

Գայանե Սուրենի Գիրունյան
Gayane Girunyan

English Lexicology

(Theoretical Course)

ԱՆԳԼԵՐԵՆԻ ԲԱՌԱԳԻՏՈՒԹՅԱՆ
ՀԻՄՈՒՆՔՆԵՐ
(ՏԵՍԱԿԱՆ ԴԱՍԸՆԹԱՑ)

Հաստատված է ՀՀ կրթության և գիտության
նախարարության կողմից որպես դասագիրք
բուհերի ռոմանագերմանական
ֆակուլտետների ուսանողների համար

ԵՐԵՎԱՆ
Հեղինակային հրատարակություն
2009

ՀՏԴ 802.0 (07)
ԳՄԴ 81.2 Անգլ g7
Գ 617

Գրախոսներ՝

պրոֆեսոր Ե.Ս.Մխիթարյան
դոցենտ Ա.Է.Չուբարյան

Երևանի ռուս-հայկական (սլավոնական)
համալսարանի լեզվի տեսության և
միջմշակութային հաղորդակցության ամբիոն

ՀՊՄՀ անգլերեն լեզվի և նրա դասավանդման
մեթոդիկայի ամբիոն

Գ 617

Գիրունյան Գայանե Սուրենի
Անգլերենի բառագիտության
հիմունքներ (տեսական դասընթաց)
Դասագիրք. – Եր.: Հեղինակային
հրատարակություն, 2009.– 196 էջ:

Դասագիրքը նվիրված է անգլերենի
բառագիտության հիմնահարցերի լուսաբանմանը:
Այն նախատեսված է մասնագիտական
ֆակուլտետների ուսանողների, ինչպես նաև
բառագիտության հարցերով զբաղվող
լեզվաբանների համար:

ԳՄԴ 81.2 Անգլ g7

Շապիկի գծանկարը՝ Արփինե Գիրունյանի

ISBN 978-9939-53-518

© Գ.Գիրունյան, 2009 թ.

Ամբողջով եմ սիրելի մայրիկիս շուտա՛հար

հիշարանիս:

Երկու խոսք

Անգլերենի բառագիտության հիմունքներ դասընթացը ‘անգլիական բանասիրություն’ մասնագիտության կրթական ծրագրի կարևորագույն բաղադրիչներից է: Որպես գիտակարգ՝ այն անշուշտ արժարժու է ընդհանուր տեսական հիմնահարցեր, շեշտը դնելով բառագիտական կատեգորիաների համակարգային բնույթի վրա (այդպիսիք են, օրինակ, բառիմաստը, հոմանիշությունը, տեսականիշությունը, ևն): Մյուս կողմից, կիզակետում պահելով անգլերեն բառը, այն վեր է հանում անգլերենի բառապաշարի կառուցվածքը, գործառության ու զարգացման օրինաչափությունները:

Դասագիրքը բաղկացած է ութ գլուխներից և ընդգրկում է անգլերենի բառագիտությանը առնչվող բոլոր հիմնական արդիական հարցադրումները, որոնց քննարկումը նախատեսված է ուսումնական ծրագրով: Գլուխները ձևավորվել են թեմատիկ սկզբունքով: Ըստ այդմ, յուրաքանչյուր թեմային հաջորդում է հարցաշար, որի միջոցով ինչպես վեր է հանվում քննվող խնդիրների փոխկապակցվածությունը, այնպես էլ խրախուսվում է ուսանողի ինքնուրույն դիտողականությունը (նկատելու ավելին քան բառացի ձևակերպված է) և վերլուծելու կարողությունը: Վերջինին է միտված նաև հարուստ ծանոթագրական նյութը:

Դասագրքի վերջում զետեղված է բառագիտական տերմինների անգլերեն-հայերեն բառարան, որն իր հերթին ուղղված է թե մատուցվող նյութի դյուրին յուրացմանը (այն տրամաբանությամբ, որ մայրենի լեզվով տերմինի և օտարահունչ համարժեքի համադրումը խթանում է հասկացումը) և թե մետալեզվական հմտությունների զարգացմանը:

Դասագիրքը ստեղծելիս հեղինակն առաջնորդվել է մի շարք սկզբունքային պահանջներով, որոնք վերաբերում են նյութի բովանդակությանը, շարադրմանն ու կառուցվածքին, ինչպես և դասընթացի ավարտին

ակնկալվող արդյունքին: Այսպես, խնդիր է դրվել ավանդական տեսական մոտեցումների հետ մեկտեղ արտացոլել նաև ոլորտի արդիական մշակումները, դիտարկելով դրանք նաև անգլերենի բառապաշարի նորակազմ շերտի հիման վրա: Հաշվի առնելով ոլորտի ընդգրկումը բնույթը և դրա հետ կապված բարդությունները, փորձ է արվել հնարավորինս սահուն և տրամաբանորեն փոխկապակցված անցումներով (ձգտելով հետևել աստիճանական բարդացման սկզբունքին) ներկայացնել ասելիքը՝ ընտրելով բնորոշ և հաճախ նաև հեշտ մտապահվող օրինակներ:

Ինչ վերաբերում է դասընթացի ակնկալվող արդյունքին և այս “հաղորդման” հասցեատիրոջը, ապա գիտակցվել է այն հստակ նպատակը, որ դասընթացը ուսանողին պետք է օգնի ձևավորել գործուն գիտելիք: Այնպիսին, որ ներդաշնակվում է այլ լեզվաբանական գիտակարգերից նրա քաղածին, որ թույլ է տալիս զարգացնել ինքնուրույն մտածական հմտություններ՝ վերլուծելու, համադրելու, հակադրելու, սեփական տեսակետը հիմնավորելու և տարբեր տեսական մոտեցումների պայմաններում “չշփոթվելու”:

Ոչ պակաս կարևոր ակնկալվող արդյունք է նաև ուսանողի կողմից բառի գործնական արժեքի գիտակցումը՝ ճիշտ կիրառությունը, հաշվի առնելով լեզվի և խոսքի անբալկտելի միասնությունը:

Սույն դասագիրքը հեղինակի առաջին մասն փորձն է, ուստի բոլոր կառուցողական դիտողություններն ու առաջարկությունները սիրով ու երախտագիտությամբ կընդունվեն:

Contents

1. Lexicology as a Linguistic Discipline	9-26
1.1 Introduction	9
1.2 Lexicology in the System of Linguistic Disciplines	11
1.3 Inner and Outer Factors in the Growth of the Vocabulary	13
1.4 The Word as a Basic Language Unit (Definition)	15
1.5 The English Word and the Boundaries of its Variation (The Identity-of-Unit Problem)	18
1.6 The Problems and Areas of Lexicology	22
2. Word – Meaning	27-59
2.1 Referential and Contextual Approaches	27
2.2 Types of Meaning: Grammatical and Lexical Meaning..	33
2.3 Lexical Meaning: the Denotative and Connotative Components	36
2.4 The Inner Form of the Word (Motivation)	46
2.4.1 Morphological Motivation	46
2.4.2 Phonetic Motivation	48
2.4.3 Semantic Motivation	50
2.5 Change of Meaning	52
2.5.1 Causes of Semantic Change	53
2.5.2 Results of Semantic Change	56
3. Polysemy, Homonymy, Context	60-78
3.1 Polysemy and Homonymy in the English Vocabulary...	60
3.2 On the Common Features of Polysemy and Homonymy.	65
3.3 Homonyms: Classification.....	71
3.4 Context.....	75
4. Vocabulary as a System of Sense Relationships	79-97
4.1 Thematic Groups	79
4.2 Conceptual (Semantic) Fields	80
4.3 Hyponymy	81
4.4 Synonymy	83
4.5 Antonymy	89
5. Morphological Structure of the Word	98-108
5.1 Types of Morphemes	98
5.2 Morphemic Analysis	102
5.3 Derivative Structure of the Word	105

6. Word-Formation	109-141
6.1 General Characteristics	109
6.2 Affixation	112
6.2.1 Productivity	112
6.2.2 Origin of Affixes	115
6.2.3 Derivational Affixes: Different Aspects and Classification	116
6.3 Compounding	124
6.3.1 Structural Features of Compounds	124
6.3.2 Derivational Compounds	126
6.3.3 Compounding: the Semantic Aspect	127
6.3.4 Compounds vs. Free Word-Groups	129
6.4 Conversion	130
6.4.1 Conversion: Semantic Relations	131
6.4.2 Criteria of Semantic Derivation	132
6.4.3 Conversion in the Diachronic Perspective	133
6.5 Back-Formation (Reversion)	136
6.6 Shortening (Clipping)	137
6.7 Abbreviations (Initials)	138
6.8 Blends (Blending)	139
7. Word-Groups	142-155
7.1 Lexical and Grammatical Valency	143
7.2 Structural and Semantic Features	145
7.3 Extra-linguistic Aspects of Word-Groups	149
8. Phraseology: Problems, Definitions, Classifications (General Outline)	156-182
8.1 Phraseological Taxonomies in Diagrams	174
Glossary of Terms (English – Armenian)	183
Bibliography	192

1. Lexicology as a Linguistic Discipline

1.1 Introduction

Visionary power
Attends the motions of the viewless winds,
Embodied in the mystery of words.

‘A Poet’s Epitaph’
W. Wordsworth

What are words? What mystery is embodied in them? What makes us visualize them and what power in them renders most abstract concepts comprehensible? Do words really have such an overwhelming power over those who speak or hear them, and why are men of letters mesmerized by them? Are words really ‘the daughters of earth’, as Samuel Johnson vividly described them, or ‘men’s daughters’, as they were once just as metaphorically defined by Samuel Madden? Why can they be so disturbing at one time – those ‘words, words, words’, or be no more than ‘mere words’ at another? What makes them so meaningful for the poet to declare:

How long a time lies in one little word!
Four lagging winters and four wanton springs
End in a word, such is the breath of Kings.

(Richard II, act 1, scene 3. 1:213)

What do we know about words?

Words have meanings; they have shapes: acoustic and graphic; they are the ‘vessels’ through which we communicate with one another and reflect on the world surrounding us. Through words we express thoughts, emotions, moods. They seem to be living creatures as they are born, live a life of their own, and some of them die, becoming obsolete. In the course of time they change, losing or acquiring meanings, shades of meaning. Being rooted in the systematic and regular relations of language, they are realized in and through contexts. On the other hand, as parts of a regular and systematic whole (language) they

have regular and systematic characteristics proper to them too. So then, studying the word means becoming aware of all these aspects, as well as the possibilities of its manifestations in spoken or written contexts.

The branch of Linguistics which provides theory and method for the understanding of this complicated phenomenon – word, and which enables us to answer all the questions that we ask about words, is *Lexicology*: the science (logos) of words (lexis). In other words, Lexicology is the study of the word-stock, or vocabulary, of a language on regular bases, embracing the whole variety of aspects of the word.

As a linguistic discipline Lexicology puts forward general, as well as special problems for research. Accordingly, we have to distinguish between *General Lexicology*, which is a branch of *General Linguistics*, and *Special Lexicology* which studies the vocabulary of a particular language.

Thus, for instance, one of the concerns of *General Lexicology* is the relations of synonymy and antonymy in language, whereas *Special Lexicology* handles the specific features of synonyms and antonyms of a particular language. In this course we have to deal with the English word, the vocabulary of the English language.

Both the general and specific issues concerning the vocabulary can be analyzed from different standpoints, depending on the theoretical and practical purposes defined by this or that research. The two main approaches to the study of language material have long been established as *synchronic* and *diachronic*.

The *synchronic* approach is concerned with lexical phenomena co-existing within the limits of a given period. Such is the study, for example, of the modern English word. The *synchronic* study of Lexis (vocabulary) is the main aim of *Descriptive Lexicology*.

The second approach, *diachronic*, deals with the historical evolution of the vocabulary in terms of meaning and structure and aims at revealing the changes in the latter, as well

as in usage. This approach is characteristic of *Historical Lexicology*.

It goes without saying that the two modes of lexicological investigation should not be contrasted to each other as they merely reflect two different purposes of investigation. And it is worth emphasizing that any synchronic state of a language system is a result of previous historical development¹.

The best illustration of the interdependence and the complementary nature of the two modes of investigation is *Contrastive Lexicology*, whose aim is to study the correlation between the lexical phenomena of two or more languages. And it is natural to expect that not only synchronic but also diachronic data are taken into account.

1.2 Lexicology in the System of Linguistic Disciplines

Every branch of Linguistics – and Lexicology is no exception in this sense – has developed its own methods of investigation which are conditioned by the aims and perspectives of the concrete field of investigation. However, no area of linguistic investigation can be isolated from the others, and the data provided by one branch of specialized knowledge add to the understanding of the phenomena which are studied by the other. And this is natural because in all these cases the object of any such investigation is language.

Thus, in defining the meaning of any word, its phonetic characteristics are to be taken into account (quality of phonemes, stress, order of phonemes, etc). In this way the connection between the two linguistic disciplines - *Phonology* and *Lexicology* - becomes obvious.

For example, the comparison of the pairs *hop/hope*, *bun* (sweet cake)/*barn* (covered building for storing hay, grain, etc. on a farm) illustrates the connection between the pronunciation

¹ See Ginzburg et al (1979: 8).

and spelling of the words on the one hand, and their meanings, on the other.

Besides, any speaker of English is sure to have noticed that the sound clusters [dl] and [θl] never occur at the beginning of the English word, or that the sound [h] is not common in final positions. It is well-known that long vowels and diphthongs do not precede final [ŋ]; [e, æ] do not occur as final sounds; [ŋ] does not appear at the beginning of a word; such initial sequences as *fs*, *mh*, *stl*, *spw* are unknown in English. These are phonotactic regularities of the English language that should not be overlooked by a lexicologist².

The next linguistic discipline with which Lexicology has a common sphere of problems is *Grammar*. Grammatical forms prove essential in distinguishing the meanings of words. For example, the word *custom* means ‘way of behaving long established in society’, whereas its capitalized plural form, *Customs*, denotes ‘department of government that collects import duties’; the adjective *empty* and the verb *empty* function differently even if we combine them with the same noun *basket* – ‘the empty basket’ and ‘empty the basket’. These examples demonstrate the importance of knowledge in Grammar when defining the meanings of the words and their usual collocations.

History of English and the data accumulated within that discipline are important in evaluating the present state of the English vocabulary. For example, in a number of cases the phonetic changes and the reduction of endings have resulted in identical stems in present-day English. Such an example is the OE verb *carian* and the noun *cura* which correspond to the Modern English *care*. These changes are indicative of the transformation of the English linguistic system from inflexional to analytical. Another result of such transformation is the

² Phonotactics is the totality of rules and regulations restricting the combinability of phonemes in various positions within a word or a morpheme. For example, it is an aspect of phonotactics to state that English words can begin with a sequence of consonants such as [str], but not [sfl].

phenomenon of conversion (one of the ways of word-formation), which will be discussed in this course.

Another discipline on which Lexicology borders in the discussion of certain issues is Linguo-stylistics. Here the main focus is on the choice of lexical means. And although Lexicology is concerned with the causes and development of new connotations in the semantic structure of the word, while in stylistic research the emphasis is on the functioning of such expressive, emotional and evaluative elements in spoken or written contexts, it is obvious that the knowledge of these phenomena cannot be segmented into purely lexicological or stylistic.

For example, in the sentence ‘He’s quite a nice *bloke* really’, the word *bloke* means ‘man’ and is stylistically marked. Therefore, the choice of the slang word *bloke* in formal contexts would be inappropriate, if not ridiculous. Similarly, the sentence ‘I’ve got a terrible *belly ache* – I think I’d better make an appointment with the *quack*’ would be appropriate in highly colloquial situations only, the word *belly ache* having ‘stomachache’ as its neutral and unmarked equivalent, and *quack* - ‘doctor’.

The connection of Lexicology with Sociolinguistics (the branch of linguistics studying the social functioning of language) is revealed as we consider new words appearing due to extra-linguistic factors, the sociolinguistic aspect of their use, combinability, etc. (See chapters 1.3 and 7.3 for examples).

1.3 Inner and Outer Factors in the Growth of the Vocabulary

The dynamic nature of the vocabulary of any language was mentioned earlier, and the historical changes that occur here are due to 2 main types of factors, or causes: linguistic and extra-linguistic. Both linguistic and extra-linguistic factors are most distinctly observed in diachronic relations as it is the historical perspective that highlights the changes in various elements – changes that bring about new relations within the

elements themselves, or between the same and others. Linguistic factors can affect the meanings of words, shift the limits of concepts they express.

For instance, in the Old English period the word *cnafa* had the neutral meaning 'boy, servant' (cf. German *Knabe*). In the course of time the word acquired a new meaning: 'unprincipled, dishonest man, swindler, rogue'. And it is obvious that a new, evaluative element arousing negative associations has become dominant in the semantic scope of the word *knave*.

The Old English word *steorfan* meant 'to perish, to die'. When the verb *to die* was borrowed from Scandinavian, there appeared two synonyms which were very close in meaning. As a result of this 'collision', the verb *to starve* developed a new meaning, which is 'to die (suffer) from hunger'.

As distinct from linguistic (inner) factors, extra-linguistic (outer) factors or causes are rooted in the social relations and social life of the speech community, in its culture, technological and scientific achievements. In other words, new objects, concepts or phenomena appear which need to be named. Of course, the resources that the language makes use of in such cases are purely linguistic (e.g. word-building), but the new words reflect the outer reality, anyway.

E.g.: *bioclimatology* (study of climate as it affects humans), *geopolitics* (study of the way geographical factors help to explain the basis of the power of nation states), *cryogenics* (study of physical systems at temperatures less than 183⁰C), *microwave*, *answer-phone*, *cyber-cafe*, *CD player*, *modem*, *floatel* (a hotel on water), *teletthon*, *dognapper* (by analogy with *kidnapper*), *bacon-burger* and *fish-burger* (by analogy with *hamburger*), etc. The neologism *Britpop* refers to British singers, groups and pop-music. With the help of the component *Brit-* the following words have recently appeared: *Brit-rock*, *Brit-rap*, *Brit-lit* (trendy novels written by young authors), *Britpic* (British films). Another new word is *infotainment* – a program on TV which is entertaining but which also provides

information. A similar mechanism of word-formation underlies such neologisms as *infommercial*, *rockumentry*, etc.

These examples come to prove that Lexicology is a sociolinguistic discipline whose social character is determined by the social nature of language.

1.4 The Word as a Basic Language Unit³

(Definition)

Even average speakers, when asked to name the smallest language unit, will say that it is the word. And they will be right. However, for a linguist the word means more than simply a dictionary entry.

Words are established by various criteria. One of the first things that we notice about words is that they are the smallest units that can form an utterance on their own. On the other hand, elements within them show greater cohesion than words themselves: thus stems and affixes cannot be separated except by other affixes (we mean in the flow of speech). Nor does the order and arrangement of elements in words tend to vary (cf. *ing+interest*).

For theoretical purposes distinctions are drawn between *lexemes* as words distinguished in the lexicon (e.g. the verb *to*

³ It is important to notice that in different linguistic traditions the notion of basic language unit is handled differently. In particular, in Russian linguistics it is the word, which as a free-standing item within a sentence or an utterance expresses all kinds of meaning since it can refer individually to a fragment of reality (e.g., as distinct from a morpheme).

In American descriptive linguistics the focus is on the opposition of free forms against bound forms, in which case bound forms are morphemes and free forms are words characterized by well-formedness.

A third approach is employed by British linguists who prefer the terms and notions 'lexical item', 'lexical unit' or 'lexeme' instead of 'word'. Moreover, the term 'item' is understood in a wider sense and includes units of variable length. This approach proves convincing especially in the case of phrasal verbs, for example, which despite consisting of two or more units function as single lexical sets, and not grammatical systems. Cf.: *find out* = discover; *pick out* = choose; *set up* = establish; *put up with* = tolerate; *die out* = disappear, etc. (Gvishiani, 2000:17-18).

draw) and the individual *word-forms* that they subsume (Past Indefinite *drew*, Past Participle *drawn*, Present Participle *drawing*) (Matthews, Dictionary of Linguistics, 2005).

Other classifications reveal such types as the *orthographic word* – the word understood in terms of alphabetic presentation; the *phonological word* – as viewed from the perspective of phonology (cf. *a notion/ an ocean*); the *morphological word* (the word in terms of form lying behind both the varieties of the orthographic and the phonological word and serving as a basis for further forms: colourful, discoloured); the *lexical word* (full word, content word, lexeme). It is usually realized by one or more morphological words (e.g. *do, does, did, doing, done* as five forms of *DO*), and to this group belong categorematic words – nouns, verbs, adjectives. The *grammatical word* (form words, function words) is established by grammatical criteria and serves to link lexical words (e.g. *to, up, down*, etc.). Here belong syncategorematic words which form closed sets, to which new items are seldom added. The *lexicographical word* is that word which is presented in dictionaries, i.e. the word as a dictionary entry. The British lexicologist McArthur also mentions the *translinguistic word*, which despite significant morphological, phonological and semantic differences exists in a number of languages (e.g. *assembly* – *ассамблея -шuuшp[и]шuu*) (McArthur, 1998).

We can infer from the above that the word is a complex linguistic phenomenon which can be viewed from different angles, and its definition should contain a number of characteristics.

Thus, the word is a lexical unit used for “the purposes of human communication, materially representing a group of sounds, possessing a meaning, susceptible to grammatical employment and characterized by formal and semantic unity” (Antrushina et al, 1999:10).

How can this definition be interpreted?

The word ‘unit’ is used to designate the basic or in a certain sense indivisible entity which displays structural,

semantic, as well as functional unity, largest on the morphological and smallest on the syntactic level of linguistic analysis. If we compared a word with a morpheme in terms of positional mobility, we would say that as distinct from the morphemes constituting a single word and having a rigidly fixed sequential order, a word can be moved around without destroying the grammaticality of the sentence though mobility differs from word to word.

The next segment of the definition emphasizes the communicative power of the word, which is natural as language itself serves the purpose of communication, the latter being one of its main functions. As for the material representation (sound-form) and meaning, they should be understood as a unity of form and content – the characteristic of any linguistic sign.

In the final part of the definition the functional stability and regular characteristics of the word are referred to, which should be understood as determined by the systematic nature of language.

Our understanding of the word as a linguistic unit would be incomplete if we overlooked the dichotomy language/speech, which means that when we define the word as a basic language unit, we should not forget about its functioning, realization in speech. In other words, in more specific terms, the word is a speech unit.

If we look at the terminological pair *lexeme/ word-form* referred to above, we can notice that the former (lexeme) as a linguistic unit is viewed as part of the lexicon, i.e. it is representative of language as a system.⁴

On the other hand, the term word-form refers to the realizations of the lexeme in speech (cf. the definition: “individual word-forms that they subsume”). In other words, when we define the word as a basic unit, we actually consider it

⁴ Language is often referred to as an emic system (cf. the suffixes *-eme*, *-emic* in *phoneme/phonemic*; *morpheme/morphemic*); in contrast, speech is referred to as an etic system (cf. the opposition *phonemic/phonetic*).

not only as part of the system but also its manifestations in typical contexts, as well as in specific speech situations.

Moreover, in linguistic literature we come across the view that the units of language are the phoneme, the morpheme and the construction, while the units of speech are the syllable, the word and the sentence (Minaeva, 2007:14).

Of course, if we consider the term language in a wider and ‘holistic’ sense (as an integrated whole, i.e. as ‘system + its functioning’) the word should be considered as a language unit. Yet, if we proceed from the opposition language vs. speech (the latter including both the written and oral forms), we can define the word as a speech unit in more specific terms.

Another reason for our awareness of the word as a speech unit lies in the fact that in the recent years there has been a tendency for Lexicology to move away from the traditional dictionary-based methodology towards a more experimental approach and towards linguistic creativity, which means that lexical items are viewed at work (Gvishiani, 2000:24).

However, this emphasis on the word as a speech unit does not mean that we can play down the unity of language and speech, for we cannot imagine language as a mere static system which does not work. Even dictionaries as inventories of the words-stock of the given language widely use citations as free collocations in order to illustrate the typical usage of the headwords.

1.5 The English Word and the Boundaries of its Variation (The Identity-of-Unit Problem)

In the system of language (and namely on the dictionary level) the word can have variants, which do not disturb its globality, i.e. the word preserves its identity, and we do not perceive the variants as separate words. This aspect of the word is discussed in linguistic literature as identity-of-unit problem⁵.

⁵ Closely connected with the identity-of-unit problem is that of size-of-unit, i.e. of the separateness and separability of a lexical unit. To put it bluntly,

It should be stated from the beginning that the identity-of-unit problem (distinguishing where one word ends and the other begins at the level of vocabulary as a system) should not be confused with the correlation between the word (lexeme) and the forms that it subsumes throughout its grammatical paradigm. The focus in the identity-of-unit problem is principally lexicological, and touches the paradigmatic relations throughout vocabulary as a system (although we can think of examples when a grammatical feature can acquire lexical significance, i.e. be lexicalized; cf. *colour* vs. *colours* (flag), *tooth* vs. *teeth* (set of teeth)).

In the perspective of lexicological paradigmatics, we usually discuss such phenomena as synonymy, homonymy, etc. and while identifying the boundaries of a word having a variant, we have to separate the latter from a pair of homonyms, a pair (set) of synonyms or two or more meanings of one and the same (polysemous) word.

Thus, as distinct from the cases of homonymy and synonymy, the variants within a global word are not

when defining the boundaries of a word at the level of vocabulary as a system, we face the problem of identity, while at the level of articulation and in the flow of speech we deal with the peculiarities of oral speech. Thus, for the segmentation of the flow of speech into lexical items, three levels are investigated: feature, semantic, metasemiotic.

The feature level (studied by lexicological phonetics) is characterized by semiologically relevant oppositions of sounds, and phonotactics proves helpful here, with its rules of sequences of phonemes forming clusters (e.g., *spr-*, *spl-*, *st-* are typical in prevocalic positions; *-lst*, *-skt* are common in postvocalic positions). And as we know that *ch* and *m* never form a cluster in present-day English, we easily separate *much* and *more* from each other in the sequence *much more*.

At the semantic level, methods of syntactic prosody are employed to deal with the syntactic relations within the utterance. At this level the focus is on pausation.

The actual segmentation of speech into words occurs at the metasemiotic level, when supersyntactic prosody (logical and timbre supersyntactics) is taken into account.

independent enough either in content or form to split up the word into separate units.

Nor can they (the variants) be considered as instances of lexical-semantic variability characteristic of polysemy, when we deal with singleness of form and multiplicity of content. Hence, when variations are possible within the limits of one and the same word, naturally a question arises concerning the extent to which such variations are compatible with the identity of the word (Smirnitsky, 1998:36).

The definition of the boundaries of the word implies the definition of those features in which the variants of the words can differ, and according to which at the corresponding levels of linguistic analysis, types of variation can be singled out.

Thus, at the level of phonetic analysis phonetic variation is revealed, which occurs when a word has a number of pronunciations.

E.g. *direct* - [dairekt], [direkt], [dærekt]

usage - [ju:zidʒ]; [ju:sidʒ]

horrible - [horəbl], [hɔ:rəbl] (BrE); [ha:rəbl] (AmE)

horse-shoe - [ho:sju:], [hɔ:ʃju:] (BrE); [ho:rʃju:][ho:rsju:](AmE).

It is worth mentioning that in some of the cases the variation may be between the British and American varieties of English (cf. the phonetic variants of *horrible* and *horse-shoe*).

A type of phonetic variation is accentual variation due to different stress-patterns of the variants.

E.g. *harassed* - ['hærəst], [hə'ræst]

illustrative - ['iləstrətiv] (BrE); ['ɪlʌvstrətiv] (AmE)

necessarily - [nesə'serili], ['nesəsərəli]

prospector - [prə'spektə(r)] (BrE); ['pra:spektər] (AmE).

As we can notice in the case of variation between British English and American English, the phonetic changes can involve not only the stress-pattern but also the sounds (cf. the variants of *illustrative* and *necessarily*).

At the level of morphological structure, morphological variation⁶ is possible where not only the derivational affixes are identical in meaning individually, but also the overall meanings of the variants, e.g., *academic* – *academical*, *stylistic* – *stylistical*, *morphologic* – *morphological*, *syntactic* – *syntactical*, etc. In connection with morphological variation it is necessary, however, to be careful when differentiating between synonyms on the one hand, and morphological variants, on the other. Thus, despite the possible variation in the examples above, in a number of other derivatives with the same suffixes *-ic* and *-ical*, we have pairs of synonyms: *economic* – *economical*, *historic* – *historical*, *lyric* – *lyrical*, *classic* – *classical*.

The last group of variants is viewed at the lexical level, where the stylistic value and register cause variations (formal vs. informal, spoken vs. written), e.g. *examination* – *exam*, *laboratory* – *lab*, *doctor* – *doc*, *refrigerator* – *fridge*, etc. With reference to the last group, we can notice that the problem of stylistic variation, that is, whether or not to regard such units as variants of the same word, or separate words intersects with the problem of defining shortening/ clipping as a way of word-formation. In both cases a question arises whether stylistic reference is a sufficient basis to split up the word into two entities. Obviously, to answer that question, we have to consider the phenomena in their historical development. For example, apart from the differences in usage, the variants can give rise to their own, separate derivatives and related sets of words in time, also developing new senses.

The diachronic approach also proves useful in keeping apart the notions of identity-of-unit as applied to a concrete historical period from etymological identity. Namely, the lexical units *shade* and *shadow* are separate words in present-day English although they are identical etymologically (from OE

⁶ Some linguists (and among them Smirnitsky) regard grammatical morphological modifications as morphological variants; cf. *learn* – *learnt*, *learned*; *bandit* – *banditi*, *bandits*; *curriculum* – *curricula*, *curriculum*s, etc. (Smirnitsky, 1998:42).

sceadu). On the other hand, *often* and *oft* can be considered as variants not only due to their origin (etymological identity), but principally because they are perceived as such in the present period, synchronically.

1.6 The Problems and Areas of Lexicology

It can be inferred from the above that we define the word as a basic (indivisible) unit at the level of speech. Nevertheless, as it was pointed out, this indivisibility is to a certain extent conventional. Particularly, at the level of lexicological analysis already, the word still being the main focus, a further step is taken – the word is reduced to its extreme structural elements – morphemes (roots, affixes). On the other hand, in utterances words do not emerge as isolated entities – they enter structurally complex units which are functionally equivalent to words. Therefore, when we say that Lexicology is the science about the word, we mean that it studies various lexical units including morphemes, words, variable word-groups and phraseological units.

This being so, modern lexicological approaches meet two levels of investigation: **syntagmatic** and **paradigmatic**. On the **syntagmatic** level, intra-linguistic relations are viewed in the linear sequence. In other words, the semantic structure, or meaning of the word is defined in relation with other words in connected speech. This means that the semantic features of the word are considered in its typical contexts.

For example, the word ‘make’ can be viewed in the sentences, when it displays its different meanings due to the interaction with the meanings of the words surrounding it:

A treaty has been *made* with our former enemies.

A. Christie’s novels *make* excellent reading.

He *made* his living by giving piano lessons.

His jokes *made* us all laugh.

A hundred pence *makes* one pound.

It’s late, let’s *make* for home.

The linear distribution of the context as a sequence of words has made it possible (Notice *make* in this sentence too!) for linguists to associate syntagmatic relations with the notion of horizontal tendency.

Differently, **paradigmatic** relations are conventionally presented as making up so to call a volumetric pattern and are accordingly described as vertical. On the paradigmatic level the word occurs in the centre of relationships with other words in the vocabulary system and is studied in comparison with other words in terms of similar or opposite meaning, inclusion, semantic fields, etc. Thus, the main problems of paradigmatic studies in the field of Lexicology are synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, etc.

For example, the meaning of the verb *make* can be fully understood only if we compare it with the other items of its synonymic set: *create, produce, prepare, obtain, set, cause, compel, amount, etc.*

Or, in the case of the adjective *honourable* we must be aware of its synonyms: *honest, noble, just, fair, illustrious, famed, distinguished*, as well as the antonyms: *dishonourable, shameful, humiliating* to present the structure of the meaning of the word comprehensively.

The whole range of problems referred to above show that the lexical system of a language is a complex and multifarious phenomenon which can be considered from a variety of standpoints. Consequently, a large number of questions arise with reference to this or that aspect of the word, to answer which Lexicology has branched out to comprise a whole system of areas of investigation each of which is considered in close interaction with the others. Just as Lexicology itself is viewed in the totality of linguistic disciplines, each branch of it is meaningful with the others. Figuratively speaking, Lexicology is one of the boughs growing from the trunk of Linguistics, which further divides into its own branches.

- The meaning of the word is one of the central problems of Lexicology and is studied by Semasiology, or Semantics.

- The question “How is the word formed?” is answered within the study of Word-Formation. This area of investigation borders on Morphology – part of grammatical theory studying the two segmental units: the morpheme and the word. Of course, we should remember about the distinction between lexical and grammatical morphology; in the first case the focus is on lexical morphemes, in the second – grammatical morphemes. In other words, lexical morphology deals with derivation, while grammatical morphology – with inflexion.
- Such lexical entities as idioms/ phraseological units, which usually display functional and semantic stability, as well as emotional and expressive colouring, are dealt with by Phraseology.
- The origins of words and the tendencies in their historical development are in the centre of Etymological studies. Very often etymological studies cannot be confined to one language only and the data of other languages are to be taken into account too. This is especially true for the English language, a considerable amount of whose vocabulary is made up from borrowings. This implies that the etymological study of the English word is very closely related with Comparative, Historical, as well as Contrastive Lexicology. Comparative Lexicology studies closely related languages from the point of view of their typological identity and differentiation. Historical Lexicology deals with the historical change of words in the course of language development, and Contrastive Lexicology is aimed at establishing facts of similarity and difference between both related and unrelated languages.
- Another sphere Lexicology deals with, involves the theoretical and practical problems of describing, systematizing and classifying the vocabulary of the language. That branch is Lexicography - the science of compiling dictionaries, the practical value of which can never be overestimated.

Finally, it is worth mentioning that there are lexicological problems which need to be discussed on the basis of data from other disciplines too, and many are the cases when

linguists include certain items in the thematic scope of Lexicology, which have traditionally been discussed by other linguistic disciplines.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the difference between General Lexicology and Special Lexicology in terms of the objects and purposes of investigation?
2. Can diachronic data be fully neglected when the synchronic state of a language vocabulary is investigated?
3. Name one of the main properties of the word, in defining or establishing which knowledge from other linguistic disciplines proves essential.
4. Are expressive, emotional and evaluative elements handled similarly by Lexicology and Linguo-stylistics?
5. Why do we say that extra-linguistic factors (outer causes) are conditioned by social relations?
6. What is meant by the statement that syncategorematic words form closed sets?
7. Comment on the relative notion of 'indivisibility' as it is applied to the word as a basic unit.
8. Explain the definition of the word as a basic language unit.
9. Do we speak about variation and variants (identity-of-unit problem) in terms of the grammatical paradigm of the word?
10. What are the lexical units studied by Lexicology?
11. Name the two levels of lexicological investigation and comment on their difference.
12. Explain the notions 'linear sequence' and 'typical contexts'.
13. Name the main problems of paradigmatic studies.
14. What is the difference between Lexical Morphology and Grammatical Morphology?

15. How different are Comparative and Contrastive Lexicology from each other in terms of the objects of their investigation?
16. Which branch of Lexicology studies the theoretical and practical problems of describing, systematizing and classifying the vocabulary?

2. Word – Meaning

2.1 Referential and Contextual Approaches

Word–meaning is one of the central characteristics of the word. It is not accidental that when discussing the scope of problems that are shared by lexicology and other linguistic disciplines, we often mention the meaning of words. It is also one of the most attractive aspects for lexicological investigation. Thus, the branch of Lexicology devoted to the study of meaning, Semasiology (linguists often choose the term Semantics too), is one of the most extensive branches of Lexicology. At least two reasons account for this.

Firstly, word–meaning is closely connected with the main (communicative, expressive and cognitive) functions of language. People would not be able to formulate and communicate their thoughts, create knowledge, understand texts or exchange ideas with one another if they did not share common concepts, give names to different objects or phenomena, or form the mental image of the objects and phenomena on hearing the words. All this is possible because there is language, and there is the word as the basic materialized language unit which is endowed with meaning.

Secondly, just as it is the case with meaning in general (in the philosophical sense), word-meaning (or linguistic meaning) in particular, is one of the most controversial issues in Linguistics as no conclusive and generally accepted definition has been produced so far.

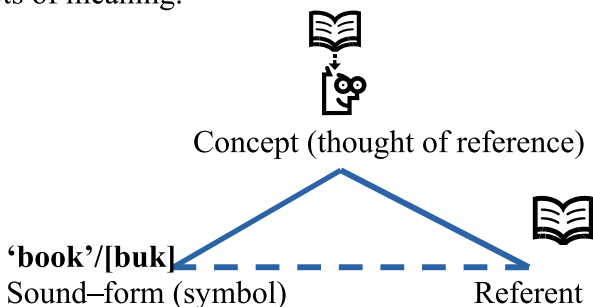
However, one of the most successful definitions of word-meaning (linguistic meaning) runs as follows: *linguistic meaning is the specific kind of content produced by the reverberation in the human consciousness of objective reality which constitutes the inner (semantic) structure of linguistic units and with respect to which their expression, the sounds in which they are materialized, is the outer (or phonetic) structure* (Minaeva, 2007:41).

It is clear from the definition that the latter relies on two essential notions. The first is that linguistic meaning reflects the

connection between language and the extra-linguistic reality (cf. ‘reverberation in the human consciousness of objective reality’). The second actually emphasizes the unity of content/meaning and form – the main characteristic of a linguistic sign (cf. inner (semantic)/ outer (phonetic) structures).

Generally speaking, two major tendencies can be singled out among the current approaches to word-meaning. In the first case linguists proceed from the ability of the word to refer to, or to name the objects in the extra-linguistic reality. In the second case they focus on the aptness of a word to “interact” with other words and function in speech. In other words, according to the second approach, the meaning of a word cannot be entirely separated from its actual use. Therefore, the notions of meaning and use are seen as closely interrelated. Correspondingly, the first approach is known as referential, i.e. the meaning of a word is regarded as its inherent property, and the second one as contextual (or functional), i.e. in close connection with different uses of words as they occur in various contexts, as though every word used in a new context is a new one itself.

A definitive example of the referential approach to the problem of word–meaning has come to be known as the ‘basic triangle’, also ‘semantic triangle’ or Ogden and Richards’ triangle. This model appeared on the basis of referential concepts of meaning.



In this model the meaning of the word is connected with 3 components: sound–form (or symbol), concept (thought) and referent. At the top of the triangle is the *concept* through which

the *sound-form* is connected with the actual *referent*. The dotted line between the *sound-form* and the *referent* is indicative of the conventional character of the interdependence. This can be observed on the example of the word *book*. The sound-form or symbol is the sound-cluster [*buk*]. The referent is the actual book, the object which exists in the extra-linguistic reality and which is named (referred to) by the symbol. The concept, being a category of logic, is our generalized idea of what a book is. When linguists say that the connection between sound-form and referent is conventional or arbitrary, they have the following in mind.

