

# THEORETICAL ASPECTS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE: LEXICOLOGY

(textbook for students of the 3rd year of Higher Education of Foreign  
language and literature (English language))



**O‘ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI  
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LEXICOLOGY**

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## **ABSTRACT**

This textbook was prepared according to the curriculum "Theoretical aspects of the studied language: lexicology" which is included in the bachelor's degree curriculum of Foreign Language and literature (English language) of Higher education. It contains all contents given in the curriculum and was prepared on the basis of new requirements for creating a textbook. The theoretical information and practical exercises of 20 units are covered based on advanced pedagogical technologies. Each unit is combined with motivational activities focused on a new topic and introduces students to the basic concepts of linguistics, including words and phrases, their origin, characteristics, usage of English words, lexicography from theoretical and practical point of view. It is also aimed at expanding students' knowledge on words taken from foreign languages. Main focus is directed to students' activity to study language levels in depth, to develop their skills in analyzing linguistic concepts theoretically. Students are expected to be able to skillfully apply the acquired knowledge on lexicology in their future scientific and professional activities.

## **ANNOTATSIYA**

Ushbu darslik oliy ta'limning Xorijiy til va adabiyoti (ingliz tili) ta'lim yo'nalishi bakalavriat o'quv rejasiga kiritilgan "O'rganilayotgan nazariy til aspektlari: leksikologiya" o'quv fan dasturi asosida tayyorlangan bo'lib fanning barcha qismlarini o'z ichiga olgan va darslik yaratishga qo'yilgan yangi talablar asosida tayyorlangan. Unda 20 ta darsning nazariy-amaliy mashg'ulotlari ilg'or pedagogik texnologiyalar asosida yoritilgan. Har bir dars yangi mavzuga yo'naltirilgan motivatsiya faoliyati bilan uyg'unlashibgina qolmay, talabalarni ham nazariy, ham amaliy jihatdan tilshunoslikning asosiy tushunchalari, so'z va so'z birikmalari, ularning kelib chiqishi, xususiyatlari, qo'llanilishi, lug'atshunoslik, boshqa tillardan kirib kelgan so'zlar haqidagi bilimlarini kengaytirishga qaratilgan. Bunda asosiy e'tibor talabalarni til satxlarini chuqur o'rganishlariga, ularni nazariy jihatdan tahlil qila olish ko'nikmalarini rivojlantirishga, bu orqali talabalarining tilshunoslik sohasida bilimli nutaxassis bo'lishlariga hamda o'zlashtirgan bilimlarini kelajakdagi ilmiy, kasbiy faoliyatlarida mohirona qo'llay olishlariga qaratilgan.

## **АННОТАЦИЯ**

Данный учебник подготовлен на основе учебной программы «Теоретические аспекты изучаемого языка: лексикология», которая включена в учебную программу бакалавриата «Иностранный язык и литература (английский язык)» высшего образования. Он содержит все содержание учебной программы и подготовлен с учетом новых требований к созданию учебника. Теоретическая информация и практические занятия 20 разделов освещаются на основе передовых педагогических технологий. Каждый блок сочетается с мотивационной деятельностью, ориентированной на новую тему, и знакомит студентов с основными понятиями языкознания, включая слова и словосочетания, их происхождение, характеристики, употребление английских слов, лексикографию с теоретической и практической точки зрения. Он также направлен на расширение знаний учащихся о словах, заимствованных из других языков. Основное внимание направлено на деятельность студентов по углубленному изучению языковых уровней, развитию у них навыков теоретического анализа лингвистических понятий. Ожидается, что студенты смогут умело применять полученные знания по лексикологии в своей будущей научной и профессиональной деятельности.

## Preface

This textbook titled "Aspects of the studied theoretical language: lexicology" is intended for undergraduate students, specializing in Foreign language and literature (English), of universities, pedagogical institutes and institutes of foreign languages.

It consists of 20 units and the main focus is given to introduce students to the subject matter of lexicology, which is a part of linguistics, and to provide sufficient information about the main concepts of lexicology, including, their origin and usage at present. Theoretical views on the areas of lexicology, such as, words in English language, word formation methods, types of word meanings, phraseological combinations, etymology, lexicological problems, borrowed words originated from foreign languages into English and their characteristics are given in the textbook. Questions and tasks on the themes were created for students to organize their self studies, acquire knowledge deeply and analyze linguistic concepts.

The book differs from other sources on lexicology in that it provides an introduction to some problems of lexicology, ways of analyzing them linguistically. Themes were investigated by new innovative technologies, new resources and educational sites. It is based on the latest researches in the field, and provides a practical and scientific approaches to several topics related to the theoretical aspects of the language. The book is enriched with tests that allow students to check their own knowledge and it develops students' theoretical knowledge and practical skills in the area of discourse analysis. In addition, there is an extended list of literature and internet sites.

There are given multiple choice tests, glossary that includes simple and understandable definitions of key concepts which help students improve self management and study skills. Power point presentations of theoretical materials are attached in disks.

In conclusion, we express our gratitude to reviewers prof. DSc., Z. Sodikov and Associate Professor, Sh. Ubaidullayev for their valuable comments and suggestions.

*Author*

## **So‘z boshi**

“O‘rganilayotgan nazariy til aspektlari: leksikologiya” darsligi universitetlar, pedagogika institutlari va xorijiy tillar institutlarining xorijiy til va adabiyoti (ingliz tili) yo‘nalishiga ixtisoslashgan bakalavriyat yo‘nalishi talabalari uchun mo‘ljallangan.

Darslik 20 mavzudan iborat bo‘lib, bunda asosiy e‘tibor talabalarning tilshunoslikning bir qismi hisoblangan leksikologiya fani bilan tanishtirish va fanning asosiy tushunchalari, ularning kelib chiqishi, hozirgi kunda qo‘llanishi haqida yetarli ma‘lumotlarni berishga qaratilgan. Darslikda leksikologiya turlari, so‘z va so‘z yasash usullari, so‘z ma‘nolari, frazeologik birikmalar, etimologiya, lug‘atshunoslik muammolari, xorijiy tillardan ingliz tiliga o‘zlashgan so‘zlar va ularning xususiyatlariga doir nazariy qarashlar keltirgan va misollar bilan boyitgan. Talabalarning mustaqil ishini tashkil etish, mavzularni chuqur o‘rganish va lingvistik tushunchalarni tahlil qila olishlari uchun topshiriqlar yaratilgan.

Kitob tilshunoslik nuqtai nazaridan fanning ayrim muammolari bilan tanishtirish hal etish yo‘llarini tahlil, yoritilgan mavzularni innovatsion metodlar orqali o‘zlashtirish, yangi resurslar va ta‘limga oid saytlardan foydalanish imkoni mavjudligi bilan leksikologiyaga doir oldingi manbaalardan farq qiladi. Ushbu darslik fan bo‘yicha so‘nggi tadqiqotlar natijalariga asoslangan bo‘lib, tilning nazariy aspektlari bilan bog‘liq ko‘plab mavzularning dolzarb va ilmiy qirralarini taqdim etadi. Har bir mavzu mulohazaga undovchi savollar va mavzuga oid asosiy tushunchalar, savollar va topshiriqlar to‘plami, testlar bilan boyitilgan, bu esa talabalarga o‘z bilimlarini sinab ko‘rish va matn/muloqot tahlilida talabalarning nazariy bilimlari va amaliy ko‘nikmalarini rivojlantirish imkonini beradi. Bundan tashqari, ushbu mavzuga tegishli adabiyotlarning kengaytirilgan ro‘yxati mavjud.

Darslikga talabalarning o‘zini o‘zi boshqarishi va o‘z-o‘zini rivojlantirishi uchun ko‘p tanlovli testlar, ba‘zi tushunchalar va atamalarining ixcham va tushunarli tavsifini o‘z ichiga olgan lug‘at, tushunish va idrokni yaxshilashga hissa qo‘shadigan diskdagi darslikda keltirilgan nazariy materiallardan Power Point taqdimotlari ilova qilingan.

Xulosa qilib aytganda, taqrizchilar prof. DSc., Z.Sodiqov va dotsent, p.f.n., Sh.Ubaydullayevga qimmatli mulohazalar va takliflari uchun o‘z minnatdorchiligimizni bildiramiz.

***Muallif***

## Предисловие

Данный учебник «Аспекты изучаемого теоретического языка: лексикология» предназначен для студентов бакалавриата вузов, педагогических институтов и институтов иностранных языков, специализирующихся на иностранный язык и литература (английского).

Он состоит из 20 разделов, и основное внимание уделяется ознакомлению студентов с предметом лексикологии, являющимся частью лингвистики, и предоставлению достаточной информации об основных понятиях лексикологии, в том числе об их происхождении и использовании в настоящее время. В учебнике даны теоретические взгляды на такие области лексикологии, как слова в английском языке, способы словообразования, виды значений слов, фразеологические сочетания, этимология, лексикологические проблемы, слова, заимствованные из иностранных языков на английский и их характеристика. Вопросы и задания по темам созданы для того, чтобы студенты могли организовывать самостоятельную работу, глубоко усвоить знания и проанализировать лингвистические понятия.

Книга отличается от других источников по лексикологии тем, что в ней дается введение в некоторые проблемы лексикологии, способы их лингвистического анализа. Темы были исследованы новыми инновационными технологиями, новыми ресурсами и образовательными сайтами. Он основан на последних исследованиях в этой области и предлагает практические и научные подходы к нескольким темам, связанными с теоретическими аспектами языка. Книга обогащена тестами, позволяющими учащимся проверить собственные знания, а также развивает теоретические знания и практические навыки учащихся в области дискурс-анализа. Кроме того, имеется расширенный список литературы и интернет-сайтов. Приводятся тесты с несколькими вариантами ответов, глоссарий, включающий простые и понятные определения ключевых понятий, которые помогают учащимся улучшить навыки самоуправления и обучения. Презентации теоретических материалов в формате Power Point прилагаются на дисках.

В заключение выражаем благодарность рецензентам проф. доктор наук З. Содикову и доценту Ш. Убайдуллаеву за ценные замечания и предложения.

*Автор*

## UNIT 1. INTRODUCTION TO LEXICOLOGY.

### PLAN:

1. The subject matter of lexicology
2. Central terms of Lexicology and their development
3. Investigations of Modern English lexicology
4. Lexicology and other fields of linguistics
5. Areas of lexicology. The synchronic and the diachronic approach to lexicology

### Pre reading task:

Answer the questions:

1. Think and share your understanding on the term “lexicology”?
2. How can you explain a word?
3. How do you define the word “vocabulary?”
4. Give examples to words related to nouns and adjectives in Uzbek language
5. In what resources could we find any information about words and word combinations?
6. What does Modern lexicology deal with?

**Key concepts:** *linguistics, lexicon, morphemes, literal meaning, grammatical relations, phonetic structure a word, vocabulary, phraseological units, lexical units, paradigm, semasiology, syntax*

**Lexicology** is the branch of linguistics that analyzes the lexicon of a specific language. Here, let's define the term linguistics. What does it study?

Linguistics is based on theoretical as well as descriptive study of language, and is also interlinked with the applied fields of language studies and language learning, which entails the study of specific languages. Before the 20th century, linguistics evolved in an informal manner that did not employ scientific methods.<sup>1</sup>

Lexicology also considers the relationships that exist between words. In linguistics, the lexicon of a language is composed of lexemes, which are abstract units

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<sup>1</sup> [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Linguistics#cite\\_note-:0-4](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Linguistics#cite_note-:0-4)

of meaning that correspond to a set of related forms of a word. Lexicology looks at how words can be broken down as well as identifies common patterns they follow.<sup>[2]</sup>

Lexicology is associated with lexicography, which deals with compiling dictionaries, their types and usage.

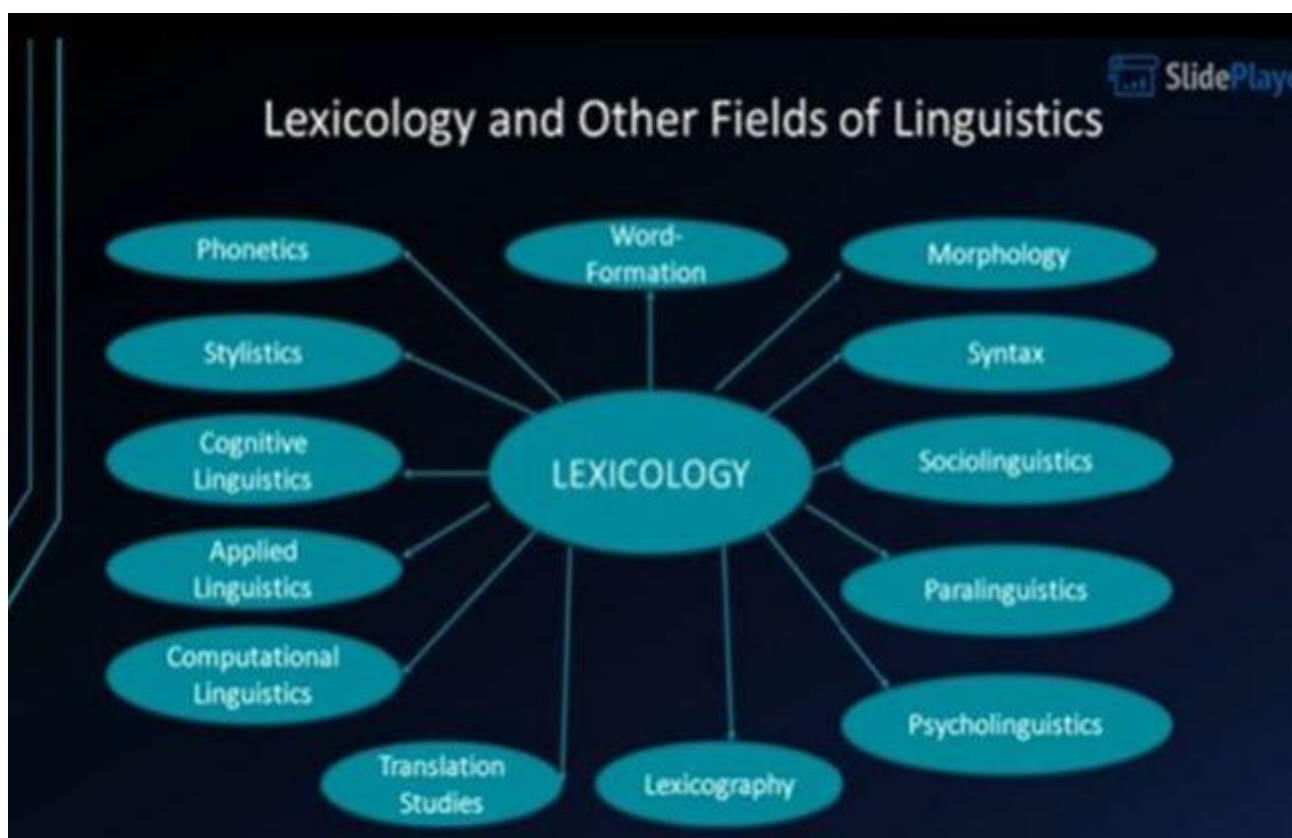
Lexicology is a branch of linguistics, the science of language and the word. Lexicology is originated from two Greek morphemes: *lexis* denotes “word, phrase” and *logos* means “learning.” General literal meaning of the term can be accepted as “the science of the word” by language theory. The literal meaning, however, only provides a broad idea of the objectives and subject matter of this area of linguistic science because all of its other subfields also consider words in some capacity, albeit from different perspectives. Within the humanities and social sciences, modern linguistics is regarded as both an academic discipline of general study and an applied science. In general, linguistics comprises the following fields:

- phonology (the abstract sound system of a certain language),
- phonetics (speech sounds and corresponding movements in sign languages),
- morphology (word structure),
- syntax (sentence structure rules),
- semantics (meaning),
- pragmatics (meaning-contextualization effects of social context).

Sub disciplines such as bio linguistics (the study of the biological variables and evolution of language) and psycholinguistics (the study of psychological factors in human language) bridge many of these divisions.

In this scheme we can realize the relationship of lexicology with the other fields of linguistics. You can see how lexicology is connected with other branches of linguistics in the figure.





Here are the functions of some parts of lexicology, such as, phonetics, morphology, lexis, syntax, stylistics.

**Phonetics** is the study of a word's external sound form is what phonetics, for example, focuses on when examining the phonetic structure of language, or its system of phonemes and intonation patterns.

**Grammar** is the study of language's grammatical structure and is closely related to lexicology. It is focused on the different ways that words communicate their grammatical relationships as well as the patterns that follow when words are joined to form word groups and sentences.

**Morphology**, in linguistics, is the study of words, how they are formed, and their relationship to other words in the same language. It analyzes the structure of words and parts of words such as stems, root words, prefixes, and suffixes.

**Word formation** is an ambiguous term that can refer to either: the processes through which words can change (i.e. morphology), or. the creation of new lexemes in a particular language.

**Syntax** is also one of the chief part of linguistics that investigates the structure and formation of sentences. It clarifies how words and phrases are arranged to form correct sentences. A sentence could make no sense and still be correct from the syntax point of view as long as words are in their suitable spots and agree with each other.

**Lexicography.** The study of lexicons is known as lexicography, and it falls into two distinct academic categories. It is the craft of creating lexicons. The art or craft of creating, composing, and modifying dictionaries is known as practical lexicography.

**Stylistics** is the study and interpretation of spoken language and/or texts of all kinds with respect to their linguistic and tonal style is known as stylistics, a subfield of applied linguistics. Style is the unique variety of language that is employed by various people and/or in various contexts.

As a subfield of linguistics, lexicology has its own goals and approaches for conducting scientific research; its main objective is to examine and describe vocabulary in a methodical manner with regard to its historical development and contemporary usage. Lexicology is concerned with words, variable word-groups, phraseological units, and with morphemes which make up words.

**Major concepts of Lexicology:** Phraseological units, morphemes, words, variable word groups, and other lexical units are all studied in lexicology. We begin with the presumption that a word is the fundamental building block of the language system, the largest unit in morphology and the smallest unit in syntactic analysis. Within the language system, a word is a structural and semantic item. Here we will give definitions to each terms of lexicology.

**A word** is the smallest meaningful unit of a language that can stand on its own, and is made up of small components called morphemes and even smaller elements known as phonemes, or distinguishing sounds. Lexicology examines every feature of a word – including formation, spelling, origin, usage, and definition.<sup>[1]</sup>

In other words it is a fundamental units of language, formed when a certain set of sounds is assigned a specific meaning and may be used in a specific way in grammar. The system made up of all the words in the language combined is called its vocabulary.

**Vocabulary** - the system formed by the total sum of all the words that the language possesses. The word vocabulary originated from the Latin *vocabulum*, meaning "a word, name."<sup>2</sup> It forms an important component of language and communication, assisting convey opinions, ideas, emotions, and information in any languages:

Ex; English vocabulary, Uzbek vocabulary, Russian vocabulary

**Morphemes** - the smallest inseparable two-facet language unit: *meaning-ful, im-perfect, re-read, play-able, wonder-ful, mis-understand-ing, speed-o-meter*

**Word-group** - the largest two-facet lexical unit including more than one word: *a high building, a beautiful girl, hard work, playing children*

**Phraseological unit** – the group of words whose combination is integrated as a unit with a specialised meaning of the whole. Phraseological units are words that have a exact valence. One component of such phraseological units is used in its literal sense, and the rest is used in a metaphorical meaning. Phraseological units are to some extent semantically inseparable.

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[https://www.google.com/search?q=vocabulary+definition&sca\\_esv=573698176&rlz=1C1GCEA\\_enUZ1023UZ1023&sxsrf=AM9HkKleYU9fOyy-t5tbbOtJKzGuggIRfg%3A1697431952442&ei=kMEsZeDHGoGEx](https://www.google.com/search?q=vocabulary+definition&sca_esv=573698176&rlz=1C1GCEA_enUZ1023UZ1023&sxsrf=AM9HkKleYU9fOyy-t5tbbOtJKzGuggIRfg%3A1697431952442&ei=kMEsZeDHGoGEx)

Phraseological units are partially reformed combinations of words: *a red tape, to kick the bucket*", "*Greek gift*", "*drink till all's blue*", "*drunk as a fiddler*", "*as mad as a hatter (as a march hare)*"

**Varieties of Words.** The word –a two-facet unit keeping both form and content = sound form and meaning. Neither can exist without the other.

**Paradigm** - the system showing a word in all its word-forms.

Word-forms - grammatical systems of words:

e.g. *take, takes, took, taking, taken*; e.g. *singer, singer's, singers, singers'*.

I don't know who has *taken* my book. His father is a well-known *writer*.

### **Variants of Words**

#### **Group One**

*Lexical varieties* - lexico-semantic variant – the word in one of its senses.

e.g. *green*

LSV1 - colour of grass;

LSV2 - not ready to be eaten;

LSV3 - not experienced;

LSV4 - made of green leaves of vegetables;

### **Variants of Words**

#### **Group Two** phonetic variants:

*often* ['O:fn] and ['O:fqn];

*again* [ə'gein] and [ə'gen].

#### **Group Two** morphological variants:

*learned* [-d] and *learnt* [-t];

*geologic* – *geological*, etc.

The meaning of a word remains unchanged when its morphemic or phonemic arrangement is slightly altered. No morphemic or phonemic structural alteration may track a change in meaning. Similar to word forms, word variants are acknowledged as belonging to the same term during conversation. The word appears as a system and unity of all of its forms and variations inside the linguistic system.

The goal of modern English lexicology was to provide a methodical account of the vocabulary of modern English. Semantic and structural analysis is applied to words, morphemes, and various word-groups, primarily from a synchronic perspective.

***Modern English Lexicology studies:***

- the problems of word-structure and word-formation in Modern English;
- the semantic structure of English words;
- the main principles underlying the classification of vocabulary units into different groupings;
- the laws leading the renewal of the vocabulary with new vocabulary units.

***Modern English Lexicology studies:***

- the relations between several layers of the English vocabulary;
- the specific laws and regulations that govern its improvement at the current time,
- the source and evolution of the English vocabulary;
- the changes it has undergone in its history are also dwelt upon.
- Lexicography is the science and art of dictionary-compiling, is traditionally involved in a course of Lexicology.

***Modern English Lexicology studies:***

- Semasiology.
- Word-Structure.
- Word-Formation.
- Etymology of the English vocabulary.
- Word-groupings
- Phraseology.
- Variants of the English Language.
- Lexicography or dictionary compiling.

**Types of lexicology.** According to O. Muminov there are 5 types of lexicology: general; special; descriptive; historical; comparative.<sup>3</sup>

He indicates types of lexicology as following:

**General lexicology** is a part of general linguistics which studies the general properties of words, the specific features of words of any particular language. It studies the peculiarities of words common to all the languages. General lexicology is the broad study of words regardless of a language's specific properties. It is concerned with linguistic features that are common among all languages, such as phonemes and morphemes. General lexicology attempts to find out the universals of vocabulary development and patterns. Linguistic phenomena and properties common to all languages are generally called language universals.

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

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

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

**Comparative lexicology**<sup>4</sup> deals with the properties of the vocabulary of two or more languages. In comparative lexicology the main characteristic features of the words of two or more languages are compared. *Ex.* Russian— English lexicology, English— French lexicology and etc.

**Special lexicology**, on the other hand, looks at what a particular language

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<sup>3</sup> O. Muminov. 2006. Lexicology of the English language. Page 9

<sup>4</sup> <https://studfile.net/preview/7136062/page:16/>

*Synchronic or descriptive lexicology* examines the words of a language within a certain time frame. This could be a period during the language's early stages of development, its current state, or any given interval in between.

These corresponding perspectives were proposed by Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure. Lexicology can have both comparative and contrastive methodologies. Comparative lexicology investigates similar features that are shared among two or more languages. Contrastive lexicology identifies the linguistic characteristics which distinguish between related and unrelated languages.

There are two principal approaches in linguistic science to the study of language material, namely;

*the synchronic* (Gr. syn — ‘together, with’ and chronos — ‘time’) approach

*the diachronic* (Gr. dia — ‘through’) approach.

The key difference between synchronic and diachronic linguistics lies in the viewpoint used to analyze these two branches of linguistics. Synchronic linguistics and diachronic linguistics are two main divisions of linguistics. The Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure introduced these two branches of linguistics in his Course in General Linguistics. Overall, synchrony and diachrony refer to a language state and to an evolutionary phase of language.

*Synchronic linguistics*, also known as descriptive linguistics, is the study of language at any given point in time, usually at present, while diachronic linguistics is the study of language through different periods in history. However, this point in time can also be a specific point in the past. Thus, synchronic linguistics attempts to study the function of language without reference to earlier or later stages. This field analyzes and describes how language is actually used by a group of people in a speech community. Thus, involves analyzing grammar, classification, and arrangement of the features of a language.

In terms of Special Lexicology, this method focuses on a language's vocabulary as it is at a specific moment in time, such as the present. This type of descriptive lexicology is



unique in that it addresses the vocabulary and vocabulary units of a given language at a given period. Because the English vocabulary as it currently exists is the subject of study, a course in modern English lexicology is also a course in special descriptive lexicology.

Synchronic vs Diachronic Linguistics		
More Information Online <a href="http://WWW.DIFFERENCEBETWEEN.COM">WWW.DIFFERENCEBETWEEN.COM</a>		
	Synchronic Linguistics	Diachronic Linguistics
DEFINITION	The branch of linguistics that analyzes the structure of a language or languages as static, at a given point in their history	The branch of linguistics that study language through different periods in history
TIME	Study of language at any given point in time	Study of language through different periods in history
HISTORY OF LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGE EVOLUTION	Does not focus on the history of language and language evolution	Focuses on the history of language and language evolution
STUDY	Grammar, classification, and arrangement of the features of a language	Comparative linguistics, etymology, language evolution

*Diachronic linguistics* basically deals with the study of language through different periods in history. Thus, it studies the historical development of language through different periods of time. This branch of linguistics is the diachronic linguistics. Main concerns of diachronic linguistics are as follows:

- describing and accounting for observed changes in particular languages



-reconstructing the pre-history of languages and determining their connection, grouping them into language families Developing general theories about how and why language changes

-describing the history of speech communities

-studying the history of words

Lexicology, the study of words in a language, plays an important role in linguistics. It investigates the structure, meaning, and implementing of words, shedding light on the complex fabric of language. Lexicology is significant for several reasons:

- By analyzing the history, development, and usage of words, lexicology donates to the enrichment of a language's vocabulary. Understanding the etymology of words extends our appreciation for linguistic variety and historical influences.

- Semantically, Lexicology examines the meanings and distinctions of words, discovering the subtle shifts in connotations and usage over time. This supports the interpretation and translation of texts, as well as in the study of semantic change.

- Cultural Insights: Words are carriers of culture, and lexicology provides valuable insights into the social, historical, and geographical contexts that shape a language. Borrowed words from other languages, for example, reflect cultural exchanges and historical interactions.

- The study of words and their evolution over time provides a window into the development and transformation of a language. Lexicology helps track linguistic changes and adaptations, offering a deeper understanding of language dynamics.

In conclusion, lexicology is an indispensable part of linguistics, offering a multifaceted approach to the study of words that enriches our understanding of language, culture, and human communication.

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## **UNIT II. LEXICOGRAPHY**

### **PLAN:**

1. Lexicography as a subject
2. Types of dictionaries
3. Structure of dictionaries
4. Lexical and stylistic classification of dictionaries
5. Borrowings. Types of borrowed words. International words. Archaisms.
6. Neologisms

#### ***Brainstorming questions on the topic***

1. What are the primary objectives of the dictionary being developed? Is it aimed at language learners, scholars, professionals, or the general public?
2. In what ways can lexicography contribute to the preservation and documentation of endangered languages and dialects, and what unique challenges does this present?

**Key concepts:** *lexicography, dictionary compiling, bilingual, volumes, interlinear translations, etymological dictionaries, scientific dictionaries, spelling, transcription, alphabetical system, borrowed words, archaic words, neologisms*



**Read and learn information below;**

Lexicography, the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries, has been a part of the English language since the Old English period, with early examples including glosses of religious texts and interlinear translations from Latin into English. The 15th century saw the emergence of regular bilingual dictionaries such as Anglo-Latin, Anglo-French, and Anglo-German. The first monolingual dictionary, created by schoolmaster Robert Cawdry in 1604, was intended for school children, while in 1721, Nathan Bailey, a scientist and writer, produced the first etymological dictionary, aimed at philologists. This marked the beginning of scientific dictionary compiling. Samuel Johnson's influential explanatory dictionary, published in 1775, featured words illustrated by examples from English literature, making their meanings understandable from the surrounding context. Johnson's dictionary not only had a significant impact on lexicography worldwide, but also played a key role in standardizing English vocabulary.

However, it also contributed to the preservation of conservative English spelling. In 1858, Dr. Trench, a member of the English Philological Society, proposed the idea of compiling a comprehensive dictionary encompassing all words in the English language. The society agreed to undertake this monumental task, and over a thousand people participated in gathering examples. The first volume, covering words beginning

with "A" and "B," was published in 1884, 26 years after the project's initiation. The final volume of this exhaustive endeavor, titled NED and comprising 12 volumes, was released in 1928, a remarkable 70 years after the decision to compile it was made. In 1933, the dictionary was reissued as "The Oxford English Dictionary" to reflect the location of the project's work in Oxford. This updated version spanned 13 volumes. Due to its immense size and cost, subsequent efforts led to the creation of abbreviated editions, such as the two-volume "A Shorter Oxford Dictionary," which featured the same number of entries but fewer literary examples, and the single-volume "A Concise Oxford Dictionary," focused solely on modern words without literary citations.

The history of American lexicography began in the late 18th century, with the most well-known American English dictionary compiled by Noah Webster. An active statesman and public figure, Webster published his first dictionary in 1806. He continued his work and in 1828, he released a two-volume dictionary.

Webster aimed to simplify English spelling and transcription, introducing an alphabetical system using letters and combinations instead of transcription signs. He denoted vowels in closed syllables by the corresponding vowels, and in open syllables by the same letters with a dash above them. For example, /a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/. Vowels in the position before /r/ were denoted by the same letters with two dots above them, and the combinations "en," "ir," and "ur" were represented by the letter "e" with two dots above it as they are pronounced identically. Other sounds were also denoted with specific symbols, such as using /oo/ for /u:/ and [y] for the sound /j/.

Modern English lexicography traces back to the 15th century when English-Latin dictionaries were prevalent. The New English Dictionary, which later became the Oxford English Dictionary, is a significant milestone in English lexicography. Written from 1888 to 1928, it encompasses the vocabulary of the English language with thorough historical evidence, providing a comprehensive history of words. Additionally, it includes a supplement containing neologisms, or new words, demonstrating its commitment to capturing the evolving nature of language.

Generally dictionaries are divided into two main types;

- encyclopaedic dictionaries
- linguistic dictionaries

***Encyclopaedic dictionaries*** provide information on extralinguistic world, encompassing important events, animals, and all branches of knowledge. Instead of focusing on words, these dictionaries convey facts and concepts about the world at large.

Aside from encyclopaedic dictionaries, there are two other main types of dictionaries: general dictionaries and special dictionaries.

***General dictionaries*** are further divided into explanatory dictionaries and parallel or translation dictionaries.

***Explanatory dictionaries***, such as "The Shorter Oxford Dictionary," "Chamber's 20th Century Dictionary," and "Webster's Collegiate Dictionary," present comprehensive information about the spelling, usage, pronunciation, meaning, etymology, synonyms, and antonyms of words, along with grammatical information and phraseology. They may provide pronunciation using the International Phonetic Alphabet or British phonetic notation.

***Translation dictionaries***, on the other hand, contain vocabulary items in one language and their equivalents in another. Examples include the Russian-English Dictionary by Prof. A. I. Smirnitsky and the English-Russian Dictionary by I. R. Galperin. These dictionaries are based on the comparative study of languages. Learner's Dictionaries are compiled for foreign language learners at various stages of advancement, offering information about the lexical or grammatical valency of words.

***Specialized dictionaries*** focus on specific aspects of words, such as synonyms, collocability, frequency, etymology, pronunciation, and phraseological units. Examples include the Dictionary of English Synonyms by Soule, A. V. Koonin's English Russian Phraseological Dictionary, and the Oxford Dictionary of English Proverbs.

Specialized dictionaries include followings:

***Etymological dictionaries*** indicate the history of a word from its date of introduction to the present. It traces the development of various changes in interpretation and meaning. Etymologies frequently show the root word in Latin, Greek, Old English, French, etc.

***Collocation dictionaries*** define meanings of collocations, group of two or more words, that are always put together to create a specific meaning. A Reum's Dictionary of English Style can be an example to collocation dictionary.

***Pronouncing dictionaries:*** English Pronouncing Dictionary by D. Jones can be example to these type of dictionaries.

When compiling a dictionary, the most important issues encountered by a lexicographer should be:

- choosing words

- arranging and defining meanings

- providing descriptive examples. Dictionaries cannot register all occasional words. Presenting all technical terms is impossible due to the large number of them. Selecting words occurs according to the purpose of the dictionary Different dictionaries can be varied in terms of their purpose, the information they provide and their size.

Compare the following dictionary entries from the point of view of the way lexical meanings are presented. *For example.* **awful:** I. N. C. Wyld. The Universal Dictionary of the English Language.

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

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

II, The Concise Oxford Dictionary. **awful:** inspiring awe, worthy of profound respect; solemnly impressive, (arch) reverential: (sl —notable in its kind as— scrawl, bore, relief, something. III. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English. **awful:** 1. dreadful, impressive, causing awe. He died and death. His sufferings were **awful** to behold. 2. (colloq intensive) very bad, very great; extreme of its kind, what

annuisance! what *awful* handwriting (weather)! IV. Collin's New English Dictionary. **awful**: full of awe, filling with fear and admiration; impressive, venerable; ugly; unsightly; extremely. V. Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language. **awful**: I. inspiring awe. 2. Terrifying, appalling. 3. Worthy of reverence and solemn respect. 4. (colloq) a) very bad, ugly, disagreeable: unpleasant, etc; as, an awful joke, b) great as, an awful bore. The most intricate form of entry is discovered in explanatory dictionaries. In the case of an explanatory dictionary of the synchronic type, the entry typically includes the accepted spelling, pronunciation, grammatical features, part of speech indication, definition of meanings, modern usage, illustrative examples, derivatives, phraseological units, etymology, synonyms, antonyms, and more.

The selection and organization of word meanings in different dictionaries vary depending on the compilers' objectives. Diachronic dictionaries enumerate more meanings than synchronic dictionaries of contemporary English, as they encompass not only current usage but also archaic or obsolete meanings. Word meanings in dictionaries can be elucidated using phrases, synonymous words, and expressions. Other types of dictionaries, such as frequency dictionaries, spelling books, etymological and ideographic dictionaries, may also contain illustrative examples.

