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імені Івана Франка

АННА ПОГОРІЛА

**ТЕОРЕТИЧНИЙ КУРС АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ:
СКОРОЧЕНИЙ КУРС ЛЕКЦІЙ**

Навчальний посібник

Дрогобич 2025

Drohobych Ivan Franko State Pedagogical University

ANNA POGORILA

**THEORETICAL COURSE OF THE ENGLISH
LANGUAGE:
CONCISE LECTURE COURSE**

Textbook

Drohobych 2025

*Рекомендовано до друку вченою радою Дрогобицького державного педагогічного університету імені Івана Франка
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Рецензенти:

Шагала Л.Б., кандидат педагогічних наук, доцент кафедри англійської мови та перекладу Дрогобицького державного педагогічного університету імені Івана Франка;

Гулич М.М., кандидат філологічних наук, доцент кафедри практики англійської мови і методики її навчання Дрогобицького державного педагогічного університету імені Івана Франка.

Відповідальний за випуск:

Сирко І.М., кандидат філологічних наук, доцент, доцент кафедри практики англійської мови і методики її навчання Дрогобицького державного педагогічного університету імені Івана Франка.

Погоріла А.І.

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Навчальний посібник укладено відповідно до програми навчальної дисципліни «Теоретичний курс англійської мови» для підготовки фахівців першого (бакалаврського) рівня вищої освіти Галузі знань 01 Освіта/Педагогіка, спеціальності 014 «Середня освіта Мова та література (польська мова і література) освітньої програми Середня освіта (Мова і література (англійська, німецька) та освітньої програми Середня освіта (Мова і література (українська), Середня освіта польська (Мова і література (польська, англійська)»).

Посібник спрямований на розвиток теоретичних знань студентів з основних розділів загального мовознавства та англійської мовної системи. У скороченій та доступній формі викладено ключові положення фонетики, морфології, синтаксису, лексикології та стилістики англійської мови. Матеріал орієнтований на студентів філологічних спеціальностей закладів вищої освіти та може бути використаний як у процесі самостійного опрацювання теоретичного матеріалу, так і під час аудиторної роботи.

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Reviewers:

Shagala L.B., Candidate of Pedagogical Sciences, Associate Professor at the Department of English Language and Translation of Drohobych Ivan Franko State Pedagogical University;

Gulych M.M., Candidate of Pedagogical Sciences, Associate Professor at the Department of English Language Practice and Teaching its Methods of Drohobych Ivan Franko state Pedagogical University.

Responsible for the publication:

Syrko I.M., Candidate of Philological Sciences, Associate Professor, Head of the Department of English Language Practice and Teaching Methods of Drohobych Ivan Franko State Pedagogical University.

Pogorila A.I.

P 43 Theoretical Course of the English Language: A Concise Lecture Course.
Textbook. Drohobych: Ivan Franko State Pedagogical University, 2025. 54 p.

The textbook has been compiled in accordance with the curriculum of the academic discipline *"Theoretical Course of the English Language"* for the training of specialists at the first (bachelor's) level of higher education in the Field of Knowledge 01 Education/Pedagogy, specialty 014 *Secondary Education (Language and Literature – Polish Language and Literature)*, within the educational program *Secondary Education (Language and Literature – English, German)* and the educational program *Secondary Education (Language and Literature – Ukrainian)*, *Secondary Education – Polish (Language and Literature – Polish, English)*.

The textbook is aimed at developing students' theoretical knowledge of the main branches of general linguistics and the English language system. It presents, in a concise and accessible form, the key concepts of English phonetics, morphology, syntax, lexicology, and stylistics. The material is intended for students of philological specialities at institutions of higher education and may be used both for independent study and in-class learning.

The manual is intended for university students, educators

The bibliography consists of 10 titles.

ЗМІСТ

Передмова	7
Лекція 1: Еволюція англійської мови в історичній перспективі: діахронічний розвиток, германське походження та індоєвропейські корені	9
Лекція 2: Ранні етапи розвитку англійської мови: давньоанглійський і середньоанглійський періоди	14
Лекція 3: Слово як основна номінативна одиниця мови.....	19
Лекція 4: Словотворення в сучасній англійській мові	23
Лекція 5: Етимологічний склад сучасної англійської мови.....	27
Лекція 6: Значення слова: семантична структура та типи значення слова.....	32
Лекція 7: Значення слова та явище полісемії	37
Лекція 8: Метафора, метонімія та семантичні зміни	41
Лекція 9: Фразеологія та типи фразеологічних одиниць	45
Лекція 10: Стилiстична класифікація англійської лексики	49
Список використаних джерел	53

CONTENTS

Foreword	8
Lecture 1: The Evolution of the English Language in Historical Perspective: Diachronic Development, Germanic Origins, and Indo-European Roots.....	9
Lecture 2: The Early Stages of the English Language: Old and Middle English Periods.....	14
Lecture 3: The Word as the Basic Nominative Unit of Language.....	19
Lecture 4: The Etymological Composition of Modern English.....	23
Lecture 5: Word-Formation in Modern English.....	27
Lecture 6: The Meaning of the Word: Semantic Structure and Types of Word Meaning.....	32
Lecture 7: The Meaning of the Word and the Phenomenon of Polysemy.....	37
Lecture 8: Metaphor, Metonymy, and Semantic Change.....	41
Lecture 9: Phraseology and Types of Phraseological Units.....	45
Lecture 10: Stylistic Classification of the English Vocabulary.....	49
References	53

Передмова

Запропонований навчальний посібник *«Загальнотеоретичний курс англійської мови»* призначений для ґрунтовного та системного ознайомлення з основними аспектами англійської мови з теоретичного та історичного погляду. Посібник орієнтований на студентів філологічних спеціальностей, мовознавців, а також викладачів і молодих науковців, які прагнуть поглибити знання про структурні особливості та динаміку розвитку англійської мови.

Курс розглядає англійську мову як складну систему, що історично розвивається під впливом як внутрішньомовних, так і позамовних чинників. Починаючи з історичних передумов мовного розвитку, у матеріалі послідовно висвітлюються діахронічний та синхронічний підходи до мовного аналізу, фонологічна й морфологічна еволюція англійської мови від найдавніших етапів, а також вплив германської та індоєвропейської спадщини.

Окрема увага приділяється етимологічному складу англійського словникового фонду, способам словотворення, лексико-семантичним явищам, зокрема полісемії, метафорі та метонімії. Посібник також містить розгляд фразеологізмів, стилістичної диференціації лексики, а також особливостей термінології й розмовної мови у різних функціональних стилях.

Кожна лекція супроводжується чіткою структурою та добіркою рекомендованої наукової літератури, що дозволяє студентам самостійно поглиблювати знання. Запропоновані теми спрямовані на розвиток аналітичного мислення, формування навичок лінгвістичного дослідження та розуміння взаємозв'язку між формою, значенням і функцією мовних одиниць.

Сподіваємося, що цей посібник стане не лише академічним орієнтиром, а й практичним інструментом для подальших мовознавчих студій. Представлені матеріали відображають сучасні наукові підходи та заохочують студентів до критичного осмислення закономірностей розвитку англійської мови як національного й глобального засобу комунікації.