First, in different languages different sound-forms are used to refer to the same object: *book*, *գիրք*, *книга*. Or, if we take the sound – cluster [*buk*] in Armenian, it means ‘snowstorm’. Thus, the sound-form is not intrinsically bound with the referent.

Second, within the same language system, identical sound-forms refer to different things, and so we deal with two separate words. This is distinctly observed in the cases of homonymy. Cf. the homophones *right/ rite/ write; grate/ great; sight/ site; rain/ rein; bow/ bough*; and the homographs *live[liv]/ live[laiv]*:

I live in the north of England.

Your favourite pop star is singing live on TV tonight.

lead[lɪ:d]/ lead[led]

The lead singer in the group is great.

Lead pipes are dangerous.

wind[wind]/ wind[waɪnd]

The wind blew the tree down.

Don't forget to wind your watch!

We could also mention that words undergo changes in their historical development (e.g. phonetic changes) but they continue to denote the same objects, phenomena, etc.

Third, (remembering that the denoted object or referent is beyond the scope of language) we come across cases when

one and the same object or action may be named differently: *house – mansion – building; jump – hop – leap*, etc. Furthermore, in a concrete speech situation we may refer to the same object by different words: *book, volume, publication, issue, this, that, etc*⁷.

The situation grows even more complicated when we have to deal with words which denote objects non-existent in reality: *troll, goblin, fairy, etc.*

Thus, it is obvious that the meaning cannot be identified with the referent. On the other hand, it cannot be identified with the concept either. The latter, as it has been mentioned already, is within the realm of logic and cognition in general. Here too, the correlation of *concept – symbol* and *concept – referent* is rather complex. *Concept* is the generalized thought of the object and as such reflects its essential features in abstract terms, while *meaning*, even if it reflects most abstract notions, is concrete, more specific, often charged with emotional, evaluative and expressive overtones.

That the *concept* cannot be identified with word-meaning is well illustrated when the same concept is expressed by different lexical units (words, word-groups, etc.).

E.g. *quickly, in a jiffy, promptly; succeed, thrive, prosper, flourish.*

The concept in each case being essentially the same, the meaning of each word is different. On the other hand, a number of concepts may be combined in one word (*globalization, integrity, nationalization, etc.*). In the case of the word *nationalization* the conceptual components are: ‘putting under the control of the government’, ‘state ownership’ and ‘exclusion of private ownership’.

⁷ A classic example, when two separate words have a single referent, i.e. when they have the same reference but different senses/ meanings, was proposed by the German logician and philosopher Frege. Both *Phosphorus* and *Hesperus* refer to the same star, but the meanings of their corresponding descriptive phrases are: ‘the morning star’ and ‘the evening star’ respectively.

Moreover, there can be cases, where the conceptual components are so subtly fused that in contexts providing minimum clues, none of them can be considered as the central one. In the concept of the word *integrity*, for example (‘honesty, wholeness, soundness’), none of the three components can be singled out as dominant in the motto: *‘Integrity, Co-operation, Prosperity!’*

It is also worth mentioning the fact that the meaning of the word may have a different semantic scope for different people, each person forming their own concept of the thing too.

For example, for an economist *money* denotes an ‘economic category, means of exchange’, with a long list of characteristics and functions included in the definition of the term; for a banker it is the object of his business, which may be in the form of ‘cash, loans, credits, bonds, etc.’; for the well-known Shakespearean character, Shylock, it was the only aim and meaning of life; and for an average person it is a means providing decent life conditions and a material basis for future plans and perspectives.

Along with the referential approach, the functional (or contextual) approach to word meaning is significant too. According to this more recent approach, the meaning of a linguistic unit can be studied through its relation with other linguistic units. In other words, the meaning of the word is defined due to the position it takes in a linguistic context. Those linguists who support this approach hold that we do not communicate with isolated words, as “they are not the bearers of messages; they do not, of themselves, ‘make sense’; they cannot, taken singly, be true or false, beautiful, appropriate, paradoxical or original”. Therefore, a linguistic item needs at least a simple sentence to show such properties and be fully realized (Cruse, 2001: 9).

For example, the verb *fly* can be preceded by a noun (*birds, planes fly*) or followed by a prepositional phrase (*fly in the air, to Paris*). The transitive variant can take a noun as an object: *He can fly a helicopter*.

The noun *flight* can be preceded by an adjective (*safe flight, non-stop flight*), a preposition (*in flight*) as well as be followed by a prepositional phrase (*flight from Paris to London*).

We should also notice that not only the linguistic context – the immediate syntactical environment of the word – is essential for the realization of word meaning, but also the speech situation (extra-linguistic context, context of situation or context in a broader sense). The speech situation can be defined as the external conditions in which the word acquires its sense⁸.

Let us consider an example provided by the Russian linguist Amosova.

When hunters intending to trap a bear say: *Gosh, it's a long way to the lair!* the polysemantic word *lair* is realized in the meaning of *den*. In a different speech situation, namely, of a herd being driven to the slaughter house, the word *lair* will reveal its meaning of *an enclosure or temporary shed for cattle* even if seemingly the same *Gosh, it's a long way to the lair!* is uttered.

Similarly, we could consider the sentence “*All the operations were successful*” as not sufficient for disclosing the meaning of the word *operations* unless we specify whether the speech situation is that of military manoeuvres or surgical treatment.

These examples prove that with words we communicate information that is manifold. And even if we schematically, in a simplified form, present the meaning of the word as a triangle, we should not forget that the meaning of any word depends also on the functional aspect (conditions of communication, the situation of actual speech, register, linguistic context and the intention of the speakers, etc)⁹.

⁸ For more details see Amosova (1968).

⁹ The unity of referential and functional aspects of word meaning can also be presented by another terminological pair: conceptual space and functional-communicative space. The former is the fragment of reality covered by the

The above-mentioned becomes even more obvious when we look at the lexical and grammatical aspects of word meaning. Needless to say, that the realization of a word in context, i.e. its functioning is also due to the grammatical component.

2.2 Types of Meaning: Grammatical and Lexical Meaning

The two types of meaning that stand out as revealing the central characteristics of the word are the **grammatical (categorical)** and **lexical (material) meanings**.

Again emphasizing the fact that the word is a language unit which is representative of the system of language, we should notice that it has a **grammatical meaning** because it exists and functions due to grammatical rules. In other words, the **grammatical component of meaning** is characterized by generalization and abstraction recurrent in word-forms, and has regular and standard expression. Grammatical meaning becomes obvious only against the background of meaningful oppositions.

For example, in the system of noun such a grammatical component is the meaning of plurality versus singularity (*desks, chairs, students, children, postmen, teeth, feet, sheep, fish, phenomena, criteria, etc.*) even if the markers of plurality vary (final -s, -es; zero ending, sound-interchange, foreign plural forms, etc.); or singularity versus plurality, which is characterized by absence of a regular suffix (*desk, chair, student*), and in some cases, for example, by an irregular suffix of Greek or Latin origin (*datum, bacterium, criterion, phenomenon, stratum, etc.*).

word, i.e. the referential basis; the latter includes the register and speech situation, i.e. the functional differentiation of discourse (Gvishisni, 2000:49).

As for the term 'register', it is often explained by means of the term 'functional style', but is defined as being based on a more detailed notion, and as referring to more particular uses and varieties of language. 'Register' involves three dimensions: field (the subject-matter, specialized or predominant themes of discourse, e.g. language of law, political speeches, etc); mode (manner of transmission of linguistic message: written, spoken, telegraphed, etc.) and style (language characteristics which mark different relations between the participants in a linguistic communication).

We could also mention the case meaning in the word-forms of nouns (*students', boy's, Armenia's*) and the tense and aspect, as well as the person and number meanings in the system of the verb (*brought, taught, speaks, has*).

Grammatical meaning may find its manifestation also in distribution – the position of the linguistic unit in relation to other linguistic units (Ginzburg et al, 1979: 18).

For example, the word-forms *goes, finds, carries* share a common grammatical meaning also because they occur in the same position after a noun - *Mother, the student*, or the personal pronouns *he, she, it*.

Along with the grammatical meaning, which is confined to one form of the same word (e.g. the possessive case meaning of the word-form *boy's* as distinct from the common case meaning of the form *boy*), the **lexical meaning** is present in all the word-forms of the same word.

E.g. *boy; boy's; boys*.

In the verb *drive*, for example, the lexical meaning is the component denoting the process of moving, which is recurrent in all the word-forms: *drive; drives; drove; driving, driven*.

Thus, according to the modified version of the definition of linguistic meaning in more specific terms (because linguistic meaning/word-meaning encompasses all the components that are linguistic in nature - lexical, grammatical, structural), *lexical meaning is the reverberation in the human consciousness of objects of reality (phenomena, relationships, qualities, processes) which (the reverberation) becomes a fact of language provided a constant and indissoluble connection is established between the reverberation and the sound complex* (Minaeva, 2007:41). Otherwise stated, the reverberation becomes the content of the word with respect to which the sound-form functions as a 'sound-envelope'.

Lexical meaning is the meaning of the main material part of the word, which reflects the concept that the given word expresses and the basic properties of the thing (phenomenon, quality, etc.) it denotes.

We can also say that **lexical meaning** is the meaning proper, which is not only based on the generalized concept of the object, action, phenomenon, etc., but also includes more specific additional shades of meaning.

The lexical and grammatical meanings are discussed separately as such for theoretical and scientific purposes, but in actual fact they form a unity, each component of the word-meaning adding to the other. This can be easily observed if we consider the interrelation between the two at the level of word-classes.

Especially the words in major word-classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs) usually have a distinguishing semantic component which they share. This generalized and abstract meaning is known as part-of-speech meaning. In nouns it is the meaning of 'thingness', in verbs it is the meaning of 'action, process', in adjectives it is the meaning of 'quality' and 'relation' etc. It is obvious that these semantic components are lexical in nature although, on the other hand, parts of speech are classified on grammatical bases and display grammatical meanings (e.g. of number, case, tense, aspect, etc.).

The interplay and balance between the grammatical and lexical meanings varies from word-class to word-class and even within the same class. It is usually considered that the grammatical component is prevailing in minor word-classes (articles, prepositions, conjunctions, etc.) as their function is not to convey concepts but to provide connection between words. However, even here the lexical component can be rather distinct.

Cf. the prepositions in these word-groups: *under the bridge/ over the bridge; above zero/ below zero.*

On the other hand, although in major word-classes the lexical component tends to outweigh, in the verbs *be/ feel/ look* functioning as link-verbs the lexical meaning can be reduced as a result of which the grammatical component comes to the fore. In stressing that the lexical and grammatical types of meaning are intimately interwoven, we could also mention that in the

final analysis the purpose of grammar is to serve the conveyance of meaning¹⁰.

2.3 Lexical Meaning: the Denotative and Connotative Components

We have already noticed that the factor of the referent is central to linguistic meaning. The existence of a referent (object: phenomenon, relationship, quality, process) presupposes the realization of another linguistic category – naming, or referring¹¹.

When describing the semantic triangle, we observed the connection between ‘referent’ and ‘symbol’. However, linguistic meaning is characterized by three more factors or aspects of word meaning. They are: signification (or sense), denotation and connotation.

Signification (or sense) is the inherent property of a word (or word combination), due to which the word has the power of denotation, i.e. can be used to refer to a certain object individually. The signification (sense) of the word is what is distinguished in a dictionary (cf. the two senses of the word *chair*: 1. piece of furniture, 2. person chairing a meeting). Knowing its two senses, we can use the word *chair* with reference to two separate objects (referents), i.e. to refer to, or name them.

It is implied that signification is that aspect of the word’s meaning, in which the functioning of a lexical unit as a sign is

¹⁰ The British linguist Cruse discusses the example ‘*I visited Arthur next week*’, which sounds anomalous not only due to the grammatical, but also lexical choice (Cruse, 2001:4-5).

¹¹ Hence, in linguistics, apart from semasiology, we come across the term ‘onomasiology’ – the study of vocabulary from the viewpoint of the things or concepts being ‘denoted’.

It is worth mentioning that the two – semasiology and onomasiology - are viewed in contrast to one another. This means that the two linguistic factors of signification and denotation are considered as separate aspects of word-meaning.

stressed, i.e. a lexical unit is viewed as a sign within the sign system of language vocabulary, involving the relationships between sign and thing or sign and concept.

Differently, denotation is that part of the word's meaning which involves the relationship between a lexical unit and the non-linguistic object (entity) to which it refers (Gvishisni, 2000:119). In other words, being referential meaning in essence, denotation presupposes the existence of something outside the speech event. The referents (or things meant) can be concrete (*book, student, walk*, etc), as well as abstract, even non-existent in reality (cf. *fairy, elf, goblin*, etc.). When words are used literally, in their factual (objective and primary) meanings, denotation and signification coincide.

However, that a word's signification and denotation are separate can be seen in the way how they may be at variance with, and even opposed to one another, depending on the speaker's intention. For example, the Russian linguist Akhmanova discusses the example: "*A pretty story indeed!*" in which the word *pretty* can even denote (refer to) 'an annoying quality' due to the speaker's attitude, despite the usual sense 'attractive, pleasant' (Akhmanova, 1972:48-52).

The sense (signification) and denotation of a word, though separate, interact, and the subtle relationship which arises between signification and denotation creates connotations. The separateness as well as the interaction between signification and denotation often bringing about new connotations is obvious in the cases of semantic change based on figurative extension known as linguistic metaphor and linguistic metonymy (The latter will be presented in more detail in chapter 2.4.3). Namely, when words are used to refer to new objects, the existing systematized structure of the meaning (signification) undergoes changes - it is extended. Correspondingly, their reference (denotation) is extended too. As a result, new connotations may arise.

For example, we know the word *cauliflower* denoting 'a vegetable with green leaves around a large hard white head of

flowers’, and we know the word *ear*, the signification of which is ‘the organ with which we hear’. In the combination of the two words – *cauliflower ear*, the word *cauliflower* used attributively and figuratively denotes ‘swollen’. Thus, on the one hand, the word signifies a ‘vegetable’, on the other hand, it actually refers to the quality of ‘being swollen because the ear has been hit many times’. The connotations that arise because of the clash of signification and denotation are the expressive-emotional-evaluative elements and the associations that we have as we come across or use the phrase. Needless to say, that we visualize *cauliflower ear* as something vivid, arousing emotions (for example, smile, pity, etc.).

We could also look at the word *ear* in the combination *play the piano by ear* (‘to play music remembering how it sounds rather than by reading it’), whose overtones are zero ones against the same word *ear* in the combination *play it by ear* (‘to decide how to deal with a situation as it develops, rather than by having a plan to follow’). In the second case *ear* denotes neither the organ with which we hear nor the auditory ability, but the ability to act in changing circumstances. Here the differences between signification and denotation result in the change of the connotations of the word-group also due to the stylistic reference. The second one (*play it by ear*) is typical of informal speech situations.

Therefore, it is stated that when a word is used to ‘name’ an object, it not only denotes it, but connotes something at the same time, as long as it conveys certain expressive-emotional-evaluative overtones even when it is a neutral word whose overtones are zero ones (Akhmanova,1972:48-52).

Thus, we notice three factors, which we cannot overlook when approaching the problem of linguistic meaning. As for lexical meaning (as a more specific type of linguistic meaning), we expect that following the logic of the three-part presentation of linguistic meaning, it too should consist of three components: significative, denotative and connotative. And in many theoretical works on lexical meaning we come across these very

types¹². However, in this course we will rely on the dichotomy denotative/connotative lexical meaning for the sake of simplicity and clarity. For this there are two main reasons. Firstly, in many traditional theories, two main types of lexical meaning are distinguished: denotative and connotative. Secondly, in cases of a high degree of abstraction, or when words are used in their literal (factual) meanings, it is extremely difficult to tell the significative component from the denotative one.

It should be mentioned that this division (of the lexical meaning into denotative and connotative) should not be interpreted in contrastive terms. In other words, it would be a mistake to consider one component as primary, and the other secondary. Again the factor of unity needs to be emphasized.

That part of the meaning which reflects the general logical concept underlying the word, the conceptual content or the referential component, is defined as its **denotative meaning**. Stated otherwise, it is the basic component of the meaning, which is shared by everybody in the speaking community.

The second is the **connotative** component, all the concurrent information enclosed in the meaning of the word. Here belong the emotive charge and the stylistic reference of the word. It should be emphasized again that when a word is used to 'name' an object, it not only **denotes** it but also **connotes**

¹² Ufimtseva, for example, follows the three-component classification of lexical meaning, in which the significative component is the more abstract reflection of the more significant features of the given object, related to the concept rather than to the referent. On the other hand, the denotative component is the more concrete notion of the real existence of the thing meant. 'Denotative' means connected with the thing, 'the category of thingness', while 'significative' implies the conceptual basis and the conceptual features of the word – the more 'significant' part of its semantics. In other words, the difference between the two components of meaning lies in the degree of their abstraction, denotation being connected with the typified notion of the whole class of things and signification relating more to the concept expressed by the word and the differential features of the given class of things (Ufimtseva, 2002: 87-96).

something, for it conveys certain expressive, emotional, evaluative overtones.

The denotative component of the adjective *lonely* is *alone, without company*. However, if we said that *lonely* means *alone*, we would miss something very important – the connotations and all the ‘colour’ of the word, which are due to the concurrent components ‘melancholy, sad’, adding emotive charge to the word.

In the verb *to glare* the conceptual content is the semantic component ‘to look’. Anyway, concurrently the elements of duration ‘to look steadily, lastingly’ and the emotive, evaluative element ‘in anger, rage’ are present.

The expressive-emotional-evaluative elements vary in different words. A number of words are devoid of them (e.g. *look, know, student, teacher*; also - prepositions), in some others these components are prevailing (e.g. interjections), in a third group of words the evaluative component is part of the word’s denotation (in words like *proper, good, excellent, bad, murder, treason*). The emotive charge is one of the objective characteristics of the word, an inseparable part of the meaning even at the level of words taken separately, without the concrete context being taken into account. However, words may acquire emotive implications in a context due to the speaker’s or writer’s subjectivity¹³. Of interest in this sense are *bias words*, whose emotive component varies from speaker to speaker (e.g. *communist, fascist, democracy, monarchy, liberal, etc.*). Namely, the above notions can be apprehended differently in different cultures in terms of connotations. For example, as Gvishiani notices, the emotional overtones of the word ‘monarchy’ can be ‘noble’ and ‘splendid’, or ‘wicked’ and ‘brutal’ depending on whether the social system is respected or rejected (Gvishiani, 2000:126).

¹³ A further subdivision of the connotative component is known as inherent and adherent connotations and serves the purposes of linguo-stylistic analysis. For more details see Akhmanova (1972 (3)).

The connotative component of meaning is formed not only due to the emotive charge, but also due to the stylistic layer of which the word is representative. This means that even in those cases when the denotative components of the words are identical, the stylistic aspect of the connotative component affects the overall meaning of the word and its usage.

For example, in the synonymic set *offspring/children/kids* the denotative component is the same. However, the stylistic element of the connotative component varies in the three words. The word *child* is stylistically neutral, *offspring* is formal and *kid* is informal, namely colloquial. Similarly, the words *abode*, *residence* are representative of the formal (literary in the narrower sense of the word) layer of the English vocabulary, the variants *house*, *flat* belong to the neutral type (i.e. do not have any stylistic restriction), the word *place* is colloquial.

Obviously, speakers are to be aware of these differences when choosing a word to use in this or that speech situation. Being word-conscious, then, will mean that when using literary words, for example, we can additionally express respect, politeness, or put ourselves at some distance. Colloquial words, on the other hand, can show friendliness, equality or a feeling of closeness/solidarity with someone.

Most learner's dictionaries, apart from giving the definitions of the words, specify stylistically marked words as *formal*, *informal*, *colloquial*, *slang*. And we also notice that many words do not have such labels – they are the **neutral** words, which are stylistically unmarked and make up the basic vocabulary of the language. Entirely lacking any connotations, and forming the core of the vocabulary, neutral words display the greatest stability in the historical development of the language too. It is usually against the neutral word-stock that the marked ones are singled out and analyzed. E.g. *begin*, *continue*, *end*, *child*, *school*, *university*.

The stylistically marked part of the vocabulary is classified into two major groups: **informal** and **formal**, each of

which in its turn has its further subdivisions¹⁴. The **informal** part of the vocabulary is represented by **colloquial, slang** and **dialect words**. Of the three subgroups the first (**colloquial**) is the most extensive due to the sphere of colloquial communication being such. Here belong *literary colloquial words*, tending to appear in written language too, and *familiar colloquial or low colloquial words*.

Literary colloquial words are used by both educated and uneducated people. Some examples are: *bite/snack (meal); hi/hello/so long; a bit of; a lot of, etc.* Here can be mentioned also shortenings (or clippings): *lab, ad, vet, telly, exam, flu, fridge*; and phrasal verbs: *put up, make up, do away, turn up, be through, etc.*

Familiar (low) colloquial words are used mostly by young and semi-educated people. This segment of the vocabulary verges on slang: *ta-ta (good-bye), goings-on (behaviour, usu. bad), shut up, beat it (go away), etc.*

The second and marginal segment of the informal vocabulary is **slang** – a contradictory and at the same time interesting phenomenon. Slang words are as a rule short-lived and in the course of time they either disappear or become colloquial, and even stylistically neutral.

An example of a slang word losing its meaning(s) and thus disappearing as such is *greenhorn*, which used to mean 1. ‘someone who lacks experience and can be deceived; 2. ‘an immigrant’. Both the senses have become obsolete today (cited from Gvishiani, 2000:59).

An example of a slang expression entering the neutral layer is *the third party* denoting ‘someone who is not one of the two main people involved in an argument or legal case, but who is affected by it in some way’ (cf. *the third party insurance*). The expression used to mean any new political organization other than the Republican Party (ibid).

¹⁴ The stylistic classification of the English vocabulary is in the main points presented according to Antrushina et al (1999: 12-34).

Bordering on familiar colloquial words, slang words can cause complications when in some instances of high frequency they cannot be distinguished from colloquial ones. Such are the expressions ‘OK’ and ‘*Super!*’ labeled differently by different dictionaries.

Very often slang words are based on a joke and playful metaphor, but at the same time sound rather coarse and cynical, violating the rules of ethic and standard usage¹⁵.

E.g. *nut* (head), *mug* (face), *flippers* (hands), *pigs* (policemen), etc.

Slang is often used by a particular social group (professional subgroup) and is often unintelligible to other people. Such words are also known as **jargonisms**¹⁶. The following are examples from American truck drivers: *grandma lane* (slow lane), *doughnuts* (tyres), *motion lotion* (fuel), *eyeballs* (headlights).

The third part of the informal¹⁷ word-stock is presented by **dialect words**, prevailing in a particular district and bearing

¹⁵ A notable phenomenon often associated with Cockney (the speech of working-class East-Enders) is *rhyming slang*, the main characteristics of which are group solidarity, amusement, and even total opacity to outsiders. E.g. ‘*Would you Adam n Eve it? E’s left is trouble n strife!*’ (Would you believe it? He’s left his wife!).

According to McArthur, the creative principle in rhyming slang is two-fold. First, a two-part phrase is coined that rhymes with a single original word (*apples and pears* for ‘stairs’), then the second part is clipped off so that an opaque synonym is created (*‘E went up the apples’* = He went up the stairs). Many expressions may survive only in the shortened form. E.g. *rabbit on* (to talk all the time) > *rabbit in pork* (to talk); *a butchers* > *a butcher’s hook* (= a look); *you n me* (=tea), etc. (The Oxford Guide to World English: 58-59).

¹⁶ Along with the term ‘jargon’, two more are used to refer to similar phenomena – ‘cant’ and ‘argot’. ‘Cant’ is defined as the conventional, familiar idiom used by a member of a particular occupation, e.g., trade, sports, music. ‘Argot’ is both the cant and the jargon of any professional criminal group.

¹⁷ The informal layer of the vocabulary is often presented as colloquial too. We prefer to keep these apart, having in mind that dialect words appear not only in the colloquial, or conversational mode but also in fiction. Such an example is R. Burns’ poetry.

the local peculiarities of the dialect or group of dialects (e.g. the Northern dialects: Lancashire, Yorkshire, Cumbrian, Geordie). Interestingly, the words *car*, *trolley*, *tram* are of dialectal origin, which proves that dialect words can serve as another resource for the enrichment of the literary word-stock.

Here are some examples from the Yorkshire dialect:

To lake / laik = to play; to addle = to earn; beck = stream, brook; summat = something; mich = much; mun = must; ay(e) = yes. As part of Northern English generally, *lad* (=boy) and *lass* (=girl) are common in the Yorkshire area, as well as the Northern and Scots *bairn* (=child) with *childer* as the plural form of 'child'. *Happen* is used rather than 'perhaps/maybe', e.g. *Happen 'e'll come, happen 'e won't* (Maybe he'll come, maybe he won't).

As it has been pointed out, the second major group of the stylistically marked part of the vocabulary is used in **formal** contexts: professional communication and written language, although learned people speak such words in a most natural way. Here need to be singled out **learned**, or otherwise called **bookish** words. The term **bookish** has acquired negative connotations today. Instead, the variants **erudite**, **learned**, **scholarly** are coming into common use. To this group belong:

scientific words (*comprise, experimental, conclusive, divergence, etc.*);

officialese – the official, bureaucratic language (and vocabulary) of documents (including the abundant use of such words as *assist, endeavour, proceed, attired, inquire, etc.*)¹⁸;

“literary” (in the narrower sense) or **refined/elevated words** – very often of Romance origin (*solitude, sentiment, fascination, delusion, cordial, illusionary*);

poetic words – as part of poetic diction, often having high-flown, archaic colouring (*alas, constancy, realm, doth*);

¹⁸ Below is an official letter characterized as a typical example of officialesse: 'You are authorized to acquire the work in question by purchase through the ordinary trade channels' (= We advise you to buy the book in a shop).

barbarisms (and/or foreign words) – *siesta, mousse, libretto, karate, khan, ju-jitsu* (Japanese wrestling), *cappucino, glasnost, intifada, paso doble, putsch, safari, slalom, etc.*;

archaic and obsolete words (*thou, thy, thee, morn, moon* (month), *errand* (wandering));

scientific terminology (*palatalization, labio-dental, meta-semiotic, etc.*).

Concerning the last two, the following should be mentioned. Archaic and obsolete words are those which are partly or fully out of use although writers of historical novels and poets turn to them for aesthetic purposes. Another term is *historisms* denoting objects of the past, which are already out-of-use. Correspondingly, the words are out of use too.

Finally, the subgroup of professional and scientific terminology is singled out. As a general tendency, scientific terms are not common beyond the fields of specialized knowledge. However, in the course of time scientific terms too, especially those which emerge in the field of modern technologies, and in our age of information, may gradually come into common usage. For example, the word *microwave* denoting ‘an electromagnetic wave that is shorter than a radio-wave but longer than a light wave’ is a physical term, but due to the emergence of microwave ovens using such waves to heat or cook food, the word *microwave* (= the reduced form of *microwave oven*) has become part of our everyday language. A similar tendency can be traced in the spread of the word *converter* denoting ‘a device converting alternating current into direct current or the other way around’. And since we commonly use electrical appliances, we use the technical term to refer to the device. Other such examples which once used to be known to a restricted number of specialists but have become part of our everyday lives (even though we may fail to explain what the phenomena are or how the devices work) are: *ozone layer, protuberance, black hole, light year, radiation, radar, waveband, laser, transformer, etc.*

2.4 The Inner Form of the Word (Motivation)

One of the important semantic aspects of the word is its inner form, or motivation. It is usually based on a feature proceeding from which the object (thing) is named, and is perceived by the speaking community as the key to the meaning of the word. Roughly speaking, the word has any transparency of meaning, or motivation if we know why and how the word has its form (whether sound-form, graphic form or semantic structure). In other words, a direct connection is observable between the meaning of the word on the one hand, and its structural pattern, on the other. According to the components of the structural pattern, three types of motivation are distinguished: morphological, phonetic and semantic.

2.4.1 Morphological motivation is based on the morphemic structure of the word, i.e. the relationship of the morphemes in the word.

What is a morpheme? – The morpheme is the smallest two-facet language unit possessing both sound-form and meaning, i.e. it is the smallest individually meaningful element in language. Such units are the root morpheme and the affixational morphemes: prefixes and suffixes.

For example, in the word *tactful* the component *tact* is the root morpheme and *-ful* is the affixational morpheme. The lexical meaning of the word is transparent: *tact* means ‘adroitness in dealing with others’ and *-ful* means ‘full of, characterized by’. So, when calling someone *tactful*, we mean that they are characterized by that quality. Besides the individual lexical meanings of the morphemes and their combinability, another factor needs to be present for us to speak of motivation and transparency of the overall meaning. That is the ***distributional meaning*** – the meaning of the order and arrangement of morphemes making up the word. This means that we could not at our own will rearrange the two morphemes because *‘fultact’* would make no sense.

Cf. *childish* (resembling, befitting a child); *manly* (befitting a man); *jobless* (activity + absence of it); *unhappy* (absence of quality + quality), etc.

The factor of distributional meaning in motivation is nicely illustrated on the example of compound words consisting of phonetically identical morphemes with identical lexical meanings: *houseboat/ boathouse*; *horserace/ racehorse*; *card-phone/ phone-card*, etc.

It should be mentioned that morphological motivation cannot be considered in absolute terms for a number of reasons.

First, one-morpheme words are always non-motivated as we cannot speak of any correlation between components if there is only one component, for example, *sing*, *tell*, *read*, *write*, *eat*, *drink*, etc.

Second, the degree of motivation can vary from full (as in the examples above) to partial motivation, and finally, lack of any.

For example, a *chatterbox* is not a *box*, but a person, a *lady-killer* does not kill anyone but is a man who fascinates women. It is clear that in these compounds the overall meaning is not the mechanical (or easily deduced) sum of the constituent meanings.

Another usual example is the word *cranberry*. It is obvious that the word denotes a sort of berry (cf. *gooseberry*, *blueberry*, *raspberry*, etc.), but the motivation of the word is partial because the lexical meaning of the component *cran* cannot be identified. It only has a ***differential meaning***, i.e. the semantic component that distinguishes it from the morphemes *rasp-*, *blue-*, *goose-* in the words *raspberry*, *blueberry*, *gooseberry*, etc.

In the case of lack of motivation it is impossible to deduce the meaning of the whole from those of the constituent morphemes.

For example, *ladybird* is not a bird, but an insect; *tallboy* is not a boy, but a piece of furniture; *bluestocking* is a person;

man-of-war is a warship; *butterfingers* is a clumsy person; *wallflower* is a girl who is not invited to dance at a party, etc.

Third, as the structural patterns of words are subject to changes in the course of time, the question of morphological motivation is closely connected with the diachronic approach. And words that appear non-analyzable in Modern English often prove to have been completely motivated in the earlier periods of the language.

For example, the place-names *Essex* and *Sutton* are analyzable as *East+Saxon* and *South+town*. The word *sweetmeat* denotes a *sweet/ cake* in Modern English, and the cause of the loss of motivation lies in the change of the meaning of the word *meat*, which in the Middle English period was used to denote *food* in general (cf. *meat and drink, one man's meat is another man's poison*).

2.4.2 Phonetic Motivation

If there is a natural connection between the meaning of the word and its sound-form or phonetic structure, we deal with phonetic motivation. Such is the case with onomatopoeic (imitative or echoic) words: *buzz, cuckoo, splash, purr, whisper*. However, it should be mentioned that these words cannot be considered as completely motivated as the sound-forms denoting the same phenomena vary from language to language (*pqqng, lylni, ᄀᄀᄀᄀᄀᄀᄀᄀ, ᄀᄀᄀᄀᄀᄀᄀᄀᄀᄀᄀ, ᄀᄀᄀᄀᄀ*).

It is evident that onomatopoeic words are to a certain extent and significantly determined by real sounds just as the latter are produced in the physical world. However, they depend on and are restricted by the phonetic system of each particular language, hence the difference referred to above.

As for their origin, it serves as a basis for classifying such imitative lexical units into the following groups:

1. Sounds, cries and noise produced by human organs of articulation: *whisper, grumble, mutter, sniffle, smack*, etc.

2. Sounds, cries produced by animals, birds and insects: turkeys *gobble*; geese *gaggle*; hens *cluck*; donkeys *bray*; horses *neigh*; dogs/wolves *growl*; chickens *cheep*; doves/pigeons *coo*, etc.;
3. Sounds and noise produced by inanimate objects: a bullet *whizzes*; hard objects (knives, cups, etc.) *clatter*; coins *clink*; etc. (Ufimtseva, 2002:163).

Linguists also observe a connection between certain sounds or sound-clusters, and the motivation of the words containing them. Thus, it is suggested that '*fl*' in words like *fly*, *flee*, *flight*, *flimsy*, *flippant* conveys the idea of 'lightness, airiness, even grace', with the implication of 'instability, lack of weight'; '*spr*' in *spry*, *sprightly*, *springy* is associated with the idea of 'energetic, brisk, lively motions'.¹⁹

Some more clusters suggesting connotations are:

'gr' at the beginning of a word may suggest something unpleasant or miserable – *groan*, *grumble*, *grumpy* (*bad-tempered*), *grunt*, *growl*;

'cl' at the beginning of a word may point to something sharp and/or metallic – *click*, *clang* (make a loud ringing noise), *clank* (make a dull metallic noise, not as loud as a clang), *clash*, *clink*;

'ash' at the end of a word is associated with something fast and violent – *smash*, *dash* (move or be moved violently), *crash*, *bash* (strike heavily so as to break or injure). *Gash* (a long deep cut or wound);

'wh' at the beginning of a word often suggests the movement of air – *whistle*, *whirr* (sound like a bird's wings moving rapidly), *whizz* (make the sound of something rushing through air), *wheeze* (breathe noisily esp. with a whistling sound in the chest).

¹⁹ Such clusters are termed *phonesthemes* (*phonaesthemes*), and due to their emotionally expressive nature are studied by Linguo-stylistics. For more details see Akhmanova, *The Structure of Inherent Connotation // Linguo-stylistics: Theory and Method*, 1972.

2.4.3 Semantic Motivation

The third type of relationship pointing to the inner form of a word is semantic motivation. In this case the new meaning of the word is explained through the older one. Very often the newer meaning is based on a figurative transference, in the centre of which is a vivid image. For example, when we use the phrase *the root of evil*, we employ an analogy with a plant, in which the figurative extension of the meaning is due to the transference of the component ‘part that attaches the plant to the soil and conveys nourishment from it’ to the concept of ‘evil’.

Two commonly acknowledged types of transference are distinguished in linguistic literature due to the two types of logical associations underlying the semantic process (of change of meaning): those of resemblance (similarity) and contiguity²⁰.

The resemblance-based type of transference is also called *linguistic metaphor*. With reference to the component ‘linguistic’ in the terms ‘linguistic metaphor’ and ‘linguistic metonymy’ it should be stated that it is used to stress the systematic character of figurative extension (whether on the basis of resemblance or contiguity with the old referent) as different from metaphor and metonymy as stylistic means used for occasional nomination. Thus, metaphor and metonymy are characteristic of language (and vocabulary specifically) as a system.

One of the meanings of the word *eye*, for example, is ‘hole of a needle’, developed through resemblance with the organ of sight. Another such example is *neck of a bottle*. Interestingly, a further metaphoric extension takes place when

²⁰ In this course the two types of transference are presented. However, in linguistic investigations a larger variety of semantic changes are discussed: hyperbole, litotes, irony, euphemism.

Academician Atayan singles out three: metaphor, metonymy, synechdoche. The third is the one based on the relations of part and whole in either direction (Atayan, 1981: 266-279).

Comparing linguistic metonymy and linguistic synechdoche, Krongauz stresses that the former is more regular and conventional in use than the latter (Krongauz, 2005:129).

the word *bottleneck* is used to refer to ‘the point at which flow of traffic, production, etc., is constricted, narrow place’. Linguistic metaphor is also in the centre of the concept of *branch* (by analogy with the ‘subdivision of a tree’) when it is applied to a sphere of knowledge – *branch of Linguistics*.

The metaphorical change of meaning is rather common in those instances when people are compared to animals: *catty/bitchy* (malicious-tongued), *sheepish* (awkwardly self-conscious), *cocky* (arrogant), as well as in some compounds and phraseological units.

For example: *You're such a slow-coach.*

He's rather a cold fish (distant, unfriendly).

She has a heart of gold (very kind, generous).

All that trouble last year was just swept under the carpet in the end (ignored, deliberately forgotten without solving it).

Numerous cases of metaphoric transference are based on transitions of proper names to common ones: *a Falstaff* – ‘a corpulent, jovial, impudent person’; *a Don Juan* – ‘an attractive seducer’; *a Philistine* – ‘a mercenary person, hypocrite’; etc.

The contiguity-based transference is known as **linguistic metonymy**, when in the semantic motivation of the word the shift of names is based on the connection between different objects and phenomena. These connections or relations may be spatial, temporal, causal, instrumental, functional, etc.

A historical example is the adjective *sad* the meaning of which in Old English was ‘satisfied with food’. Later the word developed the meaning ‘over-satisfied with food’, acquiring negative evaluative connotations – the physical unease and discomfort of a person who has had too much to eat. Further, another shift of meaning took place – from the description of physical to that of spiritual discomfort, as the two states are associated with each other. Today the word *sad* has the senses ‘melancholy, sorrowful’ only.

The metonymic relation of object – material is found in such words as *a mink* (mink coat), *a taffeta* (dress made of this type of silk), *jeans* (trousers made of jeans), *an iron*, etc.

Another type of metonymic relation is based on object – material – proper name. For example, the word *china* in the sense of ‘dishes made of porcelain’ originated from the name of the country which was believed to be the name of the place where porcelain was made; *tweed* meaning a ‘coarse wool cloth’ got its name from the river Tweed.

Often the name of the author is transferred onto his works: *a Renoir*, *a Shakespeare*, etc. There are also many instances in political vocabulary when the name of a place of some establishment is used for the establishment or its policy: *the White House*, *the Pentagon*, *Wall Street*, *Downing Street*, *Fleet Street*, etc.

Here also belong the well-known instances of symbol for thing symbolized: *the crown* for ‘monarchy’; the instrument for the product: *hand* for ‘handwriting’; receptacle for content, e.g. *kettle*, *cup* (cf.: *kettle* or *cup* as empty receptacles and the metonymic uses *drink a cup*, *pour a kettle*). Some more examples are relationships of action/result of action (cf.: *composition* of a novel/ *composition* as a piece of writing; *drawing* as a process/ *drawing* as a piece of art); places as settlements/ people living in them (cf.: We arrived in the *city*/ The whole *city* was present at the event.); science/object of investigation (*semantics*, *geography*, *history*), etc.

