Федеральное агентство по образованию

Государственное образовательное учреждение
высшего профессионального образования «Рязанский государственный университет имени С.А. Есенина»

Утверждено на заседании кафедры
лингвистики и межкультурной
коммуникации
Института иностранных языков
РГУ имени С.А. Есенина

протокол № _ от _____

Зав.кафедрой
_____
_____
(подпись, ФИО),

УМК

по дисциплине

«Лексикология английского языка»

для специальности 022900 «Перевод и переводоведение» направление 620100 « Лингвистика и межкультурная коммуникация» Институт иностранных языков РГУ имени С.А. Есенина

курс 3, семестр 5

всего часов 154 (76/78)

Составители: профессор, к.ф.н. **Шеина И.М.**,

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Выписка из ГОС ВПО специальности 031202 – «Перевод и переводоведение»,

ОПД.Ф.02.3 Лексикология

Теоретическая и прикладная лексикология. Связь лексикологии с другими разделами языкознания.

Слово как основная единица лексической системы. Основные способы номинации в языке. Этимологические основы лексикона.

Семасиология. Семантика лексических единиц. Значение слова в функциональном аспекте. Методы разграничения значений и выявления компонентов значения. Национально-культурная специфика смысловой структуры соотносительных слов в русском и изучаемых иностранных языках. Историческая изменчивость смысловой структуры слова. Семантические группировки в лексической системе языка.

Омонимия и ее место в лексической системе языка. Источники омонимии.

Словообразование. Морфологическое и деривационное строение слова. Историческая изменчивость структуры слова. Принципы и методы морфемного и словообразовательного анализа структуры слова в языке. Понятие словообразовательной модели. Основные и комплексные единицы системы словообразования. Функциональный аспект в системе словообразования. Способы словообразования в языке. Национально-культурная специфика словообразования.

Сочетаемость лексических единиц. Понятие валентности. Свободные и устойчивые словосочетания. Фразеологические единицы. Соотнесенность фразеологической единицы и слова. Классификация фразеологических единиц.

Социальная и территориальная дифференциация словарного состава.

Основы лексикографии.

АННОТАЦИЯ ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ

«Лексикология английского языка» – дисциплина, входящая в блок профессиональной подготовки по специальности 031202 – «Перевод и переводоведение» (квалификация «Лингвист-переводчик»).

Цель дисциплины: сформировать у студентов набор лингвистических и социокультурных компетенций, которые позволят им эффективно работать с английской лексикой, обеспечивая адекватность перевода в различных типах дискурса.

Задачи дисциплины:

- формирование целостного представления о системном характере лексики и о роли лексических категорий (синонимии, антонимии, полисемии) в построении речи;
- формирование современных знаний о таких аспектах словарного состава английского языка, как: типы лексических единиц, их специфические свойства и структура, морфологические, синтаксические и стилистические особенности его лексического состава, закономерности функционирования слов в английском дискурсе, неоднородность словарного состава английского языка и пути его развития, лингвистические методы его исследования, лексическая и внеязыковая реальность;
- формирование базового понятийного аппарата, необходимого для обеспечения адекватного перевода с английского языка на русский и наоборот;

●формирование навыков корректного оценивания значимости каждого элемента в речевом функционировании.

Для изучения данной дисциплины необходимы знания дисциплины «Введение в языкознание».

Содержание дисциплины: лексикология английского языка. Акцент делается на изучении специфических свойств различных разрядов лексики, направленном на углубленный анализ функций и проявлений слова в тексте. Особое внимание уделяется сочетанию традиционных взглядов на рассматриваемый материал с их последующим развитием в рамках функционального и когнитивного направлений в современной лингвистике.

Структура дисциплины:

Курс состоит из семи модулей:

Модуль 1. Слово как объект лексикологии.

Модуль 2. Этимология.

Модуль 3. Лексическая семантика.

Модуль 4. Морфология и словообразование.

Модуль 5. Фразеология.

Модуль 6. Дифференциация лексики.

Модуль 7. Лексикография.

В результате изучения этой дисциплины студент должен:

ЗНАТЬ:

- общие закономерности строения, функционирования и развития лексической подсистемы английского языка;

- специфические свойства различных разрядов лексики английского языка;

- особенности функционирования языковых средств, используемых в разных типах дискурса для достижения определенных коммуникативных задач;

- стилистические и диалектные особенности дифференциации лексики на основе понятия литературной нормы;

- различные культурно-специфические способы категоризации и классификации объектов и явлений действительности;

- различия между научными и языковыми классификациями, научной и наивной картинами мира.

УМЕТЬ:

- применять полученные теоретические знания на практике в процессе межкультурной коммуникации;

- работать с научной литературой, аналитически осмысливать и обобщать теоретические положения;

- сопоставлять различные точки зрения и объяснять сходства и отличия в подходах к проблеме;

- сравнивать различные дефиниции основных понятий лексикологии и давать свои определения;

- строить объяснительное высказывание по научной проблеме, опираясь на прочитанный материал;

- самостоятельно ставить исследовательские задачи и находить адекватные методы их решения;

- анализировать вокабуляр с точки зрения его социальной и локальной стратификации;

- ориентироваться в иноязычных реалиях, привлекая необходимые фоновые знания;

- оценивать и сравнивать различные культуры с позиции общечеловеческих ценностей.

ВЛАДЕТЬ:

- основными лингвистическими методами и приемами исследования лексики.

Содержание дисциплины «Лексикология английского языка»

МОДУЛЬ 1. СЛОВО КАК ОБЪЕКТ ЛЕКСИКОЛОГИИ

Тема 1. *Лексикология как лингвистическая дисциплина. Слово как основная единица языка. Лексическая номинация*

Лексикология общая и частная, историческая и описательная, прикладная и сопоставительная. Предмет, цели и задачи лексикологии, ее связи с другими частными лингвистическими дисциплинами (фонетикой, грамматикой, стилистикой и историей языка). Структурно-семантический, функционально-коммуникативный и когнитивно-прагматический аспекты в изучении словарного состава английского языка. Словарный состав как система лексических единиц. Лексические единицы языка. Слово как основная единица лексической системы языка. Типы и виды языковой номинации: номинация лексическая, препозитивная, дискурсивная. Внутренняя и внешняя лексическая номинация. Первичная и вторичная лексическая номинация.

МОДУЛЬ 2. ЭТИМОЛОГИЯ

Тема 2. *Этимологическая характеристика словарного состава английского языка. Заимствованная и исконная лексика в английском языке*

Этимологическая характеристика номинативных единиц английского языка и их коммуникативные исследования. Роль заимствования как способа номинации в истории английского языка. Разнородность английского словаря с точки зрения его этимологического состава. Условность терминов «исконный» и «заимствованный». Слова англосаксонского происхождения в современном

английском языке. Особый статус слов романского происхождения в лексиконе английского языка. Заимствование из различных языков как социолингвистическое явление. Виды заимствований. Заимствования и лексико-семантическая система английского языка. Ассимиляция заимствований в словарном составе английского языка. Степень ассимиляции заимствований в лексико-семантической системе английского языка, их системно-функциональные способности и коммуникативная значимость. Влияние заимствований на словарный состав, лексико-семантическую систему, систему номинации и систему словообразования английского языка.

МОДУЛЬ 3. ЛЕКСИЧЕСКАЯ СЕМАНТИКА

Тема 3. *Природа значения слова. Семантическая структура современного английского языка.*

Семантика. Основные подходы к значению слова. Семантика слова как словарной и коммуникативной единицы современного английского языка. Значения лексических единиц. Значения слова и проблемы лексической номинации. Аспекты и типы значений в структуре значения слова. Лексическое, грамматическое, лексико-грамматическое, лингвостилистическое и прагматическое в значении слова.

Тема 4. *Способы семантической классификации лексики. Семантические связи слов в лексической системе английского языка*

Семантические классы лексических единиц и семантические группировки словарных единиц: семантические поля, лексико-грамматические классы слов, лексико-семантические группы слов, тематические группы слов. Фреймовая структура семантического поля. Парадигматические связи между однородными лексическими единицами. Синтагматические отношения в линейных комбинациях лексических единиц. Гиперо-гипонимические ряды и группы слов. Синонимия и синонимические ряды. Антонимия и антонимические пары и группы. Прототипические структуры как способ категоризации лексики. Специфика англоязычной языковой картины мира как результат национально-исторического, социоэтнопсихологического и культурного восприятия и упорядочивающего отображения многообразия окружающего мира.

Тема 5. *Полисемия и омонимия: их источники и классификации. Семантическая структура слова*

Омонимия и полисемия. Семантическая неоднозначность и ее типы. Разграничение полисемии и омонимии. Пути становления и классификация омонимов в английском языке. Смысловая структура слова в современном английском языке. Смысловая структура соотносительных слов в английском и русском языках. Метафора и метонимия как когнитивные механизмы создания новых значений. Концептуальная теория метафоры. Теория ментальных пространств. Метафора в историческом

аспекте. Историческая изменчивость смысловой структуры слова. Диахронная классификация типов лексических значений.

МОДУЛЬ 4. МОРФОЛОГИЯ И СЛОВООБРАЗОВАНИЕ

Тема 6. *Словообразование современного английского языка. Морфологическая структура слова*

Структура слова и словообразование. Лексическая морфология. Типология морфем. Морфологическое значение слова. Принципы и методы морфемного анализа структуры слова. Понятие членимости слова. Словообразовательная структура слова. Принципы и методы словообразовательного анализа и основные составляющие деривационной структуры слова. Понятие производной основы, типология деривационных основ в современном английском языке. Деривационные морфемы. Структура и семантика словообразовательной модели. Продуктивность и частотность словообразовательных моделей и словообразовательных средств как отражение их функционального аспекта.

Тема 7. *Основные способы словообразования. Аффиксация и словосложение*

Аффиксация (префиксация и суффиксация). Семантика деривационного аффикса. Многозначность и омонимия деривационных аффиксов. Принципы классификации аффиксов. Когнитивная и коммуникативная значимость производного слова: прагматика лингвокреативной деятельности. Словосложение. Основные особенности образования сложных слов в английском языке. Критерии сложного слова, структурная и семантическая соотносительность сложных слов и свободных словосочетаний в английском языке. Принципы классификации сложных слов.

Тема 8. *Основные способы словообразования. Конверсия*

Конверсия. Различное понимание природы конверсии. Критерии внутренней производности. Семантические отношения при конверсии как критерий определения направления производности.

Тема 9. *Второстепенные способы словообразования*

Второстепенные способы словообразования: их роль в пополнении словарного состава английского языка. Аббревиация, усечение, словосложение с сокращением основ, обратное словообразование. Проблема статуса аббревиатур и усеченных слов. Типы дискурса, для которых создаются данные виды слов.

МОДУЛЬ 5. ФРАЗЕОЛОГИЯ

Тема 10. *Теория словосочетания. Типы словосочетаний. Фразеология современного английского языка*

Роль синтагматики в изучении смысловой структуры слова. Роль и типы контекста. Значение слова и модель словосочетания. Теория валентности и основные типы словосочетаний в современном английском языке. Модель словосочетания и ее соотношение со значением ведущего компонента. Условия и правила сочетаемости слов: лингвистические и экстралингвистические факторы, ограничивающие сочетаемость слов. Свободные словосочетания и фразеологические единицы. Устойчивые словосочетания, их отличительные признаки. Разнородность устойчивых словосочетаний в современном английском языке, источники устойчивых сочетаний. Фразеоматика и фразеология. Фразовые глаголы в современном английском языке. Проблема эквивалентности фразеологической единицы и слова. Фразеологическая устойчивость. Классификация фразеологических единиц. Коммуникативно-прагматические свойства фразеологических единиц. Национально-культурная специфика семантики фразеологических единиц в английском и русском языках.

МОДУЛЬ 6. ДИФФЕРЕНЦИАЦИЯ ЛЕКСИКИ

Тема 11. *Стилистическая стратификация словарного состава английского языка*

Общая характеристика словарного состава современного английского языка. Словарный состав английского языка как система, закономерности функционирования этой системы. Стилистические регистры. Изменение словарного состава как социолингвистическое явление. Качественные и количественные изменения словарного состава современного английского языка. Использование английской лексики в письменной литературной речи (архаизмы, иностранные слова, терминология) и в устной разговорной речи (сленгизмы, вульгаризмы, диалектизмы, профессионализмы).

Тема 12. *Диалектная дифференциация словарного состава и основные варианты английского языка. Особенности словарного состава английского языка за пределами Великобритании*

Социальная и территориальная стратификация словарного состава современного английского языка. Территориальная дифференциация лексико-семантической системы английского языка как проявление пространственной и временной вариативности языка. Лексические особенности английского языка в США, Австралии, Канаде и других странах распространения английского языка, их историческая обусловленность и взаимопроникновение.

МОДУЛЬ 7. ЛЕКСИКОГРАФИЯ

Тема 13. *Лексикография английского языка*

Лексикография как одна из областей прикладной лексикологии. Отражение в лексикографических трудах современного уровня научных исследований основных проблем лексикологии английского языка (омонимия, конверсия и т.д.). Принципы классификации словарей и

основные параметры словаря. Основные типы английских словарей (толковые, синонимические, фразеологические, этимологические, идеографические, отраслевые, словари новых слов, учебные словари и др.). Наиболее известные серии британских и американских словарей разных типов. Наиболее употребительные толковые словари. Принципы построения толковых словарей. Отбор словника, структура словарной статьи. Справочный материал в английских и американских толковых словарях. Основные принципы отечественной двуязычной лексикографии. Переводные англо-русские и русско-английские словари. Проблема выбора эквивалента при составлении переводного словаря. Учебная лексикография и ее особенности. Особенности построения учебных толковых англоязычных словарей. Словари сочетаемости, особенности их построения. Характеристика нового поколения учебных англоязычных словарей с культурологическим компонентом.

ПРИМЕРНЫЙ ТЕМАТИЧЕСКИЙ ПЛАН

Тема		Всего часов	В том числе аудиторных			Самостоятельная работа
			всего	лекц.	семинар	
М. 1.	**Слово как объект лексикологии**	**12**	**6**	**2**	**4**	**6**
	Лексикология как лингвистическая дисциплина. Слово как основная единица языка. Лексическая номинация	12	6	2	4	6
М. 2.	**Этимология**	**16**	**8**	**4**	**4**	**8**
	Этимологическая характеристика словарного состава английского языка. Заимствованная и исконная лексика в английском языке	16	8	4	4	8
М. 3.	**Лексическая семантика**	**38**	**22**	**12**	**10**	**16**
	Природа значения слова. Семантическая структура современного английского языка.	8	4	2	2	4
	Способы семантической классификации лексики. Семантические связи слов в лексической системе английского языка	12	8	4	4	4
	Полисемия и омонимия: их источники и классификации. Семантическая структура слова	18	10	6	4	8
М. 4.	**Морфология и словообразование**	**42**	**18**	**10**	**8**	**24**
	Словообразование современного английского языка. Морфологическая структура слова	12	6	4	2	6
	Основные способы словообразования. Аффиксация и словосложение	10	4	2	2	6
	Основные способы словообразования. Конверсия	10	4	2	2	6
	Второстепенные способы словообразования	10	4	2	2	6

М. 5.	**Фразеология**	**14**	**8**	**4**	**4**	**6**
	Теория словосочетания. Типы словосочетаний. Фразеология современного английского языка	14	8	4	4	6
М. 6.	**Дифференциация лексики**	**22**	**10**	**6**	**4**	**12**
	Стилистическая стратификация словарного состава английского языка	12	6	4	2	6
	Диалектная дифференциация словарного состава и основные варианты английского языка. Особенности словарного состава английского языка за пределами Великобритании	10	4	2	2	6
М. 7.	**Лексикография**	**10**	**4**	**2**	**2**	**6**
	Лексикография английского языка	10	4	2	2	6
	Итого:	**154**	**76**	**40**	**36**	**78**

Lectures on Lexicology

Lecture 1. The English Word

GOALS:

- to give and explain the most important characteristics of the word;
- to differentiate between different types of motivation;
- to look at the word from different perspectives.

1. The units of language.
2. The word as the basic unit of language.
3. The major issues of lexicology.

Language is viewed as a system within which there is a hierarchy of levels, units of one level being composed of sequences of units of the level below. Some scholars define these levels in terms of the following units:
morpheme, word, phrase, clause, sentence. Others add ***text*** on top of this list. But the question whether «Text» can be regarded as a unit of language is still debatable. Not all linguists include «clause» in the list. But most scholars agree that «phoneme» does not belong to the units of language. Why? Each of the above-mentioned elements is two-facet: it has both meaning and form.

Why is the word the basic unit? To answer this question we have to briefly consider all the other units.

The morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit, but it cannot be used separately, it is always a part of a word, and, thus, it does not possess integrity.
(Examples).

Both the phrase and the sentence consist of words. One of their chief characteristics is substitutability: we can substitute words preserving the same structure:

an exciting novel I was reading an exciting novel.
a dull story I was looking through a dull story.

In our speech we create new phrases and sentences choosing the appropriate rules of

combining words among the syntactic rules of the language we speaking. We can change the order of components within certain limits provided by those syntactic rules. These units are not internally stable.

The text has even a vaguer structure. Each text produced by a speaker is unique. Creating a text we use some common strategies, but the outcome depends not only on the rules of language, but on many other factors related to the communicative situation, the personality of the speaker/author and the addressee.

II. What characteristics make the word the central unit? This question leads us to the problem of defining the word. It is always hard to give definitions to basic elements, the word being no exception.

A **word** is a unit of language that carries meaning and consists of one or more morphemes which are linked more or less tightly together. (Wikipeadia)

Joanne Kenworthy in her book «Language in Action» gives a very interesting example of how children understand the phenomenon of «word».

«The teacher asked the children to try to make up as many words as they could from the letters in the word «orchestra».

James: I've got nine words!
Teacher: Who can find another one?
J: I've got! C-r-e-t.
T: «cret»? «Cret» isn't a word.
J: Well.....no.... but I could make it mean something.
T: Could you? Then would it be a word?
J: Well ... if I told everybody what it meant.... yes.

What essential characteristics of the word does this dialog reveal?

Irina Arnold defines **the word** as ***the basic unit of a given language resulting from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment.*** As we can see, there are three facets to the word: semantic, grammatical and phonological. There are other definitions of the word. E.g.: A **word** is a unit of language that carries meaning and consists of one or more morphemes which are linked more or less tightly together.

There are several criteria that are usually used to identity a word.

1) the orthographic criteria: a word is a written sequence which has a white space at each end but no white space in the middle. Ice cream.

2) The phonological criteria: a word is a piece of speech which behaves as a unit of pronunciation. But the criteria for pronunciation vary from language to language. (Russian – English).

But, probably, a more productive way to understand what the word is, will be an attempt to make a list of its most important characteristics.

1 **is the basic unit of language;**
2 **is a unity of form and meaning;**
3 **is composed of one or more morphemes;**
4 **can enter syntactic structures;**
5 **is an indivisible unit: cannot be cut into pieces without a disturbance of meaning (as a molecule);**
6 **is positionally mobile (permutable with other words in the same sentence);**
7 **is internally stable (the order of its components cannot be rearranged);**
8 **is separable (easily separated from other words in speech);**
9 **possesses semantic integrity.**

The last characteristic demands clarification. Let us once again compare the word and the

phrase.

A dull story	**work - er**
an exciting story	**writ - er**
an old story	**report - er**

At first sight the components of these units are substitutable, but this not quite so. Why?

Integrity is the most important characteristic of the word, which enabled Sapir to compare the word with a molecule and Tsherba with a brick.

The famous Russian scholar professor Smirnitsky in his theory of the word focused on two major problems related to the integrity of the word: 1) the problem of separateness of the word (отдельность) and 2) the problem of identity of the word (тождества).

What is the word in segment of speech? Why is it easily separated from other words? As a unit of the vocabulary system the word is also the unity of all its forms and meanings. Most words in language are polysemantic (have more than one meaning). They reveal these meanings in different contexts. «*John Smith gave me a book*» and «*John Smith gave us classes».* These sentences present the word «give» in different meanings, but we still recognize the word as the same unit.

Each word has a certain paradigm of forms within which the speaker composing phrases and sentences can choose: «play-plays- played - playing». «She plays the piano» and «She played the piano» Each word is a unity of all its grammatical forms.

