



Лексикология, 3 курс

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1. Lexicology as a branch of linguistics.

Definition of Lexicology

Lexicology is a branch of linguistics that studies the vocabulary of a language as a system of lexical units, primarily words. The term consists of the Greek morphemes *lexis* (word) and *logos* (study).

Object of Study

1. The word as the main unit of language, uniting form and meaning.
2. Lexical units: words, morphemes, phraseological units.
3. Example: the word *dog*, the morpheme *un-* in *unfairly*, the phraseological unit *to break the ice*.

Types of Lexicology

1. General Lexicology — studies universal features of vocabularies of all or most languages.
2. Special Lexicology — studies the vocabulary of a particular language (e.g., English).
3. Historical Lexicology — investigates the origin and development of vocabulary and its units.
4. Descriptive Lexicology — examines the vocabulary of a language at a given stage (e.g., Modern English).

Connections of Lexicology with Other Branches of Linguistics

1. Phonetics — studies the sound form of words; stress helps distinguish words (e.g., '*rebel* (noun) vs. *re*'bel (verb)).

2. **Grammar** — studies parts of speech, grammatical forms, and functions of words (e.g., *brother* — *brothers* and *brethren* with different meanings).

3. **Stylistics** — investigates stylistic nuances of words and their usage in texts.

Main Characteristics of the Word

1. Dual aspect: form (sound, morphemes) + content (meaning).
2. External unity: grammatical form of the word (e.g., *blackbird* — *blackbirds*).
3. Internal unity: one word expresses one concept (e.g., *greenhouse*).
4. Capability for grammatical usage: the word functions in speech in a certain form and function.

Examples

1. The word *schedule* has different pronunciations in British and American English: ['skedju:l] and ['fedju:l].
2. Stress distinction: 'record (noun) and re'cord (verb).
3. Lexicalization of grammatical forms: *arm* — *arms* (weapons).

2. **Principle characteristics of the word.**

The Word as the Basic Linguistic Unit

A word is the central structural-semantic unit of a language, used for naming objects, qualities, processes, and relations of reality. It is the main nominative and cognitive unit that expresses thought and serves as a means of communication.

Dual Aspect of the Word

A word has a **dual nature** — it unites:

- **Form** (expression plane): the sound (phonetic) and graphic shape, morphemic structure;
- **Content** (content plane): lexical and grammatical meaning.

Main Features of the Word

1. **Nominativity** — the function of naming phenomena of real or imaginary reality through lexical meaning.
2. **Integrity and Wholeness** — the word acts as an indivisible unit of speech, possessing an internal structure and unity of

form and meaning.

3. Reproducibility — the word exists as a ready-made unit in the language and is reproduced by the speaker, not created anew each time it is used.

4. Phonetic Organization and Single Stress — the word has an organized sound form with one main stress (except for unstressed function words).

5. Semantic Organization — presence of lexical (meaning of an object, attribute, action) and grammatical meaning (categories of gender, number, tense, etc.).

6. Syntactic Independence — the ability of a word to function as an independent unit in a sentence.

7. Impenetrability and Indivisibility — it is impossible to insert other speech elements inside a word.

Additional Characteristics

1. Morphemic Structure — a word consists of morphemes (roots, affixes) that together form its shape and meaning.

2. Lexico-Grammatical Classification — the word belongs to a certain part of speech and expresses corresponding grammatical categories.

3. Polysemy and Variability — a word may have several meanings and phonetic variants but is perceived as a single linguistic unit.

Summary

A word is an **organized, integral, two-sided unit of language**, possessing form and meaning, serving to name and express concepts, emotions, and relations, reproduced in speech as an independent element, and having an internal morphemic and semantic structure.

3. The process of nomination. The main stages in the process of naming. The classification of the ways of nomination in modern English.

Definition of Nomination

Nomination is the process of giving names to things. The branch of linguistics studying the nominative function of lexical units is called **onomasiology**.

There are two main participants in nomination:

1. **The nominator** — the one who names an object.
2. **The referent** — the named object, which is the starting point of nomination.

The Main Stages in the Process of Naming

1. Formation of the concept

- The concept is a generalized idea of a class of objects, summing up essential features that distinguish it from other classes.
- Concepts are similar across languages due to human cognition and shared reality but can differ due to cultural or linguistic factors (e.g., English "to drink soup" vs. Russian "есть суп").