The structure of the dictionary comprises an Introduction and a Guide to the use of the dictionary, explaining all its features, providing a key to pronunciation, and listing abbreviations. Supplementary materials in dictionaries may include addenda and various word-lists, such as geographical names, foreign words, and tables of weights and measures.

It is essential for students to have some understanding of major, comprehensive dictionaries that are readily available in college. Brief overviews of the 'Oxford English Dictionary, The English Dialect by Joseph Wright, the old Century Dictionary (12 volumes), and the modern unabridged Webster could be beneficial. Familiarizing oneself with these extensive works not only facilitates comprehension of the types of

word information they offer but also enhances the ability to utilize the compact desk-sized dictionary they are already acquainted with.

The term "clinic" originates from a Greek word meaning "bed," and its implications, along with those of its derivatives and combinations, are derived from this origin. The Oxford English Dictionary (OED) is not designed for determining the suitability of a certain word for use, but rather strives to methodically document the history and evolution of every printed word in the language from King Alfred's era to the present day.

The OED does not intend to establish a standard for English; it aims to comprehensively depict the language and its historical development. Entries for individual words in the OED can span several pages, with extensive illustrations of word senses, definitions, and additional materials provided. For example, "set" fills more than eighteen pages, "go" fills thirty-five columns, and over seventy separate senses are given for "get".

As lexicography is closely connected with lexicology, it deals with general problems of Lexicology. The idea that lexical entries in dictionaries are inadequate because they lack enough information provides the basis for the invention of new formalisms, which are justified explicitly in certain instances but implicitly in others. As a result, these formalisms demand that semantic properties like "animate" or "state" be added to specific entries. Although it is true that not all acceptable features are explicitly identified in standard dictionary entries, this may not be as much a problem with definitions as it is with the lack of tools for surfacing features from definitions.. Here we should focus on the importance of coherent semantic structures in dictionary entries. It is suggested that if a semantic feature is crucial to the meaning of a word, it should be apparent within the dictionary's semantic structure. Failure to include essential semantic features in the definitions of words would indicate a flaw in the definitions or internal inconsistencies in the dictionary.



In some resources, criticisms have been raised regarding the potential usefulness of dictionaries. Some argue that definitions are deficient in presenting relevant data, as they rely on substitutable words (synonyms) rather than listing distinctive features. Additionally, the proliferation of meanings attached to a word entry is seen as creating apparent polysemy, obscuring the general meaning of a word by adding redundant features already determined by the context.

While these objections have validity and may call for revisions to individual or sets of definitions, they do not negate the need for thorough analysis of what appears in dictionaries. A comprehensive analysis could lead to the identification of such difficulties and make their resolution, and subsequently the improvement of definitions, easier. In addition, phraseological units such as "best man" and "at length" are highlighted as individual vocabulary units, while other types of idiomatic expressions are addressed within the entries devoted to the component words of the idiomatic expressions. Overall, the argument underscores the complexity and challenges inherent in creating comprehensive and coherent semantic structures within dictionary entries, as well as the importance of addressing the criticisms to improve the quality and usefulness of dictionaries.

Homonymy, particularly lexico-grammatical homonymy, is another contentious issue. If the compiler holds that the sound-forms are identical. For instance, given that "play" (noun) and "play" (verb) are just distinct grammatical and semantic forms of the same word, they are handled and counted as one word in the same dictionary entry. This idea tends to reduce the total quantity of English vocabulary units. The distinction between two homophones and several meanings of a polysemantic term might be ambiguous in certain instances of lexical homology, which permits different approaches to the problem. Regarding the issue of how many words should be mentioned here, there is one more thing to consider. Contrary to popular belief, a significant portion of vocabulary terms that English-speaking people actually use are hardly ever or never listed in dictionaries. Words like "footballer," "hero

worshipper," and other such terms are created using extremely effective word-building techniques. These are simple to understand words that never come off as "unusual" or "unclear." Any member of the speech community may utilize them whenever the necessity to communicate a certain idea emerges. These terms are typically called "nonce-words," "occasional," or "potential." The terms imply that vocabulary units of this type are created for a given occasion only may be considered as but "potentially" existing in English vocabulary. The approach of the dictionary compilers to occasional words also affects the number of dictionary entries. Those dictionaries that regularly record such occasional words naturally increase the number of dictionary entries.

Generally speaking, dictionaries play a crucial role in providing comprehensive information about language, history, and the world around us, catering to a wide range of purposes and audiences.

### ***Borrowings. Types of borrowed words.***

A **borrowing** (a loan word) is a word taken over from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language. Borrowing may be direct or indirect (through another language). Many Greek words came into English through Latin and many Latin words through French. Here are some examples to Latin borrowings related to different items:<sup>5</sup>

**1. Latin borrowings** (Latin – Continental, Latin – Celtic, Latin connected with the adoption of Christianity):

- a) military terms: *wall, street, pitch*;
- b) trade terms: *pound, inch*;
- b) containers: *cup, dish*;
- c) food: *butter, cheese*;
- d) words connected with building: *chalk, pitch*;

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<sup>5</sup> O. L. Ilienکو, I. A. Kamienieva, Ye. S. Moshtagh. English lexicology. Tutorial. Kharkiv O. M. Beketov NUUE 2020 p-112-118

e) names of towns: *Manchester, Lancaster* (*caster* – ‘camp’);

f) clerical terms: *dean, cross, altar, abbot, church, devil, priest, anthem, school*.

Some scientists point out three periods of Latin borrowings in Old English:

- Latin-Continental borrowings
- Latin-Celtic borrowings
- Latin borrowings connected with the adoption of Christianity.

Terms related to trade and the military, food and container names, and building names are all from the first period. These were actual words that were completely absorbed into the language and spread solely orally. Through the Celtic language, words like *port, mountain, and fountain* were adopted from Latin. The majority of borrowed terminology were religious or clerical after Christianity was adopted.

One of the main languages that influenced English vocabulary is thought to have been Latin. During the ninth and twelfth centuries, Scandinavian words were most frequently borrowed, followed by French words from the twelfth to the fourteenth. However, Latin words have been incorporated into English for nearly the entirety of its history, initially appearing in spoken English and then appearing in written English (via literature and religion).

2. ***Greek borrowings.*** The influence of Greek and Latin in English is great, particularly in the realm of vocabulary. It means that Greek borrowings entered the English language, and as a result, these words have become established in English vocabulary.

The influence of Latin and Greek is especially prominent in academic and scholarly contexts, where words from these languages are used to denote names of sciences, political and philosophical trends, and have academic and literary associations. The Middle English period, particularly during the Great Revival of Learning, saw an influx of borrowings from Latin and Greek, introducing words such

as *formula, inertia, maximum, memorandum, veto, superior, per capita, dogma, drama, theory, and pseudonym* into the English lexicon. Moreover, the field of medicine has significantly benefitted from Greek borrowings, with numerous medical terms such as those ending in *-itis* (denoting inflammatory diseases), *-ectomy* (indicating surgical removal), and *-iatrics* (pertaining to medical care for particular groups) originating from Greek roots.

The integration of Latin and Greek elements in creating terminology for modern technological innovations, as evidenced by words like *altimeter, electroencephalogram, hydrophone, and telespectroscope* underscores the adaptability and relevance of classical linguistic influences in evolving contexts.

**3. French borrowings** fall into several semantic groups as well:

- a) government terms: *govern, administer, assembly, record, parliament*;
- b) words connected with feudalism: *peasant, servant, control, money*;
- c) military terms: *assault, battle, soldier; army, siege, defense, lieutenant*;
- d) words connected with jury: *bill, defendant, plaintiff, judge, fine*;
- e) words connected with art, fashion: *dance, pleasure, lace, pleat, beauty, figure, chic, prestige, cartoon, elite, avant-garde, entourage*.

In the past, French loanwords were completely integrated into English. However, a shift can be observed in the more recent French borrowings. In the 17th century, there was a change in the type of words borrowed, with English adopting many terms related to cooking, the arts, and a refined lifestyle from the French language. (*leisure, repertoire, resume, cartoon, critique, cuisine, chauffeur, questionnaire, coup, bidet, detente*).

Due to the period of the Norman Conquest French borrowings have been a part of the English vocabulary. There were a lot of French borrowings in English that it was made potential to borrow morphemes and form word-hybrids, e.g.: *god – goddess* (-ess of French origin was added to the English stem), *short – shortage*,

*bewilder – bewilderment, baker – bakery*. French stems can form hybrids with the English affixes: *beauty – beautiful, trouble – troublesome*.

Almost one-third of the vocabulary in modern English is derived from French as a result of the continuous borrowing of French terms into English.

**4. Scandinavian borrowings:** *take, leg, hit, skin, same, both, though, they, them, their, cake, egg, kid, wish, want, craft*.

It is difficult to assess Old Norwegian's influence on the English language. There are nine hundred terms that come from Scandinavia. There are perhaps hundreds more that we are unable to fully count. For example, terms like "stream" and "yard," like "beck," and "sky," which start with the letter "sk," are Norse, and are still used locally in the former Danelaw region of northern England.

In many cases Scandinavian borrowings stood alongside their English equivalents. The Scandinavian *skirt* formerly meant the same as the English *shirt*. The Norse *deyja* 'to die' joined its Anglo-Saxon synonym, the English *steorfa* (which ends up as 'starve'). Other synonyms include: *wish* and *want, craft* and *skill, rear* and *raise*<sup>6</sup>.

**5. Borrowings from other languages.** Over 120 languages are on record as sources of the English vocabulary: Japanese (*karate, judo, tycoon*); Arabic (*algebra, algorithm, fakir, giraffe, sultan, harem, mattress*); Turkish (*yogurt, kiosk, tulip*), Farsi (*caravan, shawl, bazaar*); Italian (*piano, alto, incognito, bravo, ballerina, motto, casino, mafia, artichoke*); German (*blitz, hamburger, kindergarten, seminar, waltz*); Portuguese (*marmalade, cobra*); Spanish (*siesta, patio, mosquito, comrade, tornado, banana, guitar*); Dutch (*dock, limp, pump, yacht, cruise, gin, cookie*); Finnish (*sauna*); Russian (*balalaika, tundra, robot*). Another issue worth mentioning is the indirect route by which a great deal of borrowings come to be spoken; this is accomplished through the use of a language

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<sup>6</sup> Babich, G.N. Lexicology: A Current Guide = Leksikologiya angliyskogo yazika : ucheb. posobie / G.N. Babich Moskva : FLINTA, 2019

that stands in between the source language and the target language. Thus, a large number of older Italian words entered English through French, with Renaissance Italian initially arriving in France before making its way into English. The oldest borrowings from the East entered English through Latin; many of them had already traveled through Greek. The majority of these words are used in trade and culture. For example, the word "*pepper*" originated in an eastern language, passed through Greek, Latin, and finally English; similarly, the word "*elephant*" originated in Egypt, then moved on to Greek.

There are practically no limits to the kinds of words that are borrowed. We may distinguish different types of borrowing from one foreign language by another: (1) when the two languages represent different social, economic and political units and (2) when the two languages are spoken by those within the same social, economic, and political unit. The first of these types has been usually called 'cultural borrowing', while the second type has been termed 'intimate borrowing'<sup>7</sup> ***Etymological Doublets***. Throughout the evolution of the English language, it is a common occurrence for words to be borrowed multiple times. An illustrative example of this phenomenon is the Latin term "uncial," which was assimilated into Old English as "ynce" denoting a unit of length, later transforming into "inch" in Modern English. Subsequently, English once again adopted a variation of this word, this time in its Romance form, "untsia," which manifested in Old English as "yntse" representing a unit of weight. The French derivative "unce," originating from the Romance form "untsia," entered Middle English as a measure of weight, eventually evolving into the Modern English "ounce." Notably, while the earlier renditions of "uncial" were popular loans, the subsequent version, obtained in the 17th century as "uncial" from the Latin "uncia" and its adjective "unciālis," distinctly represents a scholarly borrowing.

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<sup>7</sup> Babich, G.N. Lexicology: A Current Guide = Leksikologiya angliyskogo yazika : ucheb. posobie / G.N. Babich Moskva : FLINTA, 2019 .

Indeed, the English language has accumulated numerous instances of repeated borrowings due to various influences. The significant influx of Latin borrowings during the Early Middle Ages was followed by even more substantial adoptions from French, a language rooted in Latin. Subsequent ongoing interaction between English and French further contributed to repeated borrowings. Even within the Middle English period, a word could be borrowed twice from different French dialects. In Modern English, original Latin words are not as prevalent in multiple forms, as newer borrowings have often displaced earlier ones. Nevertheless, a significant number of such words can still be discerned in the language. For instance, "catch," "chase," and "captive," or "mint" and "money," are examples of words that can be traced back to multiple forms and meanings. Despite these diverse spellings and meanings, they historically originate from the same word, showcasing the intricate evolution of language.

We can find the words which have the same root, however, came into the language by various ways:

- 1) one of the doublets is native, the other is borrowed (*screw* (n) – Scandinavian, *shrew* (n) – English);
- 2) both doublets may be borrowed from different languages, but these languages must be co-generic (*captain* – Latin, *chieftain* – French, *canal* – Latin, *channel* – French);
- 3) etymological doublets may be borrowed from the same language but in different historical periods (*corpse* – Norman, *corps* – Parisian);
- 4) both doublets are native, but one originates from the other (*history* – *story*, *fantasy* – *fancy*, *shadow* – *shade*).

**International words** are those that have the same root, appear in multiple languages due to simultaneous borrowings, and convey ideas important to communication. We are able to identify multiple groups:

- 1) international words related to sciences of Latin and Greek origin: *philosophy*, *mathematics*, *chemistry*, *biology*, *medicine*, *linguistics*;

- 2) terms related to arts: *music, theatre, drama, tragedy, comedy, artist*;
- 3) terms related politics: *politics, policy, revolution, progress, democracy*;
- 4) scientific and technological terms: *antibiotic, atomic, television, sputnik, bionics, gene*;
- 5) terms related to sports: *football, volley-ball, baseball, hockey, cricket, rugby, tennis, golf*;
- 6) terms related to foodstuffs: *coffee, chocolate, banana, coca-cola, mango, avocado, grapefruit*.

The English language contributed a considerable number of international words to world languages. International words are mainly borrowings.

**Archaic words**, i.e. out-dated words that denote existing objects, are divided into two groups:

a) *archaic words proper*: words which are no longer recognized in modern English. They were used in Old English and have either dropped out of language use entirely or completely changed (*troth* - *faith*, *lorel* - *worthless*);

b) *archaic forms of the words*: *corse* instead of *corpse*, *an* instead of *and*, *annoy* instead of *annoyance*.

Speaking of archaic words we should distinguish "ageing/newness" of the word form and "ageing/newness" of the denotatum. And then, accordingly, we may correlate archaic words and historic words on the one hand as well as lexical and stylistic neologisms on the other.

**Lexical neologisms** are new words that denote new objects (*laser, shopping, pop promo, killer, satellite*). **Stylistic neologisms** are new names that denote already existing objects and notions (*mole* - a spy who successfully infiltrates an organisation; *ageism* - discrimination of a person on the ground of age).

Historical words are synonymous with specific stages in the evolution of a society and remain significant, even when the entities or concepts they denote are no longer present. Unlike archaic words, historical words such as "yeoman," "thane,"



"baldric," and "goblet" lack synonyms, while archaic words can often be replaced by their modern equivalents.

Historical words and lexical neologisms that lack stylistic significance do not constitute lexico-stylistic paradigms. Conversely, archaic words and stylistic neologisms serve to stylistically distinguish a text from neutral speech. In fictional works, the use of archaisms and historical words creates a sense of antiquity, contributing to an authentic historical backdrop and prompting readers to recollect past traditions, customs, clothing, and so forth. In certain cases, the use of archaisms, which are incongruous with colloquial language, can elicit a humorous or satirical effect.

*A few ways to solve problems in lexicography:*

Lexicography is the practice of compiling, writing, and editing dictionaries, so problem-solving in lexicography involves addressing various challenges related to creating and maintaining dictionaries. Here are a few ways to solve problems in lexicography:

*Standardization of Language:* One common problem in lexicography is the standardization of language, particularly in cases where a language has multiple dialects or variations. Solving this requires careful analysis and consideration of various regional differences and the development of a standardized form.

*Defining and Organizing Entries:* Lexicographers often face challenges in defining and organizing entries, especially for words with multiple meanings or complex usage. Developing clear, concise, and accurate definitions, and effectively organizing them within the dictionary, is crucial. This may involve using various methods such as examples, usage notes, and cross-references.

*Inclusion of New Words and Phrases:* With the constant evolution of languages, lexicographers need to address the inclusion of new words and phrases. Keeping abreast of language changes, tracking their usage, and determining their significance are essential aspects of problem-solving in lexicography.

*Managing Polysemy and Synonymy:* Dealing with polysemy (the multiple meanings of a word) and synonymy (the presence of synonyms) is a common challenge in lexicography. Solutions may involve providing context-specific meanings, usage notes, and distinguishing between near-synonyms.

*Addressing Cultural Sensitivities and Context:* Lexicographers must consider cultural sensitivities and the context of word usage when compiling dictionaries. This requires thorough research, consultation with native speakers, and sensitivity to cultural nuances to ensure accurate and respectful representation.

*Utilizing Technology:* Embracing technological tools, such as corpus linguistics, machine learning, and natural language processing, can help lexicographers in solving various problems. These tools can aid in analyzing large volumes of textual data, identifying new words, and tracking shifts in language usage.

*User Feedback and Revisions:* Encouraging user feedback and regularly revising dictionary entries based on usage patterns, feedback, and new discoveries helps address many problems in lexicography. This ensures that the dictionary remains relevant, accurate, and responsive to the needs of its users.

By addressing these challenges, lexicographers can improve the quality and usability of dictionaries, making them more effective tools for language understanding and communication.

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### **UNIT III. SEMASIOLOGY**

#### **PLAN:**

1. The concept of semasiology
2. Theoretical approach to meaning relevant to lexical semantics
3. Motivation of the word
4. The meaning and concept
5. Context and its types

#### **Task 1. Discuss these questions**

1. Explain the concept of semasiology and provide an example.
2. How does semasiology relate to the study of language evolution?
3. Discuss the role of context in determining the meaning of words.
4. How does semasiology contribute to our understanding of cultural and societal shifts?
5. Discuss the impact of technology on semantic changes within languages.

**Key concepts:** *semasiology, meaning of the word, referential approach, functional approach, symbol, triangle, semantic system, linguistic sign, sound form*



**Semasiology** (originated Greek ‘meaning’+’learning’) is a synonym for ‘semantics’ created some time earlier in Germany. Semasiology is the name of the area of linguistics that focuses on word meanings and synonyms. Semasiology might be considered a subfield of Lexicology since it focuses solely on lexical meaning and ignores other types of meaning. It means that semasiology mainly, deals with meanings of words. In semasiology monosemantic, polysemantic words are learned. This does not imply that the grammatical meaning is unimportant to a semasiologist. Conversely, the grammatical meaning needs to be taken into account to the extent that it has a particular bearing on the lexical meaning. Semasiology addresses the shift in meaning that words go through over time. The descriptive synchronic approach calls for a study of the basic semantic system and typical semantic structures of the language under investigation rather than individual words.

According to their usage, the words semasiology and semantics are implemented equally in some resources and situations. These terms can be accepted as synonyms actually but the word semasiology takes one meaning, the word semantics supports several meanings.

Semasiology, a branch of linguistic study, originated as a component of semiotics and is concerned with the abstract theory of the connections between signs and their referents. French philosopher and logician Rudolf Carnap is credited with pioneering

this field with the aim of constructing a formalized language theory. Unlike linguistic semantics, which centers on actual languages, semasiology is concerned with formalized language. Semantics, in general, encompasses the study of signs and languages, including various codes such as traffic signals and military signals.

While semasiology is a relatively recent branch of linguistics, the subjects it investigates have been of interest to philosophers and grammarians since ancient times. Chinese scholars a thousand years before our era were already studying semantic change, and the relationship between words and concepts was deliberated in the works of influential figures such as Plato, Aristotle, and the grammarian Panini.

The early treatment of meaning was deeply integrated into philosophy, logic, psychology, literary criticism, and the history of language. It wasn't until the 1830s that semasiology as a formal branch of linguistics began to emerge, with German scholar Karl Reisig proposing that the study of meaning should be considered as an independent area of knowledge. In the 19th century and the early 20th century, semasiology primarily focused on diachronic analysis, concentrating on the process of semantic change and the role semantic principles should play in etymology. During this time, semasiology was defined as a science dealing with the changes in word meaning, their causes, and their classification, with a primarily atomistic approach focused on isolated words.

It was not until later developments in this field that attention was given to the interrelation of structures within each language and the formulation of general tendencies peculiar to specific languages, including English.

In the study of English vocabulary, the focus of its semantic study shifted from philosophy to lexicography in the 19th century. This transition was marked by the emergence of the Golden Age of English Lexicography in the mid-19th century, notably characterized by the extensive work on the multi-volume Oxford Dictionary of the English Language. English scholars of this era, such as R.C. Trench, J. Murray, and W. Skeat, emphasized the historical principle and developed the contextual principle,

asserting that the complete meaning of a word is always contextual and cannot be studied apart from its complete context.

Subsequently, semasiologists began to identify indications of semantic change by comparing the contexts of words in older written records with contemporary usage, as well as by studying different meanings of cognate words in related languages. This approach allowed for a more nuanced understanding of semantic evolution.

In the 20th century, the progress of semasiology was uneven, with the 1930s being regarded as a crucial period in its history. Following the influence of Ferdinand de Saussure's work, the structural orientation came to the forefront of semasiology. German philologist Jost Trier introduced his theory of semantic fields, treating semantic phenomena historically within a definite language system at a specific period of its development.

Today, current ideas in semasiology emphasize synchronic analysis, where present-day linguists leverage structuralist approaches combined with mathematical statistics and symbolic logic to achieve effective results in the study of semantic phenomena.

### ***Referential theory to meaning relevant to lexical semantics***

Early referential theory developed by Plato equated meaning with *physical objects*. This theory is rejected nowadays. Referential word meaning theory is more sophisticated now, and it defines as *relationships* between things, their concepts and names.

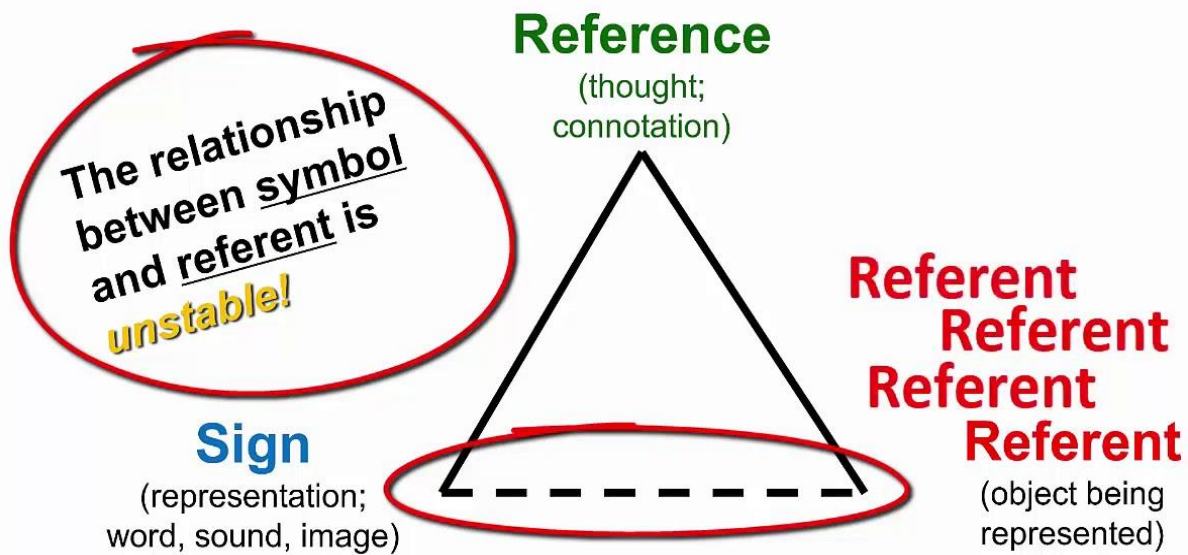
This theory started with a famous ‘triangle of reference’ presented by Gottlob Frege, the German mathematician and philosopher.

The meaning is viewed as connection between the word and the referent.

Ogden and Richards proposed traditional triangle

“the meaning of meaning”

# The Semantic Triangle



Ogden and Richards, *The Meaning of Meaning* (1923, p. 11)

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According to this idea, the word "referent" refers to something and is philosophically neutral. Any tangible thing, attribute, situation, or behavior in the material world is referred to as "referent." Semantics should not focus on describing referents because referents are not meaning, but referents identify what a word or symbol stands for. Though they are closely related, meaning in this theory is not the same as idea or concept. The same idea can be expressed with a variety of phrases, each with a distinct meaning: die- pass away, kick the basket, join the majority; a piece of cake-something easily done. Contrary to what many theories of sound symbolism say, meaning is not the same as a word's physical shape or a symbol used to convey meaning. Existence of different languages using different forms to denote the same concept (table, stol) shows that there is a predictable, arbitrary relationship between symbol and a referent, and this arbitrariness is stated by the broken line in the 'triangle of reference. Here, we should define the meaning of the word. In most cases meaning is considered as a verbalized

<sup>8</sup> <https://www.youtube.com/watch?app=desktop&v=tiOjaGqcUI4>

and lexicolized reflection of real things in our mind (referents, objects, phenomena or relations).

The definition of the meaning is particularly difficult because of the complexity of the process by which language and human consciousness serve to reflect the reality and adopt it to human needs<sup>9</sup>. Nowadays there is no universally accepted definition of the meaning, or rather a definition all the basic features of meaning and being simultaneously time operational.

The modern approach to semasiology assumes that inner form of a word represents its semantic structure. This approach is based on the principle that words are not isolated entities, and their meanings are determined by their relationships with other words. Let's examine one of the approaches used to define the meaning of a word in more detail:

The referential approach to semantics focuses on the relationship between the sound-form of a linguistic sign, the underlying concept, and the referent in reality to which the sign refers. This approach forms the basis of many semantic theories, and the best-known model is the “basic triangle,” which illustrates the correlation between the sound-form of a word, the underlying concept, and the actual object it denotes.

It's clear that the sound-form of a word is not identical to its meaning, as there is no inherent connection between the sound and the meaning of the word. This connection is arbitrary and conventional, as demonstrated by the fact that different languages can convey the same meaning with different sound forms.

***Motivation of the Word.*** The concept of motivation refers to the relationship between the phonemic or morphemic composition and the structural pattern of a word on the one hand, and its meaning on the other. Motivation can be categorized into three types: morphological, phonetical, and semantic. This understanding helps in analyzing

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<sup>9</sup> <https://studylib.net/doc/5847409/semasiology-1.-the-definition-of-meaning-2.-types-of-meaning>.



how meaning correlates with the elements of the referential triangle and its connection to each of them.

***Phonetical motivation*** is a direct connection between the phonetical structure of the word and its meaning, e.g., swish, sizzle, boom, splash mean a direct imitation of the sounds these words denote. It can be a direct connection between the phonetical structure of the word and its meaning. Here, speech sounds may suggest spatial and visual dimensions, shape, size, etc.

In addition, it can be a direct imitation of the sounds these words denote: swish, sizzle, boom, splash. Initial [f] and [p] are felt as expressing scorn (nafrat, mensimaslik), contempt (hurmat-sizlik), disapproval or disgust which can be illustrated by the words pooh! fie! fiddle-sticks, flim-flam and the like.

The sound-cluster [ɪŋ] is 'imitative of sound or swift movement as can be seen in words ring, sing, swing, fling, etc. Thus, phonetically such words may be considered motivated.

***Morphological motivation*** refers to the direct connection between the morphological structure of a word and its lexical meaning. Single morpheme words like "read" and "pick" are considered non-motivated as their meaning is not inherently connected to their structure.

In the case of words composed of more than one morpheme, the meaning is a combination of the individual morphemes and the meaning of the overall structural pattern of the word. For example, "*finger-ring*" and "*ring-finger*" have similar lexical meanings with morphemes that are phonetically identical, yet the order of the components results in different overall meanings.

Morphological motivation is relative, meaning that the degree of motivation can vary from complete motivation to partial motivation to lack of motivation. This understanding allows for the analysis of how the structure of a word relates to its meaning and how this relationship can vary based on morphological composition. *waterless*- completely motivated (lexically and structurally);

*cranberry*- partially (there is no lexical meaning of the morpheme *cran*-

Morphological motivation involves a direct connection between the lexical meaning of the component morphemes, their arrangement, and the meaning of the word as a whole. For instance, the word "*to rethink*" is motivated by its morphological structure, which implies the idea of "thinking again".

The primary criterion in morphological motivation is the relationship between morphemes. Single-morpheme words like "*sing*", "*tell*", and "*eat*" are considered non-motivated. On the other hand, words like "*singer*", "*rewrite*", and "*eatable*" have a direct connection between their structural pattern and meaning, making them motivated. When the connection between the structure of a lexical unit and its meaning is completely arbitrary and conventional, words like 'matter' and 'repeat' are considered non-motivated or idiomatic.

***Semantic motivation*** is based on the coexistence of direct and figurative meanings of the same word. For example, "*mouth*" refers to a part of the human face as well as any opening or outlet, while "*jacket*" denotes both a short coat and a protective cover for a book.

In compounds, motivation is morphological if the meaning of the whole is based on the direct meaning of the components. On the other hand, it is semantic if the combination is used figuratively. For example;

"*watchdog*"-morphologically motivated as a dog kept for watching property,  
"*watchdog*"-semantically motivated when referring to a watchful human guardian.

**The meaning and concept.** Understanding the distinction between the concept and the meaning of a word is somehow challenging in some cases.

Concepts are categories of human realization, representing the thought of an object while singling out its essential features. They result from perception and generalization and are largely consistent for humanity within a given historical period.

On the other hand, the meanings of words differ across languages. This is evident in examples such as “*nest*” and “*uya*” both referring to “a structure or place made by a bird” demonstrating how the same concept can be expressed by different words in different languages.

It's essential to differentiate between meaning and referent. Meaning pertains to language, while the referent exists beyond its scope. The same object can be denoted by multiple words with different meanings, such as “*cat*”, “*animal*”, “*Tom*”, “*this*” and “*pet*”. These words all refer to the same entity but carry different meanings.

The relationship between meaning, referent, and concept is complex. It's apparent that meaning is closely connected with these elements, yet not identical to any single one. This understanding is fundamental to studying language and its complicated distinctions.

**Context and its types.** Context is the minimal stretch of speech necessary to determine individual meanings of the word. A full understanding of the semantic structure of any lexical item can be gained only from the study of a variety of contexts in which the word is used, i.e. from the study of the intralinguistic relations of words in the flow of speech.<sup>10</sup> That is why the main types of linguistic contexts which serve to determine individual meanings of words are lexical, grammatical, the extra-linguistic or context of situation, common contextual associations or thematic groups.

**Lexical context.** In lexical contexts, the significance lies in the groups of lexical items combined with a polysemantic word. For instance, the verb “*to take*”, when combined with words denoting means of transportation, such as “*to take the tram*” acquires the meaning synonymous with “*go*”. Similarly, the meaning of the word “*handsome*” can be illustrated by its combination with “*man*” or “*person*” indicating “*good looking*” or with “*size*”, “*reward*” and “*sum*” suggesting “*considerable*” or “*ample*”.

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<sup>10</sup> <https://studfile.net/preview/7136062/page:4/>

These meanings determined by lexical contexts are known as lexically or phraseologically bound meanings, indicating that they are only found in specific lexical contexts.

**Grammatical context.** In grammatical contexts, the grammatical structure helps determine various individual meanings of a polysemantic word. For example, one meaning of the verb “*make*” such as “*to force*” or “*to induce*” is only found in the grammatical context possessing the structure “*to make smb do smth*”. Another example is the meaning “*to become*” or “*to turn out to be*” which is observed in a different structure, i.e., “*make*” followed by an adjective and a noun, as in “*to make a good wife*” or “*a good teacher*”. A different syntactic function of the verb, such as that of the predicate, as in “*to make machines*” or “*tables*” excludes the possibility of the meaning “*to become*” or “*turn out to be*”.

These lexical and grammatical contexts, also referred to as linguistic or verbal contexts, play a significant role in establishing the meanings of polysemantic words within the framework of language.

**In extra-linguistic contexts (context of situation)** the meaning of the word is determined not by the linguistic factors but by the actual speech situation in which this word is used.

**In common contextual associations (the thematic groups)** the meaning is based on the cooccurrence of words in certain repeatedly used contexts. Words in thematic groups are linked together by common contextual associations within the framework of the sentence and reflect the interlinking of things or events. Words making up a thematic group belong to different parts of speech and do not possess any common denominator of meaning. Contextual associations formed by the speaker of a language are usually conditioned by the context of situation which necessitates the use of certain words. F: journey-train-taxi-bags-ticket; shopping – it is usual to speak of the prices, of the goods we buy, sell.

Extra-linguistic and common contextual associations are also called extra-linguistic or non-verbal contexts.

Studying semasiology is valuable for a variety of reasons:

- Semasiology helps in comprehending how meaning is conveyed through language, including the nuances of words and how meanings can vary in different contexts.

- By studying semasiology, individuals can develop a deeper understanding of the meanings of words and expressions, leading to more precise and effective communication.

- Semasiology aids in understanding the intended meanings behind linguistic expressions, allowing for better interpretation of messages and reducing the likelihood of misunderstandings.

- For language learners, semasiology is crucial for grasping the meanings and usage of words, leading to improved language proficiency and fluency.

- Semasiology plays a key role in analyzing and interpreting texts, as well as examining how meaning is conveyed through language in literature, media, and communication.

Overall, learning semasiology enhances language comprehension, fosters effective communication, and provides insights into the diverse ways in which meaning is conveyed through language.

## **UNIT IV. CHANGES OF WORD MEANING AND ITS RESULTS**

### **PLAN:**

1. Referential or analytical definitions of meaning
2. The functional approach to meaning
3. Types of meaning
4. The denotational and connotational aspects

### ***Discussion questions***

1. How does cultural context influence the understanding and interpretation of the meaning of a word?
2. In what ways can the connotation of a word differ from its denotation, and how does this affect the overall impact of communication?
3. Can you think of words that have both positive and negative connotations depending on the context?"

