is the borrowing of a meaning for a word already existing in the English language. *Ex.* the compound word «shock brigade» which existed in the English language with the meaning «аварийная бригада» received a new meaning «ударная бригада» under the influence of the Russian language (compare Russian «ударная бригада»). The English word «pioneer» meant «explorer» and «one who is among the first in new field of activity». Now under the influence of the Russian word «пионер» it has got the meaning «a member of the Young Pioneer's Organization. A word borrowed from another language never brings into the adopting language the whole of its semantic structure (meaning). It is borrowed in one of its meanings. *Ex.* the Russian word «sputnik» was borrowed by the English language only in the meaning of «artificial satellite».

When a word comes into another language it adapts the phonetic, grammatical, lexical system of that language. This process is considered as the assimilation of a borrowed word. The assimilation of borrowed words may be: 1) grammatical, 2) phonetic; 3) lexical. In phonetic assimilation we speak about the changes of a word in its sounds and stress. *Ex.* Modern English «change» came from French «changer» [ʃɑ̃ʒə]. We can see the following changes of it in the English language. [ʃ] is changed into [tʃ]; [ɑ̃] into [eɪ]; [ʒ] into [dʒ]. The stress in French words falls on the final syllable where as in English on the initial.

Ex. F.: hist'oir. E. 'history.

If a borrowed word loses its former grammatical categories and inflexions and gets new grammatical categories and paradigms by analogy with other English words we say the word is undergone grammatical assimilation. *Ex.* sputnik, sputnik's, sputniks, sputnik. Sometimes the foreign inflexions are fallen off.

Ex. Lat. consultare (V) Eng. consult.

The borrowed word very often undergoes simplification.

Ex. F. salade. Eng. salad.

In French «-ade» was a suffix but in English-**ad** is not a suffix. In English-**ic** in «bolshevic» is not considered as a

suffix. If many words with the same suffix or prefix are borrowed the speaker of the language thinks that they are word—building elements. A borrowed suffix is joined to a native word. This brings about the creation of hybrid words like «shortage», lovable, understandable. When a word is taken over into another language its semantic structure as a rule undergoes great changes.

Polysemantic words are usually adopted only in one or two meanings. *Ex.* Lat. «bilingual» had 4 meanings, but in English it has one meaning, «soviet» has one meaning in English (совет рабочего класса) but in Russian it has many meanings. Besides a word will develop new meanings. *Ex.* F. «move» has many meanings in English. Such meanings as «внести предложения, возвращаться в определенном кругу, двигаться» are not found in French.

According to the degree of assimilation the borrowings are divided into:

1) fully assimilated borrowings. They are such borrowings which are not differed (distinguished) as borrowings. English people will surprise if they hear that the words table, chair, people take, get are borrowed words.

2) partially assimilated borrowings: they have undergone very small changes. *ex.* garage. which, still has three pronunciations [gærædʒ], [gɑ:rɑʒ], [gærɑ:ʒ]

3) unassimilated borrowings or barbarisms. These words are used by the English people, when they speak about the customs and the life of other nations. *Ex.* rickshaw (Chinese), sherbet (Arabian), caïque (Turkish), khan (Arab), khakan (Turkish) etc.

Exercises

Ex. 1. Answer the following questions:

1. What kinds of borrowed words do you know? 2. What are borrowings proper? 3. What are translation loans? 4. What are the semantic loans? 5. How many meanings does the borrowed word bring into the adopting language? 6. What is the assimilation of a borrowed word? 7. What is a phonetic assimilation? 8. What is a grammatical assimilation? 9. What is a lexical assimilation? 10. What is the degree of assimilation of a borrowed word?

Ex. 2. What kind of borrowing are the following words?

collective farm, home of rest, a five-year-plan, space-ro-

cket, peaceful coexistence, selfcriticism, material incentive, shopping centre, fellow-traveller, word combination.

Ex. 3. Define the borrowings proper, translation loans and semantic loans:

pioneer, work-to-rule, sputnik, rouge, mirage, saloon, machine, system, analysis, psychology, fancy.

Ex. 4. Explain the phonetic assimilation of the following words of French origin in English.

divert (F divertir), demonetize (F demonetiser), cry (F cri), cream (F creme), authority (F autorite), adore (F adorer).

Ex. 5. Explain the grammatical assimilation of the following Russian words in English:

sputniks	cosmonauts	bolshevik
sputnik's	cosmonaut's	bolshevikize
sputniks'	cosmonauts,	bolshevikism
		bolshevikian
		bolshevist
		bolshevisse

Ex. 6. Define the degree of assimilation of the following words:

analysis (L), chauffeur (F), champagne (F), adopt (L), cry (Sc), call (Sc), crisis (L), khakhan (Turk), psychology (Gr), phenomenon (Gr), datum (L), genre (F), ballet (F), bosh (Turk), street (L), table (L), repertoire (F), bourgeois (F).

Ex. 7. Retell the following extract. Give your own examples from your mother-tongue to illustrate the point.

«Whenever the need filling motive plays a part, the borrower is being confronted with some new object or practice for which he needs words. Under these conditions . . . three rather distinct things may happen, giving rise respectively to «loanwords», «loanshifts» and «loanblends». «Loanwords». The borrower may adopt the donor's word along with the object or practice; the new form in the borrower's speech is then a loanword . . .

When confronted with a new object or practice for which words are needed, the borrower may somehow adapt material in his own language. A new idiom arises and since it arises under the impact of another linguistic system, it is a «loanshift» . . . Loanshifts involve lexical and semantic change and in some cases may lead to minor grammatical change.

Loanblends. A loanblend is a new idiom developed in the borrowing situation in which both the loanword and the loanshift mechanisms are involved: the borrower imports part of the model and replaces part of it by something already in his own language. (ch. F. Hockett)

Ex. 8. Study the lexical assimilation of Arabic words in Uzbek. Give your own examples in English too.

Сўзининг араб тилидаги маъноси	Ҳозирги ўзбек тилидаги маъноси
Қиёмат — диний маъно англатди.	Қиёмат — 1) жанжал, хаққини талаб қилиш, қиёмат қилмоқ, 2) жуда қийин, қиёматдан кейин; 3) зўр: жуда қиёматли одам
Суфи — 1) суф (жун); жундан кийим кийган одам; 2) тасаввуф (суфизм) йўлига ўтган киши, тақводор, мистик.	Суфи: 1) тақводор; 2) азон айтувчи, кишиларни намозга чақирувчи; 3) сўфи, сўфи — гул, содда, ўзини соддаликка олувчи одам; 4) хаққоний турувчи одам, сўфидай суққайиш
Домулло — мусулмон диний мактабларнинг ўқитувчиси	Домулло — 1) мадраса ўқитувчиси. 2) диний маросимларни бажарувчи шахс; 3) замонавий олий мактаб ўқитувчиси; 4) устоз, илмий раҳбар;
Мол - мулк жонсиз бойлик	Мол — 1) мол-мулк; 2) уй ҳайвони, 3) саноат моллари; 4) кўчма маънода: бефаҳм, гўл, маданиятсиз.
Меҳнат — заҳмат, азоб - уқубат	Меҳнат — 1) иш, одатдаги иш; 2) шон-шараф иши, 3) ташвиш, бу менга анча меҳнат бўлди.
табаррук — диний маънода; эзгу, илоҳий муқаддас иш	Табаррук — 1) азиз, эзгу, яхши; 2) ҳурматли, муқаддас, унинг эзгу номи; 3) эзгу эсдалик, бу табаррук буюм
мараз — умуман касаллик, дард	Мараз — 1) юқумли касаллик; 2) кўчма маънода: шилқим одам; 3) кўчма маънода: зарарли, хавфли одам
ҳаловат — «ҳолва» сўзининг кўплиги; ширинликлар маъносида	Ҳаловат — 1) оилавий тинчлик, осойишталик, 2) ёқимлилиқ — ҳузур - ҳаловат қилмоқ.

Ex. 9. Read the extract and make up your own questions on them.

«The type of word borrowed by personal contact would undoubtedly at first be names of objects unfamiliar to the borrowers, or products and commodities exchanged by way of trade. If the contacts were maintained over a long period then ideas concerned with government, law, religion and customs

might be absorbed and perhaps the names of these would be adopted. Only in the case of nations in relatively advanced stages of civilization would there be much influence exerted through the written word; concrete objects would come first, then abstract ideas learnt from what might actually be seen from their effects in everyday life and abstract ideas through the indirect contact achieved by books would come much later. (*I. A. Sheard*).

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LESSON 18

THE SOURCE AND THE RESULT OF BORROWINGS

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. The difference between the source and the origin of borrowings. 2. The classification of words according to the source of borrowing. 3. The influence of borrowing on the vocabulary of the English language. 4. The influence of borrowing on the morphological structure of the English language. 5. The influence of borrowing on the phonetic structure of the English language.

TEXT

There is some difference between the terms «source of borrowings» and «origin of borrowed words».

The term «source of borrowing» should be used to the language from which this or that word was taken in English. The term «origin of the borrowed word» is used to the language the word may be traced to i. e. to the language where the word was born.

Ex. The word «table» was borrowed from the French language. So the French language is the source of borrowing but its origin is Latin (*L. tabula*). The word «school» by

origin is a Greek word (schole) but its source is Latin.

paper < F. papier < L. papyrus < Gr. papyros

The source of borrowing is of greater importance for us because it has the imprint of the sound and graphic form. The morphological and semantic characteristic of the language they were borrowed from.

Borrowings may be classified according to the sources i.e. the language from which the words were borrowed.

1. Celtic borrowings: bard, brat, slagan, whisky, machintosh.

2. Latin borrowings: street, wine, angel, monk, plant, exacte, congratulate, chalk, produce.

3. Scandinavian borrowings: anger, scare, take, get, skirt, skill, drop, true; pronouns: they, their, them.

4. French borrowings: judge, army, royal, machine, police, air, place, brave, accept, sport.

5. Russian borrowings: soviet, sputnik, kolkhos, cosmos, cosmonaut etc.

6. Italian borrowings: confetti, macaroni, opera, sonata, soprano.

7. Spanish borrowings: tomato, potato, tobacco, and others.

A great number of borrowings left some imprint upon the language. We can find the influence of borrowings in the vocabulary of the English language. It changed its synonymic groups because as a result of borrowings there appeared a number of synonymic groups in English.