In the flow of speech we can come across similar sound combinations with the same meaning which are not words. Let us compare: «nose» and the component «-nose-« in the word «long-nosed». The word «nose» can be used in the plural «noses», the component «-nose-» cannot.

1) The word is an entity. To understand the idea better we can refer to the dialog between James and his teacher: «if I told everybody what it meant». Different speakers using the same word of the same language can easily understand each other because they recognize this combination of sound as a meaningful integral unit. The word as an entity is closely connected to its recurrence (frequent repetition) as a unity of form and meaning and to its being part of the vocabulary system of language.

Often linguists use the term lexeme. The term has slightly different meanings in Russian and in English. In English: is an abstract unit and it must be represented in speech or writing by one of the possibly several forms it can assume for grammatical purposes. In Russian: a lexeme is a word as unity of all its meanings. One form: one meaning = a lexical semantic variant.

Another important characteristic of the word is yet to be discussed. Words are arbitrary signs. It means word forms bear no direct relations to their meanings. If they did, languages would be more alike. According to Ferdinand do Saussure, the feature of arbitrariness represents an essential characteristic of all real languages. Nevertheless, in all languages there are clear cases of onomatopoeia - i.e., the occurance of imitative words, such as «whisper», «snore», «slap», etc. Onomatopoeic words are rather similar in shape through different languages: French «coucou», English «cuckoo», German «Kuckkuck» directly mimic the call of the bird. English «dingdong» and German «bimbam» share several sound features in common that partially resemble the clanging of bells. This phenomenon is also called «sound symbolism». These words, however, are a very small part of the vocabulary of any language. For by far the largest number of words in a language there is no direct association between sound and meaning. English «horse», German «Pferd», Latin «equus», and Greek «hippos» are all unrelated to the animal so named. Vocabulary has to be largely arbitrary, because the greater part of the world of man’s experience is not directly associated with any kind of noise, and it is a fact of history and biology that sound and not the material of some other sense is the basis of human language.

But a word can be motivated as a unit of language, b y its relations with other units in the

system of language. Morphological motivation, semantic motivation.

A word as a language unit can be looked at from three angles: semantic, syntactic and pragmatic. The semantic facet of the word shows its connection to the real world. The syntactic facet shows a word in its connection with other words. The pragmatic facet shows the link between the word and the user.

III. Considering the vocabulary of a language scholars focus on a few major domains within which all the most important issues can be examined.

1) Meaning of the word. There can be different approaches to the stratification of language as a system. Stratification in terms of units has already been considered at the beginning of the lecture. In terms of linguistic universals the theory of language must embrace three domains: pragmatics (the study of the language user as such), semantics (the study of the elements of a language from the point of view of meaning), and syntax, the study of the formal interrelations that exist between the elements of a language in speech. Thus, certain authors speak of three levels: the phonetic, the syntactic, and the semantic level. The word can be studied within each of these domains. Lexicology, or the study of lexicon, except for borderline investigations, does not include pragmatic or syntactic matters in the sphere of its interests. It is the semantic level on which modern lexicology tries to find answers to the most important questions. These questions are: «How is the meaning of words encoded in a language?», «How is the meaning to be determined?», «What are the laws governing change of meaning?». The last question is a matter of diachronic study, as it is concerned with the development of language. Synchronic study restricts its investigation to the state of a language at a given time.

Meaning as a key concept in linguistics is hard to define and can be viewed from different angles.

1) Relationships between words within the vocabulary system. They are different from interrelationships between elements within a sentence, the former being systemic, or paradigmatic, the latter being linear or syntactic. John Lyons described the relationships of words with each other as a «web of words». Most of the them are sense relations, i.e., they have to do with meaning, others involve both meaning and form. As you can see, meaning is really a focus of many investigations.

2) Another domain of vocabulary studies is the expansion of vocabulary. There two major ways of expanding the lexicon of a language: borrowing and word formation. The matters related to borrowings vs. native words are examined by etymology, the branch of linguistics that studies the origin of words. Word formation can be also regarded as a separate branch of vocabulary studies, whose goal is to discover and make explicit various ways and patterns of creating new words.

3) As a system vocabulary has several subsystems or areas. When we select words we make choices within a certain area trying to convey our thoughts as adequately as possible. We can use more or less formal words, slang, or may need a term. We sometimes fail to find an appropriate word and we create a new one. The lexicon of any language can be described in terms of different strata or groups of words. Such investigations often border on pragmatics, because our choice largely depends on the communicative situation.

4) And last, but not least, vocabulary studies include the sphere of set phrase, or idioms: fixed groups of words with a special meaning which is different from any meanings of the individual words. In speech idioms behave as integral units which makes them similar to words.

Lecture 2. **Etymology**

Native words

Germanic settler tribes (Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frisians) entered Britain in AD 449 onwards and displaced the original Celtic-speaking inhabitants. If we can assume that the lexicon reflects the preoccupations of the language users, we would not be surprised that the original Anglo-Saxon lexicon is concerned about basic, down-to-earth matters. The Anglo-Saxons were originally not a settled group; there was a settled civilization, but not very literate or sophisticated.

Many of the words are still used today. Some are grammatical words (such as *be*, *in*, *that*) while others are lexical words (*sing*, *live*, *go*). Anglo-Saxon words are usually short and concrete. Although Anglo-Saxon lexemes form only a relatively small proportion of the modern lexicon, in any passage of English, there is a relatively high density of Anglo-Saxon-derived lexemes, and indeed the 100 most frequently used items are almost all Anglo-Saxon (Crystal 1995: 125).

There are number of items that pertain to down-to-earth, everyday matters. Many of the words that we described as 'core' earlier seem to be from Anglo-Saxon. These words are of parts of the body (arm, bone, chest, ear, eye, foot, hand, heart), the natural environment (field, hedge, hill, land, meadow, wood), the domestic life (door, floor, home, house), the calendar (day, month, moon, sun, year), animals (cow, dog, fish, goat, hen, sheep, swine), common adjectives (black, dark, good, long, white, wide) and common verbs (become, do, eat, fly, go, help, kiss, live, love, say, see, sell, send, think) (Jackson & Amvela 2000: 31). This is not to say that the Germanic settlers were without poetry, music and culture; there were also some *heroic* components to Anglo-Saxon vocabulary.

Borrowings

Celtic borrowings

When the Anglo-Saxons took control of Britain, the original Celts moved to the northern and western fringes of the island – which is why the only places where Celtic languages are spoken in Britain today are in the west (Welsh in Wales) and north (Scottish Gaelic in the Scottish Highlands). Celtic speakers seem to have been kept separate from the Anglo-Saxon speakers. Those who remained in other parts of Britain must have merged in with the Anglo-Saxons. The end result is a surprising small number – only a handful – of Celtic borrowings. Some of them are dialectal such as *cumb* (deep valley) or *loch* (lake). Reminders of Britain's Celtic past are mainly in the form of Celtic-based placenames including river names such as *Avon*, 'river', *Don*, *Exe*, *Severn* and *Thames*. Town names include *Dover*, 'water', *Eccles*, 'church', *Kent*, *Leeds*, *London* and *York.*

More recently, though, Celtic words were also introduced into English from Irish Gaelic – *bog*, *brogue*, *blarney*, *clan*, *slogan, whisky.*

Scandinavian borrowings

The Scandinavian influence on Britain can be thought of in terms of three episodes.
Firstly, we can think of the period 750–1016 when the Vikings (Scandinavians) began attacking the northern and eastern shores of Britain and settling in those parts of Britain. There was a state of enmity between the Anglo-Saxons and the Vikings, so unsurprisingly, not many Scandinavian borrowings took place; these include *husbonda* (husband) and *lagu* (law).

Secondly, we can consider the period 1016–1050, where the conditions were more or less similar to the earlier period, only that King Alfred the Great had succeeded in uniting the Anglo-Saxons and was actively promoting the English language. There were more borrowings,

including *cnif* (knife) and *diegan* (die).

Finally, we have the period 1050–1480. The French-speaking Normans took over Britain in 1066, and both the English and Scandinavians were given the same fate and were subdued by the Normans. Naturally, the English and the Scandinavians come together and interact with each other more closely. Therefore, a massive influence of the Scandinavian languages on English, in both grammar and vocabulary.

Unless you are a specialist, it is very difficult to pick out Scandinavian loan-words in English. This is because they seem to have the same quality and texture as Anglo-Saxon words. They are ordinary, everyday words, and quite often monosyllabic and include grammatical words (like the verb *are* (to be), or the pronouns *their*, *them* and *they* and some of the commonest words in English today like *bag*, *dirt*, *fog*, *knife*, *flat*, *low*, *odd*, *ugly*, *want*, *trust*, *get*, *give*, *take*, *raise*, *smile* and *though*. A good number of *sc-* or *sk-* words today are of Scandinavian origin (scathe, scorch, score, scowl, scrape, scrub, skill, skin, skirt, sky). Scandinavian loan-words are therefore more usefully considered as core items. Why is this so?

- The English and Scandinavian belong to the same Germanic racial, cultural and linguistic stock originally and their language, therefore, shared common grammatical features and words. But changes had occurred in the languages during the couple of centuries of separation of the two sets of people.
- The Scandinavians came to settle, rather than conquer or pillage. They lived alongside the Anglo-Saxons on more or less equal terms.
- Under the Norman French, particularly, the two different groups fashioned a common life together as subjects.

Under these conditions,

(*a*) the English word sometimes displaced the cognate Scandinavian word: *fish* instead of *fisk*; *goat* instead of *gayte*;

(*b*) the Scandinavian word sometimes displaces the cognate English word: *egg* instead of *ey*, *sister* instead of *sweoster*;

(*c*) both might remain, but with somewhat different meanings: *dike-ditch*, *hale-whole*, *raise-rise*, *sick-ill*, *skill-craft*, *skirt-shirt*;

(*d*) the English word might remain, but takes on the Scandinavian meaning *dream* (originally 'joy', 'mirth', 'music', 'revelry'); and

(*e*) the English words that were becoming obsolete might be given a new lease of life, *eg dale* and *barn*.

French borrowings

The Norman Conquest of 1066 left England as a trilingual country, although most people would only speak one or two of the dominant languages. Latin was the language for record keeping, learning and the church. French was the language of the Norman aristocracy and therefore also the language of prestige, government and polite social intercourse. English was the language of the common folk and menials.

When the Normans took over England, they changed the language of government and the court almost overnight and disregarded existing institutions. Instead, they took on almost wholesale institutions derived from France, including the feudal system which guaranteed strong control by the king.

There were three periods of French borrowings. The first, from about 1066 to 1250 represents the height of Norman power. The language spoken by the Normans, known as Norman French (different from Central or Parisian French) was the language of the King's court, the nobles' castles and the courts of law. Norman French was therefore the language of honour, chivalry and justice. Indeed, Matthew of Westminster said, 'Whoever was unable to

speak French was considered a vile and contemptible person by the common people' (1263).

There were not many French borrowings, since English continues be used, largely in its own, low-level arenas and French and English speakers were kept separate. The second period, roughly from 1250 to 1400 represents the period of English-French bilingualism in individuals (not just in the nation). The number of French loanwords ballooned in this period. Why was this?

Very briefly, this is what happened. In 1204, Normandy (in northern France, where the Normans came from) was acquired by the French king. Among other things, it meant that the Norman aristocracy in England couldn't travel back and forth between their lands in England and France anymore. They had to choose whether they wanted to remain in England or in France. Those who remained in England began to see England as their home. This led to the reassertion of English as the language of the realm. Other reasons for the reassertion of English are:

- the Normans in England belonged to the Capetian dynasty spoke Norman French; this became non-prestigious in France as the variety spoken by the Angevian dynasty in France, Parisian French, became the prestige variety; because Norman French was seen as socially inferior, it was less difficult to abandon it in favour of English;
- subsequently, England became at war with France in the Hundred Years War (1337–1453). Even as English was on its way in, the gaps in English vocabulary had to be filled by loanwords from French. These include items pertaining to new experiences and ways of doing things introduced by the Normans. So whilst the English already had *kings*, *queens* and *earls*, terms taken from French include *count*, *countess*, *sire*, *madam*, *duke*, *marquis*, *dauphin*, *viscount*, *baron*, *chevalier, servant* and *master*. Other domains that became enriched with French loanwords include:
- Government: *parliament*, *chancellor*, *government*, *country*, *crown*
- Finance: *treasure*, *wage*, *poverty*
- Law: *attorney*, *plaintiff*, *larceny*, *fraud*, *jury*, *verdict*
- War: *battle*, *army*, *castle*, *tower*, *siege*, *banner*
- Religion: *miracle*, *charity*, *saint*, *pardon*
- Morality: *virtue*, *vice*, *gentle*, *patience*, *courage*, *mercy*, *courtesy*, *pity*
- Recreation: *falcon*, *covert*, *scent*, *chase*, *quarry*
- Art, fashion, etc.: *apparel*, *costume*, *gown*, *art*, *beauty*, *colour*, *image*, *design*, *cushion*, *tapestry*
- Cuisine: *stew*, *grill*, *roast*, . . . (compare these with AS-based terms like *bake*), *bacon*, *mutton*, *pork*, *veal*, *venison* (compare these with AS-based terms like *boar*, *calf*, *cow*, *deer*, *ox*, *sheep*, *swine*)
- Household Relationships: *uncle*, *aunt*, *nephew*, *cousin* (form from OE: *father*, *mother*, *brother* and from Scandinavian *sister*)

The third period of French borrowings is from around 1400 onwards. The borrowings of the first two periods tend to be more elegant and sophisticated but yet not too far away from the core and several became quite nativised (*dance, April, native, fine, line, punish, finish*). These later borrowings were more, distant from the core, with attention being explicitly called to their sophisticated, well-bred, cultivated, even arty 'French' texture: notice the spellings and pronunciations of some of these items: *ballet*, *tableau*, *statuesque*, *cliché*, *motif*, *format*, *trousseau*, *lingerie*, *soufflé*, *hors d'oeuvre*, *rouge*, *etiquette*.

Latin borrowings

Latin, being the language of the Roman Empire, had already influenced the language of

the Germanic tribes even before they set foot in Britain. Latin loanwords reflected the superior material culture of the Roman Empire, which had spread across Europe: *street*, *wall*, *candle*, *chalk*, *inch*, *pound*, *port*, *camp*.

The native Celts had also learnt some Latin, and some of these were borrowed by the Anglo-Saxons in Britain: *sign*, *pearl*, *anchor*, *oil* , *chest*, *pear*, *lettuce*.

Latin was also the language of Christianity, and St Augustine arrived in Britain in AD 597 to christianise the nation. Terms in religion were borrowed: *pope*, *bishop*, *monk*, *nun*, *cleric*, *demon*, *disciple*, *mass*, *priest*, *shrine*. Christianity also brought with it learning: *circul*, *not* (note), *paper*, *scol* (school), *epistol*.

Many Latin borrowings came in the early ME period. Sometimes, it is difficult to say whether the loan-words were direct borrowings from Latin or had come in through French (because, after all, Latin was also the language of learning among the French). One great motivation for the borrowings was the change in social order, where scientific and philosophical empiricism was beginning to be valued. Many of the new words are academic in nature therefore: *affidavit*, *apparatus*, *caveat*, *corpuscle*, *compendium*, *equilibrium*, *equinox*, *formula*, *inertia*, *incubate*, *momentum*, *molecule*, *pendulum*, *premium*, *stimulus*, *subtract*, *vaccinate*, *vacuum*. This resulted in the distinction between learned and popular vocabulary in English.

Greek borrowings

Greek was also a language of learning, and Latin itself borrowed words from Greek. Indeed the Latin alphabet is an adaptation of the Greek alphabet. Many of the Greek loan-words were through other languages: through French – agony, *aristocracy*, *enthusiasm*, *metaphor*; through Latin – *ambrosia*, *nectar*, *phenomenon*, *rhapsody*. There were some general vocabulary items like *fantasy*, *cathedral*, *charismatic*, *idiosyncrasy* as well as more technical vocabulary like *anatomy*, *barometer*, *microscope*, *homoeopathy*.

During the Renaissance and after, there were modern coinages from Greek elements (rather than borrowings). For example, *photo-* yielded *photograph*, *photogenic*, *photolysis* and *photokinesis*; *bio-* yielded *biology*, *biogenesis*, *biometry*, *bioscope*; *tele-* yielded *telephone*, *telepathy*, *telegraphic*, *telescopic*. Other Greek elements used to coin new words include *crypto-*, *hydro-*, *hyper-*, *hypo-*, *neo-* and *stereo-*.

Other borrowings

As a result of empire and trade contacts, the lexicon of English continued to acquire terms from other languages including the following:

- American: *racoon*, *coyote*, *prairie*, *wigwam*
- Australian: *wallaby*, *kangaroo*, *boomerang*
- Arabic: *saffron*, *sequin*, *tamarind*, *alchemy*, *zenith*
- Persian: *naphtha*, *jasmine*, *chess*, *lilac*
- Japanese: *samurai*, *kimono*
- Other Asian regions: *avatar*, *yoga*, *stupa*, *karma*, *curry*, *bangle*, *chop*, *catamaran*, *mandarin*, *ketchup*, *kowtow* For users of English in England, America, the rest of Europe, etc., these settle around periphery, not as learned words but as *exotica*.

Lecture 3. **Word Meaning**

Goals: students will learn to

- Look at word meaning from different perspectives;

- Explain the differences in different theories of meaning;
- Look at word meaning as a structure;
- Analyze word meaning with the help of componential analysis.

1. In terms of linguistic universals the theory of language must embrace three domains: pragmatics (the study of the language user as such), semantics (the study of the elements of a language from the point of view of meaning), and syntax, the study of the formal interrelations that exist between the elements of a language in speech. The studies of lexicon, except for borderline investigations, do not include pragmatic or syntactic matters in their sphere of interests. It is the semantic level on which vocabulary studies try to find answers to the most important questions. These questions are: «How is the meaning of words encoded in a language?», «How is the meaning to be determined?», «What are the laws governing change of meaning?», etc. (The last question is a matter of diachronic study, as it is concerned with the development of language. Synchronic study restricts its investigation to the state of a language at a given time).

The definition of word meaning is by no means a simple task. E.g., Bloomfield thought that semantics was the weak point in the scientific investigation of language, because meaning has always to do with the world of experience, and it is the task of other sciences to describe the universe. In his textbook «Language» he defined the meaning of a linguistic form as «the situation in which the speaker utters it and the response which it calls forth in the hearer». Meaning of a word can be understood only by observing the situation (the event) in which the word was used. In his opinion, meaning can be defined in terms of stimulus - response, but the branches of linguistics which deal with communicative situation did not have enough data. So, as he thought, linguistics should concentrate upon the directly observable and leave the exploration of «meaning» to other sciences. As a result, for some 30 years after the publication of Bloomfield's textbook, the study of meaning was almost wholly neglected by his followers.

This approach to meaning is founded on the idea that words denote objects and, thus, meaning is reference (connection) to objects. That was oversimplification of relationships between language and the world of reality. Two words may denote the same object or phenomena, or, in other words, they may have the same referent, and have different meanings: «hurt» and «ache», «sunny» and «solar». Besides, in any language there are many words that seem to have no referents: «although», or «however». In fact, the majority of words seem unable to be related to things, in any clear way.

Some scholars made an attempt to investigate meaning as the function of its employment. Not all words refer to something, they said, but what is common to all words without exception, is that people use them in speech. Consequently, their meaning may be nothing more than the restrictions, rules, and regularities that govern their employment. To understand the role of a word in an utterance is to know its meaning. Ludwig Wittgenstein stressed in one of his works that «the meaning of a word is its use in the language».

All these ideas do not help us very much to understand the idea of meaning. Another proposal that attempts to solve the problem of definition of meaning is to say that words refer not to objects, but to notions, or concepts, or thoughts. For every word is an associated concept. There is a relationship of reference, but it is indirect. This indirect reference can be presented with the help of a semiotic triangle (Ch. Ogden & I. Richards).

Reference indicates the realm of memory where recollections of past experiences and contexts occur.

Referent is the object that is perceived and that creates the impression stored in the thought area.

Symbol is the word that calls up the referent through the mental processes of reference.