**Key concepts:** *concept, connotation, denotation, lexical meaning, part-of-speech meaning, grammatical meaning, pragmatic aspect of the meaning, register, semantics, semasiology, tenor of the discourse.*



***Learn the information below;***

What is meaning? To describe meaning is particularly challenging because of the complexity of the process by which language and human consciousness serve to reflect external reality and to approve it to human needs. Generally speaking, meaning can be more or less described as a component of the word through which the concept is communicated.<sup>11</sup>

The definition of lexical meaning has been a topic of interest for different linguistic schools, and various scholars have proposed different perspectives on the

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<sup>11</sup> Antrushina G.B. Leksikologiya angliyskogo yazika. Moskva: "Drofa", 2006

matter. For instance, F. de Saussure considered meaning to be the relation between the object, the notion named, and the name itself. Meanwhile, in Bloomfield's approach, meaning refers to the situation in which the word is expressed. Despite these efforts, there is currently no universally accepted definition of meaning that encompasses all of its basic features and is operational.

However, different definitions of meaning help to consolidate the general characteristics of the notion by comparing various approaches to the description of the content side of language. Scholars generally agree that lexical meaning is the realization of a concept or emotion through a specific language system.

There are three main categories of definitions of meaning:

***Referential or analytical definitions of meaning:*** This approach focuses on the interdependence between words and their referents, i.e., the things and concepts they name. The referential approach distinguishes between the components closely connected with meaning: the sound-form of the linguistic sign, the concept underlying this sound-form, and the referent, which is the part or aspect of reality to which the linguistic sign refers. These different perspectives on the definition of meaning provide valuable insights into the nature of language and help in understanding how words and concepts are interconnected within a linguistic system.

Many scholars have attempted to revise the diagram originally created by the German mathematician and philosopher Gottlieb Frege (1848–1925) and further developed by Ferdinand de Saussure. In 1923, English scholars C.K. Ogden and I.A. Richards adapted this triangular structure with significant modifications, which is now known by various names such as the semantic triangle, triangle of signification, Frege semiotic triangle, Ogden and Richards basic triangle, or simply the basic triangle. According to this framework, a sign is a dual component unit comprising of its form (phonetic and orthographic) as a linguistic symbol and its reference, which is more than just a concept and holds linguistic significance. Referred to as the referential theory, it

suggests that linguistic meaning is linked to the referent. However, several challenges have been identified with the concept of reference in defining word meaning:

1. Some words, such as descriptive adjectives (e.g., large, beautiful, almighty) and mythical creatures (e.g., goblin, unicorn), have ambiguous or non-obvious references.
2. The meaning of compound words (like laptop) is problematic as it cannot be deduced simply from the individual references of the constituent words.
3. Reference is context-dependent, particularly in full noun phrases, rather than at the level of isolated lexical items. For instance, the word “*table*” has a general sense that can be defined in a dictionary, but acquires referential meaning only in contexts like “*The table in my dining room.*”
4. Different expressions can refer to the same real-world object (e.g., Venus as the morning star or the evening star) and each holds distinct meaning.

***The functional approach***, a novel perspective on meaning in language that has emerged in recent years, is characterized by its focus on various contexts and is closely associated with structural linguistics. This approach is often referred to as contextual, as it centers on analyzing the contexts in which linguistic units are used. Within the functional approach, which is a symbol of structural linguistics, the exploration of semantics is limited to examining the differences or similarities in meaning: meaning is seen as the function of a linguistic unit. According to this perspective, the meaning of a linguistic unit can only be understood through its relationship with other linguistic units. This idea can be illustrated in a simplistic manner by considering that the meanings of words like “*move*” and “*movement*” differ because they serve different functions in discourse. By comparing the contexts in which these words appear, it becomes evident that they are positioned differently in relation to other words. For example, the word “*clean*” can be followed by a noun (e.g., “*clean the room*”) or preceded by a pronoun (e.g., “*we clean*”), while the word “*movement*” can be followed by a preposition (e.g., “*movement of something*”) or preceded by an adjective (e.g., “*slow movement*”), indicating distinct distribution patterns. Due to these differences in



distribution, we can infer that these words not only belong to different word classes but also possess different meanings.

The same is true of different meanings of one and the same word. By examining the function of a word in different linguistic contexts and comparing these contexts, we can determine whether the meanings are different or the same. This can be proven through an objective investigation of linguistic data. For example, the word "take" has different meanings when used in different linguistic contexts, such as "take the tram" compared to "take to somebody."

Applying the functional approach, we can deduce that the meanings of the words "*a step*" and "*to step*" differ based on their distinct roles in speech. For instance, "*to step*" can be followed by an adverb, whereas "*a step*" cannot, but it can be preceded by an adjective. The placement of a word in relation to other words is referred to as the distribution of the word. As the distribution of "*to step*" and "*a step*" varies, they are classified into different word classes and exhibit dissimilar meanings. This concept also holds true for the multiple meanings of a single word. By examining how a word functions in diverse linguistic contexts and comparing these contexts, we can discern discrepancies in meanings. For example, we can observe the difference of meanings of the verb *to take*. If we examine its functions in different linguistic contexts, the phrase that is used with the verb "take" such as "*to take a seat*" (means "to sit down") can be opposed to "*to take to smb.*" ("*to begin to like someone*"). The term 'context' is defined as the minimum stretch of speech necessary and sufficient to determine which of the possible meanings of a polysemantic word is used.<sup>12</sup> A key aspect of the functional approach is that it considers a linguistic analysis of meaning as an exploration of the relationship between signs only. Specifically, it posits that the meaning of a linguistic unit can only be understood through its connection to either a concept or a referent. Therefore, the functional

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<sup>12</sup> Ginzburg R. Z. A Course in Modern English Lexicology. Leksikologiya angliyskogo yazyka: Uchebnik dlya institutov i fakultetov inostrannykh yazykov. – M.: Vysshaya shkola, 1979. 24 p

approach suggests that examining how a word is used in various contexts and how it relates to other linguistic elements is integral to understanding its meaning. By comparing the functional approach with the referential theory, it becomes evident that they are not mutually exclusive but rather complementary. Rather than opposing the two approaches against each other, it is more valuable to recognize that each approach addresses a unique aspect of the issue, and both are necessary for a comprehensive understanding of meaning in language.<sup>13</sup> Therefore, the functional approach and the referential theory work hand in hand, with the functional approach providing insight into how words function in different contexts, while the referential theory focuses on formulating the meaning based on these functions.

*The operational or information-focused* definitions of meaning revolve around defining meaning based on its function in the communication process. This approach examines how words are used in real contexts and places more emphasis on understanding the mechanics of meaning rather than its essence. In this perspective, meaning is viewed as the information transmitted from the speaker to the listener during communication. This concept applies to both words and sentences, addressing a perceived limitation of the referential approach. However, this operational approach proves to be more suitable for analyzing sentences rather than individual words and still struggles to clearly differentiate between direct meaning and implication (additional information). For example, the sentence “*Ann came at 6 o'clock*” not only conveys the direct meaning of Ann's arrival time but may also imply various scenarios (e.g., lateness, fulfillment of a promise, reluctance to come, punctuality). The implication of the sentence would vary based on the specific communication context, and discussing meaning as conveyed information would lead to an exploration of a multitude of potential communication scenarios. Recognizing the significance of distinguishing between the two layers of conveyed information, separate terms may be employed to

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<sup>13</sup> <https://studfile.net/preview/5082291/page:10/>

differentiate them. The information directly communicated by the elements within the sentence may be termed as “meaning,” while the information inferred from the broader situational context may be referred to as “sense.”

***Types of Meaning.*** Word-meaning is commonly understood to be composed of different components that interact and combine to shape the overall sense of a word. These components are often categorized as types of meaning. The two primary types of meaning that are easily recognizable are grammatical and lexical meanings, which are inherent in words and word-forms. However, an additional type of meaning is identified based on the interplay between these major types, known as part-of-speech (or lexico-grammatical) meaning. This additional category of meaning is derived from the interaction and synthesis of grammatical and lexical meanings within the context of a word or linguistic form. Here we will look through these three types of meanings. ***Grammatical meaning*** is characterized as the expression of relationships between words within speech. It is the aspect of meaning that is consistently present in sets of individual forms of different words, exemplified by elements such as tense in verb forms (“asked,” “thought,” “walked”), case in various nouns (“girl’s,” “boy’s,” “nights”), and plurality in noun forms (“joys,” “tables,” “places”). Grammatical meaning is more abstract and broad in scope compared to lexical meaning, serving to group words into larger categories based on shared features or functions, as demonstrated by the examples provided.

In a broader context, the distinction between lexical and grammatical meaning can be viewed as a differentiation between functional (linguistic) meaning, which governs the relationships and roles of linguistic units, and referential (conceptual) meaning, which pertains to the connections between linguistic units and real-world referents or concepts.

Modern linguistic science acknowledges that certain aspects of grammatical meaning can be discerned through the distribution of linguistic units in relation to others. For instance, words like “speaks,” “reads,” and “writes” share the same

grammatical meaning as they are found in similar distributions, appearing after pronouns like "*he*," "*she*," "*it*," and before adverbs such as "*well*," "*badly*," "*today*," illustrating the importance of distribution in identifying grammatical features and meanings.

This illustrates how the study of distribution can reveal important insights into grammatical meaning and how different linguistic units operate in relation to one another. Identifying a word as a part of speech provides insight into a specific aspect of its meaning since different parts of speech reveal distinct distributions. When comparing the various word forms of a single word, it becomes evident that apart from the grammatical meaning, there is another consistent component of meaning present in all forms. This component remains unchanged across different forms of the word, unlike grammatical meanings which may vary. For example, considering the word forms "*go*," "*goes*," "*went*," "*going*," "*gone*," each form carries distinct grammatical meanings such as tense and person; however, a shared semantic component denoting the concept of movement is universally present in all forms. This enduring semantic aspect inherent in the word, applicable across all its forms, is known as the lexical meaning. It represents the fundamental component of meaning specific to the word as a linguistic unit, persisting throughout its various forms.

***The lexical meaning*** of a word encompasses the inherent meaning specific to the given linguistic unit across all its forms and distributions. For example, the word-forms "*go*," "*goes*," "*went*," "*going*," "*gone*" may express different grammatical features like tense, person, and number, but they all share a common semantic component denoting 'the process of movement.'

Both lexical and grammatical meanings contribute to the overall word-meaning, as one cannot exist without the other. This interdependence is evident in the semantic analysis of corresponding words across different languages. For instance, in Russian, the word "*сведения*" carries a semantic nuance that differs from the English equivalent

"information," as the Russian word includes a grammatical meaning of plurality which is integral to its semantic structure but lacks in the English term.

In certain parts of speech, the predominant component of meaning may be the grammatical type. For instance, in the verb *"to be,"* the prevailing meaning is grammatical, serving as a linking element as seen in the sentence *"He is a teacher."*

***The lexico-grammatical meaning*** is the common denominator of all the meanings of words belonging to a lexico-grammatical class, it is the feature according to which they are grouped together.<sup>14</sup> It is usual to classify lexical items into major word-classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) and minor word-classes (articles, prepositions, conjunctions, etc.).

Each member of a major word class shares a common semantic component that represents a fundamental aspect of the part-of-speech meaning and can be considered as the lexical component. Despite being abstract, this semantic feature serves as a defining characteristic of the word class. For instance, in nouns like *"table," "love," "sugar,"* the shared semantic component of 'thingness' or substantiality is present, irrespective of their grammatical distinctions in terms of number, case, etc. It is important to note that the grammatical aspect of part-of-speech meanings is typically conveyed through a specific set of forms. When we classify a word as a noun, for example, we are implying that it will have a group of forms that express grammatical features such as number (*e.g., "tree" to "trees"*), case (*e.g., "student" to "student's"*), and so on. Similarly, a verb is expected to have sets of forms that indicate grammatical nuances like tense (*e.g., "worked" to "works"*), mood (*e.g., "work!" to "(I) work"*), and others.

***The part-of-speech meaning*** of words that have only one form, such as prepositions and certain adverbs, is primarily understood through their distribution in language usage. For instance, the part-of-speech meaning of prepositions like *"at"* or

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<sup>14</sup> Arnold I.V. The English Word. Moskva, 1986

"by" can be interpreted based on how they are used in relation to other words, like *"the table"* or *"under the table"*.

At a different level, the operation of grammatical meaning extends to minor word classes including articles, pronouns, etc. Although these members are typically listed in dictionaries like other vocabulary items, they are distinct as they belong to closed sets with limited membership, such as in the case of modern English pronouns and articles.

A key criterion for distinguishing between grammatical items and lexical items is based on the classification of closed and open sets. Grammatical units form closed sets comprising a small number of items, such as pronouns and articles in English, and do not typically see new additions. In contrast, lexical items belong to open sets with an indefinitely large membership, consistently expanding with the creation of new words to meet the evolving needs of language users.

The relationship between lexical and grammatical meanings, along with their respective roles, varies across different word classes and even within groups of words within the same class. In certain parts of speech, the predominant component of meaning may be the grammatical type, while in others, such as verbs, the lexical meaning tends to be more prominent. For example, while prepositions generally have relatively vague lexical meanings, some may have clearer distinctions, as seen in the difference between "in" and "on" or "under the table". Similarly, in verbs, the focus is often on the lexical meaning, but in cases like the verb "to be," the grammatical meaning of a linking element takes precedence, as in *"he works as a teacher"* versus *"he is a teacher."*

The essence of part-of-speech meaning is most apparent through the classification of lexical items into major word classes like nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, as well as minor word classes such as articles, prepositions, and conjunctions. Within major word classes, a common, abstract semantic component is shared by all members, despite variations in grammatical features like number and case. For instance,

nouns like *"table," "love,"* and *"sugar"* all convey a sense of thingness or substantiality, regardless of their grammatical distinctions.

The grammatical aspect of part-of-speech meaning is typically conveyed through a set of forms associated with a particular word class. For example, when defining a word as a noun, we understand that it will include forms expressing grammatical distinctions such as number (*e.g., "room" to "rooms"*) and case (*e.g., "boy" to "boys"*). In contrast, some words like prepositions and certain adverbs have only one form, and their part-of-speech meaning is primarily observed in their distribution within sentences. For instance, the part-of-speech meaning of prepositions like *"in"* or adverbs like *"here"* is evident in their usage in phrases such as *"to come in (here, there)"* and *"in (on, under) the table."*

Within the broader framework of lexical meaning, several distinct aspects can be identified, including:

- 1) The denotational aspect
- 2) The connotational aspect
- 3) The pragmatic aspect

The denotational aspect of lexical meaning pertains to the conceptual content of a word and establishes a relationship between the word and the object, process, phenomenon, or characteristic it signifies in reality or thought. The denotational aspect essentially conveys the core, referential meaning of a word, representing the main information communicated during language interactions. For example, the denotational meaning of *"booklet"* is 'a small thin book that provides information about something,' encapsulating the fundamental concept associated with that specific term. This denotational aspect plays a significant role in communication by conveying the essential, conceptual content of a word.

“The information communicated by the virtue of what the word refers to is often subject to complex associations originating in habitual contexts, verbal or

situational, of which the speaker and the listener are aware of, they give the word its connotative meaning”<sup>15</sup>.

*The connotational aspect* of lexical meaning is the part of meaning which reflects the attitude of the speaker towards what he speaks about. Connotation conveys additional information in the process of communication, it is a set of associations that a word's use can evoke. Connotation can include:

- 1) *the emotive charge*, e.g. daddy as compared to father;
- 2) *evaluation*, which may be positive or negative, e.g. clique (a small group of people who seem unfriendly to other people) as compared to group (a set of people);
- 3) *intensity* (or *expressiveness*), e.g. adore as compared to love;
- 4) *imagery*, e.g. *to wade* – to walk with an effort (through mud, water or anything that makes progress difficult). The figurative use of the word gives rise to another meaning which is based on the same image as the first – *to wade through a book*.

Understanding the semantic features of words is essential in fields such as psycholinguistics, cognitive psychology, and computational linguistics. By examining the semantic features of words, researchers can gain insights into how language is organized and how meaning is represented in the human mind. Additionally, semantic features play a crucial role in natural language processing, machine learning, and artificial intelligence, where understanding the meaning of words is fundamental to tasks such as language understanding and generation.

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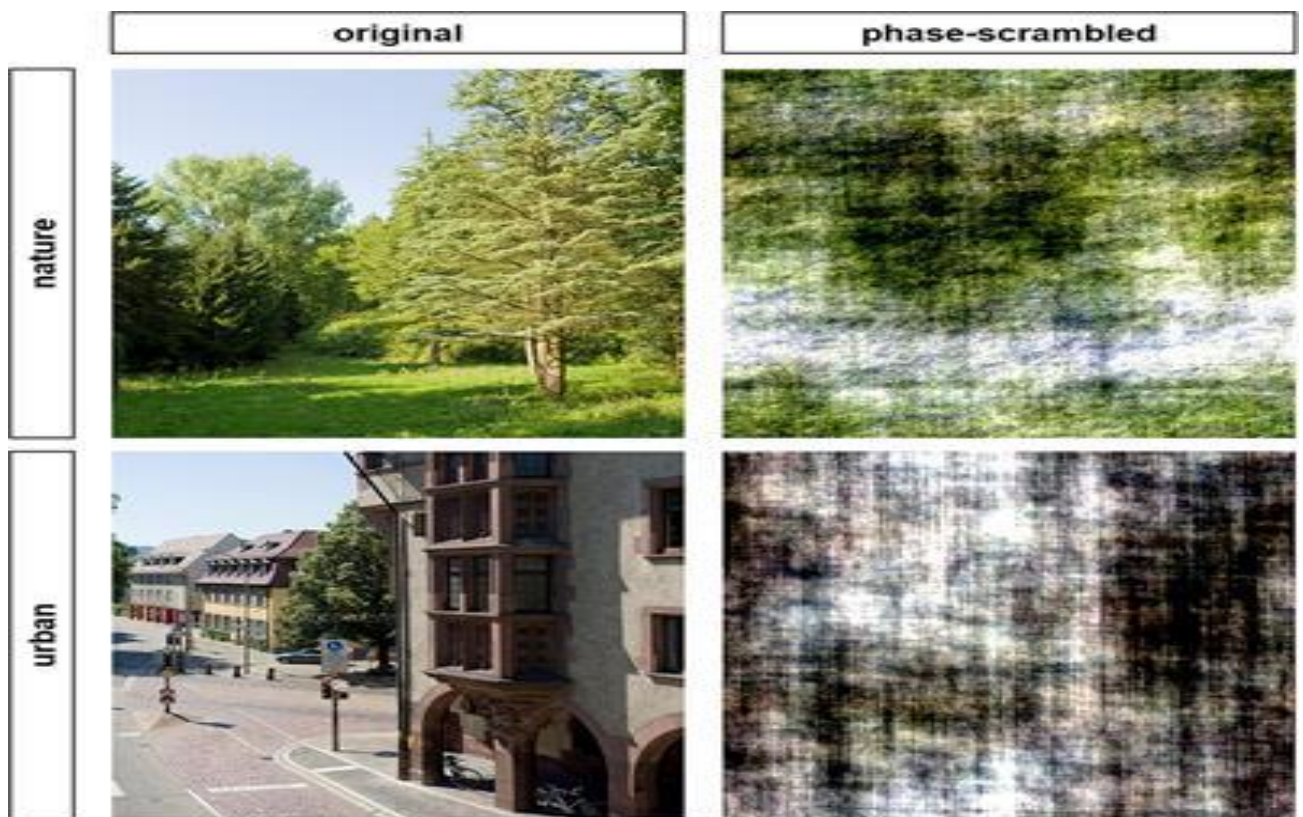
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## **UNIT V. CONCEPT OF SEMANTIC FIELD**

### **PLAN:**

1. Nature of semantic change
2. Semantic features of English words
3. Homonyms
4. Classification of homonyms

**Ket concepts:** *Nature of semantic change, monosemantic and polysemantic words, homonyms, features of homonyms, extension of meaning, classification of homonyms*



### Nature of semantic change

Word meaning is responsible for adjusting in the course of the historical development of the language. According to most scholars the features accounting for semantic changes may be roughly subdivided into two groups:

- extra-linguistic;
- linguistic.

Semantic change in language can be caused by a variety of factors, including external influences and internal linguistic processes. Some causes of semantic change include:

#### 1. Extra-linguistic causes:

These are changes in the social, economic, and cultural aspects of the speech community that can lead to shifts in the meanings of words. For example, changes in social structures and societal concepts can impact language. An example is the Old English term "*hlaford*," which originally meant "*bread-keeper*," but evolved to signify "master" or "ruler" later on.

## 2. Linguistic causes:

a. Discrimination/ Differentiation of Synonyms: The discrimination or differentiation of synonyms over time can lead to semantic changes. For instance, in Old English, the word "*land*" had multiple meanings like 'solid part of the earth's surface' and 'the territory of a nation.' When the synonym "*country*" was borrowed in Middle English, the meaning of "*land*" shifted, and 'the territory of a nation' came to be associated with the borrowed term "*country*."

b. Ellipsis: Ellipsis occurs when one word in a phrase is omitted, and its meaning is transferred to the partner word. An example is the Old English term "*to starve*," which originally meant 'to die' and was paired with the word 'hunger.' Over time, the verb 'to starve' itself acquired the meaning of 'to die of hunger.'

c. Fixed Context: Fixed contexts or set expressions can also contribute to semantic change. When the word "*token*" was introduced alongside the loanword "*sign*," it became limited in usage to specific expressions like "*love token*" or "*token of respect*," leading to a specialization in its meaning.

These various causes demonstrate how semantic change can occur in language due to both external influences and internal linguistic processes, highlighting the dynamic nature of language evolution.

**Semantic change** is a natural process in language evolution, and it involves a connection between the old meaning of a word and its new meaning. Two types of associations play a role in semantic change:

### 1. Similarity of meanings (metaphor):

Metaphor involves connecting two referents based on resemblance or similarity between them. For example, the word "*hand*" acquired the meaning 'pointer of a clock or a watch' due to the similarity of function - 'to point to something' performed by both hands.

### 2. Contiguity of meanings (metonymy):

Metonymy associates two referents where one is a part of, or closely connected to, the other. An example is the use of the word "*tongue*" (organ of speech) to refer to 'language' in expressions like "mother tongue." Similarly, the word "*bench*" came to mean 'judges' as judges used to sit on benches in law courts.

#### Results of Semantic Change:

Semantic change can result in changes to the denotational meaning of words, leading to either restriction or extension of meaning.

- Restriction of meaning occurs when a word narrows its meaning over time. For instance, "*hound*" used to refer to 'a dog of any breed' but now specifically denotes 'a dog used in the chase.'

- Extension of meaning involves a broadening of a word's meaning. For example, "target" originally meant 'a small round shield' but now refers to 'anything that is fired at'.

Additionally, semantic change can affect the connotational aspect of meaning, resulting in either melioration (improvement) or deterioration of meaning.

- Deterioration of meaning involves a word acquiring a negative connotation. For instance, "*boor*" originally meant 'a peasant' but came to imply 'a clumsy or ill-bred fellow.'

- Amelioration of meaning implies an enhancement of the connotational aspect. For example, "*minister*" originally denoting 'a servant' now refers to 'a civil servant of higher rank, a person administering a department of state.'

These examples illustrate how semantic change can lead to shifts in the meanings of words, influenced by various associative processes and societal shifts over time.

**Polysemy** is a significant aspect of language that plays a crucial role in understanding the meaning and usage of words. A polysemantic word is one that has multiple meanings, while a monosemantic word has only one meaning. Monosemantic words are relatively few in number and are often scientific terms, whereas the majority of English words are considered polysemantic.

V.V. Vinogradov, a Russian linguist, emphasized the distinction between meaning and usage. Meanings are fixed and common to all language users, representing the core concept conveyed by a word. Usage, on the other hand, pertains to how a specific meaning of a polysemantic word is applied in context, which can vary from individual to individual.

A.I. Smirnitsky built upon Vinogradov's theory and introduced the concept of a "lexico-semantic variant" (LSV). An LSV is a two-faceted unit consisting of the formal aspect (sound-form of a word) and the content aspect (one of the meanings of the word, denoting a particular class of objects). Polysemantic words have multiple LSVs, reflecting their various meanings.

All LSVs of a word form a coherent semantic structure that ensures the semantic unity of the word. The concept of a "semantic center" is pivotal in understanding polysemy within a word. The semantic center represents the consistent core meaning that remains constant across all LSVs of the word, providing a unifying anchor for the word's diverse meanings. The word in one of its meanings is termed a lexico -semantic variant of this word, e.g., the word *yellow* has at least 9 lexico-semantic variants:<sup>16</sup>

- the colour between green and orange
- denoting a warning of danger which is thought to be near but not actually imminent.
- not brave; cowardly. (informal)
- showing jealousy or suspicion. (archaic)
- lurid and sensational (of a style of writing, especially in journalism)
- a yellow ball or piece in a game or sport, especially the yellow ball in snooker.
- used in names of moths or butterflies that are mainly yellow in colour.

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<sup>16</sup>[https://www.google.com/search?q=meaning+of+the+word+yellow&sca\\_esv=601299113&rlz=1C1GCEA\\_enUZ1023UZ1023&sxsrf=ACQVn0\\_PGPDA](https://www.google.com/search?q=meaning+of+the+word+yellow&sca_esv=601299113&rlz=1C1GCEA_enUZ1023UZ1023&sxsrf=ACQVn0_PGPDA)

-any of a number of plant diseases in which the leaves turn yellow, typically caused by viruses and transmitted by insects.

*verb form*

-become yellow, especially with age.

- having or showing a shameful lack of courage you'll come with us into the cave, unless you're yellow.

There can be distinguished two approaches to semantic features of words.: *diachronic and synchronic*.

Within the diachronic approach, polysemy suggests that a word can maintain its original meaning or meanings while also acquiring one or several new ones over time. In this perspective, the semantic structure of a word can be divided into two types of meaning: primary meaning and secondary meaning.

In the synchronic approach, it refers to the coexistence of various meanings of the same word at a specific historical period in the development of the English language. For example, when we encounter the word "yellow," the meaning that first comes to mind is "a color of smth." This primary meaning is regarded as the central or basic meaning of the word, while all other meanings are considered marginal or minor meanings.

This distinction allows for a comprehensive understanding of how a word's meaning evolves over time and how different meanings of the same word can coexist within a specific historical context.

Synchronically analyzing the word *yellow* the following question arises:

Do all the nine meanings of the word *yellow* equally represent the occur only in certain contexts?

Semantic change is a natural process in language evolution that involves the alteration of word meanings over time. These changes can be attributed to both extra-linguistic and linguistic factors, and they are often influenced by associations between existing and new meanings. Such associations can be based on similarity of meaning

(metaphor) or contiguity of meaning (metonymy). Semantic changes in the denotational component may lead to the extension or restriction of meaning, while changes in the connotational component can result in pejorative or ameliorative shifts in meaning.

***Homonyms*** are words that are different in meaning but either identical or similar in sound and/or spelling. The abundance of homonyms in Modern English is often attributed to the monosyllabic structure of commonly used English words. Homonymy refers to words that are identical in sound or spelling but have different meanings. In Modern English, there is a rich variety of homonymous words, with some suggesting that the prevalence of monosyllabic words in the English language contributes to the abundance of homonyms.

Homonyms can be categorized as full (where all word forms are homonymous) or partial (where only some forms are homonymous). They can also be divided based on the type of meaning they represent:

1. **Lexical Homonyms:** These differ in lexical meaning but have identical grammatical meanings in all forms. For example, "seal" can refer to a sea animal or a design imprinted on paper by a stamp.

2. **Lexico-Grammatical Homonyms:** These belong to different parts of speech and involve a blend of lexical and grammatical semantic components. For instance, the verbs "find" and "found" are lexico-grammatical homonyms where the Past Tense and Present Tense differ both grammatically and lexically.

3. **Grammatical Homonyms:** These include forms in paradigms where certain word forms are homonymous. For example, in verb paradigms, the Past Tense form may be homonymous with the Participle II form, such as "asked - asked."

Classifications of homonymy can be combined, considering both the homonymy of all forms and the type of meaning differences between homonymous words or word forms. Some linguists also include graphic form in their analysis and classify homonyms into homographs (identical in spelling but different in sound and meaning),

homophones (identical in sound but different in spelling and meaning), and perfect homonyms (identical in spelling, sound, but different in meaning).

***Homographs.*** Examples of homographs in Modern English include "bow" (a piece of curved wood for shooting arrows) and "bow" (the bending of the head or body). Homophones, such as "sea" and "see," sound the same but differ in spelling and meaning. Perfect homonyms like "case" (an event) and "case" (a container) are identical in both spelling and sound but have distinct meanings.

***Homophones*** are words that sound the same but have different meanings, like "air" and "heir." Homographs are words that are different in sound and meaning but share the same spelling, for example, "*bow*" and "*bow*."

A.I. Smirnitsky's classification of homonyms adds a criterion of grammatical meaning, categorizing homonyms into lexical (no link between lexical meanings), grammatical (different parts of speech), and lexico-grammatical categories. Full homonyms are identical in sound and all forms, while partial homonyms share identical sounds in some forms.

We can generalize that homonyms are words that have the same spelling or pronunciation but different meanings. They play a crucial role in language, emphasizing the importance of context in understanding and interpreting words. By being mindful of homonyms, individuals can improve their communication skills, avoid misunderstandings, and enhance clarity in both written and spoken language. Awareness of homonyms also helps in developing vocabulary and honing language proficiency. Overall, understanding homonyms is essential for effective communication and language comprehension.

Homonyms are important for several reasons:

*-Contextual Understanding:* Homonyms highlight the significance of context in deciphering the intended meaning of a word. They teach us to consider the surrounding words and phrases to correctly interpret the message.



*-Enhanced Communication:* Being aware of homonyms aids in effective communication by reducing the risk of miscommunication or confusion. It encourages individuals to choose their words thoughtfully to convey precise meanings.

*- Language Development:* Learning about homonyms can help expand vocabulary and improve language skills. It challenges individuals to explore different meanings and applications of words, fostering linguistic growth.

*-Clarity and Precision:* Using homonyms correctly can enhance the clarity and precision of one's writing and speech. It encourages individuals to be specific and concise in their expressions.

*-Critical Thinking:* Dealing with homonyms necessitates critical thinking skills as one must analyze the context, select the appropriate meaning, and communicate effectively. It promotes cognitive development and problem-solving abilities.

In conclusion, understanding homonyms is vital for effective communication, language development, clarity in expression, and fostering critical thinking skills. By recognizing and utilizing homonyms correctly, individuals can elevate their language proficiency and enhance their overall communication competence.

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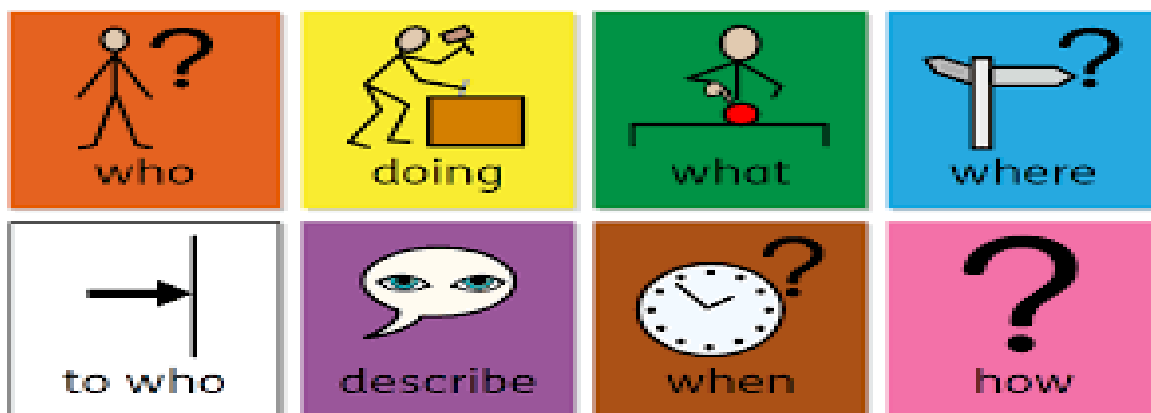
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## UNIT VI. SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS

### PLAN:

1. Basic Principles of Grouping Words
2. Synonyms. Antonyms
3. Euphemism
4. Terminological and Lexical Sets
5. Lexico-Semantic Groups

**Key terms:** *synonymy, synonymic dominant, euphemism, antonyms, contradictories, contraries, incompatibles, lexical set, terminological set, lexico-semantic group, semantic field, the common denominator of meaning.*



*Learn the information below;*

**Basic principles of grouping words.** There are two basic principles of grouping words together according to the properties of their content side.

1. To classify words proceeding from the basic types of semantic relations.
2. To group words together starting off with associations connecting the given words with other vocabulary units.

According to these principles of classifying linguistic units the following semantic classes (or categories) can be singled out: 1) synonyms; 2) antonyms; 3) lexical and terminological sets; 4) lexico-semantic groups; 5) semantic fields.<sup>17</sup>

**Synonymy** refers to a semantic relationship between linguistic elements where the essential meanings coincide, albeit with variations in connotations and stylistic characteristics. It is important to recognize that synonymy does not present a perfect linguistic category. In actual human languages, complete equivalence of meaning between two words is rarely observed, as no two words are entirely identical in all aspects of their meanings, connotations, usage, register features, or frequency of occurrence.

Synonyms are typically defined as words belonging to the same part of speech, sharing closely related meanings, and being interchangeable in some contexts. They can exhibit either semantic equivalence or semantic proximity. Depending on the level of semantic closeness, different types of synonyms can be identified. Full (total) synonyms, which demonstrate complete semantic equivalence, are exceedingly rare in practice due to the nuanced variations that exist between words in terms of their meanings and usage. This understanding of synonymy underscores the complexities involved in identifying words with truly identical meanings and highlights the nuances that exist within the concept of synonymy in natural language.

**Synonyms** are words that are different in sound but have identical or similar meanings in some or all contexts. The term "synonym," originating from Greek, means "same" + "name." There are various definitions of synonyms, but they are generally understood as words with similar meanings that can be interchangeably used in certain contexts.

The problem of synonymy is treated differently by Russian and foreign scientists. Among numerous definitions of the term in our linguistics the most

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<sup>17</sup> [https://ciu.nstu.ru/kaf/persons/1570/a/file\\_get/207290%3Fnomenu%3D1](https://ciu.nstu.ru/kaf/persons/1570/a/file_get/207290%3Fnomenu%3D1)

comprehensive and full one is suggested by I.V. Arnold: "Synonyms are two or more words of the same meaning, belonging to the same part of speech, possessing one or more identical meaning, interchangeable at least in some contexts without any considerable alteration in denotational meaning, but differing in morphemic composition, phonemic shape, shades of meaning, connotation, affective value, style, emotional coloring and valence peculiar to one of the elements in a synonymic group"<sup>18</sup>.