Foreword

The manual, *Theoretical Course of the English Language*, is designed to provide a comprehensive and structured overview of key aspects of the English language from a theoretical and historical perspective. It is intended for students of philology, linguistics, and English studies, as well as for early-stage researchers and educators seeking to deepen their understanding of the systemic properties and developmental dynamics of the English language.

The course explores the English language as a complex, historically evolving system of signs shaped by both internal linguistic processes and extralinguistic factors. Beginning with the historical foundations of language development, the material highlights the diachronic and synchronic approaches to linguistic analysis, the phonological and morphological evolution of English from its earliest stages, and the fundamental role of Germanic and Indo-European roots.

Special attention is devoted to the etymological structure of English vocabulary, mechanisms of word formation, and lexical-semantic phenomena such as polysemy, metaphor, and metonymy. The manual also provides detailed consideration of phraseological units, stylistic stratification of vocabulary, and the peculiarities of terminology and colloquial usage across functional registers.

Each lecture is accompanied by a clearly outlined structure and a curated list of recommended academic readings, enabling students to expand their knowledge independently. The selected topics aim to promote analytical thinking, support linguistic inquiry, and foster a deeper appreciation of the interplay between language form, meaning, and function.

It is hoped that this manual will serve not only as an academic guide but also as a valuable tool for further linguistic exploration. The materials contained herein reflect current scholarly views and encourage learners to engage critically with the structural and functional aspects of English as both a national and global language.

Lecture 1:

The Evolution of the English Language in Historical Perspective: Diachronic Development, Germanic Origins, and Indo-European Roots

1. Introduction

The study of the English language is incomplete without a thorough understanding of its historical evolution. Language is a dynamic, living phenomenon that changes over time under the influence of both internal linguistic mechanisms and external socio-cultural factors. The historical development of a language is closely interwoven with the history of the people who speak it, reflecting patterns of migration, conquest, cultural exchange, and technological advancement.

2. Diachrony and Synchrony in Linguistic Studies

Linguistics traditionally distinguishes between **synchrony** and **diachrony**:

- **Synchrony** refers to the study of a language at a particular point in time, usually the present, focusing on its current structure and usage.
- **Diachrony** refers to the historical development and evolution of a language over time, tracing the changes in phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics.

The **diachronic approach** enables scholars to understand how and why languages change. Language change is not random; it follows certain patterns and is often governed by regular sound laws and systemic shifts.

3. Causes of Linguistic Change

Language evolves due to a combination of factors, including:

- **Phonetic erosion** and simplification of articulation
- **Analogy** and morphological regularization
- **Borrowing** from other languages due to contact
- **Internal evolution** of grammar and vocabulary
- **Sociolinguistic pressures**, such as standardization and prestige dialects

4. Phonetic Laws in Historical Linguistics

One of the key tools in diachronic linguistics is the formulation of **phonetic laws**, which describe regular sound changes across related languages. These laws are

considered exceptionless within specific linguistic environments and are central to the **comparative method**.

5. Germanic Languages within the Indo-European Family

The English language belongs to the **Germanic branch** of the **Indo-European language family**, which also includes Romance, Slavic, Celtic, Baltic, Indo-Iranian, and other branches.

The Germanic languages are divided into three major groups:

- **West Germanic:** English, German, Dutch, Afrikaans, Frisian
- **North Germanic:** Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, Icelandic, Faroese
- **East Germanic** (extinct): Gothic is the primary representative

6. Classification and Distribution of Modern Germanic Languages

Today, Germanic languages are spoken across a wide geographical area, primarily in Europe and former colonies:

- **English:** global lingua franca, spoken on all continents
- **German:** Central Europe
- **Dutch:** Netherlands, Belgium, Suriname
- **Scandinavian languages:** Northern Europe
- **Afrikaans:** South Africa, Namibia

7. Historical Records of Germanic Tribes

Knowledge about early Germanic tribes comes from:

- Roman authors such as **Tacitus** (e.g., *Germania*, 1st century AD)
- Greek historians like **Strabo** and **Ptolemy**
- Archaeological evidence and runic inscriptions

These tribes inhabited regions of modern-day Germany, Denmark, and southern Scandinavia before spreading across Europe.

8. Earliest Written Monuments

The earliest written records of Germanic languages include:

- **Runic inscriptions** (ca. 2nd century AD)
- **The Gothic Bible** translated by **Wulfila** in the 4th century
- **Old English texts** such as *Beowulf* and *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*

- **Old High German** texts like *Hildebrandslied*

9. Common Indo-European Features in Germanic Languages

Germanic languages share a number of features inherited from Proto-Indo-European:

Phonology

- Systematic consonant shifts
- Simplification of vowel systems

Lexicon

- Core vocabulary (e.g., kinship terms, numbers, natural elements)

Grammar

- Use of inflectional morphology
- Categories of tense, mood, person, number, and case

10. General Characteristics of the Germanic Area

Key innovations distinguishing Germanic from other Indo-European languages include:

- **Strong and weak verb systems**
- **Fixed stress accent**, usually on the first syllable
- **Use of modal verbs** and periphrastic constructions
- **Simplification of the case system** over time

11. Consonantal Shifts: Germanic vs Indo-European

A crucial phonological development in Germanic languages is the **First Consonant Shift**:

Grimm's Law (named after Jacob Grimm)

Describes systematic changes from Proto-Indo-European (PIE) to Proto-Germanic:

PIE	Proto-Germanic
$p \rightarrow f$	$t \rightarrow \theta$ (th)
$b \rightarrow p$	$d \rightarrow t$
$bh \rightarrow b$	$dh \rightarrow d$

Verner's Law

Explains exceptions to Grimm's Law: voiceless fricatives became voiced when preceded by an unstressed syllable in PIE.

Rhotacism

The change of /z/ to /r/ in specific phonetic environments in Old Germanic.

12. Germanic Vowel System and Ablaut

The Germanic vowel system evolved independently from PIE, but retained a process known as **ablaut** – systematic vowel alternation used to mark grammatical categories, especially in strong verbs:

- sing – sang – sung
- drive – drove – driven

Ablaut is a **phonological-morphological alternation** inherited from PIE and systematized in Germanic languages.

13. Periodization of the History of the English Language

The development of English is traditionally divided into three main historical periods:

1. **Old English** (ca. 450–1150): influenced by Germanic dialects and Old Norse
2. **Middle English** (ca. 1150–1500): marked by French influence after the Norman Conquest
3. **Modern English** (1500–present): characterized by standardization, colonial expansion, and lexical enrichment

Some scholars add a **Pre-Old English** stage to describe the period of West Germanic dialects before settlement in Britain.

Conclusion

This lecture has provided an overview of the foundations of historical English linguistics, from the principles of diachronic change to the classification and features of Germanic languages. Understanding the broader Indo-European context and the mechanisms of phonetic and grammatical evolution is essential for comprehending the structure and history of English.