The problem is that the content of a word is not identical to the content of the corresponding concept or notion. There is no one-to-one correspondence. A concept is a reflection in mind of real objects and phenomena in their essential features and relations. But very often it is difficult to identify it. We do not have neat visual images corresponding to every word we say. The famous Russian linguist Ye. Kubryakova suggests that «a concept» be understood in a broader way: as a unity of all kinds of mental representations related to the word in a person's mind: ideas, images, associations, etc.

Meaning is a conceptual (information) structure in an individual's mind. It is a structure imposed on our knowledge about the object designated by the word, on the ideas, images, associations, which the word evokes in the minds of language speakers. Meaning is a mental representation that may be structured and organized in different ways.

A representation is not a copy or mental picture stored as such. Nothing can be ever represented in full and faithful detail. People function and interact with their surroundings. What we learn from experience is organized along several dimensions. The result of this work of mind is different kinds of schemata.

Another attempt to solve the problem is to switch semantic research from reference to sense, or to the way people relate words to each other within the framework of their language. The meaning of a word can not be studied in isolation, without establishing links with other words, especially with those which are related to it in this or that way.

2. Although no satisfactory definition of «meaning» has yet been given, linguists have identified certain paths of semantic research.

The semantic structure of a word can analysed along the following lines.

- main vs. minor meanings;
- original meaning vs. derived meanings;
- denotative vs. connotative meaning;
- lexical vs. grammatical meaning;
- intensional vs. extensional meaning;
- dictionary vs. contextual meaning.

Denotative meaning is cognitive, it conceptualizes and classifies our experience. Of course, any speaker may have his/her own idea of an object or phenomenon. Our idea of «the sun» ,e.g., is different from the idea of an astronomer, etc. However, all members of a language-speaking community share certain knowledge of the universe and there is more in common in their mental representations than there differences.

Many words do not simply denote things or ideas, they express the speaker's attitude to them. Belyayevskaya distinguishes between three types of connotative meaning: emotional, evaluative and intensifying. A word may denote an affection, or feeling, and then the emotional connotation is intrinsic to its semantic structure. A word may acquire emotive components due to frequent use in certain emotional situations. Evaluative connotation expresses approval or disapproval («wicked»). Words that are used to exaggerate possess intensifying connotation. Each word has its own communicative value: when, where, how, by whom, in what context the word can be used. The employment of words depends on the communicative situation (formal, informal), the social relationships between the interlocutors, the type and purpose of communication. This is the pragmatic facet the meaning of a word.

Referential meaning can be intensional and extensional.

Intensional meaning is the inherent concept that the word evokes (dictionary meaning)

Extensional meaning is a set of entities that the word represents.

1) *Most words in a language have more than one meaning. Such words are called*

polysemantic words, and the phenomenon itself is called polysemy. [So far we have used the term «word» to discuss semantic units, but it is lexemes that we actually study. A lexeme is a unity all the grammatical forms of a word and a unity of its meanings. As most words in a language can have more than one grammatical form and more than one meaning, the term lexeme is more appropriate]. Polysemy can be the result of metaphor or metonymy. (examples). These mechanisms of creating new meanings can be viewed in terms of motivation. Motivation in linguistics is a relationship between the structural pattern of a word and its meaning. Morphological motivation is relationship between morphemes, phonetic motivation is a direct connection between the phonetic structure of s word and its meaning. Polysemy is viewed as semantic motivation. Polysemy can be studied synchronically or diachronically. A diachronic study will focus on the process of acquiring new meanings. The first meaning in which the word appeared in a language is called «the primary meaning», all the other meanings are secondary or derived. A synchronic study, which regards polysemy as coexistence of different meanings of the same word, will rely on the comparative value of each individual meaning and on frequency of its occurrence in speech. The meaning that occurs to us first when we hear or see the word is its basic meaning. This is usually the most frequent meaning, too. This meaning is the first meaning in a dictionary entry.

Yu. Apresyan distinguishes between 3 types of polysemy: radial polysemy, all the meanings of a lexeme come from the same central meaning; chain polysemy, each new meaning is motivated by the previous one; mixed.

How do we understand in which of its meanings is the word used? We rely on the context: linguistic and extralinguistic. Linguistic context can be lexical and grammatical.

2) *A further way to study meaning is by analyzing lexemes into a series of semantic features, or components. Man, e.g., could be analyzes as ADULT, HUMAN AND MALE. Whole systems of relationships can be established using a small set of components: ADULT/ NON-ADULT, MALE/FEMALE, etc. (matrix)? It is not always easy to decide which are the relevant components of a lexeme and whether they can be presented in a binary way. But breaking down the meaning of a word into components often help understand the meaning better and establish important links between words. «School»: place.study; «hospital»: place.medical.treatment.*

THINGS PEOPLE WEAR OR HUMAN ATTIRE

	ATTIRE	ENCIRCLE	JEWELLERY	WAIST	WRIST	NECK	FINGER
BELT	+	+	-	+	-	-	-
WAISTBAND	+	+	-	+	-	-	-
CUFF	+	+	-	-	+	-	-
COLLAR	+	+	-	-	-	+	-
NECKLACE	+	+	+	-	-	+	-
BRACELET	+	+	+	-	+	-	-
RING	+	+	+	-	-	-	+
NECKTIE	+	+	-	-	-	+	-

Lecture 4. **The Semantic Structure of the Lexicon**

Goals: students will learn:

- To look at and analyze the lexical units as elements of a system;
- Explain the difference between different types of relations between lexical units in a semantic field and in the system of lexicon.

The Theory of Semantic Fields

No lexeme exists in isolation. As soon as we think "uncle", a series of lexemes come to mind. There is a network of meaning relationships which binds lexemes together. Each word is surrounded by a large number of connections.

Synatagmatic and paradigmatic relations. Some of them result from the way words occur in sequences (syntagmatic relations), others from the way words can substitute for each other (paradigmatic relations). Accordingly, there can be paradigmatic semantic fields and syntagmatic semantic fields (Porzig), e.g. all the words that can go together with the word "hair".

Psycholinguistic experiments prove that units of lexicon in the mind of a person are organized and structured with the help of different relationships. Otherwise, it would be impossible for a human being to interpret his/her experience and to attach meaning to it. The outside world itself is a web of complex self-organizing systems that have evolved specific interrelationships and interactions. Besides, in order to be communicable, our knowledge has to be structured in the verbal form.

A lexical semantic field can be defined as an aggregate of words and phrases which in their meanings reflect the features of a particular area of experience, e.g.: "human body", "sound", "emotions", etc. The units of lexical semantic fields are signs taken in the unity of their forms and meanings. Talking about semantic fields, we have to exclude the form of a word, and treat them as constellations of meanings.

Regardless of the way scholars define a (lexical) semantic field, they all identify a set of its characteristic features. Let take a look at some of them.

1. All units of a field are interrelated and interconnected. Mentioning one of them evokes a whole network of others in the mind of the listener. It means a field can be regarded as a specific internal (endo) context which gives final shaping to the meaning of a linguistic unit.
2. The connections or correlations between the units of a field are of different types and of different nature, but they are systemic.
3. The semantic space in the mind of a person is a holistic reflection of his/her individual experience. Semantic fields impose a certain order on the semantic space, but the latter remains continual. It means that the boundaries among semantic fields are fuzzy and they overlap. (examples).
4. In different languages semantic fields whose units denote the same area of the outside world can be organized and structured in different ways:

- Different degree of specification (snow in the Eskimo language, names of colors, kinship terms);
- Difference in the categorization of objects and phenomena of the real world (d''irbal, gusuko, other languages);
- Lacunas and gaps connected with differences in environment, cultural experience, worldview.

When a communicative act between two people takes place, the necessary semantic fields in their minds are activated. As a result, verbally shared meanings are generated. But while they discuss, a new semantic field is created by the two speakers, which acts as an interface. This new semantic field is reinforced by the inputs of from the two persons, linking

to more associated fields.

Lexeme, lexical semantic variants.

The importance of the semantic field theory for the work of a translator/interpreter.

Let's take the following line from Shakespeare's sonnet:

"Shall I compare thee to a Summer's day?" Do you think it can be translated into Arabic word for word?

How to deal with gaps and lacunas?

Types of connections between the units of a semantic field

The relations between lexical units on the semantic level are called sense relations.

Synonymy. This is the relationship of sameness of meaning. In some contexts they can replace each other without changing the meaning of the sentence, but not always. There are very few strict or total synonyms.

Transparency. Differences in denotative meanings: kill, murder, assassinate, execute.

Some differences in meaning are a matter of style. An important factor is evaluative or emotional overtones a word may have. Synonyms can have different communicative value: "Commence" – "begin", "receive" – "get". In a context words can become contextual synonyms; buy, get.

Synonymic sets in different languages may be different. "selection" and "range".

Antonymy. This is the relationship of oppositeness of meaning. There are several kinds of antonyms (transparency).

The relationship of oppositeness is established on the basis of a common feature.

Complimentary antonyms: open – closed.

Gradable antonyms deal with things and qualities which are gradable and involve comparison. There are poles and there intermediate points on the scale.

Boiling – hot – warm – cool – cold – freezing.

Conversives (relational opposites) can be identified by the logical equivalence between two propositions where the respective predicate lexemes are reversed:

Howard gave Caroline a rose.

Caroline received a rose from Howard.

Directional opposites involve an opposition in direction with reference to some point: come – go, arrive – depart.

Hyponymy and Taxonomies. Refers to the notion of inclusion: an X is a kind of Y. (examples) An oak is a kind of tree. There are taxonomies of natural, nominal and cultural kinds. Natural: animals, birds, etc. (can be different from the scientific classifications). Cultural taxonomies relate to the artifacts created by human beings.

The study of hyponymy has revealed some interesting differences between languages. Let us look at the following example. Teen is a language spoken in Africa by tenbo people. In Teen the word gusuko (plant) has three co-hyponyms: diilo (food plants), dansu (plants used for making sauces) and waro (wild plants).

Partonymy (part- whole relations): The parts of a human body:

The parts of a door include the handle, the lock, the hinge, etc.

Incompatibility. Under this heading are grouped sets of lexemes that are mutually exclusive members of the same superordinate category: a geometric figure cannot be a triangle and rectangle at the same time. A musical instrument cannot be a harp and a drum. But to be incompatible words have to belong to the same lexical group (we cannot say that "door" and "flower" are incompatible). One of the ways to analyze the semantic relationships within a field is componential analysis. Let's analyze the word group "Human attire". The semantic markers

are: “Attire” and “Encircle”. The distinguishers are: “Jewelry”, “Waist”, “Wrist”, “Neck”, “Finger”.

Prototypical categories. A **prototype** is an idealized, internalized conceptualization of an object, quality or activity. Real-life objects and activities are measured against these internalized concepts and are named according to how well they approximate the ideal. A prototype approach to semantics “seeks to represent the meaning of a linguistic expression through the analysis of instances of the category in terms of approximation to the prototype”. E.g., the category of “bird” is identified in terms of a fixed set of conditions, but the best examples are those that are close to an idealization of that category.

Theory of frames

According to L. Vygotsky, language and thought merge on the level of meaning. Meaning is an information (conceptual) structure in an individual’s mind. It is a structure imposed on our knowledge about the object designated by the word, on the ideas, images, associations, which this word evokes in the minds of language speakers. Meaning is a mental representation that may be structured and organized in different ways.

A mental representation is not a copy or mental picture stored as such. Nothing can be ever represented in full and faithful detail. People function and interact with their surroundings. What we learn from experience is organized along several dimensions. Mental representations exist as models: abstract domains (any conceptual complex that functions as a domain for the definition of a higher-order concept), schemas, frames, scenarios (scripts).

Schema is any cognitive structure that specifies the general properties of a type of object or event and leaves out any specification of details that are irrelevant to the type. A schema is an abstraction that allows particular objects or events to be assigned to general categories.

The conceptual schema for apples specifies general information about fruithood, shape, color, and so on, but it leaves out many characteristics of individual apples. The schema abstracts away from the details in order to allow categorization. Some forms of schematization are absolutely essential to intelligent information processing.

A *frame* is a data-structure for representing our knowledge about an object, a stereotyped situation, like being in a certain kind of living room, or an event, like going to a child's birthday party. Attached to each frame are several kinds of information.

A frame is a collection of slots and fillers that describe a stereotypical item. A frame has slots to capture different aspects of what is being represented. The filler that goes into a slot can be an actual value, a default value, an attached procedure, or even another frame.

Componential analysis

The analysis of vocabulary into a series of basic identifying features or ‘components' of meaning, eg *woman* could be analysed using the components ‘female', ‘adult' and ‘human'.

Words can be analyzed and described in terms of their semantic components, which usually come in pairs called semantic oppositions: "Up" and "Down," for example, are related in that they both describe vertical directions, one in one direction (call it "plus") and the other in the other (call it "minus"). There are several variations on these pairs, depending on how they related to each other and how they can be used with other words. There are also sets of words that are variations on a single semantic theme, such as penny, nickel, dime, quarter, etc.

Componential analysis was proposed by Jerold Katz and Jerry Fodor in the 1960s. According to them semantic features can be classified into the following hierarchy:

Grammatical markers, which describe the syntactic behavior of the item in terms of the system of grammatical categories: noun, abstract noun, etc.

Semantic markers describe the semantic features that are common for the items of the lexical semantic group as a structure: male, parent, sibling.
Semantic distinguishers give the leftover of the semantic information, the features that make this item unique. E.g. stepdaughter: - male < parent **- <u>blood relation</u>**.

Lecture 5. **The Semantic Structure of the Word. Semantic Changes in Language. Cognitive Theories of Metaphor and Metonymy**

<u>Goals</u>: students will learn:

- To differentiate between polysemy and homonymy;
- To explain the difference between the synchronic and diachronic view of some homonyms;
- To explain the reason for polysemy in language;
- To look at word meaning from the diachronic perspective;
- To define different types of semantic changes;
- To define metaphor and metonymy as cognitive mechanisms and as means of creating new meanings and expanding vocabulary

One of the most pervasive phenomena in natural language is that of ambiguity. Ambiguity describes the linguistic phenomenon whereby expressions are potentially understood in two or more ways; an ambiguous expression has more than one interpretation in its context: „Fine for parking“. There are three types of lexical ambiguity: polysemy, homonymy, and categorial ambiguity. Any practical natural language understanding system must be able to disambiguate words with multiple meanings, and the method used to do this must necessarily work with the methods of semantic interpretation and knowledge representation used in the system.

Polysemy

Polysemy comes from Neo-Latin *polysemia*, which comes from Greek *polusemous* [poly- (many) + sema (sign)] giving us a linguistic term, "having many meanings" or multiple meanings. The words polysemy and polysemous are defined as "having or characterized by many meanings; the existence of several meanings for a single word or phrase". As said earlier, these terms refer to "words" or other "items of language with two or more senses"; for example, *walk* as in *The child started to walk* and *They live at 213 Meadow Walk*. Such senses may be more or less distant from one another: *walk* (action), *walk* (street) are relatively close, but *crane* (bird), *crane* (machine) are much further apart.

It is generally agreed that in each case only one word is being discussed, not two that happen to have the same form (to which the name *homonym* is given). Senses of the same word are seldom ambiguous in context, but the less specific the context, the greater the possibility of ambiguity; for example, if someone who is looking at a picture says *What big cranes!*, it may not be immediately clear to someone who can not see the picture whether the comment refers to *birds* or *machines*.

The existence of polysemy has obvious dangers: it can make language rather slippery, so that in the course of a piece of reasoning we may be led astray because a key word in our argument is used with different meanings in different places. This often happens in political or

moral disputes, where words like *freedom* and *natural* get thrown around in ill-defined and shifting senses. On the other hand, the kind of "play" that polysemy gives to language makes it easier to use: communication would really be too difficult if, in every utterance, we had to practice the strictness of definition demanded by mathematics or by symbolic logic. Of course, reasoned demonstration is only one of the many functions of language; in some uses, polysemy plays an essential part, enabling us to achieve a complexity and a compression that would otherwise be impossible. The kind of impact Shakespeare produces in his major works would be impossible without the richness given to the language by polysemy because every word is clustered around with associations, derived from the different types of context in which it can be used.

Dictionaries treat cases of multiple meanings either as polysemy or as homonymy, but in fact it is not always easy to decide which we are dealing with, and dictionaries sometimes differ in their decisions. Are *table* (furniture) and *table*. (arrangement of data) two different words, or the same word with two meanings? Dictionaries usually go for the latter solution, on the grounds of a shared etymology. On the other hand, *pupil* (in school) and *pupil* (of the eye) are usually listed as different words; although in fact they have the same historical origin.

As you can see, there is often a conflict between historical criteria and present-day intuition when sorting out cases of polysemy and homonymy.

In Cognitive Linguistics, polysemy is regarded as a categorizing phenomenon; i.e., related meanings of words form categories centering around a prototype and bearing family resemblance relations to one another. Under this polysemy = categorization view, the scope of investigation has been gradually broadened from categories in the lexical and lexico-grammatical domain to morphological, syntactic, and phonological categories. The papers in this volume illustrate the importance of polysemy in describing these various categories. A first set of papers analyzes the polysemy of such lexical categories as prepositions and scalar particles, and looks at the import of polysemy in frame-based dictionary definitions. A second set shows that noun classes, case, and locative prefixes constitute meaningful and polysemous categories. Three papers, then, pay attention to polysemy from a psychological perspective, looking for psychological evidence of polysemy in lexical categories.

Homonymy

Homonyms are words which have the same form (orthographic/phonetic) but unrelated meaning. If they only differ in one way they are called *homophones* and *homographs* respectively. In derivation, *homonym* means "has the same name"; *homophone* means "has the same sound"; *homograph* means "written the same".

There is a fish called a *fluke*, a part of a whale called a *fluke* and a stroke of luck called a *fluke*, but these are three separate lexemes with separate etymologies that all happen to share one form. Similarly, a river *bank*, a savings *bank*, and a *bank* of switches share only a spelling.

The first homonyms we ever learn are probably *to*, *too* and *two* (homophones), but the sentence "Too much to do in two days" would confuse no one. *there*, *their*, and *they're* are familar examples as well. *lead* the metal and *lead* the verb, or *moped* the motorized bicycle and *moped* the past tense of *mope* are examples of homographs.

In some accents, various sounds have *merged* in that they are no longer distinctive, and thus words that differ only by those sounds in an accent that maintains the distinction (a minimal pair) are homophonous in the accent with the merger. Some examples are *pin* and *pen* in many southern American accents, and *merry*, *marry*, and *Mary* in many western American accents. The pairs *do*, *due* and *forward*, *foreword* are homophonous in most US accents but not in most British accents. Similarly, *affect*, *effect* are distinguished in some careful or cultivated

speech.

Homograph disambiguation is critically important in Speech synthesis, but otherwise, homonyms are mostly curiosities, of limited linguistic interest compared to the strong functional roles of antonyms and synonyms.

Homophones commonly confused in the English language:

- accept, except
- addition, edition
- affect, effect
- it's, its
- know, no
- sight, site
- their, there
- to, too, two
- won't want
- your, you're
- cache, cash

Change of meaning

The meaning of a word changes over time. The example everyone knows is *gay*, which originally meant "merry", but because some people are a little too merry came to mean "wanton", and because some people are a little too wanton came to mean "homosexual", which is the sense almost exclusively used now.

At the simplest level, words do undergo only two types of meaning change, not amelioration and pejoration, but generalization (a word's meaning widens to include new concepts), and specialization (a word's meaning contracts to focus on fewer concepts.

Generalization

Also known as extension, generalization is the use of a word in a broader realm of meaning than it originally possessed, often referring to all items in a class, rather than one specific item. For instance, *place* derives from Latin *platea*, "broad street", but its meaning grew broader than the street, to include "a particular city", "a business office", "an area dedicated to a specific purpose" before broadening even wider to mean "area". In the process, the word *place* displaced (!) the Old English word *stow* and became used instead of the Old English word *stede* (which survives in *stead*, *steadfast*, *steady* and -- of course -- *instead*).

The words “manage”, “arrive”.

Specialization

The opposite of generalization, specialization is the narrowing of a word to refer to what previously would have been but one example of what it referred to. For instance, the word *meat* originally referred to "any type of food", but came to mean "the flesh of animals as opposed to the flesh of fish". The original sense of *meat* survives in terms like *mincemeat*, "chopped apples and spices used as a pie filling"; *sweetmeat*, "candy"; and *nutmeat*, "the edible portion of a nut". When developing your model language, it is meet to leave compounds untouched, even if one of their morphemes has undergone specialization (or any other meaning change).

