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Classification of antonyms

Курс лекций по лексикологии английского языка построен в соответствии с государственным стандартом по данной дисциплине и освещает следующие основные вопросы: предмет лексикологии, семасиологию, словообразование и лексикографию. Предназначен для студентов, обучающихся по направлению 031100 - "Лингвистика и перевод" по специальности 031202 - "Перевод и переводоведение". Приведенный ниже текст получен путем автоматического извлечения из оригинального PDF-документа и предназначен для предварительного просмотра. Изображения (картинки, формулы, графики) отсутствуют. Страницы – предыдущая следующая – Conversion is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. It is also called affixless derivation or zero suffixation. Conversion is the main way of forming verbs in Modern English. Verbs can be formed from nouns of different semantic groups and have different meanings because of that.: a) verbs can have instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting parts of a human body, tools, machines, instruments, weapons; to eye, to hammer, to machine-gun, ti rifle; b) verbs can denote an action characteristic of the living being: to crowd, to wolf; to ape; c) verbs can denote acquisition, addition, deprivation: to fish, to dust, to paper; d) verbs can denote an action performed at the place: to park, to bottle, to corner. Verbs can be converted from adjectives, in such cases they denote the change of the state: to tame, to slim. Verbs can be also converted from other parts of speech: to down (adverb), to pooh-poo! (interjection). Nouns can also be converted from verbs. Converted nouns can denote: a) instant of an action: a jump, a move; b) process or state; sleep, walk; c) agent of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted: a help, a flirt; d) object or result of the action: a find, a burn; e) place of the action: a drive, a stop. Sometimes nouns are formed from adverbs: ups and downs. V. Disputable Cases of Word-Formation There exist syntagmaswhich are intermediate between compounds and word- combinations: complexes of the “give up”, “stone wall” and “mother-in-law” type. 1) Complexes of the “give up” type are highly productive. The first component is a simple verb. The status of the second one is disputable: an adverb, a postpositive, etc. The units are often polysemantic and idiomatic: come off (to take place), fall out (to quarrel). They are more colloquial than thier synonyms of Romance origin: give up (abandon). 2) Complexes of the “ stone wall ” type are very productive in bookish style: office management, steel production. The second element is a noun. The status of the first one is disputable: an adjective, a noun, a noun-stem. The units are motivated and correlate with prepositional phrases. his life story - the story of his life. their spelling is inconsistent: haircut, crime report, arm-chair. 3) Complexes of the “mother-in-law” type are phrases that are used as one word. they are mostly occasional units coined in speech: Some people are do-it-nowers, others do-it-some-other-timers. These complexes are usually hyphenated in writing and are pronounced with one heavy stress like many compound words. VI. Shortening Shortenings (or contracted words) are produced in two different ways. The first is to make a new word from a syllable of the original word. The letter may lose its beginning (phone from telephone, fence from defence), its ending (hols from holidays) or both the beginning and ending (flu from influenza). The second way of shortening is to make a new word from the initial letters of a word group: U.N.O., B.B.C., M.P. This type is called initial shortenings (acronyms). They are found not only among formal words but also among colloquialisms and slang: g.f. (girl-friend). Here are some more examples of informal shortenings. movie (moving- picture), specs (spectacles), I.O.Y. (I owe you), metrop (metropolis), posish (position). Undergraduates’ informal speech abounds in words of the type. exam, lab, prof. vac. hol, co-ed (a girl student at a coeducational school or college). Lecture 9 Polysemy. Homonymy I. Polysemy The word polysemy means plurality of meanings. It exists only in the language, not in speech. A word which has more than one meaning is called polysemantic. There are two processes of the semantic development of a word: radiation and concatenation. In cases of radiation the primary meaning stands in the centre and the secondary meanings proceed out of it like rays. Each secondary meaning can be traced to the primary meaning, e.g. face (the front part of the human head - the primary meaning; the front part of a building, the front part of a watch, the front part of a playing card; expression of the face, outward appearance - secondary meanings). In cases of concatenation secondary meanings of a word develop like a chain, e.g. crust – 1. hard outer part of bread, 2. hard part of anything (a pie, a cake), 3. harder layer over soft snow, 4. sullen gloomy person, 5. impudence. Here the last meanings have nothing to do with primary ones. In such cases homonyms appear in the language. This phenomenon is called the split of polysemy. II. Semantic Structure of Polysemantic Words Synchronically, the problem of polysemy ie the problem of interrelation and interdependence of different meanings of the same word. The semantic structure of a polysemantic word is the sum total of relations between its lexico-semantic variants. The analysis of the semantic structure of a polysemantic word is based on the following set of oppositions: 1. Direct-derived meaning: rat – animal like, but larger than a mouse; rat – cowardly person; strike-breaker. 