Ex. feed (native) — nourish (borrowed);
meet (native) — encounter (borrowed).

We can see the differentiation in meaning between native and borrowed synonymous words. Ex. the native word «stool» was used for all kinds of furniture where we can sit. But under the influence of the French word «chair» its meaning is narrowed now. It is used for only one kind of furniture (табуретка — stool). As a result of borrowing some words of native origin are not used in the literary national language they have become dialectal.

Ex. еа — поток воды, река river.

heal — скрывать, покрывать, — cover
hele

2. A great number of borrowings influenced of the morphological structure of English. We can find a number of new affixes in English.

Ex. re-, inter-, able,- ee,- -sm, co-, de-, trans-, -al, -cy,-ic, -ical. These are very productive affixes. They are used mostly with romanic words. New English suffix — **nik** came from the Russian language in the word **sputnik**, now it is a very productive suffix in English.

Ex. **beatnik** — человек, отрицающий существующие социальные ценности, последователь, сторонник каких либо идей, направлений, образа жизни, любитель чего-либо (ишкџбоз).

folknik — пропагандист народных песен (миллий ашуларни ташвиџот џилувчи);

filmnik — любитель кино (киноишкџбоз);

protestnik — протестующий против чего-либо (џарши чиџувчи);

peacenik — борец за мир (тинчликсевар);

citynik — городской житель (шаџарли).

The suffixes **-ous,-ive,-ent** are not used to form new words, they are non-productive borrowed affixes. A great number of words with bound morphemes appeared. **Ex.** **tolerate, tolerable.**

The English language has adopted from other languages such pronouns as they, them, their, she, such, same and the numeral «second»;

The influence of borrowings can be seen on the phonetic structure of words in English too. There appeared a number of words of new phonetic structure. **Ex.** words with the initial [ps] **psychology**, [pn] **pneumatic**. In Middle English as a result of a number of French borrowings we can see the appearance of the new diphthong [ɔɪ] in English: **point, joint, poison.**

The initial [sk] also appeared as a result of the influence of Scandinavian borrowings: **skin, skip.** «v» which was impossible in Old English came to be used at the beginning of the word. **Ex.** **very, vain, victory.** The sound [dʒ] began to be used at the beginning of the word. **Ex.** **jungle, journey.** A high percentage of polysyllabic words can be found in English as a result of borrowings. **Ex.** **company, condition, government, important.** The sound [f] came to be used intervocal position. **Ex.** **effect, affair.**

Exercises

Ex. 1. Answer the following questions.

1. What is the source of borrowings? 2. What is the origin of borrowings? 3. How do we classify the borrowed words

according to their sources? 4. What is the influence of borrowings on the vocabulary of the English language? 5. What is the influence of borrowings on the morphological structure of the English language? 6. What pronouns and numerals has the English language adopted from other languages? 7. What is the influence of borrowings on the phonetic structure of the English language? 8. What diphthongs appeared in English as a result of French borrowings?

Ex. 2. Point out the source and the origin of the following borrowed words in English:

- beauty *n* ME (OE «beaute» L bellus (pretty))
- character *n* ME (OE «caracter» — L caractere — Gr character (stamp, impress))
- demand *v* (OF «demander» ← L «demandare» (order))
- please *v* ME (OF «plaisir» — L «placere (please)»)
- umbrella (It «ombrella» — (shade))

Ex. 3. Find the source and the origin of the following borrowed words:

accept, get, give, receive, call, question, place, sport, change, nature.

Ex. 4. Explain the difference in meaning between the following native and borrowed synonymous words:

colloquial speech

bookish

сердечный — hearty
 оживленный — lively
 покидать — leave
 начинать — begin
 понимать — understand

cordial
 vivacious
 abandon
 commence
 comprehend

Ex. 5. Find the borrowed synonyms of the following native words: to meet, to ask, to end, to rise, to gather, empty, teaching, love.

Ex. 6. Give your reasons for the changes in the phonetic structure of English analysing the following borrowed words.

point, victory, poison, vaion, effect, jungle, journey, mobilization.

Ex. 7. Give your reason for the influence of borrowings on the word building system of English analysing the following words:

reread, interchange, helpable, Leninism, citynik, filmnik, decolour, formal.

Ex. 8. Define the origin of the following pronouns and numerals: they, them, their, same, such, she, second, dual.

Ex. 9. Read and retell in your own words. Find your own examples:

There are many . . . words, one a native word, the other a Romance loan, originally of either identical or similar meaning with some distinction made today, such as «freedom» and «liberty», «happiness» and «felicity», «help» and «aid», «hide» and «conceal», «love», and «charity», «meal» and «repast», «wedding» and «marriage», «wish» and «desire» and we should find that the native word has a more emotional, sense is homely and unassuming, whereas the loan word is colder, aloof, more dignified, more formal . . .

Sometimes the word may have disappeared from the standard language and yet have survived in regional dialect. OE «eme» was replaced by «uncle», yet «eme» still survives in Scots dialect (*J. A. Sheard*)

Ex. 10. Find and compare the meanings of the following English words and their equivalents in your mother-tongue.

football,	control,	general,	industry
↓	↓	↓	↓
футбол	контрол	генерал	индустрия

LESSON 19

PHRASEOLOGY

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. The subject-matter of phraseology. 2. The classification of phraseological units. 3. The point of view about stability, idiomaticity and the equivalence of phraseological units to words. 4. The history of phraseological units 5. The synonymy, polysemy of phraseological units.

TEXT

Functionally and semantically inseparable units are usually called phraseological units. Phraseological units cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready made units. The lexical components in phraseological units are stable and they are non-motivated i. e. its meaning cannot be deduced from the meaning of its components and they do not allow their lexical components to be changed or substituted.

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

Ex. red tape (bureaucratic methods), to get rid of; to take place; to lead the dance; to take care.

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

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

1) phraseological fusions; they are such units which are completely non motivated word groups; *Ex.* to kick the bucket to get one's goat, to show the white feather.

In these word groups the meaning of the whole expressions is not derived from the meaning of components.

2) phraseological units: the meaning of such word-groups can be perceived through the metaphorical meaning of the whole phraseological unit or the meaning of which may be seen as a metaphorical transference of the meaning of the word group: *ex.* to show one's teeth, to know the way the wind blows, to stand to one's guns, to take care of;

3) phraseological collocations: They include motivated relatively stable word groups. They have a certain degree of stability; *ex:* to take an interest, to fall in love, to look through one's fingers, meet the demand etc.

At present the term «phraseological unit» is usually used not to all set expressions but only to those which are completely or partially non-motivated¹.

Prof N. Amasova gives two categories of phraseological units depending on whether just one component or both are used in phraseologically bound meaning. If all the components have idiomatic meaning such phraseological units are called «*idioms*», *ex:* to toe the line (to do exactly as one is told), a free lance (a person who acts independently). If one of the components has bound specialized meaning dependent on the second component she called «*phrasemes*».

Ex. dutch courage (courage given by drink), to bring to book (to bring to justice), small years (in the childhood), small beers (weak beer).

¹ А. В. Кунин. Англо-русский фразеологический словарь. М., 1984.

Stability of phraseological units is seen in its disallowance of the substitution of word groups. Ex: «to shrug one's shoulders» does not allow to substitute either «shrug» or «shoulder».

Idiomaticity of phraseological units is lack of word groups. If a word group does not allow word by word translation it is called idiomatic word groups. *Ex*: to kick the bucket (умереть) in the soup (в затруднительном положении) under a cloud (в плохом настроении).

Prof. A. I. Smirnitsky states that a phraseological unit may be defined as specific word groups functioning as a word-equivalent. The phraseological units are single semantically inseparable units. They are used in one function in the sentence and belong to one part of speech.

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

Prof. A. Koonin does not support Smirnitsky's point of view on the equivalence of phraseological units. A. Koonin points out that the components of phraseological units are mounted separately and therefore they can't be used in one function in the sentence. *Ex*. He gets rid of it. The problem of equivalency of phraseological units to words demands further investigation.

Among the phraseological units there are the so-called imperative phraseological units¹.

Ex. God Bless his soul!, Curse her!

Damn him!, Stay well!, Go well!,

Heaven forbid!, Lord love us! etc.

These phraseological units mostly denote the emotional and expressive state of a person.

Proverbs, sayings and quotations exist also as ready made units with a specialized meaning of their own which can not be deduced from the meaning of their components. Therefore they may be included in phraseological units. *Ex*. East or West home is best, a friend in need is a friend indeed. To be or not to be.

The history of many phraseologisms is an interesting record of the nation's past, of its way of life, customs and

¹ Т. Т. Икрамов. Фразеологические единицы с фиксированным глагольным компонентом в императиве в современном английском языке. Автореф. дисс. кандидата филол. наук. М., 1978.

traditions. Many phraseological units are connected with commerce, *Ex*: to talk shop, to make the best of the bargain, to have all one's goods in the shop window, a drug on the market (наркотик). Many phraseological units are associated with the sea (the waves). *Ex*: all at sea, to nail one's colours to the mast, to sail under false colours. Many phraseological units were borrowed from the Bible, *Ex*: the root of all evil — корень зла, любовь к деньгам. Daily bread — хлеб насущный, средства к существованию.