2. Formation of meaning

- Meaning is closely connected but not identical to the concept.
- Meaning is a mental reflection linked to a sound-form and includes features that may not be the most essential ones of the concept.
- Example: *broad* vs. *wide* — both mean "measuring much from side to side" but differ in usage.

3. Formation of the word-form

- The meaning must be correlated with a material form — sound and graphic form.
- Three ways to form the sound-form of a word:
 - Invent a new sound-form.
 - Borrow from another language.
 - Use already existing units of the language (secondary nomination).

Classification of the Ways of Nomination in Modern English

1. External nomination (Borrowing)

- Taking words from other languages.
- Borrowings constitute a significant part of English vocabulary (70–75% overall; 7.5% of new words).
- Main sources: French, Asian, African languages (e.g., *karate* (Jap.), *kung fu* (Chinese), *intifada* (Arabic)).

2. Internal nomination (Word-formation processes)

- **Derivation**: adding prefixes/suffixes (e.g., *un-*, *-er*, *-ion*), e.g., *groupie*, *weepie*.
- **Compounding**: combining stems (e.g., *high-rise*, *page-turner*).
- **Conversion**: changing part of speech without changing form (e.g., *to stiff* from *stiff* (noun)).
- **Shortening**:
 - **Coinage**: inventing new words (e.g., *Kodak*, *hobbit*).
 - **Clipping**: shortening words (e.g., *teen* from *teenager*).
 - **Abbreviations**: initialisms and acronyms (e.g., *AIDS*, *PC*).
 - **Blending**: fusing parts of words (e.g., *brunch* = breakfast + lunch).

3. **Other types of nomination**

- **Split of polysemy**: one polysemantic word splits into several words (e.g., Old English *wācian* → *to wake*, *to watch*).
- **Lexicalization**: grammatical forms become separate words (e.g., *looks* meaning "appearance").

4. **Types of meaning. Meaning and motivation. Change of meaning: causes, nature, results.**

Types of Meaning

Word meaning is a complex phenomenon studied by semasiology (sometimes called semantics). There are two main approaches to the study of meaning:

- **Referential approach**: meaning is defined through the relationship between the word (sound form), concept (notion), and referent (object in the real world), as shown in the "semiotic triangle" by Ogden and Richards.
- **Functional approach**: meaning is identified through the use of a word in context; "the meaning of a word is its use in the language" (L. Wittgenstein).

Main types of meaning:

1. **Grammatical meaning**: common to all words of a given part of speech, e.g., *girls*, *boys*, *children* all express plurality.
2. **Lexical meaning**: specific to an individual word in all its forms, consisting of:
 - **Denotational (denotative) component**: the conceptual content or information about the real-world object (e.g., *notorious* = "widely known").
 - **Connotational (connotative) component**: expresses the speaker's attitude, including:

- **Emotive connotation**: conveys feelings (e.g., *a lonely tree* vs. *a single tree*).
- **Evaluative connotation**: labels the referent as "good" or "bad" (e.g., *notorious criminal* vs. *celebrated artist*).
- **Stylistic connotation**: indicates the appropriate social or communicative context (e.g., *commence*—formal, *begin*—neutral, *set off*—informal).

Meaning and Motivation

Motivation is the relationship between a word's form (sound, morphemic composition, structure) and its meaning.

Types of motivation:

1. **Phonetic motivation**: direct connection between sound and meaning.
 - *Onomatopoeia* (sound imitation): *buzz*, *cuckoo*, *bang*.
 - *Sound symbolism*: certain sounds suggest size, shape, etc. (e.g., *sl-* in *slide*, *slip*; *-ump* in *plump*, *chump*).
2. **Morphological motivation**: meaning of a word is determined by its morphemes and structure.
 - *rewrite* ("write again"), *ex-wife* ("former wife"), *hatless*.
 - Degrees: fully motivated (*hatless*), partially motivated (*cranberry*), non-motivated (*buttercup*).
3. **Semantic motivation**: based on coexistence of direct and figurative meanings.
 - *butterfly* (insect vs. showy person).