2. Extended-restricted meaning: to knock – strike, hit; to knock – of a petrol engine – make a tapping or thumping noise. 3. Free-bound meaning: hat – cover for the head; hat – nonsense (to speak through one’s hat), 4. General-specialized meaning: case – instance or example of the occurrence of smth; case – (med.) person suffering from a disease. 5. Neutral-emotional meaning: nut – fruit consisting of a hard shell enclosing a kernel that can be eaten; nut – (slang) head of a human being. III. Homonyms. Causes and Sources of Homonymy Homonyms are words different in meaning but identical in sound or spelling, or both in sound and spelling. Homonyms can appear in the language not only as a result of split of polysemy, but also as a result of levelling of grammar inflexions, when different parts of speech become identical in their outer aspect: care from caru and care from carian. They can also be formed by means of conversion: slim – to slim. They can be formed with the help of the same suffix from the same stem: reader – a person who reads and a book for reading. They can be the result of forming splinters, completives and lexical abbreviations: bio – a splinter with the meaning biology, biological as in the word biometrics; bio – a combining form with the meaning life as in the word biology; bio – a lexical shortening of the word biography with the meaning a short biography. Homonyms can also appear in the language accidentally when two words coincide in their development, e.g. two native words can coincide in their outer aspects: to bear from beran (to carry) and bear from bera (an animal). A native word and a borrowing can coincide in their outer aspects, e.g. fair from Latin feria and fair from native fager (blond). Two borrowings can coincide, e.g. base from the French base (Latin basis) and base (low) from the Latin bas (Italian basso). Homonyms can develop through shortening of different words: COD from Concise Oxford Dictionary and cash on delivery. IV. Classification of Homonyms Walter Skeat classified homonyms according to their spelling and sound forms and he pointed out three groups: perfect homonyms, words identical in sound and spelling: school – косяк рыбы and школа; homographs, words with the same spelling but pronounced differently: bow – поклон and bow – лук; homophones, words pronounced identically but spelled differently: night – ночь and knight – рыцарь. Another classification was suggested by A.I. Smirnitsky. He added to Skeat’s classification one more criterion: grammatical meaning. he subdivided the group of perfect homonyms into two types: a) perfect homonyms which are identical in their spelling, pronunciation and their grammar form: spring in the meanings the season of the year, a leap, a source; b) homotforms which coincide in their spelling and pronunciation but have different grammatical meaning: reading – Present Participle, Gerund, Verbal noun; to lobby-lobby. I.V. Arnold pointed out the following groups of homonyms: a) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings, basic forms and paradigms and different in their lexical meanings: board – a council and board – a piece of wood sawn thin; b) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings and basic forms, but different in their lexical meanings and paradigms: to lie – lied – lied, and to lie – lay – lain; c) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, paradigms, but coinciding in their basic forms: light (lights) - light (lighter, lightest); d) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, in their basic forms and paradigms, but coinciding in one of the forms of their paradigms: a bit and bit (from to bite); e) patterned homonyms differ from other homonyms, having a common component in their lexical meanings. They are formed either by means of conversion, or by levelling of grammar inflexions. These homonyms are different in their grammatical meanings, in their paradigms, but identical in their basic forms: warm – to warm. Lecture 10 Synonymy. Paronymy. Antonymy I. Synonyms Synonyms are words different in their outer aspects, but identical or similar in their inner aspects. In English there are many synonyms, because there are a lot of borrowings: hearty (native) – cordial (borrowing). After a word is borrowed it undergoes desynonymization, because absolute synonyms are unnecessary for a language. However, there are some absolute synonyms in the language, which have exactly the same meaning and belong to the same style: to moan, to groan; homeland, motherland. In cases of desynonymization one of the absolute synonyms can specialize in its meaning and we get semantic synonyms: city (borrowed) – town (native). The French borrowing city is specialized in its meaning. Sometimes one of the absolute synonyms is specialized in its usage and we get stylistic synonyms: to begin (native) – to commence (borrowing). Here the French word is specialized. Stylistic synonyms can also appear by means of abbreviation: exam (colloquial), examination (neutral). Among stylistic synonyms we can point out euphenisms: the late (dead), to perspire (to sweat). On the other hand, there are slang synonyms. They are expressive, mostly ironical words serving to create fresh names for some things that are frequently used.: mad – daft, potty, balmy, loony, bonkers, touched, nutty. There are also phrasological synonyms, these words are identical in their meanings and styles but different in their combinability with other words in the sentence: to visit