Such cases are many in number, and it is practically impossible to provide a comprehensive classification of metonymic or metaphoric relations within the scope of this course.

2.5 Change of Meaning

From the previous discussion it becomes obvious that the historical development of language is accompanied by changes in the vocabulary which also consist in changes of word

meaning. A notable example, which illustrates how a word can change both in meaning and form, is the adjective *tawdry* (the word is discussed in McArthur, 2002:12). The Anglo-Saxon name of the patron saint of Ely Cathedral in Cambridge-shire is *Etheldreda* - the original word having undergone the significant changes in meaning and form. Namely, the Normans, in the years after 1066, reduced the name *Etheldreda* to *Audrie*, and an annual fair in Ely came to be known as *Saint Audrie's Fair*. At the fair, a fine silk lace was sold called *St Audrey's lace*. In the course of time this came to be known as *tawdry lace*. The quality of the lace declined over time, giving the word *tawdry* its present meaning 'showy, but cheap and ill-made; involving low moral standards'.

To arrive at any understanding of the process of change in this or any other word, we should be able to answer the questions: "Why do changes occur?"; "How do they occur?"; "How do the denotative and connotative components of the changed word-meaning compare to those of the previous word-meaning?"

2.5.1 Causes of Semantic Change

The first question we put forward concerns the causes of semantic change, which are of two types: extra-linguistic and linguistic.

Extra-linguistic Factors in the Semantic Change

Semantic changes occur when new referents or concepts appear, or the old ones change. For example, the word *screen* which formerly denoted 'a heat-shield placed in front of a fireplace (fire-screen)' today is used also to denote 'a surface on which images are projected', as well as 'the surface on which the image appears in a television or radar receiver'. It can even denote 'the film industry, films' (cf. *a star of stage and screen*).

In this reference, the terminological layer of the vocabulary could be mentioned as providing typical examples. For example, the word *atom* denoting minute portion or thing' has now acquired a terminological value in science and denotes

‘the smallest particle of chemical elements and source of atomic energy’.

The change in the concept of ‘instrument of investigation’ has caused change of meaning in the word *probe* from ‘blunt-ended surgical instrument for exploring wounds’ to ‘unmanned exploratory spacecraft transmitting information about its environment’, as well as ‘penetrating investigation’.

In present-day English the verb *to sail* means ‘to glide or move smoothly or in stately manner’, whereas originally it meant only ‘to travel on water by use of sails’.

The word *hospice* – formerly denoting ‘a place of shelter for travellers or the destitute, run by a religious order’ – has now acquired the meaning ‘a nursing home, esp. for terminally ill patients’.

The word *pilot* once used to denote only ‘a person qualified to conduct a ship into or out of port’, today also denotes ‘a person who operates controls of aircraft’.

As an extra-linguistic factor could be mentioned euphemistic replacement, the substitution of a mild, indirect or vague expression for an offensive or unpleasant one. Euphemistic replacement is normally used for ethical purposes. Such examples are: *fall asleep, pass away, join the better, go to the green pastures* for *die*; *rehabilitative correctional facilities* for *prisons*; *homemakers* for *housewives*; *hearing impaired* for *deaf people* etc.

In the political vocabulary common recent euphemisms are *depression* for *crisis*, *undernourishment* for *starvation*, *redundant* for *unemployed*, *adjustments* for *salary cuts*, etc.

#Linguistic Factors in Semantic Change

Along with the changes in the correlation between the logical/conceptual content of the word and the object to which it refers, there arise such that are determined by the lexical-grammatical relations between words and the semantic context in which the words exist. In other words, semantic changes occur on the plane of linguistic means, where the lexical-grammatical and semantic relations are rooted in the vocabulary

as a system, an individual word being one of its elements. Among such linguistic factors are: ***discrimination of synonyms, ellipsis, linguistic analogy and semantic transference.***

The ***discrimination of synonyms*** is observed in those cases when borrowings of a later historical period affect the semantic structure or stylistic value of the words already existing in the language. Such an example is the verb *to starve* discussed earlier.

We could also mention the word *foe*, which after the word *enemy* was borrowed, was shifted to the stylistic layer of elevated (poetic) words.

The word *land* used to denote 'solid part of earth's surface' and also 'territory of the nation'. After the word *country* was borrowed from French in the Middle English period (ME *contree*), the word *land* preserved only the meaning 'part of earth's surface'.

Ellipsis takes place in those cases when a phrase is reduced to one of its components, the latter incorporating the meaning of the omitted word too. Ellipsis is based on the phenomenon of semantic condensation. Cf. *a weekly (paper), a musical (show), a grocer's (shop), etc.*

Linguistic analogy is the phenomenon when the words in a synonymic set develop the same meaning after one of the set has acquired that meaning. For example, the verbs *grasp, get*, synonymous with *catch*, by semantic extension acquired the meaning 'to understand'. Another example of linguistic analogy is the development of the semantic component 'immediately' in the adverbs having the meaning *rapidly – quickly, instantly, rapidly, etc.*

The fourth linguistic factor is ***transference*** based on ***contiguity or resemblance (metaphoric and metonymic transference)*** discussed earlier, in connection with semantic motivation.

2.5.2 Results of Semantic Change

Both linguistic and extra-linguistic causes result in semantic changes which touch the denotative and connotative components. Changes in the *denotative* component are indicative of two tendencies: **generalization** (broadening) and **specialization** (restriction) of meaning. When the meaning is specialized, the word can name fewer objects, but the restriction does not imply that the content of the notion is reduced. Moreover, the notion (concept) expressed by the word becomes richer.

For example, the noun *hound* (OE *hund*) initially denoted ‘dog’, now it denotes ‘a species of hunting dog’. In the Old English period the noun *dēor* denoted ‘wild beast’, whereas in Modern English the word *deer* is applicable to ‘a four-footed ruminant animal of which the male usu. has antlers’. Similarly, the denotative component of the word *meat* (edible flesh) has a restricted reference as compared with OE *mete* (food). Another example is OE *fuȝol* (bird) > ModE *fowl* (domestic bird).

In contrast, with the meaning being generalized, the word denotes more objects but the notion itself becomes somewhat poorer, less concrete. Very often generalization is combined with a higher order of abstraction than in the notion expressed by the earlier meaning.

For example, *fly* originally meant ‘to move through the air with wings’, now it denotes ‘any kind of movement in the air or outer space’. The verb *to bootleg* initially meant ‘to sell alcoholic drinks illegally’; now the scope of the referential component is wider: ‘to sell anything illegally’. Note also: OE *haliz daȝ* (a religious feast day) > ME *holi day* (church festival falling on a week day) > ModE *holiday* (day of rest from work).

The synonymic discrimination in the pair *season/spring* resulted in the extension of the denotative component of *season* from ‘period between winter and summer’ to ‘any of the four parts of the year’.

Changes in the connotative component are of two main types: **amelioration (improvement)** and **deterioration (pejorative meaning development)**.

The word *knave* discussed earlier is an example of deterioration, i.e. acquisition by the word of derogatory emotive charge. Another example is the word *villain* (feudal serf, farm servant), which now denotes ‘person guilty or capable of great wickedness, scoundrel’.

The reverse process (amelioration) can be traced in the words *marshal* and *minister*. The first originally denoted ‘servant looking after horses, horse-tender’, and the second – ‘servant, attendant’. Some more examples are: *cwen* (woman) > ModE *queen*, OE *cniht* (young servant) > ModE *knight*, OE *stiȝweard* (keeper of the pigs) > ModE *steward* (man taking care of the passengers on a ship), OE *hlaefdige* (hlaef: loaf + dig: knead) > ModE *Lady* (1. title used by women who are members of the nobility; 2. well-educated woman with good manners), OE *hlaford* (hlaef: loaf + weard: warden) > ModE *lord* (title used by some high ranks of noblemen). With reference to the word *lady*, it should be mentioned that amelioration is not the only type of semantic change that the word has undergone. If we look at the semantic structure of the word, we will see that the changes are both quantitative and qualitative, i.e. the semantic structure of the polysemous word has become richer due to the number and the variety of the new senses that have emerged. On the other hand, the comparison of the senses ‘farmer’s wife’ > ‘woman’ reveals a tendency towards generalization, while the change from ‘farmer’s wife’ to ‘title used to refer to Mary, the Mother of Christ’ is indicative of specialization (restriction).

QUESTIONS

1. Define *linguistic meaning*.
2. Comment on the conventional character of the interdependence between *sound-form* and *referent*.
3. Prove that the word-meaning and the concept that the word expresses are not necessarily identical.

4. What is *linguistic context*?
5. Can a speech situation be called *context*?
6. Name the main characteristics of *grammatical meaning*.
7. What is *distribution*?
8. Comment on the difference between *lexical* and *grammatical meaning* in terms of occurrence in word-forms.
9. What is *part-of-speech meaning*?
10. How does the balance between grammatical and lexical meaning vary from word to word?
11. Comment on the difference between *denotation* and *signification*. Bring an example to illustrate the point.
12. How do *connotations* arise?
13. Is the emotive charge an objective characteristic of a word?
14. Can we assert that if the denotative meanings of two words are identical, their overall meanings are identical too?
15. Can we claim that *bias words* are socially (culturally) determined?
16. Why are neutral words termed *unmarked*?
17. Name the main characteristics of neutral words.
18. Why is the colloquial subgroup of informal words more extensive than those of slang and dialect words?
19. What is *motivation*?
20. What other factors (along with the individual lexical meanings of the morphemes and their combinability) are central to morphological motivation?
21. Are one-morpheme words motivated?
22. What is *differential meaning*?
23. Can the diachronic approach be useful in explaining the loss of motivation?
24. What is *phonetic motivation*?
25. Prove that onomatopoeic words are not completely motivated.
26. Do phonaesthemes occur only in initial positions?

27. Outline the variety of onomatopoeic words according to their origin.
28. What is *semantic motivation*?
29. Explain the component 'linguistic' in the terms *linguistic metaphor* and *linguistic metonymy*.
30. Bring an example of double occurrence of figurative extension (transference) with the same components.
31. What kind of relations is contiguity based on?
32. Outline and illustrate the extra-linguistic factors that bring about semantic change.
33. What linguistic factors cause semantic change?
34. Comment on the diachronic aspect of the phenomenon of *discrimination of synonyms*.
35. On what semantic phenomenon is *ellipsis* based?
36. In which of the two cases of change in the denotative component (generalization and specialization) is the content of the notion the word expresses richer, and in which case does the word name more objects?
37. Can there be both *generalization* and *specialization* in the semantic structure of one and the same word?

3. Polysemy, Homonymy, Context

Apart from referring to fragments of reality (to phenomena, processes, qualities, etc.), words are also viewed as fragments of the entire system of language vocabulary, every item of the latter being related to the others both paradigmatically and syntagmatically.

Along the paradigmatic axis, words represent the system of lexis and enter different groups or sets as synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, etc. Systematic relations and certain structural regularities are observable within the semantic scope of individual words as well – in such cases we can analyze the semantic structures of polysemous words.

However, since language exists only in speech and through speech (including both modes: written and spoken), the two axes, paradigmatic and syntagmatic, intersect. This intersection becomes more vivid in cases of polysemy and homonymy because any possible ambiguity that the phenomena may arouse can be eliminated in and through context.

3.1 Polysemy and Homonymy in the English Vocabulary

Polysemy and homonymy are semantic universals inherent in the fundamental structure of language though the frequency of these linguistic phenomena varies in different languages. As for the English language, its vocabulary abounds in homonymous and polysemous words, for which there are a number of historical reasons.

The factors which are clearly stated to have greatly influenced the formal and semantic features of the English vocabulary are: (1) the abundant influx of borrowed words, (2) the rise of conversion as a typically English word-building process, (3) the tendency for multiple changes of meaning in existing words (Amosova, 1968:18).

We deal with polysemy when a word has a set of different meanings. Such a word is called *polysemous* or *polysemantic*.

Words identical in form (sound-form or graphic form) but different in meaning are termed **homonyms**.

If it were not for polysemy, we would have to learn and remember an unthinkable number of words, one for each object or phenomenon. If it were not for polysemy, language would be significantly deprived of its variety of expression, figurative power. But for polysemy, and to a certain extent homonymy too, language would lack the possibilities of playful interaction between meanings.

In connection with the above it seems appropriate to recall a famous pun from dramatic literature, Mercutio's laconic joke (crack) as he is dying:

Ask for me tomorrow and you shall find me a grave man (*Romeo and Juliet*, III, i). Obviously, the pun is based on the lexico-grammatical homonymous pair *grave* (noun)/ *grave* (adjective), the noun denoting 'an excavation for burial of a body; tomb', and the adjective denoting 'serious, dignified'.

Another pun (quoted from Arnold, 1973) is based on the interplay between the meanings of the perfect (integral, full) homonyms *liver*₁ / *liver*₂:

Is life worth living? – It depends on the liver.

The two meanings employed simultaneously are: 'the organ that secretes bile' and 'one who lives, a living person'.

A third joke is based on the polysemy of the adjective *light*, when it is taken in its literal sense (little in weight) and its figurative extension (not serious, entertaining).

Customer: I would like a book please.

Bookseller: Something light?

Customer: That doesn't matter. I have my car with me.

It goes without saying that **polysemy** becomes very important in providing means for enriching the vocabulary, for the growth of vocabulary is usually not only in the direction of adding new words, but also in the development of the semantic structure of individual words.

For example, if we consult *Longman New Universal Dictionary* for the word *flight*, we shall find that it denotes: (1) passage through the air using wings, (2) the ability to fly, (3) the distance covered in a flight, (4) the trajectory of a struck ball, (5) group of similar creatures or objects flying through the air, (6) a brilliant, imaginative exercise or display, (7) a continuous series of stairs from one landing or floor to another, (8) any of the vanes or feathers at the tail of a dart, arrow, etc. that provide stability, (9) a small unit of (military) aircraft or personnel in the Royal Air Force. We can count as many as 9 different but at the same time related meanings presented in the same dictionary entry.

It has been calculated that 500 of the commonest words of the English language convey 10000 meanings. According to another estimate, the most frequent English words have on average 25 meanings.

So then if the commonest part of the English vocabulary is made up of polysemous words, how common is monosemy?

Monosemy, i.e. the availability of only one meaning in the semantic structure of the word, is not characteristic of language on the whole. Still, monosemantic words do exist in language although in time they tend to acquire new meanings. Monosemy, as a rule, is observable in terms (the terminological layer of the vocabulary) and borrowings denoting exotic objects: *hydrogen*, *molecule*, *igloo*, *koala*, etc.

However, as already mentioned, monosemantic words do not remain unchanged, and a typical example is the word *robot*, which today denotes not only (1) automation with human appearance or functioning like human, (2) automatic mechanical device, but also (3) a machine-like person, and in new computer technologies – (4) a user-program.

Even on the example of the semantic structure of the polysemous word *robot* we can well notice that it is the result of historical changes, in the course of which new, **secondary meanings** are derived from the earlier or **primary meaning**.

Here the terms *primary* and *secondary* are used to refer to the chronological order in which the semantic components occur.

For example, the primary meaning of the word *hand* is ‘the end of forelimb of human beings, monkeys, etc. when modified as a grasping organ’. From this primary meaning further, secondary meanings were derived in the course of historical development. In the XIV c., e.g. the word *hand* denoted also ‘skill, ability’. In the XVI c., the word acquired the meaning ‘person doing manual labour’, later – ‘worker, employee’, as well as ‘a member of a ship’s crew’. In present-day English the word *hand* has a number of other meanings too, which will be presented selectively: ‘pointer or marker; group of leaves (of tobacco, for example) reaped or tied together, or of bananas growing together; control, supervision; side, direction; pledge of marriage; handwriting; assistance, aid; a round of applause; handiwork’, etc.

As distinct from the diachronic approach by means of which an attempt is made to follow the historical changes in the semantic structure of the word, the synchronic approach handles the various meanings coexisting in a certain historical period, focusing on the interrelation of individual meanings making up the semantic structure of the word. At the level of synchronic investigation the main concern of linguists is the differentiation of central (basic or major) and minor (marginal or peripheral) meanings on the basis of their relatedness and frequency of occurrence.

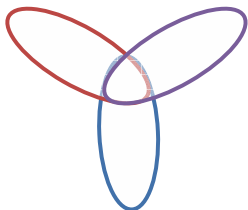
The notion of relatedness of meanings in the semantic structure of a polysemous word is closely connected with the phenomenon of figurative transference, as often the minor (or peripheral) meaning is derived from the central one due to the extension of the semantic content of the word to cover new fragments of reality. Thus as a result of such semantic extension, words not only preserve their literal meanings, but also ‘stretch out’ to comprise transferred ones (cf. *face* in *the face of the clock*; *hand* in *the hour hand*; *eye* in *the eye of a needle*, etc).

And it is due to this ‘elasticity’ of the semantic scope that the playful punning referred to earlier becomes possible.

It should be mentioned, however, that it is not always possible to identify the semantic centre holding all the meanings together²¹. In the semantic structure of the word *board*, for example, the meanings ‘ship-board’ and ‘stage’ have evolved around the central meaning ‘piece of sawn timber’. However, only the diachronic analysis reveals that the meanings ‘official body, daily meals, table spread with a meal’ can be grouped around the now archaic meaning ‘table’ (cf.: *board games*).

Concerning the synchronic and diachronic analysis of the semantic structure of a polysemous word, and in the light of the above the following should be stressed.

²¹ In lexicological studies of semantic structures (often referred to as semantic nets) two main models of sense relationships are discussed: semantic structures with and without a centre. By singling out, for example, three senses of the same polysemous word, linguists observe that the senses can be distributed radially or as a chainlike structure. In the first case the invariant core is included in all the three senses. In certain cases the invariant may coincide with one of the senses. An example of the radial model is the word *wheel* 1. circular object under a wheel car, bicycle, etc., 2. circular object used to steer a car, ship, etc., 3. flat circular part in a machine.



The second model can be presented as a diagram in which the senses do not have a common centre, but are connected with each other successively, with the first and third senses being related through the second. In the chainlike model the main sense (nowadays referred to as prototypical) is the first one (just as it is registered in dictionaries). An example of this model is the word *coffee* 1. roasted seeds of a tropical bush, their powder 2. hot drink made from coffee, 3. colour of coffee mixed with milk. Variations of mixed types are also possible. See Krongauz (2005:126-130); Antroushina (1999:131-136).

Firstly, the main (central) lexical meaning of the word is that one which is free, direct (nominative, literal), characterized by most stability and frequency in the given period of language development. It is perceived as an essential and basic means of expressing the significant features of the concepts conveyed by the word (Ufimtseva, 2004:219-220). Having stable lexical-phraseological forms, the main (central) meaning can serve as the semantic centre of further derivation.

Secondly, the notion of basic (central) meaning should be kept apart from the notion of primary (as opposed to secondary) meaning.

Finally, the semantic structures of polysemous words undergo changes, and meanings that were basic (central) in an earlier historical period can stop being such in later periods because they lose their productivity.

3.2 On the Common Features of Polysemy and Homonymy

That polysemy and homonymy are discussed together in this course is not accidental. For this there are a number of reasons.

The **first** is the fact that often it is rather difficult to tell the cases of homonymy from those of polysemy, namely, whether we deal with distinct words having their distinct meanings (homonyms), or the meanings of the same word (polysemy). In such cases the problem of establishing the semantic boundaries of the word cannot be readily solved if we rely on the **semantic criterion** only, trying to reveal if the meanings of the words are related or not. This approach is thought as rather vague and subjective by many linguists. We could think, for example, of metaphorically motivated meanings in the semantic structure of a polysemous word as bordering on cases of homonymy. Besides, we should not forget about the two tendencies (principles) central to polysemy: discrete meanings (senses) on the one hand, and diffuseness of them, on the other.

We should also keep in mind the fact that in some parts of the ‘elastic’ semantic scope of the word the boundaries between individual meanings (senses) may be blurred, and we may not guess easily whether we deal with a distinct sense, or the semantic variations occur due to context and collocability; in other words, whether the realization of the word in context is due to its one distinct sense rather than another, or whether it is the words with which it is brought together that affect the meaning.

For example, the polysemous verb *concern* often used in the passive comprises the following senses: 1. to affect, involve: ‘The loss was a tragedy for all concerned’; 2. to be about: ‘The story concerns the protagonist’s attempt to solve a mystery’; ‘The article concerns itself with the theoretical bases of the investigation’; 3. to worry somebody: ‘What concerns me is your bad temper’; 4. to take an interest: ‘He didn’t concern himself with the details’; 5. to consider important: ‘She was concerned to write about situations that everybody could identify with’. The last two senses (so defined by Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary) are so closely connected that we could probably consider them as one, and the corresponding sentences as contexts in which one sense is realized with slight variations. To support this point of view, we could state that the notions ‘taking/showing interest’ and ‘considering important’ are mutually dependent. Moreover, as our experience proves, we pay attention to things that are interesting to us, and also since we take more interest in a thing to know it better, we consider it more important. Another argument to prove that the two senses are somehow fused is that when paraphrasing the two sentences, we could replace the corresponding verbs in 4 and 5 by both ‘to take an interest’ and ‘consider important’.

Thus, (4) ‘He didn’t concern himself with the details’ could be paraphrased into: a) ‘He took no interest in the details’ and b) ‘He didn’t consider the details important’. Similarly, (5) ‘She was concerned to write about situations’ could result in: a)

‘She found writing about such situations interesting’ and b) ‘She considered writing about such situations important’.

On the other hand, we should not overlook the fact that *concern oneself with/about* in (4) is followed by a noun or gerund, while *be concerned* in (5) is followed by an infinitive. Obviously, the syntactical (colligational) factor in the latter case adds to the more active and evaluative aspect in ‘consider important’, thus causing the slight difference.

If we recall the example of *board* discussed earlier, we shall see that it is not an easy task to say with every confidence that the *board* denoting ‘a sawn piece of wood’ and the one denoting ‘official body’ are homonyms because no relation or semantic core (centre) can be singled out at the synchronic level.

The complex character of semantic relations is a problem also in the cases of parallel polysemy, when a word has a number of nominative (direct) meanings – “concrete names referring to things or actions which have developed independently of each other” (Gvishiani, 2000:156). Typical cases can be found among phrasal verbs.

In the semantic structure of the verb *do up* are included the following senses: 1. to (cause to) fasten: ‘You’ve done up your buttons the wrong way’ (transitive); ‘These old-fashioned trousers do up with buttons’ (intransitive); 2. to wrap: ‘The presents were done up in shiny paper’; 3. to tie in an arrangement: ‘Will you help me to do up my hair?’; 4. (infml) to repair, improve (something): ‘We are going to do up our flat’; 5. (infml) to make (oneself) more beautiful: ‘Mary has done herself up for the party’; 6. (AmE) to preserve (food): ‘Mother is doing up some blackberries’; 7. (AmE) to wash and press (clothes): ‘Can you do up my shirt before tomorrow?’; 8. (infml) to ruin (someone): A dishonest firm can easily do up its customers’; 9. (BrE) be done up - (not fml) to be very tired: ‘You go on ahead, I’m done up and must rest here’.

Obviously, we can group the first three senses around the concept ‘fasten, join parts together’; however, the senses ‘repair’ (4), ‘preserve’ (6) ‘wash and press’ (7) and ‘ruin’ (8) appear

rather isolated. In time they may give rise to homonyms. As for the last one (9), we should also take into account the fact that the grammatical category of voice acquires lexical significance. Other examples of parallel polysemy are the phrasal verbs *go out*, *get up*, *fall in*, etc.

When dictionaries present such words as polysemous, they rely on the **etymological criterion**. (And we remember that in the case of *board* the meaning ‘table’ is archaic today.) The etymological criterion and the diachronic approach are commonly used by lexicographers, but often these methods do not prove efficient as they somewhat fail to reflect the present state of the English vocabulary.

For example, there is no obvious relation between the meanings ‘atmosphere’ (*air*₁), ‘manner’ (*air*₂) and ‘tune’ (*air*₃), if we look at them from the position of today’s English, but dictionaries present the meanings as belonging to the semantic structure of the polysemous (polysemantic) word *air*. Palmer notices that with verbs the problem is often even greater, bringing the example of *to charge*, which is used in connection with *electricity*; *charging expenses*; *of a cavalry attack* and *of an accusation* (Palmer, 1982:48).

It is also worth mentioning that there are cases of homonyms derived from the same origin but spelt differently: *metal/ mettle* (quality of endurance and courage), *flour/ flower*, etc.

Additionally, as methods of investigating polysemy and homonymy are proposed the **transformational** (explanatory) and **distributional** analyses. The transformational analysis (based on synchronic data) proceeds from the assumption that “if different senses rendered by the same phonetic complex can be defined with the help of an identical kernel word group”, they may be considered as meanings of the same word, otherwise – they are homonyms (Arnold, 1973:173). Arnold discusses *voice*₁ denoting ‘sounds uttered in speaking or singing’, *voice*₂ – ‘mode of uttering sounds in speaking or singing’ and *voice*₃ – ‘the vibration of the vocal chords in sounds uttered’. All the three

transformation-based definitions contain the kernel *sounds in speaking or singing*, therefore, the three are the meanings of the polysemantic word *voice*. In a fourth case, *voice*₄, however, the meaning ‘form of the verb that expresses relation of the subject to the action’ does not contain the kernel element. Therefore, it is a separate meaning of a distinct, homonymous word.

The method seems attractive, but it cannot be effective in differentiating between polysemy and homonymy, especially in case of patterned homonymy – homonymous words having an invariant lexical meaning and belonging to various parts of speech.

As for the distributional analysis, it is helpful in establishing the boundaries of individual meanings of homonymous and polysemous words, but not in distinguishing between homonymy and polysemy. Namely, the distribution of a lexico-semantic variant of a word comprises a list of structural patterns in which the word occurs, and the analysis reveals how the word is combined with other units (for example, to define whether the distribution is typical of a noun or of a verb). Some typical structural patterns are: N+V+N; N+V+prep+N; N+V+A; N+V+adv; N+V+to+V; article+A+N, etc.

Two more factors which are taken into account when delimiting cases of homonymy from those of polysemy are **derivational capacity** and **range of collocability**.

Derivational capacity is especially characteristic of potential homonyms which develop their own sets of derivative or related words. A typical example is the pair *charge*₁ (when used with reference to electricity) and *charge*₂ (with reference to paying attention). From *charge*₁ is derived ‘*charger*’ (equipment used to put electricity into a battery), from *charge*₂ is derived ‘*chargeable*’ (as it is used in: ‘Living expenses are chargeable to my account’).

Correspondingly, the ranges (of the collocability) of the words are distinctly separate in the phraseological units of which they are part; cf. *charge*₃ (price) > ‘*free of charge, at no extra*

charge’, and *charge*₄ (in legal contexts) > ‘*bring/press charges, drop the charges*’ (Gvishiani, 2000:155-157).

The **second** reason for which polysemy and homonymy need to be considered in close connection with each other is the historical development of the two phenomena. In particular, one of the sources of **homonymy** is the **split of polysemy, or the divergent meaning development** of a polysemantic word. In this process, the connection between the meanings of the polysemantic word is lost because at a certain point the “new lexical-semantic variants become mutually incompatible semantically, morphologically, in terms of collocation, style, frequency of occurrence, usage, etc.” (Minaeva, 1982:103). Hence, the meanings are felt as of separate words, homonyms.

Such an example is the pair *flour/ flower*, the meanings of which were originally presented in the semantic structure of one word denoting both ‘the flower’ and ‘the finest part of wheat’.

Another example of divergent meaning development from polysemy is the homonymous pair *beam*₁ / *beam*₂. The connection between *beam*₁, denoting ‘a ray of light’ and *beam*₂ denoting ‘the metallic structural part of a building’ is lost and can be revealed only diachronically, through the meaning ‘tree’.

Divergent meaning development (or development of homonymy through disintegration) can be viewed also on the example of the homonyms *box*₁, *box*₂, *box*₃, *box*₄, *box*₅. Although all these have a common point of origin, the Latin *buxus* (Gr. *pyxos* – sort of tree), in present-day English they have separate meanings and individual semantic structures: (1) a kind of small evergreen shrub, (2) receptacle made of wood cardboard, metal, etc. and usu. provided with a lid, (3) to put into a box, (4) slap with the hand on the ear, (5) to fight with fists in padded gloves.

And finally, illustrative of the process of disintegration of polysemy is the group of *spring*₁ / *spring*₂ / *spring*₃ - (1) the act of springing, a leap (noun), (2) a place where a stream of water comes up out of the earth (noun), (3) a season of the year

(noun). Of the three the closest to the OE verb *springan* is the first.

Certainly, the split of polysemy (divergent meaning development) is not the only source of homonymy. Another, more powerful factor is known as **convergent sound development**, as a result of which phonetically distinct (different) words coincide in sound-form²².

Cf.: *match*₁ – ‘a short thin piece of wood with a top made of material that bursts into flame when rubbed on a rough or specially prepared surface’ (via French ‘*meche*’, and LL ‘*mysca*’ from Gr. ‘*myxa*’ – ‘slime, snuff of a candle’); and *match*₂ (from OE *ǰemæcca* – ‘fellow’).

Night and *knight* were not homonyms in OE as the initial ‘k’ was pronounced (kniht, niht). Neither were *to knead* (OE *cnēdan*) and *to need* (OE *nēodian*), *sea* (OE *sæ*) and *to see* (OE *sēon*).

The **third** factor that allows us to consider polysemy and homonymy in close connection is the context. In either case it is the context that helps to overcome any ambiguity or misunderstanding, as well as defines the boundaries of individual meanings.

3.3 Homonyms: Classification

It has been stated already that homonyms are words identical in form but different in meaning. This means that we deal with similarity on the plane of expression and difference in content. However, the situation with the definition and classification of homonyms is not as simple as it may seem. The complications are connected with the understanding of *form* (sound-form, graphic form), degree of coincidence and lexico-grammatical variation.

²² Convergent sound development and divergent meaning development are presented here as 2 major tendencies. However, within these, more specific sources could be mentioned too: borrowing, word-building (conversion, shortening, sound imitation) etc.

According to their form, homonyms are classified into **homophones**, **homographs** and **absolute (perfect, or integral) homonyms**.

Homophones (<Gr. *homos* – similar, *phono* – sound) are words identical in sound-form but different both in spelling and meaning.

E.g., *air/heir*, *pain/pane*, *right/rite/write*, *sent/scent*, *weather/whether*, *place/plaice*, *sole/soul*, *there/their/they're*, *rein/rain*, etc.

Homographs (<Gr. *homos* – similar, *grapho* – write) are words identical in spelling but different both in their sound-form and meaning.

E.g., *bow/bow*, *tear/tear*, *wound/wound*, *house/house*, *bathed/bathed*, etc.

Some linguists refuse to consider homographs as a type of homonymy, stating that spelling is a conventional method of graphical fixation of speech. However, at least two arguments could be brought in favour of considering such words as homonyms. The first is the possible ambiguity and difficulty in understanding written texts too (when the cause of ambiguity lies in homonymy)²³. The second is that the amount of written communication, as well as the need to produce and assimilate written texts, makes the graphic form of the word no less important than the sound-form.

Perfect homonyms are words identical in sound form and spelling but different in meaning. E.g., *match* (contest)/*match* (marriage), *box* (container)/*box* (slap or blow), etc.

According to the degree of coincidence of word-forms, all cases of homonymy can be presented as **full** and **partial homonyms**. The first type is discussed with reference to words which are homonymous in all their forms, i.e. the coincidence is preserved through the whole grammatical paradigm. Full homonymy is usually characteristic of words which represent the same part of speech.

²³ This argument is mentioned by Amosova (1968:26).

Cf.: *case* (occurrence)/ *case* (box), *spring* (season)/ *spring* (place where water comes out), *match* (contest)/ *match* (marriage), etc.

However, full homonymy is also possible between different word-classes too, provided one form is only available. Cf.: *for* (prep.)/ *for* (conj.)/*four* (numeral), *through* (prep.)/ *through* (adv.), *over* (prep.)/ *over* (adv.), etc.

The second type (partial homonyms) can also be presented as homonymy of individual word-forms, which is especially common in word-forms belonging to different parts of speech (e.g. *bear*- carry/ *bear* – animal; *match* – contest/ *match* – to fit; *lives* – v., Pr. Indef., III p. / *lives* – n., Common Case, plural; *rose* – n., Common Case, sing./ *rose* – v., Past Indef. of ‘to rise’), or individual word-forms within the same part of speech (e.g. *to hang* – *hung*, *hung* / *to hang* – *hanged*, *hanged*; *found* – Past Indef. and Past Part. of ‘to find’/ *found* – *founded*, *founded*, etc.).

Homonyms are also classified according to the type of meaning in which they differ: **lexical**, **lexico-grammatical**, **grammatical**.

Lexical homonymy includes the cases when the grammatical meanings of the word-forms as well as the part-of-speech meaning coincide, and only lexical meanings differ. For example, *case*₁ (occurrence) and *case*₂ (box) belong to the same part of speech and both have the same word-forms: *case* (Common Case, sing.), *cases* (Common Case, pl.), *case*'s (Possessive Case, sing.), *cases*' (Possessive Case, pl.). Similarly, *spring*₁ (season) and *spring*₂ (place where water comes out) are representative of the same class of words and have the same grammatical forms, with the difference being the lexical meaning only.

These are instances of full lexical homonymy. As for partial lexical homonymy, a typical example is the pair *lie*₁/ *lie*₂. Cf.: *lie*₁ (to tell lies) and *lie*₂ (occupy a horizontal position) which coincide in some of the grammatical forms: Simple Infinitive, Present Indefinite, Participle I.

However, if we take another pair *spring*₁ (season)/*spring*₃ (rise rapidly or suddenly, leap), we shall discover differences not only in the lexical meaning but also in the grammatical paradigms, and therefore, the word-forms. Such homonymy is termed **lexico-grammatical**. *Spring*₁ has the forms *spring*, *springs*, *spring's*, *springs'*; and *spring*₃ has the forms *springs*, *sprang*, *sprung*, *springing*. As it can be seen, we have identical sound-forms in *spring*₁ (Common Case sing.) and *spring*₃ (Infinitive), as well as *springs*₁ (Common Case pl.) and *springs*₃ (Pr. Indef., III p. sing.) in which both the grammatical and lexical components of the meaning are different.

Lexico-grammatical homonymy is common also in homonyms resulting from conversion, in which case we deal with related meanings (patterned homonymy).

Cf.: *work*_n/*work*_v; *air*_n/*air*_v; *bargain*_n/*bargain*_v, etc.

Both lexical and grammatical semantic components may be different in words belonging to the same word-class. Such examples are: *found*₁ (Infinitive)/*found*₂ (Past Indef. or Past Part. of 'find'); *lay*₁ (Infinitive)/*lay*₂ (Past Indef. of 'lie'), etc.

As for **grammatical homonymy**, its main characteristic is that homonymous word-forms differ in grammatical meaning only. Cases of grammatical homonymy in English are the forms of the Past Indefinite Tense and Past Participle of the regular and of the part of irregular verbs (*asked/ asked*, *listened/ listened*, *thought/ thought*, *taught/ taught*), as well as the sound-forms of the Possessive Case singular and the Common Case plural of the noun (*teacher's/ teachers*, *student's/ students*).

In the present course we are concerned with the homonymy of words and word-forms. But in the English language homonymy is realized at the level of other language units too, for example, morphemes (whether derivational or inflectional). Note the three separate cases of **-s**: as a marker of III p. sing. Pr. Indef. form of the verb, as a marker of plurality, as well as a Possessive Case marker in nouns. Another example is **-er** as a noun-forming suffix on the one hand, and marker of the comparative form of adjectives, on the other. The term

‘homonymy’ is also used with reference to sentences and texts, in which case the homonymous syntactical structures can bring about multiple interpretations (cf.: *I heard about him at school; He had two adult sons and one daughter in a nunnery; The peasants are revolting*).

3.4 Context

As mentioned earlier, the role of context is essential in determining, or individualizing meaning. In other words, meaning is realized in context. It is in the context that the polysemy and homonymy of words and forms are eliminated, and it becomes possible to avoid ambiguity. Such examples have been discussed in this course in connection with the differentiation between the speech situation, which in Semasiology (Semantics) is often referred to as broad/ general or extra-linguistic context, and linguistic context, which is understood as the immediate syntactical environment of the word²⁴.

It is interesting to observe the mechanism due to which polysemous and homonymous words realize their meanings in context. For that purpose the prominent Russian linguist Amosova introduces the notions of *dependant* and *indicator*. The *dependant* is that word the meaning of which is to be realized in a given utterance. The *indicator* or *indicating minimum* is correspondingly defined as a word or a structural feature related to the *dependant* and bearing the semantic indication due to which the required meaning of the dependant is realized (Amosova, 1968).

When the semantic indication comes from the lexical meaning of the indicator, we deal with **lexical context**. When the semantic indication comes from the syntactical (grammatical) structure itself, we deal with **grammatical (or syntactical) context**.

²⁴ For the description of the non-verbal conditions of the speech act Amosova chooses the term *speech situation* and three main types of the latter: life situations, descriptive situations, thematic situations.

In the example, *My son likes the taste of dates*, the dependant *dates* realizes its meaning ‘sweet, edible fruit of the date-palm’ due to the lexical meaning of the word *taste* which suggests the choice of that meaning. Meanwhile in the sentence, *Write down your date of birth*, it is due to the indicator *birth* and its lexical meaning that the semantic choice: ‘statement of the time’, is performed²⁵.

As distinct from a lexical context, in a grammatical context the indicator is a structural peculiarity of the utterance, or a grammatical function. For example, the meaning of the word *ill* depends on the function it performs in the utterance: in the predicative function (*fall ill, be taken ill*) the meaning of the word will be ‘in bad health’, while in the attributive function (*ill luck, ill will*) it is ‘bad, hostile’.

When combined with the Infinitive, the verb *get* has the meaning ‘reach the stage of <doing something>’: *When you get to know him, you’ll like him*. Meanwhile when combined with Object + Infinitive, it acquires the meaning ‘persuade, cause to do or act in a certain way’: *You will never get him to come here*. Cf. also: *The fire has burnt since morning* (= The fire has been in the state of burning.) and *The fire has burnt everything*. As we add a direct object, the meaning of the verb *burn* changes. In the first sentence the contextual indication is due to the absence of a grammatical member, in the second case the indicator is the pronoun *everything* in the function of Direct Object.

Apart from the two types (lexical, grammatical), the linguistic context is characterized by a third variety – lexical-grammatical – a mixed type in which both the lexical meaning and syntactical (grammatical) structure are important in indicating the choice of the realized meaning.

²⁵ Prof. Amosova also proposes a further classification between lexical contexts of the first and second degree, specifying that in the first case the contextual elements have a direct (immediate) syntactical connection with one another, and in the second case no such connection is observed between the principal elements. The above examples are illustrative of the lexical context of the first degree.

For example, the syntactical structures being identical in the sentences: “*He ran₁ a big company years ago*” and “*He ran₂ across the bridge*”, the meanings of the dependants *ran*₁ and *ran*₂ (‘organize, manage’ and ‘move with quick steps’, respectively) are determined by the lexical indicators *company* and *across the bridge*. However, the difference in meaning is also due to the grammatical factor of transitivity.