There is a subject of discussion among the linguists about the state of such combinations like «to give in», «to make up», «to take off», «to get up», «to give up», etc; what is the nature of the second element of such combinations? The second element of such units is not a word therefore they are not phraseological units. Phraseological units, as we know, consist of words. The second element is not a morpheme because it is not a part of the word, they are not adverbs because adverbs have definite lexical meanings and are used in a certain function in the sentence. But these units (get up, give up etc) have idiomatical meanings therefore. A. V. Koonin calls such units «set phrases» which have no phraseological character. There are synonyms among phraseological units, *Ex*: through thick and thin, by hook or by crook, for love or money — во что бы не стало; pull one's leg, to make a fool of smb — дурачить. Some of phraseological units are polysemantic as «at large» — 1) на свободе, 2) в открытом море, 3) без определенной цели, 4) не попавший цель, 5) свободный, 6) в целом, 7) вообще, 8) подробно etc.

It is the context that realizes the meaning of a phraseological unit in each case. The usage of phraseological units in speech is a subject of research work of many linguists¹.

Exercises

Ex. I. Answer the following questions.

1. What is a phraseological unit? 2. What are the most peculiarities of phraseological units? 3. What is academician V. V. Vinogradov's classification of phraseological units based on? 4. How does prof. N. N. Amasova classify phraseological units? 5. What is the stability of phraseological units? 6. What is the ideomaticity of phraseological units? 7. Why does prof.

¹ Ф. М. Бершадская. Формы употребления фразеологических единиц в речи. Дисс. канд. филол. наук. Л., 1972.

A. I. Smirnitsky say that phraseological units are the word equivalents? 8. Why do we include proverbs, sayings quotations in phraseological units? 9. What is the history of phraseological units? 10. What kind of discussion of the so-called word groups as «give up» was among the linguists? 11. What is the synonymy of phraseological units? 12. What is the polysemy of phraseological units?

Ex. 2. Find phraseological fusions, phraseological units and phraseological collocations and make up your own sentences with them.

to pass away (умереть), to hold one's tongue (держат язык за зубами), to catch cold (простудиться), to win the wooden spoon (занять последнее место в состязании), to go to the wall (потерпеть поражение), to kill two birds with one stone (убить двух зайцев), to keep an eye on (присматривать), a cog in a machine (винтик в машине), bleed smb white (обескровить кого-либо).

Ex. 3. Define idioms and phrasemes:

to turn over a page (открыть следующую страницу), dutch comfort (слабое утешение), a dutch defence (притворная защита), wet one's whistle (промочит горло), to miss fire (пройти незамечанным), to be taken ill (заболеть), to take medicine (принимать лекарство), to run into smth (натолкнуться).

Ex. 4. Read and retell in your own words. Find your own examples to illustrate the point of view:

«Being word equivalents phraseological units may be more or less complex. There are phraseological units with one semantic centre, i. e. with the domination of component over another. This semantically dominating element also determines the equivalence of the phraseological unit to a certain class of words. This type of phraseological units is termed «collocation» (ex: verb — adverb collocation: to look after; attributive collocation; *ex.* out of the way; prepositional noun collocation: e. g. in accordance with.

There are phraseological units with two centres. They differ from collocations by the absence of one central word which focuses the main semantic and grammatical properties of the whole. They are termed «set expressions» (verb + noun set expression), e. g. to fall in love; adjective + noun set expressions e. g. black ball; phraseological repetitions e. g. spick and span.

(A. I. Smirnitsky)

Ex. 5. Compose dialogues using the following phraseological units.
Suggested topics:

At the station

At the latest (before or not later than), to be at a loose end (to have no definite occupation), to make the best of one's time (to be cheerful in spite of troubles).

to all places (an exclamation used to express surprise).

At the doctor's

to catch a cold,
to feel one's pulse,
to take a temperature,
to sound one's heart,
to write out a prescription.

Ex. 6. Make up sentences using the following phraseological synonyms:

to catch hold of		grasp (схватить)
to get hold of		
to lay hold of		
to seize hold of		

to fall into a habit		develop a habit (усвоить привычку)
to get into a habit		
to lapse into a habit		

to give an affront		offend smb (оскорблять)
to give offence		
to hurt smb's feelings		
to offer an affront		
to offer an insult		

Ex. 7. Make up situations to determine the meanings of the following polysemantic phraseological units:

to make the most (of) 1) использовать наилучшим образом, максимально, 2) расхваливать, преувеличивать достоинства, 3) выставлять в худшем виде;

to make nothing of smth: 1) не воспользоваться чем-л.; 2) совершенно не понять, не разобрать; 3) считать что-либо пустяком, не обращать внимание; 4) не представлять труда;

How now! 1) Эй! это что такое?, что это значить? 2) Ну как? что скажешь? 3) Ну! Как! 4) Здравствуйте!

To be out of it: 1) не принимать участие; 2) не быть в первых рядах; 3) быть совершенно не в курсе; 4) избавиться от чего-либо.

Ex. 8. Make up set expressions using the following elements:

up, down, off, out, over, on, in, for, through, away.

Ex. 9. Find the equivalents in your mother-tongue for the following phraseological units using phraseological dictionaries:

lose one's temper, go to bed; out of season, get rid of, cause trouble, keep an eye on, be in a good mood.

Ex. 10. Find the equivalents in your mother-tongue for the following proverbs:

East or West home is best; A friend in need is a friend indeed; Rome was not built in a day; Where there is a will there is a way; No pains, no gains, Look before you leap; Better late than never.

Ex. 11. Study the following English sentences and their translation in Uzbek. Discuss the correspondents of the English phraseological units in Uzbek.

1. It gave me chance to sleep. I didn't sleep last night—Ҳечқиси йўқ, қайтанга ухлаб олдим, кеча мижжа қоқмаган эдим. 2. «Tonight you will tell me everything», said Rinaldi—кечқурун менга оқизмай-томизмай ҳикоя қилиб бера-сиз, — деди Ринальди. 3. When we swaggered by twirling his new mustache, everybody stopped to look and admire—У энди сабза ура бошлаган мўйловини бураб, савлат тўкиб юрган чоғида ҳамма одамлар унга қарашади. 4. I sacrificed every-thing for something that never came—Рўёбга чиқмаган ана шу нарсани деб бутун умримни ҳазон қилдим. 5. It was still raining hard—Ёмғир ҳамон челақлаб қуярди. 6. All right, I wash my hands of the matter. But I warn you all that a time's coming when you're going to feel sick when-ever you think of this day—Яхши бўлмасал! Агар шундай бўладиган бўлса, мен қўлимни юиб қўлтигимга ураман. Аммо сизларга айтадиган бир гапим бор: бир кун келади бу қилмишингизга пушаймон бўласиз ва қилган ишингизни эс-лашнинг ўзидаёқ ҳушингиз кетиб қолади. 7. Do you know how she seems to me?—She seems fresh, like a flower—Фуонгни қандай тасаввур этишимни биласизми?—Гулдек тоза. 8. It was as plain as day—Бир пасда ҳаммаси кундай равшан бўлди—қолди.

Ex. 12. Read the following extract and retell it in your own words. Find your own examples to illustrate the points.

«... at all events the habit survived in English prose until the end of the eighteenth century. And, though out of favor at the moment it has left a number of idiomatic or

colloquial phrases in the language: as «end and aim», «lord and master», «without let or hindrance», «act and deed», «pure and simple», «in deed and truth», «really and truly», «bright and shining», «honest and true», «proud and haughty», «weak and feeble», «race and run», «grunt and groan», «clean and neat», «toil and delve». Such double phrases occur very frequently in the «Book of Common Prayer», where we find for instance, «sins and wickedness», «dissemble nor cloak», «assemble and meet together», «requisites and necessary», «erred and strayed», «declare and pronounce», «pardoneth and absolveth», «bless and sanctify», «offer and present», «rule and govern», «knowledge and understanding», «religiously and devoutly», «food and sustenance», «search and examine your consciences», «prayers and supplications», to try and examine themselves», «confirm and strengthen». (*Games B. Greenough*)

Ex. 13. Make up a story using the following list [of English proverbs.

Collage Life

Live and learn

It is never too late to learn.

No one is too old to learn

First think and then speak

Business before pleasure

Two heads are better than one

Four eyes see more than two

Strike while the iron is hot

To hit the nail on the head

Where there is a will, there is always a way.

When there is no will, there is no way.

There is a place for everything and everything has a place

Company Manners

A man is known by the company he keeps.

All doors open to courtesy.

When angry, count a hundred.

Doctor's Advice

Early to bed and early to rise

Makes a man healthy, wealthy and wise.

After dinner sit a while,

After supper walk a mile.

An apple a day keeps the doctor away.

Eating and appetite

Hungry as a hunter.

Hunger is the best sauce.

Hunger breaks stone walls.

The appetite comes with eating.

One's eyes are bigger than one's stomach.

To make one's mouth water.

Weather

It is raining cats and dogs.

After rain comes fair weather.

After a storm comes calm.

Saying and Doing

Saying and doing are two things.

Saying is one thing and doing is another.

There is a big difference between saying and doing.

Doing is better than saying.

Better to do well than to say well.

Say well is good, do well is better.