museums but to attend lectures; teachers question their pupils, judges interrogate witnesses. There are also contextual synonyms which are similar in meaning only under some specific distributional conditions: buy and get are not synonyms out of context but they are synonyms in the following examples: I’ll go to the shop and buy some bread and I’ll go to the shop and get some bread. In each group of synonyms there is a word with the most general meaning, which can substitute any word in the group. Such words are called synonymic dominants: piece is the synonymic dominant in the group slice, lump, morsel. Very many compound nouns denoting abstract notions, persons and events are correlated with phrasal verbs. We have such synonymous pairs as: arrangement – layout, reproduction – playback. Conversion can also serve to form synonyms. laughter – laugh. There are also cases of different affixation: effectivity – effectiveness. It can be treated as a lexical variant but not a synonym. Variants can also be phonetical (vase [veiz] - [va:z]) and graphical (to-morrow - tomorrow). The peculiar feature of English is the contrast between simple native words which are stylistically neutral, literary words borrowed from French and learned words of Greko-Latin origin, e.g.: to ask to question to interrogate belly stomach abdomen to end to finish to complete II. Paronyms Paronymy is an intermediate phenomenon between homonymy (identical sound-form) and synonymy (similar meaning). Paronyms are words which are partially similar in form but different in meaning and usage: proscribe-prescribe. The coinciding parts are not morphemes but meaningless sound-clusters. Pairs like historic-historical (words containing the same root-morpheme) are usually treated as synonyms. Yet words of both groups are easily confused in speech even by native speakers: sensible- sensitive, prudent- prudish. Improper usage of learned and sonorous language results in the so-called malapropisms, to have a supercilious (superficial) knowledge in accounts. This kind of word confusion is due to ignorance and produces a humorous effect. Malapropisms may be viewed as a kind of paronyms. The words are attracted to each other because of their partial phonetic similarity. III. Antonyms Antonyms are words belonging to the same part of speech, identical in style, expressing contrary or contradictory notions. V.N. Comissarov classified antonyms into two groups: absolute (root) antonyms (late - early) and derivational antonyms (to please - to displease, honest - dishonest). Absolute antonyms have different roots and derivational antonyms have the same roots but different affixes. In most cases negative prefixes form antonyms (un-, dis- non-). Sometimes they are formed by means of antonymous suffixes: -ful and -less (painful - painless). The difference between derivational and root antonyms is also in their semantics. Derivational antonyms express contradictory notions, one of them excludes the other: active-inactive. Absolute antonyms express contrary notions. If some notions can be arranged in a group of more than two members, the most distant members of the group will be absolute antonyms: ugly, plain, good-looking, pretty, beautiful, the antonyms are ugly and beautiful. Leonard Lipka in the book Outline of English Lexicology describes three types of oppositeness: a) complementarity: male – female. The denial of the one implies the assertion of the other, and vice versa; b) antonyms: good – bad. It is based on different logical relationships; c) converseness: to buy – to sell. It is mirror-image relations or functions: husband-wife, above-below, pupil-teacher. L. Lipka also gives the type which he calls directional oppositions: up-down, consequence opposition: learn-know, antipodal opposition: North-South, East- West. L. Lipka also points out non-binary contrast or many-member lexical sets. In such sets of words we can have outer and inner pairs of antonyms: excellent, good, average, fair, poor. Not every word in a language can have antonyms. This type of opposition can be met in qualitative adjectives and their derivatives: beautiful-ugly, to beautify-to uglify. It can be also met in words denoting feelings and states: to respect to scorn, respectful-scornful and in words denoting direction in space and time: here-there, up-down, before-after. If a word is polysemantic, it can have several antonyms, e.g. the word bright has the antonyms dim, dull, sad. Lecture 11 Vocabulary Classifications I. Morphological and Functional Grouping By their morphemic structure words may be simple (hand, dog), derivative (handful, doggie), compound (handbook, dog-cheap), compound derivative (left- handed, dog-legged). Words are also classified into word-families: dog, doggish, doglike, doggy, to dog, dog-cart. the number of word-families is equal to that of root-morphemes. Words may be grouped by their common affix: troublesome, lonesome, tiresome, handsome. Groups with productive affixes constitute open sets, since new words are constantly created. By their function words are grouped into notional, functional and semi- functional. Notional words can be used alone. They name objects of reality, qualities, actions or processes. Functional words are used only in combination with notional words or in reference to them: auxiliary verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, relative adverbs. They express relations between words. Semi- functional words point to or stand for objects of reality: here, then, this, one, he, how. Страницы – предыдущая следующая –

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