As it was mentioned earlier with reference to linguistic meaning, the notion of context can be understood wider – to include that of speech situation as well. Naturally, it is not only linguistic context proper (with its varieties) that helps to eliminate any ambiguity connected with polysemy and homonymy, but also extra-linguistic context (context of situation), including the conditions of communication, the intention of the participants of the communication, etc.

QUESTIONS

1. Name the factors having influenced the formal and semantic features of the English vocabulary.
2. How does polysemy gain importance in enriching the vocabulary?
3. In which segment of vocabulary is monosemy usually observed?
4. What is *primary/secondary meaning*?
5. What types of meaning does the synchronic approach reveal in the semantic structure of words? What are the criteria of differentiation?
6. Is the semantic criterion a reliable means of separating cases of homonymy from those of polysemy? Illustrate the point.
7. What practical value does the etymological criterion have?
8. Explain the mechanism of the transformational method. Why cannot it be effective in the cases of patterned homonymy?

9. Comment on the connection between the semantic centre of the word and the historical development of the latter.
10. What is *divergent meaning development*, and what characteristics of the word are involved in the split of a polysemous word into independent units?
11. What is *convergent sound development*?
12. In what do homonyms always differ?
13. What is *form* in connection with homonymy?
14. Comment on the connection between the notions of *full homonymy* and *grammatical paradigm*.
15. Is full homonymy possible between different word classes?
16. What is *partial homonymy*?
17. What kind of homonymy occurs between words one of which has resulted from conversion?
18. What is *grammatical homonymy*?
19. Define the notions of *dependent* and *indicator*, and explain their interrelation as a basis for classification of linguistic context.

4. Vocabulary as a System of Sense Relationships

Despite the vast variety of lexical units, which may display similarity and contrast in meaning, phonetic shape or usage, the vocabulary of any language – and English is no exception – has an inner structure, which is revealed through classification.

Words (and the vocabulary as a whole) can be classified on various bases. For example, when distinguishing polysemantic words from monosemantic words, we proceed from the number of meanings in the semantic structure of the word. When differentiating words as homonyms, we proceed from their identical form and different meanings. Words can also be grouped under general headings (thematic groups) and around common concepts (conceptual/ semantic fields), as well as classified according to their semantic similarity (synonymy), polarity (antonymy), inclusion (hyponymy), etc.

4.1 Thematic Groups

A familiar classification of words is their grouping into *thematic groups*. This procedure is usually carried out for practical purposes – and namely, in language teaching. Thematic groups are, as a rule, lexical units brought under general headings for the purpose of communication on a concrete topic. The bases of such grouping are to a great extent extra-linguistic: the relations of the referents in real life are taken into account rather than the linguistic (semantic) relations between words²⁶. In other words, such words of common contextual association occur together in typical speech situations and need not necessarily have anything in common in terms of semantics, or represent the same part of speech.

For example, under the heading ‘*University*’ can go such words as: *student, lecturer, education, speak, listen, professor,*

²⁶ For more details see, Вердиева (1986).

teach, curriculum, dean, department, re-examination, auditorium, chair, etc. Other thematic groups, in which words are brought together for their common contextual association are: ‘*media*’ (*headline, come out, talk show, commentator, channel, broadcast, internet, news, view, edit, information, journalism, etc.*), ‘*technology*’ (*physical, method, electronic, research, development, discover, work out, experiment, introduction, science, revolutionary, etc.*), ‘*hobbies, sport and games*’ (*court, ring, viewer, referee, finale, racket, equal, draw, opponent, knock out, popular, compete, prefer, equip, practice, etc.*).

4.2 Conceptual (Semantic) Fields

Another type of classification revealing the systematic character of vocabulary is according to the common **concept** that the words share. Word–meaning in this classification is closely associated with the notion of conceptual (or semantic) fields, i.e. lexical meaning is viewed not as an isolated unit, but in close association with the meanings of other words. The words making up a semantic field are not synonyms though they have a common semantic component. Moreover, the meaning of each member of the set is determined by those of the others.

Lexical groups making up semantic fields may belong to the same, as well as to different parts of speech. A group which consists of words belonging to the same part of speech is termed a *lexico-semantic group*.

For example, in the lexico-semantic group forming the semantic field ‘*place to live in*’, the words *house, cottage, hut, edifice, skyscraper, shanty, block, cabin, mansion, palace, bungalow* share the same semantic component - *building*, which is termed **denominator**.

Such examples are numerous, and we can also mention other semantic fields, for example, of kinship, colours, feelings, activities, instruments, etc. It goes without saying that lexico-semantic groups vary in size, and in their turn may be divided into subgroups. For instance, the group formed around the

denominator *health* includes the adjectives *healthy, sound, well, tired, weary, dizzy, sea-sick, mad*, etc. The further differentiation will reveal the subgroups *in good health – healthy, sound, well*; and *not well in health – ill, sick, sickly*.

Obviously, the features around which words are grouped in conceptual fields can vary in number too. And, for example, in the adjectives: *sea-sick, feverish, stricken*, apart from the conceptual component *not well in health*, the component *cause of disease* is present too. For this very reason, the same word may belong to different semantic/conceptual fields. For example, the word *actress* can belong to the group of *professionals: worker, expert, artist, employee, specialist, clerk, chemist, doctor, musician, playwright, typist, secretary, etc.*, as well as to the group *female: girl, wife, woman, etc.*

It can be inferred from the above that polysemantic words too are subject to such a classification, and that in that case the correlations are considered on the basis of each individual meaning separately.

For example, in the semantic structure of the word *hand* referred to earlier, we could single out the senses ‘part of body’ and ‘worker’. Hence, in the first case the word will enter the lexico-semantic group forming the corresponding semantic field and including such words as: *foot, knee, hip, forearm, elbow, shoulder, ear, neck*, etc. In the second case it will represent the lexical group, in which the denominator is *worker: charge hand, farmhand, stagehand, labourer, office worker, research worker, rescuer, farmer, mechanic, employee*, etc. Furthermore, additional subdivisions are possible in either case if we specify the denominator: *person employed to do physical work (charge hand, farmhand, mechanic, etc.)*, or *part of limb*, as well as with a narrower scope – *part of arm*.

4.3 Hyponymy

Very closely connected with the notion of conceptual (or semantic) fields is the notion of **inclusion** based on the hyponymic relations between words. Inclusion should be

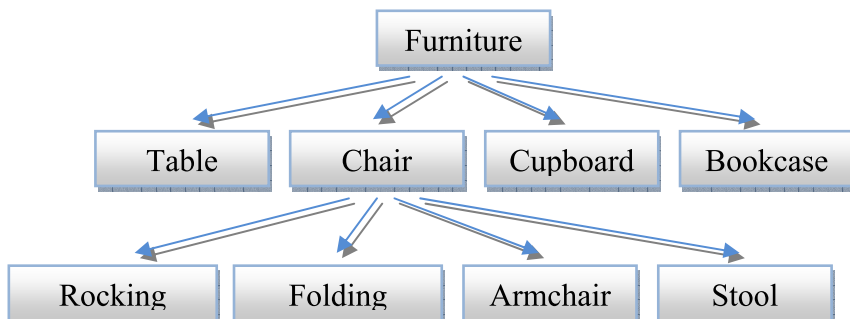
understood as class membership. For example, the words *dandelion*, *chamomile*, *rose*, *tulip*, *lily* are included in *flowers*. Similarly, *trout*, *salmon*, *tuna* are included in *fish*. In these hierarchical relations (for example, in the pair *trout/fish*) the upper term (fish) is the *super-ordinate* – also called *classifier*, or *hyperonym*, the lower term is the *hyponym* (trout). The words having the same hyperonym are called co-hyponyms (cf.: *salmon*, *trout*, *tuna* under the hyperonym *fish*).

Hyponymy involves the logical relationship of entailment (that can be paraphrased by means of the phrase “...follows from”). From the logical standpoint, to say that one sentence entails another is equal to saying, “If the first sentence is true, the second is also true”. On such logical grounds, “There are dandelions in the vase” entails “There are flowers in the vase”; or “These are tuna” entails “These are fish”. In other words, the sentence containing the hyponym entails the sentence containing the hyperonym²⁷. It is worth stressing that when describing the relations of hyponymy, we not only group the words, but also classify the corresponding objects (their referents).

Another noteworthy characteristic of hyponymy is that for the user of language the most significant level is the generic level. It is the level of the ordinary everyday names for objects: table, chair, cat, rose, cup, etc. Interestingly, this fact has not been overlooked by cognitive linguistics, and experiments come to prove that it is this level that is basic from the psychological as well as pragmatic point of view rather than the more abstract or general (furniture) or the more specific (rocking chair). This means that it is the words of this level that speakers most frequently use in everyday situations, and which tend to be neutral.

²⁷ Palmer notices that with the inclusion of the word *all* (when the reference is to all the items), the entailment is in the reverse direction: “*All flowers are beautiful*” entails “*All dandelions are beautiful*”.

The hyponymic classification is usually presented in the form of a tree-diagram, and therefore, it is clear that one and the same word can be both a hyponym and a hyperonym.



4.4 Synonymy

Apart from the above, words can also be classified according to their common referent and by the criterion of semantic similarity. In such cases we deal with the phenomenon of synonymy.

The problem of synonymy has not found a common and conclusive solution in linguistics: some linguists even consider that true synonymy cannot exist in a natural human language²⁸. The main point of controversy is the criterion of semantic equivalence, which if understood as semantic identity, naturally arouses suspicion because the lexical meanings of two separate words – including both the denotative and connotative components – can hardly be identical. In fact, we can observe complete synonymy only in the rare cases of monosemantic words representative of the terminological layer of the vocabulary (e.g. *spirant/ fricative* in Phonetics), which, as we remember from the earlier discussion of polysemy, tend to be short-lived.

Moreover, even though we emphasize the factor of semantic similarity (which is in the central semantic feature), no

²⁸ See, Н.Б. Гвишиани (1986); L. Minajeva (1982).

less important is the factor of difference within synonymic groups (in the peripheral features), for whether we aim to reveal similarity or difference, we oppose words to one another. In other words, to specify to what extent and how the words are similar, we should be aware of the difference between them.

For example, although the words *play*, *game* and *match* essentially refer to (denote) the same type of activity, they are not identical. And we should know that *play* is ‘any activity undertaken for amusement, recreation, sport’, etc.; *game* is usually ‘governed by set rules, or is a recreational contest’; and *match* is ‘a competition or contest of skill in which teams or persons are matched against each other’.

Another synonymic set is *beautiful*, *pretty*, *handsome* and *good-looking*, each individual member of which together with similarity possesses differences as well. Thus, *beautiful* implies *ideal beauty of classical proportions*. It can also be used about ideas, especially logic (a *beautiful* solution to a problem). *Pretty* denotes ‘quickly attractive in a simple way, not necessarily long-lasting or deep’. The word can even be used pejoratively or sarcastically. *Handsome* denotes ‘well-formed, of fine appearance’. The word can be used with reference to persons (especially males) and things. And finally, *good-looking* is ‘a bit less expressive than handsome and pretty’ (often with reference to an attractive face). The word can be applied to human beings and things.

Differences in synonyms can be rooted in both the denotative and connotative components. Accordingly, synonyms are traditionally classified into ideographic and stylistic. Stylistically homogeneous synonyms are called ideographic (or conceptual). Belonging to the same stylistic layer (often neutral), such words are connected with the same concept but may reflect different aspects of the referent. Such synonyms are: *power*, *force*, *energy*, of which *power* is ‘the ability to do or act’, *force* is ‘the power of body and mind’, *energy* is ‘the force, capacity to do things’.

Another example is *journey, voyage, trip, travel* and *tour*. All the words in this set belong to the neutral type, and conveying the concept ‘travel’, display variations in the denotative component.

With reference to the difference in the denotative component two observations are essential. The first is that synonyms always differ in their denotative components. The second is, however, that the difference cannot exceed certain limits, otherwise we would not speak of any synonymy.

The second type of synonyms classified on the basis of semantic difference is known as *stylistic* – synonyms differing in their stylistic reference (connotation). Such are *child/infant/kid; marry/join in holy matrimony; die/pass away/kick the bucket*, etc. If we pay attention to the last synonymic set in the list of examples, we will notice that the variants *pass away* (formal) and *kick the bucket* (informal/colloquial) are instances of euphemistic replacement referred to earlier. Thus, the phenomenon of euphemism is related to synonymy and touches the stylistic value of the synonymic variants as well. However, stylistic variation does not occur alone in synonyms, affecting only the connotative aspect. In fact, all synonyms have differences in their denotative meaning too, which means that there exist no purely stylistic synonyms.

For example, *small* means ‘not large in comparison with other persons, things, or some amount’; when used figuratively, it suggests ‘something of minor importance or value’. *Little* too means ‘not large’, but unlike *small* (which is neutral in stylistic value) carries an emotional element – it may mean ‘endearingly small’. The word is also used in the sense of ‘unimportant, insignificant’ referring to *quantity, duration, number or degree*.

Another synonymic set is *great/ large/ big*. Here too differences are obvious both in the connotation and denotation. *Large* usually refers to *space, extent, amount, quantity, capacity*. The word is stylistically unmarked. *Great* suggests ‘a high degree’ when used in a figurative sense, it expresses ‘distinction and admiration’. *Great* is more “literary”/ formal as compared

with *big*, although we know that it can be used in informal contexts too (cf. *We had a great time in Paris*). *Big* refers in the main to *mass, bulk, volume, weight*. It can also be used in the sense of *large*, but it is more colloquial and more emphatic than *large*. It may even sometimes sound a bit slangy.

Such examples are numerous, but even the few allow us to notice that the interrelation between the denotative and connotative components is rather complex. And while we can differentiate ideographic synonyms proper (stylistically homogeneous), purely stylistic synonyms are not possible, and Ginzburg suggests that the latter should be termed ideographic-stylistic synonyms.

A separate group is represented by words in which relations of synonymy (or rather equivalence) can be observed between literary standards (e.g. British English and American English): *autumn – fall, lift – elevator, porridge – oatmeal, handbag – purse, queue – line*. These are termed dialectal synonyms.

Indeed, synonyms possess some kind of duality: they are and are not the same. And this characteristic is central to synonyms, otherwise they could not perform their function in speech – to reveal different aspects, shades and variations of the same phenomenon.

In this respect of interest is the phenomenon of synonymic condensation used in situations “when writer and/ or speaker bring together several words from one and the same thematic group (or “words which bear on the same idea”) to enhance the purport, to make more detailed and more refined a certain underlying sense, to add conviction and force to their statements or, simply, to make for greater prosodic prominence of a thing-meant” (Minajeva, 1982:86)²⁹.

²⁹ Synonymic condensation is typical of English and is rooted in the history of the language. It was frequent in Early Middle English, when often French words were explained through their native synonyms. In Modern English some binomials follow this pattern: *safe and sound, lord and master, first and foremost, etc.*

Notice the sentence: *We have to agree that the relationship between the semantic components of the word is subtle and delicate, and often complex and intricate.*

Synonymic condensation is a powerful stylistic device. When used for stylistic purposes, it may be realized through looser relations (cf. “words from the same thematic group” in the definition). The mechanism at work in synonymic condensation is mainly based on the potential of the words involved in it to develop connotations which are close to one another. The newly developed meaning is usually context-bound (i.e. it is conditioned by the context in which it is realized). This results in a situation where words which are not synonyms paradigmatically function as such in their syntagmatic realization. In other words, words which are not synonymous at the level of dictionaries, when united by prosodic pattern and rhythm, may function as *contextual synonyms*. Moreover, within synonymic condensation a word can not only acquire new connotations, but also change its semantic scope, broaden it. In the examples below, the underlined words are not synonyms proper if we disregard the factor of context. However, syntagmatically, they are brought together in semantic sets under key notions. In the case of *condescend/forgive/permit* it is ‘forgive, be loyal’; in the case of *of life/of queen/of crown* it is ‘power, life’, etc.

E.g. *He had the graceful virtues, but not the legal ones. He could condescend, he could forgive, he could permit this.* (H. James, “Master Eustace”)

Thou incestuous, murderous, damned Dane.

Thus was I, sleeping, by a brother’s hand

Of life, of crown, of queen, at once dispatched.

Cut off even in the blossom of my sin,

Unhousel’d, disappointed, unaneled. (W. Shakespeare, “Hamlet”, I. V.)

Some of the contextual synonyms may become part of the vocabulary and can be perceived as such. Illustrative of the case are the words *swan* and *poet*, which may be considered as

synonyms in the phrase *the Swan of Avon* (said about W. Shakespeare).

Apart from the criterion of semantic similarity, in defining synonymy, linguists proceed from the criterion of interchangeability in contexts. Stating it otherwise, words are considered as synonyms if they can be replaced by one another.

Obviously, interchangeability should be understood with certain reservation, for the words from the same synonymic set cannot replace one another in all contexts. Besides, words may be interchangeable and hence, synonymous in one context, but not interchangeable in another (cf. polysemous words).

For example, both the words *remainder* and *rest* can be used in the sentence:

“Two stones were perfect, the remainder/ rest were faulty”.

However, we cannot use *rest* instead of *remainder* in: *“Three goes exactly into fifty-one. There is no remainder”*. Neither can *remainder* be used instead of *rest* in: *“That may be all very well for you. What about the rest of us?”*

Compare also: *be in jail/ prison, put in jail/ prison, but jail/- bird; mother tongue/ language, but dead language/ -; to wage/ carry on campaign, but to wage/- war.*

It can be readily deduced that the choice of synonyms in speech is essential, for we should be aware of the common collocations. And therefore, when we wish to avoid repetition, or to express ourselves more precisely, we turn to synonyms as they give us the opportunity to emphasize aspects, shades and variations.

The following definition allows for the discussion above: “Synonyms are words different in the sound-form but similar in their denotational meaning or meanings and interchangeable at least in some contexts” (Ginzburg et al, 1979: 58)³⁰.

³⁰ In connection with the interchangeability of synonyms it is interesting to mention the cases of so-called autonomous usage when a word denotes itself. Most naturally, we cannot speak of any interchangeability here. E.g. “There are nine letters in the word *beautiful*”. It is obvious that in this sentence

Two more phenomena need to be mentioned with reference to synonymy – the law of synonymic attraction and radiation of synonyms. The first is the process when subjects (topics) of utmost interest or vital importance for the speech community tend to attract a large number of synonyms, i.e. a variety of names.

Cf. the words *fondness, liking, inclination, admiration, desire, affection, tenderness, attachment, yearning, passion, flame, etc.* to denote ‘love’; *increase, enlargement, extension, augmentation, amplification, dilation, aggrandizement, spread, growth, increment, development, etc.* for ‘expansion’; *finance, funds, capital, ways and means, backing, beans, bucks, the chips, do-re-mi, the needful, wherewithal* for ‘money’.

The second (radiation of synonyms) is a form of analogy and is the process when with the word acquiring a transferred meaning, its synonyms tend to develop along parallel lines. Ginzburg provides the example of *overlook* and *oversee* in the meaning ‘to look with an evil eye upon’, from which the meaning ‘deceive’ developed first in *overlook* and then in *oversee*.

4.5 Antonymy

Words are also classified on the basis of semantic polarity, or opposite meanings. In that case we deal with antonymy – another linguistic universal. F. Palmer points out that antonymy is often thought of as opposite of synonymy, but it should be clearly distinguished from synonymy because it is a “regular and very natural feature of language” while complete synonymy is very rare in language (this point of view has been reflected earlier).

However, antonymy and synonymy share common features alongside differences. Like synonymy, antonymy implies the existence of a common feature, which in the case of antonyms serves as a basis of opposition. Just as in the case of

beautiful cannot be replaced by any of its synonyms: *pretty, good-looking, attractive, etc.*

synonymy, in antonymic relations are involved words belonging to the same parts of speech. Another common feature is that antonyms too are interchangeable in some contexts.

Cf.: *You may feel he is obedient.*

You may feel he is disobedient.

Nevertheless, the two phenomena display significant differences too. As it has been mentioned already, the most important is the relation of semantic polarity which underlies antonymy, as distinct from semantic similarity which is the case in synonymy. Unlike synonyms, antonyms do not usually enter multi-term sets – they are involved in binary oppositions mainly. In these semantic relations only one feature serves as basis of contrasting, and so the connotative component is not taken into account. In fact, words belonging to different stylistic layers are not considered as antonyms.

Antonymy is not homogeneous either. By saying this, we mean not only the fact of variety in sense relationships, but also that the notions of oppositeness (or opposition) and so to call antonymy proper are not understood similarly by different linguists. This has brought about metalinguistic variety in naming the different groups. Moreover, the approaches vary in the methods of classification too, which means that one and the same pair of antonyms is defined as belonging to a different type of sense relationships. The situation grows more complex because the borderline between different classes can be blurred, and in certain contexts a pair of terms can be shifted from one class to the other. So, finding it impossible to produce a conclusive classification of antonyms, we will present the main types of sense relationships (based on opposition) that we come across in linguistic literature.

Two large traditional classes of antonyms are known as *contradictories* and *contraries*³¹, the terminological pair being

³¹ This classification is not conclusive. Linguists also single out cases of directional oppositions (north: south, up: down, forwards: backwards, start: finish), as well as subcategories within each class (e.g. reversives, interactives, satisfactives and counteractives in complementaries, and polar,

borrowed from logic. In the first case we have a relationship of negation, and in the second that of diametrical polarity.

Thus, the first type – *contradictories* – is defined as words so opposed to each other that they are mutually exclusive and admit no possibility between them. This means that if either is true, the other must be false. To say that “Something/ somebody is A” is equal to saying “Something/ somebody is not B”. *E.g. perfect: imperfect, agree: disagree.*

Contradictories can be in-, un-, dis- and similar (negative) derivatives although we should remember that sometimes this may not be the case. For example, *appoint* and *disappoint* are not antonyms. Webster’s New Dictionary of Synonyms, for example, proceeds from the standpoint that “there is no disagreement between the ‘not-term’ and contradictory”, which obviously means that each member of the contradictory opposition is related to the other through negation. Thus, the contradictory of *coloured* is *colourless*, which is understood and can be presented as *not coloured*. Similar relations are observed in *perfect > (not perfect) > imperfect; agree > (not agree) > disagree.*

The second class is presented by *contraries*. It should be mentioned that the differentiation between contradictories and contraries can sometimes be rather complex, especially that we deal with natural human languages, and not symbols discussed in logic, for example. However, the definition of this class is “diametrical opposites”, or extremes, as it is the case with the pair *superiority: inferiority, white: black, aversion: liking.*

Let us consider the contraries *white/ black*. Each member of the opposition is contrary to the other, the two being extremes excluding any intermediary positions. However, if we replaced *black* by *not white*, we would have a relation of contradiction (contradictories) which would mean that *not white* might include any other colour.

overlapping and equipotent types in antonyms proper). The classes presented in this course seem more distinct and convincing.

Besides cases of absolute opposition, to this type belong pairs (usually gradable adjectives) in which the norm is set by the object being described (cf. *long road* and *long text*): *young: old, much: little, thick: thin, etc.* These pairs usually have a marked member and an unmarked one, and it is the unmarked member that undergoes derivation (*wide* > *width*, *high* > *height*) and is common in questions: “How high is the building?” and “How big is your flat?”³².

As it was mentioned, the metalinguistic presentation of antonymy and its definition do not coincide in different approaches. Namely, the same two groups discussed as *contradictories* and *contraries* are handled as *complementaries* and *antonyms* proper respectively. This means that not all linguists consider complementarity (relationship based on contradiction) as a type of antonymy although complementarity is based on opposition too. On the other hand, if we perceive antonymy in a wider sense, i.e. as opposition, we will have to include complementaries (or otherwise termed contradictories) as well, as we deal with a binary opposition, in which the denial of one member of the opposition implies the assertion of the other. As a rule, complementaries have similar distribution.

E.g. *X is alive.* > *X is not dead.*

According to Cruse, the essence of a pair of complementaries is that between them they exhaustively divide some conceptual domain into two mutually exclusive compartments, so that what does not fall into one of the compartments must necessarily fall into the other; there is no possibility of a third term lying between them (Cruse, 2001: 198-199). In other words, denial of one term entails the assertion of the other. E.g. *true: false, dead: alive, open: shut, hit: miss (a*

³² It should be mentioned that both the adjective (*high*) and the noun (*height*), being the unmarked members of the oppositions, have generalized denotative meanings. In other words, the unmarked member is more widely used and can often include the referent of the marked member, the meanings of both words having some components in common. Hence, when speaking about a low building, we ask, “How high is it?”

target), *pass*: *fail (an exam)*, *married*: *single*, *alive*: *dead*, *male*: *female*, *prose*: *poetry*, etc.

A reliable method of testing is the denial of the second term as opposed to the first one. *John is not dead* entails *John is alive*. *The door isn't open* entails *The door is shut*. Another way of testing is by the anomalous nature of a sentence denying both terms:

? *The door is neither open nor shut.*

? *The hamster was neither dead nor alive.*

As mentioned, in the dichotomy complementaries/antonyms, antonyms are understood in a narrower sense and are exemplified by contrary terms: *wide*: *narrow*, *old*: *young*, *hot*: *cold*, *easy*: *difficult*, etc. It is obvious from the examples that the pairs share a characteristic, which linguists following this approach point out as definitive in understanding antonymy. That feature is gradability. This means that as distinct from complementaries (we can read: contradictories), the members of a pair of antonyms (we read: contraries) denote degrees of some variable property which can be intensified in opposite directions, thus representing a scale: *very long*: *very short*; *fairly long*: *fairly short*. The possibility of such a scale shows that unlike the complementary/contradictory opposition *male*: *female*, the conceptual domain of antonyms proper/contraries is not bisected.

However, when pointing to the complexities connected with antonymy, we mentioned that there can be cases of so to call shifting from one class to the other. In particular, Palmer points to the possible use of '*more dead than alive*', when the pair of complementaries (contradictories) can be handled as a pair of gradable antonyms (contraries). Other cases of overlapping are the possible variations: *more/less honest*: *dishonest*, *more/less obedient*: *disobedient*.

Such examples prove that language can be highly flexible in use and can actually express more complex meanings than those of mere polarity or opposition³³.

Another class is represented by **relative (conversive) terms**. **Relatives** (terms of relational opposition according to Palmer, and converseness according to Lyons) are pairs of antonyms each member of which suggests the other: *parent: child, predecessor: successor, employer: employee, buy: sell, lend: borrow, debtor: creditor, give: receive, cause: suffer, etc.* Such pairs are characterized in terms of symmetry, transitivity and reflexivity by logicians, as they have specific interchangeability and are subject to substitution. In case of verbs, for example, the factor of transitivity is important as the substitution touches the subject – object relations. Cf.: *She lent me 19\$. I borrowed 19\$ from her.*

According to Arnold, conversives (relatives) denote one and the same referent as viewed from different angles: that of the subject and that of the predicate, and therefore substitution implies regular morphological and syntactical changes (cf.: *He gave her flowers. She received flowers from him* (Arnold, 1973:193-198). Other pairs of conversives (relatives) are: *ancestor: descendent, husband: wife, master: servant, guest: host, teacher: pupil, etc.* Note also the transformation: *A is B's husband > B is A's wife.*

The next class is **contrasted terms**. These are not exact negatives, but include intermediary positions as well. They differ sharply in some part, but not in all parts of their meaning. Quoting Webster's dictionary, "They do not clash full force". One member of the opposition may be general, and the other

³³ In this respect we could also mention the cases of semantic derivation when the lexical derivatives of a pair of opposites are themselves opposites (*lengthen: shorten* from *long: short*). Interesting are also the cases of so-called 'impure' opposites which encapsulate or include within their meaning a more elementary opposition, e.g. *giant: dwarf* encapsulate the opposition *large: small*. Other examples are *shout: whisper (loud: soft), criticise: praise (good: bad), etc.*

specific; one more inclusive, the other less inclusive. For example, apart from its contrary *poor*, the word *rich* could be opposed to *destitute*, in which case we would deal with contrasting. Similarly, *hot* and *cold* are contraries, while *hot* and *cool* or *cold* and *warm* are contrasted terms.

Antonymy is a language universal and is distinctly observed at the level of vocabulary as a system. However, as is the case with contextual synonyms, occasional antonymic pairs too can be formed in context. In the example below, the word *monstrous* functions as the contextual antonym of the words *idyllic*, *ideal* and *fabulous* both individually and collectively, for the three are put together for the effect of synonymic condensation.

At the seaside, hey? Enjoying the breezes – splashing in the surf – picking up shells. It's idyllic, it's ideal – great heavens, it's fabulous, it's monstrous! (H. James, *Master Eustace*)

Interesting examples of occasional contextual synonymy, when the words could be expected to develop even opposite contextual meanings if used otherwise, are found in O. Wilde's paradoxes: *To be premature is to be perfect (*premature* ≠ *perfect*).*

*The condition of perfection is idleness: the aim of perfection is youth (*perfection* ≠ *idleness*).*

The examples above (of both: contextual synonyms and contextual antonyms) allow two observations. First, representative of the vocabulary as a system, both synonyms and antonyms display regular characteristics, and can therefore be described in terms of semantic relations, typical distribution, interchangeability, etc. However, due to and at the same time despite their systematic and regular aspect, synonyms and antonyms can be used to stress unexpected features as well.

Second, with the innovative and unexpected element being realized in speech, both synonyms and antonyms can function as expressive means, acquiring special stylistic value.

QUESTIONS

1. What is a thematic group, and do the words in it need to be semantically associated?
2. Do words in a semantic field have to be synonyms?
3. Can the words in lexical groups making up semantic fields belong to different parts of speech?
4. What is a *denominator*?
5. Can the same word belong to different semantic fields? Comment on the cases of polysemy.
6. What is *hyponymy* in terms of the logical relations underlying the phenomenon?
7. Explain the logical relationship of entailment on an example.
8. Can a word be both a *hyponym* and a *hyperonym*?
9. What are the extra-linguistic and linguistic bases underlying the definition of synonyms?
10. Why do some linguists consider that true synonymy cannot exist in a natural human language?
11. Comment on the factor of difference in synonymic sets.
12. Why do we say that stylistically homogeneous synonyms are ideographic?
13. Do words need to be synonyms to be involved in synonymic condensation?
14. Comment on the interchangeability of synonyms.
15. Can words belonging to different parts of speech be antonyms?
16. Is the connotative component taken into account in antonymic oppositions?
17. Explain and illustrate the logical mechanism that allows the terms *contradictories* and *complementaries* with reference to the same type of opposition – do the terms reflect the character of relations between such opposites?
18. Could we infer that terming contraries *antonyms proper*, linguists proceed from the notion that antonymy involves semantic polarity rather than opposition?

19. What are the features of the *unmarked member* in a pair of antonyms?
20. What does relational opposition result in?
21. Explain the term *contrasted* as used with reference to antonyms.

5. Morphological Structure of the Word

5.1 Types of Morphemes

So far in this course the English word has been considered from different points: semantic structure (meaning), inner form (motivation), semantic changes, etc. From the earlier discussion we know also that although the word is defined as the smallest syntactic unit of language/speech, it is further analyzable into smaller meaningful units: morphemes. This means that while at the level of a stretch of speech the word is viewed in its environment, i.e. in relation with other words, at the morphemic level we look into the structure of the word in order to reveal the character of relations between the structural elements within the word itself.

Both the word and the morpheme are defined as linguistic units having content and form, but unlike a word, a morpheme cannot occur in speech as an autonomous unit, it only serves as a constituent part of a word. Figuratively speaking, the morpheme serves as building material for words, which means that lacking well-formedness and despite expressing meaning, they do not refer to objects of reality individually.

The previous discussion has also shown that words have various morphemic structures, and on the example of motivated and non-motivated words we can conclude that there are words which are analyzable or segmentable and ones that are not: *boy, home, stone, man, slow, quick, etc.*

As for analyzable words, in their structure the following types of morphemes are found: roots and affixes. The **root-morpheme** is the lexical nucleus of the word and as such has a purely lexical meaning. The root-morpheme is the indispensable part of any word. For example, in the words *handy, handful*, *hand* is the root morpheme and 'y' and 'ful' are affixational morphemes.

Affixational morphemes in their turn are divided into 2 main types: suffixes and prefixes according to their position in relation to the root morpheme. In the word *unemployment*, for

example, '*un*' is the prefix, '*employ*' is the root and '*ment*' is the suffix.

Apart from their position, prefixes and suffixes are distinguished from each other due to their lexical-grammatical features as well. Suffixes usually bear the part-of-speech meaning and are semantically fused with the root-morpheme. Cf.: *jobless* (adj.), *hearten* (verb), *amusement* (noun), *slowly* (adv.), etc. Differently, prefixes often serve to modify the meaning of the root morpheme, remaining somewhat independent of the root. Cf.: *appear* > *disappear*, *relevant* > *irrelevant*, *possible* > *impossible*, *join* > *adjoin*, etc.³⁴

Along with affixational morphemes proper, there also exist **inflectional morphemes** (termed by some linguists as functional affixes or outer formatives) which carry only grammatical meaning and serve for the formation of paradigms. We know the inflectional morphemes/ endings *-s*, *-es* in the system of noun, *-er*, *-est* in adjectives, etc. Inflectional morphemes are out of the scope of Lexicology, they are discussed in Grammar. Inflectional morphemes and the paradigms of words formed by them are out of the scope of Lexicology because they characterize a word as a whole unit which is identical to itself in all the word-forms. That is why from the lexical point of view the differences between grammatical morphemes become insignificant. Naturally, Lexicology is concerned with affixational morphemes (also called derivational affixes and inner formatives) and root morphemes.

Morphemes may have different phonemic shapes, or positional variants termed **allomorphs**. An allomorph is “a

³⁴ Prefixes as word-building formatives are more independent than suffixes in their phonetic, morphological and semantic characteristics. A number of factors account for this, and two can be singled out. Firstly, preceding the derivational base, prefixes do not merge with inflexional morphemes phonetically and morphologically. Secondly, prefixes as a rule are derived from free forms, which is why the meaning of the derivational bases with which they are combined is to a certain extent preserved. In other words, the derivational base and the prefix are not fused.

positional variant of a morpheme occurring in a specific environment and therefore characterized by complementary distribution”, which means that two linguistic variants cannot appear in the same environment. Allomorphs occur both in roots and affixes. For example, the root morphemes *strong* and *long* have different phonemic shapes in the derivatives *strength*, *length* (due to sound interchange).

The suffixes *-ion/ -tion/ -sion/ -ation* are positional variants which do not differ in meaning or function, but differ in sound form due to the final phoneme of the preceding morpheme: *union/ creation/ tension/ explanation*. Similarly, the prefixes *im-/ ir-/ il-/ in-* are allomorphs, and their form depends on the initial phoneme of the following morpheme: *impossible/ irregular/ illegal/ indirect*.

Another term used in connection with word structure is ***stem***, which should not be confused with ***root-morpheme***. The stem is that part of the word which remains unchanged throughout the paradigm of the word. The stem has lexical as well as part-of-speech meaning. In a number of cases, when the stem is simple, i.e. it consists of a single morpheme, the root and the stem of the word coincide. For example, in the word *trick*, including all its word-forms, the root morpheme is identical (or homonymous) with the stem.

However, the difference between the stem and the root becomes distinct if we take the derived stem *tricky*, which consists of the root morpheme 'trick' and suffix 'y'. As the stable part of the word, the stem remains unchanged in the paradigm of the adjective *tricky*: *trickier, trickiest*.

According to their structural characteristics (independence), morphemes are classified into ***free morphemes***, ***bound morphemes*** and ***semi-free (semi-bound) morphemes***. A ***free morpheme*** is one that coincides (or is homonymous) with the stem or a word-form. And naturally, only root-morphemes can be free. In the words *risky* and *handful* the roots *risk-* and *hand-* are free morphemes because they coincide with the common case singular forms of the nouns *risk* and *hand*.

A **bound morpheme** is a constituent part of a word, and by definition affixes are, first of all, bound morphemes: *discourage*, *encourage*, *discussion*, *friendship*, *mesmerize*, etc. However, root morphemes too can be bound. These are the morphemes which occur only in morphemic sequences. In other words, if after removing the affix (or the other root morpheme if it is a compound word), the remaining stem or morpheme does not coincide with a separate word of the same root, we deal with a bound morpheme. Here belong unique roots and pseudo-roots. We could recall the word *cranberry* discussed earlier. Another example is the word *cordial* denoting 'warm and sincere in feeling, behaviour' (including the Latin root 'cor' – heart). The adjective forming suffix can be easily separated by analogy with *radial* and *social*, however, the remaining morpheme does not form a separate word and cannot function independently. Therefore, it is bound. Bound morphemes are characteristic of loan (borrowed) words. Some more examples are: *charity* > *char-*, *legible* > *leg-*, *tolerable* > *toler-*, *theoretical* > *theor-*.

Among bound morphemes are also morphemes of Greek and Latin origin, known as combining forms: *tele-*, *-scope*, *-graph*, *micro-*, *-phone*, etc, in the words *microphone*, *biography*, *telescope*, *phonograph*. Linguists face a dilemma in classifying these morphemes: whether to consider them affixes or roots. The impression is that *tele-* in *telescope*, *telephone*, *telegraph* is a prefix denoting 'distant/distance', and *-scope*, *-phone*, *-graph* are root-morphemes. But looking the other way: *-graph* as a suffix in *telegraph*, *phonograph*, *seismograph* and *tele-*, *phono-*, *seismo-* as roots, seems just as convincing. Most linguists choose to consider these morphemes as root-morphemes as they do not possess part-of-speech meaning (nor do root morphemes), with the reservation that they are confined to a limited number of words (Smirnitsky, 1998:54).

Semi-bound (semi-free) morphemes are those which can function both as affixes and free morphemes. Such are *well*, *half* and *man*.

Cf.: *know well* and *well-known*; *dress well* and *well-dressed*; *half past seven* and *half-dead*, *half-done*.

Of special interest is the root morpheme 'man' which we come across in such words as *fisherman*, *milkman*, *policeman*, where it is synonymous with the noun-forming suffix *-er/ -or* denoting an agent (*writer*, *boxer*, *designer*, etc.). Cf.: *sailor/seaman*. Linguists point out the absence of stress and the reduced pronunciation [mən] in these words, as well as the fact that the meaning of the morpheme is general and indicative of the lexico-grammatical class of the words. On the other hand, the same component takes stressed positions as well. Cf.: *man-driver*, *man-made*, in which the morpheme *man-* displays more structural and semantic independence. One solution to the problem is to consider the morpheme *-man* as semi-free when it is the last component of the word. Note also *boy* in *cowboy*, *newsboy*, *playboy*, as distinct from *boy-servant*.