Change of Meaning: Causes, Nature, Results

1. Causes of semantic change:

- **Extralinguistic causes**: changes in society, culture, technology, etc.
 - *mill* ("building for grinding grain" → "textile factory").
- **Linguistic causes**:
 - *Ellipsis*: *to starve* ("to die" → "to die of hunger").
 - *Discrimination of synonyms*: *land* lost the meaning "country" after *country* was borrowed.
 - *Linguistic analogy*: *to catch* ("understand") → *to get*, *to grasp*.

2. Nature of semantic change:

- **Metaphor**: based on similarity (shape, function, position, etc.).
 - *the eye of a needle*, *the foot of a hill*, *the hand of a clock*.
- **Metonymy**: based on contiguity or association in time/space.
 - *bench* ("judges"), *silver* ("metal", "coins", "cutlery"), *Wellingtons* ("boots" from the Duke of Wellington).

3. Results of semantic change:

- Changes in denotative component

- *Broadening (generalization)*: *arrive* ("to come to shore" → "to come"), *Yankee* ("New Englander" → "American").
- *Narrowing (specialization)*: *meat* ("any food" → "animal flesh"), *hound* ("dog" → "hunting dog").

- Changes in connotative component:

- *Degeneration (deterioration)*: *silly* ("happy" → "foolish").
- *Elevation (amelioration)*: *nice* ("foolish" → "good"), *knight* ("servant" → "noble man").

5. Problems of synonymy.

Definition and Criteria of Synonymy

Synonymy is traditionally defined as the similarity of meaning between words. One of the most controversial issues in linguistics is establishing the criteria for synonymy—what words should be considered synonyms.

There are three main criteria:

- 1. Notional criterion:** Synonyms are words of the same part of speech conveying the same notion but differing in shades of meaning or stylistic characteristics.
- 2. Semantic criterion:** Synonyms are words with the same denotative component but differing in connotative components (e.g., *hearty* (neutral) vs. *cordial* (literary); *pass away* (literary) vs. *die* (neutral) vs. *pop off* (colloquial)).
- 3. Substitution/interchangeability criterion:** Synonyms are words that can be interchanged in some contexts.

Problems:

1. The notional criterion is vague; "notion" is not a precise linguistic term, and "shade of meaning" lacks clarity.
2. The semantic criterion is more precise but synonyms may also differ in denotative components (e.g., *to look*, *to seem*, *to appear*).
3. The substitution criterion is unreliable; some synonyms are only interchangeable in certain contexts (e.g., *deep/profound sympathy* but only *deep water*).

Classification of Synonyms

The main classification was proposed by Academician Vinogradov:

1. **Ideographic synonyms:** Convey the same notion but differ in shades of meaning (*handsome, pretty, bonny*).
2. **Stylistic synonyms:** Differ in stylistic characteristics (*pass away* vs. *die*).
3. **Absolute (total) synonyms:** Coincide in all shades of meaning and stylistic characteristics (very rare in language).

Criticisms:

1. Absolute synonyms are rare; language tends to eliminate them.
2. The term "shade of meaning" is imprecise.
3. Synonyms may differ both in denotative and stylistic features.

Synonymic Sets and Dominant Synonym

1. Synonyms are usually arranged in sets (groups), often including a native word and borrowed words (e.g., *buy—purchase, brotherly—fraternal*).
2. A synonymic set has a **dominant synonym** (e.g., *to surprise* in the set *to surprise—to astonish—to amaze—to astound*).

The dominant synonym is characterized by:

- High frequency of usage
- Broad combinability
- Broad general meaning
- Neutral stylistic reference

Euphemisms

Euphemisms are substitutes for words considered indecent, harsh, or socially unacceptable (e.g., *pass away* for *die*, *differently abled* for *disabled*).

- Euphemisms arise due to social taboos, politeness, or to soften unpleasant realities (e.g., *rescue mission* for *invasion*).
- Political correctness has led to the creation of many euphemisms to avoid offense.

Key Points and Examples

1. Synonyms are both similar and different; they can be opposed in meaning (e.g., *pretty* vs. *attractive*).
2. Substitution of one synonym for another often changes the meaning or stylistic nuance (e.g., *He glared at her* ≠ *He stared at her* ≠ *He gaped at her*).

3. Some words are related but not true synonyms (e.g., *flower* and *rose*).

6. Free phrases and phraseological units. Various ways of classifying phraseological units. Origin of phraseological units.