Suggested Reading

- Baugh, A. C., & Cable, T. (2013). *A History of the English Language*. Routledge.<https://www.routledge.com/A-History-of-the-English-Language/Baugh-Cable/p/book/9780415655965>
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- Hogg, R. M. (1992). *The Cambridge History of the English Language: Volume I*. Cambridge University Press.
<https://www.cambridge.org/core/books/cambridge-history-of-the-english-language/621013264C1EC79CB848F6C086DAF2E1>
- Online Etymology Dictionary
<https://www.etymonline.com/>

Questions for Self-Assessment

1. What are the key differences between synchrony and diachrony in linguistic analysis?
2. What is Grimm's Law and how does it relate to the development of Germanic languages?
3. What are the main groups of Germanic languages and where are they spoken today?
4. What historical evidence do we have about early Germanic tribes?
5. What is ablaut and how does it function in the morphology of Germanic languages?

Lecture 2:

The Early Stages of the English Language: Old and Middle English Periods

Lecture Outline

1. Introduction to the Old English period
2. Dialectal diversity in early English
3. Key historical events in the Old English period
4. Major written records of Old English
5. Phonological features of Old English
6. Vowel system of Old English
7. Consonant system of Old English
8. Transition to Middle English
9. General characteristics of Middle English phonological changes
10. The Great Vowel Shift
11. Conclusion and reflection

1. Introduction to the Old English Period

The **Old English period** (ca. 450–1150 AD) marks the formative stage in the history of the English language. It begins with the settlement of Germanic tribes in Britain and ends with the Norman Conquest. During this time, English developed a distinctive identity shaped by tribal dialects, Norse influence, and early Christianization.

2. Dialectal Diversity in Early English

Old English existed not as a unified language but as a collection of **regional dialects**, each associated with different Anglo-Saxon kingdoms. The four main dialects were:

- **West Saxon** (literary and ecclesiastical standard)
- **Mercian** (central dialect)
- **Northumbrian** (spoken in the north)
- **Kentish** (southeastern dialect)

This dialectal variety reflects the lack of a centralized authority in early medieval England and contributed to the richness of early English texts.

3. Key Historical Events of the Old English Period

Several major events influenced the language during the Old English period:

- **449 AD:** Traditional date of Anglo-Saxon settlement in Britain
- **597 AD:** Christian mission led by Augustine of Canterbury
- **8th–9th centuries:** Viking invasions and Norse settlement
- **878 AD:** Treaty of Wedmore, dividing England into Anglo-Saxon and Danelaw territories

- **1066 AD:** Norman Conquest, ending the Old English period

Each of these milestones brought new linguistic influences and contributed to the development of English vocabulary and syntax.

4. Major Written Records of Old English

Despite low literacy rates, a number of important texts survive:

- **Beowulf:** Epic poem in West Saxon dialect
- **Anglo-Saxon Chronicle:** Historical prose in several dialects
- **Caedmon's Hymn:** One of the earliest Christian poems in Old English
- **Bede's Ecclesiastical History** (Latin with Old English glosses)
- **Ælfric's Homilies** and **King Alfred's translations:** Ecclesiastical prose

These texts provide valuable evidence of early English phonology, grammar, and vocabulary.

5. Phonological Features of Old English

Old English had a **rich inflectional system** and a fully functional **phonemic alphabet** based on the Latin script, supplemented by runic and additional characters such as **þ** (thorn) and **ð** (eth). The language featured **stress on the first syllable**, influencing vowel reduction in unstressed positions.

6. Vowel System of Old English

Old English distinguished both **short and long vowels**. The stressed vocalism included:

- Short vowels: *a, e, i, o, u, y*
- Long vowels: *ā, ē, ī, ō, ū, ȳ*
- Diphthongs: *ea, eo, ie, io*, with corresponding long forms

Vowel length was phonemic, and many grammatical distinctions (e.g., tense, number) depended on it.

7. Consonant System of Old English

The Old English consonant inventory was characterized by:

- **Voiced and voiceless fricatives:** *f/v, s/z, θ/ð* (contextually determined)
- **Plosives:** *p, t, k, b, d, g*
- **Nasals and liquids:** *m, n, l, r*
- **Palatalized variants:** /k/ and /g/ could become /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ in certain environments
- Use of **geminate** (doubled consonants), which were phonemically distinct

8. The Middle English Period: General Overview

The **Middle English period** (1150–1500) was a time of extensive linguistic change. Following the Norman Conquest, English absorbed large numbers of **French** and **Latin** loanwords, while the **inflectional system weakened**, giving rise to more **analytical constructions**.

Key developments included:

- **Loss of grammatical gender**
- **Simplification of case endings**
- **Expansion of the lexicon**
- **Increased use of fixed word order**

9. Changes in Vowel and Consonant Systems

Phonological changes during this period involved:

- **Reduction and loss of unstressed vowels** to a central schwa-like [ə]
- **Diphthongization** of certain vowels
- **Loss of length distinctions** in some dialects
- **Voicing and devoicing** of consonants in certain positions
- **Lenition** (weakening) of stops and fricatives

These transformations helped shape the structure of Modern English.

10. The Great Vowel Shift

The **Great Vowel Shift** (circa 1350–1700) was a major chain shift affecting long vowels:

Middle English

/i:/ (as in *bite*) → /aɪ/

/e:/ (as in *meet*) → /i:/

/a:/ (as in *name*) → /eɪ/

/o:/ (as in *boat*) → /oʊ/

/u:/ (as in *house*) → /aʊ/

Modern English

The shift did not involve spelling changes, which is why English orthography often does not reflect pronunciation. The Great Vowel Shift marks the transition from Middle to Modern English and had profound effects on vowel quality and syllable structure.

11. Conclusion

The Old and Middle English periods represent dynamic phases in the history of the English language. From a fragmented group of dialects to a gradually standardizing national language, English underwent phonological, morphological, and lexical transformations. Understanding these developments is crucial for tracing the roots of Modern English forms and structures.

Suggested Reading

- Crystal, D. (2003). *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. Cambridge University Press.

<https://www.cambridge.org/core/books/cambridge-encyclopedia-of-the-english-language/5F896775108B0A801D3E4B6D798D345A>

- Hogg, R. M. (1992). *The Cambridge History of the English Language: Volume I*. Cambridge University Press.

<https://www.cambridge.org/core/books/cambridge-history-of-the-english-language/621013264C1EC79CB848F6C086DAF2E1>

- Online resources on the Great Vowel Shift:
<https://public.oed.com/blog/a-brief-history-of-english-part-ii-the-great-vowel-shift/>

- Old English texts and translations:

<https://www.oldenglishaerobics.net/>

Self-Assessment Questions

1. What were the main dialects of Old English and what areas did they cover?
2. Which historical events most significantly shaped the Old English language?
3. Describe the main features of the Old English vowel system.
4. How did the phonological system change in the Middle English period?
5. What were the linguistic consequences of the Great Vowel Shift?