The words “starve”, “liqour”.

Word *Old Meaning*

affection	"emotion"
deer	"animal"
forest	"countryside"
girl	"a young person"
starve	"to die"

Pejoration is the process by which a word's meaning worsens or degenerates, coming to represent something less favorable than it originally did. Most of the words in Suffield's poem have undergone pejoration.

For instance, the word *silly* begins Suffield's poem and meant in Old English times "blessed", which is why Suffield calls his poem a beatitude (Christ's beatitudes begin with "blessed are the..."). How did a word meaning "blessed" come to mean "silly"? Well, since people who are blessed are often innocent and guileless, the word gradually came to mean "innocent". And some of those who are innocent might be innocent because they haven't the brains to be anything else. And some of those who are innocent might be innocent because they knowingly reject opportunities for temptation. In either case, since the more worldly-wise would take advantage of their opportunities, the innocents must therefore be foolish, which of course is the current primary meaning of the word *silly*.

Amelioration is the process by which a word's meaning improves or becomes elevated, coming to represent something more favorable than it originally referred to.

In what for Suffield is the greatest example of amelioration, the early Old English word *hláfweard*, which if translated using its descendant words would be rendered *loafward*, meant "the keeper of the bread" and was applied to the head of a household. Although "keeper of the bread" might bear witness to the importance of that most basic of foodstuffs to early Anglo-Saxons, alternatively one might argue that it had no more literal sense than *bread-* does in the modern word *breadwinner*. The word *hláfweard* has been shortened over time, first to *hláford* and then to *lord*. Over time, the word has been used of not just any head of household but of princes and nobility; this sense was extended to include the Prince of Light, God.

The word “enthisuasm”.

Mechanisms:

Metaphor:

Grace Murray Hopper, the late Admiral and computer pioneer, told a story of an early computer that kept calculating incorrectly. When technicians opened up its case to examine the wiring, which physically represented the machine's logic, a huge dead moth was found, shorting out one of the circuits and causing the faulty logic. That moth was the first of its kind to achieve immortality. Because of it, software is now frequently plagued with "bugs".

The use of *bug* to refer to an error in computer logic was a metaphorical extension that became so popular that it is now part of the regular meaning of *bug*. The computer industry has a host of words whose meaning has been extended through such metaphors, including *mouse* for that now ubiquitous computer input device (so named because the cord connecting it to the computer made it resemble that cutest of rodents).

Metaphorical extension is the extension of meaning in a new direction through popular adoption of an originally metaphorical meaning. The *crane* at a construction site was given its name by comparison to the long-necked bird of the same name. When the meaning of the word *daughter* was first extended from that of "one's female child" to "a female descendant"

(as in *daughter of Eve*), the listener might not have even noticed that the meaning had been extended.

Metaphorical extension is almost a natural process undergone by every word. We don't even think of it as meaning change. In its less obvious instances, we don't even see it as extending the meaning of a word. For example, the word *illuminate* originally meant "to light up", but has broadened to mean "to clarify", "to edify". These meanings seem so natural as to be integral parts of the words, where senses such as "to celebrate" and "to adorn a page with designs" seem like more obvious additions.

Metonymy: to win used to mean to fight.

Radiation

Radiation is metaphorical extension on a grander scale, with new meanings radiating from a central semantic core to embrace many related ideas. The word *head* originally referred to that part of the human body above the rest. Since the top of a nail, pin or screw is, like the human head, the top of a slim outline, that sense has become included in the meaning of *head*. Since the bulb of a cabbage or lettuce is round like the human head, that sense has become included in the meaning of *head*. Know where I'm headed with this? The meaning of the word *head* has radiated out to include the head of a coin (the side picturing the human head), the head of the list (the top item in the list), the head of a table, the head of the family, a head of cattle, $50 a head. But I'll stop while I'm ahead.

Contextual specialization

The word *undertaker* originally meant "one who undertakes a task, especially one who is an entrepreneur". This illustrates contextual specialization, where the meaning of a word is reshaped under pressure from another word that had frequently co-occured with it: thus *undertaker* acquired its meaning from constant use of the phrase *funeral undertaker*; eventually, under the pressure towards euphemism, the word *funeral* was dropped.

Another example of contextual specialization is *doctor*, which originally meant "a teacher" and then later "an expert", where it came to be used in the phrase *medical doctor*; now of course this is redundant and *medical* is omitted, with the primary sense of *doctor* having become more specialized.

History of semantic change

If the history of semantic change had to be summed up as one process, it would be that of specialization. The Anglo Saxons 1500 years ago made do with perhaps 30,000 words in their complete vocabulary, while Modern English has anywhere from 500,000 to a million words, depending on whether or not scientific vocabularies are included.

"In the beginning was the Word, and the Word was God, and the Word was with God." It could be argued that originally there was one word, from which all others have sprung. The origins of language will never be known, but the first language probably had a vocabulary of a few hundred words, providing a rich enough vocabulary for a primitive people who had few materials and fewer abstract concepts. Many of the words of the first languages had very broad senses of meaning.

For instance, the word *inspire* is from the Latin *inspirare*, which literally means "to breathe into". Its archaic meaning is "to breathe life into", with newer meanings like "to be the cause of", "to elicit", "to move to action", "to exalt" and "to guide by divine influence". Now if a minister were to speak of Adam as *dust inspired*, he might mean by that not just that the dust is having life breathed into it (the original etymological meaning), but also that the dust is being exalted and given form, that it is being moved to action, and that it is being divinely guided (these are the metaphorical or extended meanings). In other words, this minister might not

mean just one of the definitions of *inspired* but all of them simultaneously.

LECTURE 6. **Cognitive Theories of Metaphor and Metonymy**

Goals: students will learn

- To define metaphor and metonymy as cognitive mechanisms and as means of creating new meanings and expanding vocabulary;
- To explain the cognitive mechanisms of creating new meanings with the help of metaphor and metonymy.

"**We live our lives on the basis of inferences we derive via metaphor**" [G. Lakoff, M. Johnson]

Metaphor is defined as the substitution of one idea or object with another, used to assist expression or understanding.

Sheldon Kopp states:

A metaphor is defined as a way of speaking in which one thing is expressed in terms of another, whereby this bringing together throws new light on the character of what is being described.

The essence of metaphor is understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another

Metaphor is a natural element of language that helps us understand new and/or abstract concepts and construct new conceptual domains. E.g. The word "memory" in the meaning "a device in a computer designed to accept, store and recall information; storage capacity of a computer, a disk, etc." helps us understand (probably in a very approximate way) how it works.

Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature. Conceptual metaphor is a natural part of human thought, and linguistic metaphor is a natural part of human language. We make connections between things by finding some form of commonality they may have. This simple process starts at an early age in life, usually with physically similar items, for example: a child may use a box as a house, or a cat may use a ball of yarn as a mouse. They tend to be pre-linguistic and make basic assumptions regarding space, time, moving, controlling, and other core elements of human experience.

The processes which are involved in the generation and comprehension of metaphor arise naturally out of the workings of the cognitive system as a whole. Metaphor is central to the workings of both our language and general cognitive faculties. Metaphor is at the root of our creative powers, serving a cognitive function. It organizes our memories and shapes our experience.

A great deal of everyday conventional language is metaphorical.

I'm crazy about her. She drives me out of my mind.

(Love is madness)

Metaphor allows us to view one concept through the lens of another, and thereby structure and understand one domain in terms of another. It is necessary because some spheres of experience are better manifested in language and are easier to understand. Very often metaphors relate conceptual structures to sensory experience of the world.

Metaphors arise from correlations in our embodied experience. Giving names to abstract domains we use the logic of our sensory-motor experience. E.g., G.Lakoff and M. Johnson explain that the metaphor Affection is Warmth (*warm feelings*) arise from the common experience of a child being held affectionately by a parent.

The structure of metaphor

A metaphor, according to I. A. Richards in *The Philosophy of Rhetoric* (1936), consists of two parts: the **tenor** and **vehicle**. The tenor is the subject to which attributes are ascribed. The vehicle is the subject from which the attributes are borrowed.

All the world's a stage,
And all the men and women merely players
*They have their exits and their entrances; — (*William Shakespeare, As You Like It, *2/7)*

This well known quote is a good example of a metaphor. In this example, "the world" is compared to a stage, the aim being to describe the world by taking well-known attributes from the stage. In this case, the world is the tenor and the stage is the vehicle. "Men and women" are a secondary tenor and "players" is the vehicle for this secondary tenor.

The metaphor is sometimes further analysed in terms of the ground and the tension. The ground consists of the similarities between the tenor and the vehicle. The tension of the metaphor consists of the dissimilarities between the tenor and the vehicle. In the above example, the ground begins to be elucidated from the third line: "They all have their exits and entrances". In the play, Shakespeare continues this metaphor for another twenty lines beyond what is shown here - making it a good example of an *extended metaphor*.

The corresponding terms to 'tenor' and 'vehicle' in George Lakoff's terminology are **target** and **source**. In this nomenclature, metaphors are named using the convention "target IS source", with the word "is" always capitalized; in this notation, the metaphor discussed above would state that "humankind IS theater".

Empirical research gives evidence of systematic polysemy in language. Because the metaphoric concept is systematic, the langugae we use to talk about that aspect of the concept is systematic.

Time is money.
This gadget will save you hours.
I don’t have the time to give you.
How do you spend your tim e these days?
I’ve invested a lot of time in her.
You need to budget your time.
He’s living on borrowed time.
Is that worth your while?

A **mapping** is the systematic set of correspondences that exist between constituent elements of the source and the target domain. Many elements of target concepts come from source domains and are not preexisting. To know a conceptual metaphor is to know the set of mappings that applies to a given source-target pairing. The same idea of mapping between source and target is used to describe analogical reasoning and inferences.

Conceptual metaphors typically employ a more abstract concept as target and a more concrete or physical concept as their source. For instance, metaphors such as 'the days [the more abstract or target concept] ahead' or 'giving my time' rely on more concrete concepts, thus expressing time as a path into physical space, or as a substance that can be handled and offered as a gift.

Metaphor is deeply ingrained in culture, and actively colors the way we act with other people [T. Veale]. The most fundamental values in a culture will be coherent with the metaphorical structure of the most fundamental concepts in the culture [G. Lakoff,

M. Johnson].

Much of our understanding of metaphysical abstractions such as time, emotion, and inter-personal relationships are grounded in our metaphors of space. For instance, Lakoff & Johnson (1980) and Veale & Keane (1992a.b) outline a variety of highly productive spatial metaphors which are shown to underlie a host of abstractions, such as health, marriage, divorce, kinship terms and corporate relations. According to Lakoff and Johnson, e.g., the "UP-Down" metaphor in American culture is associated with evaluation in terms of "Good - Bad".

E.g. HAPPY IS UP; SAD IS DOWN

My spirits rose. You're in high spirits. I'm feeling up. I'm feeling down. I fell into depression. My spirits sank.

A metaphor is a system of concepts, a many-faceted productive schema which offers a combination of related perspectives on the same domain.

Types of metaphor

- An **extended metaph**or is one that sets up a principal subject with several subsidiary subjects or comparisons. The above quote from *As you like it* is a good example. The world is described as a stage and then men and women are subsidiary subjects that are further described in the same context. (This can be extended to humorous lengths as in Black Adder eg. "This is a crisis. A large crisis. In fact, if you've got a moment, it's a twelve-storey crisis with a magnificent entrance hall, carpeting throughout, 24-hour porterage and an enormous sign on the roof, saying 'This Is a Large Crisis'.")
- A **dead metaphor** is one in which the sense of a transferred image is not present. Example: "to grasp a concept" or "to gather you've understood." Both of these phrases use a physical action as a metaphor for understanding (itself a metaphor), but in none of these cases do most speakers of English actually visualize the physical action. Dead metaphors, by definition, normally go unnoticed. Some people make a distinction between a "dead metaphor" whose origin most speakers are entirely unaware of (such as "to understand" meaning to get underneath a concept), and a *dormant metaphor*, whose metaphorical character people are aware of but rarely think about (such as "to break the ice"). Others, however, use *dead metaphor* for both of these concepts, and use it more generally as a way of describing metaphorical cliché.
- An **active (living) metaphor** is one which by contrast to a dead metaphor, is not part of daily language and is noticeable as a metaphor. Example: "You are my sun."
- An **absolute** or **paralogical metaphor** (sometimes called an antimetaphor) is one in which there is no discernible point of resemblance between the idea and the image. Example: "The couch is the autobahn of the living room."
- A **compound** or **loose metaphor** is one that catches the mind with several points of similarity. Example: "He has the wild stag's foot." This phrase suggests grace and speed as well as daring.
- An **implicit metaphor** is one in which the tenor is not specified but implied. Example: "Shut your trap!" Here, the mouth of the listener is the unspecified tenor.
- A **simple** or **tight metaphor** is one in which there is but one point of resemblance between the tenor and the vehicle. Example: "Cool it". In this example, the vehicle, "cool", is a temperature and nothing else, so the tenor, "it", can only be grounded to the vehicle by one attribute.

Metonymy

Creating metonymy we use one entity to refer to another that is related to it. Metonymy

is using one entity to refer to another that is related to it. Metonymic concepts allow us to conceptualize one thing by means of its relation to something else. When we think of a Picasso we are not just thinking of a work of art alone. We think of it in terms of its relation to the artist, that is, his conception of art, his technique, etc. Thus, like metaphors, metonymic concepts structure not just our language but our thoughts, attitudes, and actions.

Metaphor's primary function is understanding. The function of metonymy is referential, it allows us to use one entity to stand for another. But is also serves the function of providing understanding. Which part of the whole we used determines which aspect of the whole we are focusing on.

Metonymic concepts are also systematic. (examples).

The part for the whole (synecdoche)

We need some good heads on the project.

Producer for product

He bought a Ford.

The place for the institution

The White House isn't saying anything.

Object for the user

The buses are on strike

The grounding of metonymic concepts in our experience is even more obvious: it involves direct physical or causal associations. Cultural and religious symbolisms are special cases of metonymy. E.g.: *Dove for Holy Spirit*.

Lecture 7. WORD FORMATION

Word formation is a set of mechanisms used for the creation of new words. There are a number of processes that can cause the formation of a new word. These include:

Derivation. Affixation

In linguistics, **derivation** is the process of creating new lexemes from other lexemes, for example, by adding a derivational affix. It is a kind of word formation.

Derivational affixes usually apply to words of one syntactic category and change them into words of another syntactic category. For example, the English derivational suffix *-ly* changes adjectives into adverbs (*slow* → *slowly*).

Some examples of English derivational suffixes:

- adjective-to-noun: *-ness* (*slow* → *slowness*)
- adjective-to-verb: *-ize* (*modern* → *modernize*)
- noun-to-adjective: *-al* (*recreation* → *recreational*)
- noun-to-verb: *-fy* (*glory* → *glorify*)
- verb-to-adjective: *-able* (*drink* → *drinkable*)
- verb-to-noun: *-ance* (*deliver* → *deliverance*)

Derivational affixes do not necessarily modify the syntactic category; they can also modify the meaning. For example, the derivational prefix *un-* applies to adjectives (*healthy* → *unhealthy*), some verbs (*do* → *undo*), but rarely nouns. In many cases, derivational affixes change both the syntactic category and the meaning: *modern* → *modernize* ("to make modern").

Note that derivational affixes are bound morphemes. In that, derivation differs from compounding, by which *free* morphemes are combined (*lawsuit*, *Latin professor*). It also differs from inflection in that inflection does not change a word's syntactic category and creates not new lexemes but new word forms (*table* → *tables*; *open* → *opened*).

Derivation may occur without any change of form, for example *telephone* (noun) and *to telephone*. This is known as conversion. Some linguists consider that when a word's syntactic category is changed without any change of form, a null morpheme is being affixed.

A typical derivational relation among lexemes is the formation of adjectives like *inflatable* from verbs (*inflate*). In this case, the meaning of the adjective is quite systematically related to that of the verb: verb-*able* means 'capable of being verb-ed'. It is therefore tempting to say that English contains an element *–able* with that meaning, which can simply be added to verbs to yield adjectives. The facts are a bit more complex that that, though.

For one thing, the related adjective may not always be just what we would get by putting the two pieces together. For instance, *navigate* yields *navigable, formulate* yields *formulable,* etc. These are instances of *truncation*, where a part of the base is removed as an aspect of the word formation process. Then there are cases such as *applicable* from *apply*, where we see the same variation (or *allomorph*) in the shape of the stem as in *application*. These patterns show us that the derivational whole may be more

than the simple sum of its parts.

When we consider the class of adjectives in *–able* (or its spelling variant *–ible*), we find a number of forms like *credible, eligible, potable, probable,…* which seem to have the right meaning for the class (they all mean roughly 'capable of being [something]-ed'), but the language does not happen to contain any verb with right form and meaning to serve as their base. This suggests that derivational patterns have a sort of independent existence: they can serve as (at least partial) motivation for the shape and sense of a given lexeme, even in the absence of the possibility of deriving that lexeme from some other existing lexeme. In some instance, the force of this analysis is so strong that it leads to what is called *back-formation*: thus, the word *editor* was originally derived from Latin *e:dere* 'to bring forth' plus *–itor*, but it fit so well into the pattern of English agent nouns in *–er* (e.g., *baker, driver*) that a hypothetical underlying verb *edit* actually became part of the language.

We may also notice that some *–able* forms do not mean precisely what we might predict. Thus, *comparable* means `roughly equal', not just 'able to be compared'. In the world of wine, *drinkable* comes to mean 'rather good', not just 'able to be drunk', etc. This shows us that even though these words may originally arise through the invocation of derivational patterns, the results are in fact full-fledged words of the language; and as such, they can undergo semantic change independent of the words form which they were derived. This is the same phenomenon we see when the word *transmission*, originally referring to the act or process of transmitting (e.g., energy from the engine to the wheels of a car) comes to refer to a somewhat mysterious apparatus which makes strange noises and costs quite a bit to replace.

Finally, we can note that in some cases it is not at all evident how to establish a 'direction' of derivation.

When a word in either class is used in the other, the result is to bring out the additional meaning associated with the class, but there is no inherent directionality to this relationship. The possibility of back formation discussed above suggests that this interpretation of derivational relationships as fundamentally symmetrical may be applicable even to cases where the formal direction of derivation seems obvious.

Lecture 8. **Conversion**

In linguistics, **conversion**, also called zero derivation, is a kind of word formation; specifically, it is the creation of a word from an existing word without any change in form. Conversion is more productive in some languages than in others; in English it is a fairly productive process.

Often a word of one lexical category (part of speech) is converted from a word of another lexical category; for example, the noun *green* in golf (referring to a putting-green) is derived ultimately from the adjective *green*. Conversions from adjectives to nouns and vice versa are both very common and unnotable in English; much more remarked upon is verbing, the creation of a verb by a converting a noun or other word.

Definition, terminology and characteristics

"Conversion is the derivational process whereby an item changes its word-class without the addition of an affix" (Quirk, Randolph and Greenbaum, 1987: 441). Thus, when the noun 'sign' (1) shifts to the verb 'sign(ed)' (2) without any change in the word form we can say this is a case of conversion1. However, it does not mean that this process takes place in all the cases of homophones (Marchand, 1972: 225). Sometimes, the connection has to do with coincidences or old etymological ties that have been lost.. For example, 'mind' (3 and 4) and 'matter' (5 and 6) are cases of this grammatical sameness without connection by conversion—the verbs have nothing to do today with their respective noun forms in terms of semantics (ibid.: 243).

Conversion is particularly common in English because the basic form of nouns and verbs is identical in many cases (Aitchison, 1989: 160). It is usually impossible in languages with grammatical genders, declensions or conjugations (Cannon, 1985: 430).

The status of conversion is a bit unclear. It must be undoubtedly placed within the phenomena of word-formation; nevertheless, there are some doubts about whether it must be considered a branch of derivation or a separate process by itself (with the same status as derivation or compounding) (Bauer, 1983: 32).

Despite this undetermined position in grammar, some scholars assert that conversion will become even more active in the future because it is a very easy way to create new words in English (Cannon, 1985: 415). There is no way to know the number of conversions appearing every day in the spoken language, although we know this number must be high (ibid.: 429). As it is a quite recent phenomenon, the written evidence is not a fully reliable source. We will have to wait a little longer to understand its whole impact, which will surely increase in importance in the next decades.