Friendship

A friend in need is a friend indeed

When a friend asks there is no tomorrow

The road to a friend's house is never long

They are rich who have true friends

Change your pleasures, but not your friends

Home and Abroad

When in Rome, do as the Romans do

Better at home than a mile from it

East or West, home is best

There is no place like home

Ex. 15. Make up sentences using the following list of phraseological synonyms in the English language:

1) A great deal

A good bit

A good deal

A great deal

A vast deal

Much (значительно много)

2) be down in the mouth

be in a bad mood

be in a bad temper

be in bad humour

be in low spirits

be in a bad state
of mind or feeling

be in the dumps
be out of humour
be out of sports
be out of spirits

be in a bad state of
mind or feeling

3) be in a good mood
be in a good temper
be in fine fettle
be in good heart
be in good humour
be in good spirits
be in high feather
be in vain
be of good cheer

be in a good state of feeling or
frame of mind

be in a hurry
get a move on
get a wiggle on
look alive
look sharp
look slippy
make haste
put one's best foot leg forward
step on it
stir one's stumps

hurry

5) be gathered to one's fathers
breathe one's last
give up the ghost
go (down) to one's grave
go off the hooks
go the way of all flesh
go to glory
go to one's last account
go to one's last resting place
go to one's long home
go West
hand in one's checks
hand in one's dinner pail
join the great majority
kick the bucket
pay the debt of nature
pass beyond the veil
shuffle off this mortal coil
take the ferry
turn up one's toes

die

6) pull the wool over somebody's eyes	deceive somebody
do somebody in the eye	
play somebody false	
sell somebody a pup	
throw dust in (into) somebody's eyes	

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LESSON 20

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE OF THE USA

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. *The expansion of the English language.* 2. *Opinions to the nature of the English language spoken in Great Britain and in the USA.* 3. *Phonetic and grammatical differences of English in the USA and in Great Britain* 4. *The lexical differences of English in Great Britain and in the USA.* 5. *Historical causes of lexical distinctions between two variants of English.*

TEXT

The English language is spoken not only on the British isles but it is national language of the USA, Australia, New Zealand and some parts of Canada. As a result of the expansion of British colonialism the English language was also at different times a state language of English and American colonies in Asia and in Africa. *Ex.* in India, in [Pakistan, in Burma etc. After World War II as a result of the national

liberation movement throughout Asia and Africa many of these colonies have got their independence and English has been replaced by the national language as a state language, ex. in India Hindi, in Pakistan Urdu etc.

In this book we attempted to describe mainly the vocabulary of the American variant of the English language.

The difference between the English language in America and in England has been the subject of discussion of many linguists. Some linguists think that these two variants of English are different languages. *Ex:* An American linguist H. S. Mencken (the American language, N. Y. 1957) says that they are two different separate languages. Other linguists consider the language of the USA as a dialect of English. A general description of the language in America is given in prof. A. D. Schweitzer's book (Литературный англ. язык в США и Англии. М., 1971). He says that the difference between the American and British literary norms is not systematic. They have the same grammar system, phonetic system and vocabulary. They can't be regarded as different languages. He says that the American language can't be considered as a dialect, because the two differ far less than the local dialects of Dewsbury and Howden—two English towns in Yorkshire. He thinks that the American language is the variant of the English national language spoken in the USA. The American variant of the English language differs from British English in pronunciation, grammar and in vocabulary. In Phonetics: *Ex:* class, ask, after, path, dance etc are pronounced not by [ɑ:] but by [æ]: [æsk], [æftə], [pæθ], [dæns].

In spelling: cosy — cozy, colour — color, practice — practise etc, through — thru, offence — offense, travelling — traveling.

In Grammar: *Ex.* «will» is used for all persons in forming «Future Indefinite Tense». In oral speech the auxiliary verb is omitted. *Ex:* instead of «I have done» they say «I done». «I have seen», «I seen» etc, in usage of preposition «I live in the street», «I live on the street». The letter «r» is pronounced at the end: car [kɑ:r]. We shall not discuss the phonetic and grammatical peculiarities of the American variant of English thoroughly because they are the aim of other subjects — Grammar and Phonetics.

We shall discuss the lexical differences between the British and American variants of English. English words may be divided into three groups: 1) those which are used both in England and in the USA or we call them «General English».

Ex. country, nation, language, person, give etc; 2) those which are used only in America, «Americanisms», ex: drug-store (аптека), mailbox (почта), subway (метро), sidewalk (тро-туар) truck — (грузовик) supermarket (большой магазин); 3) those which are used only in Britain; fortnight, flat, underground, lorry, pavement, government. In some cases two words can be used in both variants of English but one of them is more frequent in Britain, the other is in the USA.

Ex: «autumn» is more frequent in England but «fall» in the USA. «Time table» is very frequent in Britain but «schedule» is very frequent in the USA. «Post» is more frequent in England but «mail» is very frequent in the USA. «Notice» is frequent in England, «bulletin» is in America etc.

Many words have wider meaning in the USA. Ex. the verb «to fix» is a slatternly verb of all words in American speech. It can mean «repair, get ready, arrange, matters with, cook, comb» etc. **Ex:** He's fixed it with the policeman. Fix a fire. Fix yourself up. She is fixing supper right now. Wait till I fix my hair etc.

The verb «to raise» in American English can be used in the relation of trees, animals and children, but in England in these cases three different verbs are used.

Ex: In England: one grows farm or garden, products, breeds animals and rears children. In America: one raises them all. Besides them many words in America have other meanings. The word «shop» in America has the meaning of «мастерская» but in the meaning of «магазин», the word «store» is used. So «shoe shop» in America is «мастерская для починки обуви» А «shoe shop» in England is «обувной магазин». «first floor» and «second floor» in America are «первый этаж», «второй этаж» but in England «first floor» is второй этаж» and «первый этаж» is «the ground floor».

«dessert» in England — дисерт после ужина: яблоко, орехи, виноград in America it means — только сладость.

One of the characteristic features of American English is the formation of shortened words.

Ex: D. P. (displaced person) FEAF (Far East Air Forces), Cincpoa (Commander in Chief of Pacific Ocean Area) etc. The differences of American and British English are based on the historical causes.

The American Continent was discovered only in the 15th century. The first colonies came there in 1607 (at the beginning of the 17th century). For more than three centuries the American vocabulary developed independently and was

influenced by the new surroundings. Many words were borrowed from Indian people's languages who live in America. These words are usually the words which express geographical names, names of trees, animals, birds, fish etc.

Ex: hickory гикори — орех, persimmon — финиковая слива, muskrat — ондатра, mose — амер. лось, squaw — индианка, pone — кукурузная лепешка, mash — кукурузная каша, ohio — прекрасная река, местность, oklahoma — местность. From German: smearcase — сорт сыра, bear garden, back country. From French prairie — луг. As to wordbuilding in the two variants, it is the same. The difference lies only in the more extensive use of some of them in American variants. For example, affixes- *ette*,- *ee*, *super*- (draffee, kitchenette, supper-market) and conversion (walk out — to walk out, major — to major) are more frequent in American English. Thus the differences between British and American English are not much and they do not make a system.

Exercises

Ex. 1. Answer the following questions.

1. In what countries is the English language spoken?
2. As a result of what event has the English language become the state language of different countries in Asia and in Africa?
3. What are the different opinions to the English language in the USA?
4. What are the phonetic differences between English in Great Britain and in the USA?
5. What are the grammatical differences of English in Great Britain and in the USA.
6. What are the lexical differences of English in Great Britain and in the USA?
7. What are the differences of English words in their usage in two countries?
8. What are the semantic differences of English words in Great Britain and in the USA?
9. When is the American Continent found?
10. What are the main causes of lexical distinctions of the two variants of English?

Ex. 2. a) Give the British spelling of the following words:

dialog, color, theater, practise, thru, cozy, offense, humor.

b) Give the American pronunciation of the following words:

ask, dance, path, made, day, task, worker, mother, car, basket, chance, class.

Ex. 3. Find the words which are used in Great Britain instead of the following American words:

apartment, subway, truck, sidewalk, mail, can, opener, administration, editorial, faculty, schedule, bulletin.

Ex. 4. Explain the semantic differences of the following words in their usage in Great Britain and in the USA:

post-mail, shoeshop, fix, raise, get.

Ex. 5. Substitute the American words given in bold type by the words which are used in Great Britain.

1. The bootblack looked up, noticed a **tuxedo** (смокинг) and said «Waiting tables». 2. In the **hallway** (коридор) in the rear of the House chambers en route to the Governor's office he talked to some of the persons standing there. 3. In the morning Eddi dropped a letter for her in the mail box (почтовый ящик). 4. But Chicago, I'm afraid, can't provide half as much **sidewalk** (тротуар) entertainment as Paris. 5. So out they went and took a **street car** (трамвай) from Washington parks.

Ex. 6. Translate the following sentences into your mother-tongue.

The translation of the words given in bold type is given below.

1. Harvard's **faculty** led all the rest in this demand «For a Federal Force in Selma». 2. When in hell will you get wise? «I'm not so **dumb** as you think. 3. For instance we may buy our meat from Mr Smith at the corner **market**. 4. I have **covered** New York state AFL and CIO **conventions** for the local press for more than 20 years. 5. Where upon she would flinch with excitement and nervously busy herself about **filling** a customer's order. 6. To **ship** at least a carload of fruit constantly, one needs to have 1000 to 1,200 trees of each variety in full bearing.

faculty — профессорско-преподавательский состав, dumb (глупый), market — продовольственный магазин, to cover — давать отчет для прессы, convention — партийный и профсоюзный съезд, to fill — исполнять, выполнять, to ship — перевозить груз любым видом транспорта (морским, железнодорожным, автомобильным).

Ex. 7. Learn the following words by heart:

In the USA	In Great Britain
bulletin board	notice board
fish dealer	fish monger
grocery	grocer's shop
can opener	tin opener
administration	government
stock	share
baggage	luggage
intermission	interval
newsie	newsboy
game	match
editorial	leader
check	bill
mail	post

Ex. 8. Put in columns Americanisms, Britanisms and General English words:

country, drugstore, mailbox, underground, pavement, nation exercise, work out, hallway, corridor, apartment, flat, street, car, tram, letter box, pillar, box, hallway, fall, autumn, relax, let up, lorry, fortnight, administration.

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LESSON 21

THE CORRELATION OF DIFFERENT ASPECTS OF WORDS

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. The correlation of aspects of words as a subject of discussion among the linguists. 2. The correlation of frequency value and the number of meanings of words. 3. The correlation of frequency value and the

semantic activity of the word with its derivational structure. 4. The correlation of the frequency value and semantic activity and the phraseological activity of the word. 5. The correlation of the origin of the word and its frequency value, semantic, derivational, phraseological activities.