Lecture 3: The Word as the Basic Nominative Unit of Language

Lecture Outline

1. The notion of the word in linguistic theory
2. Word vs. morpheme
3. Formal and semantic unity of the word
4. Word vs. word-combination
5. Paradigmatics and syntagmatics
6. External and internal form of the word
7. Paradigmatic relations
8. Syntagmatic relations
9. Conclusion and overview

1. The Notion of the Word in Linguistic Theory

The **word** is traditionally regarded as the **basic nominative unit** of language, serving as the principal means of naming and categorizing elements of reality. As such, it occupies a central place in linguistic structure and analysis. It is a stable linguistic sign that integrates **form** and **meaning**, linking phonological and semantic planes.

2. Word vs. Morpheme

A **morpheme** is the smallest meaningful unit of language, whereas a **word** may consist of one or more morphemes. For example:

- One-morpheme word: *book*
- Two-morpheme word: *books* (book + -s)

Words, unlike morphemes, are **independent units** capable of functioning in isolation. Morphemes are bound or free and often lack this functional autonomy.

3. Formal and Semantic Unity of the Word

A word exhibits **formal unity** and **semantic unity**:

- **Formal unity** implies phonological cohesion (e.g., stress patterns, syllabic integrity). It is not interrupted by pauses and can't be easily divided without loss of meaning.
- **Semantic unity** signifies that a word expresses a **single, integrated concept**, even if it consists of several morphemes.

For instance, *blackboard* is one word semantically, although composed of *black* and *board*.

4. Word vs. Word-Combination

A **word** differs from a **word-combination** in both structure and function:

- A **word**: a single lexical item with a unified grammatical and semantic structure (e.g., *sunlight*)
- A **word-combination**: two or more words forming a syntactic group (e.g., *bright sun*)

In general, a word-combination can be interrupted or rearranged (e.g., *very bright sun*), while a compound word cannot be altered without loss of meaning.

5. Paradigmatics and Syntagmatics

Linguistic units can be analyzed along two axes:

- **Paradigmatic relations**: relationships of substitution or selection (vertical axis), e.g., *walk, run, jump* (verbs in the same grammatical category)
- **Syntagmatic relations**: relationships of combination (horizontal axis), e.g., *quickly run, run fast, run daily*

These two dimensions form the structural basis of linguistic competence and language production.

6. External and Internal Form of the Word

According to the theory of lexical motivation, the **external form** of a word is its **phonological or orthographic shape**, while the **internal form** refers to the **motivation** behind its meaning or etymology.

For example:

- *Handwriting* → external form: /'hændˌraɪtɪŋ/
- Internal form: derived from *hand* + *writing*, motivated by the activity of writing manually

However, many words lose their internal motivation over time (e.g., *understand* no longer implies spatial positioning).

7. Paradigmatic Relations

Paradigmatic relations are realized in the **mental lexicon** and allow for the categorization of words based on **opposition, similarity, or contrast**. Examples include:

- **Synonymy:** *begin – start*
- **Antonymy:** *hot – cold*
- **Hyponymy:** *rose – flower*
- **Grammatical paradigms:** *write, writes, wrote, written, writing*

These relations facilitate vocabulary expansion and lexical choices.

8. Syntagmatic Relations

Syntagmatic relations determine how words **combine** in linear sequences. These relations are based on **compatibility and co-occurrence** patterns:

- *adjective + noun: red apple*
- *verb + object: read a book*
- *preposition + noun: in the house*

Syntagmatic patterns are crucial for grammatical accuracy and stylistic coherence in discourse.

9. Conclusion

The word is a complex linguistic entity that plays a central role in naming, categorizing, and structuring linguistic expression. Its interaction with other words through paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations reflects both the **systematic** and **combinatorial** nature of language. Understanding the formal, semantic, and relational characteristics of the word is essential for exploring deeper layers of linguistic structure.

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https://monoskop.org/images/3/3e/Saussure_Ferdinand_de_Course_in_General_Linguistics_1916_1993.pdf

- Online resource on paradigmatics and syntagmatics:

<https://glossary.sil.org/term/paradigmatic-relation>

Self-Assessment Questions

1. How does a word differ from a morpheme in structure and function?
2. What are the defining features of formal and semantic unity in a word?
3. In what ways do paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations shape language use?
4. What is meant by the internal and external form of a word?
5. How do syntagmatic relations influence sentence structure?

Lecture 4:

The Etymological Composition of Modern English

Lecture Outline

1. Etymological foundations of English vocabulary
2. Role and place of borrowings in English
3. Causes of borrowing
4. Latin and Greek borrowings
5. Celtic borrowings
6. Scandinavian borrowings
7. French, Italian, and Spanish borrowings
8. Degrees of assimilation of borrowings
9. Etymological doublets and hybrids
10. International words
11. Neologisms, archaisms, and historicisms

1. Etymological Foundations of English Vocabulary

The vocabulary of modern English is **etymologically diverse** and reflects the historical, social, and cultural contacts of the English-speaking world. It includes words of **native origin** as well as a vast number of **borrowings** from other languages.

Native words form the core of the lexicon and include:

- **Indo-European words** common to many related languages (e.g., *mother*, *star*)
- **Germanic words**, inherited directly through Old English (e.g., *house*, *stone*)

However, more than 70% of the modern English vocabulary is derived from **non-Germanic sources**.

2. Role and Place of Borrowings in English

English is widely known for its **receptiveness to foreign words**. Unlike some languages that strive for linguistic purism, English has historically accepted foreign lexical units with relative ease. Borrowings have enriched the language, expanded its expressive capacity, and facilitated communication in various scientific, literary, and cultural domains.

3. Causes of Borrowing

Borrowings occur due to a range of factors:

- **Historical invasions and conquests** (e.g., the Norman Conquest)
- **Cultural and religious influences** (e.g., Latin via Christianity)
- **Trade and travel**
- **Scientific and technological development**
- **Prestige of other languages at certain periods**

4. Latin and Greek Borrowings

Latin borrowings entered English in **three main periods**:

- **Early Latin borrowings** via Celtic and Roman influence (e.g., *street*, *wall*)
- **Christian Latin** introduced with the spread of Christianity (e.g., *altar*, *monk*)
- **Renaissance Latin and Greek** words in science and philosophy (e.g., *radius*, *theory*, *epiphany*, *phenomenon*)

Greek elements are particularly common in **scientific and medical terminology** (e.g., *biology*, *chronology*, *cardiology*).

5. Celtic Borrowings

Celtic influence on English vocabulary is relatively minor, limited primarily to **toponyms** and a few everyday words:

- Place names: *London*, *Avon*, *Thames*
- Common words: *crag*, *bog*, *glen*

6. Scandinavian Borrowings

The influence of Old Norse (North Germanic) is notable, especially during the Danelaw period (9th–11th centuries):

- Everyday words: *sky*, *egg*, *knife*, *window*, *take*, *they*, *their*, *them*
- Suffixes and grammatical features: the use of *-son* in surnames (e.g., *Johnson*)

These borrowings often coexisted with native synonyms, adding stylistic nuance.