Free Phrases vs. Phraseological Units

1. Free phrases are word combinations whose meaning is fully determined by the meanings of their components and the rules of syntax.

- Example: *big house*, *red apple*.

2. Phraseological units (idiomatic expressions) are stable word combinations with a fixed structure and meaning that cannot be deduced from the meanings of the individual words.

- Example: *to break the ice* (to start a conversation), *red tape* (bureaucracy).

Various Ways of Classifying Phraseological Units

Phraseological units are classified based on their semantic and structural properties:

1. By degree of idiomaticity:

- **Phraseological fusions:** The meaning is fully idiomatic and cannot be deduced from the parts (e.g., *to kick the bucket* — to die).

- **Phraseological unities:** The meaning is partly idiomatic but some components retain their lexical meaning (e.g., *to spill the beans* — to reveal a secret).

- **Phraseological combinations:** The meaning is mostly literal but the combination is fixed (e.g., *to make a decision*).

2. By structural type:

- **Phrasal verbs:** Verb + particle (e.g., *to give up*).

- **Idioms:** Fixed expressions with metaphorical meaning (e.g., *to hit the nail on the head*).

- **Collocations:** Frequent word combinations with a strong tendency to co-occur (e.g., *strong tea*, *heavy rain*).

Origin of Phraseological Units

1. Historical origin: Many phraseological units originate from historical events, literature, or cultural traditions.

- Example: *to cross the Rubicon* (to make an irrevocable decision) comes from Julius Caesar's crossing of the Rubicon River.

2. **Motivated origin:** Some phraseological units arise through metaphor, metonymy, or other semantic processes.
 - Example: *to break the ice* originated from the practice of ships breaking ice to open a path.
3. **Borrowed phraseological units:** Some idioms are borrowed from other languages and adapted.
 - Example: *to bite the bullet* (to endure hardship) is of English origin but similar expressions exist in other languages.

7. **The morphemic and derivational level of analysis of the word structure. Main units of word-formation. Affixation as a means of nomination in modern English.**

The Morphemic Level of Analysis

1. **Morpheme:** The smallest indivisible two-facet (meaningful) unit of language. Morphemes exist only as parts of words.
2. **Types of morphemes:**
 - **Root:** The lexical center of the word, e.g., *help* in *helpful*, *helpless*, *unhelpful*.
 - **Affix:** Used to build stems; includes prefixes (before the root), suffixes (after the root), and infixes (inserted into the root), e.g., *re-think*, *dangerous*.
3. **Structurally, morphemes can be:**
 - **Free:** Can stand alone as a word, e.g., *friend* in *friendship*.
 - **Bound:** Occur only as part of a word, e.g., *-ship* in *friendship*.
 - **Semi-bound:** Can function both as free and as part of another word, e.g., *proof* (free) and *-proof* in *bulletproof* (semi-bound).
4. **Morphemic analysis:** The process of breaking a word into its constituent morphemes using the Immediate and Ultimate Constituents method.
 - **Monomorphic words:** Consist of one root, e.g., *cat*, *blue*.
 - **Polymorphic words:** Consist of two or more morphemes, e.g., *disagreeableness* = *dis-* + *agree* + *-able* + *-ness*.

The Derivational Level of Analysis

Word-formation: The process of building words from available linguistic material according to certain structural and semantic patterns.

1. **Main units of derivational analysis:**

- **Derived word (derivative):** The new word formed, e.g., *encouragement*.

- **Derivational base:** The source for derivation, e.g., *encourage* in *encouragement*.
- **Derivational pattern:** The formula or scheme used, e.g., *V + -ment* → *N*.
- **Derivational affix:** The affix used to form the new word, e.g., *-ment* in *encouragement*.

2. Types of words:

- **Simple (non-derived):** Not motivated by other words, e.g., *boy*, *run*.
- **Derived:** Motivated by other words, e.g., *spammer*, *anti-spamming* from *spam*.

3. Derivational structure: Can be described as a sequence of steps, e.g., *nationalization*: [(nation + -al) + -ize] + -ation.

Affixation as a Means of Nomination

1. Affixation: The formation of new words by adding derivational affixes to bases.

- **Prefixation:** Adding prefixes before the root, e.g., *un-*, *dis-*, *re-* (*unhappy*, *disapprove*, *redo*).
- **Suffixation:** Adding suffixes after the root, e.g., *-ness*, *-er*, *-ment* (*kindness*, *teacher*, *agreement*).