Another group of morphemes worth mentioning in this connection are the morphemes expressing relationships in space and time: *after-*, *in-*, *off-*, *on-*, *out-*, *under-*, *with-* and the like. They may occur as free forms and at the same time have a combining power as affixes. In the words *aftergrowth*, *afterthought*, *onlooker*, etc. these morphemes function as prefixes, but obviously they are not bound forms.

5.2 Morphemic Analysis

The first step towards explaining the structure of words, including the typical sequences and arrangements of morphemes is the morphemic analysis, for which the method of *Immediate* and *Ultimate Constituents* is used. The morphemic analysis can be presented as a series of cuts in which the word is broken down to its constituent morphemes on a binary basis. In other words, at each stage two components, termed *Immediate Constituents (IC)*, are involved. The final stage of the procedure reveals the *Ultimate Constituents (UC)* of the word, which are further non-analyzable, i.e. cannot be segmented into smaller elements having both sound-form and meaning. The morphemic

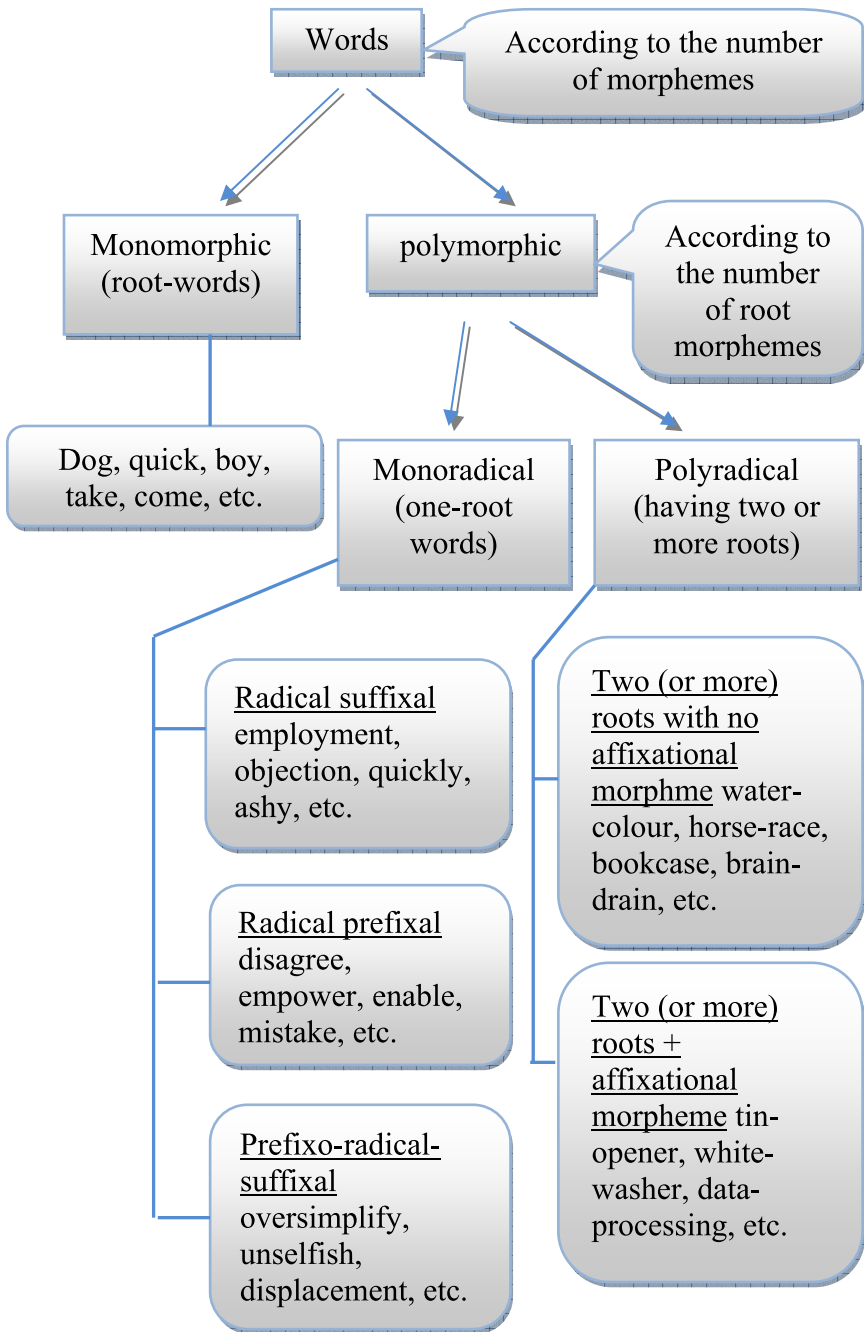
analysis proceeds from the synchronic approach and, therefore, reveals the inner form (motivation) of the word.

For example, the word *unobjectionable* is first segmented into *un-* and *objectionable*. The negative prefix *un-* is easily identified as it occurs in *unnoticed*, *unbounded*, *untied*, *unpunished*, etc. The other IC, *objectionable*, could be viewed against the words *objectionableness* and *objectionably*. The second cut reveals the ICs *objection* and *-able*, the first of which occurs as a free form and the second is the adjective-forming suffix *-able* recurrent in *unbearable*, *lovable*, *reliable*, *comfortable*. Finally, the third division results in the UCs *object* and *-ion*. The first is a free form and could also be viewed against the word *objector*, and the second is the suffix *-ion* recurrent in *union*, *regulation*, *rebellion*, etc.



It should be emphasized once again that the morphemic analysis is synchronic in character and that the etymological (diachronic) analysis is not relevant here. In the latter case we should have to show that the pp form *objectus* of the word *obicere* is further divisible into *ob* (in the way) + *jacere* (to throw) in Latin. Another example of structural indivisibility at the synchronic level is the Modern English word *husband*, which in the Old English period was a compound word *hūs-bōnd-a* (head of the family, home).

The analysis of the morphemic composition of words allows us to classify them into *monomorphic* and *polymorphic* according to the number of morphemes. *Monomorphic* words are root-words consisting of one root morpheme: *quick*, *dog*, *boy*, *take*, etc. *Polymorphic* words are subdivided into *monoradical* (one-root words) and *polyradical* (words having two or more roots).



5.3 Derivative Structure of the Word

The next step towards explaining the structure of words is the analysis of the derivative relations between the ICs of the word, revealing the regular features of word formation. In linguistic literature morphemic and derivative structures are neatly distinguished from one another. In some points they coincide, but the aims for which they are discussed are separate. This can be easily seen if we consider the two structures in terms of ICs and UCs. In particular, the aim of morphemic analysis is to show the morphemic structure or composition of a polymorphic word, including the UCs. As for derivative relations, these are viewed in the light of word formation and at the level of ICs³⁵.

For example, the morphemic analysis of the word *undeniable* reveals the prefix ‘un’, the root ‘deny’ and the suffix ‘-able’. From the point of view of morphemic structure, the word *undeniable* is a polymorphic word of prefixo-radical-suffixal type. However, in terms of derivative structure, the essential focus is on the character of the relations between the ICs. Namely, the word *undeniable* has both a prefix (*un-*) and a suffix (*-able*), but the binary segmentation is possible between *un-* and *deniable* as *undeny* cannot be considered an independent sequence of morphemes. Therefore, the only possible pattern in this case can be *un-* + *deniable* - the two elements immediately involved in the formation of the word *undeniable*.

According to the derivative structure, words fall into two classes: **simplexes** (simple, non-derived words) and **complexes or derivatives**.

Simplexes are words which derivationally cannot be segmented into ICs. These are non-motivated words. Morphemically simplexes can be monomorphic (*boy, girl, cat,*

³⁵ Very similar tendencies can be observed when the ‘item and arrangement’ and ‘item and process’ methods are applied to words. In the first case the method of analysis reveals linear sequences (arrangements) of items. In the second case the formation of new words, i.e. the word as a process of derivation, is the main focus.

dog, come, go, etc.) and polymorphic, as is the case with bound morphemes: *theory, public, charity, legible, etc.*

Derivatives/ complexes are structurally and semantically motivated, and the meaning and structure of derivatives can be understood in comparison with the meaning and structure of source words. As is the case with IC analysis, derivatives consist of two units even if morphemically there are more elements. Cf.: *undeniable/ deniable*. Complexes (derivatives) are classified according to the type of the underlying derivational pattern into derived and compound words, which are discussed separately in connection with the processes of affixation and compounding.

Derivative structures are described in terms of derivational bases, derivational affixes and derivational patterns.

Since derivative relations occur between words with a common root and of derivative structure, a **derivational base** is defined as a functional unit to which a rule of word-formation is applied, and as “that part of the word which establishes connection with the lexical unit that motivates the derivative and determines its individual lexical meaning describing the *difference* between words in one and the same derivative set” (Ginzburg et al, 1979:97). Unlike a stem, it only outlines the possible range and nature of the second IC and serves as the starting point for different words (Note the corresponding terms in Armenian: հիւր and բառակազմական հիւր). A base represents only one meaning of the source word or its stem. Cf.: the bases of different degrees of complexity in: *duty/ dutiful; absent-minded/ absent-mindedness; girl-friend/ ex-girl-friend; whitewash/ to whitewash/ whitewasher, etc.*

Viewed from the same angle of word-formation, **derivational affixes** re-pattern the derivational bases. They demonstrate a unity of lexical and other types of meaning: functional, distributional and differential.

Derivational patterns are defined as regular meaningful arrangements which condition the nature and order of derivational bases and affixes. They are schemes of generalized character, underlying all the individual words of the same

structural type. For example, the words *dutiful*, *tactless* and *hopeful* follow the same pattern: n+sf> A; the word *whitewasher* follows the pattern v+sf> N, etc., if we take the level of structural types. At the level of structural patterns we will speak about more specific models: n+ful>A; n+less>A, etc.

Derivational patterns reflect the principles due to which bases are combined with other elements. Derivational patterns, as well as derivational affixes, can be productive and non-productive. Productivity in derivational patterns is connected with their potential to serve for the formation of new words. For example, the pattern v+er>N is productive as we can name the new formations *hacker*, *converter*, *transmitter*. In contrast, the pattern n+ous>A is not productive for the reason that no new formations appear in present-day English on its basis.

QUESTIONS

1. Comment on the difference between words and morphemes as linguistic units having content and form.
2. Does a root-morpheme have grammatical meaning?
3. Do suffixes have part-of-speech meaning?
4. What characteristics do we take into account when we claim that prefixes are more independent than suffixes?
5. Why are inflectional morphemes principally out of the scope of Lexicology?
6. Are allomorphs restricted to affixational morphemes only?
7. What grammatical factor serves as a reliable criterion for differentiating the *stem* from the *root*?
8. Can the same lexical unit be regarded as both free and bound? Explain.
9. How can you prove that the morphemic analysis is synchronic in character?
10. In what are the morphemic composition and derivative structure of the word different?
11. Is there any controversy in the fact that a simplex can be polymorphic? Explain.

12. Are complexes (derivatives) motivated structurally and semantically?
13. What is a *derivational base*, and is the distinction between a *derivational base* and a *stem* a necessity or a matter of meta-linguistic redundancy?
14. What is productivity in derivational patterns and how is it related to the innovative and creative aspect of language?

6. Word-Formation

6.1 General Characteristics

The term *word-formation* is used with reference to the continuous process of formation of new words in language, as well as for the branch of linguistic (and specifically, lexicological) investigation aiming at the study of the formal, semantic, genetic (etymological) and functional peculiarities of the lexical units appearing in language³⁶. For this purpose word-formation analysis is employed.

Since words are not just mechanical sums of morphemes, morphemic analysis, though necessary, is not sufficient here, considering that being synchronic in character, morphemic analysis does not provide a historical perspective on word-formation, and may not disclose the two main types of relations underlying the process of word-formation – formal and semantic, in the cases of semantic opacity. Besides, morphemic analysis cannot be readily applied to cases of conversion.

As we already know from the discussions of morphemic and derivative structures, it is derivative relations between derivational bases and affixes, as well as derivational patterns that provide the mechanism of word-formation. Therefore, to understand how words are made, derivative relations are first of all taken into consideration. The final step in word-formation analysis is to define the formal and semantic features of the derivative (complex), i.e. to show the place of the latter in the structural and semantic classification of derivatives.

The use of the phrase ‘structural and semantic classification of derivatives’ is not accidental, because if we look at word-formation not only as a mere process, but also as one having regular and systematic features (new words are built on certain structural and semantic patterns or models), we can say that word-formation is a system of derivative types of

³⁶ Many linguists consider Word-Formation as an independent linguistic discipline along with Morphology, Syntax and Lexicology.

words. And therefore, to develop a full view of the process and system, a complex analysis is employed, including the morphological structure of derivatives (morphemic analysis), semantic relations between derivational bases and within derivational patterns (semantic analysis), structural and semantic results of historical changes (etymological/genetic analysis) and finally, their functional peculiarities (functional analysis).

Taken individually, a derivative in itself is a complex of structural and semantic characteristics, and the earlier discussion of morphemic and derivative structures, derivational relations proves that. As for their variety, derivatives range from affixational and conversional formations, abbreviations, compound words to other secondary formations. The main distinctive characteristic of derivatives as units of word-formation is their secondary character, which means that they are perceived by the speech community as units semantically dependent on the source words.

According to their structural and semantic characteristics, derivatives, and hence ways of word-formation, are classified into linear and non-linear (Karashchuk, 1977:13-14). The first type can be presented as a combination of certain elements arranged successively. The same, however, cannot be said about non-linear formations. To the linear type belong, for example, affixation, compounding, acronymy. These are morphologically segmentable, i.e. are based on the structural formula $x+y$.

Non-linear formations are morphemically non-segmentable units transferred from one part of speech to another. Often they bear elements of phonological changes, for example, sound interchange. Non-linear models follow the formula $x>y$. Here belong conversion, stress and sound interchange, back-formation.

In lexicological literature we come across different classifications of ways of forming words: Compounding, Affixation (Suffixation and Prefixation), Backformation, Conversion, Blending, Clipping (Shortening), Sound and Stress

Interchange, Reduplication and Rhythmic Twin Forms, Sound Imitation, etc.

Obviously, all these ways are not equal in value. Among these, major and minor types are singled out. Moreover, linguists are not unanimous in defining some of these means as ways of word-formation. In particular, blending, sound and stress interchange, shortening are excluded from the list of types of word-formation by some of them with the reasoning that these are just means of vocabulary replenishment and not ways of word-formation.

Anyhow, if we look at the innovative potential of the ways of word-formation, we see that the most productive types are affixation (word-derivation), compounding (word-composition), conversion, backformation (reversion), blending and shortening. All the others referred to above: sound and stress interchange, and sound imitation are non-productive minor ways.

Below are some examples:

Sound interchange:

1. vowel interchange – *food/ to feed, blood/ to bleed, full/ to fill, to sit/ to set, etc.*
2. vowel interchange combined with affixation – *broad/breadth, strong/ strength, long/ length, to heal/ health, deep/ depth, etc.*
3. consonant interchange – *house/ to house, advice/ advise belief/ to believe, to break/ breach, defence/ to defend to prove/ proof, serf/ to serve, etc.*
4. consonant interchange combined with vowel interchange – *breath/ to breathe, bath/ to bathe, life/ to live, etc.*

Stress interchange:

conduct/ to conduct, attribute/ to attribute, accent/ to accent, contest/ to contest, contrast/ to contrast, increase/ to increase, frequent/ to frequent, perfect/ to perfect, etc.

Sound imitation:

mutter, purr, cuckoo, splash, babble, grunt, grumble, etc.

6.2 Affixation

6.2.1 Productivity

Affixation is the formation of words by adding derivational affixes to different types of bases. In present-day English we come across a large number of affixes of both native and foreign origin, however, not all of them serve as elements of word-formation today – some of them have lost their power of forming new words. On this basis distinction is made between **dead** and **living affixes**. **Dead affixes** are those which are no longer perceived as affixes. Having lost their independence and word-forming potential, they can be revealed by etymological analysis only, i.e. the diachronic approach to vocabulary becomes essential. Dead affixes are: the suffixes *-ock* (*bullock, hillock*), *-lock* (*wedlock*), *-ledge* (*knowledge*), *-le/ -l/ -el* (*bundle, sail, hovel*), *-t* (*flight, gift, height*), *-d* (*dead, seed*), and the prefixes *for-* (*forgive, forbid*), *a-* (*arise, awake*).

As for **living affixes**, they are easily identifiable in the structure of words synchronically. Such examples are the prefixes *un-*, *pre-*, *re-*, *inter-*: *unhappy, unnatural, unwell, unknown, predisposition, prewar, pre-Raphaelite, reread, reappear, rewrite, interchange, interaction, international*, and the suffixes *-er*, *-ness*, *-less*, *-ly*: *user, writer, teacher, computer, kindness, greatness, roughness, fitness, hopeless, jobless, countless, wireless, strongly, slyly, automatically, technically, respectively, etc.*

Living affixes share the following characteristics:

1. Being added to derivational bases, affixes express certain meaning.
2. Affixes are easily singled out as word-formation elements and are perceived by speakers as parts of words. Meanwhile, derivational bases (after the removal of affixes) should be capable of functioning independently or of producing new words with other affixes.

3. Affixes can be combined with derivational bases other than the ones in combination with which they appeared in the language for the first time. Borrowed affixes should have formations in the recipient language, with their meaning and function being definite and clear enough.
4. Affixes are characterized by certain frequency of usage.
5. Affixes can have the potential of new coinages.

About the last two characteristics the following should be stated. The productivity and frequency of affixes, though closely connected, are distinct features and should not be confused. An affix may occur in a large number of words (frequency) but not be used in forming new ones (productivity)³⁷. With reference to the feature of productivity, linguists mention not only neologisms already registered in dictionaries, but also such potential words as nonce-words which are occasionally coined by existing models and are comprehensible for the speakers. In other words, to find out whether or not this or that affix is productive, we can look for it among neologisms and nonce-words.

For example, in the statement, “*I feel so Mondayish*”, the nonce-word *mondayish* is coined by analogy with *oldish*, *longish*, *girlish*, *fattish*, etc. and therefore, the adjective-forming suffix *-ish* is productive.

In general, being vivid and emotionally coloured means of expression containing an innovative element, nonce-words (or potential words) are an attractive object of investigation. This could be explained by the fact that not being linguistic units yet, but as coinages comprising more elementary linguistic units (e.g. morphemes), they demonstrate the potentialities and tendencies of vocabulary growth.

³⁷ Some linguists, among them Amosova and Vinogradov, consider non-productive affixes as morphological features (приметы).

Notice also the nonce-word *sipper* coined by P.G. Wodehouse by the productive derivational pattern $v + er > N$ (cf. *thinker, miner, writer*, etc.):

“Are you insinuating that I am the sort of man who turns lightly from one woman to another – a mere butterfly who flies from flower to flower sipping?”

«Yes, if you want to know, I think you are a born sipper».

It goes without saying that in the course of historical development some of the nonce-words may enter the main word-stock of the language, serving as a source of vocabulary growth.

Another observation concerning the differentiation between dead and living affixes and the productivity of the latter is that all productive affixes are living, while not all living affixes are equally productive. They range from non-productive to highly productive. It should be emphasized once more that the productivity of affixes is a characteristic feature, for the discussion of which the synchronic approach is relevant though of course it is interesting to observe how some affixes become more, some less productive in different historical periods.

Cf. the diminutive dead suffix *-ock* (*bullock, hillock*) and the non-productive verb-forming prefix *en-* (*enslave, enrich, enchain*).

However, especially that one form of testing is against neologisms and nonce-words, it becomes obvious that by stating that, for example, the suffixes *-er, -ing, -ness, -ism, -ist, -y, -ish, -able, -less, -ize, -ate* and the prefixes *un-, re-, dis-* are productive, while the suffixes *-th, -hood, -some, -ous, -en* are non-productive, we refer to the vocabulary of present-day English. Of interest in this reference are cases of affixation involving personal and place-names. Needless to say, in such instances the affixes demonstrate their productivity potential even if they are representative of the terminological layer: *Chaplinesque, Clintonite, Darwinism, Kremlinology, Thatcherism, Leninist, Californium, Eisteinum*, etc.

The notions ‘productive’ and ‘non-productive’ are extremes between which intermediary cases are possible, and in order to establish the degree of productivity (of affixes), statistical methods are used. In particular, the degree of productivity is defined as a correlation (or ratio) of the number of newly-formed words with the given affix (productivity) with the number of words with the same affix (frequency).

It is worth mentioning that the highest productivity is displayed by the suffixes *-ness* (pointing to the lexical-morphological category of *quality*), *-er* (that of *action – agent*), *-less* (*caritivity*), *-able* (*of possibility of an action*) and *-like* (*simulation*) (Gvishiani, 2000:27-28).

Closely related with the understanding of high productivity is the problem of homonymy in affixes. In particular, some linguists notice that the statistics of productivity in some affixes are high because the phenomenon of homonymy resting on the features of usage, origin and meaning of affixes is ignored, and so two homonymous affixes are considered as one, and all the derivatives formed with them are put down to one (and the same) affix. Cf.: the native English adjective-forming suffix *-ish₁* (*British, Spanish, feverish, foolish, mannish*) and the verb-forming suffix *-ish₂* of French origin (*finish, publish, furnish, etc.*). Another example is the prefix *un₁-*, forming adjectives from an adjective base ($un_1 + a > A$): *unaware, unwilling, uneatable, unreasonable, etc.* and the prefix *un₂-*, forming verbs from verbs ($un_2 + v > V$): *uncover, undo, unscrew, unravel, unfold, etc.*

6.2.2 Origin of Affixes

Historically, affixes of native and foreign origin are distinguished. Native affixes are those that existed in the Old English period and were mostly formed from OE words (having changed from independent words into affixational morphemes). As for borrowed affixes, they mainly come from classical languages (Latin and Greek) or from French, but of course if we view them from the position of present-day English, they are

now naturalized and hence are part of the English language and its vocabulary.

E.g. the suffixes: *-d, -dom, -ed, -en, -fold, -ful, -hood, -ing, -ish, -less, -let, -like, -lock, -ly, -ness, -oc, -red, -ship, -some, -teen, -th, -ward, -wise, -y*, etc., and the prefixes: *be-, mis-, un-* are of native origin. On the other hand, the suffixes: *-ation, -ment, -able*, etc. and the prefixes: *dis-, ex-, re-* are of foreign origin.

Both the native and foreign elements can be productive and non-productive. Cf.: the productive suffix *-able* of French origin in *drinkable, utterable, lovable, absorbable* and the non-productive suffixes *-ant, -ent* of Latin origin in *repentant, expectant, assistant, consequent, existent, prudent*, etc.

That the foreign element is a natural part of the English vocabulary can be seen not only on the example of productive affixes of foreign origin, but also in such coinages where the elements are derived from different languages. These coinages are called **hybrids**. For example, in the word *precast* the prefix *pre-* comes from Latin and *-cast* from Scandinavian; in *stockist* *stock* is a native English morpheme and *-ist* goes back through French and Latin to Greek.

Some more examples are: *wrongful* (Scandinavian + English), *beautiful* (French + English), *countless* (French + English), *downward* (Celtic + English), *priesthood* (Latin/Greek + English), *churchman* (Greek + English), etc.

6.2.3 Derivational Affixes: Different Aspects and Classification

Derivative relations can be of different degrees. The basic level of derivation is *zero derivation* and covers the cases of simple words whose stem is homonymous with a word-form, and often with a root morpheme. Such are the words: *haste, boy, joy*, etc.

With the addition of one derivational affix, we get a word of the *first degree* of derivation: *hasty, boyish, joyful*, etc.

Another consecutive addition of an affix is indicative of the *second degree* of derivation: *hastily*, *boyishness*, *joyfulness*, etc.

It goes without saying that in the reverse direction (the tendency being from the derived word to the base/ stem) the analysis of ICs and UCs is helpful in revealing the derivative structure and hence level of derivation of the word.

Derivational affixes (i.e. affixes viewed from the standpoint of word-formation) are discussed in linguistic literature from different aspects. As a general rule, systematic discussions of the aspects of any phenomenon bring to classifications on different bases (according to one or a number of features). By grouping affixes into productive and non-productive, affixes proper and morphological features, as well as by differentiating them according to origin, we actually classify them. Furthermore, since affixes as morphemes are semantic and structural entities which are involved in derivative relations, a number of other classifications are possible, each of which emphasizes one aspect of the problem in question. Certainly, there are classifications which are applicable to both suffixes and prefixes, as well as such that are proper to either prefixes or suffixes only; we will recall that apart from positional differences, suffixes and prefixes display lexico-grammatical differences too.

Thus, both suffixes and prefixes can be grouped according to the lexico-grammatical character of the base into: deverbial, denominal, deadjectival.

Prefixes

Denominal: *ex-president*, *post-war*, *outnumber*, *overweight*

Deverbial: *revisit*, *unpack*, *misunderstand*, *disagree*

Deadjectival: *unhappy*, *impatient*, *untidy*

Suffixes

Denominal: *jobless, scornful, cellist, stylish, stockist, rocketry*

Deverbal: *winner, delivery, accessible, appearance, advancement, detainee*

Deadjectival: *widen, fattish, heavily, brightness, etc.*

As it was mentioned earlier, prefixes tend to modify the lexical meaning of the base, remaining somewhat independent of it, whereas suffixes are more easily fused with the base and bear the part-of-speech meaning of derived words. In this reference a number of observations seem appropriate.

The first observation concerns the situation that within affixes too we can notice certain variation in terms of the balance between the grammatical and lexical element. In particular, excluding grammatical suffixes (earlier referred to as outer formatives or inflexional morphemes), we still have to consider two types: quasi-grammatical suffixes (*-able, -ly, -ing, -ed*) and lexical derivational suffixes (*-ness, -less, -like, -er, etc.*). In the case of quasi-grammatical suffixes the features of both lexical and grammatical categorization, i.e. inflexional and derivational mechanisms, are present. For example, as a general rule, the derivatives including the suffix *-able* are formed from transitive verbs: *changeable* = ‘that can be changed’; *definable* = ‘that can be defined’; *lovable* = ‘that can be or is loved’, etc. We could also notice the certain overlapping between *-ing*-derivatives and Participle 1 (cf. *an amusing story/ game/ incident* and ‘*The girl amusing the guests is my daughter*’); *-ed*-derivatives and Participle 2 (cf. *a complicated system/ story* and ‘*The story unnecessarily complicated by so many details sounded boring*’).

The second observation is that the English language does, however, possess prefixes which transfer a word to a different part of speech as compared with the original stem.

E.g. *gulf*(*n*) > *begulf, engulf* (*v*)
bronze (*n*) > *embronze* (*v*)
bed (*n*) > *embed* (*v*)

trust (n) > entrust (v)
slave (n) > enslave (v)
ice (n) > de-ice (v)
nude (a) > denude (v), etc.

In this, the above prefixes share common characteristics with suffixes. Cf.: *star > starry > starred; flower > flowery > flowered; woman > womanly, womanish; red > reddish > redden; short > shorten > shortish, etc.*

Finally, the tendency referred to above (that the grammatical aspect of suffixes is more stressed) is not groundless, and so suffixes are classified according to the part of speech produced by them, and prefixes (because they affect the lexical meaning of the base) according to the generic denotative meaning that a number of them share.

Thus, suffixes fall into the following groups: noun suffixes (noun-forming), adjective suffixes (adjective-forming), verb suffixes (verb-forming), adverb suffixes (adverb-forming) and numeral suffixes (numeral-forming).

Some **noun-forming suffixes** are:

-age	<i>mileage, storage, bondage</i>
-ance/ ence	<i>endurance, hindrance, reference</i>
-dom	<i>kingdom, boredom, freedom</i>
-ee	<i>employee, evacuee, detainee, trainee</i>
-eer	<i>profiteer, mountaineer, marketeer</i>
-er	<i>swimmer, teacher, provider; printer, driver</i>
-ess	<i>actress, stewardess, lioness</i>
-hood	<i>manhood, childhood, falsehood</i>
-ing	<i>meaning, building, washing</i>
-ion/ sion/	
-tion/ ation	<i>union, tension, explanation, examination</i>
-(i)ty	<i>sonority, novelty, cruelty, safety</i>
-ism/icism	<i>heroism, barbarism, criticism</i>
-ist	<i>essayist, novelist, labourist</i>

<i>-ment</i>	<i>nourishment, government, department</i>
<i>-ness</i>	<i>tenderness, aptness, greatness</i>
<i>-ship</i>	<i>friendship, membership, craftsmanship</i>

Some **adjective-forming suffixes** are:

<i>-able/ -ible/ -uble</i>	<i>lovable, audible, soluble</i>
<i>-al</i>	<i>formal, verbal, maternal, postal</i>
<i>-ic</i>	<i>classic, public, poetic</i>
<i>-ical</i>	<i>ethical, comical, historical</i>
<i>-ant/ -ent</i>	<i>arrogant, constant, important, absent, convenient</i>
<i>-ary</i>	<i>visionary, missionary, probationary</i>
<i>-ate/- ete</i>	<i>accurate, desperate, passionate, complete</i>
<i>-ed</i>	<i>wooded, talented, diseased</i>
<i>-ful</i>	<i>wonderful, careful, handful, peaceful</i>
<i>-an/ -ian</i>	<i>Roman, Anglican, Australian, reptilian</i>
<i>-ish</i>	<i>Polish, reddish, childish, stylish</i>
<i>-ive</i>	<i>suggestive, corrosive, active</i>
<i>-less</i>	<i>useless, jobless, tactless</i>
<i>-ly</i>	<i>manly, lovely, princely, timely</i>
<i>-ous</i>	<i>tremendous, monstrous, glorious, envious</i>
<i>-some</i>	<i>tiresome, fearsome, fulsome</i>
<i>-y</i>	<i>messy, icy, boozy, horsy, catty</i>

Some **verb-forming suffixes**:

<i>-ate</i>	<i>celebrate, activate, facilitate</i>
<i>-en</i>	<i>shorten, lengthen, deepen, moisten</i>

<i>-fy/ -ify</i>	<i>horrify, mystify, solidify</i>
<i>-ize</i>	<i>modernize, equalize, harmonize</i>
<i>-ish</i>	<i>establish, finish, furnish</i>

Some **adverb-forming suffixes:**

<i>-ly</i>	<i>boldly, highly, brightly, slyly</i>
<i>-ward(s)</i>	<i>upward, southwards, towards, eastwards</i>
<i>-wise</i>	<i>likewise, lengthwise, clockwise</i>

Some **numeral-forming suffixes:**

<i>-teen</i>	<i>fifteen, sixteen</i>
<i>-th</i>	<i>seventh, eighth</i>
<i>-ty</i>	<i>sixty, seventy, etc.</i>

According to the generic denotative meaning, **prefixes** can be: negative, reversative, locative, pejorative, of time and order, of repetition, etc.

Negative prefixes are:

<i>un₁-</i>	<i>unhappy, untidy, unbearable</i>
<i>non-</i>	<i>non-productive, non-scientific, non-combatant</i>
<i>in-/ im-/ il-/ ir-</i>	<i>incorrect, impolite, illegal, irregular</i>
<i>dis₁-</i>	<i>disadvantage, disapproval</i>

Reversative prefixes:

<i>un₂-</i>	<i>untie, unbutton, unstitch</i>
<i>de-</i>	<i>decentralize, de-ice, deodorize, derange</i>
<i>dis₂-</i>	<i>disconnect, disarrange, disorientate</i>

Pejorative prefixes:

<i>mis-</i>	<i>mispronounce, misinform, miscalculate</i>
<i>mal-</i>	<i>maltreat, malpractice, malnutrition</i>

pseudo- *pseudo-religious, pseudo-romantic, pseudo-intellectual*

Locative prefixes:

super- *superimpose, superstructure, superscript*

sub- *subway, submarine, subsoil*

inter- *intercontinental, inter-city*

trans- *transatlantic, transcontinental*

Prefixes of time and order:

fore- *foretell, foresee, foreknowledge*

pre- *prehistoric, prewar, pre-school*

post- *post-war, post-modern, post-*

Impressionist

ex- *ex-wife, ex-president*

Prefix of repetition:

re- *retell, rewrite, rebuild, etc.*

We can also observe shared denotative meanings in prefixes common in scientific and technical vocabulary. Thus, as **numerical prefixes** function *bi-*, *di-*, *mono-*, *multi-*, *poly-*, *semi-*, *tri-*, *uni-*; **metrical prefixes:** *micro-*, *nano-*, *pico-*, *femto-*, *atto-*, *mega-*, *giga-*, *tera-*; **orientation prefixes:** *anti-*, *auto-*, *contra-*, *counter-*, *pro-*, etc.

The classification of prefixes presented above is not comprehensive. In fact, it is practically impossible to present all the varieties of meanings and shades of meaning expressed by affixes. And at least two reasons account for this. The first is that affixes (both prefixes and suffixes) can be polysemantic, not to mention the cases of homonymy.

For example, the prefix *super-* has the meanings: 1. situated directly over something, above, 2. more than, beyond the norm, 3. exceeding by, which are correspondingly expressed in: 1. *super-columnar, super-marine, super-celestial, superlunary*, 2. *supernatural, supernormal, supersensible*, 3. *super-tertius* (in mathematical terms of quantity). Obviously, in each of the derived words one meaning of the affix is realized. Some more instances are the following: the prefix *under-* has the meanings

1. 'below, beneath' in *undergrowth*, *undercover*, 2. 'lower in range and rank' as in *the under-fives*, *an undergraduate*, 3. 'not enough' as in *under-ripe*, *undercooked*; *over-* – 1. 'more than usual, too much' in *overproduction*, *overload*, *overoptimistic*, *overconfident*, *overanxious*, 2. 'completely' in *overjoyed*, 3. 'upper, outer, extra' in *overcoat*, *overtime*, 4. 'over, above' in *overcast*, *overhang*; *out-* – 1. 'greater, better, further, longer' in *outnumber*, *outwit*, *outgrow*, *outlive*, *outbid*, 2. 'outside, outward, away from' in *outbuildings*, *outlying*, *outpatient*, *outgoing*, etc. We could also compare the negative prefix *in-* (*il-*, *im-*, *ir-*) in *illogical*, *immoral*, *irrelevance* with the homonymous prefix *in-* (*im-*) in verbs which denote 'to put into the condition mentioned' as in *inflame*, *imperil*, and the combining form *-in* in nouns denoting 'an activity in which many people take part' as in *a sit-in*, *a teach-in*, etc.

The second is that the meaning of an affix cannot be isolated from that of the base, and due to this subtle and complex interaction, different shades of meaning can be realized. Cf.: *eatable* (fit or good to eat); *lovable* (worthy of loving); *questionable* (open to doubt, question); *imaginable* (capable of being imagined). Note also: *childish* (resembling, befitting a child); *girlish* (like a girl, but often in a sense of bad imitation of one), etc.

Another aspect that is distinguishing for suffixation specifically is the formation of sequences (chains) of suffixes, or compound suffixes: *-ably* = *able* + *ly* (preferably, comfortably, reasonably); *-ically* = *ic* + *al* + *ly* (*critically*, *historically*, *poetically*); *-ation* = *ate* + *ion* (*isolation*, *fascination*).

The situation with compound suffixes is not as simple as it may seem, for many of them have composite nature and function as single units. If we compare *flirtation*, *adaptation*, *information* on the one hand, and *isolation*, *fascination*, on the other, we shall see that as distinct from *isolation*, *fascination*, in which the bases *isolate*, *fascinate* and the suffix *-ion* can be singled out, *adaptation*, *information*, *flirtation* can be analyzed

to *flirt + ation*; *inform + ation*; *adapt + ation* only, as no words like *adaptate*, *flirtate* and *informate* exist.

6.3 Compounding

Compounding is the second most productive way of word-formation³⁸. It can roughly be presented by the formula ‘base + base’ as the two (or more) ICs are derivational bases – whether simple (*black + board*, *space + ship*) or derived (*pen + holder*, *watch + maker*).

In linguistic literature three main aspects of compounding are discussed: structural and semantic peculiarities, and compound words vs. free word-groups.

6.3.1 Structural Features of Compounds

In terms of structure compounds are not homogeneous.

1. The constituents may be placed one after another by juxtaposition, e.g. *shop-window*, *sunflower*, *classroom*, etc. In this type of composition the following subtypes can be observed.

To the *first subtype* belong compounds made up from simple (affix-less) bases: *horse-race*, *sunflower*, *classroom*, etc.

To the *second subtype* belong compounds where one of the constituents is derived, and the other simple: *word-processor*, *lady-killer*, *film-goer*, *evildoer*, *penholder*, *watchmaker*, etc.

To the *third subtype* belong compounds which have a shortened (clipped/ abbreviated) base in their structure: *TV-show*, *V-day* (*Victory day*), *H-bomb*, *T-shirt*, *H-bag* (*handbag*), *CD-writer*, *prop-shaft* (*propeller shaft*), etc.

2. Another group of compounds, along with cases of mere juxtaposition, is represented by the so-called morphological compounds, which are few in number, and which are combined

³⁸ Crystal notices that the modern English lexicon is characterized by the growth of extensive ‘families’ of compound words. One such selection is related to the arrival of aeroplane technology: *air ambulance*, *airbus*, *air cavalry*, *air force*, *air hostess*, *air-lift*, *airmail*, *airport*, *air miles*, *air-raid*, *airspace*, *air support*, *air supremacy*, *air terminal*, etc.

by a special linking element: *-o-*, *-i-*, *-s-*, e.g. *speedometer*, *tragicomic*, *statesman*, *Anglo-Saxon*, *Franco-Russian*, *handiwork*. As these examples show, in this group too, combinations of both simple (*handiwork*) and derived (*Franco-Russian*) bases are possible.

3. As a third group of compounds can be considered syntactic formations, where the components are placed in an order resembling that of free phrases and according to the rules of syntax. The characteristic feature of these compounds is that they preserve in their structure traces of syntagmatic arrangement: articles, prepositions, adverbs, etc. They resemble fragments of speech: *lily-of-the-valley*, *Jack-of-all-trades*, *good-for-nothing*, *mother-in-law*, etc. These multi-item compounds are often based on metaphoric transference, or are characterized by idiomaticity, not to mention that they are global units semantically, structurally and functionally despite the syntactic arrangement. Some more examples are: *forget-me-not* (a small plant with light blue flowers), *merry-go-round* (circular platform with model horses, cars, etc. that turns around and that children ride on at a fairground), *stay-at-home* (a person who rarely goes out or does anything exciting), *know-all/ know-it-all* (a person who behaves as if they know everything). An interesting example is the word *whodunit*, meaning ‘a detective story’, and obviously coined from “Who has done it?”

We can state that syntactic compounds are characterized by certain productivity, otherwise neologisms and nonce-words would not be coined on such patterns. Note the syntactic formation ‘hay-corn-and-food’ in the passage from P.G. Wodehouse:

He is now chosen orator at all political rallies for miles around: and so offensively self-confident has his manner become that only last Friday he had his eye blackened by a hay-corn-and-feed merchant of the name of Stubbs.