7. French, Italian, and Spanish Borrowings

French, introduced during and after the Norman Conquest (1066), has had a profound impact on English:

- Legal and administrative terms: *court, judge, parliament*
- Fashion, cuisine, and arts: *menu, genre, ballet, beauty*

Italian contributed mainly in the fields of art and music: *opera, piano, duet*

Spanish borrowings entered later, often through colonization and trade: *tomato, cigar, armada*

8. Degrees of Assimilation of Borrowings

Borrowings undergo **assimilation** to varying degrees:

- **Completely assimilated:** conform to native spelling and pronunciation (e.g., *mountain*)
- **Partially assimilated:** retain foreign features (e.g., *ballet, cliché*)
- **Unassimilated (barbarisms):** still perceived as foreign (e.g., *a priori, zeitgeist*)

9. Etymological Doublets and Hybrids

- **Etymological doublets:** words from the same root borrowed at different times or via different languages
 - E.g., *chief* (from French) and *captain* (from Latin *caput*)
- **Etymological hybrids:** words formed from morphemes of different origins
 - E.g., *television* (*tele-* from Greek, *vision* from Latin)

10. International Words

These are words that exist with similar form and meaning in many languages, especially in the fields of:

- **Science and technology:** *atom, virus, computer*
- **Culture and diplomacy:** *president, diplomacy, crisis*

International words often stem from Latin or Greek.

11. Neologisms, Archaisms, and Historicisms

- **Neologisms:** newly coined or adopted words reflecting cultural/technological change (e.g., *selfie, cryptocurrency*)

- **Archaisms:** outdated words no longer in active use, but retained in literary or historical contexts (e.g., *thou*, *ere*)
- **Historisms:** words denoting obsolete objects or phenomena (e.g., *squire*, *feudalism*, *guillotine*)

These lexical categories illustrate the **dynamic nature of vocabulary** evolution.

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Self-Assessment Questions

1. What are the major historical sources of lexical borrowing in English?
2. How do degrees of assimilation influence the integration of borrowed words?
3. What distinguishes an etymological doublet from a hybrid?
4. Why are international words considered an important part of the modern lexicon?
5. How do archaisms differ from historicisms in function and usage?

Lecture 5:

Word-Formation in Modern English

Lecture Outline

1. Introduction to word-formation
2. Affixation: classification, productivity, semantics, and etymology
3. Latin and French affixes
4. Compounding: features and classification
5. Conversion: definitions and types
6. Clipping and abbreviations
7. Onomatopoeia
8. Blending (telescopy)
9. Other productive and minor word-formation processes

1. Introduction to Word-Formation

Word-formation refers to the set of linguistic processes through which new words are created in a language. It is a vital aspect of lexical innovation and language development. In English, word-formation is especially dynamic and flexible, allowing for the continual expansion of vocabulary in response to cultural, scientific, and technological changes.

2. Affixation

Affixation is the most widespread method of word-formation in English. It involves the addition of **prefixes** and **suffixes** to base forms (roots or stems).

Classification of Affixes

- **Prefixes** precede the base: *un-*, *re-*, *pre-*
- **Suffixes** follow the base: *-ness*, *-able*, *-ism*

Affixes are further classified into:

- **Derivational affixes:** create new words or change word class (e.g., *happy* → *happiness*)
- **Inflectional affixes:** signal grammatical information (e.g., *walk* → *walked*)

Productivity

Some affixes are highly productive (e.g., *-ness*, *un-*, *re-*) while others are obsolete or restricted in use (e.g., *-th* in *warmth*).

Semantic Aspects

Affixes carry predictable meanings:

- *un-* denotes negation (*unfair*)
- *-able* indicates ability (*readable*)
- *-ist* often refers to a person (*artist*)

Etymology

Many affixes in English originate from **Latin** and **French**, especially those introduced during the Middle English and Renaissance periods:

- Latin: *re-* (*again*), *-tion* (*action*)
- French: *en-* (*to make*), *-ment* (*result or state*)

3. Latin and French Affixes

Latin affixes contributed primarily to formal, academic, and abstract vocabulary:

- *trans-*, *sub-*, *-tion*, *-al*, *-ity*

French affixes brought stylistic diversity and elegance:

- *de-*, *-ance*, *-age*, *-ette*

Many such affixes continue to function productively in modern English, especially in scientific and legal terminology.

4. Compounding

Compounding is the combination of two or more roots to form a single word (e.g., *blackboard*, *football*, *underestimate*).

Key Features

- The resulting compound typically has a single meaning distinct from its parts.
- Compounds can be written as **solid** (*toothbrush*), **hyphenated** (*mother-in-law*), or **open** (*post office*).

Classification Principles

Compounds can be classified by:

- **Part of speech:** noun compounds (*toothpaste*), adjective compounds (*snow-white*)
- **Semantic relationships:** endocentric (headed, e.g., *doghouse*) vs. exocentric (non-headed, e.g., *pickpocket*)
- **Syntactic relations:** coordinate (*bittersweet*) vs. subordinate (*truck driver*)

5. Conversion

Conversion, also known as **zero derivation**, is the process of changing the word class of a word without adding any affixes (e.g., *to bottle* from *bottle*).

Types of Conversion

- **Noun → verb:** *to email, to Google*
- **Verb → noun:** *a guess, a jump*
- **Adjective → noun:** *the rich, the poor*

Theoretical Approaches

Scholars debate whether conversion involves:

- A change in grammatical paradigm (morphological view)
- A syntactic reclassification without morphological change (syntactic view)
- A semantic reinterpretation of form (cognitive view)

6. Clipping and Abbreviations

Clipping refers to the shortening of longer words without changing meaning:

- **Back-clipping:** *ad* (from *advertisement*)
- **Fore-clipping:** *phone* (from *telephone*)
- **Middle clipping:** *fridge* (from *refrigerator*)
- **Complex clipping:** *sitcom* (from *situation comedy*)

Abbreviations and **acronyms** are shortened forms created from initial letters:

- **Acronyms** (pronounced as words): *NASA, UNESCO*
- **Initialisms** (spelled out): *BBC, USA*

7. Onomatopoeia

Onomatopoeic words imitate natural sounds and are often used for stylistic or expressive purposes:

- *buzz, hiss, bang, murmur, clang*

They may function as verbs, nouns, or interjections and are often found in poetic and informal registers.

8. Blending (Telescopy)

Blending combines parts of two words to form a new word:

- *brunch* = *breakfast* + *lunch*
- *smog* = *smoke* + *fog*
- *motel* = *motor* + *hotel*

Blends are common in advertising and media, offering concise and catchy expressions.

9. Other Word-Formation Processes

Additional, less frequent word-formation mechanisms include:

- **Back-formation:** removing an affix-like element to create a new word (*editor* → *edit*)
- **Reduplication:** repeating elements for emphasis (*go-go, wishy-washy*)
- **Loan-translation (calque):** direct translation of foreign expressions (*superman* from German *Übermensch*)
- **Coinage:** creating entirely new words (*Kodak, Xerox*)

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- Plag, I. (2003). *Word-Formation in English*. Cambridge University Press.
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- Oxford English Dictionary (for etymologies and affix histories)
<https://www.oed.com>

Self-Assessment Questions

1. What are the major types of affixes in English, and how do they differ in function?
2. How is conversion distinguished from derivation?
3. What criteria are used to classify compound words?
4. Define blending and provide three contemporary examples.
5. Explain the difference between clipping, acronym, and initialism.