The semantic distinction between synonyms is supported by differences in valency and distribution. Valency is a permanent differentiating characteristic that always accompanies differences in semantic features among synonymous words.

Here, we can give examples to synonyms in English and Uzbek;

in Uzbek e.g., *chiroyli* – *go‘zal* – *xushbichim*;

in English, e.g. *beautiful* – *pretty* – *charming*.

In most linguistic resources a classification of synonyms is indicated through four main types:

*Ideographic synonyms*: These synonyms convey the same general notion but possess variations in shades of meaning. Examples include pairs like "*understand* - *realize*," "*expect* - *anticipate*," "*look* - *glance* - *stare* - *peep* - *gaze*," "*healthy* - *wholesome* - *sound* - *sane*," and "*walk* - *pace* - *stride* - *stroll*."

*Stylistic synonyms*: These synonyms differ primarily in their stylistic characteristics while maintaining similar core meanings. Examples include alternatives like "*begin* - *commence*," "*enemy* - *opponent* - *foe* - *adversary*," "*help* - *aid* - *assist*," and "*terrible* - *horrible* - *atrocious*." In practice, the distinction between ideographic and stylistic synonyms can sometimes blur as they are interconnected. Differences in the connotational component often accompany variations in the denotational meanings of synonyms. Therefore, it may be more accurate to categorize synonymous words into

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<sup>18</sup> Arnold I. V. *Leksikologiya angliyskogo yazyika* / I. V. Arnold. –M.: Vyysshaya Shkola, 1986

ideographic, stylistic, and ideographic-stylistic synonyms. For instance, words like *"intelligent - shrewd - clever - bright - sagacious"* may fall under this combined category.

*Absolute (or perfect, complete) synonyms*: These are words that coincide in all aspects of meaning and stylistic characteristics. However, absolute synonyms are rare in language, as it is uncommon for words to share identical meanings across all shades of meaning and stylistic nuances.

*Phraseological synonyms* are fixed expressions or idioms that convey similar meanings but are distinct in their wording or structure. These phrases are common in language and are often used interchangeably to convey a specific idea or concept. While traditional synonyms refer to individual words that share similar meanings, phraseological synonyms involve entire phrases that convey equivalent or similar meanings.

Example of phraseological synonyms include:

*"Kick the bucket"* and *"bite the dust"* - Both phrases are used to mean passing away or dying.

*"Hit the sack"* and *"hit the hay"* - Both phrases are used to mean going to bed or getting some sleep.

*"Cost an arm and a leg"* and *"break the bank"* - Both phrases are used to indicate something is expensive or costs a lot.

Phraseological synonyms are valuable in language as they add variety and richness to communication. They offer different ways to express similar ideas and allow for creativity and flexibility in language use.

By understanding the nuanced differences between these types of synonyms, linguists can gain insight into how language nuances are expressed through variations in meaning, style, and connotation within the vocabulary of a language.

***Antonyms***, derived from the Greek words meaning 'opposite' + 'name,' are words categorized based on their semantic relation of opposition. Typically, antonyms refer

to words within the same part of speech that have contrasting meanings, such as "*big - small*" or "*short - long*."

Antonymy is not evenly distributed across all parts of speech. Adjectives commonly feature antonyms as they lend themselves well to comparison and contrast. Verbal antonyms are less common (e.g., "*to give - to take*," "*to live - to die*"), and nouns also have fewer antonyms (e.g., "*friend - enemy*," "*love - hatred*"). Antonymic adverbs can be divided into those derived from adjectives (e.g., "*quickly - slowly*") and those that are adverbs in their own right (e.g., "*now - then*," "*ever - never*").

There are various classifications of antonyms, including structural and semantic categories:

Structural classification divides antonyms into those with the same root (e.g., "*to motivate - to demotivate*," "*hopeful - hopeless*") and those with different roots (e.g., "*good - bad*," "*to die - to live*").

Semantically, antonyms can be categorized into different types:

*Contraries*: These are gradable antonyms arranged in a series based on increasing differences in qualities, such as "*cold - cool - warm - hot*."

*Contradictories*: These represent pairs like "*dead - alive*," "*single - married*" that mutually negate each other, forming a binary opposition.

*Incompatibles*: These antonyms imply exclusion, where the use of one member of the set automatically excludes the other member, such as "*morning - evening*" or "*north - south*."

*Conversives*: These antonyms denote the same situation from different perspectives with a reversal of roles, such as "*husband - wife*," "*teacher - pupil*," "*to buy - to sell*." One antonym in a converse pair suggests the presence of the other, as in the relationships between *buyer and seller* or *teacher and student*.

*Vectorial (or directional) antonyms* are words denoting differently directed actions, features, etc.: *up – down, to rise – to fall, to arrive – to depart, clockwise –*

*anticlockwise, to button – to unbutton, to appear – to disappear, to increase – to decrease, to learn – to forget.*

Not every word has an antonym, though practically every word has a synonym. Words of concrete denotation have no antonyms (*table, blackboard*). Unlike synonyms, antonyms do not differ either in style, emotional coloring or distribution.<sup>19</sup>

Antonyms are words within the same part of speech that share a common denotational meaning but express contrasting points or opposite notions. They have identical grammatical and lexical valency, often appearing in similar contexts. Antonyms serve as a valuable group of expressive tools in language, providing a means to convey contrast, opposition, and varying shades of meaning within verbal communication.

**Euphemism** is the act of using mild or vague language to replace rough or unpleasant expressions. It is often referred to figuratively as a "white-washing device" and serves to make unpleasant words or expressions more socially acceptable.

Euphemisms are used to replace words that may be considered harsh, blunt, or inappropriate with more conventionally acceptable alternatives. For example, "to die" can be euphemized as "to expire", "to pass away", "to depart", "to join the majority", "to kick the bucket", among others. Similarly, "pregnant" can be euphemized as "in the family way". Speakers use euphemisms to avoid direct confrontation with taboo topics that are embarrassing, frightening, or uncomfortable, such as God, the devil, sex, death, money, war, crime, or religion. These topics are often considered cross-cultural taboos, leading to the creation of euphemisms as a linguistic consequence of cultural norms.

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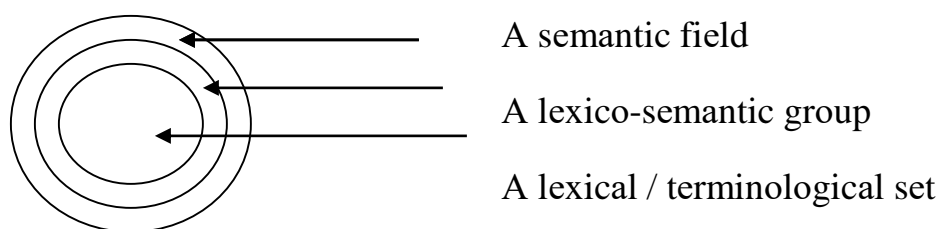
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Euphemisms are likely to remain a prevalent linguistic phenomenon, as they serve the purpose of softening language in sensitive situations and have become ingrained in everyday communication.

### ***Terminological and lexico-semantic groups of words***

According to certain principles words may be grouped in different units such as lexical sets, terminological sets, lexico-semantic groups and semantic fields (see Diagram).

Relationship between the semantic classes



Terminological and lexico-semantic groups of words are important units in linguistics that help categorize words based on specific principles. These groupings serve to organize vocabulary and highlight relationships between words in terms of their meanings and usage.

#### ***Lexical Sets:***

Lexical sets refer to groups of words that share common features or belong to the same semantic category. These sets are based on similarities in meaning, usage, or form. For example, a lexical set for colors might include words like "*red*," "*blue*," and "*green*."

#### ***Terminological Sets:***

Terminological sets consist of words that are specific to a particular field or domain of knowledge. These terms are often technical or specialized in nature and may not be commonly used outside of that specific context. For example, in the field of



medicine, terminological sets may include words like "*diagnosis*," "*symptomatology*," and "*treatment*."

#### *Lexico-Semantic Groups:*

Lexico-semantic groups organize words based on both their lexical (meaning-related) and semantic (contextual meaning) characteristics. These groups highlight connections between words that share similar meanings but may differ in usage. For example, a lexico-semantic group for animals might include words like "*dog*," "*cat*," and "*horse*," which are all related to the animal kingdom.

#### *Semantic Fields:*

Semantic fields are broader categories that encompass related concepts and ideas. These fields reflect the interconnectedness of words within a specific domain of meaning. For example, a semantic field for emotions might include words like "*happy*," "*sad*," "*angry*," and "*excited*," all related to feelings and moods.

Semantic classes represent categories or groupings of words based on shared meanings or characteristics. These classes can intersect and overlap, creating relationships between words within the same semantic field or domain. By organizing words into semantic classes, linguists can study how language conveys meaning and how words relate to one another conceptually.

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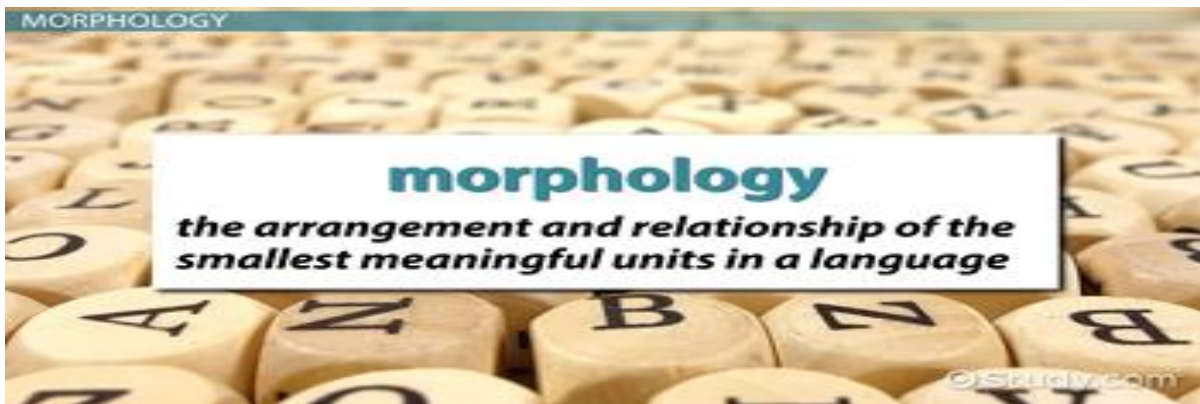
## UNIT VII. MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF WORDS

### PLAN:

1. Morphology is a branch of lexicology
2. Morpheme and its types
3. Allomorphs are non-meaningful variants of a morpheme
4. Stems and complex words

**Pre reading task.** Work in pairs and discuss the following questions with your partner

1. What is morpheme?
2. What do you know about prefixes and suffixes in a word?
3. Is there difference between morpheme and syllable?
4. What is the difference between a word and a morpheme?
5. Define the types of morphemes according to.....



**Key concepts:** *free morpheme, bound morpheme, derivation, inflection, allomorph, stem, affixes, syllable, root, grammatical meaning, paradigm, internal structure*

**Read the information and make a note based on it:**

Morphology is the study of the internal structure of words and forms a essential part of linguistic study today. The term morphology is Greek and is a makeup of morph-

meaning ‘shape, form’, and -ology which means ‘the study of something’. Morphology as a sub-discipline of linguistics was named for the first time in 1859 by the German linguist August Schleicher who used the term for the study of the form of words.<sup>20</sup> Morphology is considered to deal with the syntax of complex words and parts of words, also called **morphemes**, as well as with the semantics of their lexical meanings. Understanding how words are formed and what semantic properties they convey through their forms enables human beings to easily recognize individual words and their meanings in discourse. Here we will define some key concepts on morphology.

A morpheme represents the smallest unit of meaning in a language. In contrast to a phoneme, which is the smallest distinctive sound unit, a morpheme doesn't carry grammatical or semantic significance on its own. When examining the words "the," "boy," "runs," and "unlucky," it's apparent that the first two, "the" and "boy," are indivisible morphemes. They can't be further segmented into units conveying separate meanings. Conversely, "runs" can be broken down into "run" and "-s," each with distinct semantic and grammatical connotations. Similarly, "unlucky" comprises three morphemes: "un-," "luck," and "-y."

Analysis at a morphological level is focused on structural elements of meaning called **morphemes**. Morphemes are classified into two types:

***Free Morphemes***: girl, boy, mother, etc. These are words with a complete meaning, so they can stand alone as an *independent word* in a sentence.

***Bound Morphemes***: They are lexical items integrated into a word as a *dependent part*. They cannot be used alone in a language, they must be connected to another morpheme. Bound morphemes function in the connection processes by means of derivation, inflection, and compounding.

***Derivational morphemes*** change the meaning or the part of speech of a word (i.e., they are morphemes by which we “derive” a new word). Examples are *un-*, which

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<sup>20</sup> <https://www.sheffield.ac.uk/linguistics/home/all-about-linguistics/about-website/branches-linguistics/morphology/what-morphology>

gives a negative meaning to the word it is added to, *-y*, which turns nouns into adjectives, or *-ness*, which turns adjectives into nouns.

**Inflectional morphemes** add grammatical information to the word, such as *-s* on *runs*, which tells us that it is 3rd person singular present tense verb, or the *-s* on *boys*, which tells us that there is more than one boy.

There are eight inflectional suffixes, often just called “inflections,” in English:

1. *-s* on verbs: 3rd person sg, present tense (he runs, she walks)
2. *-ed* on verbs: past tense: (I walked, they joined)
3. *-ing* on verbs: progressive (I was walking; they were joining)
4. *-en* on verbs: past participle (I was beaten; she has eaten)
5. *-s* on nouns: plural (boys, books)
6. *-’s* on nouns; possessive (boy’s, book’s)
7. *-er* on adjectives: comparative (quicker, slower)
8. *-est* on adjectives: superlative (quickest; slowest)

Several of these inflections are similar phonologically, but do not confuse them. The *-s* on the end of 3rd person singular verbs, the *-s* plural on nouns, and the *-’s* possessive ending are the same purely by coincidence. Also, do not confuse the *-ing* inflectional ending used to make verbs progressive (“I am singing”) with the derivational morpheme *-ing* used to make verbs into nouns (“Singing is a fun thing to do”). They sound the same, but they are used differently. Finally, do not let spelling confuse you. We signify possessive plurals in spelling by adding an apostrophe to the end of the word (e.g., *boys’*) but the only inflectional ending here is the s-plural. The apostrophe is just a spelling convention.

There is one final distinction between different kinds of morphemes:

**content morphemes**, which have a clear semantic meaning:

*- less, luck, un-, -y, boy*

**function morphemes** include all inflectional morphemes like *-s*, and *-ed*, but also include free morphemes such as *the, of, with, and, but*, and other similar words.

These words signify the grammatical relationships between words and give structure to a sentence.

***Allomorphs*** are non-meaningful variants of a morpheme. For example, the -s plural takes three distinct phonological forms, [s], [z], and [ɪz], in the words boys [bɔɪz], books [bʊks], and dishes [dɪʃɪz]. These phonological distinctions are considered non-meaningful, making these allomorphs of the -s plural morpheme.

In lexicology there are types of affixes that are called Derivational and Functional affixes. Following, we can define their features in linguistics.

**Functional affixes** indeed play a crucial role in modifying the form of words to indicate grammatical features and subclasses, without creating entirely new words. This process allows for clear communication of tense, number, possession, and other grammatical distinctions within a language. Additionally, the concept of word forms and paradigms is fundamental in the study of inflection and grammar. Understanding a word's various forms within its paradigm is essential for grasping its full grammatical functionality and usage in a given language.

***Derivational affixes*** is concerned with the way morphemes are connected to existing lexical forms as **affixes**.

We distinguish affixes in two principal types:

1. Prefixes - attached at the beginning of a lexical item or base-morpheme – ex: un-, pre-, post-, dis, im-, etc.
2. Suffixes – attached at the end of a lexical item ex: -age, -ing, -ful, -able, -ness, -er, -ship, -hood, -ly, etc.

In the following table we can see several examples to some widely used English prefixes and suffixes:

<b>Prefixes</b>	<b>Suffixes</b>
de+ <b>base</b>	employ+ <b>ment</b>

<b>re+write</b>	<b>water+less</b>
<b>dis+prove</b>	<b>frang+ible</b>
<b>il+legal</b>	<b>frenz+y</b>
<b>dis+like</b>	<b>fulmin+ate</b>
<b>im+possible</b>	<b>gorge+ous</b>
<b>ir+responsible</b>	<b>grate+ful</b>
<b>inter+fere</b>	<b>hunt+er</b>
<b>mis+understand</b>	<b>nation+al+ize</b>
<b>non+stop</b>	<b>profess+or</b>
<b>pre+judge</b>	<b>prob+ation</b>
<b>in+side</b>	<b>friend+ship</b>

In linguistics there is a term “an infix” that is a type of affixes. It is an *infix* and like prefixes and suffixes, infixes are part of the general class of affixes <sup>21</sup>("sounds or letters attached to or inserted within a word to produce a derivative word or an inflectional form"). Infixes are relatively rare in English, but you can find them in the plural forms of some words. For example, *cupful*, *spoonful*, and *passerby* can be pluralized s *cupsful*, *spoonsful*, and *passersby*, using "s" as an infix. Another example is the insertion of an (often offensive) intensifier into a word, as in "fan-freakin'-tastic." Such whole-word insertions are sometimes called *infixes*, though this phenomenon is more traditionally known as tmesis.

### ***Plurality inflection***

<b>Singular</b>	<b>Plural</b>
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<sup>21</sup> <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/infix#:~:text=Infixes%20are%20relatively%20rare%20in,%22s%22%20as%20an%20infix.>

Computer	computer+s
judge	judge+s
country	countr+ies
dress	dresses
fox	foxes
buzz	buzzes
fly	flies

### ***Tense Inflection***

Present	Past
Play	Played
Rule	Ruled
Cry	cried
fix	fixed
like	liked
dress	dressed

Here we will analyze an example to lexical items via the word ***like***:

1. Lexical item (free morpheme): like (verb) + prefix (bound morpheme) dis-= dislike (verb);
2. Lexical item: *to like* (verb)= + suffix *-able* = likeable (adj)= + prefix *un-*=unlikeable (adj)= + suffix *-ness* = unlikeableness
3. Lexical item: *like* (adj)= simile + prefix *un-* = unlike (adj)= dissimile + suffix *-ness* = unlikeness (noun) = dissimilarity;
4. Lexical item: *like* (adj)= simile + suffix *-ly* = *likely* (adj)= probable + suffix *-hood* =*likelihood* (noun)=+ prefix *un* =*unlikelihood* (noun)

Victoria A. Fromkin *et al.* (2000) name morphemes that represent categories of words as **lexical morphemes**. They refer to:

- items (*book, pen, table*, etc.),
- actions (*go, run, swim*, etc.),
- attributes (*red, fair, long, short*, etc.),
- concepts (*theory, notion*, etc.) that can be described with words or illustrated with pictures.

Such morphemes as *-ly, un-, -ed, -s, a, the, an, about, to, this, that, etc.* are considered **grammatical morphemes**; the speaker uses them to signal the relationship between a word and the context in which they are used. Prepositions and determiners belong to grammatical morphemes because they express only a limited range of concepts. It should be noted that not all lexical morphemes are free morphemes, and not all grammatical morphemes are bound morphemes. Such grammatical morphemes as prepositions (*about, for, to*, etc.) and determiners (*this, that, a, an, the*, etc.) are free morphemes because they can stand alone.

**Affixes.** Complex words such as *correlation, writer, assistant*, and others have internal structure. It is necessary not only to identify each component of the morphemes but also to classify them according to their contribution to the meaning and function of complex words.

**Complex words** consist of a **root** and one or more **affixes**. The root constitutes the core of the word and carries the major component of its meaning. Roots belong to a lexical category such as noun (N), verb (V), adjective (Adj), adverb (Adv), and preposition (P). Unlike roots, affixes are bound morphemes, and they do not belong to a lexical category. When an affix is attached to the root, the form is called a **base** or a **stem**. They may be used interchangeably. Sometimes a **base** corresponds to the word's **root**; for example, in *cat*, the root is *cat*, and it is also a base.



A **stem** is the actual form to which an affix (a suffix or a prefix) is added. In *blacken*, for example, the affix *-en* is added to the root *black*. Sometimes, an affix can be added to the form, which is larger than a root, e.g., *authorization* (n).

Morphology is a crucial component of the English language and plays a significant role in understanding and using the language effectively. Here are some reasons why morphology is important in the English language:

- Morphology deals with the formation of words and the study of their internal structure. Understanding morphology helps in recognizing and creating new words, as well as understanding the meanings of unfamiliar words based on their structure.

- By understanding the morphological components of words, such as prefixes, roots, and suffixes, individuals can infer the meanings of unfamiliar words and expand their vocabulary.

- Morphology is closely tied to grammar and syntax. It helps in understanding how words are formed and how they are used in sentences, thereby aiding in the overall comprehension and construction of grammatically correct sentences.

- For language learners, understanding morphology can aid in learning the patterns of word formation, making it easier to grasp new vocabulary and internalize grammatical rules.

- Morphology is essential for effective communication. It enables individuals to use words in the correct forms and tenses, enhancing their ability to express ideas clearly and accurately.

Overall, morphology is vital for understanding the structure of words, expanding vocabulary, and building strong language skills in the English language.

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## UNIT VIII. WORD FORMATION

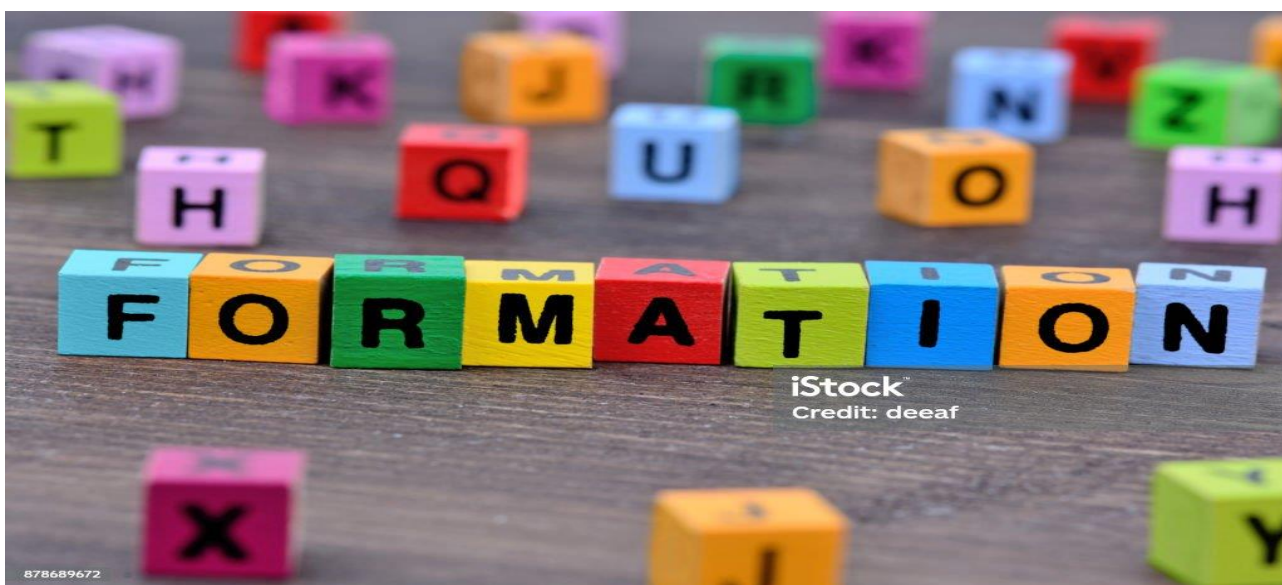
### PLAN:

1. The process of forming new words
2. Stem of the word and its types
3. Affixation is the productive way of word forming
4. Other types of word formation

#### *Pre reading task. Discussion questions*

1. Work in pairs and discuss the following questions with your partner.
2. How do you define the term “word formation”?
3. Why should we be aware of ways of word building in English?
4. How can you compare forming words in English and Uzbek?
5. Give several examples to noun forming and adjective forming affixes in both languages

**Key concepts:** *types of word formation, a stem, a root, structure and semantics of the stem, major and minor types of word formation, affixation, compounding, clipping, blending, conversion, productive and non-productive ways of word formation*



### **Learn the information below:**

Word formation, also known as word-creation or word-building, is the process of forming new words or deriving existing words to create new meanings. This can be done through various methods, such as affixation, compounding, conversion, blending, clipping, and acronym formation. We have defined the terms word and vocabulary in our previous units and now let's explain other terms related to word formation process. They are: a root, a stem, types of the stem and different ways of word formation in English language.

The root is the primary lexical unit of a word, which carries the most significant aspects of semantic content and cannot be reduced into smaller constituents. E. g., SPEAKing, OPENed, misUNDERSTANDable, etc.

A *stem* is the form of a word before any inflectional affixes are added in English grammar and morphology. In English, most stems also qualify as words. The term base is commonly used by linguists to refer to any stem (or root) to which an affix is attached<sup>22</sup>. Difference between stem and a word is as following:

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<sup>22</sup>

[https://www.google.com/search?q=what+is+stem+in+lexicology&rlz=1C1GCEA\\_enUZ1023UZ1023&oq=what+is+stem](https://www.google.com/search?q=what+is+stem+in+lexicology&rlz=1C1GCEA_enUZ1023UZ1023&oq=what+is+stem)

1. Stem carry the lexical meaning of the word and includes root and affixes.
2. A word can be consists of 2 or more roots, but the stem can be only the one;

According to O. Muminov the stem is defined as that part of the word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm, thus the stem which appears in the paradigm (to) ask, asks, asked, asking is ask-; the stem of the word singer, singer's, singers, singers' is singer-. It is the stem of the word that takes the inflections which change the word grammatically as one or another part of speech. There are three types of stems: *simple, derived and compound*. In linguistic terms, your statement addresses the concept of simple stems as non-motivated and not forming a pattern for modeling new stems. It also discusses the derivational structure of stems and the relevance of morphemes at different levels of analysis. This analysis suggests that certain morphemes, particularly bound morphemes and pseudo-morphemes, may not be relevant to the derivational structure of stems based on their lack of meeting specific requirements. Your example words such as "retain," "receive," "horrible," "pocket," and "motion" are highlighted as having simple, non-motivated stems. This indicates that their derivational structure may not align with expectations based on morphemic analysis.

*Derived stems* are put up on stems of various structures though which they are motivated, i.e. derived stems are understood on the basis of the derivative relations between their immediate constituents and the correlated stems. The derived stems are mostly polymorphic in which case the segmentation results only in one immediate constituents that is itself a stem, the other immediate constituent being necessarily a derivational affix. Derived stems are not necessarily polymorphic. *Compound stems* are made up of two stems, both of which are themselves stems, **for example: sun-glasses, driving-license, nickname**, etc. It is built by joining of two stems, one of which is simple, the other derived.

In English lexicology there are several types of word formation:

*Affixation* is one of the most productive ways of word-building throughout the history of English, which consists in adding an affix to the stem of a definite part of speech and is divided into suffixation and prefixation. E. g., happy+ness=happiness, teach+er=teacher, care+full+ness=carefulness, etc.

This involves adding prefixes (e.g., un-, dis-) or suffixes (-ness, -ly) to existing words to create new words and change their meaning or grammatical function. For example, the word "possible" can be transformed into "impossible" by adding the prefix "im-." Affixation is one of the most productive ways of word-building throughout the history of English. It consists in adding an affix to the stem of a definite part of speech. Affixation is divided into suffixation and prefixation.

The main function of suffixes in Modern English is to form one part of speech from another, the secondary function is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech. ( e.g. «educate» is a verb, «education» is a noun, and « friend» is a noun, «friendship» is also a noun);

***Prefixation*** is the formation of words by means of adding a prefix to the stem. The main function of prefixes in English is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech: possible-*impossible*, write-*rewrite*, advantage-*disadvantage*

***Inflexion*** is the way language changes word forms to handle grammatical relations and relational categories such as tense, mood, voice, aspect (conjugation only), person, number (conjugation and declension), gender, case (declension only). The main function of inflexion is to show the relationship of words in the sentence.

***Compounding***: In this method, two or more words are combined to create a new word. For example, "foot" + "ball" = "football." Compounding (or word-composition) is a productive type of word-formation. Compounds are made up by joining together at least two stems, mostly stems of notional parts of speech. Compounds have different degree of complexity: they may consist of simple and derived stems.

Compounds are structurally and phonetically inseparable.

**Structurally** compounds are described by the specific order and arrangement of stems. The order in which the two stems are positioned together within a compound is strictly fixed in Modern English and it is the second stem which is the structural and semantic centre of the compound, e.g.: baby-sitter, writing-table.

**Phonetically** compounds are also noticeable by a specific structure of their own. No phonetic changes of stems take place in composition, but the compound word gets a new stress pattern, different from the stress in the words with similar stems,

e.g.: 'key, 'hole -> 'key-hole. Compounds have three stress patterns:

A high or unity stress on the first component: 'doorway, 'drawback, 'blackboard.

A double stress: with a primary stress on the first component and a weaker, secondary stress on the second component: 'blood vessel, 'washing-machine. A level stress: 'open-'eyed, 'icy-'cold, 'grass-'green.

**Graphically** most compounds have two types of spelling: they are written either solidly or with a hyphen. It differs from author to author and from dictionary to dictionary,

e.g.: war-path = warpath;

blood-transfusion = bloodtransfusion

word-group = wordgroup

**Semantically** the majority of compounds are motivated units: their meaning is derived from the combined lexical meanings of their components. The semantic centre of the compound is the lexical meaning of the second component modified and restricted by the meaning of the first,

e.g.: a handbag = a bag carried in the hand;

an ear-ring = a ring to wear in the ear.

But the meaning of a compound is not a simple sum of lexical meanings of its components: the new meaning dominates over the individual meanings of the components. The lexical meanings of both components are closely fused together to create a new semantic unit,

e.g.: a time-bomb = a bomb designed to explode at a certain time.

The meaning of the compound is also derived from the meaning of its distributional pattern.

A simple modification in the order of stems with the identical lexical meanings results in a extreme change in the lexical meaning of the compound,

e.g.: *fruit-market* is different from *market-fruit*;

*boat-life* is different from *life-boat*.

So, the lexical meaning of a compound is derived from the combined lexical meanings of its components and the structural meaning of its distributional pattern.

Here, we can give some other types of word formation in English language:

**Conversion** or functional shift, is the process of varying the part of speech of a word without adding any affixes. For example, "email," originally a noun, can be converted to a verb by using it in a sentence like "I will email you later."

**Blending** includes combining parts of two or more words to create a new word. This can be done by overlapping the sounds or segments of the words. For example, "breakfast" + "lunch" = "brunch." "motor" + "hotel" = motel

**Clipping** consists of shortening a word by removing one or more syllables. For example, "advertisement" becomes "ad," "television" becomes "TV," and "cupboard" becomes "cup."

**Acronyms** are formed by abbreviating a phrase or a series of words and using the initial letters. For example, "NASA" stands for "National Aeronautics and Space Administration."

These are just some of the common methods of word formation in English lexicology. Understanding word formation can help decipher unfamiliar words and expand your vocabulary.

According to productivity there are two types of word formation:

-productive way of forming words

-non productive way of forming words

**Productive way of forming words** includes composition, conversion, abbreviation, affixation. You can get some information about each of them below:

**Composition** is the way of word-building when a word is formed by joining two or more stems to form one word. E. g., blackbird, bedroom, music-lover, newcomer, freshman, etc.

**Conversion** consists of making a new word from some existing word by changing the category of a part of speech, the morphemic shape of the original word remaining unchanged. E. g., a nurse – to nurse, love - to love, a face – to face, etc.

**Abbreviation** of words consists in clipping a part of a word. As a result we get a new lexical unit where either the lexical meaning or the style is different from the full form of the word. In such cases as »fantasy» and «fancy», «fence» and «defence» we have different lexical meanings. In such cases as «laboratory» and «lab», we have different styles.

**Non-productive way of forming words** includes sound interchange, stress interchange, sound imitation, blending and backformation

**Sound interchange** is the way of word-building when some sounds are changed to form a new word. E.g. bath - to bathe, life - to live, breath - to breathe etc.

**Stress interchange** can be mostly met in verbs and nouns of Romanic origin : nouns have the stress on the first syllable and verbs on the last syllable, e.g. `accent - to ac`cent, dis`count - `discount, etc.

**Sound imitation** is the way of word-forming when a word is formed by imitating different sounds. E. g. to moo, to bark, etc.

**Blends** are words formed from a word-group or two synonyms. E. g., slanguage, to hustle, gasohol etc.

**Back formation** is the way of word-building when a word is formed by dropping the final morpheme to form a new word. E. g., to accreditate (from accreditation), to bach (from bachelor), to collocate (from collocation), to enthuse (from enthusiasm), to



compute (from computer), to emote (from emotion) to reminisce ( from reminiscence) , to televise (from television) etc.

In linguistics, conversion, also called zero derivation or null derivation, is a kind of word formation involving the creation of a word (of a new word class) from an existing word (of a different word class) without any change in form,<sup>[1]</sup> which is to say, derivation using only zero. For example, the noun *green* in golf (referring to a putting-green) is derived ultimately from the adjective *green*.<sup>23</sup>

*Origin of conversion.* O. Jespersen points out that the causes that made conversion so widely spread are to be approached diachronically. The noun and verb have become identical in form firstly as a result of the loss of endings. When endings had disappeared phonetical development resulted in the merging of sound forms for both elements of these pairs.

e.g.: OE *carian* (verb) and *caru* (noun) merged into *care* (verb, noun); OE *drinkan* (verb) and *drinca*, *drinc* (noun) merged into *drink* (verb, noun).

*Zero derivation* (also called null derivation) is the process of converting a word to a different part of speech without adding an affix or altering the word in any way. Conversion is so common in modern English because digital communication has created a sense of urgency and desire for unique ways to say new things. As a result, conversion has become a more legitimate and common way to create new words.

Conversion as one of the productive and principle ways of word-building.