2. Affixation is the most productive way of word-formation in modern English, especially suffixation.

- **Examples:** *non-toxic*, *heartless*, *overeat*, *ex-wife*, *kindness*, *familiarize*.

3. Productivity: The ability of an affix or pattern to form new words, e.g., *-er* in *worker*, *reader* is highly productive.

4. Semantic selectivity: Affixes are added to certain types of stems, e.g., *-ish* to noun stems denoting humans or animals (*boyish*, *tigerish*).

Summary Table

Level of Analysis: Morphemic

Aim: To find the morphemic structure

Main units: morphemes (roots, affixes)

Example: friendliness = friend + ly + ness

Level of Analysis: Derivational

Aim: To determine the derivational structure

Main units: Derived word, base, pattern, affix

Example: encouragement = encourage + ment

8. Problems of conversion. Problems of compounding. Shortening and blending as ways of nomination in modern English.

Problems of Conversion (Zero Derivation)

1. **Conversion** is a word-formation process where a word changes its part of speech without any change in form (i.e., without adding affixes).

2. Problems related to conversion:

- **Determining the direction of derivation:** It is often difficult to establish which part of speech is the original. For example, which came first: *to email* (verb) or *email* (noun)?
- **Limited applicability:** Conversion is not always possible due to semantic or syntactic constraints.
- **Distinguishing from other processes:** It can be challenging to differentiate conversion from semantic shifts or other word-formation processes.
- **Productivity:** The degree of productivity of conversion as a word-formation method is debated.
- **Examples:** *butter* (noun) → *to butter* (verb), *empty* (adjective) → *to empty* (verb).

Problems of Compounding

1. **Compounding** is a word-formation process that combines two or more words into a new single word.

2. Problems related to compounding:

- **Defining word boundaries:** It can be difficult to decide whether a word combination is a phrase or a compound word.
- **Semantic interpretation:** The meaning of a compound is not always a straightforward sum of its parts.
- **Orthographic representation:** Compounds may be written solidly, hyphenated, or separately, causing uncertainty about their status.
- **Productivity:** Not all word combinations can become compounds.
- **Examples:** *blackbird*, *sunflower*, *website*.

Shortening and Blending as Ways of Nomination

1. **Shortening** is the process of reducing a word to a shorter form while retaining its core meaning.

2. **Blending** is the formation of a new word by merging parts of two different words.

3. Role in modern nomination:

- **Shortening:** Used to create shorter, more convenient forms, especially in informal speech (*ad* from advertisement).

- **Blending:** Allows creation of new words with combined meanings (*brunch* = breakfast + lunch).

4. Problems and features:

- **Applicability:** Not all words can be shortened or blended.
- **Acceptance:** New shortenings and blends must be accepted by the language community to become established.
- **Semantic clarity:** The meanings of shortenings and blends should be clear.

5. Examples:

- **Shortening:** *exam* (from examination), *lab* (from laboratory).
- **Blending:** *smog* (smoke + fog), *motel* (motor + hotel).

9. Translation loans; etymological doublets; international words. Assimilation of borrowings; types, degrees. Borrowings. Criteria of borrowings. Words of native origin.

Words of Native Origin

1. **Native words** are those not borrowed from other languages, representing the original English wordstock from the earliest Old English manuscripts (5th–7th centuries).

2. Three layers:

- **Indo-European element:** Basic terms (kinship, body parts, animals, plants, numbers, pronouns, verbs, etc.), e.g., *father*, *mother*, *nose*, *cow*, *tree*, *day*, *sun*, *red*, *one*, *be*.
- **Germanic element:** Words common to Germanic languages, e.g., *head*, *hand*, *bear*, *grass*, *spring*, *sea*, *house*, *green*, *see*, *make*.
- **English proper element:** Words with no cognates in other languages, e.g., *bird*, *girl*, *boy*, *lord*, *woman*.

3. **Characteristics:** Great stability, high frequency, monosyllabic, polysemantic, wide combinability, used in many phraseological units.

Borrowings: Causes, Ways, Criteria

1. **Borrowings (loan-words):** Words adopted from other languages, making up about 70% of English vocabulary.