The terminology used for this process has not been completely established yet. The most usual terms are 'conversion', because a word is *converted* (shifted) to a different part of speech; and 'zero-derivation', because the process is like *deriving* (transferring) a word into another morphological category with a zero-affix creating a semantic dependence of one word upon another (Quirk, 1997: 1558). This would imply that this affix exists—because it is grammatically meaningful—although it cannot be seen (Arbor, 1970: 46). Other less frequently used

terms are 'functional shift', 'functional change' or 'zero-marked derivative' (Cannon, 1985: 412), denominations that express by themselves the way the process is considered to happen.

Conversion is extremely productive to increase the English lexicon because it provides an easy way to create new words from existing ones. Thus, the meaning is perfectly comprehensible and the speaker can rapidly fill a meaningful gap in his language or use fewer words (Aitchison, 1989: 161). "Conversion is a totally free process and any lexeme can undergo conversion into any of the open form classes as the need arises" (Bauer, 1983: 226). This means that any word form can be shifted to any word class, especially to open classes—nouns, verbs, etc.—and that there are not morphological restrictions. Up to date, there has only been found one restriction: derived nouns rarely undergo conversion (particularly not to verbs) (Bauer, 1983: 226). This exception is easily understood: if there already exists one word in the language, the creation of a new term for this same concept will be blocked for the economy of language. For example, the noun 'denial' (7) will never shift into a verb because this word already derives from the verb 'deny' (8). In that case, the conversion is blocked because 'to deny' (8) and '*to denial' would mean exactly the same. However, there are some special cases in which this process seems to happen without blocking. This can be exemplified in the noun 'sign' (1), converted into the verb 'to sign' (2), changed by derivation (suffixation) into the noun 'signal' (9) and converted into a new verb, 'to signal' (10). In this case there is no blocking because these words have slight semantic differences (Bauer, 1983: 226-227).

It must be pointed out that the process of conversion has some semantic limitations: a converted word only assumes one of the range of meanings of the original word. For example, the noun 'paper' has various meanings, such as "newspaper" (11), "material to wrap things" (12)... The denominal verb, though, only contains the sense of putting that material on places like walls. This shows the converted item has only converted part of the semantic field of the source item.

Typology

There are many cases in which the process of conversion is evident. Nevertheless, conversion is not as simple as it may seem: the process is easily recognisable because both words are graphically identical; the direction of this process, though, is sometimes nearly impossible to determine. This is not very important for the speaker: he just needs a simple way to cover a gap in the language. As this paper tries to give a comprehensive vision on conversion, it will attempt to establish the direction of the process. Therefore, both the original category and the derived one will be mentioned.

The criterion to establish the original and derived item has been taken from Marchand (1972: 242-252). It focuses on several aspects:

a. **the semantic dependence (the word that reports to the meaning of the other is the derivative)**

b. **the range of usage (the item with the smaller range of use is the converted word),**

c. **the semantic range (the one with less semantic fields is the shifted item)**

d. **and the phonetic shape (some suffixes express the word-class the item belongs to and, if it does not fit, this is the derivative).**

After this analysis, intuition is still important. Verbs tend to be abstract because they represent actions and nouns are frequently concrete because they name material entities. Conversion is quickly related to shift of word-class. With this respect, it mainly produces nouns, verbs and adjectives. The major cases of conversion are from noun to verb and from verb to noun. Conversion from adjective to verb is also common, but it has a lower ratio. Other grammatical categories, including closed-class ones, can only shift to open-class categories, but not to closed-class ones (prepositions, conjunctions). In addition, it is not rare that a simple word shifts into more than one category.

3.1 Conversion from verb to noun

We shall first study the shift from verb to noun. It can be regarded from seven different points of view (Quirk, 1997: 1560). These subclassifications are not well defined in many cases. The same pair of converted words can be placed into two different categories depending on the subjectivity of their meaning. Nouns coming from verbs can express state of mind or state of sensation, like in the nouns 'experience' (13), 'fear' (14), 'feel' (15) or 'hope' (16). Nouns can also name events or activities, such is the case of 'attack' (17), 'alert(s)' (18) and 'laugh(s)' (19). The object of the verb from which the noun is derived can be observed in 'visit' (20) (with the sense of that which visits), 'increase' (21) (that which increases), 'call' (22) and 'command' (23). In the fourth division the noun refers to the subject of the original verb. Examples of this kind are 'clone' (24) (the living being that is cloned), 'contacts' (25) or 'judge' (26). Other nouns show the instrument of the primitive verb, like in 'cover' (27) (something to cover with) and 'start' (28). Finally, a place of the verb can also be nominalised, like in 'turn' (29) (where to turn) or 'rise' (9).

3.2 Conversion from noun to verb

Verbs converted from nouns have also many subclassifications (Quirk, 1997: 1561). They can express the action of putting in or on the noun, such as in pocket(ed) (30) (to put into the pocket), 'film(ing)' (31) (to put into a film) and 'practice' (32). These verbs can also have the meaning of "to provide with (the noun)" or "to give (the noun)", like 'name' (33) (to give a name to somebody), 'shape' (34) (to give shape to something) or 'fuel(s)' (35). The verbs belonging to the third division will express the action done with

the noun as instrument. It can be exemplified with 'hammer' (36) (to hit a nail by means of a hammer), 'yo-yo' (37) (to play with a yo-yo) 'dot' (38) or 'brake' (braking) (39). Another group of verbs has the meaning of to act as the noun with respect to something, as exemplified in 'host(ed)' (40) (to act as the host of a house). Other subclassification has the sense of making something into the original noun, like in 'schedule(d)' (41) (to arrange into a schedule) and 'rule' (42). The last group means to send by means of the noun, that is the case of 'ship(ped)' (43) or 'telephone(d)' (44) (in an abstract sense).

3.3 Conversion from adjective to verb

Adjectives can also go through the process of conversion, especially to verbs. De-adjectival verbs get the meaning of "to make (adjective)". It can be easily seen by means of examples like 'black(ed)' (45) (to make black), 'open' (46), 'slow(ing)' (47)... In some cases, when these transitive verbs are used intransitively, a secondary conversion may happen (Quirk, 1997: 1561-1562), as it will be explained later on.

3.4 Conversion from a closed category to any other category

Closed-class categories can also undergo conversion. Although their frequency is much less common, the process is not ungrammatical. All morphologic categories have examples of this kind (Cannon, 1985:425-426). Prepositions are probably the most productive ones. They can easily become adverbs, nouns and verbs. This is the case of 'up' (48 and 49) and 'out' (37 and 50). Conversion to noun may as well occur in adverbs like in 'outside' (51) and 'inside' (51); conjunctions, as regarded in 'ifs' (52) and 'buts' (52); interjections and non-lexical items, like 'ho ho ho's' (53) and 'ha ha ha' (54); affixes such as 'mini-' (55) can appear as noun (56) and proper noun (55).... Conversion to verb is frequent in onomatopoeic expressions like 'buzz' (57), 'beep' (57) or 'woo(ing)' (58). Finally, phrase compounds can appear as adjectives, such as in 'borrow-the-mower' (59), 'down-to-earth' (60) or 'now-it-can-be-told' (61).

3.5 Conversion from noun to adjective

There are some clues, though, to make sure conversion has taken place. In the case of adjectives coming from nouns, the hints are quite easy: they can be considered as cases of conversion only when they can appear in predicative as well as in attributive form. If the denominal adjective can be used attributively, we can affirm conversion has happened. If it can only appear predicatively, it is merely a case of partial conversion. 'Mahogany music box' (62) can be used in an attributive way, "the music box is mahogany". This implies 'mahogany' is a denominal adjective. However, in the predicative phrase 'antiques dealers' (63) we cannot treat 'antiques' as an adjective because the attributive form of this expression is ungrammatical (*dealers are antique). Another way to make sure we are in front of a case of conversion is to change a word for another similar one. For example, in 'Dutch Auction' (64) we are sure the word 'Dutch' is an adjective because it has the specific form of adjective. Therefore, in 'South Jersey Auction' (65) or 'Texas Auction' (66) we can affirm these are cases of denominal adjectives.

3.6 Conversion from adjective to noun

Adjectives can also shift into nouns, though it is not very frequent. It mainly happens in well-established patterns of adjective plus noun phrase. Nominalisation occurs when the noun is elided and the adjective is widely used as a synonym of an existing set pattern. This could be the case of 'a Chinese favorite' (67).

The adjective nature in cases of partial conversion is evident, though. They are nouns from the point of view that they appear in the same syntactic position. Their grammatical nature, though, is a different one. These adjectives can still be changed to the comparative and superlative form (adjective nature). This can be exemplified in 'worst' (68) and 'merrier' (69). However, these adjectives cannot behave as nouns: if their number or case is changed, they will produce ungrammatical sentences. This can be seen in the case of '*more'* (69) in cases like "*the mores we get". If the '-s' for the plural is added to any of these items, we would get ungrammatical sentences. The case of 'cutie' (70), though, could be argued. It seems to be much used and established within certain groups. This could have converted it into a lexicalised example of adjective to noun.

Compounding

Compounding is a way of creating new words by combining two or more derivational bases. The result of the process is a compound (word). It functions as a single item, has its own meaning and grammar. But not all words that consist of two roots are a result of pure compounding. Sometimes compounding is accompanied by affixation and conversion (a compound derivative), sometimes compound words add affixes later, and sometimes a compound word is converted into another part of speech. It is sometime hard to tell one process from another.

Look at the following words and try to identify the mechanisms of word formation that were used.

Price-reduction **a drop-out** **old-maidish**
To doorstep **sportsmanship** **to shoplift**

Classifications of compounds are done in many different ways. We can classify them in terms of the parts of speech that make up the compound (noun + noun, noun + verb, etc.). we can also classify them in terms of the type of link between the components: coordinate vs. Subordinate. In a coordinate compound both components are equal in importance:

In a subordinate compound one of the components is the main one and the other (others) are subordinate.

According to the order of the components compounds are divided into syntactic and asyntactic. In the first case the components are placed in the order that resembles that order of the words in the corresponding free word combination. In asyntactic compounds the order is different.

Compound nouns can be classified into endocentric and exocentric. If the referent is named by one of the elements and given an additional characteristic by another, is an endocentric compound: sunbeam, bath towel. If only the combination of both elements names the referent, is an exocentric compound: skinhead.

A separate group of compounds in English are the so-called neoclassical compounds. Some elements in English word-formation can function as affixes in some places, but in other cases they are different from affixes: bio-, -scope, electro-, hydro-, etc. If we regard them as affixes, then such words as electroscope have no roots. These elements appeared in English with classical borrowings: Latin and Greek. Later they started being used to form scientific terms. They play quite a prominent role in word-formation today.

Another interesting group of English compounds are phrase compounds, constructions where an entire phrase seems to be

involved in the formation of a new word. Forget-me-not, dog-in-the-manger are examples of such compounds. In some cases the sequence of words is quite long: a let-the-sleeping-dog-lie attitude, a never-to-be-forgotten-occasion, a four-thousand-a-year job. They may be quite a challenge for a translator. One more special group are noun + noun compounds or the so-called "stone wall" complexes. The question is whether we should regard them as compound words or as word combinations.

Lecture 9. **Word Combinations and Idioms**

A syntagmatic lexical relation is a culturally determined pattern of association between pairs of lexical units.

Syntactical relations are rules prescribing combinability of a sign. They can be grammatical (what part of speech can be combine with another part of speech) or lexical. In speech the meanings of words combine and interact with one another.

Types of syntagmatic relations:

Philonyms = two lexical units combined into a syntactically and semantically normal constructions.

Tautonyms = pleonastic constructions.

In the majority of cases when we combine words in a sentence we create redundancy: "Divide the apple into two halves". "The bird is flying" (the word "bird" already contains the semantic feature "fly" in its meaning). This phenomenon is called pleonasm.

Xenonyms = dissonant constructions.

Syntactical relations are rules prescribing combinability of a sign. They can be grammatical (what part of speech can be combine with another part of speech) or lexical. In speech the meanings of words combine and interact with one another.

In some cases words change their dictionary meanings in a context, or, in other words, acquire a contextual meaning. It may aquire a different referential meaning or it may aqcuire new semantic features or lose some of the semantic components.

context - discourse that surrounds a language unit and helps to determine its interpretation

context of use, linguistic context

discourse - extended verbal expression in speech or writing

context - the set of facts or circumstances that surround a situation or event; "the historical context"

circumstance

environment - the totality of surrounding conditions; "he longed for the comfortable environment of his living room."

The terms *collocation* and *collocability* were first introduced by J R Firth in his paper *Modes of Meaning* published in 1951. Firth does not give any explicit definition of collocation but he rather illustrates the notion by way of such examples as: 'One of the meanings of *ass* is its habitual collocation with an immediately preceding *you silly*...' Although some of his other contributions to linguistic and stylistic analysis (such as *prosodic features*) have had a considerable impact, his notion of collocation has not been seriously considered until the last decade. The reasons for this neglect are probably twofold: on the one hand, the rather vague terms in which he described the notion (cfr. Haskell 1970) and, on the other hand, the practical restrictions imposed by the prohibitive scale of a textual study of collocability. The latter drawback has been remedied by the introduction of the digital computer in textual analysis. As to the former, several recent attempts have been made by scholars at defining the notion *collocation* more precisely within the framework of modern linguistic theory.

Collocation: 'the syntagmatic association of lexical items, quantifiable, textually, as the probability that there will occur at *n* removes (a distance of *n* lexical items) from an item *x*, the items *a*, *b*, *c* ...'

A collocation is a group of words that habitually co-occur. They may collocate simply

because the combination reflects a common real world state of affairs: Pass me the salt. But some collocations have an added element of linguistic convention (native speakers have chosen to say so).

The combinability of the word A is a set of requirements the word B should meet to be syntactically connected with the word A.

Valency is the ability of a word to combine with other words. Lexical and grammatical valency: high – tall; walk fast, taste delicious.

Semantic syntax shows the types of relations that link lexical meanings of words in a text. Compare our grammatical cases with the semantic cases identified by Ch. Filmore: agent, instrument, object, locativ (location), etc. Apresyan identifies 25 semantic valencies: subject, object, cause, recipient , etc.

The word L has a semantic valency X if the word L describes a situation in which X is an indispensable participant.

The role of semantic syntactical relations in translation.

Free word combinations.

Phrases are syntactic structures formed by two or ore notional words with a grammatical links between them.

John Lyons: a phrase is any group of words which is grammatically equivalent to a separate word and which has no predicative link.

There are three types of subordinate links: agreement (making the subordinate word take a form similar to that of the word to which it's subordinate), government (the use of a certain form of the subordinate word required by the main word), and parataxis.

(Transparency).

A phrase is a means of naming: it denotes and object, a phenomenon, a process, a quality. The mechanism of naming is different: the main component names it and the subordinate one specifies, gives some additional information, provides a more specific characteristic.

In terms of distribution phrases can be classified into 2 large groups: endocentric (the phrase has the same distribution as the main component) and exocentric (the distribution of the word combination is different from either of its components).

Phrases can be motivated and non-motivated. The meaning of a motivated phrase is transparent: it is the result of the interaction of the meaning of each component and the meaning of the pattern: to spend a day in the country or a day to spend in the country.

Idioms.

Set phrases or **idioms** are not formed by the speaker in the process of speech but are reproduced as readymade units.

There are many definitions of idioms. One of them is: "**An idiom** is assigning of a new meaning to a group of words which already have their own meaning." These are non-motivated phrases and their characteristic features make them function like words, not like word combinations.

These characteristic features are:

the meaning attached to whole group is different from the combined meaning of the components;

set phrases are rigid, their components cannot be easily replaced;

they are reproduced in speech as readymade units.

Changes in the semantic structures of the components are of different nature. Some of

them are metaphoric, others are metonymic, still others are based on illogical assumptions.

They are like ships that pass in the night, on the tip of the tongue, once in a blue moon.

There are other factors that participate in constructing a set phrase: rhythm, rhyme, alliteration, pun, contrast (out of sight, out of mind, head over heels, rain or snow)

With some set phrases the degree of inflexibility can be different: bear malice, grudge.

There are several classifications of set phrases. They all were made by Russian scholars.

V. Vinogradov:

Phraseological fusions: absolutely non-motivated idioms: head over heels, red tape, beat about the bush.

Phraseological unities: the meaning of these idioms is pretty transparent, we understand the motivation of such idioms: to know on which side the bread is buttered, to pour money down the drain, to sweep somebody.
off his feet.

Phraseoloqical combinations: one of the components is used in its direct meaning, the other in the figurative one: on one hand, on the other hand; on the spur of the moment.

A. Koonin's classification is functional.

Naming phrases denote objects, qualities, processes, actions. They can be noun phrase (they are used in the functions of a noun), adjectival (used as attributes) and adverbial (are used as adverbial modifiers):
Crocodile tears, the voice of one crying in the wilderness, the goose that might lay golden eggs; larger than life, alive and kicking, more dead than alive; with all one's heart, head and shoulders, rain or shine.

lnterjectional phrases express emotions: *by George!* (admiration, discontent, irritation, etc.) *My foot!* (denying what has been said in the previous sentence).

Communicative phraseological units (proverbs and sayings):
Let sleeping dogs lie. Out of sight, out of mind. Life is not a bed of roses.

Naming-communicative: the main component of these phrases is a verb, but only if verbs in these phrases can be used both in the active and the passive voice, and the phrase itself can be transformed into passive. *Break the ice - the ice is broken, to cross the Rubicon - the Rubicon is crossed.* The other verbal phrases are regarded as naming.

Amosova's classification is based on the criterion of **context** (minimum discourse which is sufficient for identifying a word's meaning). Free word combinations make up variable contexts, whereas set phrases are non-variable or fixed contexts. Fixed context is interrelated with the new meaning that is attached to the components. If only one of the components acquires a new specific meaning dependent on the other component, the set phrase is classified as a **phraseme:** *a blind date, the teacher's pet.* If both components have acquired new meaning, the phrase is an **idiom:** *straight from the horsed mouth* (from *a* reliable source), *eager beaver* (a person who does something above what is necessary to win a favor).

Lecture 10. **Dialects and variants of the English language**

Language used in different parts of a country and by different social groups usually varies. Dialectology differentiates between geographical and social variations of the same language.

Geographical variations of English can be dialects or variants. The difference between the two types of variations depend on one factor: presence or absence of the standard or literary layer of language. Standard language is used in literary works and in the mass media. It

is based on literary forms fixed in dictionaries and rules fixed by standard grammar.

Dialects are non-literary forms of language. A dialect is used in a certain part of a country. It is opposed to Standard English.

On the territory of Great Britain there are two variants of English: Irish and Scottish. They are treated as variants because there are literary works created in Irish English and Scottish English.

Dialects of British English:

Variants of English outside the British Isles: American, Australian, and Canadian

.

American English. There were three main factors that determined divergence of American English from British English.

Factor 1 is the influence of languages which were different from the languages that influenced British English. English colonists in the New World had contacts with other nations and ethnic groups which English people did not have on the Isles.

BORROWINGS INTO AMERICAN ENGLISH

Languages	Semantic groups	Examples
Indian languages (Algonquian, Iroquoian, Siouan, etc.)	Plants, animals, foods, culture, political terms	Sequoia, squash, racoon, skunk, pemmican, squaw, wampum, caucus
Spanish	Plants, animals, ranch life, food and drink, building, etc.	Marijuana, barracuda, lasso, tortilla, tequila, plaza, patio
French	Plants, animals, foods, toponymics, coinage	Pumpkin, gopher, praline, prairie, cent, dime
German	Food and drink, education, social, etc.	Delicatessen, hamburger, semester, seminar, Christmas tree
Dutch	Food, social classification, miscellaneous	Cookie, boss, Yankee, dumb, spook

The second factor is called “the colonial lag”. The first colonists spoke the English of Shakespeare. Some words fell out of use in Great Britain but American English retained them.

Loan – lend, fall – autumn, quit – stop, apartment – flat.

*The third fa*ctor relates to the specific features of American life, to technical, social and other innovations that appeared in the States.

Drive-in, drive-through, fraternity, sorority, alumni, hot dogs, etc.

Glorification of the commonplace: saloon, undertaker – funeral furnisher, home-maker – housewife, casket – coffin.