It is also highly productive in enriching the English word-stock with new words. The term “conversion”, which some linguists find inadequate, refers to the numerous cases of phonetic identity of two words belonging to different parts of speech. As a rule, we deal with root-words, although there are exceptions. This phenomenon may be illustrated by the following cases: *work – to work*, *love – to love*, *paper -- to paper*, *wireless – to wireless*, *doctor – to doctor*, *water – to water*. If we regard such word-

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<sup>23</sup> [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Conversion\\_\(word\\_formation\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Conversion_(word_formation))

pairs from the point of view of their morphemic structure, we see, that they are root words.

On the derivational level, however, one of them should be referred to derived words, as having one and the same root-morpheme they belong to different parts of speech. Consequently, the question arises: What serves as the word-building means in these cases? It would appear that the noun is formed from the verb (or vice versa) without any morphological change. But if we examine deeper the matter what the paradigm of love, n – love, v is, we without doubt come to the conclusion that the two words differ only in the paradigm. Thus it is the paradigm that is used as word-building means. Hence, we may define conversion as the formation of a new word through changes in its paradigm. So *conversion* is best identified as a non-affix word-making device where the paradigm of the word and its syntactical function signal the lexico-grammatical nature of the word. The newly formed word differs both lexically and grammatically from the source word and the latter becomes its homonym. The stems of the two words making up the conversion pair cannot be regarded as being the same or identical: the stem *hand-* of the word hand, n, carries a substantive / v/ meaning together with the system of its meanings, such as: 1) the end of the arm beyond the wrist, 2) pointer of watch or clock, 3) worker in a factory, 4) source of information, etc. The stem *hand-* of the verb hand has a different part-of-speech meaning, namely, that of the verb, and a different system of meanings: 1) give or help with the hand, 2) pass, send, etc. Thus, the stems of word-pairs related through conversion have different part-of speech meanings, i.e. different lexico-grammatical meanings. Being phonetically identical they can be regarded as homonymous stems.

As one of the two words within a conversion pair is semantically derived from the other, it is of great theoretical and practical importance to determine the semantic relations between words through conversion. Summing up the findings of the linguists who have done research in this field we can enumerate the following typical semantic relations:

1. *Verbs* converted from *nouns*. This is the largest group. The semantic relations are various. If the noun refers to some object of reality (both animate and inanimate), the converted verb may denote:

An action characteristic of the object: e.g. *ape*, n - *ape*, v – imitate in a foolish way;

An agent: *doctor* – *to doctor*, *mother* – *to*, *father* – *to father*

Instrumental use of the object: *axe* – *to axe*, *carpet* – *to carpet* *iron* – *to iron*, *knife* – *to knife*, *pin* – *to pin*, *spoon* – *to spoon*, *screw* – *to screw*;

Acquisition or addition of the object: *fish* – *to fish*;

Place: *bottle* – *to bottle*, *room* – *to room*, *table* – *to table*, *floor* – *to floor*

Time: *summer* – *to summer*, *winter* – *to winter*

Deprivation of the object: *dust* – *to dust*, *skin* – *to skin*.

*Verbs* converted from *adjectives*. Their meaning is either ‘become’ or ‘make’. Examples are numerous: *dry* – *to dry*, *fat* – *to fat*, *cool* – *to cool*, *green* – *to green*, *open* – *to open*, *faint* – *to faint*, *round* – *to round*, *clean* – *to clean*, *dirty* – *to dirty*, *idle* – *to idle*, *slow* – *to slow*, *big* – *to big*, *wise* – *to wise*

*Nouns* converted from *verbs*. They may denote:

Actions: *to hunt* – *a hunt*, *to go* – *a go*, *to dissent* – *a dissent*

The impersonal agent: *to draw* – *a dra*, *to sting* – *a sting* ;

A person: *to help* – *a help*, *to hunt* – *a hunt*, *to spy* – *a spy*;

Place: *to bend* – *a bend*, *to fold* – *a fold*

The result of the action: *to catch* – *a catch*, *to win* – *a win*, *to cut* – *a cut*, *to find* – *a find*, *to smoke* – *smoke*

By summarizing conversion is a unique form of word formation as it doesn't involve the addition of prefixes or suffixes or the blending of multiple words. It is a simple and efficient method of creating new words or expanding the usage of existing ones. This process of conversion not only demonstrates the flexibility and productivity of the English language but also allows for the creation of new vocabulary. However,

it can sometimes lead to ambiguity or confusion due to overlapping meanings or different interpretations of converted words.

Conversion is a common phenomenon in English and is frequently used in various grammatical categories. While nouns converting to verbs and vice versa are most common, adjectives and adverbs can also undergo conversion.

Overall, conversion is a significant aspect of word formation in English, enabling words to shift their grammatical roles seamlessly and expand the expressive potential of the language.

Besides conversion there are other types of word formation in English lexicology. Here we will discuss about composition (compounding), shortening and abbreviation.

***Composition (compounding)*** can be defined as the formation of a lexical unit out of two or more stems, usually the first differentiating, modifying or qualifying and the second identifying. The last element expresses a general meaning, whereas the prefixed element renders it less generally. Any compound word has at least two semantic centres but they are never equal in their semantic value. Thus a compound word is characterised by both structural and semantic unity. It makes them function in a sentence as a separate lexical unit.

Compound words are unusually graphic. They often come into existence by popular demand. They are formed simply by combining two words that are in current usage. There are three types of compound words:

- Compound words with the solid representation: spacecraft, hardtop,
- Hyphenated compound words: sit-in, freeze-dry,
- Compound words represented by a phrase: cold war, free flight.

Compound words can be further classified: from the functional point of view, from the point of view of the way the components of the compounds are linked together, from the point of view of different ways of composition.

Functionally compounds are viewed as words belonging to different parts of speech. The bulk of modern English compounds belong to nouns and adjectives: hot-dog, slow-coach, world-old. Adverbs and connectives are represented by an insignificant number of words: outside. Composition in verbs is not productive either: to rough-house, to backbite.

According to the type of relationship between the components compound words can be coordinative and subordinative.

Coordinative are the compounds in which neither of the components dominates the other, both are structurally and semantically independent: secretary-stenographer, actor-manager. The constituent stems belong to the same part of speech.

Compounds which are formed by joining the phonetically varied rhythmic forms of the same stem are: drip-drop, ding-dong, helter-skelter.

Coordinative compounds of the last two groups are mostly restricted to the colloquial layer and are characterised by a heavy emotive charge.

Subordinative compounds are the words in which the components are not equal either semantically or structurally. The second component is the structural centre, the grammatically dominant part of the word, which imparts its part-of-speech meaning to the whole word: stone-deaf, age-long, wrist-watch, baby-sitter,

According to the order of components subordinative compounds are divided into syntactic and asyntactic.

Syntactic are the words the components of which are placed in the order of words in free phrases: bluebell, slow-coach, know-nothing.

Asyntactic are the words whose stems are not placed in the order that resembles the order of words in a free phrase: red-hot, tear-stained, oil-rich.

According to the degree of motivation compound words can be motivated, partially motivated and non-motivated.

Motivated compounds are those whose meanings are the sum of meanings of their components: blackboard, classroom. Partially motivated compounds are those in

which one of the components has changed its meaning: chatter-box, lady-killer. Non-motivated compounds are those in which neither of the elements preserves its meaning: ladybird, tallboy.

**Shortening.** Shortening of words, also known as clipping, curtailment, or contraction, is a word-building process that involves reducing a word to a shorter form. This process has been present in the English language since the 15th century and serves as a productive way to enrich vocabulary.

There are two main types of shortenings to consider: lexical abbreviations and clippings.

#### 1. Lexical Abbreviations:

Lexical abbreviations involve both shortening and compounding simultaneously. These abbreviations are commonly used in various spheres of human activity. Examples include RD for road, St for street, a.m. for the Latin phrase ante meridiem (in the morning), and p.m. for post meridiem (in the afternoon). These graphical abbreviations are signs that represent words and word groups that are frequently used.

#### 2. Clippings:

Clippings involve shortening a word in spoken or written form to create a more concise version. In written speech, clippings may result in graphical abbreviations, such as using "*St*" for street or "*Ave*" for avenue. In oral intercourse, words are often shortened for convenience and efficiency. For example, "*exam*" for examination or "*phone*" for telephone are common instances of clippings in spoken language.

Overall, the process of shortening words through clipping is a useful word-building technique that helps streamline language use and create more concise and efficient communication.

**Acronyms** are the words formed from the initial letters of each of the successive or major parts of a compound term:

the USA (United States of America), the NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organisation), WASP (Women's Air Force Service Pilots). They are used as words and

if an abbreviation that has a wide currency is inconvenient for articulation, it is sometimes altered: W.R.N.S. (Women's Royal Naval Service) was difficult to pronounce, so it was changed to WRENS.

There are two possible ways of reading acronyms in the English language. If the abbreviated written form can be read as though it were an ordinary English word it will be read like one: the NATO, the UNESCO, the UNO. The second way of reading acronyms is reading according to the ABC: BBC (the British Broadcasting Corporation), G.I. (Government Issue).

Blending involves merging parts of two or more words to create a new word. This can be seen in examples like "brunch" (breakfast + lunch) or "smog" (smoke + fog).

Acronym formation involves creating a word from the initials or first letters of a phrase. For example, "NASA" stands for National Aeronautics and Space Administration.

Coinage is the process of inventing completely new words. For example, the brand name "Google" has become a commonly used verb, meaning to search for information on the internet.

Borrowing involves adopting words from other languages. English has borrowed words from various languages, such as "pajama" from Hindi and "cappuccino" from Italian. These various mechanisms of word formation contribute to the expansion and development of the lexicon in a language. They allow for the creation of new words, the adaptation of foreign vocabulary, and the evolution of linguistic expression to meet the changing needs of communication.

In conclusion we can say that understanding the principles of word formation enables learners to create and comprehend new words, leading to a more extensive and versatile vocabulary. By teaching word formation, educators support learners in developing a deeper understanding of a language's structure and mechanics, thereby improving their overall language competence.

Knowledge of word formation facilitates improved reading and writing skills as learners can decipher the meanings of unfamiliar words and create well-structured texts. A grasp of word formation empowers individuals to express themselves more effectively, aiding in effective communication and comprehension.

Teaching word formation fosters an awareness of the dynamic nature of language, encouraging learners to recognize and appreciate the evolution and diversity of words within a language.

By teaching word formation, educators enable students to become more proficient and confident in their language skills, empowering them to express themselves more effectively and to comprehend language more thoroughly.

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### **UNIT IX. PHRASEOLOGY. CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS PLAN:**

1. Ways of forming phraseological units
2. Semantic Classification of phraseological units
3. Structural classification of phraseological units
4. Syntactical classification of phraseological units

### **Questions for discussion**

1. What do you know about of phraseological units



2. Compare proverbs and sayings in English and Uzbek languages
3. Discuss your samples in pairs



**Key concepts:** *phraseology, phraseological unit, phraseological fusion, phraseological collocations, free word groups, proverbs, sayings, quotations, phrases, semantic classification*

Phraseological units are essential components of language that enrich vocabulary and add depth to communication. These word-groups cannot be created during speech but exist as ready-made units with a specific meaning. They are often compiled in specialized dictionaries alongside words. American and British lexicographers commonly refer to such units as "idioms" and include them in dictionaries such as L. Smith's "Words and Idioms" and V. Collins's "A Book of English Idioms.". In these dictionaries we can find words, peculiar in their semantics (idiomatic), side by side with word-groups and sentences. In these dictionaries they are arranged, as a rule, into different semantic groups.

Phraseological units, just like individual words, express a single notion and function as one part within a sentence. They are typically categorized into different semantic groups in dictionaries to aid in understanding and usage. Classification of

phraseological units can be done based on the following criteria:

*Formation:* Classifying phraseological units according to how they are formed, such as through combination, borrowing from other languages, or unique idiomatic expressions.

*Degree of Motivation:* Analyzing the motivation behind the meaning of phraseological units, from transparent and easily understood to opaque and less obvious in meaning.

*Structure:* Examining the structural composition of phraseological units, including their syntax, word order, and grammatical elements.

*Part-of-Speech Meaning:* Categorizing phraseological units based on their part-of-speech function within a sentence, whether they are nouns, verbs, adjectives, or other parts of speech.

By classifying phraseological units through these various criteria, linguists and language learners can better understand the nuances and intricacies of these language elements and how they contribute to the richness and complexity of language.

***Ways of forming phraseological units.*** A.V. Koonin classified phraseological units according to the way they are formed. He pointed out primary and secondary ways of forming phraseological units.

***Primary ways of forming phraseological units*** are those when a unit is formed on the basis of a free word-group:

a) Most productive in Modern English is the formation of phraseological units by means of transferring the meaning of terminological word-groups, e.g. in cosmic technique we can point out the following phrases: «launching pad» in its terminological meaning is «ishga tushirish maydonchasi» , in its transferred meaning - «yuborish punkti», «to link up» - «ulanish» in its transformed meaning it means -«tanishmoq»;

b) a large group of phraseological units was formed from free word groups by transforming their meaning, e.g. «granny farm» - «qariyalar uyi», «Trojan horse» - «kompyuter dasturi»;

c) phraseological units can be formed by means of alliteration , e.g. «a

sad sack» - «baxtsiz hodisa», «culture vulture» - «san'at ishqibozi», «fudge and nudge» - «qochish».

d) they can be formed by means of expressiveness, especially it is characteristic for forming interjections, e.g. «My aunt!», «Hear, hear!» etc

e) they can be formed by means of distorting a word group, e.g. «odds and ends» was formed from «odd ends»,

f) they can be formed by using archaisms, e.g. «in brown study» means «in gloomy meditation» where both components preserve their archaic meanings,

g) they can be formed by using a sentence in a different sphere of life, e.g. «that cock won't fight» can be used as a free word-group when it is used in sports (cock fighting), it becomes a phraseological unit when it is used in everyday life, because it is used metaphorically,

h) they can be formed when we use some unreal image, e.g. «to have butterflies in the stomach» - «havotirlanmoq», «to have green fingers» - «bog'dorchilikka qiziqmoq» etc.

i) they can be formed by using expressions of writers or politicians in everyday life, e.g. «corridors of power» (Snow), «American dream» (Alby) «locust years» (Churchill), «the winds of change» (Mc Millan).

***Secondary ways of forming phraseological units*** are those when a phraseological unit is formed on the basis of another phraseological unit; they are:

a) conversion, e.g. «to vote with one's feet» was converted into «vote with one's feet»;

b) hanging the grammar form, e.g. «Make hay while the sun shines» is transferred into a verbal phrase - «to make hay while the sun shines»;

c) analogy, e.g. «Curiosity killed the cat» was transferred into «Care killed the cat»;

d) contrast, e.g. «cold surgery» - «a planned before operation» was formed by contrasting it with «acute surgery», «thin cat» - «a poor person» was formed by contrasting it with «fat cat»;

e) shortening of proverbs or sayings e.g. from the proverb «You can't make a silk purse out of a sow's ear» by means of clipping the middle of it the phraseological unit «to make a sow's ear» was formed with the meaning «ошибаться».

f) borrowing phraseological units from other languages, either as translation loans, e.g. «living space» (German), «to take the bull by the horns» (Latin) or by means of phonetic borrowings «meche blanche» (French), «corpse d'elite» (French), «sotto voce» (Italian) etc.

Phonetic borrowings among phraseological units refer to the bookish style and are not used very often.

***Semantic classification of phraseological units*** is an important aspect in understanding how these word-groups function and convey meaning within a language. V.V. Vinogradov, a Russian linguist, proposed a classification system for Russian phraseological units based on the degree of motivation of their meaning. This classification can also be applied to English phraseological units and helps categorize them into different types based on their semantic characteristics.

#### *1. Phraseological Fusions:*

Phraseological fusions are word-groups where the degree of motivation is very low. In these units, the meaning of the whole cannot be easily deduced from the meanings of its individual components. They are highly idiomatic and often unique to a particular language, making word-for-word translation challenging. Examples include "*on Shank's mare*" (*on foot*) and "*at sixes and sevens*" (*in a mess*).

#### *2. Phraseological Unities:*

Phraseological unities are word-groups where the meaning of the whole can be guessed from the meanings of its components, but the expression is often metaphorical or metonymical. While the literal meaning of the individual words may make sense, the overall phrase conveys a figurative or abstract concept. Examples include "*to play the first fiddle*" (to be a leader in something) and "*old salt*" (experienced sailor).

#### *3. Phraseological Collocations:*

Phraseological collocations involve words that are combined in their original meanings, but the combinations may vary between languages. These units typically retain their literal meanings, but the specific combination of words forms a unique expression with a specific connotation or meaning. Examples include "*cash and carry*" (self-service shop) and "*in a big way*" (in great degree).

By classifying phraseological units into these types based on the motivation of their meaning, linguists and language learners can gain insights into how these expressions are structured, interpreted, and used in communication. This classification system helps elucidate the diverse and nuanced nature of phraseological units within a language.

***Structural classification of phraseological units***, developed by Prof. A.I. Smirnitsky, compares these units with words based on their structure and component parts. This classification system helps analyze and understand the internal organization of phraseological units, similar to the way words are analyzed in morphology.

#### One-Top Units:

1. Units of the type "*to give up*": These one-top units consist of a verb and a postposition, forming a single semantic entity. Examples include "*to art up*," "*to back up*," "*to drop out*," etc.

2. Units of the type "*to be tired*": These units resemble the Passive Voice in structure but include different prepositions. Examples include "*to be tired of*," "*to be interested in*," "*to be surprised at*," etc.

3. Prepositional-nominal phraseological units: These units act as equivalents of unchangeable words like prepositions, conjunctions, or adverbs. The nominal part is the semantic center, and they lack a grammar center. Examples include "*on the doorstep*," "*on the nose*," "*in the course of*," etc.

#### Two-Top Units:

1. Attributive-nominal structures: These units consist of an attributive and a nominal component, forming a noun equivalent. Examples include "*a month of Sundays*," "*grey matter*," "*a millstone round one's neck*," etc.

2. Verb-nominal phraseological units: These units consist of a verb and a nominal component, with the verb serving as the grammar center. Examples include "to read between the lines," "to speak BBC," "to sweep under the carpet," etc.

3. Phraseological repetitions: These units involve repetitive word combinations, such as "*now or never*," "*part and parcel*," "*country and western*," etc. They can be formed by antonyms or alliteration and are often idiomatic.

Some phraseological units may have more than two component parts, similar to compound words, forming complex structures like "*to take a back seat*," "*lock, stock and barrel*," "*at one's own sweet will*," etc.

***Syntactical classification of phraseological units***, as suggested by I.V. Arnold, categorizes phraseological units based on their syntactical function and as parts of speech. This classification system helps identify the grammatical role that phraseological units play in a sentence or discourse.

1. Noun Phraseologisms: Noun phraseologisms denote objects, persons, or living beings. Examples include "*bullet train*," "*latchkey child*," "*redbrick university*," and "*Green Berets*."

2. Verb Phraseologisms: Verb phraseologisms denote actions, states, or feelings. Examples include "*to break the log-jam*," "*to get on somebody's coattails*," "*to be on the beam*," "*to nose out*," and "*to make headlines*."

3. Adjective Phraseologisms: Adjective phraseologisms denote qualities or attributes. Examples include "*loose as a goose*" and "*dull as lead*."

4. Adverb Phraseological Units: Adverb phraseological units function as adverbs modifying verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. Examples include "*with a bump*," "*in the soup*," "*like a dream*," and "*like a dog with two tails*."

5. Preposition Phraseological Units: Preposition phraseological units involve prepositions used in fixed expressions. Examples include "*in the course of*" and "*on the stroke of*."

6. Interjection Phraseological Units: Interjection phraseological units are exclamatory expressions used to convey emotions or reactions. Examples include *"Catch me!"* and *"Well, I never!"*

Additionally, Arnold's classification includes sentence equivalents, proverbs, sayings, and quotations. Proverbs often contain metaphors, such as *"Too many cooks spoil the broth,"* while sayings are typically straightforward expressions, like *"Where there is a will, there is a way."*

Phraseological units play a crucial role in language for several reasons: Phraseological units, such as idioms and collocations, are an integral part of everyday language use. They allow speakers to convey meaning more effectively and efficiently, and they are often used to add nuances and shades of meaning to communication.

Many phraseological units are deeply rooted in the culture and history of a language. Understanding these units can provide insight into cultural practices, beliefs, and traditions, enhancing cultural competence and cross-cultural communication.

Phraseological units often have a more vivid and expressive quality than literal language. They can convey complex concepts and emotions in a compact and memorable way, adding depth and color to language use.

Recognizing and understanding phraseological units is essential for language comprehension. Learners need to be familiar with common idiomatic expressions, fixed phrases, and collocations to fully understand spoken and written language.

Using phraseological units appropriately can enhance language fluency and naturalness. Proficient use of idiomatic language can signal a high level of language proficiency and cultural integration.

In summary, phraseological units are important in language for their role in communication, cultural understanding, expressiveness, comprehension, and fluency. They enrich language use and contribute to a deeper understanding of both the language itself and the culture it represents.

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### **UNIT X. ETYMOLOGY. THE ORIGIN OF ENGLISH WORDS**

#### **PLAN:**

1. Origin of the word etymology
2. Feature of the word-stock
3. Assimilation of loan words
4. A classification of loan words

#### **Discussion questions**

1. *Define the term “etymology”*
2. *What do you know about translation loans?*
3. *Give your opinion on native words*
4. *Discuss the topic Common Germanic origin*





**Key concepts:** *etymology, borrowings, translation loans, Indo-European stock, cognates, native words, vocabulary layer, semantic loans, assimilation*

Etymology (from Greek *etymon* 'truth' + *logos* 'learning') is a branch of linguistics that deals with the origin and history of words tracing them to their earliest determinable source. The term 'etymology' was coined by the Stoics, a group of Greek philosophers and logicians who flourished from about the beginning of the 4th century BC. They noticed a lack of regularity in the correspondences between the forms of the language and their respective contents. In other words, they found no necessary connection between the sounds of the language on one hand and the thing for which the sounds stood on the other. Since they were convinced that language should be regularly related to its content, they undertook to discover the original forms called the 'etyma' (roots) in order to establish the regular correspondence between language and reality. This was the beginning of the study known today as etymology. <sup>24</sup>

The word-stock of a language can be divided into two main sets: native words and borrowed words.

<sup>24</sup> English Lexicology : tutorial / O. L. Ilienکو, I. A. Kamienieva, Ye. S. Moshtagh; O. M. Beketov National University of Urban Economy in Kharkiv. – Kharkiv :Publishing House I. Ivanchenka, 2020.

***Native words*** are original English words that belong to the original English stock, dating back to the Old English period. These words are further subdivided by diachronic linguistics into Indo-European words and Common Germanic words.

*Indo-European native words* are the oldest layer of vocabulary and include terms of kinship, words for natural objects and phenomena, names of animals and birds, parts of the human body, common verbs like "*bear*" and "*come*," adjectives describing physical properties, and numerals.

*Common Germanic native words* have parallels in German, Norwegian, Dutch, Icelandic, etc., but not in other languages like Russian or French.

This vocabulary layer includes nouns (*summer, winter, ground*), verbs (*bake, buy, drive*), and adjectives (*broad, dead, deep*) among others, covering a wide range of semantic groups.

### ***Borrowed Words:***

Loanwords or borrowed words are taken from other languages and modified to fit English phonemic shapes, spelling, paradigms, and meanings. They contribute to the enrichment and expansion of the English lexicon, bringing in new concepts, technologies, and cultural influences from other languages.

Borrowed words can come from various languages, reflecting historical influences on the English language such as Latin, French, Greek, and more. Loanwords are often adapted to conform to English pronunciation and spelling rules, making them seamlessly integrated into the language.

Many adverbs and pronouns, along with words from the common Indo-European stock, make up the majority of the most commonly used elements in speech. These Common Germanic words, together with those from the native word-stock subset, account for at least 80% of the 500 most frequently used words, as identified by E.L. Thorndike and I. Lorge. Words within the native word-stock subset are known for their extensive lexical and grammatical range, high frequency, and nuanced meanings. They

are often monosyllabic, exhibit strong word-building capabilities, and are found in numerous fixed expressions.

As an example, the word "watch" (from Old English "waecan") is among the 500 most common English words. It can function as a verb in over ten different sentence structures, with or without objects and adverbial modifiers, and combined with various word classes. This demonstrates its highly versatile valency.

Examples (to cite but a few) are as follows: *Are you going to play or only watch (the others play)? He was watching the crowd go by. Watch me carefully. He was watching for the man to leave the house. The man is being watched by the police.* The noun *watch* may mean 'the act of watching', 'the guard' (on ships), 'a period of duty for part of the ship's crew', 'a period of wakefulness', 'close observation', 'a time-piece', etc. *Watch* is the center of a numerous word-family: *watch-dog, watcher, watchful, watchfulness, watch-out, watchword*, etc. Some of the set expressions containing this root are: *be on the watch, watch one's step, keep watch, watchful as a hawk*. There is also a proverb *The watched pot never boils*, used when people show impatience or are unduly worrying. The part played by borrowings in the vocabulary of a language depends upon the history of each given language, being conditioned by direct linguistic contacts and political, economic and cultural relationships between nations. English history has seen numerous instances of various linguistic influences. The vocabulary system of each language is highly responsive to changes within the speaking community. The impact of extralinguistic social realities is particularly evident in the etymological composition of the vocabulary. The source, scope, and semantic sphere of loanwords are all influenced by historical factors.

The fact that up to 70% of the English vocabulary consists of loanwords, with only 30% being native, is not necessarily due to an inherent tolerance of foreign elements, but rather to specific conditions in the development of the English language. Historical events such as the Roman invasion, the introduction of Christianity, the Danish and Norman conquests, and more recently, the development of British

colonialism and imperialism, have all played crucial roles in shaping the English vocabulary. These events have led to important changes in the language's vocabulary over time. The term "source of borrowing" should be distinguished from the term "origin of borrowing". The first should be applied to the language from which the loan word was taken into English. The second, on the other hand, refers to the language to which the word may be traced. Thus, the word *paper* <Fr *papier* <Lat *papyrus* <Gr *papyros* has French as its source of borrowing and Greek as its origin. It may be observed that several of the terms for items used in writing show their origin in words denoting the raw material *Papyrus* is the name of a plant; c f. *book* <OE *boc* 'the beech tree' (boards of which were used for writing). Alongside loan words proper, we distinguish *loan translation* and *semantic loans*.

***Translation loans and loan translations*** are important phenomena in language evolution, particularly in the enrichment and diversification of vocabulary. Here are some key points regarding translation loans, loan translations, and their impact on language development:

*Translation loans* are words and expressions in a language, formed by directly translating the morphemes or words from another language. These translations are typically done on a word-for-word basis, resulting in new expressions that are based on patterns from the source language. Examples include "*chain-smoker*" (from German "Kettenraucher") and "*summit conference*" (from German "Gipfel Konferenz" and French "conference au sommet").

*Loan translations* are facilitated by the existence of formally related words in both languages, even though they may have different meanings or usage in different contexts. For instance, "Supreme Council" may serve as a loan translation for "Supreme Soviet," influenced by the relatedness of the terms across languages.

***Semantic Loan:*** The concept of a "semantic loan" refers to the development of a new meaning in a word in one language influenced by a related word in another language. For example, the English word "*pioneer*," originally meaning 'explorer' or

'one of the first in new fields of activity,' has taken on the meaning of 'a member of the Young Pioneers Organization' under the influence of the Russian word "*пионер*."

*Impact on English Vocabulary:* The prevalence of loan words and loan translations in the English language has led some scholars to emphasize etymology and borrowing as the primary drivers of language development. However, studies by linguists like N.N. Amosova have shown that the study of the English vocabulary goes beyond mere borrowing, and it involves analyzing the current usage, functions, and uniqueness of lexical elements.

While it's true that the English vocabulary has a mixed character with a significant contribution from borrowing, it's important to note that word-formation and semantic changes, shaped by the specific features of the English language system, have played a leading role in the history of the vocabulary.

The English language system has absorbed and restructured the majority of loanwords according to its own standards, making it challenging at times to distinguish between old loanwords and native words. Examples of this include words like "cheese," "street," "wall," and "wine," which belong to the earliest layer of Latin borrowings. However, many loanwords, despite undergoing changes after entering English, retain certain peculiarities in pronunciation, spelling, orthoepy, and morphology. For instance, the initial position of certain sounds can indicate that a word is not of native origin.

While borrowing has contributed significantly to the development of the English vocabulary, the language's word-formation and semantic changes, influenced by its specific language system, have played a crucial role in shaping the vocabulary as well.

Examples are: *vacuum* (Lat), *valley* (Fr), *voitode* (Russ), *vanadium* (named by a Swedish chemist Selfstrom from ON *Vanadis*, the goddess Freya), *vanilla* (Sp), etc. The letters /, x, z in initial position and such combinations as *pli*, *Izh*, *eau* in the root indicate the foreign origin of the word: *philology* (Gr), *khaki* (Indian), *beau* (Fr). Some letters and combinations of letters depend in their orthoepy upon the etymology of the word. Thus, x is pronounced [ks] and [gz] in words of native and Latin origin

respectively, and [z] in words coming from Greek: *six* [siks] (native), *exist* [ig'zist] (Lat), but *xylophone* (Gr) is pronounced [z] in native words and early borrowings: *child*, *chair*; [ʃ] in late French borrowings: *machine* [md'ʃi:n], *parachute* ['psrʌʃju:t], and [k] in words of Greek origin: *epoch* [ipok] *chemist* [t'kemist], *echo* [i'ekou]. The phono-morphological structure of borrowings is characterized by a high percentage of polysyllabic words: *company*, *condition*, *continue*, *government*, *important* and the like are among the most frequent. L. Bloomfield points out that English possesses a great mass of words (he calls them "foreign-learned" words) with a separate pattern of derivation. Their chief characteristic is the use of certain accented suffixes and combinations of suffixes: *ability*, *education*. Another feature, according to L. Bloomfield, is the presence of certain phonemic alterations, such as *lv*—*lp*—It J: *receive*: *reception* : *receipt*-, or *lai* J — *l i* ] : *provide* : *provident*; and [z]—: *visible*: *provision*. There are also prefixes which mark certain words as foreign-learned, as for instance: *ab*-, *ad*-, *con*-, *de*-, *dis*-, *in*-, *per*-, *pre*-, *pro*-, *re*-, *trans*-. These prefixes themselves show peculiar phonetic alternations *con*-*centrate*, but *cor*-*rect*. Such words contain bound forms for which it seems sometimes quite impossible to set up any definite semantic value. Examples are: *conceive*, *deceive*, *perceive*, *receive* or *attend*, *contend*, *distend*, *pretend*; *adduce*, *conduce*, *deduce*, *induce*, *produce*, *reduce*.

**Assimilation of loan words.** The history of the English language examines the significance of loan words in shaping and evolving the vocabulary. This entails exploring the historical contexts in which words from Latin, Scandinavian dialects, Norman and Parisian French, as well as various other languages, including Russian, were incorporated into English. In contrast, lexicology is primarily focused on its own objectives in this regard, centering on the materials and outcomes of assimilation. Assimilation of a loan word refers to its partial or complete adaptation to the phonetic, orthographic, and morphological norms of the recipient language, as well as its semantic system. The level of assimilation is influenced by the duration of the word's

usage in the recipient language, its significance for communication, and its frequency. Loan words acquired orally through personal interactions are assimilated more thoroughly and expediently than those obtained through written communication, i.e., literary borrowings. There is a general, albeit not rigorously defined, classification of loan words based on the degree of assimilation. This encompasses three main categories: completely assimilated loan words, partially assimilated loan words, and unassimilated loan words or barbarisms. Furthermore, partially assimilated words can be further categorized based on the unchanged aspect, such as spelling, pronunciation, morphology, or denotation (as in when the word refers to specific realia) that remains non-English. It should be noted that the acceptance of the third category is not universal, as it can be argued that words with no alterations cannot truly become part of the English vocabulary, since they are only used in speech and do not inherently become used and integrated into the language.

***Completely assimilated loan words*** are found in all the layers of older borrowings. The first layer of Latin borrowings includes common words such as "cheese," "street," "wall," and "wine." From Scandinavian loanwords, we have frequently used nouns like "husband," "fellow," "gate," "root," and "wing," as well as verbs such as "call," "die," "take," and "want," and adjectives like "happy," "ill," "low," "odd," and "wrong." Numerous completely assimilated French words are also part of everyday English vocabulary, including words like "table" and "chair," "face" and "figure," "finish" and "matter." A significant number of Latin words borrowed during the revival of learning are now almost indistinguishable from native words, such as "animal" and "article."

The number of completely assimilated loan words is much greater than that of partially assimilated ones. They adhere to all morphological, phonetic, and orthographic standards and are very common and stylistically neutral, often serving as dominant words in groups of synonyms. Completely assimilated loanwords also play an active role in word formation. Phonetically, it is often impossible to distinguish them from native words. For example, it is difficult to determine if the words "sport" and

"start" are borrowed or native based on their sound alone. In reality, "start" is native, derived from Middle English "steren," while "sport" is a shortened form of "disport" from Old French "desporter," ultimately derived from Latin "portare" (to carry). This leads to the issue of semantic assimilation.

***Partially assimilated loan words*** can be subdivided into subgroups. The oppositions are equal;

a. Loan words not assimilated semantically, because they denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from which they come. They may denote

- foreign clothing: *mantilla*, *sombrero*;
- foreign titles and professions: *shah*, *rajah*, *sheik*, *bei*, *toreador*,
- foreign vehicles: *caique* (Turkish), *rickshaw* (Chinese);
- food and drinks: *pilaw* (Persian), *sherbet* (Arabian);
- foreign currency: *krone* (Denmark), *rupee* (India), *zloty* (Poland), *peseta* (Spain), *rouble* (Russian), etc.

b. Loan words not assimilated grammatically, for example, nouns borrowed from Latin or Greek which keep their original plural forms: *bacillus- bacilli*; *crisis-crises*; *formula-formulae*, *index- indices*; *phenomenon-phenomena*. Some of these are also used in English plural forms, but in that case there may be a difference in lexical meaning, as in *indices-indexes*.

c. Loan words not completely assimilated phonetically. Some of them keep the accent on the final syllable: *machine*, *cartoon*, *police*. Others, alongside with peculiarities in stress, contain sounds or combinations of sounds that are not standard for the English language and do not occur in native words. The examples are: 131 — *bourgeois*, *camouflage*, *prestige*, *regime*, *sabotage*-, or the nasalized [la], *melange*. In many cases it is not the sounds but the whole pattern of the word's phonetic make-up that is different from the rest of the vocabulary, as in some of the Italian and Spanish borrowings: *confetti*, *incognito macaroni*, *opera*, *sonata*, *soprano* and *tomato*, *potato*, *tobacco*.



d. Loan words not completely assimilated graphically. This group, as V.I. Balinskaya shows, is fairly large and variegated.<sup>25</sup> There are, for instance, words borrowed from French in which the final consonant is not pronounced, e. g. *ballet*, *buffet*, *corps*. Some may keep a diacritic mark: *cafe*, *cliche*. Specifically, French digraphs (*ch*, *qu*, *oti*, etc.) may be retained in spelling: *bouquet*, *brioche*. Some have variant spellings. It goes without saying that these sets are intersecting, i.e. one and the same loan word often shows incomplete assimilation in several respects simultaneously.