TEXT

The words have different characteristic features: some words have many meanings and some of them have only one or two meanings. Some of them are more frequent in speech than the others. Some words give a lot of derivatives and others do not. Some of them may be a component of many phraseological units and some of them are not used in the formation of phraseological units. So we see that different words may have different activity in the language and speech. So different words play different role in the language and in speech. And studying the interdependence and interrelation of these different aspects of words is very important. The correlation is the interdependence of different aspects of words. Scientists paid attention to the interdependence of different peculiarities of words for a long time. For example George Zipf (The Meaning and Frequency Relationship of Words. The Journal of General Psychology (U. S. A., vol 33, 1945) and French linguist Quiraud worked out the correlation of meaning of words and their frequency value. R. S. Ginzburg tried to study the interdependence of frequency value and the collocability of words etc. The interdependence of different aspects of the word may be easily observed through a comparative analysis of these aspects in relation to each other.

The frequency value is very important feature of a word and it is, as a rule, a most reliable and objective factor indicating the relative value of the word in the language. The frequency value alone is in many cases enough to judge about structural, stylistic, semantic, and etymological peculiarities of words. The frequency value singles out two classes of words: notional words and functional words.

The notional words have low frequency value but functional words are more frequent than the notional words in speech.

It is interesting to note that the words «the», «of», «and», «to», «a», «in», «that», «is», «was», «he» are the most frequent words. They often occur in the English texts.

There is a certain interdependence between the number of meanings in a word and its structural and derivational structure, its etymological character, its stylistic reference.

The higher frequency, the more polysemantic is the word.

Ex. change — 790 fr.-more than 10 meanings

take — 7008 fr.-more than 10 meanings

serve — 1744 fr.-more than 10 meanings

The longer the word the fewer meanings it has

Ex. «man» has more than 10 meanings but «woman» has 4 meanings, the word «hand» has more than 12 meanings but the word «handshake» has only 1 meaning.

The latest linguistic investigations show that the number of meanings may be correlated with the number of morphemes the word consists of. Derived words have less meanings and frequency value than the root words.

Ex. «heart» has 5 meanings, «hearty» has 3 «heart-felt» — 1, heartily — 2, «girl» has 7 meanings, «girlhood» has 1, «girlish» — 2, girlishness has 1 meaning etc., «man» has more than 11 meanings but the derived words «manful», «manly», «manliness» have only one meaning each.

Derived words are as a rule poorer in the number of meanings and have lower frequency value than the simple words. *Ex.* the noun «hand» has 15 meanings while the derived verb «to hand» has only one meaning, «teach» has 5 meanings but the word «teacher» has only 2 meanings.

We can see the interdependence between the number of meanings of the word and its stylistic reference. The neutral style words with zero emotive charge have more meanings than the literary, stylistically coloured words of some emotive charge.

Ex. «try» and «endeavour» are synonyms, the former is a neutral style word and it has 8 meanings, but «endeavour» a bookish word and it has only 1 meaning; «make» has 2 meanings but its literary synonym «manufacture» has only 2 meanings; «horse» has 5 meanings but its poetic synonym «steed» has only one meaning. We may also observe the interdependence between the number of meanings of the words and their word-building ability.

The more number of meanings the word has the more derivatives it gives.

Ex. «divide» has 12 meanings and 24 derivatives (dividable, dividant, divided, divider, dividing, division, dividedness, dividedly, undivided, undividable, undividedly, undividedness, misdivision etc, but the verb «joke» has only 2 mea-

nings and can give 3 derivatives (joker, jokingly, joke). The verb «extend» has 8 meanings and it can be the stem for 14 derivatives (extendible, extendibility, extender, unextended, unextendedly, overextend etc). The verb «fix» has 14 meanings and it has 15 derivatives (fixer, fixation, fixative, unfix, fixity, fixedly, fixedness etc).

The frequency value, semantic activity of the words are connected with their phraseological activity too.

The greater frequency and number of meanings the word has, the greater number of phraseological units they are used in. *Ex.* the following verbs have a lot of meanings and a higher frequency value therefore they may be the components of a lot of phraseological units.

take — 766, get — 474, turn — 108,
pass — 75, carry — 81, serve — 32,
raise — 57, push — 31, catch — 61
touch — 36, move — 29, change — 26,
lift — 27, enter — 21, cross — 20.

Frequency value may also be used as a clue to the etymological character of the word and to its interrelation with number of meanings. The most frequently used words belong either to the native words or to the early borrowings which are fully assimilated in English. The verbs catch, change, take, get, give, call, serve, return etc are early borrowed words therefore they are very frequent. The verbs «build», «believe», «work», «begin», «go», «teach», «understand», «stop», «help», «answer», «write», «read», «come», «see», «open», «sing» etc are the native words. They were born in Great Britain therefore they have a lot of meanings and high frequency value.

Late borrowings as «regime», «bourgeoisie» etc have low frequency value and are very seldom polysemantic. Let's consider the synonyms «to ask», «to question», «to interrogate», «to demand» or «to keep», «to preserve», «to retain». Among these words only «ask» and «keep» are polysemantic and are widely used in Modern English because the verbs «to ask» and «to keep» are of native origin but others are borrowings.

Frequency value of different meanings of polysemantic words may be different too. *Ex.* the adjective «exact» has two meanings (точный и аккуратный). The comparison of the frequency value of these meanings shows that they are not of equal importance in the semantic structure of the word. The first meaning of this word comprises 78 % of occur-

rences of the word and 18% belongs to the second meaning. Thus, as we see, different aspects of the word are interdependent and interrelated. Among them the frequency value or the semantic activity of the word are in most cases enough to judge about structural, stylistic, semantic, wordbuilding phraseological activities and etymological peculiarities of words. If the word has a high frequency value or has a number of meanings one may suppose that it is monomorphemic, simple, monosyllabic, stylistically neutral, and active in word formation and can be a component of several phraseological units.

Exercises

Ex. 1. Answer the following questions:

1. What characteristic features do the words have in the language? 2. What is the correlation of different aspects of words? 3. What is the interdependence of the frequency value and number of meanings? 4. What is the correlation of number of meanings of the words and their derivational structure? 5. What is the interdependence between the number of meanings of the word and its stylistic reference? 6. What is the interdependence between the number of meanings of the words and their wordbuilding ability? 7. What is the correlation of the frequency value, semantic activity of the words with their phraseological activity? 8. What is the interdependence between the origin of the word and its different aspects?

Ex. 2. Find the number of meanings of the following words from a dictionary and define the correlation of them with the morphemic structure.

man, cat, pronunciation, put, worker, rationalization, regularity.

Ex. 3. Look up the derivatives of the following verbs and explain the interdependence between the wordformational activity of the words and their frequency value.

catch — 665, cry — 979, despair — 31, coin — 58, divide — 509, pass — 1844, pretend — 83, refresh — 56, seat — 143, receive — 1600.

Ex. 4. Compare the number of the derivatives of the following words and their number of their meanings.

Deliver (v) 337

deliverable, undeliverable, undelivered, deliver (n), deliverance, deliverly, delivery, misdeliver, redeliver, redelivery, misdelivery

Bargain (v) — 46

bargainable, [bargain (n), bargainee, bargainer,

Deliver means:

- 1) передовать, 2) произносить читать; 3) представлять (отчёт); 4) выпускать, посылать; 5) освободить, избавлять; 6) рождать, рожать; 7) сдавать; 8) завоевывать; 9) снабжать; 10) нагнетать; 11) легко отходить; 12) разгружать.

Bargain means:

- 1) торговаться, вести переговоры; 2) заключить сделку.

Ex. 5. Explain the interdependence of the semantic and the phraseological activities of the following words.

Argue

semantic activity:

- 1) спорить; 2) аргументировать; 3) убедить; 4) утверждать; 5) свидетельствовать; 6) обвинять.

Argue

phraseological activity:

- to argue about, to argue against, to argue along lines, to argue for, to argue into, to argue out of, to argue in a circle, to argue away, to argue round and round

Ex. 6. Analyse the correlation of different aspects of the most frequent verbs in English given in the table and find your own examples for them

The aspects of activity of verbs	The coefficient of the correlation
frequency — semantic activity	+ 0,625
frequency — wordformational activity	+ 0,518
frequency — valancy	+ 0,886
frequency — phraseological activity	+ 0,978
semantic activity — wordformational activity	+ 0,835
semantic activity — phraseological activity	+ 0,976
semantic activity — valancy	+ 0,879
phraseological activity — wordformational activity	+ 0,777
phraseological activity — valancy	+ 0,510

Ex. 7. Compare the frequency of occurrence of notional and form words¹ (given below graphically). Explain the interrelation of two classes:

	Notional words	Form words
1. In the first hundred of the most frequently occurring words	66%	34%
2. In the second hundred of the most frequently occurring words	82%	18%
3. In the third hundred of the most frequently occurring words	90%	10%
4. In the fourth hundred of the most frequently occurring words	93%	7%
5. In the first thousand of the most frequently occurring words	93%	7%

¹ See: Fries. *The Structure of English*. ch VI, N. Y., 1952.

Ex. 8. Find the following terms from the linguistic dictionary by O. S. Akhmanova and explain them in your own words.

frequency value («частотность»)

semantic structure («семантическая структура»)

correlation («корреляция»)

derivational structure («деривационная структура»); («дери-
вация»)

borrowing («заимствование»)

Ex. 9. Give your reasons to the point of view of the author.

«There is, however, another aspect of polysemy which can be sure precisely quantified: its relation to word-frequency. By systematically comparing the relative frequency of various words with the number of senses in which they are used, the late Q. K. Zipf, arrived at an interesting conclusion which he termed the principle of divercity of meanings. According to Zipf, there is a direct relationship between the number of different meanings of a word and its relative frequency of occurrences. He even tried to find a mathematical formula for this relationship. His calculations suggested that «different meanings of a word will tend to be equal to the square root of its relative frequency (with the possible exception of the few dozen most frequent words). Put in a different way: $m = F^2$, where «m» stands for the number of meanings and «F» for relative frequency. (S. Ullmann)

1. R. S. Ginzburg et. al. A Course in Modern English Lexicology M., 1979.

2. А. М. Муминов. Опыт исследования активности слов и факторов ее обуславливающих. Автореферат дисс. канд. филол. наук. М., 1972.