It should be stressed that ‘syntactic words’ of this kind (or string compounds, as they are also termed) display a certain stylistic potential in English due to their semantic scope and

range of connotations which are established on the basis of context. And as occasional words are not characterized by typical contexts, the innovative and imaginative element in them prevails. Furthermore, the more creative and original such a word is, the richer it is in connotations and verbal play.

4. Among compound words are often classed reduplicative compounds: *goody-goody*, *fifty-fifty*, *hush-hush*, *pooh-pooh* and rhythmic twin forms having elements of sound interchange, alliteration, etc.: *honky-tonk*, *shilly-shally*, *boogie-woogie*, *claptrap*, *tip-top*, *hocus-pocus*, *hurly-burly*, *chit-chat*, *zigzag*, *sing-song*, *walkie-talkie*, *helter-skelter*, etc.

However, rhythmic formations are considered as pseudo-compounds by some linguists because of the morphemic status of the constituent members. In most cases they are unique morphemes carrying vague or no lexical meaning of their own, which means that they cannot function as free forms.

6.3.2 Derivational Compounds

A special group of words incorporating elements of compounding is represented by derivational compounds or compound derivatives. In fact, this complex type of word-formation is not a case of compounding proper, but of word-derivation (affixation) as “the structural integrity of the two free stems is ensured by a suffix referring to a combination as a whole”. In other words, the IC analysis applied to these words will reveal the structure ‘complex (and to be more exact – compound) base + affix’.

Such are the words *kind-hearted*, *old-timer*, *absent-mindedness*, *long-legged*, *honey-mooner* (the hyphen cannot serve as a reliable test in breaking down the word into ICs). As distinct from the cases of compounding proper, where two (as a typical case of the number of stems) free stems are singled out even if one of them is derived (e.g. *word-processor*), here the two ICs are ‘complex stem/base + affix’.

For example, the word *word-processor* is analyzable to its ICs *word* and *processor* and can be presented as the formula

[n + (v + er)]. Differently, the derivational compound *kind-hearted* is analyzable into the suffix *-ed* (meaning 'having') and the base built on the free word group *kind heart*, which having lost the grammatical independence of its member-words is perceived as a unity. Moreover, the word *kind-hearted* cannot be broken down to *kind + hearted* as no such word as *hearted* exists. The structural formula of the word *kind-hearted* will be: [(a + n) + ed]. The same type of analysis can be applied to the words referred to above.

Derivational compounds often serve as basis for further derivation. Cf.: *absent-minded/ absent-mindedness, whole-hearted/ whole-heartedness, school-boyish/ school-boyishness*.

Below is an example of a nonce-word (*pie-faced*) based on the mechanism of derivational compounding:

There nestling in ivy, was the pipe up and down which he had been wont to climb when, a pie-faced lad in the summer of '86, had broken out of his house to take nocturnal swims (Wodehouse).

6.3.3 Compounding: the Semantic Aspect

The discussion of the semantic aspect of compounding involves a number of questions connected with the lexical and structural meaning of compounds, including the degree of motivation.

As a general rule, one of the central semantic characteristics of compounds is that they are motivated units, and the meaning of the compound is derived from the lexical meanings of its components, which are interdependent.

For example, in the words *workshop* and *bookshop* the component 'shop' realizes its two separate meanings, namely: 1. 'place where manufacturing or repairing is done' and 2. 'place for retail sale of goods or services'. And certainly, the components *work* and *book* in their turn define the choice of the semantic components proper to the words. The two components together serve as the minimum context due to which the meaning of each component is distinguished.

However, the meaning of compounds is created not only due to the individual meanings of bases, but also due to the distributional meaning. In other words, the structural (or distributional) meaning enclosed in the order and arrangement of ICs is of importance too. Cf.: *horserace/ racehorse, houseboat/ boathouse*. A *horserace* is a contest of speed between horses, whereas a *racehorse* is a horse that takes part in such a contest; a *boathouse* is a shed at water's edge for housing a boat, *houseboat* is a boat fitted up for living in.

Obviously, the head-member of the compound is the second IC (which is the general rule in compounds formed by juxtaposition). And it is the latter that is the bearer of the lexical as well as grammatical meaning of the compound word, its semantic centre.

The lexical meanings of components in compound words get fused together, and the new, overall meaning of the word is not a mere mechanical addition of the "constituent" meanings. The definitions of the two pairs of compounds are illustrative of that. The interaction between the two semantic components gives rise to a new component which is not found in either. The meaning of the word *boathouse* is not merely *boat + house* but 'a shed', which additionally includes the semantic components 'at the water's edge' and 'for housing a boat'.

This awareness of the relatedness of the individual lexical meanings of the bases, the structural meaning of the pattern and the overall meaning of the compound is possible if the inner structure of the word is transparent, i.e. the word is motivated. However, as we know from the earlier discussion of the phenomenon of motivation, this is not always the case in compound words either. The degree of motivation varies, and we can recall the earlier examples *tallboy, wallflower* as words lacking motivation.

Some more examples are: *fiddlesticks* (nonsense), *nightcap* (drink taken before going to bed), *doodlebug* (German flying bomb), *horse-marine* (a person unsuitable for their job), etc.

6.3.4 Compounds vs. Free Word-Groups

Another aspect of compounding is the problem of distinguishing compounds from free word-groups (phrases). In the first case we deal with the globality of a single word and its nomination, i.e. the elements of the compound lexical unit form one whole expressing a complex notion. In the second case, the items within a syntactic combination convey distinguishable bits of information, i.e. separate concepts. Cf. *blackboard* and *a black board*.

To accomplish the task of such differentiation a number of criteria have been developed and are discussed in literature: graphic, phonetic, semantic, morphological, syntactic, none of which can serve as a sufficient basis for differentiation if taken individually, but which can be relied on collectively.

The graphic criterion is not always reliable as the same word may be spelt differently in different sources (jointly, with a hyphen or separately). The phonetic criterion is that of single stress (*ˈslowcoach*, *ˈtallboy*), which is not always reliable as there are compounds pronounced with a double stress (*ˈabsent-minded*, *ˈhot-tempered*). Moreover, in some cases words have variants of pronunciation; Barber brings the example of *ˈnecklace* and *ˈnecklace*.

The semantic criterion is based on the factor of semantic cohesion, which is expected to be in compounds. Cf.: *wallflower* and *wall flower*. In the first case we deal with one concept, in the second with two. But we also remember that idioms can have a high degree of cohesion (and are therefore classified as word-equivalents).

Morphological and syntactic criteria are applied to compounds as well. While compound words display functional unity, in free word-groups words are subject to grammatical changes in accordance with their lexical-grammatical features.

For example, the following morphological and syntactic transformations of the free word-group '*a slow coach*' are possible:

That was the slowest coach I have ever taken.

The coach was slow.

The coach from Oxford to London was slow.

It was a slow but comfortable coach.

Thus, summing up the above, we can state that the compound *slowcoach* denoting ‘a person who is slow in movement or action’, lacking motivation, having a single stress, graphically presented as one word, expressing one concept, and therefore having one referent, functions as *one* unit. Meanwhile, the free word group *slow coach* has a double stress (*‘slow`coach*), has separate spelling, expresses two concepts (with two referents), and each of the two members of the phrase can undergo morphological and syntactic changes.

6.4 Conversion

Conversion is the third of the most productive ways of word-formation in present-day English, especially productive from the point of view of verb-formation. Present-day examples include *spend* as a noun, *handbag, text, out, spam, surf* as verbs. Conversion is considered as an affix-less way of word-formation along with compounding, sound-imitation, shortening by some linguists. Others think it to be a form of derivation which could be presented by the formula ‘base + zero-affix’.

However, the essential characteristic of conversion is that a new word is made by changing the category of part of speech, while the morphemic structure of the source word remains unchanged. Being transferred to a different class, the word acquires a new paradigm. Apart from functional changes, semantic changes occur too. For example, the verb *to hand* denotes a process, whereas the noun *hand* expresses the meaning of ‘thingness’.

The process of conversion has been observed since the Middle English period and is connected with the way in which the language lost most of its inflections. This has resulted in a situation when a large number of words provide no criteria for identifying their word-class if we look at their basic (or initial) forms, e.g. common case singular of the noun (*hand*) and the

infinitive of the verb (*hand*)³⁹. In their paradigms the words certainly display their lexical-grammatical differences through corresponding word-forms (*hand, hands, hand's, hands'*; *hand, hands, handed, handing*). Therefore, it is the paradigm that acquires the main word-building value and serves as a word-building means⁴⁰.

The two main tendencies of conversion can be summarized as 1. formation of verbs from nouns ([n > v]: *contact/ to contact, screen/ to screen, tape/ to tape*) and from other parts of speech ([adv. > v]: *out/ to out, down/ to down*; [a > v]: *blind/ to blind, calm/ to calm*); 2. formation of nouns from verbs ([v > n]: *to thrash/ thrash, to rescue/ rescue, to release/ release*) and rarely from other parts of speech (*ups and downs, ins and outs, a high up, the over-forties, know-how, etc.*).

Conversion may be combined with other word-building processes (the two processes occurring simultaneously), such as compounding: *black ball > to blackball, stone wall > to stonewall*.

Being a highly productive type of word-formation, conversion also includes cases of noun-formation from phrasal verbs: *drive in > drive-in, break down > a break-down, fall out > fall-out, make up > make-up, etc.*

6.4.1 Conversion: Semantic Relations

It should be emphasized that conversion is based on and is indicative of semantic derivation, the character of which can

³⁹ Arnold brings the example of the sound-patterns of *home* and *silence* which occur as nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, with no morphological elements serving as classifying signals for the parts of speech the words belong to.

⁴⁰ It should be stressed that the paradigm has a significant part not only in cases of conversion. In affixation too the derived word can belong to a different part of speech (e.g. *compose_v > composer_n*), and we should notice that the shift to another category is not only due to the affixational morpheme (in this case -*er*), but also due to the substantive paradigm (*composer, composers, composer's, composers'*). However, in the case of conversion the paradigm is the only formal means signaling the shift.

be seen through the semantic relations between the words involved in conversion (we shall call them ‘a source word’ and ‘a converted word’). The two main tendencies referred to above being towards the formation of verbs and nouns, the following typical models are discussed in literature. The classification below is not comprehensive, but focuses on some common patterns.

Verbs converted from nouns (denominal verbs):

1. action characteristic of the object:
ape_n > ape_v, butcher_n > butcher_v, wolf_n > wolf_v, fox_n > fox_v;
2. instrumental use of the object:
screw_n > screw_v, whip_n > whip_v, hammer_n > hammer_v, brush_n > brush_v,
3. acquisition or addition of the object:
fish_n > fish_v, coat_n > coat_v;
4. deprivation of the object:
dust_n > dust_v, skin_n > skin_v.

Nouns converted from verbs (deverbal substantives):

1. instance of the action:
jump_v > jump_n, move_v > move_n,
2. agent of the action (often such nouns develop a derogatory sense):
bore_v > bore_n, cheat_v > cheat_n,
3. place of the action:
drive_v > drive_n, walk_v > walk_n,
4. object or result of the action:
peel_v > peel_n, find_v > find_n.⁴¹

6.4.2 Criteria of Semantic Derivation

The mere stating that two words are involved in relations of conversion is not enough in evaluating the semantic aspect of the phenomenon. Obviously, it is essential to define the direction of conversion, i.e. to distinguish which is the source

⁴¹ The classification and examples are cited from Ginzburg, et al (1979).

word and which the converted one. A number of criteria have been proposed for this purpose.

The first proceeds from the non-correspondence between the lexical meaning of the root morpheme and the part-of-speech meaning of the stem in one of the words. This method works in cases of simple semantic structures. For example, in the pair *screw* (n) > *screw* (v) the lexical meaning of the root refers to an object and not a process, therefore, the source word is a noun.

The second criterion, which is not very effective either, implies elements of analogy between synonymic word-pairs. For example, the pair *show* (v) > *show* (n) can be tested against the pair *exhibit* (v) > *exhibition* (n), in which the derived member is the noun. So we can conclude by analogy that the source word is the verb.

The third criterion, a more effective one, is based on testing the pair involved in conversion against the derivational relations within those word-clusters in which they are included. If the centre of the cluster is a verb, the words of the first degree should follow patterns with verb-bases. The same is true of nouns. E.g. in the word-cluster *hand_n/ hand_v/ handful/ handy/ handed* the structural and semantic centre is the noun 'hand' because the derivational patterns are typical of nominal bases: n + ful, n + y, n + ed.

The fourth criterion is based on semantic derivation, i.e. semantic relations within pairs. Here the models of semantic relations can prove useful. E.g. in the pair *brush_n* > *brush_v* we observe the semantic component 'instrumental use of an object' characteristic of the [v > n] tendency. Therefore, the source word is the noun *brush*.

The fifth criterion is based on the frequency of occurrence of the two words. That member of the pair which is more frequently used is the source word.

6.4.3 Conversion in the Diachronic Perspective

The vocabulary of present-day English abounds in words coined by means of conversion, and the productivity of this

word-formation means is best seen on the example of compound words which tend to be less flexible in terms of new formations. Such are the cases when verbs are formed from compound nouns: *corkscrew/ to corkscrew*, *streamline/ to streamline*, *microfilm/ to microfilm*, *featherbed/ to featherbed*, etc.

In order to understand the phenomenon of conversion, the description of the synchronic state of the vocabulary is not sufficient. And while in the case of the pair *corkscrew/ to corkscrew* an obvious shift has occurred from one class into another on the basis of the semantic pattern ‘object > action characteristic of the object’, it is not the case with the pairs *love_n* (OE *lufu*)/ *love_v* (OE *lufian*); *work_n* (OE *wēork*)/ *work_v* (OE *wyrcan*); *answer_n* (OE *andswaru*)/ *answer_v* (OE *andswarian*), whose identical initial forms in present-day English are a result of loss of inflections in the course of history⁴². In fact, historically the significant difference of the Old English forms from the ones in the New English period is that in the latter case (as well as in the later periods of language development) we have homonymous stems, whereas in the Old English period the words differed not only in their paradigms, but also in their initial forms. On the other hand, if we look at the words in the synchronic perspective (e.g. within the time limits of Present-day English), we come across both the principle of paradigmatic shift and homonymous initial forms – the bases on which we define conversion. Thus, the pairs *love_n – love_v* and *text_n – text_v* seem similar in terms of the actual state of the English vocabulary even though the mechanisms due to which they appeared in the language are different.

Diachronically, another phenomenon discussed in connection with conversion is **re-conversion**, which brings about a new meaning correlated with one of the meanings of the converted word. In other words, the semantic structure of the source-word is expanded due to the new meaning(s) developed in the semantic structure of the converted word. The distinction

⁴² Proceeding from this, some linguists consider such pairs as homonyms. For the discussion of the problem and more examples see Karashchuk (1977).

between the two phenomena lies in the results of the two processes. In case of conversion a new word is formed, whereas re-conversion results in a new meaning, and hence, extension of the semantic structure of the source word. As the Russian linguist Karashchuk notices, the new meaning is always correlated with one of those meanings of the converted word which has developed independently. Such an example is the conversion of the noun *cable* (denoting ‘rope of wire’) into the verb *to cable* (meaning ‘to transmit message by cable’). Later the meaning ‘to transmit message by cable’ was re-converted into the nominal meaning ‘telegram’. Thus in the semantic structure of the noun *cable* a new meaning appeared.

Researchers obtain data for such semantic investigation from dictionaries providing the chronological order of appearance of words, as for example, The Oxford Dictionary on Historical Principles, in order to follow the semantic change of words on objective and registered bases.

Another example of the converted word, figuratively speaking, ‘enriching’ the semantics of the source word is the pair *brush* (n) > *brush* (v), in which the semantic structure of the noun underwent re-conversion 3 times.

The noun *brush*, denoting ‘a utensil consisting of a piece of wood, etc., set with small tufts or bunches of hair or the like, for sweeping or scrubbing dust and dirt from a surface; any utensil for brushing or sweeping (1377)’ underwent the first conversion into the verb *to brush* (‘to pass a brush briskly across so as to sweep off dirt, dust or other light particles, or to smooth the surface’ (1640)). **I.** In 1822, the meaning of the verb was re-converted to the nominal meaning ‘a brushing; an application of a brush’. **II.** In 1647, the meaning ‘to rub softly as with a brush in passing; to graze lightly or quickly in passing’ appeared as a result of conversion. In 1691 the semantic change towards ‘to injure or hurt by grazing’ occurred, which in 1710 was re-converted, and the semantic structure of the noun acquired a new component – ‘a graze, esp. on a horse’s leg’. **III.** In 1628, as a result of multiple conversion, the meaning ‘to brush (a

thing) over; to paint or wet its surface with a brush, to paint lightly' appeared, which in its turn, in 1687 was re-converted into the nominal meaning 'painter's art of professional skill'⁴³.

6.5 Back-Formation (Reversion)

Barber calls this phenomenon one of the curiosities of word-formation. The term is used to denote the formation of new words by subtracting a supposed affix from existing words, i.e. it occurs when a word is wrongly imagined to be a derivative from some other (non-existent) form. The new form (at first hypothetical) then enters the language. A well-known example cited in nearly all books on lexicology is the verb *to beg* derived from the noun *beggar* by back-formation. The noun *beggar* is itself derived from Old French *begard*, which in time was wrongly apprehended as a derived word containing the suffix *-er*. And so by analogy with such pairs as *paint/ painter*, *rob/ robber*, *swim/ swimmer*, the verb *to beg* came into use.

Another historical example of back-formation is the verb *to butle* (to serve as a butler) from a supposedly verbal stem in the noun *butler* (cf. ME *buteler*, *boteler* from OFr *boutiller* – 'bottle-bearer'). The noun *butler* has undergone semantic change too: originally the word denoted 'man-servant in charge of the wine', at present the meaning of the word is 'the chief servant of a rich household, who is in charge of other servants, receives guests and directs the serving of meals'.

It should be mentioned that the phenomenon of back-formation is understood in a wider sense nowadays, and it includes the cases of removing affixes from longer words as well. Such examples are numerous and can be found in different historical periods: *edit* formed from *editor*, *swindle* from *swindler* (XVIII c.), similarly - *shoplift*, *housekeep*, *sculpt* (XIX c.), *sheep-walk*, *name-drop*, *therap* (XX c.). Another case is the verb *to automate* (to introduce automatic machinery into factory,

⁴³ The example is cited from Karashchuk (1977).

etc.) formed from the noun *automation* by analogy with *inflate/inflation*. Presumably, *automation* is formed from *automatic*. Other examples are *to enthuse* (to be enthusiastic) from *enthusiasm*; *to reminisce* (to talk about one's memories) from *reminiscence*; *baby-sit* from *babysitting* and *bird-watch* from *bird-watching*.

6.6 Shortening (Clipping)

Shortening is a form of subtraction in which part of the word is taken away. Common shortened words of everyday usage are *demo* (demonstration), *fridge* (refrigerator), *telly/ TV* (television set), *vac* (vacuum cleaner), *ad*, *flu*, *pub*, etc.

The phenomenon of shortening is related to the word-building (word-formation) process, and its discussion is of importance because the shortened variant is always different from the original word (prototype) in meaning and usage. Shortened (or clipped) words are especially common in spoken English, and are therefore stylistically coloured. Secondly, clipped words often occur as derivational bases in compounds and derived words: *faxable* (*fax* is the clipped form of *telefax*), *eco-friendly* (*eco* is the clipped form of *ecology*), *advertocracy* (from *advertisement*).

An interesting example is the word *pep*, a shortened form of *pepper*, having acquired a special sense of 'vigour, energy'. This in its turn has produced the new compound *pep-talk* (a talk intended to ginger people up) and the phrasal verb *to pep up* (to invigorate).

According to the position of the part that is clipped, the following types of clipped words are singled out: final clipping (*ad/ advert* > *advertisement*, *exam* > *examination*, *rep* > *representation*), initial clipping (*board* > *blackboard*, *plane* > *aeroplane*, *case* > *suitcase*, *phone* > *telephone*) and medial clipping (*flu* > *influenza*, *tec* > *detective*).

6.7 Abbreviations (Initials)

This is another minor source of new words. The role of abbreviation has grown in the recent years, in the age of modern science and scientific achievements. It is even said that we live in an age of abbreviations⁴⁴. Abbreviation is a form of shortening, more typical of the written form of language. However, although abbreviations are rooted in spelling (they are graphical formations), their pronunciation is no less important as they can be read differently. Some abbreviations retain their pronunciation as initials: *BBC* (the British Broadcasting Corporation), *ITV* (Independent TV), *VIP* (a Very Important Person), *IRA* (Irish Republican Army), *UN* (United Nations), *PM* (Prime Minister), *MP* (Member of Parliament).

Some others are read as ordinary words. These are called acronyms. Examples of acronyms are: *NATO* ['neitəu] (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), *OPEC* ['əʊpek] (Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries), *AIDS* ['eidz] (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome), *UNESCO* (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization), etc.

In a third case the abbreviated words develop the kind of spelling pronunciation as in the words in the second group, but they are no longer written as initials. Such examples are the words *radar* and *laser*. The first ([ˈreɪdɑː]) is formed from the initials of 'radio direction and ranging' and is today considered a countable noun meaning 'a radar set', 'a radar station'; the second denoting a device giving strong beam of radiation in one direction is formed from the initials of 'light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation'.

It should be emphasized that abbreviations, as well as clippings, can serve as a basis for word-building: *H-bomb* (H – hydrogen), *A-terror* (A –atomic), with the initial being pronounced alphabetically.

⁴⁴ Crystal points out that there seems to be 'no lessening of the motivation to abbreviate in present-day society, thanks to the double function of abbreviation as an energy saver and rapport-builder' (Crystal, 2005:458).

The term ‘abbreviation’ is also used for shortened forms of written words: *ltd* (limited), *abbr.* (abbreviation), *oz* (ounce), as well as for phrases and sentences: *PTO* (please turn over), *NB* (‘please note’, from Latin: *nota bene*), *i.e.* (‘that is to say’ from Latin: *id est*), *etc.* (‘and so on’ from Latin: *et cetera*), etc.

6.8 Blends (Blending)

Blends, also called portmanteau-words are formed by combining phonemes from different words, as the ones from L. Carroll’s “Jabberwocky”, where we learn that *slithy* means ‘lithe and slimy’ and *mimsy* – ‘flimsy and miserable’.

Along with these occasional coinages, there are also ones which have become part of the English vocabulary. Such are: *brunch* – a combination of ‘breakfast’ and ‘lunch’, *subtopia* < ‘suburban utopia’ (a pejorative word), *motel* < ‘motor-hotel’, *moped* < ‘motor-assisted pedal-cycle’, *smog* < ‘smoke + fog’, *heliport* (place where helicopters take off and land), *Muppet* (marionette + puppet), *numeracy* (literacy + numbers: a good basic knowledge of mathematics), *Reaganomics*, *Oxbridge*, *infotainment*, etc. Obviously, the mechanism of blending is characterized by certain productivity, which is well demonstrated by such new coinages as *rockumentary*, *infomercial*, etc., and is indicative of the tendency towards brief expression (referred to earlier in connection with abbreviation) and multiplicity of notions fusing to form a complex one.

QUESTIONS

1. Comment on the conceptual content of the term *word-formation*.
2. Is the morphemic analysis sufficient in disclosing the mechanisms of word-formation? What other types of analysis are necessary for that purpose?
3. Explain the statement that non-linear formations are morphemically non-segmentable.
4. Can dead affixes be singled out synchronically?

5. What are the main characteristic features of living affixes?
6. How is the degree of productivity of affixes established?
7. Can we say that all productive affixes are living?
8. Can we say that all living affixes are productive?
9. Can the neglect of homonymy affect the statistics of productivity in affixes?
10. Can borrowed affixes be productive?
11. What is a *hybrid*?
12. Are prefixes and suffixes classified on identical bases?
13. Comment on the component *quasi-* in the term *quasi-grammatical suffix*.
14. Why do we say that prefixes tend to modify the lexical meaning of the base? Note the main differences between prefixes and suffixes in terms of the balance between lexical, grammatical and part-of-speech meanings, considering their classifications.
15. Can we establish polysemy in affixes without taking into account the factor of the base?
16. Comment on the composite nature of some compound suffixes.
17. Outline and illustrate the main types of compounds.
18. What characteristic features allow us to regard syntactic formations (of *lily-of-the-valley* type) as compounds?
19. Why are rhythmic formations considered pseudo-compounds?
20. Are *derivational compounds* compounds proper?
21. Can derivational compounds serve as a basis for further derivation?
22. How important is the factor of motivation in compounds?
23. Compare and contrast compounds and free word-groups, paying attention to the criteria of differentiation.
24. What is the central characteristic feature of conversion?
25. Why do we say that the paradigm acquires a word-building value in conversion?

26. Outline and illustrate the cases of the semantic derivation $n > v$.
27. Outline and illustrate the cases of the semantic derivation $v > n$.
28. Outline and illustrate the argument that to establish the direction of conversion a complex of criteria can be sufficient.
29. Comment on the difference between *conversion* and *re-conversion*.
30. Why does Barber call back-formation one of the curiosities of word-formation?
31. Can we find new words formed by back-formation? Bring examples.
32. In what is the shortened (clipped) variant of the word different from the full-formed one?
33. Outline and illustrate the conceptual scope of the term *abbreviation*.
34. Can blending be regarded as a productive way of word-formation?

7. Word-Groups

The word can be viewed not only in paradigmatic relations (such are the cases of synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, semantic fields, etc.), but also in syntagmatic relations with other words in a stretch of speech, in context. From the lexicological point of view, of special interest in this respect are word-groups as the largest lexical units having content/meaning and form. The matter is that although the word is the most important unit of speech, in utterances words do not occur as isolated items inasmuch as they are combined with one another. In other words, along with 'monolexic' units (words), there exist structurally complex units consisting of formally separable elements, which are functionally equivalent to separate words (Alexandrova, Ter-Minasova, 1987:20). These are word-groups (or word-combinations).

As complex units, word-groups (word-combinations) are characterized by a certain degree of globality of nomination, which may vary, the highest degree being observable in phraseological units. This means that with the highest degree of cohesion and globality of nomination, we do not merely bring separate words together in a linear sequence, but we use prefabricated blocks that already exist in language as ready-made units and correspondingly function in speech as single ones. As Alexandrova and Ter-Minasova put it, in word-combinations (and specifically in phraseological units and complex word-equivalents) "the globality of nomination reigns supreme over the formal separability of elements" (ibid, p. 23).

In the discussion of word groups a number of theoretical aspects are involved, which can be grouped as centered around two main notions. The first is the focus on the individual word as it occurs in the centre of relationships with the words surrounding it. In connection with this the factors of lexical and grammatical valency of individual words are taken into account. The second notion is based on the understanding of a word-group as a self-contained lexical unit which displays structural

and semantic cohesion of the component words. In this case the problems of structure, meaning and motivation of word-groups come to the fore.

7.1 Lexical and Grammatical Valency

When we consider the individual characteristics of a word, we proceed from the assumption that it has a power of its own to be combined with others. Thus, “the aptness of a word to appear in various combinations” is defined as its lexical valency or collocability (Ginzburg et al, 1979: 64). Besides, a word occurs not only in lexical, but also grammatical relationships. Hence, “the aptness of a word to appear in specific grammatical (or rather syntactic) structures” is defined as its grammatical valency (colligation).

The above becomes clear when we consider how similar notions are expressed in different languages and how the words expressing similar notions are combined with others in different languages. Thus, in English we ‘set/ show an example’, in Armenian we say ‘օրինակ ծառայել’; it is usual to say, ‘She has a very wide group of friends’ in English, whereas we cannot think of ‘ընկերների լայն խումբ’ in Armenian. The well-formed word-group in Armenian should be ‘ընկերների լայն շրջան’ or ‘լայն շրջապատ’:

The two linguistic (rather intra-linguistic) factors that restrict our choice of the words in the examples above are the lexically and phraseologically conditioned combinability of the words *example/ օրինակ* and *friends/ ընկերներ* and their morpho-syntactically conditioned combination. In other words, the word-groups express their lexical meanings through syntactic means (colligation) as well as due to lexical/phraseological attraction or repulsion (collocation). Needless to say that colligation is based on the abstract form of language, its syntactic patterns, without which no speech formation would be possible. And so as distinct from the colligational factor which is more general and abstract (as if it were the formula separated from lexical meaning), the

collocational factor is the particular, concrete filling in the formula. According to Alexandrova and Ter-Minasova, the general colligational patterns (e.g. Adj + N; V + Prep + N, etc.) form “the skeleton of a speech event, while the concrete lexical filling, the collocational aspect, shapes the ‘body’, makes it real” (Alexandrova, Ter-Minasova, 1987:38).

Remembering that the lexical and grammatical components are fused to make up the meaning of the word and that we discuss them as separate factors for theoretical purposes, we can infer that the lexical valency (collocation) can be understood as the combinability of meanings, and grammatical (syntactical) valency (colligation) as the ability of the word to function in certain structures. In other words, the word-group (word-combination) serving as the immediate context, the individual word realizes its meaning due to its semantic and syntactical potential of combinability.

However different they may be by nature, the two types of combinability form a unity. The point is that being representative of a class (category) of words, each word has its lexico-grammatical characteristics which it realizes in speech. Besides, each word has its referential power, individual lexical meaning, to realize which it should be combined with other words.

Central to the notion of lexical valency are the factors of norm and frequency of usage, and it is due to those factors that we expect to hear/ read this or that word in a usual collocation. For example, it is common to expect that one can *tighten, loosen, relax, release, or slacken one’s grip*, but not *fix* or *strengthen* it. Similarly, we can think of *eat healthily, properly, sensibly, hungrily, sparingly, like a horse* but not *thirstily*, or *like a hippopotamus*, though in all the cases the anomalous substitutes are syntactically (grammatically) correct.

In certain cases deviations from the norm are possible, but that is usually done for special stylistic purposes. A classic example is the quote from Kurt Vonnegut’s “Cat’s Cradle”: ... *when I was a younger man – two wives ago, 250000 cigarettes*

ago, 3000 quarts of booze ago... Of course, we would expect a time phrase instead of *two wives, 250000 cigarettes, 3000 quarts of booze* (e.g. *10 years ago, a decade ago*). But this departure from the norm is not perceived as a mistake because both the writer and his readers are aware of the former's intent to achieve a humorous effect through unexpected combinations.

As for the grammatical (syntactical) valency of a word, it is closely connected with the pattern of the word-group, grammatical structure of the language and part-of-speech meaning of the word. We could recall the examples discussed earlier in connection with grammatical context. Another instance to support the above is the fact that in English only the gerund can follow a preposition and not the infinitive: *for cutting* (not *for to cut*), *in spite of having* (not *in spite of to have*). In certain cases, alternative positions and structural patterns are possible: *capable of doing* (ger.)/ *capable to do* (inf.), but not others: *capable done*. In some cases the difference in the structures of the word-groups may be connected with their lexical valency: *propose doing* (*propose* = 'suggest'), *propose to do* (*propose* = 'intend').

7.2 Structural and Semantic Features

The structural features of word-groups are discussed not only in terms of structural patterns and structural types (cf.: good+ at+ N, Adj+ N, V+ Adv, etc), but also in terms of distribution – order and arrangement of component members. According to their distribution, word-groups can be **endocentric** and **exocentric**. Endocentric word-groups have an element (component member) which interacts directly with an element or elements outside the construction (word-group). Such an element is the (semantic) **head** of the construction⁴⁵. E.g. Her car is *extremely fast*. She prefers *extremely fast cars* (the underlined words are the heads). The main characteristic of an endocentric word-group is that the head alone can play a

⁴⁵ For a detailed analysis and classification of endocentric word-groups see Cruse (2001).

grammatical role in the sentence, identical to that of the whole construction.

E.g. We drank *red wine*. > We drank *wine*.

She is *very intelligent*. > She is *intelligent*.

She *dances well*. She *dances*.

Notice also: *fast growth*, *important for everybody*, *respond promptly*, etc.

In exocentric constructions we cannot single out a head word, or a central member. This means that the construction cannot be syntactically replaced by one of its members. Such word-groups are: *from time to time*, *off and on*, *and so on*, *turn pale*, *grow smaller*, *side by side*, etc.

Another basis for classification of endocentric word-groups specifically, is according to the part-of-speech meaning of the head word. This type of classification reveals the following groups: nominal (*talented artist*, *successful attempt*, *boring film*), adjectival (*good at drawing*, *easy to do*, *central to usage*), verbal (*run fast*, *intend to speak*, *break one's promise*).

The third method of classification of word-groups is based on their syntactic pattern. Here two groups are defined: predicative and non-predicative. To the predicative group belong those constructions which have a subject and a predicate⁴⁶. Correspondingly, all the other word-groups are non-predicative.

Non-predicative groups in their turn (including both endocentric and exocentric ones) may be subdivided according to the type of relations between the component members into subordinative and coordinative. Typically, examples of subordinative word-groups are endocentric ones (*talented artist*, *good at drawing*, *break one's promise*, etc.). Correspondingly, in some of the exocentric word groups we can observe relations

⁴⁶ Cruse points out that in syntactic theory it is usual to regard the verb (predicate) as the head, and the subject as dependent, but the purely semantic evidence suggests that the subject has certain of the characteristics of a head (Cruse, 2001: 100-111).

of coordination (*ladies and gentlemen, off and on, day and night, do or die*, etc.).

Word-groups are also discussed from the point of view of their semantics, including lexical, grammatical and structural meaning, as well as motivation. Proceeding from the notion that word-groups as multi-word constructions display certain structural and semantic cohesion (acting as units), linguists emphasize the combined character of the lexical meaning in word groups. They define 'combined lexical meaning' as a complex in which all the component members are represented but which, however, is not the mechanical sum of its component meanings. Moreover, the meanings of component members are interdependent. We noticed a similar tendency in compounds (cf.: the example of *boathouse*). For example, in *environmental issue* the meanings of components are 'of, related to the environment' + 'problem, question'. However, the combined lexical meaning of the word-group also includes the concepts of 'being friendly to nature', 'preserving the ecological systems', etc. As it is the case with compounds, in word-groups too, polysemous components realize only one of their meanings unless two are employed for punning. For example, if we look at the noun *breath* in *a breath of suspicion/ scandal*, it is not the usual sense (meaning) 'the air that you take into your lungs', but 'small amount of' that is employed here.

Another component of meaning is the connotations, including the stylistic reference of a word-group. Especially in the case of phraseologically significant units (idioms, restricted collocations, etc.), and also remembering that word-groups have combined lexical meanings of their own, we can notice that word-groups have their own stylistic reference too, which may even be different from the stylistic reference of its component members. For example, *breath* and *air* are neutral words, whereas the word-group *a breath of air* is confined to the literary (in the narrower sense)/elevated style. Similarly, *fashion* is neutral but *after the fashion of somebody* is formal.

As mentioned, word-groups or multi-word constructions are discussed in terms of their structural meaning too, namely, considering the way the components are distributed (arranged). In this case too, the analogy with compounds proves helpful. We remember the examples *houseboat* and *boathouse*, *ring-finger* and *finger-ring*. In discussing word-groups we could think of such instances as *methods of description* and *description of methods*. In the first case *method* is the head word, in the second the head word is *description* (*A method of description* is a method, while *a description of a method* is a description, even though the same component members are used in the constructions).

In the phrase *all the more reason* the word *reason* cannot be replaced by its synonym *cause*. This is partly also due to the structural meaning of the phrase (Cf.: *If he's unwell, that's all the more reason to go and see him*). We could also recall the well-known literary example *two wives ago*, quoted earlier and discussed in connection with lexical valency.

The next step to take towards a better understanding of multi-word constructions or word-groups is to analyse them in terms of motivation, or transparency of the combined lexical meaning and structural pattern. Motivation is essential to word-groups as well, and the lack of it (idiomaticity) serves as the basis of definition of idioms proper. Word-groups as well as words range from lexically and structurally motivated to lexically and structurally non-motivated. They are motivated when the combined lexical meaning and structural meaning are deducible from the lexical meaning of components and the order and arrangement of the members respectively. Otherwise they are not.

The word-groups *unwritten rule*, *persistent rumour*, *international fame*, *complete education* are motivated both lexically and structurally. On the other hand, *lock horns with somebody* (get involved in an argument), *kith and kin* (old-fashioned: friends and relatives), *take umbrage at something*

(feel offended), *wet behind the ears* (young and inexperienced) are not, at least synchronically.

Some other units of varying degree of motivation are: *on the distaff side* (old-fashioned: on the woman's side of the family), *crocodile tears*, *in concert with somebody/something* (working together with), *talk nineteen to the dozen* (talk without stopping), *nip something in the bud* (stop something when it has just begun), *the milk of human kindness* (kind behaviour), etc.

7.3 Extra-linguistic Aspects of Word-Groups

Apart from purely linguistic (or rather intra-linguistic) restrictions that affect the formation and functioning of word-groups (we have discussed these as collocation and colligation), the latter are also observable in close connection with extra-linguistic aspects. To put it otherwise, words are brought together in groups not only on linguistic, but also extra-linguistic bases. The extra-linguistic bases, which at the same time serve as restrictions, are the conceptual and sociolinguistic factors that determine the character of word-groups.

The conceptual grounds of word combination can be defined as logical relations or conceptual categories of a high degree of abstraction, which allow words and the concepts that they express to be associated with one another.

The fact that we categorize the world around us through linguistic means is sufficient to claim that combinations of words as a rule tend to be conceptually conditioned. We can think of a great number of cases when words, and similarly – word-groups, are conceptually related.

Conceptual associations between words, as well as word-groups, exist along paradigmatic and syntagmatic axes. In the first case individual words and word-groups share common concepts and can be grouped around them. Such are the phenomena of conceptual fields, synonymy, part-of-speech classification, etc, where words (and also word-groups/ word combinations as entities) form a kind of list or inventory. For example, *meet the demand*, *meet the requirements* and *meet the*

need not only share the component *meet*, or include the words *demand*, *requirement*, *need*, which enter a synonymic set individually, but also stand in relations of semantic similarity as complex lexical entities, wholes; cf. *meet the demand* as a semantic equivalent of *meet the need*.

On the other hand, word-groups/ word combinations are syntagmatic units, within which individual words are conceptually associated. In fact, as it was mentioned earlier, in word-groups/ combinations the two axes (paradigmatic and syntagmatic) intersect, and the conceptual aspect permeates both directions. Thus, for instance, in the binomials *safe and sound*, *first and foremost*, *babes and sucklings* the two components share semantic similarity and are therefore associated conceptually even taken separately, but they are also brought together to form entities by syntagmatic association.

Certain conceptual determination is also present in cases of hyponymy, as well as any other taxonomic structures available in language (cf. *A rocking chair is a type of chair, which entails that it is a piece of furniture*). Linguists also mention the conceptual aspect of part-of-speech classification involving the general conceptual abstractions of ‘thingness’, ‘process/action’, ‘quality’ etc, i.e. all nouns share the concept of ‘thingness’, verbs – process/action, etc.