**Bazbarisms** are used by English people in conversation or in writing but not assimilated in any way, and for which there are corresponding English equivalents. The examples are the Italian *addio*, *ciao* 'good-bye', the French *affiche* for 'placard' and *coup* or *coup d'Etat* 'a sudden seizure of state power by a small group', the Latin *ad libitum* 'at pleasure' and the like.

The etymology of the English language is the study of the origin and history of words, as well as how their meanings and forms have evolved over time. Understanding the etymology of English can provide valuable insights into the development of the language and its connections to other languages. Here are some important points about the significance of etymology in English:

- Etymology provides a window into the historical development of the English language, showing how words have been borrowed, adapted, and transformed over the centuries. By tracing the origins of words, we can better understand the cultural and historical forces that have shaped the English vocabulary.

- Studying etymology can enrich one's vocabulary by revealing patterns of word formation and connections between words. It can help language learners make connections between related words and understand the meanings of unfamiliar terms based on their roots and affixes.

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<sup>25</sup> <https://studfile.net/preview/7839071/page:14/>

- Etymology demonstrates how English has evolved through contact with other languages, such as Latin, French, and German. It highlights the influences of different language families on English and the complex processes of language change and adaptation.

- Knowledge of etymology is particularly important in fields such as linguistics, literature, history, and law, where an understanding of word origins and meanings is crucial. It can also be valuable in professional contexts, such as writing, editing, and translation work.

- Exploring the etymology of English words can provide insights into the cultures and societies that have contributed to the language's development. It can shed light on historical events, social dynamics, and the exchange of ideas across different communities.

Generally, the study of etymology is important for understanding the historical, cultural, and linguistic dimensions of the English language. It offers a deeper appreciation of the richness and complexity of English vocabulary, as well as its connections to the wider world of languages and human experience.

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## SEMINAR 1. PRACTICAL SESSION

### Theme: Aim and Function of lexicology

#### Task 1. Answer the question



1. Discuss with your partner the term lexicology and identify its purpose and function.
2. Give the definition to the key concepts of this unit.
3. Explain the following words *synchronically* and *diachronically*: restaurant, origin, lexicology, person, language
4. Write a definition and provide examples for different types of word formation processes in lexicology, such as derivation, compounding, and conversion.
5. Analyze the lexical and grammatical features of a particular word, examining its root, affixes, and grammatical category.
6. Compare and contrast the semantics and morphology of a set of related words, such as synonyms or antonyms.
7. Examine the historical development of a word, tracing its etymology and changes in meaning over time.
8. Conduct a corpus analysis to identify and analyze patterns of word usage in a specific language or genre.
9. Investigate the role of cultural and social factors in shaping the lexicon of a particular language or dialect.
10. Examine the role of lexical ambiguity and polysemy in communication, discussing the challenges they present for language learners and translators.

#### Task 2

Write a short summary or reflection according to your understanding of the given information

#### Task 3

#### Word game related to Letter Scramble<sup>26</sup>

**Materials needed:** a list of vocabulary words

This fun game is used at the end of class to fill time but also want to make it educational. Beyond working with the vocabulary students are learning, this game will stretch their brains and make them think in a different way.

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<sup>26</sup> [https://www.fluentu.com/blog/educator-english/esl-vocabulary-games/#toc\\_6](https://www.fluentu.com/blog/educator-english/esl-vocabulary-games/#toc_6)

**Instructions:**

1. Take a list of words that your students have recently learned and write a scrambled version of each on the board.

2. Allow students to unscramble the words on their paper.

The first student to finish deciphering all the words wins.

The teacher can also have each student find a word in their book or materials and write a scrambled version on the board one at a time. Then have the whole class try to figure it out together

**Task 4. Game: Lexical Matching**

Objective: Match the given words with their correct definitions and check students understanding of the key concepts related to the topic.

**Instructions:**

1. Prepare a list of 10-15 English words related to general lexicology. These words can include terms which have been explained in class.
2. Give appropriate time to students in pairs to match the words in a table with their definitions given in wrong order.
3. Check students' findings and evaluate their job.

**Task 5. Match the key concepts of the lexicology with their definitions**

	<b>Key words on the topic</b>	<b>Definition of the words</b>
1	<a href="#">morphology</a>	speech sounds and equivalent gestures in <a href="#">sign languages</a>
2	<a href="#">syntax</a>	Meaning
3	<a href="#">phonology</a>	structure of words
4	Paradigm	the abstract sound system of a particular language
5	<a href="#">pragmatics</a>	the system showing a word in all its word-forms
6	<a href="#">semantics</a>	how social <a href="#">context</a> contributes to meaning
7	Phonetics	rules governing the structure of sentences
8	Phraseological units	the largest two-facet lexical unit comprising more than one word
9	Word-group	the system formed by the total sum of all the words that the language possesses.

10	Vocabulary	words that have a specific valence
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## Task 6

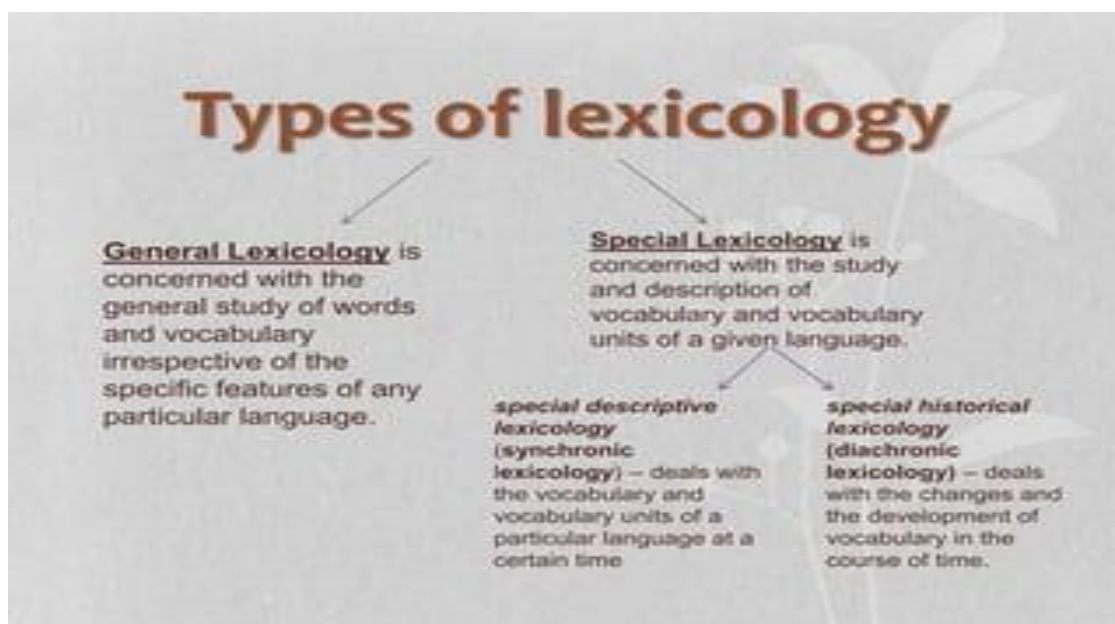
### 1. While- reading task; Answer the questions

1. What do you know about the term “approach”?
2. Define general lexicology and explain its role in studying the overall vocabulary and language usage of a particular language.
3. How do you define the word “diachronic”?
4. How does technical terminology contribute to the study of special lexicology, and what are some examples of technical terms in a specific field, such as engineering or computer science?

5. Read the following statements on lexicology and fill the gaps

Lexicology is a branch of linguistics which studies ..... of a language. Its basic task is to study ....., the different properties of the vocabulary of a language. In other words, lexicology is concerned with words and set phrases which ..... in speech. Lexicology also studies all kinds of ..... relations (synonyms, antonyms etc) and semantic grouping (semantic fields).

Words: *function the origin semantic the vocabulary*



## Task 7. Pair work


Using the table discuss with your pair following key words and define their functions

**Key concepts:** *general lexicology, special lexicology, comparative lexicology, historical lexicology, diachronic and synchronic approaches to English lexicology*

## Task 8. Individual work

**Fill in the gaps with the appropriate word(s) to complete the sentence:**

1. Comparative lexicology aims to compare the vocabulary and word usage of different \_\_\_\_\_.
2. The study of \_\_\_\_\_ reveals similarities and differences between languages.
3. One common method used in comparative lexicology is \_\_\_\_\_, which involves tracing the origins of words across languages.
4. The field of comparative lexicology provides insights into cultural and historical \_\_\_\_\_ between languages.

**Task 9. Fill in the gaps with the correct comparative forms of the given adjectives or adverbs:** 

- I.1. "The English language has a larger vocabulary than \_\_\_\_\_."
2. "The process of language change is \_\_\_\_\_ in English compared to other languages."
3. "The influence of Latin on English is \_\_\_\_\_ than the influence of Old Norse."
4. "Modern English is \_\_\_\_\_ than Old English in terms of word borrowing."
5. "In terms of word order, English is \_\_\_\_\_ flexible than Latin."
6. "French has \_\_\_\_\_ vowel sounds than English."

7. "Greek has a \_\_\_\_\_ complex system of verb conjugation compared to English."

8. "Chinese has \_\_\_\_\_ tones than most European languages."

**II. Fill in the gaps with the appropriate term related to comparative lexicology:** 

1. "The process of words being borrowed from one language to another is known as \_\_\_\_\_."

2. "The \_\_\_\_\_ of Germanic and Romance languages can be traced back to Latin."

3. "The study of cognates provides insights into the \_\_\_\_\_ between languages."

4. "Comparative lexicology involves analyzing the \_\_\_\_\_ of words across languages."

**III. Choose the appropriate words or word combinations to fill the gaps**

Task 1 comparative lexicology, connections, languages, etymology
Task 2. more complex, greater, fewer, more rapid, more flexible, most languages, more diverse, more
Task 3. evolution, etymology, borrowing, relationship

**Task 10. Choose the right answer and check your findings** 

**I. Find out the correct definition to the term comparative lexicology**

a) Comparative lexicology aims to compare the vocabulary and word usage of different languages.

b) The study of comparative lexicology reveals similarities and differences between languages.

c) One common method used in comparative lexicology is etymology, which involves tracing the origins of words across languages.



d) The field of comparative lexicology provides insights into cultural and historical connections between languages.

Correct answer: a

**II. Fill in the gaps with the correct comparative forms of the given adjectives:**

a) "The English language has *a* ..... vocabulary than most languages."

b) "The process of language change is ..... in English compared to other languages."

c) "The influence of Latin on English is .....than the influence of Old Norse."

d) "Modern English is ..... than Old English in terms of word borrowing."

( *more rapid, larger, more diverse, greater* )

Correct answers: a) larger b) more rapid c) greater d) more diverse

**III. Fill in the gaps with the correct comparative adverb or adjective:**

a) "In terms of word order, English is ..... than Latin."

b) "French has ..... vowel sounds than English."

c) "Greek has a ..... system of verb conjugation compared to English."

d) "Chinese has .....tones than most European languages."

( *fewer, more flexible, more, more complex* )

Correct answers: a) *more flexible* b) *fewer* c) *more complex* d) *more*

**IV. Fill in the gaps with the appropriate term related to comparative lexicology:**

a) "The process of words being borrowed from one language to another is known as ..... "

b) "The ..... of Germanic and Romance languages can be traced back to Latin."

c) "The study of .....provides insights into the relationship between languages."

d) "Comparative lexicology involves analyzing the ..... of words across languages."

(*evolution , etymology , borrowing, cognates*)

Correct answers: a) *borrowing* b) *evolution* c) *cognates* d) *etymology*

### Task 11. Group discussion topic.



1. Discuss the importance of lexicology in the study of scientific terminology, and provide an example of a scientific term used in biology or chemistry.
2. What does each types of lexicology deal with?
3. What is main difference between synchronic and diachronic linguistics ?
4. Analyze words *a beggar, a restaurant, a café* from synchronic and diachronic point of view
5. Organize poster presentation in small groups and present it to the class.

## SEMINAR II. LEXICOGRAPHY PRACTICAL SESSION

**Task 1.** Visit the link

<https://www.studysmarter.co.uk/explanations/english/linguistic-terms/lexicography/> and do the tests



**Task 2** Mark the sentences with the words **true or false**

1. Lexicography depends on its development in the solution of some general problems of Lexicology
2. The Oxford English Dictionary is a dictionary to which explains how to use words in speech
3. Lexico grammatical homonymy is a debatable problem in lexicography
4. Not all the words and phraseological units existing in the language are said to be recorded in dictionaries

5. Dictionaries have some supplementary material that may include addenda and various word-lists

6. Linguistic dictionaries are word-books, their subject matter is grammar-units (their semantic structure, usage, forms) etc.

### Task 3



Which of the following is the dictionary used for?

- a. ☐ Checking a word's spelling
- b. ☐ Checking a word's pronunciation
- c. ☐ Checking a word's meaning
- d. ☒ All answers are correct

2. What is the name of the person who researches and compiles a dictionary?

A lexicologist

A lexicographer

A lexitologist

A lexinographer

3. There are two types of lexicography, practical and \_\_\_\_.

superficial

specific

synonymous

theoretical

4. Lexicography depends on its development in the solution of some general problems of\_\_\_\_\_

- a. Lexicology
- b. Linguistics
- c. Sociolinguistics
- d. Methodology

### Task 4

### **Answer the questions**

1. What is the subject matter of lexicography?
2. When was the first English dictionary published?
3. When did other dictionaries appear?
4. What types of dictionaries do you know?
5. What do the general dictionaries present?
6. What do the translation dictionaries contain?
7. What is the aim of a learner's dictionary?
8. What information do the specialized dictionaries give us.

### **Task 5. Group discussion**



**Discuss the following questions in small groups and share your opinions with other group students.**

1. How might cultural considerations be integrated into the lexicographic process to ensure that definitions and examples are sensitive to cultural nuances and diverse perspectives?
2. In what ways can lexicography be made more accessible and inclusive for individuals with varying language proficiencies, including learners, bilingual individuals, and speakers of non-standard dialects?

### **Task 6. Discussion question**



1. How do borrowed words from other languages enrich the English language, and what impact do they have on its vocabulary and expressions?
2. What are some commonly used English borrowed words from other languages, and how do they reflect the influence of those cultures on English-speaking societies?



### Task 7.

#### I. Work on key concepts and give their definitions;

*borrowings, international words, neologisms archaic words, originated, loan words, translation loans, coinages, sources of the English vocabulary, paradigm*

English is generally regarded as ..... of the world's languages and it owes its ..... large vocabulary to its ..... to borrow and absorb words from outside. .... has taken over words from most of the other languages with which it has had contact. Words that have been taken from other languages are called .....

#### II.Fill the gaps with appropriate terms

ability , languages, borrowings, the richest, exceptionally, English

### Task 8 Answer the questions. 🏠 🏠

1. How can you explain the fact that English vocabulary contains such an enormous number of words that originated from foreign languages?
2. What is the feature of native words?
3. In what ways are borrowing originated?
4. Can explain the diachronic division of borrowed words?
5. Can you explain the earliest groups of English borrowings?
6. What words do Indo-European and Common Germanic stocks contain?
7. What languages does the English language borrow words from?

8. What is the features of international words?
9. In which areas of communication are international words commonly found?
10. What is meant by the term "etymological doublets"?

### Task 9 Match the definition<sup>27</sup>

## Loan Words To English, Pt. 2

Japanese uses many loan words (*gairaigo* or *wasei-igo*) from English and other languages. But so does English—do you know the meaning of these 10 words and their origin?

1. prima donna \_\_\_\_
2. doppelgänger \_\_\_\_
3. kitschy \_\_\_\_
4. entrepreneur \_\_\_\_
5. en route \_\_\_\_
6. aficionado \_\_\_\_
7. hurricane \_\_\_\_
8. monsoon \_\_\_\_
9. graffiti \_\_\_\_
10. pagoda \_\_\_\_

- A. on the way to somewhere
- B. paintings or drawings in public places, usually on walls
- C. someone who looks like someone else, but is not family
- D. a tall religious building in Asia with many levels and curved roofs
- E. someone who demands special treatment/is difficult to make happy
- F. someone who starts their own company
- G. like a typhoon, but in the Atlantic Ocean
- H. art or design that is so ugly it's funny/cool
- I. someone who is very interested and enthusiastic about a subject
- J. the season of heavy rain during the summer in many Asian countries

### Origin (there are two words from each):



Italian

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German

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French

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Spanish

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Portuguese

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ISLCollective.com

### Task 10. Choose the correct answer

<sup>27</sup> <https://en.islcollective.com/english-esl-worksheets/search/loan+words>

1.... is a word taken over from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language.

- A.. borrowed word
- B. translation loans
- C. archaic words
- D. international words

2,,,,,,,,, *are* associated with definite stages in the development of a society and cannot be neglected, though the things and phenomena to which they refer no longer exist.

- A.. borrowed word
- B. historical words
- C. archaic words
- D. international words

3..... are new words that denote new objects.

- A.. borrowed word
- B. historical words
- C. archaic words
- D. neologisms

4..... often came into English by way of Latin or French

- A.. Greek borrowings
- B. Latin borrowings
- C. French borrowings
- D. Italian borrowings

5..... are defined as words of identical origin and which occur in several languages as the result of simultaneous borrowings

A.. borrowed word

B. historical words

C. International words

D. neologisms

### **Task 10.**

Discuss the borrowed words related to different origins in small groups and find examples from different texts to each of them. Share your findings with other groups

### **Task 11. Match the neologisms with their explanations.**

<b>Neologisms</b>	<b>Explanation</b>
A. Google	1) Someone who is new to an online community or game.
B. Ego surfer	2) A vacation at home or in the immediate local area.
C. 404	3) Used to refer to super couple Brad Pitt and Angelina Jolie.
D. Brangelina	4) Someone who's clueless. From the World Wide Web error message 'Not Found'.
E.Noob	5) A person who boosts his ego by searching for his own name on Google and other search engines.
F. Staycation	6) To use an online search engine as the basis for looking up information on the World Wide Web.
G.Bobu	7) A person who posts obnoxious comments to an online community.
H.Troll	8) A businessman who leads a bohemian lifestyle.

### **Task 12. Work in pairs and answer the following questions**

1. What are word borrowings in English?
2. What are borrowings in English literature?
3. What are borrowed words examples?
4. What is the use of borrowing?



5. How do you use borrowing in a sentence?
6. Why are we borrowing words?

**Task 13. Discuss the questions in small groups and share your opinions with other groups**



1. In what ways do borrowed words add depth and diversity to the English language, and how do they contribute to global communication and understanding?
2. Do you think the process of borrowing words from other languages strengthens or dilutes the integrity of the English language, and why?

### **SEMINAR III. SEMASIOLOGY. PRACTICAL SESSION**

**Task 1. Answer the questions**



1. What do semantics, semasiology, and onomasiology investigate in the field of linguistics?
2. What is the importance of semasiology in linguistic analysis?
3. What are the three primary approaches to defining the meaning of a word?
4. What is the core concept behind the referential or analytical approach to meaning?
5. How is meaning determined from a functional or contextual perspective?
6. What is the fundamental idea behind the operational or information-oriented approach to meaning?
7. What are the key steps in the process of naming?
8. What different types of meaning can be identified?
9. What specific aspects of lexical meaning can be distinguished?
10. What are the connotational and pragmatic dimensions of lexical meaning that can be identified?

**Task 2 Gap fill sentences – CHRISTMAS <sup>28</sup>**

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<sup>28</sup> <http://www.cambridgeenglish.org/>

**Find the word to complete the sentence using the referents below:**

1. We are going to decorate our Christmas .....

2. Look at the beautiful ..... in the garden

3. I can't wait for you to open your.....

4. I get very excited on .....

5. Look out of the window, there is lots of.....



*Gap fill sentences answers - CHRISTMAS*

1. We are going to decorate our Christmas tree.

2. Look at the beautiful holly in the garden.

3. I can't wait for you to open your present.

4. I get very excited on Christmas Eve.

5. Look out of the window, there is lots of snow.

**Task 3. Work in pairs and discuss the questions.**

**Present your opinions in class**

What factors contribute to the evolution of the meaning of a word over time, and how does this impact communication and understanding among speakers of a language?

**Task 4. Visit the link**

<https://quizizz.com/admin/quiz/58f7ac599afee71100125dfc/determining-word-meanings> and check your knowledge

**Task 5. Choose the appropriate option**



1. Which of the following types of word choice is used when a salesperson is called a 'snake'?

- ☐ a. denotative
- ☐ b. connotative
- ☒ c. technical
- ☐ d. literal

2. Which of the following types of figurative language is used to exaggerate something for dramatic effect?

- a. hyperbole
- b. metaphor
- c. simile
- d. personification**

3. Which of the following types of figurative language best describes the following sentence? 'The media will spin this story like a top.'

- a. hyperbole
- b. metaphor
- c. simile
- d. personification

4. Which of these refers to an action that continues?

- a. onsetting
- b. ongoing
- c. one-way
- d. one-sided

5..... is defined as an expression in speech of relationship between words.

- a. The grammatical meaning
- b. The lexical meaning
- c. The part of speech meaning
- d. The denotational aspect

## SEMINAR IV. SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS

### EXERCISES

**1. Look at the following words and see if you can think of synonyms for them.**

- |               |                  |
|---------------|------------------|
| 1. stewardess | 6. field glasses |
| 2. booking    | 7. imperil       |
| 3. befuddled  | 4. jail          |
| 4. broil      | 9. sitting room  |
| 5. craven     | 10. yeah         |

**2. Find the dominant synonym in the following groups of synonyms**



- 1) to glitter – to glisten – to blaze – to shine – to sparkle – to flash – to gleam;
- 2) to glare – to gaze – to peep – to look – to stare – to glance;
- 3) to astound – to surprise – to amaze – to puzzle – to astonish;
- 4) strange – quaint – odd – queer;
- 5) to saunter – to stroll – to wander – to walk – to roam;
- 6) scent – perfume – smell – odour – aroma;
- 7) to brood – to reflect – to meditate – to think;
- 8) to fabricate – to manufacture – to produce – to create – to make;

9) furious – enraged – angry;

10) to sob – to weep – to cry.

The following sentences and jokes contain members of groups of synonyms. Provide as many synonyms as you can for each, explaining the difference between them; single out their dominant synonyms giving reasons for your choice.

1. ‘Why is it, Bob,’ asked George of a very stout friend, ‘that you fat *fellows* are always good-natured?’ ‘We have to be,’ answered Bob. ‘You see, we can’t either *fight* or run.’

2. A teacher was giving a lesson on the weather idiosyncrasies of March. ‘What is it,’ she asked, ‘that comes in like a lion and goes out like a lamb?’ And *little* Julia, in the back row, *replied*: ‘Father.’

3. ‘Just why do you *want* a married man to work for you, rather, than a bachelor?’ asked the curious chap. ‘Well,’ sighed the boss, ‘the married men don’t get so upset if I *yell* at them.’

4. Comic Dictionary: ADULT – a person who has stopped growing at both ends and started growing in the middle. BORE – one who insists upon *talking* about himself when you want to talk about yourself. PHILOSOPHER – one who instead of *crying* over split milk consoles himself with the thought that it was over four-fifths water.

**3. Find the dominant synonyms for the following italicized words and state if they can be used as substitutes.** 🍷 🍷

- 1) Never for a moment did he interrupt or *glance* at his watch.
- 2) The girl looked *astonished* at my ignorance.
- 3) Sometimes perhaps a tramp will *wander* there, seeking shelter from a sudden shower of rain.
- 4) The stony vineyards *shimmer* in the sun.
- 5) The restaurant was filled now with people who *chatted* and laughed.
- 6) I’ve got a sister and an *ancient* grandmother.

- 7) Chicken-pox may be a mild children's *disease*.
- 8) A bowl of roses in the sitting-room had a depth of colour and *scent* they had not possessed in the open.
- 9) It could be a dream world. So *pretty*, yet so sad.

**4. Explain the meanings of the following synonyms. Identify the difference in the connotational aspect of the meaning.**

**Model:** *to satisfy* – *to delight*. *To satisfy* – to meet the expectations, need, or desires of someone; *to delight* – to please greatly. – **Emotive charge and expressiveness (intensity)** are different.

Alone – lonely; to love – to worship; confidence – assurance; to create – to manufacture; to blush – to redden; to tremble – to shudder.

**5. Identify the difference in the pragmatic aspect of meaning of the given synonyms. Consult a dictionary** 

**Model:** *to cry* – *to weep*. The verb *to weep* is formal, whereas the verb *to cry* is neutral.

Refreshment – bite; to see – to behold; soldier – warrior; car – automobile; to begin – to commence; face – puss; to leave – to abandon; hearty – cordial; hand – fin.

**6. Classify the following synonyms into: a) stylistic; b) ideographic; c) ideographic-stylistic.**

**Model:** *mum* – *mother*


The words have the same denotational meaning 'a female parent', but they differ in the pragmatic aspect of meaning as the word *mum* is informal. Thus, this pair of synonyms belong to the group of stylistic synonyms.

To walk – to promenade; heaven – sky; intelligent – smart; information – data; to ask – to interrogate; to meet – to encounter; to foretell – to predict; affair – business.

**7. Find the euphemistic substitutes for the following words:**

1) die; 2) drunk; 3) mad person; 4) liar; 5) devil; 6) lavatory; 7) god; 8) eat; 9) pregnant; 10) stupid:

To refresh oneself; not exactly brilliant; Good Lord! the black one; public conveniences; in an interesting condition; to depart this life; insane; under the influence; to break bread; who does not always strictly tell the truth; a mental case; power room; expecting; The Prince of Darkness; unbalanced; to join the majority; Gracious me! To pass away; in the family way; (public) comfort station; mentally unstable; the evil one; to be taken; intoxicated; restroom; to close one's eyes; By Heavens!

**8. Look at the following words and see if you can think of antonyms for them. Then look them up in the dictionary.** 

- |              |                  |
|--------------|------------------|
| 1. beautiful | 6. heavy         |
| 2. cheap     | 7. introvert     |
| 3. credit    | 8. nadir         |
| 4. except    | 9. profit        |
| 5. hatred    | 10. professional |

**9. Find antonyms for the words given below.**

Good (adj); deep (adj); narrow (adj); clever (adj); young (adj); to love (v); to reject (v); to give (v); strong (adj); to laugh (v); joy (n); evil (n); up (adv); slowly (adv); sad (adj); to die (v); to open (v); clean (adj); darkness (n); big (adj).

**10. Give antonyms to the following words. Group them into a) antonyms of the same root and b) antonyms of different roots**

**Model:** *logical*. The antonym of the adjective *logical* is *illogical*. These words belong to the group of antonyms of the same root (a).

Dwarf (adj); happy (adj); careful (adj); criticism (n); obedience (n); above (adv); regular (adj); asleep (adj); back (adv); polite (adj); triumph (n); hope (n); artistic (adj); appear (v); prewar (adj); far (adv); love (n); known (adj).

## SEMINAR V. PRACTICAL SESSION. SEMANTIC CHANGE OF WORDS

**Task 1. Work in small groups and make up presentations according to**

**following topics;** 

1. Referential or analytical definitions of meaning
2. The functional approach to meaning
3. Types of meaning
4. The denotational and connotational aspects

**Task 2. Discussion questions**

1. How does cultural context influence the understanding and interpretation of the meaning of a word?
2. In what ways can the connotation of a word differ from its denotation, and how does this affect the overall impact of communication?
3. Can you think of words that have both positive and negative connotations depending on the context?"

**Task 3. Work on key concepts and give their definitions;** 

**Key concepts:** *concept, connotation, denotation, grammatical meaning, lexical meaning, part-of-speech meaning, pragmatic aspect of the meaning, register, semantics, semasiology, tenor of the discourse.*

**Task 4** 

Discuss the word-study in different literature. Share your findings with your peers.

**Task 5**

**Answer the following questions** 

1. What is semasiology busy with?
2. What does semasiology study?
3. What is the interpretation of the term "word meaning"?
4. What does the referential approach to meaning entail?
5. What does the functional approach to meaning involve?
8. What are the distinctions between differential and functional meanings of a word?



9. How are meaning and context interconnected?
10. How can the semantic structure of a word be characterized?

**Task 6. Find out appropriate answer to the questions**

1. What is the primary focus of semasiology?
  - a) The origin of words
  - b) The study of meaning in language
  - c) The study of phonetics
  - d) The study of grammar
2. Which of the following best represents the relationship between semasiology and onomasiology?
  - a) Semasiology focuses on the meaning of words, while onomasiology focuses on the naming of concepts.
  - b) semasiology is a subfield of onomasiology.
  - c) Onomasiology is a subfield of semasiology.
  - d) Semasiology and onomasiology are unrelated fields.
3. What is semantic change?
  - a) A change in the spelling of a word over time
  - b) A change in meaning of a word over time
  - c) A change in the pronunciation of a word over time
  - d) A change in the grammatical structure of a word over time
4. What does the term "polysemy" refer to?
  - a) Words that have multiple meanings
  - b) Words with a single, fixed meaning
  - c) Words that have shifted meaning over time
  - d) Words that are specific to a certain dialect or region
5. How does context play a role in determining the meaning of words?
  - a) Context has no impact on word meaning
  - b) Context is the sole determinant of word meaning

- c) Context can influence and shape the interpretation of word meaning
- d) Context is only relevant in written language, not spoken language

### **TASK 7 Discussion**



1. Discuss the ways of differentiating various meanings of the same word.
2. Discuss the problem of polysemy and the interrelation of polysemy and frequency value of the word.
3. Analyze referential approach and functional approach to the meaning of words

### **Task 8**

Give examples to monosemantic and polysemantic words in English. Compare your findings in Uzbek languages

### **Task 9**

**Discuss following questions with your peers**

1. What is the meaning of a word?
2. Characterize the referential approach.
3. Characterize the functional approach.
4. What does the denotational aspect of lexical meaning refer to?
5. What characterizes the connotational aspect of lexical meaning?
6. How is the pragmatic aspect of lexical meaning defined?
7. What are the various types of motivation, and how can each be described?
8. What specific linguistic factors contribute to semantic change?
9. How does the transformation from the denotational aspect of lexical meaning manifest in the outcomes?
10. What are the two main categories that describe the nature of semantic change?

### **Task 10**

**Visit the link and check your own knowledge on topic motivation**

<https://quizlet.com/701246345/match?funnelUUID=486ac5f4-a745-40eb-9e46-a147211dcab8>

## **SEMINAR VI. PRACTICAL SESSION. SEMANTIC FEATURES OF WORDS**

### **Task 1**

Answer the questions:

1. What is motivation? What types of motivation are there?
2. What is phonetic motivation? Give examples of phonetically motivated words.
3. What is sound symbolism? Give examples for and against it.
4. What is morphological motivation?
5. Prove that in some cases the morphological structure of a word is not enough to deduce its meaning.
6. Give example of applying diachronic approach to motivation.
7. What is folk motivation?
8. What is semantic motivation? Give examples.



### **Task 2. Group discussion**

**Discuss in small groups following types of motivation.**

- A) Phonetic motivation
- B) morphological motivation
- C) semantic motivation

*Find examples to each type of motivation. Present your job in class with your groupmates*

### **Task 3. Divide the following antonymous pairs into**

**a) contradictories; b) contraries; c) incompatibles.**

**Model:** *old – young*. These antonyms refer to the group of contraries as they are polar members of a gradual opposition which has the following intermediate members: *middle-aged*.

Man – woman; poetry – prose; evil – good; inch – foot; beautiful – ugly; Saturday – Thursday; teacher – pupil; to adore – to loathe; one – thousand; tremendous – tiny; iron – copper; to accept – to reject; round – square; creditor – debtor; immaculate – filthy; boy – man; day – night; clever – stupid; red – brown; inside – outside; open – shut; December – May.

**Task 4. Arrange the following units into two lexical and two terminological sets. Give them corresponding names.**

Multi-storey block of flats, hardware, mainframe, detached house, wire-haired fox terrier, climbing rope, bull terrier, disk; horse (vaulting horse), monitor, terraced house, Scottish terrier, trampoline, interface, Bedlington terrier, floor, high-rise block of flats, landing mat, Pekiness, asymmetric bars, software, weekend house, springboard, server, cottage, beam, semi-detached house.

**Task 5. Classify the following words and word-combinations into**

**1) lexico-semantic groups**

**2) semantic fields under the headings *education* and *feeling*.** 🍕 🍕

To bear malice, book, displeased, to teach, intelligent, indifference, classmate, affection, to coach, frustrated, in a temper, to repeat a year, pedagogical, college, hatred, student, passion, calm, exercise, satisfaction, to write, reader, course, to supervise, to infuriate, to develop habits, unrest, shock, methodological, to hurt, to smatter of (in), knowledge, to adore, tuition, happy, angry, disciplined, methodological.

**Task 6. Group discussion.**



Presentation. In small groups choose one of these topics and present your gained knowledge

**a) semantic classification of words**

**b) semantic change of words**

**c) semantic feature of words**

## **SEMINAR VII. PRACTICAL SESSION. MORPHOLOGY**

### **Activity 1: Find the Roots<sup>29</sup>**

**Objective:** The students will understand the concept of root words.

**Task 1:** Explain to your students that the root word is the main word in a longer word. Work through examples, and provide your students with a list of complex words for them to practice identifying root words.

**Example complex word list:** nosey, hopeless, sleeping, carefully, breakable, tossed, troubling, dogs, judgmental, enjoyment

### **Task 2: Fix the Prefixes and Suffixes**

**Objective:** The student will understand the concept of affixes.

They will be able to implement the words with affixes in their  
Communications

### **Activity 2:**

For this lesson on prefixes and suffixes, it is important to explain to your students that prefixes are little parts added to the beginning of a word, while suffixes are added to the end of a word. These affixes can change the meaning of the root word, creating a new word with a different meaning.

Encourage your students to understand that adding prefixes and suffixes can transform the original root word, altering its meaning and creating new words. By matching the broken root words with the correct prefixes or suffixes, students can see how these affixes change the overall meaning and form of the word.

