Лекційний курс з дисципліни спеціалізації «Сучасні тенденції розвитку словникового складу англійської мови», курс 5, семестр 2 (заочне відділення)

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1. Питання для самоконтролю.

2. Зміст лекцій.

3. Навчально-методичні матеріали.

ПИТАННЯ ДЛЯ САМОКОНТРОЛЮ

What does semantics study?

Provide the definition of homonyms.

Provide the definition of synonyms.

Classification of homonyms.

What may synonyms differ in?

Provide the definition of antonyms.

Classification of antonyms.

What's a polyseme?

What's a paronym?

Provide the definition of a hyponym.

Provide the definition of a meronym.

What's an exocentric construction?

What's an endocentric construction?

What do you know about compounds and compounding?

What's pragmatics?

Generalization of meaning.

Specialization of meaning.

Metaphor as a figure of speech.

Denotation vs connotation.

Nomination.

Secondary nomination.

Formal vocabulary.

Colloquialisms.

Rhyming slang.

Slang.

Local dialects in the UK.

Indian English.

Australian English.

Canadian English.

American English.

Language of mass media.

Political correctness.

Characteristics of people and society politically correct terms usually refer to.

Characteristic features of PC vocabulary in comparison with direct nominations.

Indicators of the masculine gender of politically incorrect nominations.

Indicators of the feminine gender of politically incorrect nominations.

Post-adverbial use of lexemes in PC vocabulary.

PC chains.

PC terms of inanimate objects.

Neologisms.

Portmanteaux.

5 types of neologisms.

LECTURE 1 BASIC NOTIONS OF CONTEMPORARY SEMANTICS

1. Definition of semantics; the units of its study:

a) homonyms; d) polysemes;   g) meronyms and holonyms;

b) synonyms; e) paronyms;   h) exocentricity and endocentricity;

c) antonyms; f) hoponyms and hypernyms; i) compounds.

2. Semantics vs. pragmatics.
3. Word meaning, generalization and specification of meaning.
4. Connotation and denotation.
5. Nomination.

Semantics can be defined as "the study of the meaning of morphemes, words, phrases and sentences." In linguistics, semantics is the subfield that is devoted to the study of meaning, as inherent at the levels of words, phrases, sentences, and larger units of discourse (referred to as texts). The basic area of study is the meaning of signs, and the study of relations between different linguistic units, short definitions of which are provided below.

a) Homonymy. In linguistics, a homonym is, in the strict sense, one of a group of words that share the same spelling and the same pronunciation but have different meanings (in other words, are both homographs and homophones), usually as a result of the two words having different origins. The state of being a homonym is called homonymy. Examples of pairs of homonyms are *stalk (part of a plant)* and *stalk (follow/harass a person)*, and *left (opposite of right)* and *left (past tense of leave)*.

In a looser non-technical sense, the term "homonym" can be used to refer to words that share the same spelling irrespective of pronunciation, or share the same pronunciation irrespective of spelling – in other words, they are homographs or homophones. In this sense, pairs such as *row (propel with oars)* and *row (argument)*, and *read (peruse)* and *reed (waterside plant)*, would also be homonyms.

Classification of homonyms.

1) Homonyms proper are identical in pronunciation and spelling. E. g. *ball* = 1 a round body or mass, 2 a large formal gathering for social dancing; *seal* = 1 a marine flesh-eating mammal, 2 an emblem or word impressed or stamped on a document as a mark of authenticity

2) Homophones are identical in pronunciation but different in spelling. E.g. *buy – bye, rain – reign, steel – steal.*

3) Homographs are identical in spelling but different in pronunciation. E.g. *bow* [bau] (bending of the head, body or knee) – *bow* [bou] (a tool used to shoot an arrow) *lead* [li:d] (to direct or guide) – *lead* [led] (a heavy soft metallic element)

A distinction may be made between "true" homonyms, which are unrelated in origin, such as *skate (glide on ice)* and *skate (the fish)*, and polysemous homonyms, or polysemes, which have a shared origin, such as *mouth (of a river)* and *mouth (of an animal)*;

b) Synonymy. Synonyms are different words (or sometimes phrases) with identical or very similar meanings. Words that are synonyms are said to be synonymous, and the state of being a synonym is called synonymy. The words *car* and *automobile* are synonyms. Similarly, if we talk about *a long time* or *an extended time*, *long* and *extended* become synonyms. In the figurative sense, two words are often said to be synonymous if they have the same connotation:

"a widespread impression that … Hollywood was synonymous with immorality" (Doris Kearns Goodwin) Doris Kearns Goodwin (born Doris Helen Kearns on January 4, 1943) is a Pulitzer Prize-winning American biographer and historian, and an oft-seen political commentator. She is the author of biographies of several U.S. Presidents, including *Lyndon Johnson and the American Dream*; *The Fitzgeralds and the Kennedys: An American Saga*; *No Ordinary Time: Franklin and Eleanor Roosevelt* (which won the Pulitzer Prize for History in 1995); and her most recent book, *Team of Rivals: The Political Genius of Abraham Lincoln*.