And since words being representative of different classes are joined into word-groups, the conceptual aspect is not insignificant in cases of natural connection, for example, between an animate object and action (cf. *athletes compete; people communicate; children grow up*), object + quality (cf. *incurable disease, sudden change, political stability, economic problems*), etc.

Naturally, these relations are general and abstract in character, but we can speak of conceptual bases in more specific terms as well. Usually, at more specific and concrete levels the social (sociolinguistic) aspect of word-groups is involved too.

In respect to this, Alexandrova and Ter-Minasova point to the fact that instances of positive evaluation of food prevail in

English linguistic tradition and culture. Obviously, negative reactions to food would be considered inappropriate (if not a manifestation of bad manners) in English society. Hence, the concept of ‘tasting good’ underlies a larger number of word-groups (word combinations) than the negative notion; cf. *delicious, nice, splendid, perfect, fine, superb, excellent, peasant-tasting, tasty food vs. bad food* (Alexandrova, Ter-Minasova, 1987:46).

The same refers to other material as well as spiritual and moral values. Thus, the high appreciation of the value of loyalty by society results in a larger number of combinations with the quality of strength and completeness rather than deficiency in it; e.g. *absolute, complete, total, undivided, unswerving, fierce, great, intense, strong, tremendous loyalty vs. conflicting, divided loyalty*. It is clear that the more detailed part of the opposition ‘good – bad’ is the one that is more significant for the speech community in terms of its system of values.

As we conceptualize the world around us, we also categorize the concepts that are central to our understanding of true values. Such values are life, love, time, health, etc.

For example, Lakoff and Johnson claim that in modern Western culture (and this finds expression in the English language too), time is associated with such concepts as ‘money’, ‘resource’ and ‘valuable commodity’, hence – the metaphorical concepts: ‘*Time is money*’; ‘*Time is a resource*’ and ‘*Time is a valuable commodity*’. The metaphorical concepts in their turn underlie such metaphorical expressions as: *waste one’s time, save somebody time, have time to give somebody, invest time in somebody, run out of time, budget one’s time, put aside some time for something, be worth one’s while, use one’s time profitably*, etc. (the examples are cited from Lakoff, Johnson, 2003:7-9).

Some more metaphorical concepts that people speaking English and bearing Western culture share are:

Theories (arguments) are buildings
- *foundation for a theory*

- *shaky argument*
- *the argument falls apart*
- *construct a strong argument*
- *shore up a theory*
- *The argument collapsed, etc.*

Love is war

- *fight for somebody*
- *flee from someone's advances*
- *pursue somebody relentlessly*
- *gain ground with someone*
- *win one's hand in marriage*
- *be besieged by suitors*
- *make an ally of somebody*
- *(of marriage) be a misalliance, etc.*

Life is a gambling game

- *take one's chances*
- *have an ace up one's sleeve*
- *somebody is holding all the aces*
- *(of life) be a toss-up*
- *play one's cards right*
- *win big*
- *someone is bluffing*
- *play it close to the vest*
- *sweeten the pot*
- *stand pat*
- *be the luck of the draw*
- *be high stakes, etc.*

Another instance of conceptual categorization of social significance is the opposition 'healthy – unhealthy'. As expected, a larger number of words and word-groups describing ill-health can be found than those denoting good health (cf. *to be ill, to be bad, to be unwell, to feel weak, to feel lousy, to feel light-headed, to feel pain, to suffer from a disease, to catch a cold, to have a heart attack, to have an eye infection, etc.*), not to mention the long list of medical terms denoting diseases. And this is

natural because it is the deviation from the normal state that arouses anxiety, and correspondingly displays variety of expression.

Apparently, conceptual association is involved in all those cases when it is a matter of actual physical association, natural combinability: *fresh air, green grass, blue sky, red rose*, etc.

We should notice that even in the cases of natural combinability, on a larger scale, the sociolinguistic aspect is unavoidable being indicative of the nation's mentality, language and culture. And it is natural to expect that the sociolinguistic factor should become obvious when we compare the linguistic facts of different languages. The Eskimo and the Lapps, for example, have a variety of terms to distinguish between different kinds of snow as their language reflects their natural environment and their appreciation of the experiences connected with snow. Similarly, a desert people, the Paitue, categorize topographical features in more detail as it is central to their survival (looking for water and finding it are conditioned by profound knowledge of the area of land); the Navaho have two terms for black: 1. the black of darkness, 2. the black of coal.

That the cultural (and hence, social) background is significant is also seen on the example of Swedish, which does not have a common term for 'grandfather' or 'grandmother', referring to both parents (cf. *morfar* = 'the mother's father'; *farfar* = 'the father's father').

We can also recall *aunt* and *uncle* against *հորաքույր, մորաքույր, հորեղբայր, մորեղբայր/քեռի*.

However great the differences between languages, representatives of different societies, nevertheless, do achieve understanding across languages, for they share common conceptual systems which are

rooted in their experience. And we also remember that language is exceptionally social in character.

To sum up, being shaped through language and rooted in our experience, knowledge, culture, traditions, etc, concepts reflect our socio-physical environment. This means that social structures underlie linguistic structures, and the extra-linguistic aspects of word-groups tend to be socio-conceptual as a general rule. But these can be separated for theoretical purposes, and the purely conceptual phenomena (rather than socio-conceptual) are the cases of most generalized linguistic-philosophical categories representing the highest degrees of abstraction (generalized relations of word classes, taxonomy, etc).

QUESTIONS

1. Explain why word-groups occur in the focus of Lexicology.
2. Define, compare and contrast *lexical* and *grammatical valency*.
3. Can the word-group be regarded as minimum context for the individual words included in it?
4. Name two factors that are central to lexical valency.
5. Is the grammatical valency of a word dependent on the part of speech to which it belongs? Does it necessarily mean that two words belonging to the same part of speech occur in identical combinations?
6. Compare and contrast the *endocentric* and *exocentric* types of word-groups. Can we single out a central member (head) in an exocentric construction?
7. Outline and illustrate other bases of classification of word-groups.
8. What is *lexical meaning* in word-groups? Comment on the factors of grammatical and structural meaning.

9. Does the stylistic reference of a word-group as a global unit need to coincide with that of its individual members?
10. When is a word-group lexically motivated? Bring examples.
11. Outline the possible intra-linguistic and extra-linguistic restrictions on the formation and functioning of word-groups.
12. Why is purely conceptual determination in word-groups possible at the highest levels of abstraction? Explain and illustrate your arguments.
13. Why do we divide the extra-linguistic aspects of word-groups into conceptual and socio-conceptual (rather than conceptual and social)?

8. Phraseology: Problems, Definitions, Classifications (General Outline)

Let us imagine a situation, when a person *is sitting on a fence*, i.e. has to make a decision: either he should have the patience to wait until the crisis situation changes for him to act as he cannot be loyal to two opposing sides, or he should *go his own way* and *not give way*. He turns to his friend for advice and support. The latter remarks:

B – *Where there's a will there's a way.*

A – *Come again? What are you getting at?*

B – *Rome was not built in a day. If at first you don't succeed, try, try, try again.*

A – What if I say: *He who fights and runs away lives to fight another day?*

B – Only if it is because *you can't run with the hare and hunt with the hounds.*

A – You can't. *You can't have your cake and eat it.*

Sit on the fence; go one's own way; give way; Where there's a will there's a way; come again?; get at (something); Rome was not built in a day; If at first you don't succeed, try, try, try again; He who fights and runs away lives to fight another day; You can't run with the hare and hunt with the hounds; You can't have your cake and eat it are multi-word units, which despite the structural and functional variety, share characteristics which allow us to consider them in terms of their phraseological value. Obviously, the imaginary dialogue is oversaturated with phraseologically relevant, prefabricated units, for illustrative purposes. In an ordinary conversation we would hardly use so many ready-made word-groups, although prefabs (as the latter are called) are characteristic of language and various collocations (whether restricted or not) are central to usage.

If we look at the phrases closely, we will notice that we deal with word-like (*sit on the fence; go one's own way; give*

way, etc.) and sentence-like units (*Where there's a will there's a way; You can't have your cake and eat it*). Word-like units function at the level of or below simple sentences. They are also known as nominations. As for sentence-like units, they function as sayings, catchphrases, conversational formulae (*There is no fool like an old fool; You don't say*). Sentence-like units are termed propositions.

However, in spite of the structural and functional differences, what unites all the multi-word constructions referred to above is that apart from being prefabricated (being used and reproduced ready-made), they display semantic integrity (i.e. a sort of internal cohesion), functional, semantic and lexical stability, i.e. we could not replace the members of the word-groups at our own will, or change them without having to change the overall meaning. In other words, they are characterized by certain 'setness', as well as fully or partially transferred meanings, or idiomaticity. Many of them carry out an emotive function (of impact) and are stylistically significant.

It is noteworthy that idioms can be homonymous with grammatically well-formed transparent expressions, the latter being interpreted in the literal sense. For example, *to pull someone's leg, to have a bee in one's bonnet, to cook someone's goose, to kick the bucket* can be free word-groups too: we can think of such situations connected with, say, holding a leg and moving it towards yourself with force, doing some cooking, or hitting a bucket with your foot because you are angry, etc. However, the homonymous idiomatic expressions, though lexically complex, are semantically simplex, functioning as single semantic entities ('to deceive somebody', 'to think about a thing all the time', 'ruin the chances of success', 'die' respectively), not to mention the structural and functional stability and stylistic reference (all the idiomatic variants are colloquial). Another example, which proves that the structural organization (in this case order of arrangement of component members) of phraseological units resists interruption and re-

ordering is *pepper and salt*⁴⁷, which denotes a colour, while the reversed variant (*salt and pepper*) literally denotes the condiments used for seasoning food.

Such multi-word units are in the focus of a major field of research, Phraseology, which has increasingly gained importance throughout the world. The British lexicographer and researcher Cowie mentions that phraseology has become a major field of pure and applied research for Western linguists for the past twenty years. He also emphasizes the role of Eastern European, and specifically, Russian linguistic tradition in this growth (Cowie //Phraseology, 2005). That Phraseology is an extensive field of investigation can be explained by two interrelated factors.

Firstly, alongside knowledge of linguistic rules of great generality, we need to cope with speech formulae which exist in abundance in language. To put it otherwise, both in written and spoken language we use ready-made combinations or prefabricated units of varying complexity and stability, which are central to native-like proficiency in a language. In particular, the explanation to this is that “people speak in set phrases, rather than in separate words” (Melčuk // Phraseology, 2005: 25).

Secondly, ‘restricted’ lexical collocations appear in a vast variety of discourse types. In other words, being part of the lexicon, such units occur in student textbooks, commercial advertising, academic-scientific monographs and prose fiction⁴⁸. Needless to say, that the theoretical achievements of phraseologists serve for practical purposes too, namely, in Lexicography and in language teaching.

Phraseology is a branch of Linguistics. It studies “the ways of bringing words together in the flow of speech”

⁴⁷ This example is also illustrative of the functional perspective on phraseological units, according to which the latter function as word-equivalents, being semantically and grammatically inseparable units. The Russian linguist Smirnitsky’s system of classification based on this criterion is presented as a diagram.

⁴⁸ For more details see Gläser’s article in “Phraseology” (2005).

(Minaeva, 2007). The mentioning of Phraseology as a branch of Linguistics is not accidental, as it is a self-sustained discipline with its object of investigation, methods of analysis, perspectives of development, and problems that are not restricted to the semantics, variability and usage of phraseologically significant units but also include such aspects as their cultural, communicative, lexicographic and stylistic value. Moreover, as an independent and extensive field of study, it serves as a basis for interdisciplinary investigations, such as phraseological stylistics.

On the other hand, phraseological problems are included in lexicological study too. Why is this so?

Recalling the definition that phraseology is concerned with the bringing together of words in the flow of speech, we notice that its object of investigation is not merely (or only) phraseological units or restricted collocations. More recent investigations also include commonplace free collocations and innovative or nonce collocations (Minaeva, 2007).

However, we should not forget that set phrases or expressions (traditionally discussed by Phraseology as idioms or phraseological units, with their metalinguistic varieties) form part of the lexicon – its phrasicon.

Another aspect of immediate connection between Lexicology and Phraseology is through Lexicography, dealing with the systematic presentation of the vocabulary. As another argument we could mention the obvious similarity between the idiomatic compounds *slowcoach*, *tallboy* and *wallflower* on the one hand, and the idiomatic word-equivalents *red tape*, *laughing stock*, *chew the rag*, *the melting pot* and *at full pelt*, on the other.

Being an extensive field of investigation, phraseology most naturally causes metalinguistic complications. In particular, phraseologists are not unanimous in defining, naming and classifying phraseological phenomena. The differences and complications also lie in the criteria that they apply, as well as in the fuzzy parts that occur in the classifications. Namely, if we proceed from the criterion of idiomaticity, we may find it

difficult to delimit the cases of partial motivation and figurative transference. Neither is there a distinct line between so called ‘restricted collocations’ and collocations showing more flexibility. As Cowie observes, “for analysts, the crucial problems are those of determining where the domain of phraseology actually begins, and within that expanse, of dividing the more invariable and opaque items from the more recombinable and transparent ones” (Cowie// Phraseology, 2005: 210).

Consequently, the first thing that we notice when studying the different theories is that scholars choose different umbrella terms – general categories under which they unite the groups of phraseological phenomena. Thus, for instance, Vinogradov, and following him, Gläser use the umbrella term ‘phraseological unit’, other linguists – Kunin and Arnold prefer ‘set expression’. Some more umbrella terms are ‘composite’ (Cowie), ‘phraseme’ (Melčuk), ‘phrasal lexeme’ (Moon). The most common tendency in the categorization of phraseology is to base the classifications on tripartite schemes even if the criteria are different.

In the Russian linguist Smirnitsky’s system of classification phraseological units are presented as word combinations which function as ‘monolithic’ lexical units, which to a greater or lesser degree are word equivalents. Such are: *take care, court of justice, in order (to)*, etc. According to Smirnitsky, they should be regarded as part of the lexical system – a fact that allows us to describe their semantic relationships with other lexical units (Smirnitsky, 1998: 203). As for the central characteristic feature of phraseological units, Smirnitsky defines it as idiomaticity, which in its turn endows such units with certain semantic integrity (inseparability) – one of the features determining their functioning as single units. The next functional feature along with semantic inseparability is grammatical inseparability. It should be stressed that the two features are interrelated and mutually determine one another.

On the basis of the above, Smirnitsky explains the use of the term ‘word-equivalent’ in the following way: the components of a phraseological unit are correlated like those of a compound word, and in its integrity a phraseological unit is in a sense similar to a word understood as a lexeme rather than to a word-form. This means that the restricted grammatical changes that a phraseological unit undergoes as a word-equivalent (as a whole), touch only one of its components despite the existence of two; e.g. *take care, takes care, took care, taking care, taken care*, etc.

In Smirnitsky’s theory the phraseological unit is viewed not only in comparison with a word (due to the functional integrity that it displays), but also in relation to a free word-group. In this respect too, the decisive factors of semantic and grammatical inseparability are revealed. Thus, for instance in the free combination *take a/the/any chair*, the word *chair* can be replaced by any other word – *book, pen, journal* etc. unlike the phraseological unit *take the chair* meaning ‘preside over a meeting’. A similar procedure could be applied to the free group *a rainy day* (cf. *a sunny/ happy/unforgettable day*) vs. *to lay for a rainy day* (‘to save up for difficult times’).

According to Smirnitsky, the components of a phraseological unit should be regarded as words which have been used specifically due to the structural and grammatical restrictions imposed on it (ibid, p. 207). In particular, being prefabricated units which are reproduced ready-made in speech, such combinations resist grammatical changes in their parts individually, i.e. the possible grammatical changes refer to the unit as a whole. For example in the phraseological variant *take the chair* the article cannot be replaced by *a, that, this, some*, or any other determiner. Nor can the noun take a plural or possessive form.

Relying on the criterion of functional inseparability (including both semantic and grammatical inseparability + reproducibility), Smirnitsky differentiates the following groups

of stereotyped phrases: phraseological combinations, idioms proper and traditional phrases.

In this classification, phraseological units are kept apart from traditional phrases on the one hand, and idioms proper, on the other.

Traditional phrases, which are characterized by reproducibility, are not regarded as word-equivalents. They are usual collocations whose inner form is transparent, e.g. *take an examination, rough sketch*, etc, i.e. they lack any idiomaticity.

On the other hand are idioms proper, whose global meanings cannot be deduced from those of the component members: *to fish in troubled waters, wash one's dirty linen in public, heavy father, take the bull by the horns*, etc. As a rule, idioms are stylistically significant, emotionally coloured.

As for phraseological combinations (*get up, fall in love*), their figurative character, the metaphoric image underlying such units is not perceived as such by a modern speaker, although if viewed diachronically, metaphoric transference is revealed here too, with the only reservation that the underlying metaphor is dead.

Smirnitsky's notion of word-equivalence actually allows another perspective on phraseological units too. Namely, proceeding from the classification of words into derivatives and compounds, the linguist seeks to find similar structural and semantic features in phraseological units as well, correspondingly singling out units with one semantic centre (one summit units) on the one hand, and with two or more semantic centres (two summit and multi-summit units), on the other.

In phraseological units with two or more semantic centres the relations between the components are very similar to those between the bases making up compound words. Particularly, what is stressed in such cases is not just and not only the semantic integrity of the constituent members, but their more or less equal semantic value (Smirnitsky, 1998: 210). For example, in the combinations *to take the chair, best man, to fish in troubled waters*, the components are nearly equal in their

semantic significance, i.e. are equally meaningful (cf. *ship-* and *-wreck* in *shipwreck*).

Differently, in phraseological units resembling derived words, only one of the components is of full semantic value, the other one being semantically dependent on the first one and having a differentiating function. To this type Smirnitsky groups phrasal verbs (*to give up, to set out, to call off*, etc.) and such combinations as *be tired, be surprised* (unlike *be small, be old* on the one hand, and passive structures, on the other). It should be mentioned, however, that this grouping, especially the one-centre type, does not seem convincing to many linguists.

According to Smirnitsky, this principle based on the derived word/ compound word analogy is applicable not only to phraseological units, but also to free word-groups, the basic difference consisting in the degree of motivation. Thus, phraseological units are compared to idiomatic derivatives and compounds (cf. *reader* = an easy book helping learners, and *slowcoach* = a person who moves and acts slowly), and free word-groups are comparable to non-idiomatic coinages (cf. *tactful, bookish, boathouse*, etc.).

Each of the two groups of this structural-semantic classification is further subdivided according to the part of speech to which the head (summit) constituent belongs:

One-summit units

1. Verbal- adverbial units: *to give up, to make out*
2. Units of *be tired* type, in which the semantic centre is *tired* and the grammatical one is *be*.
3. Prepositional – substantive units: *by heart, for good, by means of*; in this case the problem of grammatical centre is of no importance, the semantic centre is represented by the substantive.

Two-summit and multi-summit units:

1. Attributive – substantive two-summit units, equivalent to nouns: *black art, first night, common sense*, etc.
2. Verbal – substantive two-summit units, equivalent to verbs: *take the floor, catch fire, go to bed, fall in love*
3. Phraseological repetitions equivalent to adverbs: *now or never, up and down, with might and main, betwixt and between*
4. Adverbial multi-summit units: *every now and then, every other day*, etc.

As for sentence-like fixed units, Smirnitsky does not regard them as phraseological units because they do not qualify as word-equivalents, though they too are used as ready-made units.

The prominent Russian linguist Vinogradov, whose approach underlies many further theoretical developments, discusses the category of ‘phraseological units’, proceeding from two characteristics: semantic opacity (or if we look the other way – transparency) or idiomaticity, and structural stability. By emphasizing these features of phraseological units as distinct from free word-groups, Vinogradov actually considers stability and lack of motivation as definitive. His umbrella term includes phraseological fusions, phraseological unities and phraseological collocations. In the first group (phraseological fusions), the two criteria of classification are expressed most distinctly. These are unmotivated, semantically opaque (hence idiomaticity) and structurally fixed units, in which the global meaning (combined lexical meaning) cannot be derived from the meaning of constituent elements, and no variability of lexical components is allowed. Such examples are: *red tape* (bureaucratic methods), *spill the beans* (reveal a secret), *chew the rag* (talk about events, affairs, etc., esp. in a complaining way), *melting pot* (place or situation in which large numbers of people, ideas, etc. are mixed together), etc.

The second group in Vinogradov's classification is phraseological unities consisting of partially motivated units, including cases of metaphorical extension, and allowing of some understanding. Such are: *blow off/ let off steam* (give free expression to one's feelings), *show one's teeth* (take a threatening tone), *wash one's dirty linen in public* (make one's quarrels public), etc. As for the second factor, these units are characterized by a comparatively high degree of stability.

It is important to mention that the boundary between the first and second groups is not clear-cut or distinct and often depends on the linguistic and cultural experience of speakers, i.e. for some speakers a given expression has a figurative sense which is not yet completely fossilized, for others it is entirely opaque, lacks any motivation.

The third group – phraseological collocations – is made up from units which due to strictly limited variability are habitual collocations. One component member of the word-group is used in a literal sense. The sense of the figuratively used component is phraseologically bound: *meet the demand* (the sense of 'meet' is phraseologically bound). Cf.: *meet the demand/ need/ requirements/ request; take a liking/fancy*, etc.⁴⁹.

⁴⁹ The term 'phraseologically bound meaning' should be understood in association with the other types of meaning defined by Vinogradov. They are: nominative, nominative-derivative, collocationally and colligationally conditioned, and phraseologically bound meanings.

The nominative meaning is the basic meaning of the word which refers to objects of extra-linguistic reality directly (cf. referential/ denotative meaning).

The nominative-derivative type too is part of the word's semantic structure: it is often based on figurative transference, when the semantic scope of the word is extended to cover new fragments of reality.

The colligationally and collocationally conditioned types of meaning are bound (not free) in character, i.e. they are conditioned by the morpho-syntactic and lexical-phraseological combinability of words respectively.

In those cases when certain meanings belong only to a given collocation, i.e. when a word is habitually associated with another word, we deal with a phraseologically bound meaning.

Another Russian linguist, whose notion of Phraseology has been influential in the development of the discipline, is Amosova. Her theory is based on a contextual approach, i.e. the meanings of phraseological units are defined in/by specific types of context. In other words, Amosova relies on a contextual analysis in separating phraseological units from free phrases and traditionally stereotyped phrases. Correspondingly, free word-groups make up variable, and phraseological units non-variable (fixed) contexts. A non-variable (fixed) context is characterized by a specific and unchanging sequence of definite lexical components and a peculiar semantic relationship between them. Unlike free word-groups characterized by variable contexts due to the unlimited number of substitutions (*beautiful woman/ story/ scene/ view*, etc), units of fixed context do not undergo any substitution: *grind one's teeth*, *shoot the breeze*, *in the nick of time*. Among units of fixed context, Amosova distinguishes between idioms and phrasemes. Phrasemes, according to Amosova, are mostly binary units one of which has a phraseologically bound meaning, and the other serves as a determining context. In the phraseme *to grind one's teeth*, *to grind* has a phraseologically bound meaning, and *one's teeth* serves as a determining context. Cf. also: *small hours*, *husband's tea*, in which *small* and *husband's* have the phraseologically bound meanings, while *hours* and *tea* act as determining contexts. As for idioms, according to Amosova, they are semantically, grammatically and contextually inseparable units which cannot be analyzed into a determining context and a component with phraseologically bound meaning. E.g. *a mare's nest* (nonsense, hoax), *in the nick of time* (at the very last moment), *kick the bucket* (die), *a dark horse* (a person or thing whose true character or worth is unknown but may be better than is thought), etc.

Amosova also suggests the notion of semi-fixed context or traditionally fixed context, and its unit as 'phraseloid', leaving such units outside the domain of phraseology.

Three observations seem important with reference to the two systems of classification.

1. In fact, Amosova's notion of idioms includes what Vinogradov terms as phraseological fusions and phraseological unities.
2. If we try to correlate Amosova's 'phrasemes' and Vinogradov's 'phraseological combinations/collocations', we can see that the concept 'phraseologically bound meaning' is narrower in Amosova's theory, i.e. the bound meaning should be supported by a single/ unique determining word. And thus, *to grind one's teeth* is a phraseme according to Amosova because *one's teeth* cannot be replaced by another word, whereas *meet demand/ need/ requirements/ request* is not because the determining context is not fixed, it has some (though restricted) variability. In other words, she argues that for a combination to be phraseological, the bound sense must have a single determining item, while Vinogradov also includes those combinations in which one element has a figurative sense, and the other, serving as its determining context, can have certain variability (with one or more binding words). Actually, Amosova leaves out of the scope of phraseology part of what is known as 'restricted collocations' (in Vinogradov's theory 'phraseological combinations/collocations').
3. Both theories reflect word-like units, or nominations, excluding sentence-like units or propositions.

A very similar classification of word-like units (nominations) has been proposed in the Western linguistic tradition too, the main difference being metalinguistic. Cowie chooses the umbrella term 'composite' with its types: pure idiom, figurative idiom, restricted collocation.

Another, more inclusive approach trying to overcome the shortcomings of previous theories was developed by the

Russian linguist Kunin. With the general category (umbrella term) ‘set expression’, which emphasizes the criteria of phraseological stability and setness of such units, and is more comprehensive (including sentence-like units too), the linguist proposes the following groups: phraseological units, phraseomatic units and the mixed class of borderline cases. Central to the classification are the criteria of stability of use (as such units are elements of language and not occasional combinations), lexical stability (with the prefabricated wholes being replaced in their parts only partially) and semantic stability (the invariant lexical meaning of the set expression being preserved despite the occasional changes).

Thus, according to Kunin, phraseological units have fully or partially transferred meanings: *red tape, a mare’s nest, grind one’s teeth, small hours*, etc., while the members of phraseomatic units are used in their literal meanings: *win a victory, launch a campaign, cause/ make/ create a stir, make/ achieve progress/ headway, ask/ look for trouble*, etc.

As mentioned, in the domain of phraseology Kunin also includes various types of so called ‘functional expressions’, i.e. of sentence length (*Every bullet has its billet; The last straw breaks the camel’s back*, etc.) which function as proverbs, catchphrases or slogans⁵⁰.

Along with the distinctive features of idiomaticity and stability, linguists also point out a number of others which underlie definitions of phraseological phenomena. Rosemarie

⁵⁰ A proverb is a short familiar epigrammatic saying expressing popular wisdom, a truth or a moral lesson in a concise and imaginative way. A proverb usually involves a figurative extension of the meaning (*Rome was not built in a day; You can’t run with the hare and hunt with the hounds*).

A slogan is a word or phrase that is easy to remember, used e.g. for a political party or in advertising, to suggest an idea quickly (*Safety first*).

A catchphrase is a popular phrase that is connected with the politician or entertainer who used it and made it famous (*What’s up do?’; ‘May the force be with you!*).

A saying is a well-known phrase or statement that expresses something about life that most people believe is wise and true (*Accidents will happen*).

Gläser, for example, emphasizes the characteristic features of lexicalization (cf.: stability of use), common usage, reproducibility, syntactic and semantic stability, idiomaticity, connotations, possible expressive, emphatic or intensifying functions in the text.

Hence, Gläser defines a ‘phraseological unit’ (her umbrella term) as a “lexicalized, reproducible billexemic or polylexemic word group in common use, which has relative syntactic and semantic stability, may be idiomatized, may carry connotations, and may have an emphatic or intensifying function in a text” (Gläser// Phraseology, 2005 : 125).

Gläser too includes both word-like and sentence-like units in the phrasicon (inventory of phrasologically significant units), terming word-like units ‘nominations’, and sentence-like ones ‘propositions’. She further subdivides nominations into idioms (whose meaning cannot be derived from the meanings of its constituents) and non-idioms having transparent meanings, and including technical terms (terminological word groups), onymic entities (phrases which are proper names), clichés, etc. She calls non-idioms also non-idiomatic restricted collocations (e.g. *unconditional surrender, the Black Sea, the Golden Twenties, of paramount importance, wet to the skin, beyond compare*, etc.).

Propositions in Gläser’s system are represented by proverbs (*One swallow does not make a summer*), commonplaces/ trite formulae (*We live and learn*), routine formulae (*Come again? Many happy returns*), slogans (*Value for money; Safety first*), commandments and maxims (*Thou shalt not kill; Be relevant!*), quotations and winged words (*Where ignorance is bliss, ‘tis folly to be wise; A Jekyll and Hyde; Catch 22*).

Summarizing the recent investigations, the Russian linguist Minaeva singles out the following groups of ‘multi-word units’, proceeding from the criterion of degree of semantic opacity: idioms proper (*to put the cart before the horse, to kill two birds with one stone*); phraseological units – invariable word

combinations (*as a matter of course, to take for granted*); restricted collocations – word combinations which allow some substitution, but where is still some arbitrary limitation on choice (*to run a company, fix/ set a price*); commonplace free collocations (*green grass, heavy box, to run quickly, to speak loudly*); innovative or nonce collocations – word combinations which demonstrate practically unlimited combinatorial possibilities of words (*an astonished piece of toast, green ideas, suitable paralysis*).

To reveal the basic features of multi-word groups, Minaeva applies five categories (proposed by Alexandrova and Ter-Minasova). They are connotativeness, reproducibility (ready-made-ness), idiomaticity, conceptual determination (the conceptual motivation underlying a multi-word unit, i.e. the compatibility with the normal conceptual relationship of things, or dependence on the physical experience of the speaker), and sociolinguistic determination (which means that the interrelation between the components of a multi-word unit is determined by the social life, tradition and culture of the speech community).

Testing the types of multi-word units against the complex of features, the linguist arrives at the following descriptions.

1. Idioms proper are connotative, clichéd, semantically global multi-word units which are socio-linguistically determined (*blue stocking, to meet one's Waterloo, a skeleton in the cupboard*).
2. Phraseological units are similar to idioms in being clichéd and idiomatic, but are devoid of connotations, are not socio-linguistically determined.
3. Restricted collocations are characterized by ready-made-ness and idiomaticity but to a less degree. Their idiomaticity becomes evident through comparison with other languages (*heavy snow, to hold a meeting, to appreciate fully*).
4. Commonplace free collocations demonstrate natural combinability of their referents, therefore are

frequent in speech. This results in partial prefabrication (*blue sky, heavy suitcase, to read books, sound of music*).

5. Innovative word combinations are absolutely unpredictable. Their main feature is connotation, deliberate violation of the conceptual basis of collocability, resulting in a range of expressive, emotional and evaluative overtones. Innovative phrases may be socio-linguistically determined.

Three observations seem interesting with reference to the notion of idiomaticity underlying this and some of the previous classifications. The first is that idiomaticity is understood not only as complete lack of motivation, but also includes the cases of figurative extension of the meaning (cf. *to put the cart before the horse, to kill two birds with one stone*).

The second is immediately connected with the first one and concerns the definition of restricted collocations. Truly, often we are not aware of the metaphoric character of a phrase unless we know that a person speaking another language will use a phrase, at the core of which is a different image. The recognition of the difference somehow ‘triggers’ the visualization of the image (cf.: *heavy snow* and *unzuun ájmlŭ*).

The last one concerns the fifth group of multi-word units – innovative word combinations, characterized as absolutely unpredictable, highly creative and productive. In fact it is in such cases that we can speak of the utmost freedom (or productivity) of combination⁵¹, because in phraseological units proper there are always a number of restrictions or constraints imposed on their usage.

⁵¹ Moreover, according to Alexandrova and Ter-Minasova, on the semantic level no word combination is actually free. It becomes free when it has reached the meta-semiotic level, where the function of speech is to express some meta-content, where both the expression and the content of the word become the expression for the new meta-content and where the function of the word combination is that of impact due to the emotional-expressive-evaluative colouring (Alexandrova, Ter-Minasova, 1987: 53-54).

The classifications presented here are meant to outline the field of investigation and do not comprise all the problems and aspects of phraseological studies. Phraseological phenomena are multifarious. Independent of which of the existing terms researchers prefer, in accordance with the purpose of their investigation or the features they want to focus on ('set expression', 'phraseological unit', 'composite', etc.), such multi-word combinations can be viewed from a number of other angles too. For example, structural variety, semantic (including stylistic) features, euphonic and connotative qualities (rhythm, rhyme, alliteration), syntactic variability, to mention but a few.

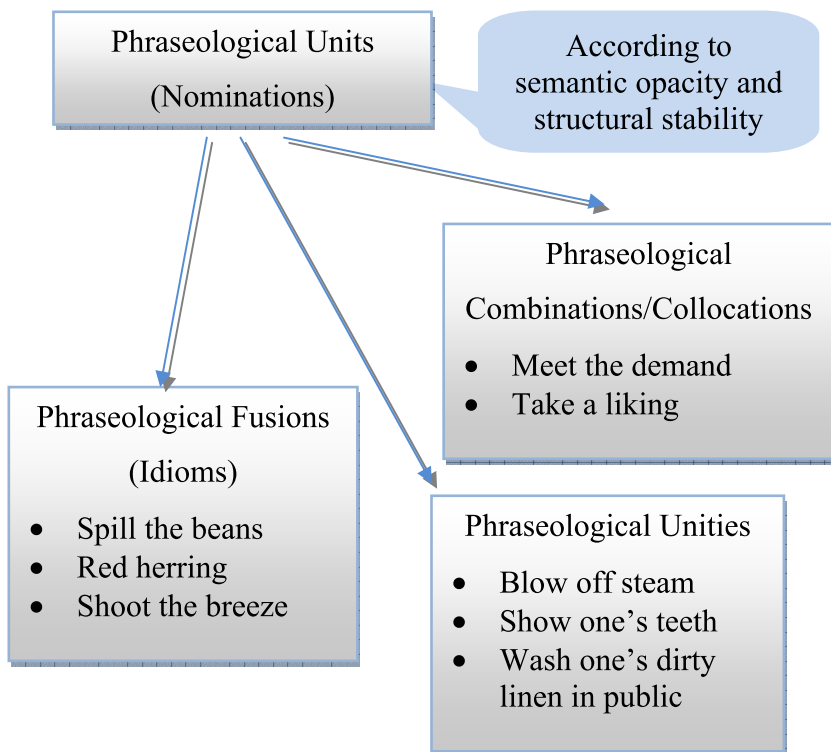
QUESTIONS

1. Outline the characteristics, on the basis of which both *nominations* (*word-like units*) and *propositions* (*sentence-like units*) are handled as multi-word constructions.
2. What do we mean when we say that idiomatic expressions are semantically simplex?
3. What does Phraseology study?
4. Explain the fact of meta-linguistic variety in handling phraseological phenomena.
5. Explain the notion of *word-equivalent*, paying attention to the features that such units have.
6. Outline and illustrate Smirnitsky's classification of phraseological units.
7. Comment on the interrelatedness of the two parameters – semantic opacity and structural stability- in phraseological units.
8. Outline and illustrate Vinogradov's system.
9. Explain the notion *phraseologically bound* (*meaning*).
10. What kind of context do phraseological units make up according to Amosova?
11. Do units of *fixed context* undergo any substitution?

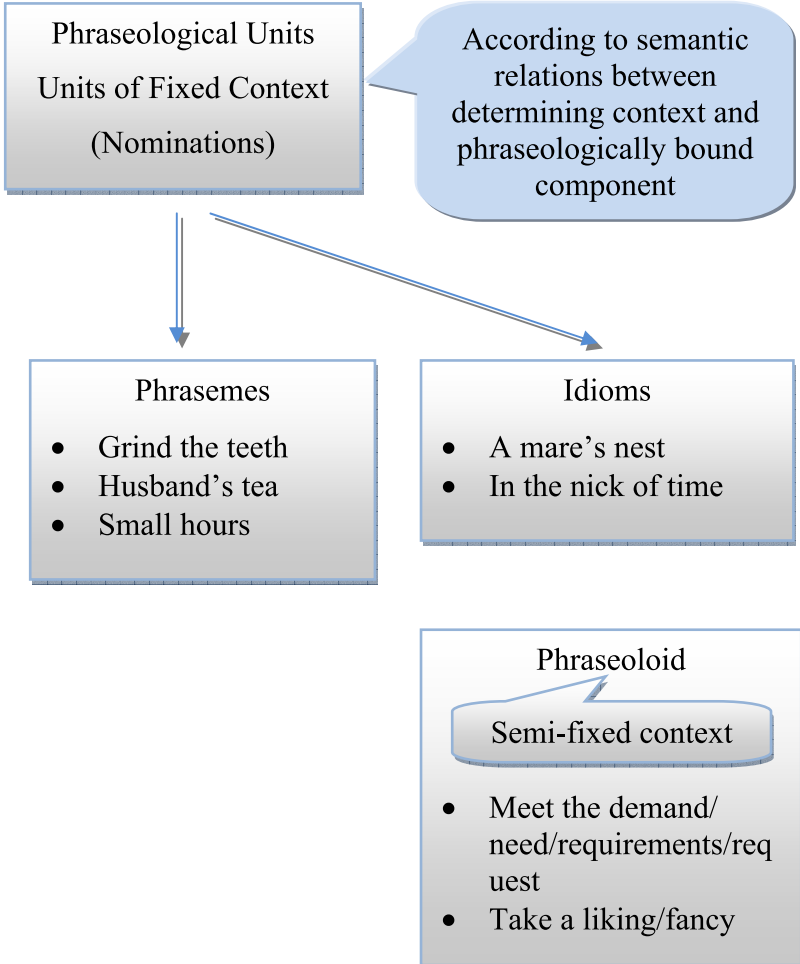
12. Explain and illustrate the correlation between the component having a phraseologically bound meaning and the one serving as a determining context.
13. Compare and contrast Amosova's and Vinogradov's systems.
14. What does the umbrella term *set expression* point to?
15. Outline the characteristic features, proceeding from which Gläser defines phraseological units.
16. What is a *phrasicon*?
17. Outline the experimental results achieved due to the application of the five categories (specified by Alexandrova and Ter-Minasova) to multi-word units.
18. How does the knowledge of another language add to our understanding of the metaphoric character of expression?