Lecture 6: The Meaning of the Word: Semantic Structure and Types of Word Meaning

Lecture Outline

1. General Understanding of Word Meaning
 2. The Semantic Structure of an English Word
 3. Lexical and Grammatical Meaning
 4. Major Approaches to Defining Meaning
 5. Denotative and Connotative Components of Meaning
 6. Word Meaning vs. Sense
 7. Practice Exercises
 8. Glossary
- References

Lecture Content

1. General Understanding of Word Meaning

In theoretical linguistics, **word meaning** refers to the content or conceptual information associated with a lexical unit. It is a multifaceted phenomenon encompassing cognitive, communicative, and cultural dimensions.

The meaning of a word reflects its role in the language system and its communicative function. Words do not exist in isolation; their meanings are shaped by use, context, and semantic relations.

“A word is a linguistic sign that unites a particular concept and a particular sound form” (Saussure, 1916).

2. The Semantic Structure of an English Word

An English word often contains multiple layers of meaning:

Primary (literal) meaning – the most direct and established sense.

Secondary meanings – derived or figurative senses developed through metaphor, metonymy, or usage.

Polysemy – the phenomenon where a single word has multiple related meanings.

Homonymy – unrelated meanings of words with the same form.

Example: The word "*light*"

Literal: *not heavy*

[Figurative]: *a light workload*

This reflects the **semantic structure** as a network of interconnected meanings.

3. Lexical and Grammatical Meaning

Words possess **both lexical and grammatical meanings**:

Lexical meaning

Refers to the conceptual content of a word.

It is independent and defines what the word stands for.

Example:

"Book" – a physical or digital object containing written content.

Grammatical meaning

Refers to the word's function in a sentence.

It includes categories such as tense, number, gender, and case.

Examples:

book – *books* (plurality – grammatical category)

writes – *wrote* (tense – grammatical meaning)

4. Major Approaches to Defining Meaning

a) Referential/Denotational Approach

Meaning is the relationship between the sign (word), the concept, and the referent (object in reality).

b) Functional/Contextual Approach

Meaning is determined by the word's role and function in context (Firth, 1957).

c) Componential Analysis

Meaning is decomposed into semantic components or features.

Man = [+Human], [+Adult], [+Male]

d) Conceptual Approach

Focuses on the mental representation of meaning in the speaker's mind.

5. Denotative and Connotative Components of Meaning

Denotative (Referential) Meaning

The direct, explicit meaning of a word.

Stable and objective.

Dog → a domesticated four-legged mammal.

Connotative Meaning

Emotional or cultural associations.

Subjective and context-sensitive.

Dog → loyalty, danger, insult (depending on usage)

These two components shape the **communicative power** of language.

6. Word Meaning vs. Sense

Meaning refers to the general conceptual content associated with a word across contexts.

Sense is the contextual or relational meaning in a specific use.

Example:

"He went to the bank."

Sense depends on context: *riverbank* vs. *financial institution*

Examples with Analysis

Word	Lexical Meaning	Grammatical Meaning	Denotative Component	Connotative Component
<i>Mother</i>	Female parent	Singular noun	Woman giving birth	Warmth, care, moral authority
<i>Cheap</i>	Low in cost	Adjective	Affordable	Inferior, poor quality
<i>Youth</i>	Young person / age	Abstract noun	Period of adolescence	Energy, rebellion, innocence

Practice Exercises

Exercise 1: Identify Lexical and Grammatical Meaning

Analyze the following words:

Runs

Friendly

Houses

Painted

Exercise 2: Denotative vs. Connotative

For each word, define both meanings:

Home

Snake

Rose

Old

Exercise 3: Contextual Meaning (Sense)

Write two sentences with different senses of:

Bright

Cold

Bank

Glossary

Lexical meaning – the actual, dictionary meaning of a word.

Grammatical meaning – meaning derived from syntactic function

Denotative meaning – the basic, objective meaning of a word.

Connotative meaning – emotional or cultural associations with a word.

Polysemy – one word with multiple related meanings.

Sense – contextual realization of word meaning.

Componential analysis – breaking meaning into features.

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Lecture 7:

The Meaning of the Word and the Phenomenon of Polysemy

Lecture Outline

1. Nature and components of word meaning
2. Lexical vs. grammatical meaning
3. Approaches to defining meaning
4. Denotative and connotative meaning
5. Semantic structure of the word
6. Polysemy: definition and aspects
7. Semantic shifts and mechanisms of meaning change
8. Types of word meanings
9. Figurative (transferred) meanings

1. The Nature of Word Meaning

A word's meaning is a complex, multifaceted phenomenon that serves as the bridge between language and thought. The meaning of a word is not simply a reference to a real-world object but includes a system of associations, usage conditions, and contextual functions.

Linguistically, word meaning can be viewed as **a stable semantic unit** realized in different contexts. It has both structural and functional properties and is central to communication.

2. Lexical vs. Grammatical Meaning

Words carry **lexical meaning**, which denotes the conceptual content (e.g., *book* refers to a printed work), and **grammatical meaning**, which reflects the word's role in grammar (e.g., singular/plural: *book* vs. *books*).

Grammatical meaning is more abstract and systematic, while lexical meaning is concrete and specific. For instance:

- *Runs* = lexical meaning of the verb *run* + grammatical meanings of present tense and third-person singular.

3. Approaches to Defining Meaning

There are several major theoretical approaches to understanding word meaning:

- **Referential (Denotational) Theory:** meaning is the relationship between a word and its referent in the real world.
- **Functional Approach:** meaning is derived from a word's use in communication.
- **Conceptual (Mentalist) Approach:** meaning exists as a mental representation in the speaker's mind.
- **Structuralist Approach:** meaning arises from a word's position within a linguistic system and its oppositions with other elements.

4. Denotative and Connotative Meaning

The **denotative meaning** (or denotation) of a word is its primary, literal, and dictionary definition. It is the stable conceptual content shared by all speakers.

The **connotative meaning** includes emotional, stylistic, or cultural associations:

- *Home* (denotative: a place of residence; connotative: warmth, family, safety)

Connotations can be:

- **Emotive:** positive or negative feelings (e.g., *slim* vs. *skinny*)
- **Stylistic:** formal vs. informal (e.g., *child* vs. *kid*)
- **Evaluative:** judgment or attitude (e.g., *freedom fighter* vs. *terrorist*)

5. Semantic Structure of the Word

Words often have a **semantic structure** composed of multiple layers of meaning. Even a seemingly simple word may involve:

- **Core meaning** (basic concept)
- **Peripheral meanings** (context-dependent)
- **Figurative extensions** (idiomatic or metaphorical senses)

This complexity leads to the phenomenon of **polysemy**, where a single word has multiple related meanings.