2. **Causes:**

- **Extralinguistic:** Wars, invasions, trade, cultural contacts.
- **Linguistic:** Need to name new objects/concepts, prestige, expressiveness.

3. Ways of borrowing:

- **Oral borrowing:** Through direct spoken contact (usually older, fully assimilated).
- **Written borrowing:** Through books/media (often less assimilated, preserve foreign features).

4. Criteria for identifying borrowings:

- Spelling/pronunciation (unusual sounds, stress, letter combinations), e.g., *genre*, *khaki*, *xylophone*.
- Irregular plurals, e.g., *stimulus* – *stimuli*, *crisis* – *crises*.
- Morphological structure (foreign affixes), e.g., *convenient*, *attribute*, *talkative*.
- "Alien" concepts/objects, e.g., *burqa*, *paella*, *pagoda*.

Assimilation of Borrowings: Types and Degrees

1. **Assimilation** is the adaptation of borrowings to the norms of English.

2. Types:

- **Phonetic assimilation:** Substituting native sounds, shifting stress, e.g., *garage* ['gæra:ʒ] → ['gæridʒ].
- **Grammatical assimilation:** Adapting grammatical forms, e.g., *cactus* – *cacti/cactuses*.
- **Morphological assimilation:** Borrowed words may acquire native affixes, e.g., *talkative*, *faintly*.
- **Semantic assimilation:** Changes in meaning, e.g., *umbrella* (from "sunshade" to "rain protection"), *fellow* (from "companion" to "man, boy").

3. Degrees:

- **Completely assimilated:** Fully adapted, high frequency, e.g., *cheek*, *wrong*.
- **Partially assimilated:** Not fully adapted phonetically, graphically, morphologically, or semantically, e.g., *regime*, *foyer*, *corps*, *jihad*.
- **Unassimilated (barbarisms):** Foreign words not adapted, e.g., *carte blanche*, *status quo*.

Translation Loans, Etymological Doublets, International Words

1. **Translation loans:** Words/expressions formed by literal translation of foreign elements, e.g., *superman* (from German *Übermensch*), *first dancer* (from Italian *prima ballerina*).

2. **Etymological doublets:** Two or more words from the same root but different routes/times:

- Native and borrowed: *shirt* (native) and *skirt* (Scandinavian).
- Two borrowings: *canal* (Latin) and *channel* (French).
- Borrowed twice: *corpse* (Norman French) and *corps* (later French).

3. International words: Words of the same origin in several languages, usually scientific, technical, or cultural terms, e.g., *philosophy, music, democracy, banana, coffee*.

- English has contributed many international words: *football, sweater, film, jazz*.

- **False friends:** International words with different meanings in different languages, e.g., *sympathy* ("compassion") vs. Russian *симпатия* ("liking").

10. **The status of American English. Historical causes of lexical divergencies in the British and American variants. Lexical differences between British English and American English.**

The Status of American English

- **American English (AmE)** is not a separate language or a dialect in the traditional sense. It is best described as a **regional variant** of the English language, with its own literary standard and dialects.

- AmE and British English (BrE) share essentially the same grammar, phonetic system, and vocabulary, making them mutually intelligible.

- AmE serves all spheres of communication and has its own standardized norms.

- The influence of AmE has grown significantly, especially since the 20th century, due to the USA's global cultural, economic, and technological prominence.

- Differences between AmE and BrE are relatively minor and mainly concern vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation, and some grammar.

Historical Causes of Lexical Divergencies

1. Early Settlement: The first English colonists in America spoke Early New English (the language of Shakespeare). The Atlantic barrier led to divergence as changes in Britain did not always reach the colonies, so some old words survived in AmE (*to guess* = "to think", *fall* = "autumn").

2. New Environment: Settlers encountered new plants, animals, and phenomena, leading to:

- Adaptation of old words to new meanings (*creek* for a small stream, *corn* for maize).

- Creation of new words from existing English morphemes (*eggplant, catbird, lengthy*).

3. Borrowings from Other Languages:

- **Amerindian languages:** *chipmunk, raccoon, moccasin, tomahawk, Ohio, Michigan*.

- **Other colonial languages:**
 - French: *prairie, chowder*
 - Dutch: *boss, cookie, sleigh, waffle*
 - Spanish: *corral, lasso, ranch, cafeteria*
 - German: *noodle, frankfurter, seminar*
 - Italian: *pizza, pasta*
 - African languages (via slaves): *jazz, juke, voodoo*
- **Independent Development:** Some words died out in Britain but survived in America, and vice versa.