Regional variations:

Dialect differentiations along the East Coast of the U.S. is finely graded, the result of mixing patterns of early immigration and difficulty in travel and communication between cities in colonial times. Further west dialects are much further apart, illustrating the mixing of the various Easy Coast varieties as people moved west. The major immigration routes into the west are primarily responsible for the mingling of many distinct eastern varieties into three large mid-America dialects: the Northern (New England, New York City), Midland (Philadelphia Area, West Virginia), and Southern (South Carolina),

Examples: Northern (New England): waked up (woke up), stand on line (in line)

South: quarter till nine (of nine), clean (=well, completely "clean over half an hour")

Midland: wait on (for), turnpike (highway)

Lecture 11. **Lexicography**

The *Oxford English Dictionary* (OED). It has rightly been referred to as the greatest dictionary ever written for any language. Although it certainly cannot be up-to-date (due to its history and its genesis) it is without any doubt a most astonishing achievement and an inexhaustible storehouse of knowledge about the English language.

A glance at its history will reveal why the OED is unique (cf McArthur 1986: 124ff). Around the middle of the last century it was felt in England that existing dictionaries of the language were inadequate. So the Philological Society in London, around 1850, started the project of a new dictionary. For this purpose, in 1879 a contract was signed with the old and famous Oxford University Press for the financing and publication of the dictionary. During the long and eventful years of writing and publishing, several editors were in charge of the process. The most important of these was probably James A.H. Murray. But neither a single editor nor the entire Philological Society could have managed to complete this immense project single-handedly. The plan (which was in fact carried out) was to give for every word of the English language and for each of its meanings, quotations from actual written texts. To find such examples by the systematic reading of texts could only be done by the help of many volunteer readers, over the course of years and years. The material contributed by hundreds of readers formed the basis of the editing of the dictionary. At one point there were over 800 of them (cf *The Compact Edition of the OED:* vii) and all in all 2,000 readers sent in 5 million quotations over a period of 70 years (cf McArthur 1986: 131). In 1884 the first instalment of the dictionary, originally entitled *A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles,* was issued. This title is responsible for the abbreviation NED, still occasionally used today. The final part with the letter Z appeared in 1928. Thus the whole project had taken exactly 70 years since the resolution of the Philological Society calling for a new dictionary was passed in 1858. However, the undertaking was not completed with the issuing of the last instalment.[13] In 1933 an important supplement volume appeared containing new and omitted words, as well as corrections necessitated during the long publication process. The completed work treats more than 400,000 words and phrases. Together with the 1933 *Supplement* it is bound in 13 large volumes, occupying 16,570 pages. Since the

The smallest and therefore most up-to-date dictionary based on the OED and its Supplements is ***The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English* (COD)**. In spite of this origin, former editions of the COD contained relatively few quotations, illustrative sentences, or collocations, ie co-occurrences of lexical items. The latest editions, however, have adapted more to the pressure of competing dictionaries of comparable size and price. Furthermore, the long tradition in which it stands is a burden in some respects.

After eighty years of COD (first published 1911), the eighth edition of 1990 is a departure from the tradition in several respects. Like OED2, it has now newly adopted the use of the IPA phonetic transcription. Up to the seventh edition, an attempt had been made to separate linguistic and encyclopedic information by emphasizing the distinction between "a dictionary" and "an encyclopaedia [sic!]". The editor.R.E. Allen now states ([8]1990: XXIII) that this distinction "is rather less strictly maintained". Finally, as specified on the same page:

With this eighth edition the COD has entered the computer age. The text was initially assembled as a computer database...

This database contains material from a broad variety of printed and electronic sources and the dictionary articles have a completely new structure. The COD is thus no longer directly derived from the OED. Naturally, this is also true for the

Although **the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (OALD)**, originally compiled in 1942 by A.S. Hornby (with the help of others), is also published by Oxford University Press, it is only indirectly related to the preceding work. The characterization "Advanced Learner's" in the title is somewhat misleading (but cf Cowie 1987). It is definitely profitable for other users as well. Compared to the COD, the OALD, with its latest sixth edition 2000, is rather restricted to more basic vocabulary and contains fewer learned and technical words, and practically no etymology. On the other hand it is modern and up-to-date and is distinguished by its clarity. It further contains many typical examples and collocations and very useful illustrations (cf Ilson 1987). Another helpful feature found in most modern dictionaries (automatically incorporated in computer programs for word processing today) is the marking of word-divisions at the end of a line. Three advantages of the OALD may be particularly emphasized: 1. It contains short but nevertheless exact definitions and paraphrases of the concepts, 2. each definition and different use is illustrated with an example, ie the word is shown in a typical context, 3. valuable grammatical information is provided. The OALD6 contains many clear illustrations and tables. As in most recent dictionaries, a number of useful appendices are added at the end. Naturally, the latest edition is available on CD-ROM, with videos, interactive control of pronunciation, and grouping together visually related concepts.

Only indirectly related to the OED is the ***The New Oxford Dictionary of English* (NODE)**, edited by Judy Pearsall in 1998 at Clarendon Press. It is also based on the British National Corpus (BNC, 100 mio words, see 1.5) and on a continuous search for new words by a 60-people-strong international network of readers. Its new "quick-access page design" offers the most important modern meanings of a word first. Word history notes explain the linguistic roots of each word and its changing meanings over the centuries. NODE is not only available as a single-volume print dictionary, but also online. For a review of NODE and other dictionaries see Allen (2000).

Another important medium-sized dictionary that is not derived from the OED is **the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (LDCE)**. It was first published in 1978 as a completely new, original work, which uses the findings of modern linguistics to give a more precise description of language. The editors have frequently had recourse to the material of the Survey of English Usage (SEU) at University College London. This is a representative corpus set up for the analysis and description of the contemporary language, containing examples of many varieties of English. There are very important and symptomatic changes and improvements in the second edition of 1987.

The LDCE is comparable in scope to the OALD and has many original features. It also contains grammatical information on word classes, countability, and the construction potential of verbs. As in the OALD, illustrations are used, besides definitions, for the explanation of the words treated. Syllable structure is also indicated, which is relevant for end-of-line divisions. The use of words is demonstrated in extensive typical contexts, and collocations are shown in three different ways: in example sentences, by explanation in the so-called Usage Notes, and by typographic *emphasis if the collocation is idiomatic or* found *very* often. The revised edition is furthermore improved by additional Language Notes, ie tables *which incorporate pragmatic aspects into the* dictionary and provide useful information on addressing people, apologies, criticism and praise, invitations and offers, politeness, thanks, the use of articles, collocations, modals, phrasal verbs, prepositions etc. It also consistently attempts to avoid racist and sexist language (see 1.3). Neologisms and natural and typical usage in the 1980s are captured by constant updating of the Longman Citation Corpus, now called the Longman Corpus Network.

A third example of medium British dictionaries free from the burden of tradition is **the *Collins Dictionary of the English Language* (COLLINS)**, first published in 1979. A slightly revised edition appeared in 1986. It pays considerable attention to geographical variation and has special consultants for Scottish English, Caribbean English, Australian English etc. The COLLINS is larger than the COD, which is due in part to the fact that it contains a great deal of encyclopedic information. This may be illustrated by the following entries: *Brenner Pass* 'a pass over the E Alps, between Austria and Italy. Highest point: 1,372 m'; *Bretagne* 'the French name for Britanny'; *Bridge ... Frank* '1879-1941, English composer ...'; *Bridge of Sighs* 'a covered 16th-century bridge in Venice ...'.

With its special focus on varieties of English, it is not surprising that the COLLINS (like the LDCE) should have developed a neat system of "restrictive labels", subclassified into "temporal" *{Archaic, Obsolete),* "usage" *{Slang, Informal, Taboo, Facetious, Euphemistic, Not standard),* "connotative" *{Derogatory, Offensive),* "subject-field" *{Astronomy, Banking* etc.), and "national and regional labels" *{Austral, Brit., Canadian, Caribbean, Irish, N.Z., S. African, Scot., U.S.).*

Let us now turn to a fourth medium-sized dictionary of contemporary English, produced by the same publisher, **the *COBUILD English Language Dictionary,*** which was unique in many ways when it appeared in 1987 incidentally, our counting could be renumbered on good grounds, if we considered the second edition of the LDCE as a different, fifth book. It is really a *new* edition, with a woman, Delia Summers, as a new Editorial Director, with a more progressive attitude, where women feature as protagonists in many of the examples given. A number of features of the COBUILD are quite exceptional, which make it a kind of "odd man out".

As we have seen, most British dictionaries, especially the recent medium-sized ones, give due consideration to regional variation of English. There are, of course, special dictionaries for English and American dialects, for Scottish English, for Americanisms, Canadianisms, etc. and the *Dictionary of American Regional English* (DARE), published under the direction of F.G. Cassidy. Since, however, the American national standard plays such an extraordinary role, I will briefly consider some important American dictionaries. The nearest equivalent to the OED (although a far cry from the monumental original) is *A Dictionary of American English on Historical Principles* (DAE) published in four volumes by the University of Chicago Press between 1936 and 1944. It has the same lay-out, and one of its editors, W. Craigie, was co-editor of the OED.

Perhaps the most comprehensive modern authoritative work is ***WEBSTER'S THIRD New International Dictionary of the English Language*** **(W3)** that provoked heated discussions when it first appeared in 1961. It was originally published in 2 volumes, but a later edition of 1976 is in 3 volumes. The same year, a supplement appeared under the title *Six Thousand Words*. This is contained in the most recent compilation: *12 000 Words: A Supplement to Webster's Third,* edited by Frederick C. Mishetal (1986).

At the turn of the century, or millennium, there was a new wave of publications, mainly due to the publishers' need to make use of a new medium for their dictionaries, namely the CD-ROM (cf Jehle 1999). This development had already started in 1984, with the computerization of the OED, and Edmund Weiner becoming co-editor of the new OED, as mentioned in the second edition of my *Outline* (1992: 28f). In the year 2000 OUP released the sixth edition of the OALD (simultaneously with the electronic version) with a refined entry design, using two colours, introducing so-called *shortcuts* for different meanings and including emphasis is laid on American English.

The most recent development in the area of electronic dictionaries is the availability of a wide range of reference works, encyclopedia and other language related sites on the Internet. Some of them are presented by publishing companies, thus guaranteeing a high standard but many others are of unknown or uncertain origin, so that one cannot be sure about the quality of information.ПЛАНЫ СЕМИНАРСКИХ ЗАНЯТИЙ

Модуль 1. Слово как объект лексикологии

Seminar 1: THE WORD AS THE MAIN UNIT OF LANGUAGE (4 ч.)

1. The issues lexicology addresses as a branch of linguistics: the object of lexicology, types of lexicology, the connection of lexicology with other branches of linguistics.
2. The word and its properties. Facets of the word as a sign.
3. The main approaches connected with the problem of the word as the main language unit: E. Sapir, A.I. Smirnitsky, I.V. Arnold.
4. The word as an arbitrary and motivated sign. Types of motivation. Demotivation of words.
5. Naming. Main ways of nomination. Mechanisms employed by language to create new words.

Основная литература:

Arnold I.V. The English Word. – M. : Высшая школа, 1986. – P. 9-21, 27-31, 33-36, 55.

Зыкова И.В. Практический курс английской лексикологии = A Practical Course in English Lexicology. – M. : Академия, 2006. – С. 6-10, 15-17, 25-26.

Дополнительная литература:

Ginzburg R.S., Khidekel S.S., Knyazeva G.Y., Sankin A.A. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. – M. : Высшая школа, 1979. – P. 7-12, 25-28.

Антрушина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н. Лексикология английского языка. – M. :

Дрофа, 2001. – С. 6-11.

Бабич Г.Н. Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Флинта : Наука, 2008. – С. 9-18.

Гвишиани Н.Б. Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology. – М. : Академия, 2007. – С. 11-21.

Лингвистический энциклопедический словарь / Гл. ред. В.Н. Ярцева. – М. : Сов. энциклопедия, 1990.

РЕКОМЕНДУЕМЫЙ ПЕРЕЧЕНЬ ПРАКТИЧЕСКИХ ЗАДАНИЙ

1. *Зыкова И.В.* Практический курс английской лексикологии = A Practical Course in English Lexicology. – М. : Академия, 2006. – С. 35-36, упр. 1-3.
2. *Mednikova E.M.* Seminars in English Lexicology = Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. Учеб. пособие для ин-тов и фак. иностр. яз. – М. : Высшая школа, 1978. – P. 39, ex. 3.

Модуль 2. Этимология

Seminar 2: THE ETYMOLOGY OF THE ENGLISH WORD-STOCK (4 ч.)

1. The origin of English words. Native words vs. borrowings. Characteristic features of native words and their semantic groups.
2. Borrowing as a way of expanding vocabulary: causes of borrowing, ways of borrowing, source language vs. language of origin.
3. Different types of classification of borrowings in English.
4. The historical survey of language contacts between English and other languages. Characteristic features of borrowings from other languages. The consequences of language contacts for English. The most important source languages: Celtic, Old Scandinavian, French, Latin, Greek.
5. Etymological doublets. International words.

Основная литература:

Arnold I.V. The English Word. – М. : Высшая школа, 1986. – P. 252-261.

Зыкова И.В. Практический курс английской лексикологии = A Practical Course in English Lexicology. – М. : Академия, 2006. – С. 103-109.

Дополнительная литература:

Ginzburg R.S., Khidekel S.S., Knyazeva G.Y., Sankin A.A. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. – М. : Высшая школа, 1979. – P. 160-175.

Антрушина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н. Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Дрофа, 2001. – С. 44-56, 62-71, 276-278.

Бабич Г.Н. Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Флинта : Наука, 2008. – С. 20-32.

Лингвистический энциклопедический словарь / Гл. ред. В.Н. Ярцева. – М. : Сов. энциклопедия, 1990.

РЕКОМЕНДУЕМЫЙ ПЕРЕЧЕНЬ ПРАКТИЧЕСКИХ ЗАДАНИЙ

1.*Антрушина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н.* Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Дрофа, 2001. – С. 57-61, упр. 2-14, с. 71-77, упр. 2-14.

2.*Бабич Г.Н.* Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Флинта : Наука, 2008. – С. 32-35, упр. 4, 5, 7, 9, 11-13.

3.*Зыкова И.В.* Практический курс английской лексикологии = A Practical Course in English Lexicology. – М. : Академия, 2006. – С. 110-120, упр. 1-24.

Модуль 3. Лексическая семантика

Seminar 3: WORD MEANING. SEMANTIC FIELDS AND SENSE RELATIONS (6 ч.)

1. The most important theories of meaning:

a) the referential theory;

b) the functional theory;

c) the conceptual theory (in the Soviet tradition and in cognitive linguistics).

Why no one of the given definitions of meaning is satisfying?

2. Types of meaning: lexical vs. grammatical, denotative vs. connotative, dictionary vs. contextual, intensional vs. extensional.

What challenges can a translator have trying to render different types of meaning?

3. Syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations of words in language.

4. Sense relations from a paradigmatic perspective:

b) synonymy;

c) antonymy;

d) hyponymy;

e) partonymy.

What challenges for a translator does each type of sense relations present?

5. Semantic fields as a universal way of classifying and categorizing our knowledge of the real world: definition, units, main characteristic features.

Основная литература:

Arnold I.V. The English Word. – M. : Высшая школа, 1986. – P. 23, 31-33, 37-50, 194-206, 209-215, 226-229.

Зыкова И.В. Практический курс английской лексикологии = A Practical Course in English Lexicology. – М. : Академия, 2006. – С. 11-15, 17-20, 39-46.

Дополнительная литература:

Ginzburg R.S., Khidekel S.S., Knyazeva G.Y., Sankin A.A. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. – M. : Высшая школа, 1979. – P. 13-23, 46-47, 51-61.

Антрушина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н. Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Дрофа, 2001. – С. 129-131, 184-197, 209-210, 216-219, 280-282.

Бабич Г.Н. Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Флинта : Наука,

2008. – С. 57-61, 77-85.

Гвишиани Н.Б. Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology. – М. : Академия, 2007. – С. 19-20, 48, 101-113, 125, 137-138, 145-153.

Лингвистический энциклопедический словарь / Гл. ред. В.Н. Ярцева. – М. : Сов. энциклопедия, 1990.

Seminar 4: THE SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF THE WORD. SEMANTIC CHANGES IN LANGUAGE (4 ч.)

1. Polysemy as a means of economizing in language. The semantic structure of a polyseme.
2. Homonymy: sources of homonymy, classification of homonyms.
3. Metaphor and metonymy as cognitive mechanisms of creating new meanings.
4. Change of meaning: causes, types of semantic change (broadening and narrowing of meaning, elevation and degradation of meaning, hyperbole and litotes).

Основная литература:

Arnold I.V. The English Word. – M. : Высшая школа, 1986. – P. 50-59, 60-76, 155, 182-194.

Зыкова И.В. Практический курс английской лексикологии = A Practical Course in English Lexicology. – М. : Академия, 2006. – С. 27-34.

Дополнительная литература:

Ginzburg R.S., Khidekel S.S., Knyazeva G.Y., Sankin A.A. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. – M. : Высшая школа, 1979. – P. 28-33, 33-46.

Антрушина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н. Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Дрофа, 2001. – С. 131-142, 147-160, 166-175, 279-280.

Бабич Г.Н. Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Флинта : Наука, 2008. – С. 61-70, 74-77.

Гвишиани Н.Б. Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology. – М. : Академия, 2007. – С. 18-19, 28-29, 35, 37-38, 95, 98, 138-145.

Лингвистический энциклопедический словарь / Гл. ред. В.Н. Ярцева. – М. : Сов. энциклопедия, 1990.

РЕКОМЕНДУЕМЫЙ ПЕРЕЧЕНЬ ПРАКТИЧЕСКИХ ЗАДАНИЙ

1.*Антрушина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н.* Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Дрофа, 2001. – С. 142-146, упр. 2-9, с. 160-165, упр. 2-10.

2.*Бабич Г.Н.* Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Флинта : Наука, 2008. – С. 71-73, упр. 5, 7-11, 13, 16-19, с. 86-89, упр. 6-13.

3.*Зыкова И.В.* Практический курс английской лексикологии = A Practical Course in English Lexicology. – М. : Академия, 2006. – С. 21-25, упр. 1-7, с. 36-38, упр. 4-11, с. 47-51, упр. 1-12.

Модуль 4. Морфология и словообразование

Seminar 5: MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH WORDS. WORD FORMATION. AFFIXATION (4 ч.)

1. Morphology as a branch of linguistics. The morpheme as the smallest meaningful unit and as material for building new words.
2. Types of morphemes.
3. Allomorphs.
4. Segmentability and its degrees.
5. Methods of morphological analysis: IC and UC analysis.
6. Affixation as a principal way of word formation. The affix and the word building pattern as the main units of affixation.
7. Classification of affixes. The valency of affixes and stems.

Основная литература:

Arnold I.V. The English Word. – M. : Высшая школа, 1986. – P. 77-107.

Зыкова И.В. Практический курс английской лексикологии = A Practical Course in English Lexicology. – M. : Академия, 2006. – С. 52-57, 61-66, 71-78.

Дополнительная литература:

Ginzburg R.S., Khidekel S.S., Knyazeva G.Y., Sankin A.A. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. – M. : Высшая школа, 1979. – P. 23-25, 89-107, 114-127.

Антрушина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н. Лексикология английского языка. – M. : Дрофа, 2001. – С. 78-86.

Бабич Г.Н. Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка. – M. : Флинта : Наука, 2008. – С. 36-46.

Гвишиани Н.Б. Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology. – M. : Академия, 2007. – С. 77-81, 84-88.

Лингвистический энциклопедический словарь / Гл. ред. В.Н. Ярцева. – M. : Сов. энциклопедия, 1990.

Seminar 6: WORD FORMATION. CONVERSION, COMPOUNDING AND MINOR WAYS OF WORD FORMATION (4 ч.)

1. Conversion: its peculiarities in the English language (productivity, mechanisms, synchronic vs. diachronic approach).
2. Compounding: its peculiarities in the English language (productivity, patterns, compounding accompanied by other means of word formation, neoclassical compounds, noun + noun phrases, criteria for identifying a compound word).
3. Minor ways of word formation:

a)shortening: graphical and lexical shortening (clipping and abbreviation);

b)blending;
c)back formation;
d)sound and stress interchange.