3. А. М. Муминов. Корреляция некоторых свойств разных этимологических групп слов в современном английском языке. В кн: Иностранные языки в пед. вузах Узбекистана. Научные труды, вып. 9., Ташкент, 1977.

4. С. С. Хидекель и др. Английская лексикология в выдержках и извлечениях. М., 1975.

LESSON 22

METHODS USED IN LEXICOLOGICAL RESEARCH

PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Contrastive analysis of words. 2. Componential analysis of words. 3. Immediate Constituents analysis of words. 4. Distributional analysis of words. 5. Transformational analysis of words.

TEXT

In Modern English different methods are used in lexicological research:

1) Contrastive analysis; 2) Statistical methods of analysis; 3) Immediate constituents analysis; 4) Distributional analysis; 5) Transformational analysis; 6) Componential analysis etc.

CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

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

We must know that the objective reality exists outside human beings, every language classifies reality in its own way by means of its vocabulary units.

In English the word «foot» is used to denote the extremity of the leg. But in Uzbek and Russian there is no exact equivalent for «foot». The words «нога», «оёқ» denote the whole leg including the foot.

Classification of the real world around us is learned with our first language because we are used to the way in which our own language structures experience but in the fact it is highly arbitrary.

**Ex.* In Russian or in Uzbek one word is used for the thing that tells the time *coat, часы*; *coat* but in English we use two words «watch» and «clock».

In English, Uzbek some kinship terms do not reflect the difference between male and female: *cousin (була)*. But in Russian: *двоюрный брат, двоюрная сестра*.

In English: *perhew, niece*; in Russian, *двоюрный брат, двоюрная сестра*; in Uzbek: «*жиян*», in Uzbek: «*рассом*», in Russian: «*художник*», in English: «*artist*», «*painter*», «*drawer*».

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

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

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

Englishman uses the word «*head*» to denote the following:

head of a person, head of a match, head of a bed, head of a table, head of a coin, head of an organization, head of a cane (камыш)

But in Russian different words have to be used: *голова, изголовье, сторона, головка*, in Uzbek *бош, бошлик, усти, учи*.

A Russian or Uzbek language learner having learnt first that the word «*head*» is the English word which denotes a part of the body he will think that it can be used in all the cases where the Russian word «*голова*» or «*бош*» in Uzbek is used. He will never think of using the word «*head*» in connection with a bed or a coin.

Here are some other examples of difference:

In Russian: *свекровь, теща*

In English: *mother in law*

In Uzbek: *қайнона*

In a number of cases the English word «*new*» stands for «*новый*»: *новое платье (a new dress), Новый год (New year)*. But there are some cases where in Russian we can't use the word *новый*; *new potatoes — молодая картошка, new bread — свежий хлеб*.

One Russian word may correspond to a number of English

words: тонкая книга — a thin book, тонкая ирония — subtle irony, тонкая талия — slim waist.

One word in one language may correspond to two or more words in different languages: карикатура — cartoon, caricature.

One and the same Russian preposition may correspond to different prepositions in English.

до 5 часов — till 5 o'clock

до войны — before the war

до угла — to the corner

The well-known Russian linguist Sherba said that it would be a mistake if we supposed that the notional systems of any two languages are identical.

Componential Analysis

The term «componential analysis» was first used by W. Goodenough. («Componential Analysis and the Study of Meaning», Language, 1956, 32, 1) and F. Lounsbury («A Semantic Analysis of the Pawnee Kinship Usage», Language, 1956, 32, 1).

Words have meanings and the smallest units of meaning are called sememes or components of meaning. The word «woman» has the following components of meaning «human», «female», «adult».

girl	human female young		woman	human female adult
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The component «young» distinguishes the word «girl» from «woman».

girl	human female young		boy	human male young
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Here the component «male» distinguishes the word «boy» from «girl».

Componential analysis deals with individual meanings. Different meanings of polysemantic words have different componential structure. *Ex.* the comparison of two meanings of the word «boy».

1. a male child	human male young up to the age 17 or 18		2. a male servant	human male any age
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Each part of speech has a distinguishing semantic feature. Nouns have the component «substantiality» or «thingness,» adjectives have «quality» and so on.

The semantic features of words may be classified into markers and distinguishers. Semantic markers are semantic features which can be found (or are present) also in the lexical meaning of other words. Distinguishers are semantic features which are individual, which are not present in the lexical meaning of other words.

spinster		countable noun
		human
		adult
		female
		who has never married

«countable noun» — is a marker, because it represents a subclass within nouns and it is a semantic feature which the word «spinster» has in common with all other countable nouns (boy, table, flower, idea etc.). «human» is a marker because it refers the word «spinster» to nouns denoting human beings.

«adult» is a marker because it is a subdivision of human beings into adult and young.

«female» is a marker too because it shows a subclass of adult females as woman, widow, mother etc.

«Who has never married» — is a distinguisher because it differentiates the meaning of the word from other words which have all other common semantic features.

Componential analysis is also used in the investigation of the semantic structure of synonyms. There is a certain component of meaning which differs one member from any other member of the same synonymic set.

thick		object
		inanimate

stout		human
		male

buxom		human
		female

The adjective «thick» has no the component «human», «stout» does not contain the semantic component «object» (a thick book, a stout man) and the adjective «buxom» possesses the semantic component «female» which is not to be found in either the English adjectives «thick» or «stout».

The analysis into the components «animate»/ «inanimate»,

«object» «human», «male» «female» shows the difference in the meaning of synonyms.

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

The words «thick», «stout», «buxom» and the word «толстый» (семиз) are not semantically identical because the Russian word «толстый» is used to describe both humans and objects.

Ex. толстый человек, толстая книга.

The Uzbek word «семиз» does not contain the semantic component «male» and «female».

The components of the lexical or the grammatical meanings may be singled out by the co-occurrence analysis.

Unfortunately the dictionaries do not always point out such semantic components of words as «animate — inanimate», «human — nonhuman», «young — old» etc. We know these components in their collocability with certain types of nouns.

The semantic components of the verb «to smoke» such as «age», «human» can be found when it is combined with certain nouns denoting these components.

The «female» or «male» component of the meaning of the noun «baby» can be observed through the co-occurrence of it with the possessive pronouns «his» or «her».

The baby drank his milk

The baby drank her milk

The componential analysis is widely used in modern linguistics. (Nida E. Componential Analysis of Meaning. The Hague, 1975)

The words in different languages have their own semantic components.

Comparing the English verb «to go», Uzbek word «бормоқ» and Russian «ходить», «ездить» we can see that in the English and Uzbek words the way of movement is not shown. But in Russian verbs ходить and ездить this component is shown in them. We see here the hidden component of meaning. The hidden component of meaning is a component which can be revealed through the collocability of words.

It is impossible to say in Russian «ехать пешком». R. S. Ginzburg says that the hidden component of meaning of words is the linguistic property of the word. It can be found with the help of co-occurrence analysis.

To study the hidden components of words is very important for language teaching.

The Immediate Constituents Analysis. The Immediate Constituents (I. C.) Analysis attempts to determine the ways in which the units are related to one another. This method is based on a binary principle. In each stage of the procedure we have two components. At each stage these two components are broken into two smaller meaningful elements. The analysis is ended when we arrive at the constituents which are not divided further. These constituents are called «the ultimate constituents».

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

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

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

A fat/ teacher's wife — means that his wife is fat.

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

A beautiful woman/ doctor means that the doctor who treats woman is beautiful.

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

Ex. denationalize (not to give a national right) may be first segmented into.

de /nationalize because the morpheme «de—» can be found in a number of other words: such as: deform, denature, denominate

The remaining part «nationalize» can be broken into national/ ize because «— «ize» can be found in such words as «organize», «humanize», «recognize», «standardize». National — into nation/ al as — «al» occurs in a number of words: occupational, musical, critical.

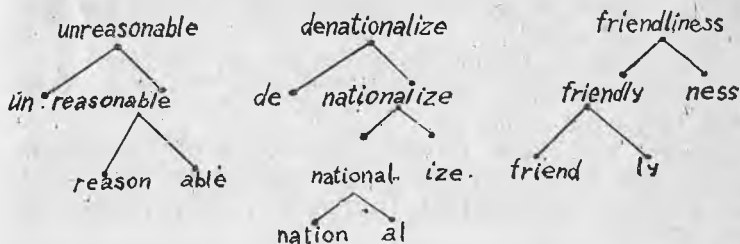
So we have found de /nation/ al /ize — 4 ultimate constituents

«friendliness» is divided into friendly/ ness (friendly — looking) because «ness» can be found in such words as happiness, kindness, darkness, beautifulness etc.

«friendly» is divided into friend /ly because «friend» may occur in «friendship», «unfriendly» on the one hand «ly» can be seen in «wifely», «brotherly» on the other hand.

So we have found friend —ly—ness—3 ultimate constitu-

ents. We draw schemes of the morphemic analysis according to the I. C. method.



This is the morphemic analysis according to the I. C. method.

It should be pointed out that this method is very useful to find out the derivational structure of words too.

Ex. «denationalize» has both a prefix «de —» and the suffix «—ize».

In order to know whether this word is a prefixal or a suffixal derivative we use the I. C. analysis. We cannot divide this word into denational /ize because there is no the word «denational» or «denation». The only possible way of division is de /nationalize because there is the word «nationalize». Therefore we may say that this word is a prefixal derivative. I. C. is also useful to define the compound words and derivational compound words.

Ex. snow — covered can't be divided into snow + cover + ed but snow + covered. So it is a compound word because there is no «snow — cover» in the dictionary.

«blue + eyed may be divided into (blue + eye) + ed because there is the word «blue + eye» therefore it is a derivational compound word.

Distributional Analysis

This method is widely used in lexicological analysis. Distribution is the occurrence of words relatively to other words. It is the position which words occupy or may occur in the text.