Lexical Differences between British and American English

Types of Lexical Differences:

1. Exclusive Americanisms: Words with no British equivalents, often denoting American realia (*drive-in, drugstore, supermarket*).

2. Different Words for the Same Referent:

- BrE: *lorry, tin, sweets, nappy, caravan*
- AmE: *truck, can, candy, diaper, trailer*

3. Semantic Differences:

- The same word may have different meanings or semantic structures.
- *Shoulder* (BrE: body part; AmE: also "side of the road"), *corn* (BrE: any grain; AmE: maize).

4. Differences in Meaning:

- *Jelly* (BrE: dessert; AmE: fruit preserve), *mad* (BrE: crazy; AmE: angry), *nervy* (BrE: nervous; AmE: bold).

5. Connotational and Stylistic Differences:

- *Nasty* (mildly derogatory in BrE, strongly in AmE), *homely* (positive in BrE, negative in AmE).

6. Functional Differences:

- Different lexical distributions or prepositional usage:
 - BrE: *to ride a horse/a bike*; AmE: also *to ride in a boat, on a train*
 - BrE: *to live in a street*; AmE: *to live on a street*
 - BrE: *to leave on Monday*; AmE: *to leave Monday*

7. Frequency Differences:

- *Schedule* is more frequent in AmE, *timetable* in BrE. Some words are common in one variant but rare or unknown in the

other.

8. General English:

- Most vocabulary is shared and understood in all English-speaking countries.
- Locally marked vocabulary is a small but noticeable part of the lexicon.

The Future of American English

1. Speakers of AmE outnumber those of BrE by a large margin.
2. AmE has become a major force for change and expansion in global English.
3. Many Americanisms have entered international usage.
4. Despite differences, the similarities between AmE and BrE are greater, and the gap is narrowing due to constant communication and media exchange.
5. The future of AmE as a global standard is secure, with international English reflecting both BrE and AmE standards.

11. Antonyms and types of opposites.

Definition of Antonymy

Antonymy is a semantic relation of opposition between the meanings of two words. **Antonyms** are words that express opposite concepts. It is important that antonyms belong to the same part of speech and denote comparable concepts.

Types of Antonyms

1. Complementary Antonyms (Contradictory Terms):

- Express mutually exclusive concepts; the assertion of one negates the other.
- There are no intermediate degrees between them.
- Examples: *alive – dead, true – false, on – off*.

2. Gradable Antonyms (Contraries):

- Express opposite but not mutually exclusive concepts; there is a spectrum of intermediate degrees between them.
- Examples: *hot – cold* (with *warm, cool, tepid* in between), *big – small* (with *medium, large, tiny*), *good – bad*.

3. Relational Antonyms (Converse Terms):

- Express relations with opposite directions or roles of participants.

- One antonym implies the existence of the other.
- Examples: *buy – sell, teacher – student, husband – wife, above – below.*

4. Reversive Antonyms:

- Express movement or action in the opposite direction or an action that reverses the previous one.
- Examples: *enter – exit, tie – untie, pack – unpack.*

Additional Aspects of Antonymy

1. Contextual Antonymy: Words that become antonyms only in certain contexts (e.g., *bright* meaning "smart" vs. *bright* meaning "dull").

2. False Antonyms: Words that seem antonyms but do not express direct opposition (e.g., *big* and *huge* are synonyms, not antonyms).

3. Antonymy of Polysemous Words: A word may have different antonyms depending on its meaning.

Functions of Antonyms in Language

1. Expressing Contrast: Allow clear expression of opposite features and concepts.

2. Enriching Speech: Make speech more expressive and interesting.

3. Creating Stylistic Devices: Used for antithesis, oxymoron, and other rhetorical figures.

4. Logical Thinking: Help form logical categories and analyze information.

Examples:

1. Complementary: *live – dead, right – wrong.*

2. Gradable: *happy – sad, fast – slow.*

3. Relational: *lend – borrow, parent – child.*

4. Reversive: *fill – empty, advance – retreat.*

Thus, antonymy is an important semantic relation that enables the expression of opposites and contrasts in language, enriching speech and allowing more precise expression of thoughts.