Основная литература:

Arnold I.V. The English Word. – M. : Высшая школа, 1986. – P. 108-133, 134-152, 153-164.

Зыкова И.В. Практический курс английской лексикологии = A Practical Course in English Lexicology. – M. : Академия, 2006. – С. 70-71, 87-96.

Дополнительная литература:

Ginzburg R.S., Khidekel S.S., Knyazeva G.Y., Sankin A.A. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. – M. : Высшая школа, 1979. – P. 108-114, 127-159.

Антрушина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н. Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Дрофа, 2001. – С. 86-94, 104-120.

Бабич Г.Н. Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Флинта : Наука, 2008. – С. 46-53.

Гвишиани Н.Б. Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology. – М. : Академия, 2007. – С. 69-75.

Лингвистический энциклопедический словарь / Гл. ред. В.Н. Ярцева. – М. : Сов. энциклопедия, 1990.

РЕКОМЕНДУЕМЫЙ ПЕРЕЧЕНЬ ПРАКТИЧЕСКИХ ЗАДАНИЙ

1.*Антрушина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н.* Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Дрофа, 2001. – С. 95-103, упр. 2-13, с. 120-128, упр. 2-11.

2.*Бабич Г.Н.* Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Флинта : Наука, 2008. – С. 54-56, упр. 4, 5, 7-10, 17, 18.

3.*Зыкова И.В.* Практический курс английской лексикологии = A Practical Course in English Lexicology. – M. : Академия, 2006. – С. 58-61, упр. 1-8, с. 67-69, упр. 1-7, с. 79-87, упр. 1-20, с. 97-102, упр. 1-14.

Модуль 5. Фразеология

Seminar 7: FREE WORD COMBINATIONS AND PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS (4 ч.)

1.Free word combinations and set expressions. The meaning of a word combination. Lexical and grammatical valency.
2.The main characteristic features of phraseological units. The mechanisms of creating phraseological units.
3.Classification of phraseological units. The principles that underlie each of the classifications.
4.Challenges of translating phraseological units.
5.Proverbs, sayings and clichйs.

Основная литература:

Arnold I.V. The English Word. – M. : Высшая школа, 1986. – P. 24, 165-181, 200.

Зыкова И.В. Практический курс английской лексикологии = A Practical Course in English Lexicology. – M. : Академия, 2006. – С. 121-124, 128-136.

Дополнительная литература:

Ginzburg R.S., Khidekel S.S., Knyazeva G.Y., Sankin A.A. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. – M. : Высшая школа, 1979. – P. 64-88.

Антрушина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н. Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Дрофа, 2001. – С. 225-236, 242-251.

Бабич Г.Н. Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Флинта : Наука, 2008. – С. 90-95, 98-107.

Гвишиани Н.Б. Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology. – М. : Академия, 2007. – С. 126-129, 193-205.

Лингвистический энциклопедический словарь / Гл. ред. В.Н. Ярцева. – М. : Сов. энциклопедия, 1990.

РЕКОМЕНДУЕМЫЙ ПЕРЕЧЕНЬ ПРАКТИЧЕСКИХ ЗАДАНИЙ

1.*Антрушина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н.* Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Дрофа, 2001. – С. 237-241, упр. 2-14, с. 252-258, упр. 2-11.

2.*Бабич Г.Н.* Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Флинта : Наука, 2008. – С. 95-97, упр. 8-12, с. 108-110, упр. 6-10.

3.*Зыкова И.В.* Практический курс английской лексикологии = A Practical Course in English Lexicology. – М. : Академия, 2006. – С. 125-128, упр. 1-8, с. 137-144, упр. 1-13.

Модуль 6. Дифференциация лексики
Seminar 8: THE SUBSYSTEMS OF THE ENGLISH LEXICON (2 ч.)

1. Stylistic differentiation of vocabulary: the formal register, the informal register, the neutral layer. The role of each stratum for communication.
2. The structure of the formal stratum: learned words, terminology, the language of official documents, poetic diction.
3. The structure of the informal stratum: colloquial words, slang, jargon, argot.
4. Euphemisms and political correctness. The mechanisms of euphemisation. Political correctness as a controversial issue.
5. Classification of lexical items from the age perspective: archaic words vs. historical words, neologisms vs. nonce-words.
6. Ways to preserve the stylistic colouring in different types of discourse.

Основная литература:

Arnold I.V. The English Word. – M. : Высшая школа, 1986. – P. 75, 207, 216-221, 240-251.

Дополнительная литература:

Ginzburg R.S., Khidekel S.S., Knyazeva G.Y., Sankin A.A. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. – M.

: Высшая школа, 1979. – P. 178-179, 180-183, 193-194.

Антрушина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н. Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Дрофа, 2001. – С. 12-21, 27-38.

Бабич Г.Н. Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Флинта : Наука, 2008. – С. 111-128.

Гвишиани Н.Б. Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology. – М. : Академия, 2007. – С. 20-21, 30-36, 41-60, 79-83.

Лингвистический энциклопедический словарь / Гл. ред. В.Н. Ярцева. – М. : Сов. энциклопедия, 1990.

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1.*Антрушина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н.* Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Дрофа, 2001. – С. 22-26, упр. 2-5, с. 39-43, упр. 2-5.

2.*Бабич Г.Н.* Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Флинта : Наука, 2008. – С. 129-132, упр. 12-20.

Seminar 9: DIALECTOLOGY (2 ч.)

1. Dialectology as a branch of linguistics. Geographical and social differentiation of vocabulary. Standard language, variant, dialect.
2. The variants of English on the British Isles: their specific features.
3. The dialects of British English: dialectal words.
4. The variants of English across the globe: American, Canadian, Australian, New Zealand, Indian.
5. The dialects of American English. African American Vernacular English (AAVE).

Основная литература:

Arnold I.V. The English Word. – M. : Высшая школа, 1986. – P. 262-271.

Зыкова И.В. Практический курс английской лексикологии = A Practical Course in English Lexicology. – М. : Академия, 2006. – С. 145-165.

Дополнительная литература:

Ginzburg R.S., Khidekel S.S., Knyazeva G.Y., Sankin A.A. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. – M. : Высшая школа, 1979. – P. 200-209.

Антрушина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н. Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Дрофа, 2001. – С. 259-266.

Бабич Г.Н. Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Флинта : Наука, 2008. – С. 145-160, 163-172.

Гвишиани Н.Б. Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology. – М. : Академия, 2007. – С. 23-30.

Лингвистический энциклопедический словарь / Гл. ред. В.Н. Ярцева. – М. : Сов. энциклопедия, 1990.

РЕКОМЕНДУЕМЫЙ ПЕРЕЧЕНЬ ПРАКТИЧЕСКИХ ЗАДАНИЙ

1.*Антрушина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н.* Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Дрофа, 2001. – С. 267-275, упр. 2-19.

2.*Бабич Г.Н.* Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Флинта : Наука, 2008. – С. 161-162, упр. 4-7, с. 173, упр. 4-6.

3.*Зыкова И.В.* Практический курс английской лексикологии = A Practical Course in English Lexicology. – М. : Академия, 2006. – С. 166-186, упр. 1-25.

Модуль 7. Лексикография
Seminar 10: LEXICOGRAPHY (2 ч.)

1.The history of dictionary making.
2.Main problems of dictionary compiling.
3.Classification of dictionaries.
4.Analyze different types of dictionaries in terms of their structure, range of data, type of information given.
5.Modern trends in English lexicography. Electronic dictionaries and how to use them.

Основная литература:

Arnold I.V. The English Word. – М. : Высшая школа, 1986. – P. 272-285.

Зыкова И.В. Практический курс английской лексикологии = A Practical Course in English Lexicology. – М. : Академия, 2006. – С. 187-200.

Дополнительная литература:

Ginzburg R.S., Khidekel S.S., Knyazeva G.Y., Sankin A.A. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. – М. : Высшая школа, 1979. – P. 210-233.

Бабич Г.Н. Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Флинта : Наука, 2008. – С. 133-140.

Гвишиани Н.Б. Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology. – М. : Академия, 2007. – С. 157-168, 176-179.

Лингвистический энциклопедический словарь / Гл. ред. В.Н. Ярцева. – М. : Сов. энциклопедия, 1990.

РЕКОМЕНДУЕМЫЙ ПЕРЕЧЕНЬ ПРАКТИЧЕСКИХ ЗАДАНИЙ

1.*Бабич Г.Н.* Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка. – М. : Флинта : Наука, 2008. – С. 140-144, упр. 3-5, 7-9.

2.*Зыкова И.В.* Практический курс английской лексикологии = A Practical Course in English Lexicology. – М. : Академия, 2006. – С. 202-216, упр. 1-11.

ПРИМЕРНАЯ ТЕМАТИКА КУРСОВЫХ РАБОТ

1. Деривационный потенциал заимствованных слов.
2. Заимствованная лексика и особенности ее функционирования в публицистическом тексте.
3. Зоометафора в английском и русском языках: контрастивный анализ.

4. Когнитивные аспекты семантики метафорических инноваций.
5. Когнитивные методы исследования семантической структуры слова.
6. Кросс-культурные и кросс-лингвистические различия в ситуациях повседневного общения (на материале английского и русского языков).
7. Культурный опыт как фактор заимствований в английском языке.
8. Лексическая валентность слова как проявление языковой картины мира.
9. Мотивация слова в английском и русском языках как отражение языковой и культурной картин мира (сопоставительный анализ).
10. Национально-культурная специфика английских фразеологизмов.
11. Неологические тенденции в образовании сленгизмов и коллоквиализмов в английском языке.
12. Образный строй пословицы как отражение культурной картины мира народа.
13. Основные механизмы создания фразеологических оборотов в английском языке.
14. Основные проблемы создания электронных словарей и способы их разрешения.
15. Особенности использования английского языка за пределами Великобритании.
16. Особенности номинации в названиях английских товаров.
17. Особенности употребления эвфемизмов в политической рекламе.
18. Особенности функционирования скандинавских заимствований в английском языке.
19. Причины нейтрализации метафоры в переводе.
20. Политкорректность как фактор языковой картины мира.
21. Прагматические аспекты изучения английского интернет-сленга.
22. Проблема выделения доминанты синонимического ряда.
23. Проблема выделения когнитивных составляющих многозначного слова.
24. Реализация периферийных сем во фразеологических оборотах.
25. Синонимия афоризмов и пословиц в английском языке.
26. Сленг как отражение культурных особенностей отдельной социальной группы.
27. Словообразовательные модели неологизмов в современном английском языке.
28. Современные лингвострановедческие реалии в английском языке.
29. Социолингвистические особенности электронной речи.
30. Способы смягчения негативной коннотации.

ПРИМЕРНАЯ ТЕМАТИКА КОНТРОЛЬНЫХ ЗАДАНИЙ

К модулю 1. Слово как объект лексикологии

1. What does lexicology deal with? Define the object of lexicology.
2. What are the branches of lexicology? Discuss the difference between diachronic and synchronic, comparative and contrastive lexicological studies.
3. In what relation do words and morphemes stand to each other in the hierarchy of linguistic units?
4. What does the term «word» denote? Give a brief account of the main characteristics of the word as the main

unit of language.

5. What is understood by the semantic unity of a word? Which of the following possesses semantic unity – *a bluebell* (R. *колокольчик*) or *a blue bell* (R. *синий бубенчик*). Explain.
6. Group the italicized words according to their type of motivation: a) words phonetically motivated; b) words morphologically motivated; c) words semantically motivated.
7. Define the type of nomination process taken place in the following words: a) direct nomination; b) indirect / secondary nomination.

К модулю 2. Этимология

1. Subdivide the following words of native origin into: a) those of Indo-European origin; b) those of Common Germanic origin; c) English words proper.
2. State whether the italicized words were borrowed into English directly or indirectly, i.e. through another language. Define the source and origin of the given borrowed words.

   ***Model**: obelisk* < L obeliscus < Gr obelískos

   The word *obelisk* was borrowed into the English language indirectly, i.e. through another language. The source of borrowing is Latin, whereas the origin of borrowing is Greek.
3. State the etymology of the following words. In case of difficulty consult a dictionary.
4. Classify the given words into three columns: a) completely assimilated borrowings; b) partially assimilated borrowings; c) unassimilated borrowings or barbarisms.
5. Compare the meaning of the following pairs of etymological doublets and define the origin.
6. Give the false cognates (= false friends) in the Russian language to the given English words. State the difference in their meanings.

   ***Model**: argument*

   The false cognate of the word *argument* is the Russian word *аргумент*. The word *argument* means "an angry disagreement between people", whereas the word *аргумент* has the meaning "reasoning".

К модулю 3. Лексическая семантика

31. Group the following words into three columns in accordance with the sameness of their 1) grammatical; 2) lexical; 3) part-of speech meaning.
32. Identify the denotative and connotative elements of lexical meaning in the given words. Analyze the similarity and difference between the components of connotative meaning in each pair of words.
33. Find in the following list of words synonymic series and classify them in to three groups: a) ideographic synonyms; b) stylistic synonyms; c) ideographic-stylistic synonyms.
34. Classify antonymous pairs into contradictories, contraries and incompatibles.
35. Organize the given words in accordance with their hyponymic relations. Enumerate the general terms (hyperonyms).
36. Classify the following words and word-combinations into lexico-semantic groups (1) and semantic fields (2) under the headings … (e.g. "*education*" and "*feeling*").
37. Read the sentences in which the polysemantic word … (e.g. *simple*) is used. Give all the lexico-semantic variants

constituting the semantic structure of this word. Check yourself by a dictionary. Translate the sentences into Russian.

38. Classify the given words into: 1) homonyms proper; 2) homophones; 3) homographs. Give meanings of these words.
39. Define the kind of association (metaphor or metonymy) involved in the semantic change.
40. What semantic processes have taken place in the following words in the course of the development? Write after each word its original meaning as given in the dictionary.

К модулю 4. Морфология и словообразование

1. Divide the following words into parts putting a slant line (/) at the point of division. Explain how the parts produce the total meaning.
2. Segment the following words into morphemes. Define (a) the semantic types and (b) the structural types of morphemes constituting the given words.

   ***Model**: aimless*

   The word *aimless* can be segmented into two morphemes: *aim-* + *-less*.

   a)semantically *aim-* is a root morpheme; *-less* is an affix.

   b)structurally *aim-* is a free morpheme; *-less* is a bound morpheme.
3. Analyze the following words from the point of view of their ICs and UCs applying an affix or a root principle.

   ***Model**: uncommonly*

   The morphemic analysis of the word *uncommonly* is based on the application of the affix principle and includes the following stages:

   1)uncommon- (IC) + -ly (*strange**ly***, *sad**ly***) (IC / UC);

   2)un- (***un**safe*, ***un**clean*) (IC /UC) + -common (IC / UC).

   The word consists of 3 UCs.
4. What prefixes would be used with the following words to make them negative?
5. Explain the difference between the meanings of the following words produced from the same root by means of different suffixes. Translate the words into Russian.
6. Define the part of speech of the italicized words. State what parts of speech they are derived from by conversion. Translate the sentences into Russian.

   ***Model**: Still water of the lake **mirrors** the trees.*

   The word *mirror* is a verb which is derived from the noun *mirror* by means of conversion. *Неподвижная гладь озера отражает деревья*.
7. State the difference in meaning of the given compounds possessing different distributional patterns. Find examples of your own.

   ***Model**: finger-ring – ring-finger*

   The compound word *finger-ring* denotes “a ring which is worn on a finger”, whereas the compound word *ring-finger* means “the finger next to the little finger, especially of the left hand, on which the wedding ring is worn”. The different order and arrangement of the same ICs (i.e. different distributional patterns) signal the

difference in meaning.

8.Give structural formulas of the following words. Classify the words into: 1) suffixal derivatives; 2) prefixal derivatives; 3) conversions; 4) compound words.

***Model**: blackness, table-cloth*

The structural formula of the word *blackness* is **a** + **-sf** → **N**. The given word is a suffixal derivative. The structural formula of the word *table-cloth* is **n** + **n** → **N**. *Table-cloth* is a compound word.

9.In accordance with the part that is cut off to form a new word classify cases of shortening into four groups: 1) initial shortenings (aphesis); 2) medial shortenings (syncope); 3) final shortenings (apocope); 4) both initial and final shortenings.

10.Determine the original components of the following blends. Define which type (additive or restrictive) the blends belong to.

11.From the sentences given below write out the words built up by back-formation. Give the original words from which they are formed.

***Model**: They commentate on live Monday matches.*

The word *commentate* (v) is formed by means of back-derivation. The word from which it was formed is *commentator* (n).

12.Group the words formed by sound-interchange into: 1) those formed by vowel-interchange or ablaut (& suffixation); 2) those formed by consonant-interchange; 3) those formed by combining both means, i.e. vowel- and consonant-interchange.

К модулю 5. Фразеология

1.Explain the meanings of the following combinations of words a) as free word combinations and b) as phraseological units.

2.Using the data of various dictionaries compare the grammatical valency of the following words (e.g.: *worth* and *worthy*, *observance* and *observation*).

3.Here are some English words. Give words of the same root in Russian. Compare their valency.

***E.g.**: situation, surprise, …*

4.From the lexemes in brackets choose the correct one to go with each of the synonyms given below.

***E.g.**: acute, keen, sharp* (*knife*, *mind*, *sight*)

5.Adduce examples of illustrative phraseology following the pattern.

***E.g.**: to breed an animal* (*horses*, *cows*, *pigs*, *geese*, *foxes*, *crocodiles* etc.)

to keep domestic animals (*cats*, *dogs*, *horses*, *a cow* etc.)

6.State the type of transference on which the meaning of the given phraseological units is based.

7.Classify the italicized phraseological units into: 1) phraseological fusions; 2) phraseological unities; 3) phraseological combinations. Contexts will help you to understand the meaning of phraseological units. In case of difficulty consult a dictionary.

8.Here are some phrases which include the adjective … (e.g. *green*).

Which of them are idiomatic and how can they be paraphrased by using free word combinations? Consider

their Russian equivalents in terms of degrees of idiomaticity.

9.Come up with the remainder of the proverb for the first half of it. Give its Russian equivalent.

***E.g.**: Don't bite the hand that …… .*

К модулю 6. Дифференциация лексики

1.With the help of a dictionary define the stylistic value of each of the following words (neutral, formal, colloquial, slang etc.).

2.The italicized words and word-groups in the following extract(s) belong to formal style. Classify them into three groups: a) learned words; b) terms or c) archaisms. Look up unfamiliar words in the dictionary.

3.The vocabulary of any scientific text may be classified into three main groups: 1. words of general language; 2. words belonging to scientific prose as a genre; 3. terms (specific for that concrete branch of science). *Analyse the given text from this point of view.*

4.The italicized words and word-groups in the following extract(s) are informal. Write them out in two columns: a) slang or b) colloquial. Look up any words you do not know in the dictionary.

5.Explain the meaning and the origin of the following neologisms and state which of them have already come into everyday speech.

6.Match the italicized Scottish English words from the sentences with the corresponding Standard English words given in the box.

***Model**:* She devoted her *anam* to helping others.

The corresponding Standard English word to the Scottish English word *anam* is *life*:

She devoted her *life* to helping others.

7.Replace the italicized Irish words with Standard English words from the box.

***Model**:* Will you sit on the *tolg*, please, and wait for Peter coming.

The Irish word *tolg* can be replaced by the Standard English word *sofa*: Will you sit on the *sofa*, please, and wait for Peter coming.

8.Here are the examples of Cockney rhyming slang. Match the words given in the left column with the phrases given in the right column.

***Model**: cousin – baker's dozen*

9.Give the British equivalents for the following Americanisms.

10.Explain the difference(s) in the meanings of the following words in American and British English.

11.Translate the following words giving both the British and American variant.

12.Match the Indian English word with its British English equivalent.

13.Distribute the words from the given series into three groups: a) words used in American English; b) words used in British English; c) words used in Australian English.

14.Study the meanings of the given words. State which of these words are used in Canadian English (1), Australian English (2), New Zealand English (3), South African English (4), Indian English (5). In case of difficulty consult a dictionary.

15.African American Vernacular English (AAVE). Look up the origin and meaning of the following words.

***E.g.**: tote*, *sambo*, *TVbonics*, *yam*, *backlash*, …

К модулю 7. Лексикография

1.Classify the given dictionaries into two groups: a) encyclopedic dictionaries; b) linguistic dictionaries.