8.1 Phraseological Taxonomies in Diagrams

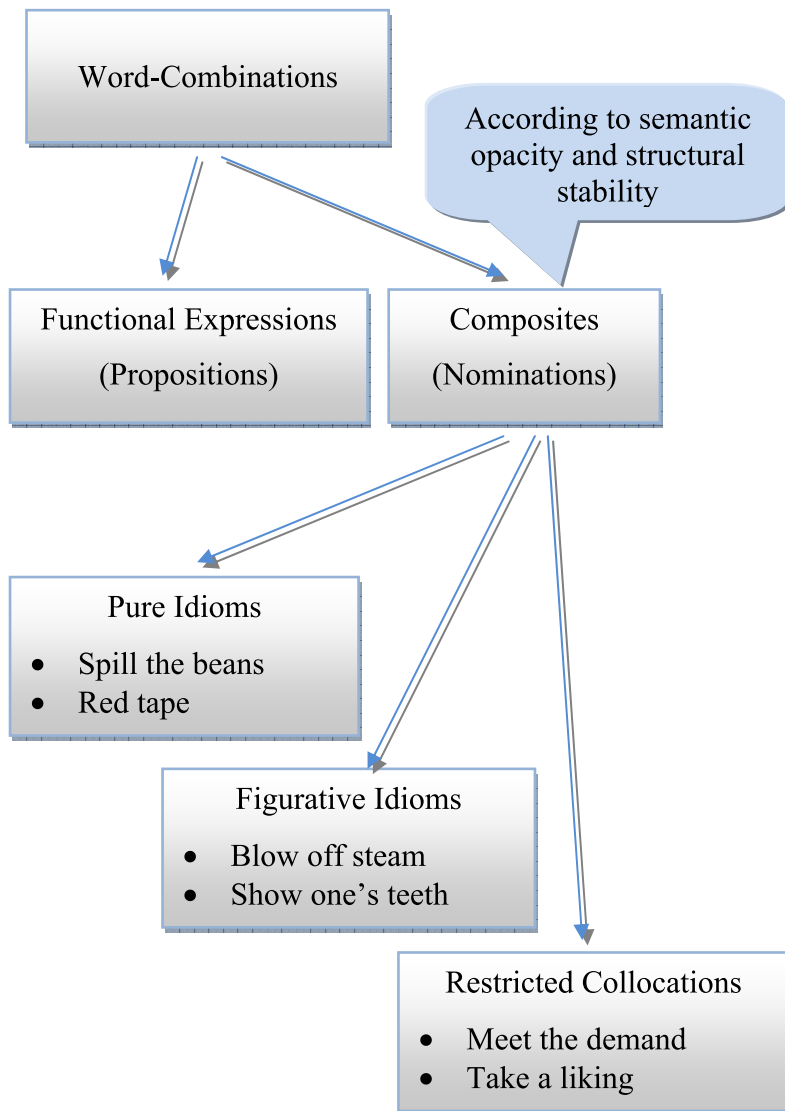
Vinogradov's System



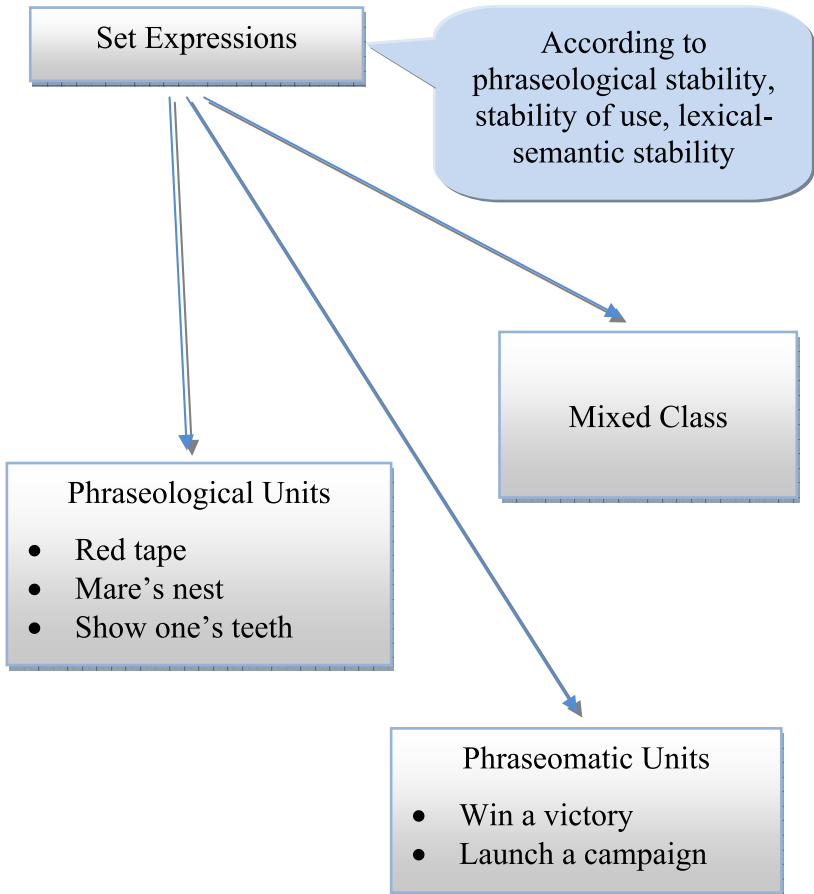
Amosova's System



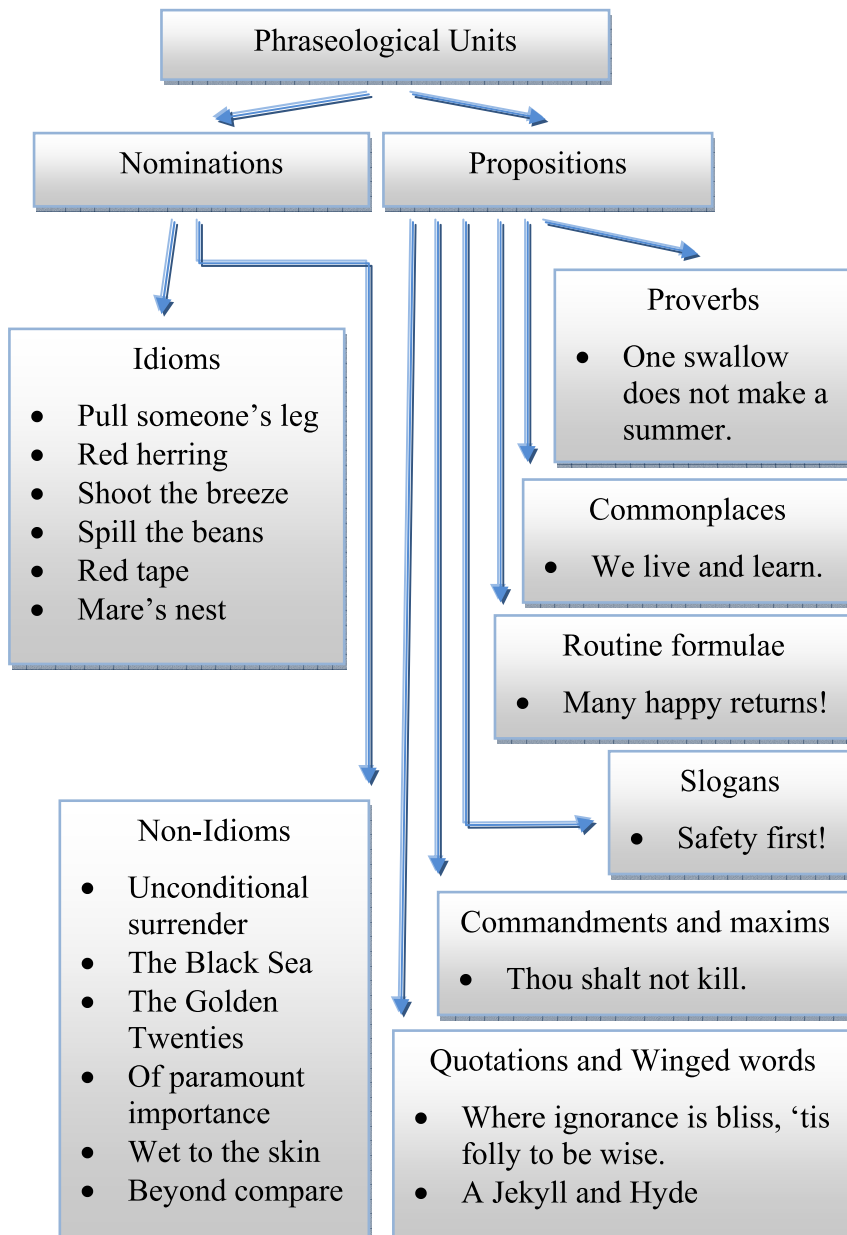
Cowie's System



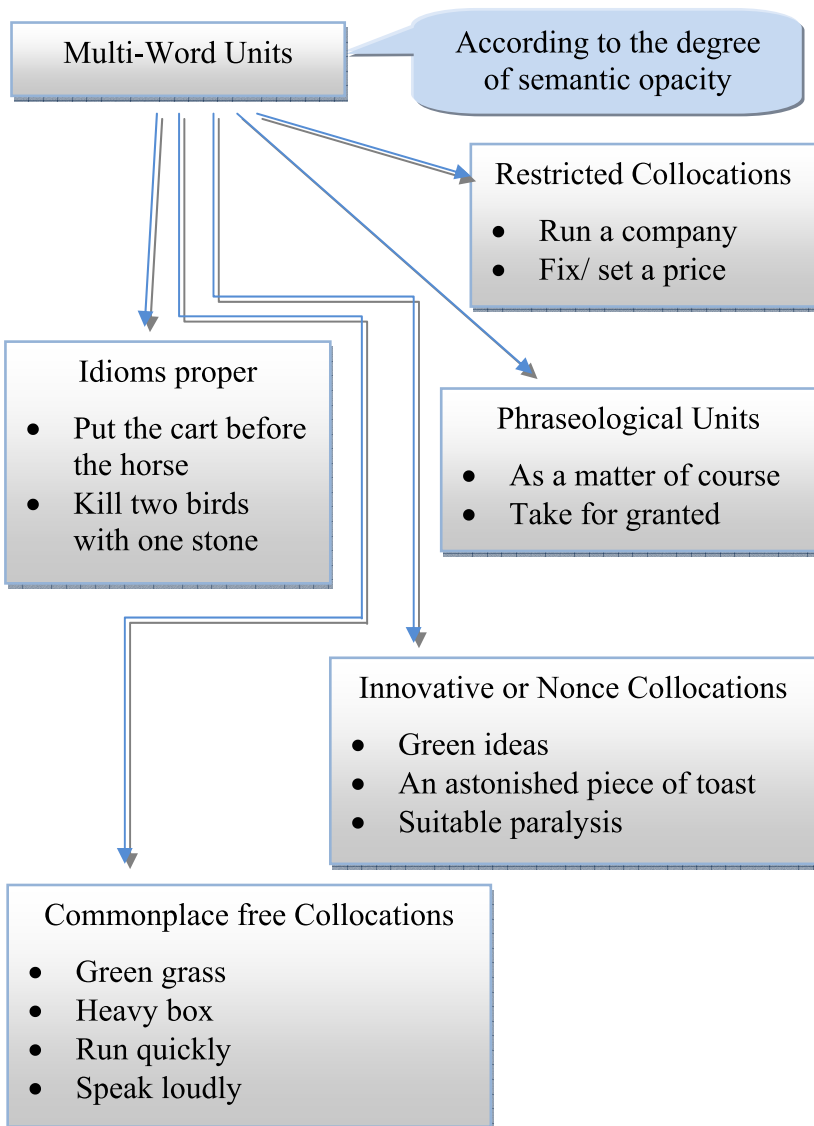
Kunin's Classification



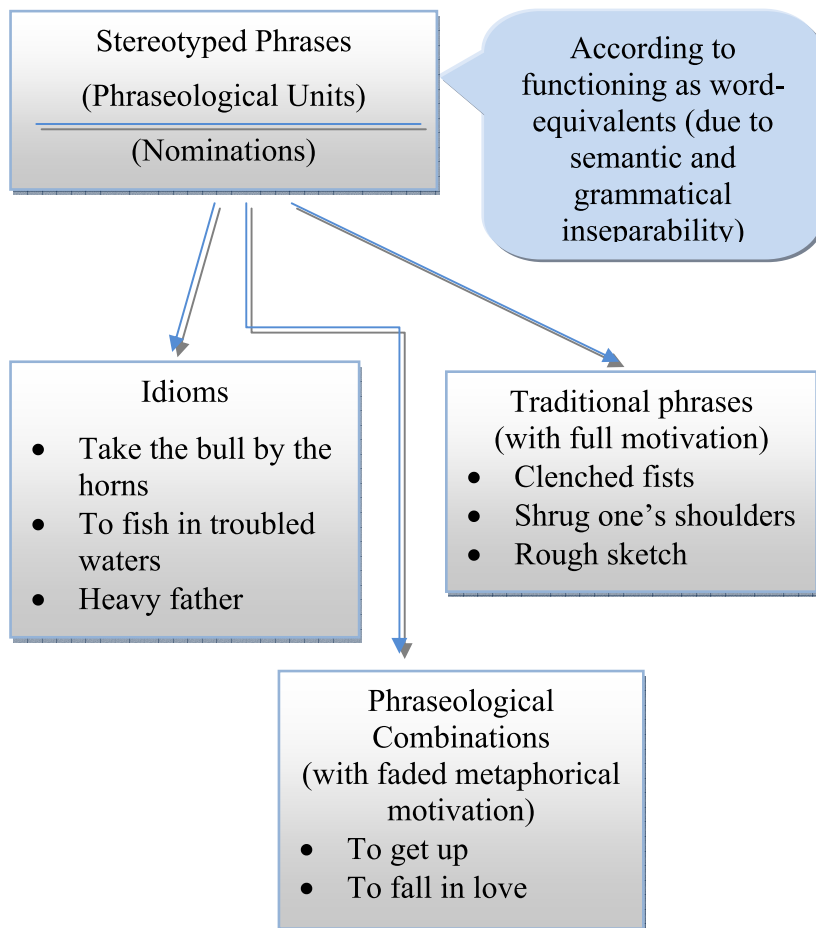
Gläser's Classification



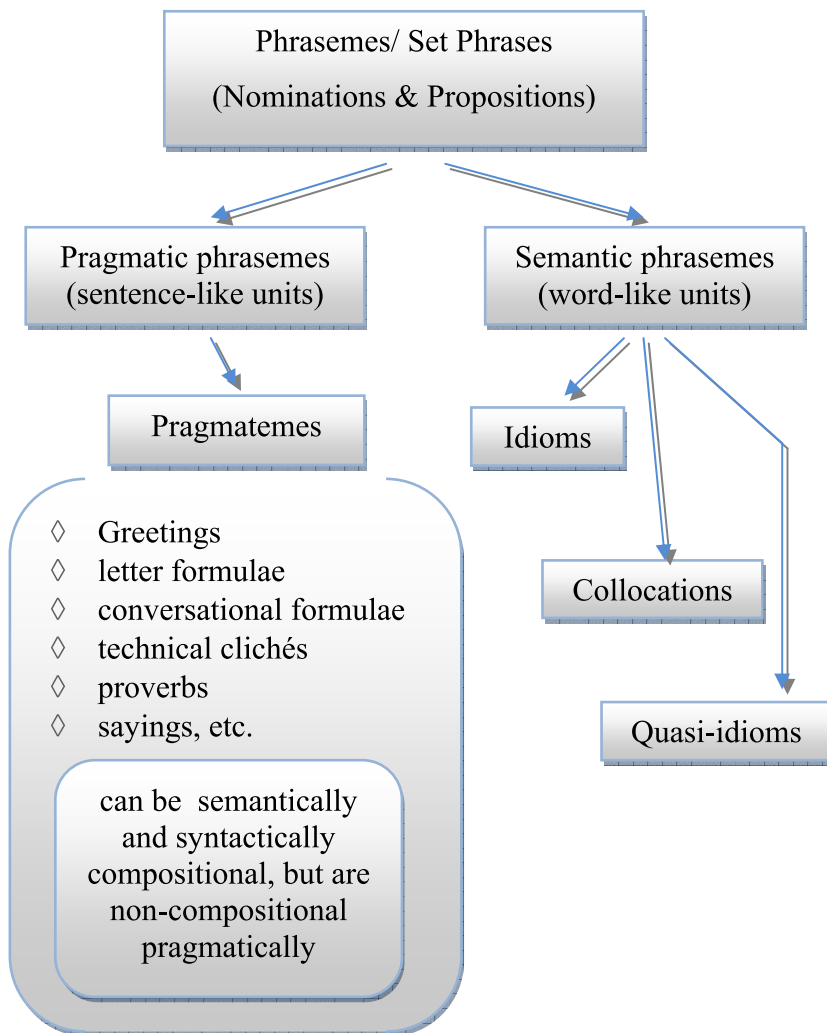
Minaeva's Classification

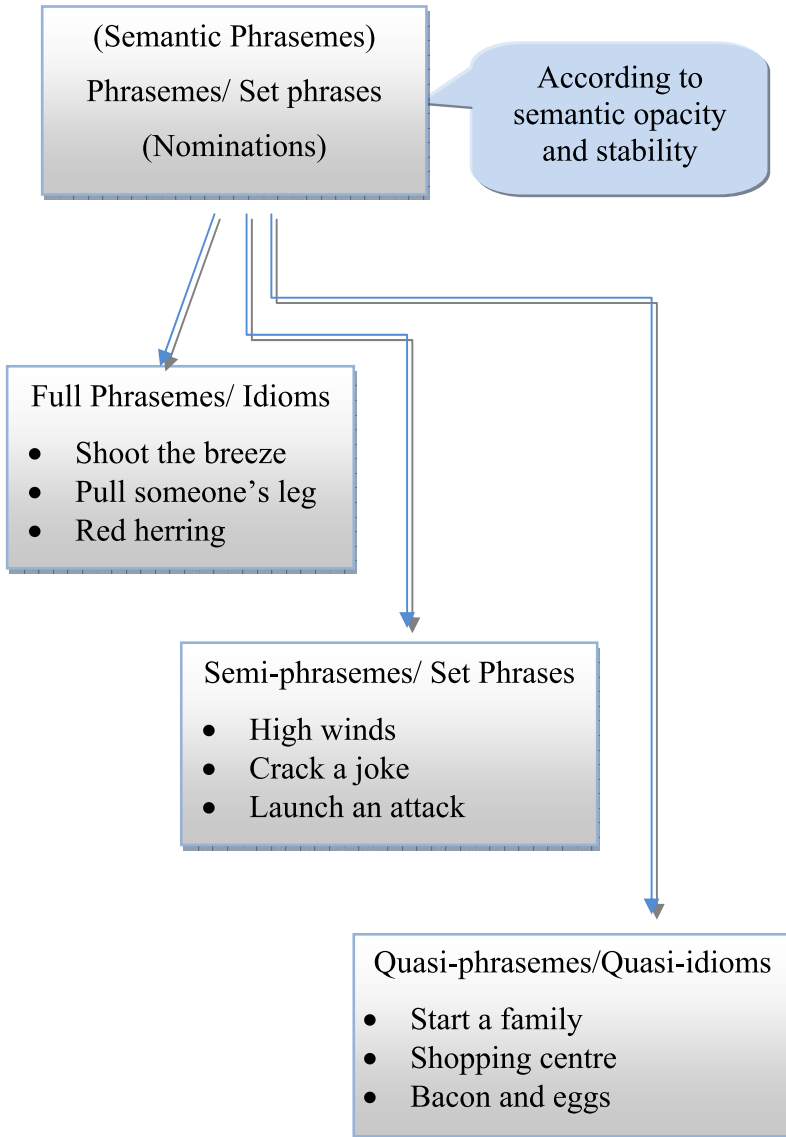


Smirnitsky's System



Melčuk's Classification





Glossary of Terms (English – Armenian)

A

abbreviation, acronym – հապավակաւն բառ
absolute (perfect, integral) homonyms - բացարձակ նույնանուններ/ համանուններ
absolute synonyms - բացարձակ հոմանիշներ
adjective-forming suffix - ածականակերտ վերջածանց
affix (derivational) - ածանց (բառակազմական)
affixation - բառածանցում
affixational morpheme - ածանցական/ ածանցային ձևույթ
allomorph - ենթաձևույթ
amelioration - բարձրաստի բարելավում
antonyms – հականիշ բառեր
antonymy – հականիշոթյուն

B

backformation – հետադարձ բառածանցում,
ածանցազերծում
barbarism, foreign word – օտարաբանոթյուն, օտարալեզու
բառ
blending/ portmanteau word – ձուլույթ/բառ-ձուլույթ

C

categorical/ part-of-speech meaning – կարգային/
խոսքամասային իմաստ/ նշանակոթյուն
central meaning – հիմնական իմաստ
cliché - շարլոն(ային) արտահայտոթյուն
clipping – հապավում, համառոտագրոթյուն
collocability/ combinability – կապակցելիոթյուն/
զուգորդելիոթյուն/ համակցելիոթյուն
collocation - բառադարձվածային կապակցոթյուն/
կապակցելիոթյուն
colloquial word – խոսակցական բառ
comparative lexicology – համեմատական/
պատմահամեմատական բառագիտոթյուն

complementarity/ contradiction – լրացականություն/
 հակադրության հարաբերություն երկու բառերի,
 բառակապակցությունների կամ ասույթների միջև, երբ
 նրանցից մեկի ժխտումը ենթադրում է մյուսի հաստատումը
 complex/ derivative - բաղադրյալ բառ
 compounding - բառաբարդում
 concept – հասկացություն
 conceptual (semantic) field – իմաստային դաշտ
 connotation – նշանակում, հարանշանակություն
 connotative – նշանակցական, հարանշանակային
 context – համատեքստ
 context of situation – իրադրային համատեքստ
 contiguity – հարակցություն (օր. փոխաբերում ըստ
 հարակցության)
 contraries - հականիշներ (քևեռային)
 contrastive lexicology - զուգադրական/ հակադրական
 բառագիտություն
 conversion - փոխանցում, փոխակարգություն
 conversives/ relatives - փոխադարձ/ երկուստեք հականիշներ
 (հիմնված հակադրության հարաբերության վրա, երբ մեկի
 գոյությունը ենթադրում է մյուսինը)

D

dead affix - անկենսունակ/ ոչ գործուն/ անարտադրողական
 ածանց
 deadjectival affix - ածականակազմ, ածականական սերող
 հիմքով ածանց
 denominal affix - անվանակազմ, գոյականական սերող
 հիմքով ածանց
 denotation – 1. նշում, 2. հիմնանշանակություն
 denotative – նշողական, նշանը վերաբերող
 dependent - բնորոշյալ բառ/ անդամ (համատեքստում)
 derivational affix - բառակազմական ածանց
 derivational base – սերող հիմք
 derivational compounds - բարդաձանցավոր բառեր
 derivational morpheme - բառակազմական/ ածանցական
 ձևույթ

derivational pattern - բառակազմական կաղապար
derivative meaning - ածանցյալ իմաստ/ նշանակություն;
բնիմաստից զարգացած, ածանցված նշանակություն
derivative structure - բառակազմական կառուցվածք
descriptive lexicology – նկարագրական/ համաժամանակյա
բառագիտություն
deterioration (pejorative development) - բառիմաստի
նվաստացում, վատթարացում
deverbal affix - բայական, բայական սերող հիմքով ածանց
diachronic approach – տարաժամանակյա հայեցակետ
dialect word - բարբառային բառ
dichotomy - երկատում
differential (adj.) – տարբերակիչ
distribution - բաշխում
distributional meaning - բաշխական իմաստ/ նշանակություն
divergent meaning development - բազմիմաստ բառերի
իմաստների հեռացում, բազմիմաստության տրոհում

E

elevated words - բարձրաճ բառապաշար/ բառաշերտ
emotive function – հուզարտահայտչական գործառություն/
գործառույթ
endocentric word-group/ construction – ներկենտրոն
բառակապակցություն/ կառույց
etymological criterion – ծագումնաբանական/
ստուգաբանական չափանիշ
etymology – ստուգաբանություն
euphemism – մեղմասություն
exocentric word-group/ construction - արտակենտրոն
բառակապակցություն/ կառույց
expressive function - արտահայտչական գործառություն/
գործառույթ
extra-linguistic context - արտալեզվական համատեքստ
extra-linguistic factors - արտալեզվական գործոններ

F

free word-group - ազատ բառակապակցություն, բառերի
ազատ կապակցություն

full homonymy – լիակատար նույնանունություն/
համանունություն

G

general lexicology – ընդհանուր բառագիտություն

general linguistics – ընդհանուր լեզվաբանություն

generalization of meaning - բառիմաստի ընդլայնում

global (lexical) meaning – ամբողջական իմաստ

grammatical context – քերականական համատեքստ

grammatical homonymy – քերականական

նույնանունություն/ համանունություն

grammatical meaning – քերականական իմաստ/

նշանակություն

grammatical valency – քերականական արժույթ/

արժութականություն

H

head (word) – հենաբառ, առանցքային բառ

historical lexicology – պատմական բառագիտություն

historism – պատմաբառ

homographs – նույնագիր բառեր

homonyms – համանուն/ նույնանուն բառեր

homophones - ալլազգիրներ/ համահունչներ/նույնահունչներ

hybrid (adj.) – խառնածին, խառնուրդ

hybrid (word) – խառնածին բառ

hyperonym (classifier, super-ordinate) – սեռանիշ/ սեռանուն

hyponym – տեսականիշ

hyponymic (adj.) – տեսականիշ, տեսակային

hyponymy – տեսականիշություն

I

ideographic synonyms - գաղափարագրային/

գաղափարանիշ/ նրբիմաստային հոմանիշներ

idiom – իդիոմ/ հատկաբանություն

immediate constituents - անմիջական բաղադրիչներ

inflectional morpheme – թեքական ձևույթ

inner form (of the word) – (բառի) ներքին ձև, բնիմաստ

J

jargonism – ժարգոնային բառ

juxtaposition – հարադրում/ հարադրություն

L

lack of motivation – իմաստի մթազնում

lexeme - բառույթ

lexical (adj.) - բառային/ բառական

lexical homonymy - բառային նույնանունություն/
համանունություն

lexical meaning - բառային/ բառական իմաստ

lexical unit - բառային միավոր

lexical valency - բառային արժույթ/ արժութականություն

lexical word – լիիմաստ բառ

lexicalization - բառացում/ բառայնացում

lexico-grammatical (adj.) - բառաքերականական

lexico-grammatical context - բառաքերականական
համատեքստ

lexico-grammatical homonymy - բառային-քերականական
նույնանունություն/ համանունություն

lexicography – 1. բառարանագրություն, 2. որպես
ինքնուրույն գիտակարգ՝ բառարանագիտություն

lexicology - բառագիտություն

linguistic analogy – համաբանական իմաստափոխություն

linguistic context – լեզվական համատեքստ

linguistic environment – լեզվական շրջապատ/ միջավայր

linguistic factors – լեզվական գործոններ

linguistic metaphor – լեզվական փոխաբերություն

linguistic metonymy – լեզվական փոխանունություն

linguistic unit – լեզվական միավոր/ տարր

linguistic universals – լեզվական ընդհանրույթներ

living affix – կենդանի/ կենսունակ ածանց

locative prefix – տեղի առումով կիրառվող նախաածանց

M

marked (adj.) – նշույթավորված (օր. ոճականորեն)

material meaning - առարկայական, նյութական իմաստ/
նշանակություն

mono-morphic (adj.) – միաձևույթ

mono-radical (adj.) – միարմատ

mono-semantic word – մենիմաստ բառ
morpheme – ձևույթ
morphemic analysis – ձևույթային, ձևույթաբանական
վերլուծություն
morphemic structure – ձևույթային կառուցվածք/ կազմ
(բառի)
morphological motivaton – ձևաբանական
պատճառաբանվածություն
morphological structure – ձևաբանական կառուցվածք
morphology – ձևաբանություն
motivated word – իմաստով պատճառաբանվող բառ
motivation – պատճառաբանություն, պատճառաբանում,
պատճառաբանվածություն

N

negative prefix – ժխտական առումով կիրառվող նախածանց
neologism – նորաբանություն
neutral word – չեզոք բառ
nominative function - անվանողական գործառություն
nonce word – կարճեցյալ, դիպվածային բառ
non-motivated word - իմաստով չպատճառաբանվող բառ
non-predicative word-group – ոչ ստորոգական
բառակապակցություն
noun-forming suffix - գոյականակերտ վերջածանց
numeral-forming suffix – թվականակերտ վերջածանց

O

obsolete words – հնացած բառեր
occasional word - դիպվածային/ պատահական բառ
onomatopoeic word – նմանաձայնական/ բնաձայնական,
բնաձայնակազմ բառ

P

paradigmatic relations – հարացույցային հարաբերություններ
partial homonymy – մասնակի նույնանունություն/
համանունություն
pejorative prefix – նվաստական/ բացասական առումով
կիրառվող նախածանց

phonetic motivation – հնչյունական
պատճառաբանվածություն
phonetic word – հնչաբառ, հնչյունային/ հնչյունական բառ
phraseological meaning - դարձվածային իմաստ
phraseological unit - դարձվածաբանական միավոր
phraseologically bound meaning - դարձվածայնորեն
կապված նշանակություն
phraseology - դարձվածաբանություն
poetic word - բանաստեղծական բառ
polymorphic (adj.) – բազմաձևությ
polyradical (adj.) - բազմարմատ
polysemantic/ polysemous word - բազմիմաստ բառ
positional variant - դիրքային տարբերակ
predicative word-group – ստորոգական
բառակապակցություն
prefix – նախածանց
prefix of repetition – կրկնության առումով կիրառվող
նախածանց
prefix of time and order – ժամանակի և կարգի առումով
կիրառվող նախածանց
primary meaning – սկզբնական/ նախնական իմաստ/
նշանակություն
productive affix - գործուն/ կենսունակ/ արտադրողական
ածանց
productive pattern - գործուն/ կենսունակ/ արտադրողական
կադապար
productivity – կենսունակություն, արտադրողականություն
professionalism – մասնագիտական բառ
proverb - առած

R

rare word – հազվադեպ բառ
realia – իրականություններ, իրույթներ
reduplication – կրկնություն, կրկնավորում
reduplication combined with sound imitation -
բնաձայնությամբ զուգորդված կրկնություն
reduplicative compounds – կրկնավոր բարդ բառեր

referent – վերաբերյալ
relation of inclusion – ներառման/ ներառական
հարաբերություններ
resemblance – նմանություն (օր. փոխաբերում ըստ
նմանության)
restricted collocation – սահմանափակ զուգորդելիությանը
բառակապակցություն
reversative prefix – հետադարձ առումով կիրառվող
նախածանց
rhythmic twin forms – կրկնավոր բարդություններ
root - արմատ
root morpheme - արմատական ձևույթ
routine formulae – համագործածական բանաձևեր
(համառոտ, կայուն արտահայտություններ, որոնք
կիրառվում են որոշակի իրադրություններում)

S

saying - ասացված
scientific word - գիտաբառ
secondary meaning - երկրորդային իմաստ/ նշանակություն
semantic aspect – իմաստային/ իմաստաբանական
հայեցակերպ/ կողմ
semantic criterion – իմաստաբանական չափանիշ
semantic derivation – իմաստային դերիվացիա
semantic motivation – իմաստային
պատճառաբանվածություն
semantic structure (of a word) – (բառի) իմաստային
կառուցվածք
semasiology/ semantics – իմաստաբանություն
set expression – կայուն բառակապակցություն
signification – նշանակում, նշանակություն
significative – նշանակական
similarity – նմանություն
simplex (simple, non-derived word) – պարզ բառ
slang - արգո, ժարգոն
slang word – ժարգոնային բառ
sound imitation - բնաձայնություն/ նմանաձայնություն

sound interchange – հնչյունափոխություն
special lexicology – մասնավոր բառագիտություն
specialization of meaning - բառիմաստի նեղացում
stem – հիմք
stress interchange – շեշտափոխություն
structural stability – կառուցվածքի կայունություն
stylistic reference – ոճական արժեք
stylistic synonyms – ոճական հոմանիշներ
stylistically marked word – ոճականորեն նշույթավորված
բառ
suffix – վերջածանց
synchronic approach – համաժամանակյա հայեցակետ
synonymic attraction – հոմանիշների առձգում
synonymic condensation – հոմանիշների կուտակում
synonyms – հոմանիշներ, հոմանիշ բառեր
synonymy – հոմանիշություն
syntagmatic relations – շարակարգային հարաբերություններ

T

terminological layer – տերմինաբանական բառաշերտ
terminology - եզրաբանություն
transference (figurative) - փոխանցում, փոխաբերում

U

unmarked (adj.) - չնշույթավորված (օր. ոճականորեն)
variability - փոփոխականություն
verb-forming suffix - բայակերտ վերջածանց
vocabulary - բառապաշար

W

winged words – թևավոր խոսք
word meaning/ linguistic meaning - բառիմաստ
word-equivalent - բառին համարժեք դարձվածք
word-form - բառաձև, քերականական ձև
word-formation - բառակազմություն

Bibliography

1. Աթայան Է. Լ. Լեզվական աշխարհի ներքին կերպավորումը և արտաքին վերաբերությունը, ԵՊՀ հրատ., Երևան, 1981
2. Akhmanova O. (ed) Lexicology, Theory and Method, Moscow, 1972
3. Akhmanova O. Linguostylistics: Theory and Method, MGU, Moscow, 1972
4. Amosova N. English Contextology, Leningrad, 1968
5. Alexandrova O., Ter-Minasova S. English Syntax (Collocation, Colligation and Discourse), MGU, Moscow, 1987
6. Antrushina G. B., Afanasyeva O. V., Morosova N. N. English Lexicology (Лексикология английского языка), Moscow, 1999
7. Arnold I. The English Word (Лексикология современного английского языка), 2-nd. ed. Moscow, 1973
8. Barber Ch. Linguistic Change in Present-Day English, Edinburgh & London, 1964
9. Cruse D.A. Lexical Semantics, Camb. Univ. Press, New York, USA, 2001
10. Crystal D. The Stories of English, Penguin Books, London, 2005
11. Howard Ph. New Words for Old, Oxf. Univ. Press, New York, 1977
12. Egan R.F. Survey of the History of English Synonymy (Introductory Matter) // Webster's New Dictionary of Synonyms, Merriam – Webster Inc, USA, 1984
13. Ginzburg R. S., Khidekel S. S., Knyazeva G. Y., Sankin A. A. A Course in Modern English Lexicology, 2-nd ed., Moscow, 1979
14. Gvishiani N.B. Modern English Lexicology: Vocabulary in Use, MGU, Moscow, 2000

15. Inchaurrealde C. A Contrastive Study of Lexical Semantics in English // Armenian Folia Anglistika (International Journal of English Studies), Yerevan, 1/2005
16. Lakoff G. And Johnson M. Metaphors We Live by, Univ. of Chicago Press, USA, 2003
17. Lipka L. Semantic Structure and Word-Formation (Verb-Particle Constructions in Contemporary English), München, 1972
18. Lyons J. Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics, Camb. Univ. Press, Cambridge – New York, 1968
19. McArthur T. Living Words: Language, Lexicography and the Knowledge Revolution, Univ. of Exeter Press, UK, 1998
20. McArthur T. The Oxford Guide to World English, Oxf. Univ. Press, USA, 2002
21. Minajeva L. Word in Speech and Writing, M. Univ. Press, Moscow, 1982
22. Minaeva L. English Lexicology and Lexicography, Astrel, Moscow, 2007
23. Ogden C.K., Richards I.E. The Meaning of Meaning, London, 1964
24. Palmer F. R. Semantics (A New Outline), Moscow, 1982
25. Phraseology: Theory, Analysis and Applications, ed. by A.P. Cowie, Oxf. Univ. Press, Oxford New-York, 2005
26. Seidle J., Mc.Mordie W. English Idioms and How to Use Them, Moscow, 1983
27. Амосова Н.Н. Основы английской фразеологии, Ленинград, 1963
28. Вердиева З.Н. Семантические поля в современном английском языке, Москва, 1986
29. Вилюман В.Г. Английская синонимика, “Высшая школа”, Москва, 1980
30. Виноградов В.В. Лексикология и лексикография // Избранные труды, Москва, 1977

31. Гвишиани Н.Б. Современный английский язык: Лексикология (Метод. Указания), изд МГУ, Москва, 1986
32. Ивлева Г.Г. Тенденции развития слова и словарного состава, Москва, 1986
33. Карашук П.М. Словообразование английского языка, Москва, 1977
34. Колшанский Г.В. Контекстная семантика, УРСС, Москва, 2007
35. Кронгауз М.А. Семантика, 2-ое изд., Академия, Москва, 2005
36. Кунин А.В. Английская фразеология, Москва, 1970
37. Кунин А.В. Основные понятия английской фразеологии как лингвистической дисциплины // Англо-русский фразеологический словарь, Москва, 1967
38. Проблемы современной и исторической лексикологии (Сборник научных трудов) под ред. А.Н. Стеценко, МГПИ, Москва, 1980
39. Смирницкий А.И. Лексикология английского языка, МГУ, Москва, 1998
40. Уфимцева А.А. Лексическое значение (Принцип семиологического описания лексики), УРСС, Москва, 2002
41. Уфимцева А.А. Опыт изучения лексики как системы (на материале английского языка), УРСС, Москва, 2004
42. Шмелев Д.Н. Проблемы семантического анализа лексики, УРСС, Москва, 2006
43. Юрченко В.С. Философия языка и философия языкознания: лингвофилософские очерки, УРСС, Москва, 2007

Dictionaries and Reference Books

44. Նազարյան Ա.Հ. Լեզվաբանական տերմինների ֆրանսերեն – ռուսերեն – հայերեն ուսումնական բառարան, «Ապոլոն» հրատ., Երևան, 1993
45. Պետրոսյան Լ. Չ. Հայերենագիտական բառարան, «Հայաստան», Երևան, 1987
46. The Basic Book of Synonyms and Antonyms by Laurence Urdang, New American Library, USA, 1978
47. A Concise Dictionary of English Idioms, W. Freeman, rev. and ed. by B.A. Phythian, GB, 1982
48. A Concise Dictionary of English Slang, comp. by B.A. Phythian, GB, 1984
49. Dictionary of Word Origins by Joseph T. Shipley, The Philosophical Library, Tokyo, 1945
50. English Synonyms in Action, H. Loffler, Leonard Goldman, Leipzig, 1988
51. English Vocabulary in Use, M. McCarthy, F. O'Dell, Camb. Univ. Press, Cambridge, 1995
52. Longman New Universal Dictionary, Longman GB, 1982
53. Longman Dictionary of English Idioms, Longman, GB, 1980
54. Roget's College Thesaurus, rev., ed. by Ph. L. Morehead, New American Library, USA, 1978
55. Oxford Collocations Dictionary, Oxf. Univ. Press, Oxford - New York, 2002
56. Oxford Concise Dictionary of Linguistics by P.H. Matthews, Oxf.Univ. Press, UK, 2005
57. Webster's New Dictionary of Synonyms, Merriam – Webster Inc, USA, 1984
58. Partridge E. Usage and Abusage, Penguin Books, 1978
59. Ахманова О.С. Словарь лингвистических терминов, изд. “Советская энциклопедия”, Москва, 1966
60. Кунин А.В. Англо-русский фразеологический словарь, Москва, 1956

Գայանե Սուրենի Գիրունյան

**ԱՆԳԼԵՐԵՆԻ ԲԱՌԱԳԻՏՈՒԹՅԱՆ
ՀԻՄՈՒՆՔՆԵՐ
(ՏԵՍԱԿԱՆ ԴԱՍԸՆԹԱՅ)**

Gayane Girunyan

**English Lexicology
(Theoretical Course)**

Տպաքանակը՝ 300 օրինակ
Տպագրված է «ԳԱՍՊՐԻՆՏ» ՍՊԸ տպագրատանը