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

	friend	li	ness
3			
2			
1			

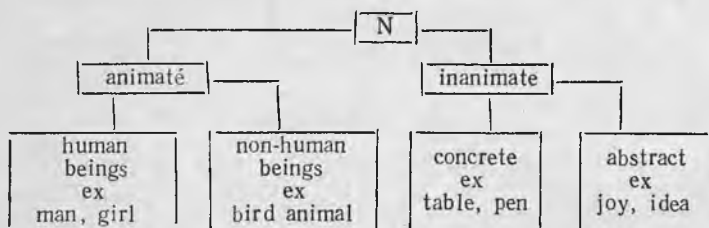
The place of a morpheme is relative to other morphemes
ex. singer → *ersing is impossible. A different pattern of arrangement of the same morphemes changes the whole into the meaningless. If we have different distribution we have different meanings!

Ex. to get to London, to get angry, to get rid of.
 to take care of, to take off, to take in, take on, take place, take a taxi, take tea.

As was said above, different distribution of components of compound words may change the meaning of the word.
Ex. bird-cage and cage-bird, fruit-market, market-fruit, life-boat, boat-life.

So the meaning of the word depends on its distribution. It should be pointed out that the meaning of the word is dependent on what class of words it is combined with.

Thus nouns may be subdivided into



Ex. If we use after the verb «move» the nouns denoting inanimate objects (move + inanimate N) it has the meaning: двигать (Ex. He moved a table).

But when it is followed by the noun denoting animate human being (move + animate N) it has another meaning: He moved a man «он будил человека». The meaning of words also different if they are combined with different lexico-semantic groups. By lexico-semantic group we understand the group of words joined together by a common concept or the words which have a common semantic component. Ex. verbs denoting sense perception: to think, to imagine, to write, or adjectives denoting colour: red, black, yellow, etc.

Ex. blind + any N denoting a living being, animate слепой without the power to see: a blind man, a blind woman, a blind cat.

blind + N denoting inanimate objects or abstract concept may have different meanings depending on the lexico-semantic group of the noun, it belongs to. So it has the me-

aning «безрассудный» (thoughtless) when it is combined with nouns denoting emotions. Ex. blind love, blind fury.

With nouns denoting written or typed signs it has the meaning «hard to see», ex. blind handwriting, blind type.

Distributional analysis is widely used in wordformation.

The analysis of the derivational pattern $N + ish \rightarrow adj.$ shows that the suffix «*ish*» is never combined with noun stems denoting time, space. It is impossible to say hourish, mileish. Many adjectives in — «*ish*» are formed from noun + stems denoting living beings, *ex.* wolfish, boyish, girlish.

So the distribution may be viewed as the place of words in relation to other words on the level of semantic classes and sub-classes. The distributional meanings by co-occurrence may be extra-linguistic or linguistic components of meaning.

Good doctor — who treats well

Good mother — who takes care of her children well.

Here the meaning of the adjective «good» is different and it is the extra-linguistic factors that account for the difference in meaning. The linguistic components of distributional meaning can be found when we compare correlated words in different languages.

Ex. In English the verb «to seize» may be combined with nouns denoting different kinds of emotions (I was seized with joy, grief, etc.) but in Russian we may say — на меня напало сомнения; but the collocations — напала радость, надежда are impossible, so the Russian verb cannot be combined with nouns denoting pleasurable emotions.

It must be said that the different semantic peculiarities of the words may be found in the distributional analysis. The verb «to giggle» refers to a type of laughter. It means «to laugh in a nervous manner» but the analysis showed that «to giggle» is often connected with the laugh of a woman (women giggle) man may giggle drunkenly or nervously but not happily or politely. Different words make different patterns.

Ex. to feel one's way, to feel bad, to feel tired, to feel for something.

What is a pattern? A pattern is combination of a word, a symbolic representation of the class of words with which it may be combined.

Ex. see a boy, see a place, see a book.

On the bases of these words we can draw a pattern see

+N. This is called a distributional formular. The distributional formular is a symbolic representation.

- ex.* make + (a) + N — make a coat, a machine
make + (the) + N + V — make the machine go
make + (A) — make sure
make + (a) + A + N make a good wife.

In each of these examples the meaning of «make» is different.

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

- Ex.* to tear a curtain — the curtain has a tear
to cut a finger — the finger has a cut.

A paraphrase of a sentence in which some words are replaced by semantic equivalent is a lexical transformation.

Ex. This novel is a best-seller — (this novel is) a book that has one of the biggest sales of the season. A lexical transformation keeps the meaning unchanged.

Exercises

Ex. 1. Answer the following questions:

1. What do we reveal in contrastive analysis of words of different languages? 2. Why do we classify the real word around us with our first language? 3. How do we analyse the correlated polysemantic words of different languages with the help of contrastive analysis? 4. By whom was the term «componential» analysis first used? 5. What is a seme-me or a component of meaning of a word? 6. What are the markers and distinguishers? 7. How do we use the componential analysis to analyse the synonyms? 8. What is a co-occurrence analysis? 9. What is the hidden component of the meaning of the word? How can it be revealed? 10. What is the method of immediate constituents analysis? 11. What is the procedure of the use of immediate constituents analysis in the study of derivational structure of words? 12. What is a distributional analysis? 13. How does the different distribution of words change their meanings? 14. What is the distributional analysis of correlated words in different languages? 15. What is the transformational analysis?

Ex. 2. a) Find the Uzbek co.respondents to the different collocations of the verb «to fill».

English

Russian

- | | |
|--------------------|------------------|
| 1. to fill a lamp | заправлять лампу |
| 2. to fill a pipe | набивать трубку |
| 3. to fill a truck | загружать машину |
| 4. to fill a gap | заполнять пробел |

b) Find the English correspondents to the different collocations of the verb «олмоқ».

1) китоб олмоқ (брать книгу); 2) имтиҳон олмоқ (принимать экзамен); 3) дам олмоқ (отдыхать); 4) билим олмоқ (получить знание); 5) хотин олмоқ (жениться); 6) кутиб олмоқ (встречать).

Ex. 3. Translate into English:

1) вы ошиблись (номером); 2) ничего, пожалуйста; 3) курить запрещается; 4) трогать запрещается.

Ex. 4. Find the English equivalents to the following words and expressions.

лестница (нарвон, зинапоя), не стой под дождем (ёмфир-да турма), подушка (ёстиқ, диван ёстиғи), книга лежит на столе (китоб стол устида турибди), тарелка стоит на столе (тарелка стол устида турибди).

Ex. 5. Compare the components of meanings of the following words using the componential analysis.

girl and woman, cock and hen, cow and [bull, father and mother, grandfather and father, grandmother and grandfather, grandmother and mother, sister and brother.

Ex. 6. Define the components of meanings of the following synonyms with the help of co-occurrence analysis:

beautiful, handsome, pretty; to laugh, to smile, to giggle, to talk, to speak.

Ex. 7. Read the following and find your own examples to illustrate the point of view of the author.

We can divide the meaning of the verbs «to giggle», «to laugh», «to smile» into animate, person, because only a human-being can laugh:

However the laughter is not connected with sex (male/female.). But a thorough investigation of the meaning of these verbs, and co-occurrence analysis showed that the verb «to giggle» has the hidden semantic component «female». The

verb «to giggle» is connected with nouns expressing the female. The occurrence of this verb with nouns, denoting «male» can be seen when it is used with the adverbs drunkenly and nervously. But when the subject of the sentence is expressed by a noun denoting «female» the verb «giggle» can be used with different adverbs: to giggle happily (politely) with obvious pleasure etc.

Ex. It is possible to say «The man is giggling drunkenly and nervously» but it is impossible. The man is giggling happily. However it is possible to say.

The girl is giggling nervously

— — — happily

— — — drunkenly

— — — politely

— — — with obvious pleasure

We can see that the semantic component «age» and «sex» may be a hidden component in some adjectives.

The adjective «pretty» has the hidden semantic component «age».

Ex. a pretty child, a pretty girl but it is impossible to say a pretty old woman. This component is not given in dictionaries.

The adjectives «shabby» and «buxom» have also the hidden component «age».

«a shabby child» is possible but «a shabby old man» is impossible «a buxom woman» is possible but «a buxom old woman» is impossible. Learning the hidden components of meaning is very important for us in order to master the language. For the establishment of the hidden component we must have a dictionary of frequency value of collocations. (Ginzburg R. S.)

Ex. 8. Analyse the meaning of the following word-groups with the help of the method of immediate constituents.

A beautiful girl's sister, a tall doctor's wife.
a big stone wall.

Ex. 9. Find the ultimate constituents in the structure of the following words:

Discontinuous, discountenance, disagreement, observatory, seasickness.

Ex. 10. Determine if the following compound words are derivational compounds:

snow-covered, long-legged, short-haired, open-handed, single-minded, whitewashed.

Ex. 11. Compare the different meaning of the correlated words in Uzbek and English in different distributions:

make	ҚИЛМОҚ
make up one's mind, make a teacher, make out, make water, make time, make money, make one's best, make oneself a name	фикр қилмоқ, иш қилмоқ, ош қилмоқ, суд қилмоқ, ўғирлик қилмоқ, болалик қилмоқ, ҳабар қилмоқ, ижод қилмоқ

Ex. 12. Transform the following word-groups into a sentence according to the pattern: *to cut a finger — the finger has a cut*

to smoke a cigarette, to look at the girl, to drink water.

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APPENDIX

In M. West's dictionary «A general Service List of English Words» the frequency value of words belonging to a definite part of speech is given in percentage relations. As a result of calculating these percentages we established the frequency value of borrowed and native verbs. The authors hope these words will help the students in their independent work. They give them possibilities to choose material for their research work.