2.State which type the given linguistic dictionaries refer to: general – restricted, explanatory – specialized, monolingual – bilingual, diachronic – synchronic.

***Model**: The Longman Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs*

The Longman Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs is a restricted, explanatory, monolingual, synchronic word-book.

3.Choose any three dictionaries and describe the principles of the selection of lexical units for inclusion in these dictionaries.

4.State the mode of presentation of entries in the following dictionaries. What information is given in the subentries and run-ons of these dictionaries?

***E.g.**: The Longman Language Activator (1993), The New Oxford Dictionary of English (1998), The Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2003), …*

5.Study the interface screenshots of the *Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary* and the *Merriam-Webster Online Thesaurus*. Speak on the main peculiarities of these electronic dictionaries of the Internet paying special attention to:

a)their structure and content;

b)access and search systems;

c)information given for each entry;

d)their reference systems.

ИТОГОВЫЙ ТЕСТ

1.Lexicology is the branch of linguistics dealing with … .

2.Lexicology has close ties with … .

3.The synchronic approach to the study of language material is concerned with … .

4.The diachronic approach to the study of language material deals with … .

5.Which of the scholars listed below gave this definition to the word?

***E.g.**:* "The word is one of the smallest completely satisfying bits of isolated 'meaning', into which the sentence resolves itself".

6.Which of the following features *does not* characterize the word as the basic unit of language?

7.Group the words below into three types: a) those with phonetic motivation; b) those with morphological motivation; c) those with semantic motivation.

8.Which meaning of the polysemantic word … (e.g. *barbaric*) is its primary meaning …?

a)… (*very cruel and violent*)

b)… (*primitive; unsophisticated*)

c)… (*uncivilized and uncultured*)

d)… (*foreign*)

9. The author of the following definition is an advocate of

a) the referential theory of meaning;

b) the functional theory of meaning;

c) the conceptual theory of meaning.

E.g.: "Words mean the thing they make us think of, the meaning of a word is the tie that connects it with that thing".

10. Which of these words have no connotative meaning?

11. Identify the type(s) of connotation which predominates in each sentence.

12. What is the secondary meaning of each italicized word based on: a) metaphor or b) metonymy?

13. The result of semantic change in the word … (e.g. *sport*) that meant … ("*pastime, entertainment*") and now denotes … ("*an activity involving physical exertion and skill in which an individual or team competes against another or others for entertainment*") is …

a)the degradation of meaning

b)the narrowing of meaning

c)the elevation of meaning

d)the broadening of meaning

14. Write a homonym next to each word.

15. The words … (e.g. *heir – air*) refer to … .

a)homographs

b)homonyms proper

c)homophones

16. In the sentence … (e.g. "*My auntie (uncle / cousin) has brought (purchased / hired) a red (green / black) automobile (car / Ford)*") the possible substitutions of the words that compose it are indicative of the … relations between words.

a)syntagmatic

b)paradigmatic

17. The synonyms … (e.g. *teenager – "someone who is between 13 and 19 years old"*) and … (e.g. *youth – "a young man between about 15 and 25 years old used especially about groups of young men who behave badly or do something illegal"*) refer to … .

a)stylistic synonyms

b)ideographic synonyms

c)ideographic-stylistic synonyms

18. The antonyms … (e.g. *happy – sad*) refer to … .

a)contraries

b)contradictories

c)incompatibles

19. Are the prefixes in the following words … ?

a)allomorphs

b)the same morpheme

c)homonyms

20. The suffix … (e.g. *–ity*) found in the words … (*oddity, purity, stupidity*) is a … .

a)denominal suffix

b)deverbal suffix

c)noun-forming suffix

21. Identify the way of word formation in the following words … .

a)abbreviation

b)conversion

c)affixation

d)compounding

e)clipping

f)back formation

g)blending

h)sound interchange

22. The origin source of borrowing of the word … (e.g. *carat – "a unit of weight for precious stones and pearls; a measure of the purity of gold"*) (< French < Italian *carato* < Arabic *kīrāt* < Greek *keration*) are … .

a)… (*French and Greek*)

b)… (*Greek and French*)

c)… (*Arabic and Greek*)

23. Classify the following words into three groups:

a)fully assimilated borrowings;

b)partially assimilated borrowings;

c)unassimilated borrowings or barbarisms.

24. Group the following phraseological units into types according to A.V. Kunin's classification.

25. The phraseological unit ... (e.g. *to get one's claws into smb.*) meaning ("*to find a way of influencing or controlling someone*") is a ... .

a)phraseological fusion

b)phraseological combination

c)phraseological unity

26. Which of the following words are Americanisms?

27. The Scottish English word … (e.g. *leid*) used in the sentence … ("*Linguistics is the study of leid and how people use it*") means … .

a)… (*speech*)

b)… (*language*)

c)… (*syntax*)

28.The Irish English word … (e.g. *to cog*) used in the sentence … ("*I wouldn't let just anybody cog my exercise*") denotes … .

a)… (*to do*)

b)… (*to translate*)

c)... (*to cheat, especially by coping*)

29.… (e.g. *The Oxford Companion to Twentieth-Century Poetry*) is a(n) … .

a)linguistic dictionary

b)encyclopedic dictionary

30.… (e.g. *The English-Russian Dictionary of Synonyms*) is … .

a)… (*general, specialized, bilingual, diachronic*)

b)… (*restricted, explanatory, monolingual, synchronic*)

c)… (*restricted, explanatory, bilingual, synchronic*)

ВОПРОСЫ К ЭКЗАМЕНУ

1.Lexicology as a branch of linguistics. Types of lexicology. The connection of lexicology with other branches of linguistics.

2.The word and its properties. The main approaches connected with the problem of the word as the main language unit.

3.The word as an arbitrary and motivated sign. Naming. Types of motivation. Motivation in compound words and phrases.

4.The problem of linguistic meaning. Types of linguistic meaning.

5.Main approaches to the definition of meaning.

6.Syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships of words. Sense relations. Hyponymic relations. Cultural differences in language classifications.

7.The problem of synonymy. Classifications of synonyms.

8.Antonymy. Types of antonyms.

9.Different ways of grouping words in language. Semantic fields as a universal way of organizing vocabulary. Cultural differences in language classifications.

10. Polysemy and homonymy. The structure of a polysemantic word. Polysemy and translation equivalency.

11. Classifications of homonyms. Sources of homonymy.

12. Metaphor and metonymy as mechanisms of creating new meanings.

13. Development of lexical meaning. Causes and types of semantic change.

14. The etymological composition of the English lexicon. Native and borrowed words in English. Characteristics of native words.

15. Borrowings and their classifications. Causes and ways of borrowings. The source language and the language of origin.

16. Borrowings in the English language: the main source languages.

17. Etymological doublets, international words, false friends of the interpreter.
18. The morphemic structure of the word. Types of morphemes. Allomorphs.
19. Morphemic level of analysis of word-structure. The IC and the UC analysis.
20. Affixation as a means of word formation.
21. The problem of conversion. The synchronic and diachronic view of conversion.
22. Compounding as a way of word formation. Classifications of compound words.
23. Criteria of identifying a compound. The "stone wall" problem.
24. Minor ways of word formation.
25. Lexical and grammatical valency of words. Collocations.
26. Syntagmatic relations on the semantic level. Types of context. The role of lexical context in translation.
27. Free word combinations. Word combinations vs. idioms.
28. Idioms: their characteristic features. Classifications of idioms.
29. Stylistic stratification of the English vocabulary. Literary and non-literary strata.
30. Archaic words and neologisms.
31. Slang, jargon and euphemisms as subsystems of language.
32. Variant vs. dialect. Main variants of Modern English. English in different parts of the world.
33. American English: reasons for lexical differences between British and American English. Americanisms.
34. Variant vs. dialect. Geographical and social dialects in the British Isles.
35. Variant vs. dialect. Geographical and social dialects in the USA.
36. Lexicography. The main types of dictionaries.
37. The main problems of dictionary compiling.
38. Main methods of lexicological research.

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Билет № 1
Отделение «Перевод и переводоведение»
3 курс

Вопросы:

1. Lexicology as a branch of linguistics. Types of lexicology. The connection of lexicology with other branches of linguistics.

2. Minor ways of word-formation.

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Билет № 2
Отделение «Перевод и переводоведение»
3 курс

Вопросы:

1. Free word combinations. Word combinations vs. idioms.

2. Variant vs. dialect. Main variants of Modern English. English in different parts of the world.

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Билет № 3

Отделение «Перевод и переводоведение»
3 курс

Вопросы:

1. Main methods of lexicological research.

2. Metaphor and metonymy as mechanisms for creating new meanings.

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Билет №
4
Отделение «Перевод и переводоведение»
3 курс

Вопросы:

1. The etymological composition of the English lexicon. Native and borrowed words in English. Characteristics of native words.

2. The word as an arbitrary and motivated sign. Naming. Types of motivation. Motivation in compound words and phrases.

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Билет №

5
Отделение «Перевод и переводоведение»
3 курс

Вопросы:

1. Borrowings and their classification. Causes and ways of borrowings. The source language and the language of origin.

2. The morphemic structure of the word. Types of morphemes. Allomorphs.

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Билет №

6
Отделение «Перевод и переводоведение»
3 курс

Вопросы:

1. Development of lexical meaning. Causes and types of semantic change.

2. Borrowings in the English language: the main source languages.

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7
Отделение «Перевод и переводоведение»
3 курс

Вопросы:

1. Antonymy. Types of antonyms.

2. Lexicography. The main types of dictionaries.

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8
Отделение «Перевод и переводоведение»
3 курс

Вопросы:

1. Lexical and grammatical valency of words. Collocations.

2. Variant vs. dialects. Geographical and social dialects in the British Isles.

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9
Отделение «Перевод и переводоведение»
3 курс

Вопросы:

1. Main approaches to the definition of meaning.

2. Affixation as a means of word-formation.

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10
Отделение «Перевод и переводоведение»
3 курс

Вопросы:

1. The problem of conversion. The synchronic and diachronic view of conversion.

2. The word and its properties. The main approaches connected with the problem of the word as the main language unit.

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11
Отделение «Перевод и переводоведение»
3 курс

Вопросы:

1. The problem of linguistic meaning. Types of linguistic meaning.

2. Polysemy and homonymy. The structure of a polysemantic word. Polysemy and translation equivalency.

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12
Отделение «Перевод и переводоведение»
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Вопросы:

1. Different ways of grouping words in language. Semantic fields as a universal way of organizing vocabulary. Cultural differences in language classifications.

2. Compounding as a way of word-formation. Classification of compound words.

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13
Отделение «Перевод и переводоведение»
3 курс

Вопросы:

1. Classification of homonyms. Sources of homonymy.

2. Stylistic stratification of the English vocabulary. Literary and non-literary strata.

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14
Отделение «Перевод и переводоведение»
3 курс

Вопросы:

1. Syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships of words. Sense relations. Hyponymic relations.

2. American English: reasons for lexical differences between British and American English. Americanisms.

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15
Отделение «Перевод и переводоведение»
3 курс

Вопросы:

1. The problem of synonymy. Classification of synonyms.

2. Archaic words and neologisms.

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университет имени С.А. Есенина»

Дисциплина
Лексикология английского языка
Билет №

16
Отделение «Перевод и

переводоведение»
3 курс

Вопросы:

1. Morphemic level of analysis of word-structure. The IC and the UC analysis.

2. Idioms: their characteristic features. Classifications of idioms.

June 2009 *Зав.каф. лингвистики и МК* ***Е.Л. Марьяновская***

Федеральное агентство
по образованию

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17
Отделение «Перевод и переводоведение»
3 курс

Вопросы:

1. Syntagmatic relations on the semantic level. Types of context. The role of lexical context in translation.

2. Variant vs. dialects. Geographical and social dialects in the USA.

June 2009 *Зав.каф. лингвистики и МК* ***Е.Л. Марьяновская***

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Билет №

18
Отделение «Перевод и переводоведение»
3 курс

Вопросы:

1. Criteria of identifying a compound. The “stone wall” problem.

2. Etymological doublets, international words, false friends of the interpreter.

June 2009 *Зав.каф. лингвистики и МК* ***Е.Л. Марьяновская***

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Билет №

19
Отделение «Перевод и переводоведение»
3 курс

Вопросы:

1. Slang, jargon and euphemisms as subsystems of language.

2. The main problems of dictionary compiling.

June 2009 *Зав.каф. лингвистики и МК* ***Е.Л. Марьяновская***

КРИТЕРИИ ОЦЕНОК ЗНАНИЙ СТУДЕНТОВ

По окончании курса студент должен обладать знаниями о системном характере языка, владеть основным фактологическим материалом, а также базовыми методами языкового анализа, предусмотренными программой.

Оценка *«отлично»* ставится, если студент верно излагает суть лексикологического явления, может определить его место и роль в системе языка, демонстрирует проблемный аспект этого явления.

В плане практических умений студент должен продемонстрировать владение основными методами лингвистического анализа, предусмотренными программой, а именно: выполнить практическое задание и на его основе объяснить цель методики, конкретные операции и инструментарий (понятийный аппарат и систему обозначений), а также уметь оценить конкретную методику в плане ее соответствия тому или иному материалу. При необходимости студент должен ответить на дополнительные вопросы в рамках тематики, предусмотренной экзаменационным билетом.

Оценка *«хорошо»* ставится, если допускаются некоторые неточности в трактовке явления, не искажающие сути и терминологии излагаемого вопроса, и если студент не может самостоятельно привести пример для иллюстрации излагаемого материала, но верно комментирует пример преподавателя и дает пример по аналогии.

Оценка *«удовлетворительно»* ставится, когда допускаются значительные недостатки в трактовке явления: односторонняя его трактовка, упущение или неверное изложение важных характеристик этого явления, влияющих на понимание его сути.

Оценка *«неудовлетворительно»* ставится, если студент не отражает или искажает суть излагаемого явления, если студент неверно отвечает на дополнительные вопросы по тематике, заявленной в экзаменационном билете, не владеет методами анализа, предусмотренными программой.

МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЕ РЕКОМЕНДАЦИИ ПРЕПОДАВАТЕЛЮ

Изучив глубоко содержание учебной дисциплины, целесообразно разработать матрицу

наиболее предпочтительных методов обучения и форм самостоятельной работы студентов, адекватных видам лекционных и семинарских занятий.

Пакет заданий для самостоятельной работы следует выдавать в начале семестра, определив окончательные сроки их выполнения и сдачи. Организуя самостоятельную работу, необходимо постоянно обучать студентов методам такой работы.

Вузовская лекция – главное звено дидактического цикла обучения. Ее цель – формирование у студентов ориентировочной основы для последующего усвоения материала методом самостоятельной работы.

При возникновении трудностей в процессе выполнения самостоятельной работы, в том числе в ходе подготовки к семинарским занятиям ведущий преподаватель должен предоставить студентам индивидуальные или групповые консультации.

Семинар проводится по узловым и наиболее сложным вопросам учебной программы. Главная и определяющая особенность любого семинара – наличие элементов дискуссии, проблемности, диалога между преподавателем и студентами и самими студентами. В конце семинара рекомендуется дать оценку всего семинарского занятия.

При проведении аттестации студентов важно всегда помнить, что систематичность, объективность, аргументированность – главные принципы, на которых основаны контроль и оценка знаний студентов. Проверка, контроль и оценка знаний студентов требуют учета его индивидуального стиля в осуществлении учебной деятельности. Знание критериев оценки обязательно для преподавателя и студента.

РЕКОМЕНДАЦИИ ПО ОРГАНИЗАЦИИ САМОСТОЯТЕЛЬНОЙ РАБОТЫ СТУДЕНТОВ

Ознакомившись с содержанием курса «Лексикология английского языка» на лекционных занятиях, студентам рекомендуется продолжить усвоение материала методом самостоятельной работы, основными формами которой являются следующие виды деятельности:

1. выполнение практических заданий;
2. написание докладов или рефератов (с последующим их обсуждением в семинарской группе);
3. получение опыта публичных выступлений: например, подготовка презентаций (на 7-10 мин.) по темам, вынесенным на самостоятельное изучение (с использованием мультимедийных средств);
4. самостоятельная работа с научной литературой, а также различными словарями (толковыми, этимологическими, тезаурусами и т.д.).

Средства обеспечения усвоения дисциплины:

- учебники, справочники, словари;
- нетехнические вспомогательные средства: центральные периодические издания, местные научные сборники, раздаточный материал, тесты;
- материально-техническое обеспечение дисциплины: специально оборудованные аудитории, демонстрационное оборудование (экран и (мультимедийный) проектор), читальный зал и научный отдел библиотеки РГУ.

РЕКОМЕНДУЕМАЯ ЛИТЕРАТУРА

а) **основная**:

1. *Арнольд И.В.* Лексикология современного английского языка: Учеб. для ин-тов и фак. иностр. яз. – 3-е изд., перераб. и доп. – М.: Высш. шк., 1986. – 295 с., ил. – На англ. яз.

2. *Зыкова И.В.* Практический курс английской лексикологии = A Practical Course in English Lexicology: Учеб. пособие для студ. лингв. вузов и фак. ин. языков / Ирина Владимировна Зыкова. – М.: Издательский центр «Академия», 2006. – 288 с.

б) **дополнительная**:

1. *Антрушина Г.Б., Афанасьева О.В., Морозова Н.Н.* Лексикология английского языка: Учеб. пособие для студентов. – 3-е изд., стереотип. – М.: Дрофа, 2001. – 288 с.

2. *Бабич Г.Н.* Lexicology: A Current Guide. Лексикология английского языка : учеб. пособие / Г.Н. Бабич. – 3-е изд., испр. – М. : Флинта : Наука, 2008. – 200 с.

3. *Гвишиани Н.Б.* Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology : учеб. пособие для студ. филол. фак. высш. учеб. заведений / Н.Б. Гвишиани – М. : Издательский центр «Академия», 2007. – 224 с.

4. *Заботкина В.И.* Новая лексика в английском языке. – М., 1987.

5. *Кубрякова Е.С.* Типы языковых значений. Семантика производного слова. – М., 1981.

6. *Кубрякова Е.С.* Номинативный аспект речевой деятельности. – М., 1986.

7. *Кунин А.В.* Курс фразеологии современного английского языка: Учебник для институтов и факультетов иностранных языков. – 2-е изд., перераб. – М., Дубна, 1996.

8. *Лингвистический энциклопедический словарь* / Гл. ред. В.Н. Ярцева. – М. : Сов. энциклопедия, 1990.

9. *Расторгуева Т.А.* История английского языка: Учебник. – М., 2001. – на англ. яз.

10. *Ступин Л.П.* Словари современного английского языка. – Л., 1984.

11. *Хидекель С.С., Гинзбург Р.С., Князева Г.Ю., Санкин А.А.* Английская лексикология в выдержках и извлечениях. – 2-е изд. – Л., 1975.

12. *Швейцер А.Д.* Литературный английский язык в США и Англии. – 2-е изд., стереотипное. – М., 2003.

13. *Ginzburg R.S., Khidekel S.S., Knyazeva G.Y., Sankin A.A.* A Course in Modern English Lexicology = Лексикология английского языка: Учебник для ин-тов и фак. иностр. яз. – М.: Высшая школа, 1979.

14. *Mednikova E.M.* Seminars in English Lexicology = Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. Учеб. пособие для ин-тов и фак. иностр. яз. – М. : Высшая школа, 1978.

Интернет-сайты:

1. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Main_Page – общая энциклопедия со свободным доступом и возможностью поиска необходимой информации на разных языках.
2. http://www.bartleby.com/reference/ – обширный набор англоязычных энциклопедий, в том числе отличная коллекция художественной и справочной литературы на английском языке.
3. http://online.multilex.ru/ – электронные онлайн-словари – 7 языковых коллекций: английская, немецкая, французская, итальянская, испанская, португальская, узбекская.
4. http://www.thesaurus.com: Тезаурус Роже – известный источник в электронной форме. В ответ на вводимый англоязычный термин выдает перечень слов, связанных с ним по смыслу. Серьезный ресурс для профессиональных лингвистов и переводчиков.
5. http://www.lingvoda.ru: Советы лингвисту – специализированный интернет-ресурс для переводчиков, лингвистов и лексикографов. Осуществляется поддержка лексикографов, создающих

электронные словари (техническими средствами, экспертизой и др.).