Synonyms may differ:

1) in emotional colouring: *alone – lonely* (sad, longing for company)

2) in valency: *win* (a victory, a war) – *gain* (a victory, not a war!)

3) in style: *begin* (neutral) – *commence* (literary)

There are words that are similar in meaning only under some specific conditions – contextual synonyms.

E.g. *buy* and *get* in a sentence: "I'll go to the shop and *get/buy* some bread."

The common definition of synonyms as words of the same language having the same meaning is very simple, but unfortunately misleading. Words of the same meaning are useless for communication. Occasionally they can be found in special terminology, e.g. *noun = substantive. These* are called total synonyms.

Every word has its own history, motivation and context, thus we can define synonyms as words not absolutely identical but just similar in meaning, belonging to the same part of speech and interchangeable in some context. Synonyms can be any part of speech (e.g. nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs or prepositions), as long as both members of the pair are the same part of speech. More examples of English synonyms are:

- *student and pupil* (noun)
- *petty crime and misdemeanor* (noun)
- *buy and purchase* (verb)
- *sick and ill* (adjective)
- *quickly and speedily* (adverb)
- *on and upon* (preposition)

Note that synonyms are defined with respect to certain senses of words; for instance, *pupil* as the "aperture in the iris of the eye" is not synonymous with *student*. Similarly, *he expired* means the same as *he died*, yet *my passport has expired* cannot be replaced by *my passport has died*.

The distinctions between words similar in meaning are often very fine, even for a native speaker. Sometimes to show the difference it is good to point out antonyms: *high* – low; *tall* – short.

English is quite rich in synonyms. Words of native origin are usually simple and less formal than their synonyms borrowed from other languages.

Other sources of synonymy are local dialects, regional varieties of English (American, Scottish, etc.), formation of new words, semantic change. Rich sources of synonymy are phrasal verbs.

c) Antonymy. Antonyms are words with opposite meanings. Classification of antonyms (by K.Vesela):

1. Root (absolute) antonyms.

a. Antonyms proper. Proper (absolute) antonyms may be characterised as contrary. They are polar members of a gradual opposition which may have intermediary elements. *E.g. beautiful – pretty – good-looking – plain – ugly.*

b. Complementary antonyms. Complementarity is a binary opposition; it may have only two members. The denial of one member means the assertion of the other. *E.g. not male means female, not true means false.*

c. Relational antonyms (converses). Converses denote one and the same subject as viewed from different points of view (e.g. subject and object, family and social relations, space and time relations, etc.). *E.g. borrow – lend, husband – wife, before – after.*

*2.*Derivational antonyms.

E.g. happy – unhappy, known – unknown.

The affixes in derivational antonyms deny the quality stated in the stem. There are typical affixes that form these derivational antonyms (see above Derivation). The regular type of derivational antonyms contains negative prefixes: *dis-, il- /im-/in-/ir and un. Derivational antonyms may be characterised as contradictory.* A pair of derivational antonyms forms a binary opposition (see above complementary root antonyms). *E.g. logical – illogical, appear – disappear.*

Contronyms (auto-antonyms) are the words which are their own antonyms. *E.g.: dust - to remove fine articles (dust the cabinets) or to add fine articles (dust the bread with flour); fast - rapid or unmoving (fast asleep, fast stuck); handicap - advantage (in golf) - disadvantage.*

d) **Polysemy**- A polyseme is a word or phrase with multiple, related meanings. A word is judged to be polysemous if it has two senses of the word whose meanings are related. Since the vague concept of relatedness is the test for polysemy, judgments of polysemy can be very difficult to make. Because applying pre-existing words to new situations is a natural process of language change, looking at words' etymology is helpful in determining polysemy but not the only solution; as words become lost in etymology, what once was a useful distinction of meaning may no longer be so. Some apparently unrelated words share a common historical origin, however, so etymology is not an infallible test for polysemy, and dictionary writers also often defer to speakers' intuitions to judge polysemy in cases where it contradicts etymology. English has many words which are polysemous. For example the verb *"to get"* can mean *"take" (I'll get the drinks), "become" (she got scared), "have" (I've got three dollars), "understand" (I get it)* etc.

A word that has more than one meaning is called polysemantic. The total number of meanings for the first thousand of the most frequent English words is almost 25,000; i.e. the average number of meanings for each of these words is 25.