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<sup>29</sup> <http://www.fcrr.org/curriculum/PDF/G4-5/45VPartTwo.pdf>

Discuss with your students how each prefix or suffix contributes to the meaning of the root word. By analyzing the combinations of prefixes and suffixes with the root words, students can grasp how these affixes modify the original word, enhancing their vocabulary and understanding of word formation. This interactive activity will not only reinforce their knowledge of prefixes and suffixes but also demonstrate how these elements play a crucial role in expanding their vocabulary and language skills.

<b>Example: Basement</b>	
Base	-ish
Break	-y
Blue	-ed
Quick	-ion
Mood	-ful
Tempt	-ing
Transit	-ly
Hope	-able
Cry	-less
Care	-ment

### Activity 3: Word Sort

**Objective:** The students will recognize word families based on morphemes.

**Task:** Instruct the students to examine and sort the listed words based on their morphemes. Then, encourage them to predict the meaning of the morpheme based on their current knowledge and the patterns they observe.

**Example word list:** judgment, disagree, colorful, argument, distrust, eventful, apartment, discomfort, fearful, hateful, disadvantage, wonderful, resentment, discontent, statement

### Activity 4: Big Word Breakdown

**Objective:** The students will use their knowledge of morphemes to decipher the meaning of unfamiliar words.

**Task 4:** Instruct the students to skim a chapter of their textbook (for any subject) and write down 10 big words. For each word, have the student identify the root word

and any prefixes or suffixes. They should write down the meaning of each of these parts, and then use this to infer a definition of the whole word.

**Example:** subsequently

Prefix: sub- = under

Root: sequent = following in a sequence

Suffix: -ly = characterized by; act in that way

Possible meaning: acting in a way that follows “under” something else in a sequence

Student friendly definition: something that occurs *subsequently* to something else occurs later than or after it in time

### **Activity 5: Spotlight**

**Objective:** The student will apply their knowledge of morphological awareness to determine the meaning of curriculum-related words.

**Task:** Select one or two complex, curriculum-specific words from your lesson. When it comes up during your lesson, explicitly assess the word’s morphologic structure and inquire about its meaning.

**Example:** When teaching shapes in your math class, write the word “triangle”. Explain that the prefix “tri” means three, and this shape is called a “triangle” because it has three angles. Relate this to other words that share this prefix, such as tricycle, triceratops, and triplet.

### **Activity 6: Building Blocks**



**Objective:** The student will blend prefixes, suffixes, and roots to create complex words.

**Task:** Make flashcards with a variety of prefixes, suffixes, and roots. Instruct the students to physically manipulate the flash cards to create as many real words as they can. Encourage the students to compare and contrast the meanings of words.

Alternatively, students could also build words by assembling large pieces of Lego that have prefixes, suffixes, and roots written on them.

**Example list:** en-, content, un-, joy, light, -ment, -al, courage, -ous, dis-, -ly, re

### **Activity 7: Build the Word, Use the Word** 🍷 🍷

**Objective:** The students will apply their knowledge of units of meaning by using them in a sentence.

**Task:** Provide the students with a list of root words plus one prefix or suffix. Have the students add the prefix or suffix to the root word and then use the new word in a sentence.

**Example:** Suffix: -less. Root words: fear, hope, thought.  
Fear → fearless. The fearless firefighter ran into the burning building.

### **Activity 8: Sort and Spell**

**Objective:** The students will devise a spelling rule based on knowledge of affixes.

**Task:** Provide the students with a list of words and have them group the words according to spelling. The two groups should be distinguished by a pair of affixes that mean the same thing but are spelled differently. Encourage the students to examine the words to come up a rule for when to use each of the affixes.

**Example list:** honorable, visible, predictable, enjoyable, fashionable, edible  
Rule: When the root word looks like a whole word, add the suffix -able.  
When the root word is not a full word, use the suffix -ible

## **SEMINAR VIII. WORD FORMATION PRACTICAL SESSION**

### **Task 1**

#### **True or false activity** 🍷 🍷

**Read the statements and identify whether it is True or False**



1. Conversion is a type of word formation process in which a word is assigned to a new word class or part of speech without any change in form. T
2. The pivotal element in the conversion process is word. F Meaning
3. Conversion has happened if a word has changed structure and grammatical category. F
4. The following words are connected by the process of conversion  
Fine (adjective) → a fine (noun) F
5. Conversion happens when an existing word is converted to mean something slightly different T
6. Exemplification is **not** a synonym for conversion T

### **Task 3**

#### **Answer the questions**

1. What are some common examples of conversion in English?
2. How does conversion differ from other types of word formation, such as affixation or compounding?
3. Is conversion more common in certain parts of speech, like nouns to verbs or vice versa? Can you provide examples?
4. Can you think of any instances where the meaning of a word changes when it undergoes conversion?
5. Are there any potential challenges or ambiguities that can arise from the process of conversion?
6. How does conversion contribute to the flexibility and productivity of the English language?
7. Can you identify any particular patterns or rules that govern the conversion of words?
8. Are there any instances where conversion can create confusion or lead to misunderstandings?

9. Can you create your own examples of words that have undergone conversion?
10. Explain the resulting grammatical category and how it changes the word's meaning, if applicable.

**Task 4** Instructions: Match each word formation mechanism on the left with its corresponding example on the right.

- |                      |                              |
|----------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Affixation        | a. Unhappiness               |
| 2. Compounding       | b. Brunch                    |
| 3. Conversion        | c. NASA                      |
| 4. Blending          | d. Mouse (n) -> to mouse (v) |
| 5. Acronym formation | e. Smoke + fog               |
| 6. Coinage           | f. Pajama                    |
| 7. Borrowing         | g. Unhappy                   |

**Answers:**

- |                      |                              |
|----------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Affixation        | g. Unhappy                   |
| 2. Compounding       | b. Brunch                    |
| 3. Conversion        | d. Mouse (n) -> to mouse (v) |
| 4. Blending          | e. Smoke + fog               |
| 5. Acronym formation | c. NASA                      |
| 6. Coinage           | f. Pajama                    |
| 7. Borrowing         | a. Unhappiness               |

**Task 5. Visit the link and do test. Check your own knowledge**



<https://quizizz.com/admin/quiz/6148574efcf91a001e00ebc3/word-formation-processisit>

**Task 6. Discuss with your partner** 🍰 🍰

1. Can you think of any instances where the meaning of a word changes when it undergoes conversion?
2. Are there any potential challenges or ambiguities that can arise from the process of conversion?
3. Are there any instances where conversion can create confusion or lead to misunderstandings?


4. Can you create your own examples of words that have undergone conversion?
5. Explain the resulting grammatical category and how it changes the word's meaning, if applicable.

**Key concepts:** *conversion, compounding, shortening, word changes, word building, derivation, word formation, phonetical development*

**Task 7** Use the words in brackets to form a new word that fits into the gap.<sup>30</sup>

1. I have a very good \_\_\_\_\_ with both my parents (**RELATION**)
2. Pulling my front tooth didn't hurt. – It was completely \_\_\_\_\_ (**PAIN**).
3. I can tell from your \_\_\_\_\_ that you're not really happy (**EXPRESS**)
4. We offer free \_\_\_\_\_ for purchases over € 100 (**DELIVER**).
5. It is \_\_\_\_\_ colder today than it was yesterday (**CERTAIN**).
6. What \_\_\_\_\_ is he ? Spanish or Portuguese ? (**NATION**)
7. You have the \_\_\_\_\_. – You can either go by bus or walk (**CHOOSE**).
8. My best friend has a great \_\_\_\_\_. (**PERSON**).
9. You need a lot of \_\_\_\_\_ to write a good story (**IMAGINE**)
10. The lesson was \_\_\_\_\_. I almost fell asleep. (**BORE**)
11. It's simply \_\_\_\_\_. I have won the lottery . (**BELIEVE**)
12. There's a lot of \_\_\_\_\_ about that on the internet (**INFORM**)

### Task 8

Visit the link <https://engxam.com/handbook/practice-tests-100-word-formation-b2-first-fce/> and do the task on word formation. Then check your answers 

Use the word in capitals to form a word that fits in the gap. For each question, write your answer in the gap.

1.  are warning about the effects global warming will have on us. (**SCIENCE**)

<sup>30</sup> <https://www.english-grammar.at/worksheets/language-in-use/word-formation-index.htm>

2. Matt quickly came to the  that Jane was not telling the truth. **(CONCLUDE)**

3. The  of our flight was delayed due to fog. **(ARRIVE)**

4. Both teams gave a wonderful  in the match. **(PERFORM)**

5. Easter Island is famous for its  statues. **(ASTONISH)**

6. The woman was hit so hard that she lost . **(CONSCIOUS)**

7. For their own  the visitors of zoos are kept at a distance. **(SAFE)**

8. You should take the antibiotics for a whole week so that it is . **(EFFECT)**

9. Jane has been suffering from headaches . **(LATE)**

10. Most people believe that it is  that UFOS exist. **(PROBABLE)**

### **Task 9. Answer the questions**

1. What is word formation, and why is it important in linguistic analysis?
2. What are the different methods of word formation in English? Please provide examples for each.
3. How does affixation contribute to word formation? Give examples of words that are formed through prefixes and suffixes.
4. Explain the process of compounding and provide examples of compound words.
5. Describe the concept of conversion in word formation and give examples of words that undergo conversion.
6. What is blending, and how does it create new words? Provide examples.
7. How does clipping contribute to word formation? Give examples of clipped words.

8. What are acronyms, and how are they formed? Provide examples of common acronyms.

9. Discuss the importance of word formation in understanding and expanding vocabulary.

10. Can you think of any limitations or challenges in studying and analyzing word formation in English lexicology?

**Task 10 Work in pairs, discuss the following task.** 🍷 🍷

Give examples to productive and non-productive way of forming words.

Make a list of two ways of forming words. Share your findings with the whole group.

**Task 11**

**1. Discuss in small groups following types of word formation.**

*Affixation, conversion, blending, compounding, sound interchange.*

2. Organize poster presentation and present your job in class.

**Task 12. Choose the correct answer**

1. When a derivational or functional affix is stripped from the word what remains is a ...

- A. stem
- B. morpheme
- C. affix
- D. root

2.... serve to convey grammatical meaning.

- A. a derivational affix
- B. morpheme
- C. affix
- D. functional affixes

3. ... serve to supply the stem with components of lexical and lexico-grammatical meaning, and thus form different words.

- A. derivational affixes

- B. functional affixes
- C. prefixes
- D. zero affix

4. Suffixes -age, -ance, -ence, -dom, -ee, -eer, -er, -ess, -hood are.....

- A. verb-forming suffixes
- B. adjective-forming suffixes
- C. adverb-forming suffixes
- D. noun-forming suffixes

5. Suffixes: -able, -ible, -uble, -al, -ic, -ary, -ed-d, -ful are ...

- A. verb-forming suffixes
- B. adjective-forming suffixes
- C. adverb-forming suffixes
- D. noun-forming suffixes

6. Suffixes -ate, -er, -en, -fy-ify, -ize, -ish are ...

- A. verb-forming suffixes
- B. adjective-forming suffixes
- C. adverb-forming suffixes
- D. noun-forming suffixes

7. ... we shall mean those that existed in English in the Old English period or were formed from Old English words.

- A. semi-affixes
- B. adjective-forming suffixes
- C. native affixes
- D. noun-forming suffixes

8. ... neither of the components dominates the other, both are structurally and semantically independent and constitute two structural and semantic centers as in secretary-stenographer, actor-manager, bittersweet, etc. The constituent stems in these compounds belong to the same part of speech and most often to the same semantic group.

- A. semi-affixes

- B. coordinative compounds
- C. native affixes
- D. noun-forming suffixes

9... are elements that stand midway between roots and affixes.

- A. semi-affixes
- B. coordinative compounds
- C. native affixes
- D. noun-forming suffixes

10.....of words consists in clipping a part of a word

- A. Blending
- B. *Abbreviation*
- C. Back formation
- D. Conversion

## SEMINAR IX PRACTICAL SESSION. PHRASEOLOGY

### Task 1

Visit the link

<https://quizizz.com/admin/quiz/5b68da6fe0d1d3001969b419/phrases> and check your understanding on the topic phraseology

### Task 2

**Discuss following phraseological units in peers and make up situations using them** 🍰 🍰

“kick the bucket”,

“Greek gift”,

“drink till all's blue”,

“drunk as a fiddler (drunk as a lord, as a boiled owl)”,

“as mad as a hatter (as a march hare)”

### Task 3. Find the correct answer



1..... are fully motivated word-groups their meanings are easily deduced from meanings of their constituents.

- A) Phraseological collocations
- B) Phraseological units
- C) Phraseological fusions
- D) Idioms

2..... can be defined as a non-motivated word-group that cannot be freely made up in speech, but is reproduced as a ready-made unit. It is a group of words whose meaning cannot be deduced by examining the meaning of the constituent lexemes.

- A) Phraseological collocations
- B) Phraseological fusions
- C) Phraseological units
- D) Idioms

3..... are not only motivated but contain one component used in its direct meaning, while the other is used metaphorically.

- A) Phraseological collocations
- B) Phraseological fusions
- C) Phraseological units
- D) Idioms

4. *in the course of, on the stroke of* are examples of.....

- A) adverb phraseological units
- B) preposition phraseological units
- C) adverb phraseological units
- D) adjective phraseological units

5. *latchkey child, redbrick university, Green Berets* are examples of.....

- A) adverb phraseological units
- B) preposition phraseological units



C) adverb phraseological units

D) noun phraseological units

6. *now or never, part and parcel, country and western* are examples of.....

A) phraseological repetitions

B) preposition phraseological units

C) adverb phraseological units

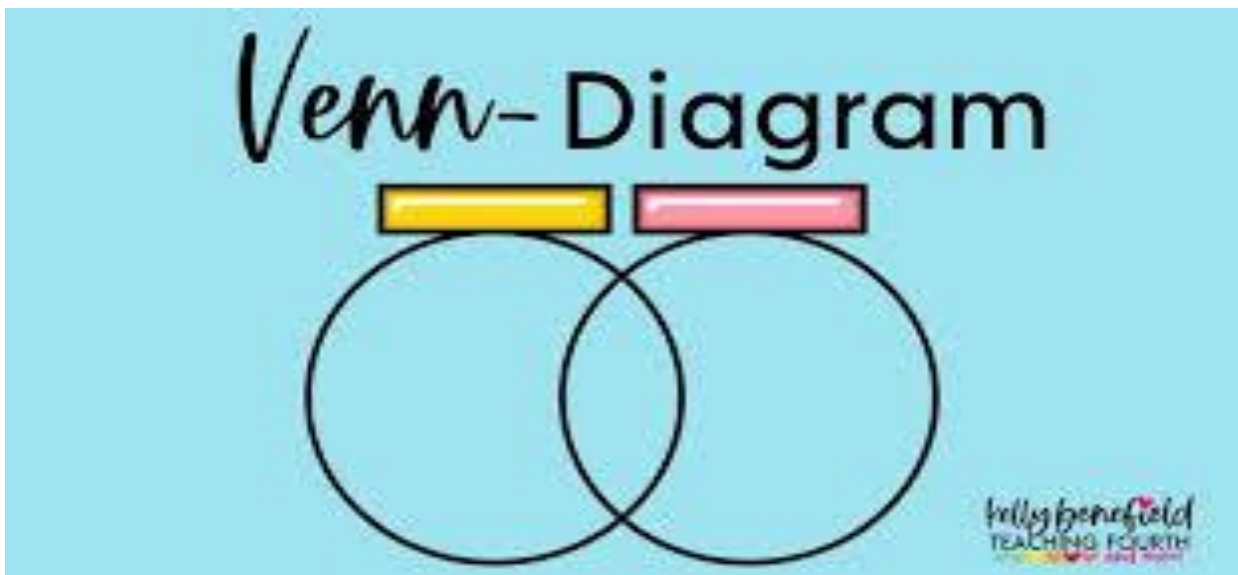
D) adjective phraseological units

## SEMINAR 10. PRACTICAL SESSION. ETYMOLOGY

### Task 1 Answer the following questions

1. Explain the difference between native words and borrowings?
2. Give your understanding about explanation of the word “watch” in the lecture.
3. What are translation loans?
4. Explain assimilated loan words and give examples to them.

### Task 2. Language comparison project



Compare and contrast the etymology of specific English words with their equivalents in other languages, highlighting how different languages have influenced

each other and how meanings have diverged or converged over time. Use Venn Diagram to present your jobs.

### **Task 3. Word exploration activity**



Work in small groups. Select a series of English words with interesting etymological roots and create a presentation or interactive activity to explain their origins and connections to other languages. Encourage discussion and participation among peers.

### **Task 4. Vocabulary analysis project**



Analyze a selection of words in English literature, scientific texts, or legal documents, and discuss the significance of their etymology in understanding their nuanced meanings and connotations within their respective contexts.

### **Task 5. Writing report**



Research and write a report on the etymology of a specific set of English words, exploring their origins, historical development, and how their meanings have evolved over time. Present your findings with examples and visual aids

#### **Topics for independent study:**

1. Lexicology and language.
2. Phonetic and morphological aspects of words.
3. Qualitative and quantitative aspects of vocabulary.
4. Archaisms and neologisms.
5. Lexical naming activities and ways to enrich vocabulary.
6. Etymological classification of the language dictionary.
7. Paradigmatics and syntagmatics in studying the structure of word meaning role.
8. Word types and lexical-semantic meanings.

9. Synonyms, antonyms and homonyms.
10. Morphological formation of the word.
11. Fixed and free compounds.
12. Similarity and difference of phraseologisms.
13. Etymology of words.
14. Lexical analysis of texts

### Additional tasks and questions on topics V A R I A N T №1

I. Give more examples in which verbs are formed from noun.

For example:

a finger	—————→	to finger
a hand	—————→	to hand
a bus	—————→	to bus
a weekend	—————→	to weekend

II. How do we call the branch of Lexicology, which deals with the meanings of the words?

- |                |                 |
|----------------|-----------------|
| A) Stylistic   | D) Lexicology   |
| B) Semasiology | E) Etymology    |
| C) Polysemism  | F) Lexicography |

III. Crossword. Find the appropriate words

1							3	

**Horizontal:**

- |                |                |
|----------------|----------------|
| 1) a) internet | c) supermarket |
| b) e mail      | d) Beydjek     |

How do we call these words?

- 2) Words with the different shape and meaning but similar sound.

**Vertical:**

- 3) Travel journey, trip, voyage.....  
 4) Words with opposite meaning.

**IV. Give examples to ideographic and stylistic synonyms.**

*For example: Handsome, good looking, pretty, beautiful*

**Stylist:** to see -

to be hold-

**V. Make up negative of these words.**

lucky	regular	natural
dignant	different	like
important	motivated	habitant

**V A R I A N T №2**

**I. Look, read and find words belong to lexicology**



					<b>G</b>
					<b>Y</b>

- 1) lab (clipping)
- 2) jump (syn)
- 3) represent something as being larger
- 4) at first
- 5) fundamental
- 6) vegetable
- 7) type of lexicology
- 8) clear
- 9) related to
- 10) not sunny

### III. True/ False. (T/F)

1. A morpheme is two-faced language unit. \_\_\_\_\_
2. Phonemes have meanings. \_\_\_\_\_
3. -er, -al, -s, -dom, -hood, -ship are suffixes. \_\_\_\_\_
4. Morphemes have no meaning. \_\_\_\_\_
5. Phonemes have three types. \_\_\_\_\_

IV. Read *additional information* about neologisms. What new or interesting have you learnt?

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## V A R I A N T №3

**I. Find 10 words according the lexicology and underline them.**

N	e	O	N	o	I	S	i	c	y
S	m	L	D	i	V	I	x	o	g
I	g	O	B	u	S	L	e	I	O
D	E	R	E	d	<b>C</b>	<b>O</b>	t	e	D
A	V	I	<b>I</b>	<b>o</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>N</b>	r	e	V
N	N	Y	<b>S</b>	<b>r</b>	<b>E</b>	<b>V</b>	c	o	N
T	O	M	A	m	S	P	h	r	A
P	I	N	R	s	E	M	y	g	S
P	S	G	C	i	H	E	m	o	E
I	L	C	H	a	P	R	o	I	O

**II. Continue the following words:**

*subj* \_\_\_\_\_

*relate* \_\_\_\_\_

*gene* \_\_\_\_\_

*meth* \_\_\_\_\_

*diach* \_\_\_\_\_

*appro* \_\_\_\_\_

*lexic* \_\_\_\_\_

*conne* \_\_\_\_\_

*styl* \_\_\_\_\_

*gram* \_\_\_\_\_

*hist* \_\_\_\_\_

*parad* \_\_\_\_\_

*synt* \_\_\_\_\_

*subdi* \_\_\_\_\_

**III. True/ False. (T/F)**

1. Poly morphemic words consist of one root. \_\_\_\_\_

2. The stem is a part of the word.\_\_\_\_\_
3. The stem changes throughout its paradigm.\_\_\_\_\_
4. “Open-hearted, half-done, night-glass” are bound morphemes.\_\_\_\_\_
5. In Uzbek language there are not derived and compound words.\_\_\_\_\_

**IV. Discuss or guess the meaning of the following vocabulary.**

Dead and living affixes

Productive affixes

`Nonproductive affixes

Productivity of affixes

Frequency of affixes

**V. Fill the blanks using the vocabulary in task IV:**

1. \_\_\_\_\_ affixes are those which are characterized by their ability to make new words.
2. \_\_\_\_\_ affixes which are no longer felt in Modern English as component part of words.
3. \_\_\_\_\_ of affixes is characterised by the occurrence of an affix in a great number of words.
4. \_\_\_\_\_ affixes are easily singled out from a word.
5. \_\_\_\_\_ affixes are those which are not used to form new words in Modern English.
6. \_\_\_\_\_ is the ability of a given suffix or prefix to make new words.

**V A R I A N T №4**

**I. Form words with the help of affixations.**





## II. Make up verbs converted from nouns, and nouns converted from verbs.

F.e: a face – to face

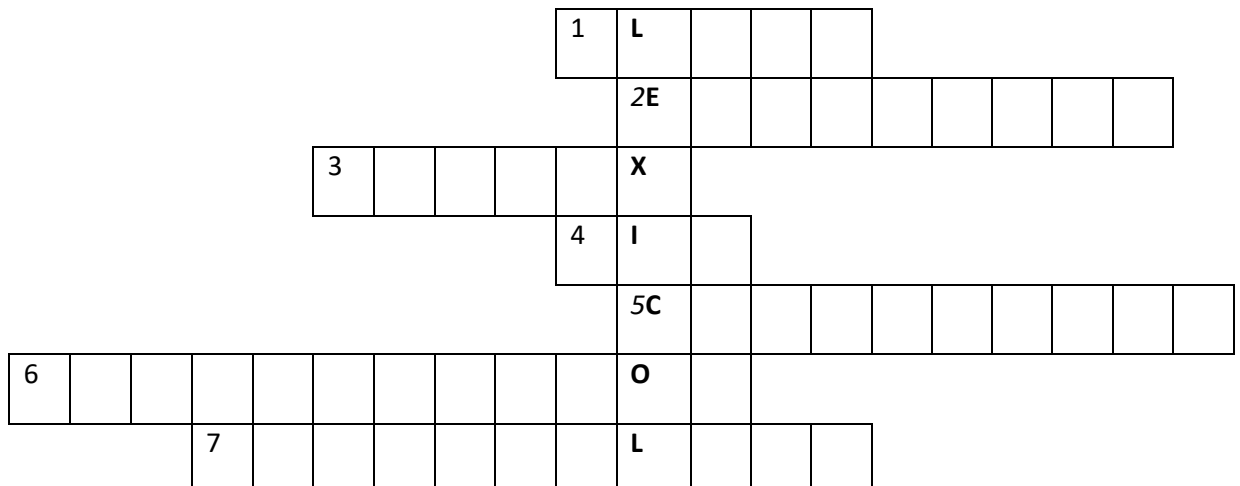
to jump – a jump

What kind of word formation is it?

## III. Clippings and abbreviations and difference between them?

## IV. Explain the study of conversion on the diachronic and synchronic levels.

## V. Guess the crossword



						8	O	
9							G	
		10					Y	

1. Emotionally coloured words, which are the secondary names of objects.
2. Words, which are used instead of unpleasant ones.
3. Affixation, which transfers words to a different parts of speech.
4. A clipping.
5. A very productive way of forming new words.
6. A word consists of the first letter of a word group.
7. A subject, which studies synonyms, antonyms, homonyms and etc!
8. A clipping.
9. A word that consists in the cutting of one or several syllables.
10. A word, which has a contrary meaning.

## V A R I A N T №5

### I. What is the comparative study of the structure of words?

Give the equal examples for the following English derived words in Uzbek.

*Ex: beautiful, notable, freedom, friendship.*

### II. What is shortening?

Find out the whole words of following shortenings:

f.ex: abbr – abbreviation	tel –
asap –	wk –
bk –	pop –
doz –	nr –
eg –	opp –

### III. What is conversion?

Give 10 examples for the creation of verbs from nouns.

f.ex: an act – to act

a bike – to bike

a dash – to dash

### IV. Do this crossword using the lexicological terms.

C									
O									
N									
V									
E									
R									
S									
I									
O									
N									

### V. Find out the names of flowers.

For ex: The cabal sampled defeat when its motive became known – balsam

- 1) The bright sun flowered the hopes of the worried farmer\_\_\_\_\_
- 2) Is the woman behind the purdahli able to be unhappy?\_\_\_\_\_
- 3) There is some broccoli lying in the vegetable tray \_\_\_\_\_
- 4) Can naval staff help rescue the drawing people? \_\_\_\_\_

## VARIANT №6

### I. What is an affixation?

Explain and give examples.

## II. What is a conversion?

- a) A formation of words with the help of derivational affixes.
- b) Words belonging to the same part of speech.
- c) A productive of forming new words in modern English.
- d) A branch of linguistic which studies the vocabulary of a language.
- e) A part of general linguistics which studies general properties of words.

## III. Which of these prefixes are negative?

- un, - in, - miss, - er, - ist, - ent, - dis, - non, - ian, - ess.

## IV. Find out the names of fruits.

- 1) I hope a cheese – cake is available at the pastry shop. \_\_\_\_\_
- 2) The hunters tried to grab an anaconda by its tail. \_\_\_\_\_
- 3) I shall buy you a doll if I go to the shop. \_\_\_\_\_
- 4) Mrs. Surewater heard a big rap early morning on the door \_\_\_\_\_

## V. Answer the questions

1. What is the formation of the words with the help of derivational affixes.

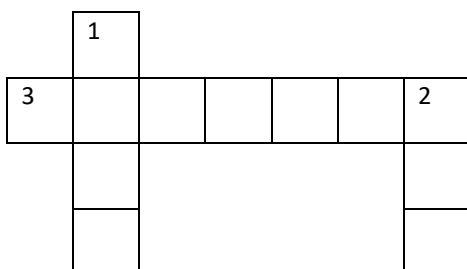
- 1. What is a branch of linguistic?
- 2. One of the subdivisions of lexicology?
- 3. What is a very productive way of forming new words in Modern English?
- 4. Which level studies the origin of conversion?
- 5. What kind of words can not be synonymous in all their meanings.

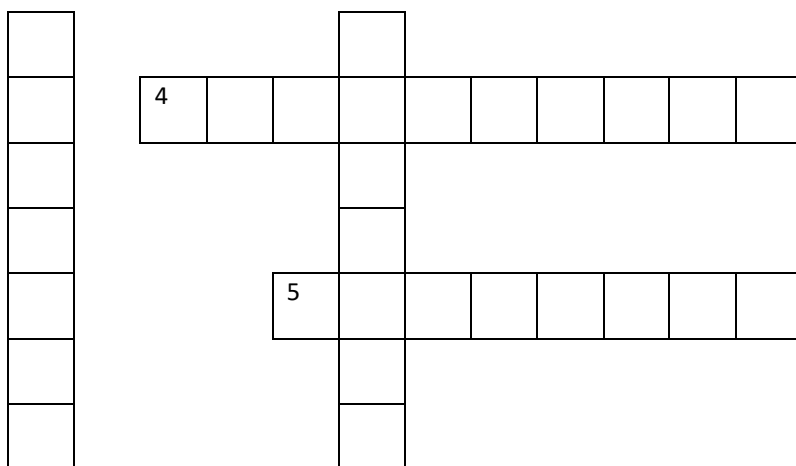
## VARIANT №7

### I. Answer the questions

- 1. How many types of lexicology do you know and what are they?
- 2. What is the difference between descriptive and historical lexicology?
- 3. How do we classify the prefixes according to their meanings?

### II. Crossword corner





### Down:

1. What type of lexicology is studied the word at a synchronic aspect.
2. A branch of linguistics studying the vocabulary of a language.

### Across:

3. Which types of lexicology attempts to find out the universals of vocabulary development and patterns.
4. What should people use in order to come to one conclusion?
5. The smallest indivisible two-faced language unit.

### III. Use the neologisms and fill in the gaps:

*staycation, noob, google, trolls, bobu*

1. As I am just a \_\_\_\_\_ in copywriting, I'll need some help.
2. Dear administrator, please black all the \_\_\_\_\_ in this group – they are just unbearable!
3. Some people opt for \_\_\_\_\_ as it is much cheaper than going somewhere. However, the impressions may not be equal.
4. If there is something you don't know, \_\_\_\_\_ it and you are likely to find the right information.
5. He is such a \_\_\_\_\_ – he can't live without fancy parties and constant media exposure.

#### IV. Match acronyms and interpretations:

Acronym	Interpretation
<i>A. URL (pronounced "earl")</i>	<i>1) local area network</i>
<i>B. GUI (pronounced "gooey")</i>	<i>2) graphics interchange format</i>
<i>C. DOS (pronounced "doss")</i>	<i>3) uniform resource locator</i>
<i>D. SCSI (pronounced "skuzzy")</i>	<i>4) graphical user interface</i>
<i>E. LAN (pronounced "lan")</i>	<i>5) small computer system interface</i>
<i>F. GIF (pronounced "jiff")</i>	<i>6) disc operating system</i>

#### V A R I A N T №8

**I. Word game. Put any word or in the middle to form a word that suits in both right and left side.**

LO		CIENT
GRE		OUGH
SUFF		CREAM
DIFFI		URE
MANU		WAYS
BUBB		MON
AB		SIDE
SWALL		N
ROA		REET
HOR		VEN

**II. Make up a word putting letters to every arrow.**

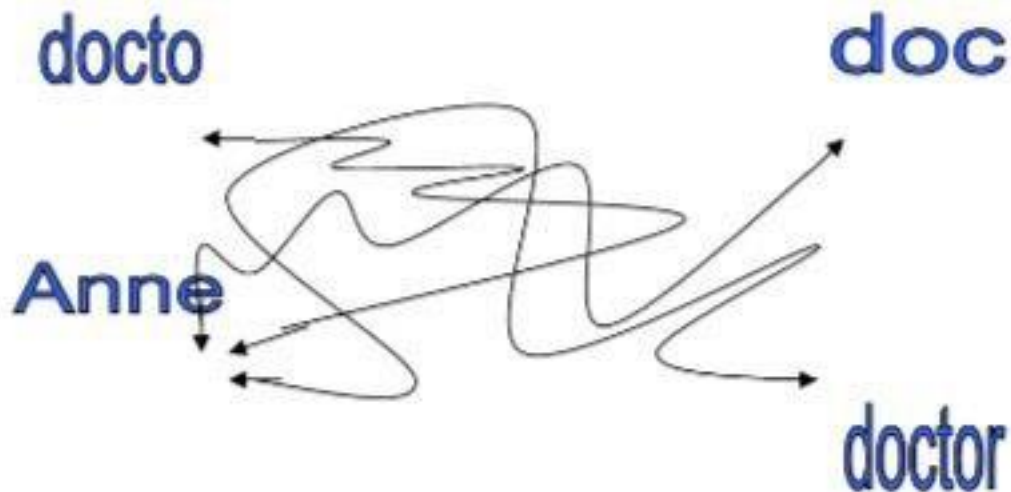


- .1) A drop of cry
- 2) A kind of animal.
- 3) Darling (syn)
- 4) A part of body.
- 5) Our land
- 6) To find money by working.
- 7) Not far
- 8) Not late

**III. Make up a word belonging to lexicology taking the initial letters of these pictures.**



**IV. Anne was to find shortly the word “doctor”. what way should Anne choose?**



**V. How many subdivisions does lexicology have?**

- A) 5                      B) 3                      C) 4

**V A R I A N T №9**

**I. Full in with affixes: dom, ness, full, ship**

1. He always fought against the war for free .....
2. Happy ..... is wealth.
3. Mercy ... mother cares of her child every time.
4. Sport is a sign of friend....