THE FREQUENCY VALUE OF BORROWED VERBS

accept	732	button	12
accord	1446	case	12
account	968	calculate	130
accuse	85	calm	16
accustom	13	camp	242
act	44	carry	2120
add	142	cart	6
address	162	catch	665
admire	655	cause	910
admit	869	caution	16
adopt	52	centre	64
advance	140	chain	22
advertise	574	connect	360
advise	580	conquer	132
agree	343	consider	1252
aim	50	contain	1030
allow	180	continue	2136
amuse	672	control	284
anger	138	chance	75
annoy	751	change	790
amount	219	charge	343
attract	273	charm	26
average	58	check	25
avoid	316	cheer	114
apologize	20	circle	81
appear	1740	civilize	162
applaud	37	claim	318
apply	608	class	71
appoint	480	classify	74
approve	205	clear	211
argue	223	close	459
arm	385	cost	137
arrange	280	coin	58
arrest	114	collect	290
arrive	532	colour	107
astonish	112	combine	231
attach	432	comfort	76
attempt	417	command	221
attend	301	compare	362
balance	60	compete	80
band	15	complain	132
bar	58	complete	290
bargain	45	compose	266
base	276	concern	372
beg	172	confess	182
blame	116	confuse	112
block	52	congratulate	36
boil	140	copy	31
border	60	cork	8
bottle	6	correct	45
branch	20	cost	290
bride	24	count	264
brush	29	cover	881

cross	547	entertain	132
crush	132	entrust	56
cry	979	envy	26
cultivate	118	equal	58
cure	72	escape	38
curl	56	examine	300
curve	51	exchange	110
damage	32	excite	115
damp	10	excuse	78
dance	145	excercise	223
date	191	exist	630
decay	93	expect	792
deceive	108	experience	86
decide	586	experiment	49
declare	1122	explain	614
decrease	134	explode	50
defeat	144	explore	56
defend	311	express	602
delay	83	extend	576
delight	121	fade	105
deliver	337	fail	764
demand	455	faint	27
descend	224	fancy	142
describe	668	favour	200
deserve	191	feast	32
desire	340	finish	297
despair	31	fix	596
depend	489	flatten	26
destroy	522	flavour	14
determine	637	flower	24
develope	690	fool	55
dine	92	force	528
direct	33	form	1924
dirty	67	fry	18
disappear	262	furnish	420
disappoint	86	gain	837
disapprove	51	garage	24
discover	700	garden	11
discuss	306	get	283
dismiss	66	govern	232
distinguish	473	grease	42
disturb	177	group	48
divide	509	guard	113
double	83	guess	200
doubt	220	guide	142
dress	208	happen	784
ease	37	haste	170
educate	182	hesitate	116
effect	195	honour	85
elect	466	hurry	170
employ	580	hurt	142
enclose	104	imagine	288
encourage	258	imitate	78
enjoy	434	impulsion	43
enter	1118	improve	200

include	924	ornament	35
increase	1390	pack	100
influence	86	paint	350
inform	282	par don	16
ink	8	part	278
insult	27	pass	1844
insure	96	paste	30
intend	338	pay	1541
interest	595	perform	314
interfere	150	permit	522
interrupt	100	persuade	184
introduce	462	pity	43
invent	152	place	910
invite	196	plan	243
join	610	plaster	12
joke	10	please	518
journey	47	point	663
judge	208	poison	130
lack	101	polish	118
level	16	possess	492
lift	414	postpone	64
limit	449	practise	226
loosen	54	praise	70
lower	91	pray	266
manage	344	preach	136
manufacture	345	prefer	260
map	17	prepare	632
march	170	prejudice	152
marry	411	present	987
master	30	preserve	350
matter	191	press	282
measure	274	pretend	88
mention	527	prevent	512
mine	954	print	298
mistake	127	prize	29
mix	122	produce	1367
modernize	21	profit	68
move	1141	progress	40
multiply	76	promise	310
near	18	prompt	39
neglect	156	pronounce	130
net	222	propose	448
note	439	protect	424
notice	311	prove	842
number	69	provide	926
obey	132	punish	122
object	113	push	155
observe	592	qualify	54
offend	88	quarrel	53
offer	921	question	154
omit	48	quiet	15
operate	410	race	64
oppose	352	raise	850
order	324	rake	11
organize	329	realize	518

recognize	682	separate	524
record	338	serve	1744
reduce	546	sign	330
reflect	276	signal	44
refresh	56	silence	20
refuse	532	size	536
recommend	140	skin	9
regard	923	slip	196
refer	314	smile	217
rejoice	60	solve	180
relate	350	sort	18
relieve	150	sound	547
remain	1436	spell	89
remark	415	split	69
remember	762	spoil	44
remind	268	square	32
rent	84	stain	60
repeat	327	standardize	34
replace	148	store	94
reply	405	state	588
report	564	station	80
represent	750	study	368
reproduce	84	succeed	588
request	77	suffer	456
rescue	77	suggest	620
reserve	72	suit	97
resign	178	supply	389
resist	166	support	421
respect	58	suppose	766
reason	168	surprise	207
receive	1600	surround	336
result	484	suspect	208
retire	224	sympathize	36
return	1808	take	7008
revenge	12	taste	76
review	51	tax	56
reward	451	telegraph	156
rid	94	telephone	178
risk	65	tempt	68
roast	25	tend	360
rob	120	test	106
roll	325	tighten	40
ruin	68	touch	403
rule	212	tour	104
sacrifice	90	track	21
satisfy	243	train	530
save	1078	translate	112
scent	24	travel	486
scold	4	treasure	9
scorn	38	treat	390
scrape	50	tremble	182
search	99	trouble	99
seat	143	trust	181
seem	3366	tune	20
seize	336	twist	97

typewrite	20	wait	551
unite	478	want	961
uproot	12	waste	123
urge	272	wave	110
use	2004	weaken	114
value	6	wreck	54
veil	48	wrong	22
visit	371		
vote	338		

THE FREQUENCY VALUE OF NATIVE VERBS IN ENGLISH

ache	43	care	397
afford	385	cheat	42
answer	1155	choose	604
arise	569	clean	101
ask	4062	climb	214
awake	173	clothe	52
back	195	comb	22
bake	62	come	7337
bare	21	cook	117
bathe	48	cool	71
be	—	cough	40
bear	1226	crack	36
beat	304	creep	140
become	3232	crown	92
begin	3026	cut	1032
behave	58	dare	242
believe	1682	darken	48
belong	640	deafen	16
bend	264	deal	455
bind	310	deepen	55
bite	51	die	1975
bleed	55	dip	55
bless	129	dive	35
blind	17	do	12840
blow	554	dot	90
borrow	168	dream	185
break	1315	drag	193
breathe	214	draw	47
brighten	40	drink	791
bring	2547	drive	899
brown	1	drop	531
build	1736	drown	85
burn	665	drum	9
burst	191	dry	134
bury	228	dull	11
butter	68	dust	10
buy	868	earn	188
call	3484	eat	827

edge	22	hope	629
end	43	house	50
empty	12	hunt	173
fall	1626	idle	8
fasten	118	iron	15
fear	364	kiss	118
feather	21	knee	122
feel	1615	knot	114
fight	760	know	5489
fill	784	land	28
find	3835	last	285
fire	261	lay	1231
fish	88	laugh	793
float	155	lead	1456
flood	54	lean	210
flow	373	learn	960
fly	731	leave	1460
fold	87	lend	142
follow	2314	lie	1411
fool	55	light	266
forbid	102	like	683
forget	603	listen	448
forgive	190	live	1447
frame	80	load	10
freeze	184	lock	96
fresh	30	look	2604
free	89	lose	793
gather	528	let	2009
give	2184	love	803
go	8760	melt	144
grind	52	milk	32
grow	1255	mind	166
hammer	17	miss	1187
hand	133	make	9600
handle	277	mark	605
hang	618	match	59
harbour	21	mean	766
harden	4	meet	—
harvest	25	nail	20
harm	46	name	112
hate	189	need	1131
have	43432	nest	10
head	111	nurse	109
heal	51	open	854
heap	32	outline	170
hear	2298	overcome	180
heat	107	own	292
heighten	20	peck	27
help	1197	pile	85
hide	379	pin	28
hire	116	plant	390
hit	101	play	766
hold	2358	plough	39
hollow	6	put	1602
hook	90	rain	42

reach	1331	snow	8
read	1512	soap	2
rest	460	soften	66
ride	583	sow	60
ring	311	spare	174
ripen	38	speak	1860
rise	979	speed	83
roar	86	spend	638
rock	30	spill	36
roof	20	spin	200
rot	12	spread	513
row	44	spring	690
run	1542	stamp	23
rust	42	stand	2680
sudden	12	start	746
saddle	13	stay	337
sail	246	steady	24
salt	4	steal	74
say	12278	steam	40
scratch	50	steer	174
see	7048	step	180
sell	960	stick	123
send	1530	stiffen	14
set	1744	sting	34
settle	532	stir	5
sew	26	stock	14
shade	43	stop	684
shake	460	straighten	38
shame	17	stream	—
shape	74	stretch	298
share	202	strike	655
sharpen	32	suck	38
shave	12	swallow	142
shell	23	swear	222
sew	24	sweat	66
shield	20	sweeten	32
shine	311	swell	66
ship	101	swim	132
shoe	7	swing	180
shoot	421	sweep	300
shop	9	talk	750
shorten	56	tame	22
shout	234	tar	24
show	2362	teach	690
shower	10	tear	120
shut	228	tell	3550
sink	296	thank	117
sing	700	thin	7
sit	1422	think	3566
sleep	399	thread	13
slide	73	threaten	294
slow	45	throw	819
smell	98	thunder	49
smoke	119	tidy	14
smooth	8	tie	190

tire	32	weigh	204
tower	53	welcome	199
trap	118	wet	204
turn	1244	whisper	148
underfeed	10	whistle	80
underline	2	whiten	12
undersell	8	widen	48
understand	1026	win	804
upset	41	wind	—
walk	391	wipe	94
wander	308	wish	518
warm	49	witness	9
warn	338	wonder	287
wash	198	work	913
watch	349	worship	48
water	20	worry	66
wear	617	wound	273
weave	132	write	1424
weed	2		
wake	236		

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