6. Polysemy: Definition and Aspects

Polysemy is the capacity of a word to possess two or more related meanings. It is a fundamental feature of the lexicon and results from the semantic development of language.

For example:

- *Head* (part of the body; leader of a group; top of something)

Two Aspects of Polysemy

1. **Diachronic** (historical): tracks the evolution of meanings over time.
2. **Synchronic** (contemporary): analyzes the current semantic system of a word.

Polysemy reflects the **economy and creativity** of language: rather than inventing new words, speakers extend old ones.

7. Semantic Shifts and Meaning Change

Semantic shifts arise through several processes:

- **Metaphor**: transfer based on similarity (*leg of a table*)
- **Metonymy**: transfer based on contiguity (*the crown* = monarchy)
- **Generalization**: word widens in meaning (*holiday* used to mean “holy day” only)
- **Narrowing**: word becomes more specific (*meat* once meant “food” in general)
- **Pejoration**: meaning worsens (*silly* once meant “happy”)
- **Amelioration**: meaning improves (*knight* once meant “servant”)

These processes often lead to the emergence of new word senses, contributing to polysemy.

8. Types of Word Meanings

Scholars distinguish various types of word meanings:

Type	Description	Example
Denotative	Literal reference	<i>dog</i> = domestic animal
Connotative	Emotional/stylistic	<i>puppy</i> = cute, affectionate tone
Stylistic	Register or usage	<i>commence</i> (formal) vs. <i>start</i> (neutral)
Contextual	Meaning in use	<i>hard</i> in <i>hard task</i> vs. <i>hard surface</i>
Figurative	Non-literal	<i>a storm of emotions</i>

9. Figurative (Transferred) Meaning

Figurative language uses **transferred meanings** for rhetorical or poetic effect:

- *He has a heart of stone* (metaphor)
- *The pen is mightier than the sword* (metonymy)

Figurative meanings add richness to language and are often lexicalized over time, becoming standard word senses.

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<https://www.cambridge.org/core/books/lexical-meaning/>
- Oxford English Dictionary (for examples of polysemy and connotation)
<https://www.oed.com>

Self-Assessment Questions

1. What is the difference between lexical and grammatical meaning?
2. How do denotative and connotative meanings contribute to word semantics?
3. Define polysemy and explain its synchronic and diachronic aspects.
4. Describe at least three processes of semantic change with examples.
5. How does figurative meaning relate to polysemy?

Lecture 8:

Metaphor, Metonymy, and Semantic Change

Lecture Outline

1. Metaphor: definition and mechanisms
2. Types of similarity in metaphor
3. Sources and motivations for metaphor
4. Lexical change: causes and mechanisms
5. Broadening and narrowing of meaning
6. Metonymy: definition and types of associations
7. Hyperbole and litotes
8. Euphemism and taboo: linguistic and cultural factors
9. Causes and functions of euphemisms

1. Metaphor: Definition and Mechanisms

A **metaphor** is a semantic process that involves the transfer of meaning based on similarity. It enables speakers to conceptualize one domain of experience in terms of another (e.g., *time is money*).

Metaphor plays a central role not only in poetic language but in everyday speech, facilitating abstract thinking through concrete imagery.

2. Types of Similarity in Metaphor

Metaphoric meaning is grounded in perceived similarity between two entities. The major types of similarity include:

- **Visual similarity:** *a neck of a bottle*
- **Functional similarity:** *a computer mouse*
- **Behavioral similarity:** *a cold person* (emotionless)
- **Spatial or positional similarity:** *the foot of the mountain*

3. Sources and Motivations for Metaphor

Metaphors arise from several domains:

- **Physical experiences** (e.g., *grasping an idea*)
- **Human anatomy** (e.g., *the heart of the city*)
- **Natural phenomena** (e.g., *storm of emotions*)
- **Artifacts and technology** (e.g., *window* in computing)

Cognitive linguists (e.g., Lakoff & Johnson, 1980) argue that metaphor is not merely decorative but foundational to conceptual thought.

4. Lexical Change: Causes and Mechanisms

Language constantly evolves. Lexical change – including shifts in word meaning – is driven by:

- **Cognitive economy:** reusing known words for new concepts
- **Social and cultural developments**
- **Technological innovation**
- **Psychological and emotional needs**

Meaning change can be **intentional** (rhetorical) or **unintentional** (gradual shift in usage over time).

5. Broadening and Narrowing of Meaning

Semantic change often involves shifts in scope:

- **Broadening (generalization):** the meaning of a word becomes more inclusive.
 - *holiday* once meant only a religious festival; now it includes any day of rest.
- **Narrowing (specialization):** a word's meaning becomes more specific.
 - *meat* originally meant “food”; now it refers to animal flesh.

These processes often accompany metaphor and metonymy.

6. Metonymy: Definition and Types of Associations

Metonymy is a semantic shift based on **association**, not similarity. It involves the substitution of one concept for another closely related one:

- **Cause → effect:** *She's a good read* (the act of reading)
- **Instrument → agent:** *The pen is mightier than the sword*
- **Container → contents:** *He drank the whole bottle*
- **Place → institution:** *The White House issued a statement*

Metonymy tends to be more grounded in logic and experience than metaphor, often reflecting habitual patterns of speech.

7. Hyperbole and Litotes

Hyperbole is a figure of speech involving deliberate exaggeration for emphasis or emotional effect.

- *I've told you a million times.*

Litotes is the rhetorical use of understatement, often involving double negatives:

- *Not bad* (meaning “good”)
- *He's no fool* (implying intelligence)

Both hyperbole and litotes can become lexicalized and contribute to the semantic shift of words over time.

8. Euphemism and Taboo

A **euphemism** is a polite, indirect expression used to replace a word or phrase considered harsh, impolite, or socially unacceptable.

Examples:

- *passed away* instead of *died*
- *let go* instead of *fired*

A **taboo** is a subject or term avoided due to social, religious, or cultural prohibitions. Taboos often arise around death, bodily functions, sexuality, and social hierarchy.

9. Causes and Functions of Euphemisms

Euphemisms serve both **psychological** and **social** functions:

- **To avoid offence** or discomfort
- **To maintain politeness** in formal or public settings
- **To reflect cultural sensitivity** or political correctness
- **To manipulate perception** (e.g., *collateral damage* for civilian casualties)

They can also be strategic tools in diplomacy, advertising, and bureaucracy.

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Self-Assessment Questions

1. How does metaphor differ from metonymy in terms of semantic transfer?
2. What are the most common types of similarity used in metaphor formation?
3. Define and illustrate the processes of semantic broadening and narrowing.
4. What are the typical functions of euphemisms in modern English?
5. How do hyperbole and litotes contribute to the change in word meaning over time?

Lecture 8:

Phraseology and Types of Phraseological Units

Lecture Outline

1. Definition of phraseological units
2. Key criteria of phraseological units
3. Classification of phraseological units
4. Structural and structural-semantic types
5. Phraseological fusions
6. Phraseological collocations
7. Phraseological units vs. free word-groups
8. Proverbs, sayings, winged expressions, and clichés

1. Definition of Phraseological Units

Phraseological units (also called *idioms*) are stable, fixed expressions whose meaning is often not deducible from the meanings of the individual words they contain. These expressions function as single lexical items and are commonly used in both spoken and written English.