**II. Make up part of speech from using these words.**

Pronounce          whistled          development

Informed          smilessubscription

Vanished          clearly          patiently

Kindled          narrowly          tablespoon

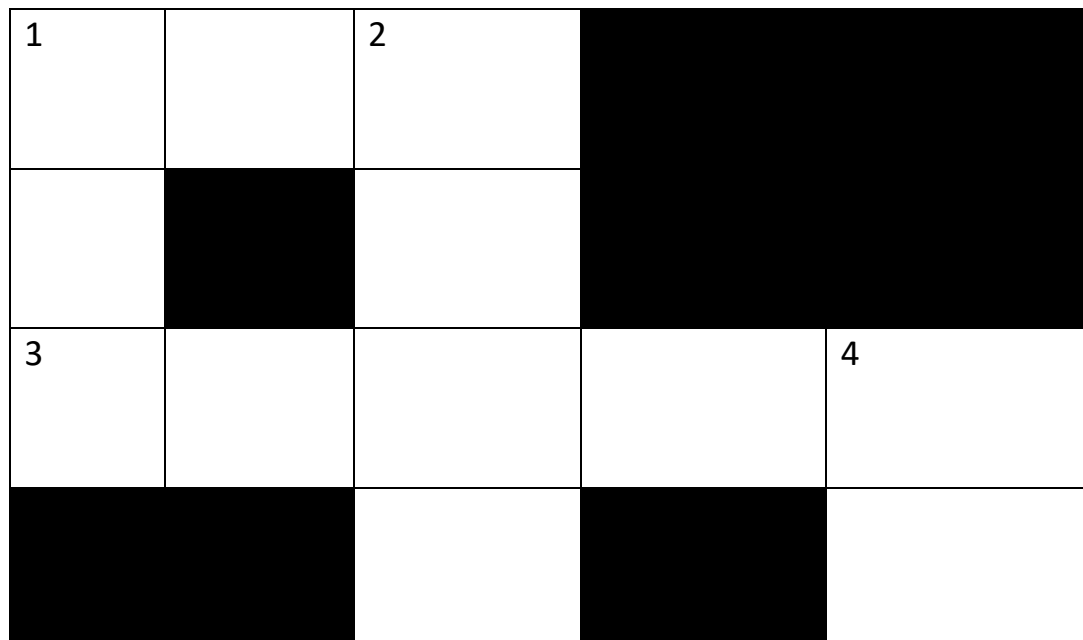


**III. Describe this pictures using these affixes -dom, -ans, -full, -less, -ly.**



#### **IV. Crossword corner.**

Here is small example of a regular crossword, to illustrate the format:



	5		
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**Across:**

1. Sheep sound (3)
3. Neither liquid nor gas (5)
5. Humour (3)

**Down:**

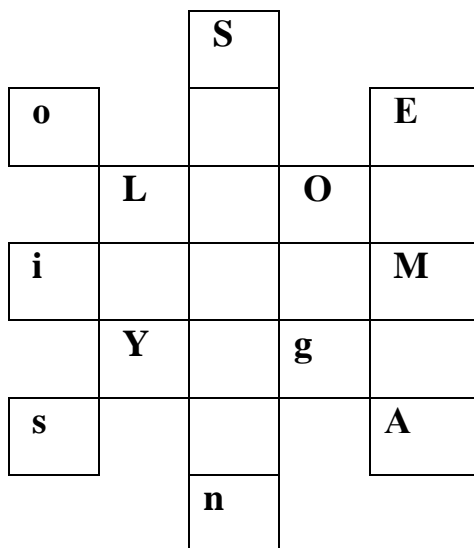
1. Road passenger transport (3)
2. Permit (5)
4. Shortened form of Dorothy (3)

## V A R I A N T № 10

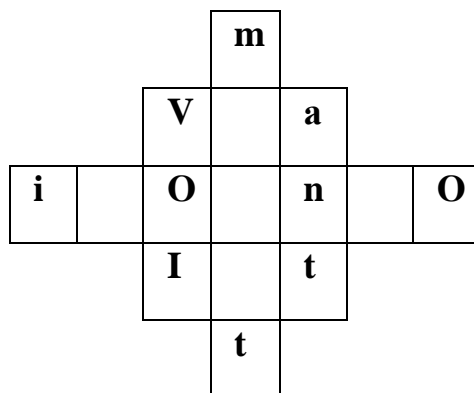
### I. Find the following words:

1. It is concerned with the meaning of words, studies the types of meaning, the semantic structure of words. What is it?
2. A direct connection between the structural pattern of the word and its meaning is called .....

1.



2.



### II. Find antonyms and synonyms in the word box and complete.

1. f \_ \_ \_

7. \_ \_ \_ t

2. \_ e \_ \_

8. w \_ \_ \_

3. \_ \_ \_ w

9. b \_ t \_ u \_

4. b \_ \_

10. \_ o \_ \_ g

5. t \_ l \_

11. u \_ \_ y

6. \_ t \_ n \_

12. \_ n \_ r \_ \_ i \_ \_

**Antonyms:**

**Synonyms:**

### **III. Answer the questions**

1. What is neologism?
2. How often are neologisms used in your opinion?
3. How often do you use neologisms in your everyday speech?
4. Is it easy for you to understand neologism?
5. What difficulties do you face while reading texts containing neologisms?
6. Do you look upon a dictionary when you come across with neologisms?

### **IV. Fill in the blanks with these words: One is odd**

**lexicology, special lexicology, systematic relationship, descriptive, historical, comparative lexicology.**

1. \_\_\_\_\_ deals with the properties of the vocabulary of two or more languages.
2. \_\_\_\_\_ is a branch of linguistics which studies the vocabulary of a language.
3. In \_\_\_\_\_ lexicology they are treated as borrowed words.
4. The \_\_\_\_\_ is found in the context.
5. \_\_\_\_\_ studies the words at a synchronic aspect.

## **Questions for midcourse and final assessment**

### **CARD 1**

1. What is the subject matter of lexicology?
2. What is a word?
3. What is word formation?

### **CARD 2**

1. What is a metaphor?
2. What is the similarity based on?
3. What is a metonymy?

### **CARD 3**

1. What words are often used metonymically?
2. What is the restriction of meaning?
3. What is the extension of meaning?

### **CARD 4**

1. What is the difference between the amelioration of meaning and the deterioration of meaning,
2. What is the word made up?
3. What is the difference between a morpheme and a phoneme?

### **CARD 5**

1. What is the difference between a morpheme and a word?
2. What types of morphemes do you know?
3. What is the morphemic analysis?

### **CARD 6**

1. How can we analyse the morphemic structure of words with the help of I.C. method?
2. What is the stem?
3. What types of stems do you know?

### **CARD 7**

1. What are the synchronic and diachronic approaches to the analysis of the stem?
2. Can all the words which have in their structure an affix have derived stems?
3. What is the unit of the derivational level?

### **CARD 8**

1. When was the term «conversion» first used?
2. What approaches to the study of conversion do you know?
3. Why do the treatments of conversion as a non-affixal wordbuilding, a shift from one part of speech to another cause doubt to us?

### **CARD 9**

1. What is A. I. Smirnitsky's point of view to conversion?
2. What problems of conversion do you study on the diachronic level? 6. What is the origin of conversion?
3. How is conversion treated on synchronic level?

### **CARD 10**

1. What are the most common types of conversion do you know?
2. What are the less common types of conversion?
3. How is the derived word connected with the underlying word in their meaning in converted pairs?

### **CARD 11**

1. What do you understand by the term «shortening»?
2. Why can't we say that shortening is a derivational word-formation?
3. What distinction is made between abbreviations and clippings.

### **CARD 12**

1. What is the classification of clippings?
2. What is the peculiarity of shortened words?
3. What is the difference between the clipping and the original word?

### **CARD 13**

1. What is the homonymy of abbreviations?
2. What do you understand by the term sound-interchange?
3. What is the distinction between vowel-interchange and consonant interchange?

### **CARD 14**

1. What is understood by the term «backformation?»
2. What is the peculiarity of blending as a means of word-formation? 3
3. There is no conversion in Uzbek. Do you agree with this statement

### **CARD 15**

**Discuss** the following problems. Give your arguments for this problem.

1. Conversion is a non-affixal word-building. Is that really so?
2. Conversion was born as a result of the disappearance of inflexions in the course of the historical development of the English language. Do you agree?
3. It is difficult to define which of the two words within converted pairs is the derived member. Is this true?

### **CARD 16**

1. What is a phraseological unit?
2. What are the most peculiarities of phraseological units?
3. What is academician V. V. Vinogradov's classification of phraseological units based on?

### **CARD 17**

1. How does prof. N. N. Amasova classify phraseological units?
2. What is the stability of phraseological units? 6. What is the ideomaticity of phraseological units?
3. Why does prof. A. I. Smirnitsky say that phraseological units are the word equivalents?

### **CARD 18**

1. Why do we include proverbs, sayings quotations in phraseological units? What is the history of phraseological units?
2. What kind of discussion of the so-called word groups as «give up» was among the linguists?
3. What is the synonymy of phraseological units?

### **CARD 19**

1. What is the polysemy of phraseological units?
2. What is understood by the term «synonym»?
3. Are there complete synonyms in English?

### **CARD 20**

1. Can polysemantic words have the same synonyms in all their meanings?
2. What is the dominant of a synonymic group?
3. What is the difference between ideographic synonyms and stylistic ones?

### **CARD 21**

1. Do the synonyms occur in the same surroundings?
2. What is the collocability of synonyms?
3. What are the main sources of synonyms?

#### **CARD 22**

1. What is understood by the term «antonyms»?
2. What is the classification of antonyms?
3. What is the task of lexicography?

#### **CARD 23**

1. What kind of types of dictionaries do you know?
2. What kind of types of dictionaries presents spelling of the words?
3. What kind of types of dictionaries presents Etymology of the words?

#### **CARD 24**

1. What kind of types of dictionaries presents Pronunciation of the words?
2. What kind of types of dictionaries presents meaning of words?
3. What kind of types of dictionaries presents grammatical information?

#### **CARD 25**

1. What kind of dictionary is translation dictionary?
2. What is the interchangeability of antonyms in contexts?
3. What are the semantic fields?

#### **CARD 26**

1. What is the difference between neologisms and obsolete words?
2. What words are called emotionally coloured words?
3. What is the difference between stylistically marked words and stylistically neutral words?

#### **CARD 27**

1. What is a phraseological unit?
2. What are the most peculiarities of phraseological units?
3. What is academician V. V. Vinogradov's classification of phraseological units based on?

#### **CARD 28**

1. How does prof. N. N. Amasova classify phraseological units?
2. What is the stability of phraseological units? 6. What is the ideomaticity of phraseological units?
3. Why does prof. A. I. Smirnitsky say that phraseological units are the word equivalents?

#### **CARD 29**



1. Why do we include proverbs, sayings quotations in phraseological units? 9.
- What is the history of phraseological units?
2. What kind of discussion of the so-called word groups as «give up» was among the linguists?
  3. What is the synonymy of phraseological units?

**CARD 30**

1. What is the polysemy of phraseological units?
2. What is understood by the term «synonym»?
3. Are there complete synonyms in English?

# Tests of final assessment on English lexicology

## Variant 1

1.....aims are to study the correlation between the vocabularies of two or more languages, and find out the correspondences between the vocabulary units of the languages under comparison. Choose the right type of lexicology.
General Lexicology
Contrastive and Comparative Lexicology
Special Lexicology
Lexicology and Stylistics
2.Linguistic phenomena and properties common to all languages are generally called..
Lexicology
Grammar
language universals
Etymology
3.This type of lexicology deals with the words of a definite language. Find this type of lexicology
Comparative
Historical
General
special
4.This type of lexicology studies the words at a synchronic aspect. It is concerned with the vocabulary of a language as they exist at the present time. Find this type of lexicology.
Special
general

Historical
Comparative
5.This type of lexicology deals with the development of the vocabulary and the changes it has under gone. Find this type of lexicology.
Historical
General
Comparative
Special
6..... is essentially a sociolinguistic science.
Syntax
Morphology
Lexicology
Phonology
7.Lexicology is connected with ... because the word seldom occurs in isolation. Words alone don't form communication
Phonetics
Grammar
the history of the language
Stylistics
8.Lexicology is linked with ... because the order and the arrangement of phonemes are related to its meaning .
Phonetics
Grammar
the history of the language
Stylistics
9.Lexicology closely linked with.... if we don't know ... it will be very difficult to establish different changes in the meaning and form of the words which have

undergone in the course of the historical development of the language.
the history of the language
Phonetics
Grammar
Stylistics
10.What approaches to the study of the vocabulary of a language is there in lexicology?
diachronic and lexicology
diachronic and synchronic
synchronic and syntagmatic
paradigmatic and diachronic
11.This approach deals with the vocabulary as it exists at a given time, at the present time.
Synchronic
Lexicology
Syntagmatic
Paradigmatic
12.This approach studies the changes and the development of vocabulary in the course of time.
Paradigmatic
Lexicology
Syntagmatic
Diachronic
13....is a morpheme which is identical with the word form.
Free morpheme
Bound morpheme

Semi-free morpheme
Semi-bound morpheme
14.Morphological motivation is ...
Relationship between a word and affixes
Relationship between morphemic structure and a word
Relationship between affixes
Relationship between morphemic structure and meaning
15.Bluish-black, pale-blue, rain-driven, oil-rich what kind of compounds are those?
Semantic
Syntactic
Asyntactic
Special
16.The words which belong to the same part of speech and have contrary meaning
Antonyms
Synonyms
Periphrases
Homonyms
17.Which of those are compound adjectives?
airtight, bloodthirsty, carefree,
outgrow, overflow, stand up,
breath-taking, freedom-loving, black-list
rainfall, windglass, well-behaved
18.Which of the following words are blending?
Radar
Smog

Beggar
Hanky
19.Lexicology studies...of a language
Vocabulary
Function
Grammar
Phonetics
. 20. Etymologically the word "lexicology" is...
Greek word
Latin word
Russian word
English word
21....means substituting a part for a whole, the part of the word is taken away and used for the whole
Soundinterchange
Shortening
Backformation
Blending
22.Stylisticallywords...
can be subdivided into literary, neutral & colloquial layers
connotation denotes approval or disapproval relations .
denotes the meaning of the word
all are true
23.....consists in dropping of the final nominal member of a frequently used attributive word-group..
Substantivisation

clipping
Backformation
Blending
24. What is the semasiology?
it has no meaning
it's concerned with the shortening .
it is concerned with the meaning of word
it's a way of conversion
25....NATO,USA,UK. What are they?
Acronyms
Clipping
S u b s t a n t i v i s a t i o n
sound interchange
26.How many roots does compound stem consist of?
two or more roots
one root
only two roots
three roots
27.There are 3 structural types of stems in lexicology? What are they?
simple, bound, diachronic
bound, synchronic, diachronic
developed, independent.
Derivative, simple, compound
28. Find out the words which consist of two or more stems.
bluebell, blackboard, mad-doctor,

book, reader, receiver
school, companion
blackboard ,gardener, output
29. According to the number of morphemes words are divided into?
Holymorphemic
monomorphemic and polymorphemic
Polymorphemic
Synchronic
30. What kind of words consist of more than two morphemes?
Polymorphemic
Monomorphemic
Diachronic
Synchronic

### Variant 2

1. What kind of words consists of one root morpheme?
Synchronic
Polymorphemic
Diachronic
Monomorphemic
2. Structurally derivational bases fall into
3
5
2
4



3. What is a free morpheme?
Which is dependent
derivational system
structure of the word
identical with the word
4. The words which belong to the same part of speech and have identical sound but different meaning
Homonyms
Antonyms
synonyms
Periphrases
5. Give the definition to the word stem?
it is a part of the word
it is identical with morpheme
it remains unchanged
it is not identical with morpheme
6. How are the history and the development of the words studied?
Diachronically
Synchronically
Diachronically and synchronically
Comparatively
7. The words which belong to the same part of speech, different in morphemic shape but identical or similar in meaning
Synonyms
Antonyms

Homonyms
Periphrases
8. ...are the units which functionally and semantically inseparable
Synonyms
phraseological units
antonyms
Homonyms
9. Neologisms are...
newly coined words or phrases with new meaning
words borrowed from Greek
words borrowed from Latin
phrases with new meaning
10. Descriptive lexicology deals with _____
the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development
The evolution of any vocabulary, as well as of its single elements
devotes its attention to the description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language
words and vocabulary, irrespective of the specific features of any particular language
11. The distinction between a synchronic and a diachronic approach is due to the
Ferdinand de Saussure
D. Schweitzer
R. Quirk, S. Greenbaum
G. Leech and J. Svartvik
12. What is the role of Phonemes in lexicology?
to distinguish between meanings

to study connotations, synonymy,
functional differentiation of vocabulary according to the sphere of communication and some other issues
to distinguish between morphemes
13. Set expressions..
The words which belong to the same part of speech, different in morphemic shape but identical or similar in meaning
ready-made as units with a specialised meaning of the whole
semantic contrast of the denotational meaning and interchangeable at least in some contexts
a stylistic device
14. _____ relationships being based on the linear character of speech are studied by means of contextual, valency, distributional, transformational and some other types of analysis.
Paradigmatic
Syntagmatic
Systematic
Lexic
15. ....linguistic relationships determining the vocabulary system are based on the interdependence of words within the vocabulary: synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy,).
Paradigmatic
Syntagmatic
Systematic
Lexic
16. - cannot be used independently
Morphemes
Word
Word combination
Sentence
17. word “one of the smallest completely satisfying bits of isolated ‘meaning’, into which the sentence resolves itself”. Who expressed those ideas about the word?

Rossetti
Sapir
D.N. Shmelev
Shelley
18. Great English philosophers revealed a materialistic approach to the problem of nomination when he wrote that words.....
a universal signal that can substitute any other signal from the environment in evoking a response in a human organism
are not mere sounds but names of matter
one of the smallest completely satisfying bits of isolated 'meaning', into which the sentence resolves itself
the minimum sentence
19. What is motivation?
the relationship existing between the phonemic or morphemic composition and structural pattern of the word on the one hand, and its meaning on the other
the relationship existing between the lexical composition and structural pattern of the word on the one hand, and its meaning on the other
the relationship existing between the grammatical and structural pattern of the word on the one hand, and its meaning on the other
the relationship existing between the semantic composition and structural pattern of the word on the one hand, and its meaning on the other
20. Compound words contain
not less than two morphemes of which at least one is bound
not less than two free morphemes
one free morpheme and affixes
one free morpheme
21. bang, buzz, cuckoo, giggle, gurgle, hiss, purr, whistle are examples for .....motivation

Semantic
Phonetical
Morphological
Syntactic
22. the <u>mouth</u> of a river, of a cave, of a furnace. Choose right type of motivation to the underlined word
Semantic
Phonetical
Morphological
Syntactic
23. The _____ is the common denominator of all the meanings of words belonging to a lexico-grammatical class of words,
lexico-grammatical meaning
Semantic
Grammatical
Synatactic
24. The conceptual content of a word is expressed in its _____
conatative meaning
Denotativemeaning
lexical
grammatical meaning
25. The information communicated by virtue of what the word refers to is often subject to complex associations originating in habitual contexts, verbal or situational, of which the speaker and the listener are aware, they give the word its _____
Connotative meaning
lexical
grammatical meaning
lexic-grammatical
26. man: HUMAN+ ADULT+ MALE which analysis does it belong to?
lexic-grammatical
morphological analysis
grammatical analysis
Componential analysis
27. ....to create new derived meanings or words is called
Implicational
lexical
grammatical meaning
lexic-grammatical

28. _____ denotes there flection in the mind of real objects and phenomena in their essential features and relations.
Notion
Implication
Denotation
Motion
29. What types of connotative meaning are there?
intensifying, expressive, figurative, syntactic
stylistic, emotional, evaluative and expressive
morphological, emotional, evaluative, syntactic
evaluative, semantic, emotional, morphological
30. Evaluative connotation expresses _____
approval or disapproval
result of its frequent use in contexts
Assessment
Test

## GLOSSARY

**Affixes** are relevant for building various types of stems – the part of a word that remains unchanged throughout its paradigm.

**Affixes** are classified into prefixes and suffixes: a prefix precedes the root-morpheme, a suffix follows it. Besides, we also distinguish infixes (a few) and semi-affixes.

**Affixation**, a common word formation process, involves adding derivational affixes (prefixes or suffixes) to base words to create new terms with altered meanings or grammatical functions. Suffixation involves adding affixes to the end of a base word, while prefixation involves adding them to the beginning.

**Antonyms** are words with opposite meaning. And antonymy refers to the relationship of oppositeness. Antonyms are exceedingly valuable in defining the exact meaning of a given word and its synonyms. Antonyms enable us to express briefly the opposite of a particular thought, often for the sake of contrast.

**Archaisms** are words felt as out-dated and replaced by newer forms and lexemes.

**Antroponymes** - proper names of people: Jack, Ann, John Adam, the Blacks.

**Assimilation of borrowings** is a partial or complete adaptation to the phonetic(al), grammatical, semantic, morphological and graphical systems of the receiving language. The degree of assimilation depends on the importance, frequency and length of use of borrowings.

**Acronyms** are the vocabulary units spoken as words and made by means of abbreviation, e.g. NATO ['neitou] = North Atlantic Treaty Organisation; laser ['leizə] = light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation; radar ['reidə] = radio detection and ranging; Interpol = international police.

**Bound morpheme** occurs only as a constituent part of a word. Affixes are, naturally, bound morphemes, for they make a part of a word, and can not be used separately and are need to be attached to the stem of the main word or root morpheme.

**Borrowed word** is a word taken from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of English.

**Borrowing** is the process of adopting words (or word-building affixes) from other languages and also the result of this process, the language material itself, e.g. -able, -ment, -ity, coup d'état, vis-à-vis.

**Bound morphemes** are characterized by grammatical and derivational morphemes.

**Blending** is the process of creating words by means of merging irregular fragments of several words together, e.g. *medicare* (from ‘medical care’), *politician* (from ‘pollute’ and ‘politician’), *brunch* (from ‘breakfast’ and ‘lunch’), etc.

**Contrastive and Comparative Lexicology** study the correlation between the vocabularies of two or more languages, finding out the correspondences and differences between the vocabulary units of the languages under comparison.

**Constituents.** During breaking a word into its constituents at each stage of the procedure we segment the word into immediately broken morphemes, and they are termed as **the Immediate Constituents (ICs)**. We finish the process of segmentation when we arrive at constituents which cannot be further broken, and these indivisible morphemes are referred to as **the Ultimate Constituents (UCs)**.

**Clipping** refers to the creation of new words by shortening a word of two or more syllables (usually nouns and adjectives) without changing its class membership.

**Compounding**, is one of the most productive method of word formation in Modern English. This process involves combining two base words (stems) to create a new word with a distinct meaning. Compounds can be classified into two main types: subordinative and coordinative compounds.

**Conversion** is a highly productive way of word-formation by means of transferring one part of speech to another by changing its paradigm, but without altering its initial form (neither phonetic nor graphical changes within the paradigm), e.g. cf. *my work*— *I work*; *(the) dog’s bark* — *he dogs his girlfriend*, etc.

**Componential analysis** is applied to the study of the semantic structure of the word, resulting in distinguishing such semantic components as sememes, semes and their types.

**Contextual analysis** concentrates on determining the minimal stretch of speech and the conditions necessary to find out in which of its individual meanings the given word is used.

**Contrastive (comparative) analysis** is used to reveal the similarities and differences in linguistic features of two or more languages.

**Changes of lexical meaning** occur in the course of the historical development of language.

**Connotational meaning** shows the stylistic reference and the emotive and evaluative charge proper to the word.

**Denotational meaning** is the constituent of the lexical meaning which makes communication possible because the knowledge people have about things is ultimately



embodied in words which have essentially the same meaning for all speakers of that language.

**Derivatives** are words which are made up of two ICs, i.e. binary units, e.g. friendly+ness, un+wifely, school-master+ish, etc. All derivatives are marked by the fixed order of their ICs.

**Descriptive Lexicology** examines the words of a language within a certain time frame. This could be a period during the language's early stages of development, its current state, or any given interval in between.

**Dead affixes** are described as those which are no longer felt in Modern English as component parts of words (as in health, admit, etc).

**Dictionary** is a book listing words of a language with their meanings and often with data regarding pronunciation, usage and origin.

The most important **problems in dictionary compiling** are as follows: 1) selection of lexical units; 2) their arrangement; 3) setting of the entries; 4) selection and arrangement of word -meanings; 5) definition of meanings; 6) illustrative material, etc.

**Diachronic approach** to the vocabulary study is based on the analysis of the changes a word undergoes from the moment of its appearance throughout its historical development.

**Etymology** is the science studying the origin of the words, native and borrowed lexical units, ways of the assimilation of borrowed words, external replenishment of the vocabulary.

**Etymological doublets** are words originating from the same etymological source, but differing in phonemic shape and in meaning (shade-shadow, cask-cask, etc.).

**Etymological hybrids** are words created from both native and borrowed elements, like 'short-age' – English adjective 'short' and French suffix '-age'.

**Extension of meaning** occurs when a word's meaning broadens to encompass a wider range of referents. An example is the term "target" which initially referred to 'a small round shield' (a diminutive of targe, cf. ON. targa), but now is used to signify 'anything that is fired at' and also metaphorically means 'any result aimed at'.

**Free morpheme** is a morpheme (or word element) that can stand alone as a word. It is also called an unbound morpheme or a free-standing morpheme.

**Glossary** is an alphabetical list of terms or words found in or relating to a specific subject, text, or dialect, with explanations; a brief dictionary

**General Lexicology** is part of General Linguistics; it is concerned with the study of vocabulary regardless of the specific characteristics of any particular language.

**Generalisation of meaning** is the process of change of meaning when the word with the extended meaning passes from the specialised vocabulary into common use, e.g. ‘camp’ originally was used only as a military term and meant ‘the place where troops are lodged in tents’ (cf. L. campus — ‘exercising ground for the army’) extended and generalised its meaning and now denotes ‘temporary quarters’ (of travellers, nomads, etc.).

**Grammatical meaning** of a word refers to its formal meaning and can be understood as the aspect of meaning that is consistent in identical sets of various individual forms of different words.

**Homonyms** are words identical in sound-form or spelling but different in meaning.

**Homographs.** The word 'homograph' has been derived from the Greek word “homosgraphos”, which means having the same written form as another. In simple terms, homographs are those words that have the same spelling but completely different meanings.

**Homophones** are words that sound the same as another word but has a different meaning and/or spelling. Common homophones are write and right, meet and meat, peace and piece.

**Hyponymy** is a semantic relationship of inclusion. Thus, e.g. vehicle includes car, bus, taxi and so on; oak implies tree; horse entails animal; table entails furniture.

**Historical Lexicology** deals with evolution of the vocabulary units of a language as time goes by.

**Idiomaticity** signifies the absence of motivation within the components of word-groups. In this case, the meaning of the entire word-group cannot be inferred from the meanings of its component parts.

**Idiom** is a set expression that is fully non-motivated, as its meaning cannot be inferred by looking at the meanings of the individual words that make up the expression. Idioms are often culturally specific and have figurative or metaphorical meanings that may not be apparent from their literal components

**Inflections** carry only grammatical meaning reflecting grammatical categories (tense, number, person, degree, etc.).

**Immediate constituents (IC) method** is used to identify two meaningful parts forming a larger linguistic unity. The ICs of ‘bluish’ are ‘blue-’ and ‘-ish’.

**Lexicology** is a branch of Linguistics which studies the vocabulary of the language. The term Lexicology is composed of two Greek morphemes: '*lexis*' meaning 'word, phrase' and '*logos*' which denotes 'learning, science'.<sup>31</sup>

**Lexicography** is the study of lexicons, and is divided into two separate academic disciplines. It is the art of compiling dictionaries. Practical lexicography is the art or craft of compiling, writing and editing dictionaries.

**Lexicalisation** is the process of the vocabulary replenishment when the plural form of nouns (grammatical inflection) loses its grammatical meaning and becomes isolated from the paradigm, as e.g. arm+s = arms= 'weapons', custom+s= customs='institution controlling import duties'.

**Lexico-semantic variant** of the word is every meaning of a polysemantic word with reference to what it denotes in the extra-linguistic world (referential meaning) and with respect to the other meanings with which it is contrasted in the semantic structure (differential meaning).

**Lexical meaning** of a word represents the inherent meaning specific to that word as a linguistic unit. It is the aspect of meaning that remains consistent across all forms of the word and reflects the qualities and attributes of objects and phenomena.

**Lexical motivation** refers to the relationship between the components within a word-group where the meaning of the entire group can be easily understood by analyzing the meanings of its individual components.

**(Letter) abbreviation** is the process of replacement of longer phrases (names of well-known organisations, agencies and institutions, political parties, famous people, official offices) to the initial letters the whole group stands for. They are normally pronounced letter by letter, e.g. JFK = John Fitzgerald Kennedy; CBW = chemical and biological warfare, DOD = Department of Defence (of the USA), SST = supersonic transport, etc.

**Living affixes**, such as suffixes that are easily recognizable and can be separated from a word, play a significant role in word formation. For example, noun-forming suffixes like -ness, -dom, -hood, -age, -ance can be added to base words to create new nouns, such as darkness, freedom, childhood, marriage, assistance, etc. Similarly, adjective-forming suffixes like -en, -ous, -ive, -ful, -y can be attached to base words to form adjectives, such as wooden, poisonous, active, hopeful, stony, etc.

**Metaphor** is described as a semantic process of associating two referents, one of which in some way resembles the other, e.g. hand of a clock, warm voice, soft look.

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<sup>31</sup> <https://azkurs.org/glossary-of-basic-lexicological-notions-and-terms.html>

**Metonymy** is described as the semantic process of associating two referents one of which makes part of the other or is closely connected with it

**Motivation**, as a concept, represents the connection between the form or structure of a lexical unit and its meaning. It is the link between how a word is formed and what it signifies. Depending on the extent of motivation, different categories can be distinguished.

**Morphology** is the study of the internal structure of words and forms a core part of linguistic study today.

**Morpheme** is the smallest two-facet unit (it has sound form and meaning) to be found within the word which is studied on the morphological level of analysis.

**Non-root morphemes** include grammatical morphemes (inflections) and derivational morphemes (affixes).

**Native word** is a word which belongs to the original English stock (Anglo-Saxon) as known from the earliest available manuscripts of the old English period.

**Neologisms** are newly coined words or expressions that may be formed by combining existing words, borrowing from other languages, adding prefixes or suffixes, or creating entirely new terms. They represent emerging concepts, trends, or cultural phenomena and contribute to the evolution and enrichment of language.

**Origin of the word** is the language where the borrowed word was born.

**Paradigm** is a system of forms of one word it reveals the differences and relationships between them; in abstraction from concrete words it is treated as a pattern on which every word of one part of speech models its forms, thus serving to distinguish one part of speech from another.

**Phraseology** is the branch of Lexicology focusing on the phraseological subsystem of language and is concerned with all types of set expressions.

**Productive ways** of forming words are such types of word-formation which are frequently used to create new words.

Those types of word-formation which cannot or seldom produce new words are commonly called **non-productive** or **unproductive**.

**Productivity** of word-building ways is their ability of forming new words (neologisms) which all who speak English find no difficulty in understanding.

**Prefixation** is the formation of words with the help of prefixes.

**Pragmatic meaning** is a component of connotational meaning bound to the circumstances of the communication and reflecting the choice of the word depending on the conditions and participants of the intercourse.

**Polysemy** is the association of one word with two or more distinct meanings, and a polyseme is a word or phrase with multiple meanings.

**Phraseological units** are stable word-groups with a transferred meaning and structural inseparability. They cannot be freely constructed in speech but are reproduced as fixed units with stable lexical components and a lack of motivation.

**Phraseological units** are partially non-motivated, as their meanings are often understood through the metaphorical interpretation of the entire phraseological expression. Examples of such phraseological units include "to show one's teeth" or "to wash one's dirty linen in public", where the literal meaning of the words does not convey the intended meaning of the idiom.

**Phraseological fusions** are completely non-motivated phraseological units where the meaning of the components bears no connection, at least synchronically, with the meaning of the entire group. Examples include expressions like "red tape" (referring to bureaucratic methods) or "kick the bucket" (meaning to die).

**Phraseological collocations** are motivated word-groups that exhibit a certain degree of stability and semantic inseparability. In these collocations, there is limited variability in the selection of member-words. For example, the expression "bear a grudge" may be altered to "bear malice" as both have similar meanings, but it cannot be changed to "bear a fancy" or "liking" as they do not have the same semantic relationship.

**Root-morphemes** are the semantic centre of the words and the basic constituent part without which the word is inconceivable.

**Restriction of meaning** refers to the process where the meaning of a word narrows down from a broader concept to a more specific one. An example is the word "hound" (OE. hund) which historically meant 'a dog of any breed' but now specifically refers to 'a dog used in the chase'.

**Semasiology** is the branch of Lexicology that is devoted to the study of meaning of lexical units.

**Semasiology** is a branch of Lexicology which studies the meaning and the semantic structure of lexical units, primarily of the word.

**Semi-bound (semi-free) morphemes** are morphemes that can function in a morphemic sequence both as an affix and as a free morpheme (a word.)

**Semantic borrowing** is the appearance of a new meaning due to the influence of a related word in another language

**Semantic structure** is the arranged set of all the meanings of a word, represented by lexico-semantic variants.

There are two kinds of association involved in semantic changes, namely:

a) **similarity of meanings**, and b) **contiguity of meanings**.

**Shortening** is the process of word-formation by means of dropping some part of the words. It includes abbreviation and clipping.

**Simple words** are words that derivationally cannot be segmented into ICs, e.g. **hand, come, blue**, etc.

**Sound- interchange** is a non-productive type of word formation when two words connected semantically and etymologically have different sounds (vowels and consonants) in their phonetic structure, like **speak-speech, blood-bleed, food-feed**, etc.

**Source of borrowing** is the language from which this or that particular word was taken into English.

**Specialisation of meaning** is when a word with a new meaning becomes used only within a specialized vocabulary of a limited group. For instance, the verb "to glide" (OE. *glidan*) originally meant 'to move gently and smoothly' but has now taken on a more restricted and specialized meaning of 'to fly with no engine', as in the case of a glider.

**Special Lexicology** is the Lexicology of a certain language (e.g. English, Russian, etc.), i.e. the study and description of its vocabulary and vocabulary units, primarily words as the main units of the language.

**Stem** is the form of a word before any inflectional affixes are added. In English, most stems also qualify as words. The term **base** is commonly used by linguists to refer to any stem (or root) to which an affix is attached.

**Stress- interchange** is one of the ways of word-building, based on a shift of stress, e.g. 'object – to object; 'present – to present, etc.

**Suffixation** is the formation of words with the help of suffixes.

**Synonymy** is the semantic phenomenon of closeness in the meanings and the same part-of-speech reference of two or more lexical units.

**Synonymy** is the kind of semantic relations that implies the coincidence in the essential meanings of linguistic elements, which usually preserve their differences in connotations and stylistic characteristics.

**Synonymic dominant** is the most frequently used neutral word within a synonymic group (as *look* in the row *look, watch, gaze, stare, glance*).

**Synchronic approach** is based on the analysis of lexical units at a given period of time, usually coinciding with the period of the research.

**Statistical methods** are used to provide quantitative data for justification of the research results to ensure that they are statistically reliable.

**Toponymes** - proper names of places, e.g. countries, cities, rivers, seas, etc: England, New York, the Volga, the Atlantic ocean, the Elbrus.

**Translation-loans** (or loan-translations) are words and expressions formed after the patterns characteristic of the receiving language, but under the influence of the foreign words and expressions. E. g. mother tongue < L. lingua maternal; it goes without saying < Fr. Cela va sans dire; wall newspaper < Russ. стенгазета.

**Transformational analysis** is changing of a sentence, phrase or pattern according to a prescribed model and following certain rules in order that to discover differences in usage and meaning.<sup>32</sup>

**Ultimate constituents method** is applied to the analysis of the morphological structure of the word to identify the number and character of the morphemes in its structure. The UCs of the word ‘carefully’ are ‘care’, ‘-ful’ and ‘-ly’, while its ICs are ‘careful’ and ‘-ly’.

**Word** as well as any linguistic sign is a two-facet unit possessing both form and content or, to be more exact, sound-form and meaning. Neither can exist without the other.

**Word-formation** is a branch of Lexicology which studies the process of building new words, derivative structures and patterns of existing words.

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<sup>32</sup> <https://azkurs.org/glossary-of-basic-lexicological-notions-and-terms.html>

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