Example: *kick the bucket* (meaning “to die”).

2. Key Criteria of Phraseological Units

To identify a phraseological unit, several criteria must be considered:

- **Stability**: resistance to grammatical changes or lexical substitution.
- **Idiomaticity**: the meaning is not fully compositional or transparent.
- **Reproducibility**: frequent and widespread use in a fixed form.
- **Lexical integrity**: units function as indivisible wholes.

3. Classification of Phraseological Units

Linguists have developed various classifications of phraseological units based on form, meaning, and function. The most widely accepted is the **semantic classification** proposed by V. V. Vinogradov:

- **Phraseological fusions** (complete idioms)
- **Phraseological unities** (partially motivated idioms)

- **Phraseological collocations** (phraseologically bound expressions)

4. Structural and Structural-Semantic Classifications

Phraseological units can also be classified according to their **grammatical structure**:

- **Noun phrases:** *a red herring, a hot potato*
- **Verb phrases:** *spill the beans, throw in the towel*
- **Prepositional phrases:** *in a nutshell, under the weather*
- **Clauses or sentences:** *the early bird catches the worm*

From a **structural-semantic** perspective, they are grouped according to the degree of idiomaticity and internal cohesion.

5. Phraseological Fusions

Phraseological fusions are completely non-motivated expressions. The meaning of the whole unit cannot be inferred from the meanings of its components.

Examples:

- *to kick the bucket*
- *to paint the town red*

Such units are highly idiomatic and often originate from archaic or metaphorical usage.

6. Phraseological Collocations

Phraseological collocations consist of words that are habitually used together, though the overall meaning may still be partially transparent. One of the components is selected freely, while the other is fixed.

Examples:

- *make a decision*
- *pay attention*
- *commit a crime*

These are not idiomatic in a strict sense but exhibit collocational restrictions.

7. Phraseological Units vs. Free Word-Groups

Unlike **free word-groups**, phraseological units are semantically and structurally fixed.

Feature	Phraseological Unit	Free Word-Group
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Feature	Phraseological Unit	Free Word-Group
Meaning	Non-compositional	Compositional
Stability	Fixed	Flexible
Substitution	Limited	Open
Example	<i>break the ice</i>	<i>break the glass</i>

The boundary between these two is sometimes fuzzy, especially with partially idiomatic expressions.

8. Proverbs, Sayings, Winged Expressions, and Clichés

These expressions are often included in the broader field of phraseology:

- **Proverbs:** generalized truths or advice (*Actions speak louder than words*).
- **Sayings:** conventional phrases expressing common wisdom (*Easy come, easy go*).
- **Winged expressions:** memorable quotes or culturally significant idioms (*To be or not to be*).
- **Clichés:** overused expressions lacking originality (*at the end of the day, last but not least*).

These forms vary in structure and function but share stylistic and rhetorical features.

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Self-Assessment Questions

1. What are the primary criteria for identifying phraseological units?
2. How do phraseological fusions differ from collocations?
3. What is the role of idiomaticity in determining a unit's status as a phraseological expression?
4. How are proverbs and clichés related to phraseology?
5. In what ways do phraseological units differ from free word-groups?

Lecture 9: Stylistic Classification of the English Vocabulary

Lecture Outline

1. The notion of stylistic classification in lexicology
2. Functional styles and lexical stratification
3. Informal vocabulary: colloquialisms and slang
4. Classification of slang
5. Formal vocabulary: literary and bookish words
6. Terminological vocabulary: characteristics and requirements of terms
7. Lexicological analysis of textual units

1. The Notion of Stylistic Classification

Stylistic classification refers to the division of the vocabulary according to its usage in different communicative contexts and registers. This classification is essential for understanding the appropriateness of a word or expression within a particular style, tone, or genre.

Vocabulary can broadly be divided into:

- **Neutral vocabulary**
- **Formal (bookish/literary) vocabulary**
- **Informal (colloquial/slang) vocabulary**
- **Special vocabulary (technical and terminological)**

2. Functional Styles and Lexical Stratification

Functional styles are types of language use defined by their social function and communicative purpose. Examples include:

- Scientific style
- Official style
- Journalistic style
- Publicist style
- Conversational style
- Literary style

Each style utilizes distinct lexical features. For example, scientific texts tend to include precise terminology, while informal styles favor colloquialisms and idiomatic expressions.

3. Informal Vocabulary: Colloquialisms and Slang

Colloquialisms are informal words and phrases used in everyday spoken language. They are often regionally or socially marked and reflect familiarity and spontaneity.

Examples:

- *guy* (man)
- *kid* (child)
- *gonna* (going to)

Slang, in contrast, is more dynamic and often associated with subcultural groups. It includes expressive, often metaphorical language, and its usage may be limited to particular age groups, professions, or social circles.

4. Classification of Slang

Slang can be categorized as follows:

- **General slang**: used across broad sections of society (*cool, chill, dude*)
- **Professional slang**: limited to specific occupations (*copper* for police officer)
- **Subcultural slang**: used within closed or marginal communities (*hacker, gamer talk*)
- **Youth slang**: commonly used among younger speakers (*lit, flex, vibe*)

Slang is marked by rapid lexical innovation and semantic shifts.

5. Formal Vocabulary: Literary and Bookish Words

Bookish (literary) vocabulary comprises terms typically used in written discourse, especially in formal, academic, or poetic contexts.

Examples:

- *commence* (start)
- *endeavour* (try)
- *notwithstanding* (despite)

This vocabulary emphasizes precision and is often characterized by classical or Latinate origin.

6. Terminological Vocabulary: Characteristics and Requirements

Terms are words or expressions used in specific fields of knowledge or professional activity to denote precise concepts. Examples include *photosynthesis*, *quark*, *phoneme*, *inflation*.

Key requirements of a term include:

- **Monosemy**: one-to-one correspondence between form and concept
- **Precision**: clearly defined scope and usage
- **Stability**: relatively fixed over time
- **Systematicity**: part of a terminological system
- **Internationality**: often derived from Latin or Greek, and used globally

Terminology plays a crucial role in technical and academic communication.

7. Lexicological Analysis of Textual Units

Lexicological analysis involves the study of vocabulary in actual contexts. This includes:

- Identifying stylistically marked units
- Analyzing lexical fields and domains
- Distinguishing neutral vs. stylistically loaded items
- Understanding register and tone through lexical choice

This type of analysis helps to assess the suitability of vocabulary for specific genres, audiences, or communicative functions.

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<https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511486493>

Self-Assessment Questions

1. What distinguishes neutral, formal, and informal vocabulary?

2. What are the stylistic functions of slang and colloquialisms?
3. What are the main characteristics of a scientific term?
4. How does lexicological analysis reveal the stylistic features of a text?
5. In what ways do functional styles influence vocabulary choice?

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Навчальний посібник

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Textbook

ANNA POGORILA

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