> *E.g. to run = to go by moving the legs quickly (I began to run.).*
>
> Other meanings:
>
> *1)   The bus runs between A. and B.*
>
> *2)   This shop is run by the co-op.*
>
> *3)   The car runs on petrol.*
>
> *4)   The bank of the river runs up steeply.*

e) **Paronyms** – A paronym or paronyme in linguistics may refer to two different things:

1. A word that is related to another word and derives from the same root, e.g. a cognate word. Cognates in linguistics are words that have a common etymological origin. An example of cognates within the same language would be English *shirt* and *skirt*, the former from Old English *scyrte*, the latter loaned from Old Norse *skyrta*, both from the same Common Germanic **skurtjōn-*.

2. Words which are almost homonyms, but have slight differences in spelling or pronunciation and have different meanings.

Some paronyms are truly synonymous, but only under the rarest of conditions. They often lead to confusion. Examples of any type of paronym are:

- *alternately* and *alternatively (по черзі і альтернативно)*
- *collision* and *collusion (сутичка та змова)*
- *conjuncture* and *conjecture (збіг обставин, криза та гіпотеза)*
- *excise* and *exercise (виключати, видаляти та вправлятися)*
- *continuous* and *contiguous (постійний та суміжний)*
- *farther (*or *farthest)* and *further (*or *furthest)*
- *affect* and *effect (впливати та досягати)*
- *upmost* and *utmost (верхній та віддалений)*
- *deprecate* and *depreciate (протестувати та обезцінювати(ся), недооцінювати.*

f) **Hyponymy**. In linguistics, a hyponym is a word or phrase whose semantic range is included within that of another word, its hypernym (sometimes spelled hyperonym outside (of) the natural language processing community). In simpler terms, a hyponym shares a type-of relationship with its hypernym. For example,

scarlet, vermilion, carmine, and *crimson* are all hyponyms of *red* (their hypernym), which is, in turn, a hyponym of *colour.*

Computer science often terms this relationship an "is-a" relationship. For example, the phrase *Red is a colour* can be used to describe the hyponymic relationship between *red* and *colour.*

Hypernymy is the semantic relation in which one word is the hypernym of another. Hypernymy, the relation in which words stand when their extensions stand in the relation of class to subclass, should not be confused with holonymy, which is the relation in which words stand when the things that they denote stand in the relation of whole to part. A similar warning applies to hyponymy and meronymy.

g) Meronymy. A meronym denotes a constituent part of, or a member of something.

For example, *'finger'* is a meronym of *'hand'* because a finger is part of a hand. Similarly *'wheel'* is a meronym of *'automobile'.*

Meronymy is the opposite of holonymy.

A meronym means part of a whole. A word denoting a subset of what another word denotes is a hyponym.

In knowledge representation languages, meronymy is often expressed as "part-of".

Holonymy Holonymy defines the relationship between a term denoting the whole and a term denoting a part of, or a member of, the whole.

For example, *'tree'* is a holonym of *'bark',* of *'trunk'* and of *'limb.'*

Holonymy is the opposite of meronymy.

h) Exocentricity / endocentricity. Exocentric has a number of meanings.In linguistics, it refers to phrases and compound words which are not the same part of speech as their constituents.For example, the word *"shortcoming"* is exocentric, since it is a noun, but its two constituents are an adjective and a verb. In linguistics, an endocentric construction is a grammatical construction that fulfills the same linguistic function as one of its constituents. An endocentric construction consists of an obligatory head and one or more optional, dependent words, whose presence serves to narrow the meaning of the head. For example, the phrase *'lion house'* is an endocentric construction. In this case, *'house'* is the head, because it carries the bulk of the semantic content and determines the grammatical category to which the whole constituent will be assigned. Likewise, *'lion'* here is the dependent, specifying what sort of house is being referred to in the whole construction. In more formal terms, the distribution of an endocentric construction is functionally equivalent, or approaching equivalence, to one of its member constituents, which serves as the centre, or head, of the whole. An endocentric construction is also known as a headed construction, where the head is contained "inside" the construction;

i) Linguistic compounds. In linguistics, a compound is a lexeme (less precisely, a word) that consists of more than one stem. Compounding or composition is the word-formation that creates compound lexemes (the other word-formation process being derivation). Compounding or Word-compounding refers to the faculty and device of language to form new words by combining or putting together old words. In other words, compound, compounding or word-compounding occurs when a person attaches two or more words together to make them one word. The meanings of the words interrelate in such a way that a new meaning comes out which is very different from the meanings of the words in isolation.

Colloquial or everyday examples of compounds are *fireman* and *hardware*. Words are put together to form an adjectival compound. New word formations are continually being created.

Assignment 1.

word	antonym	synonym
buy, v.		
advantage, n.		
extend, v.		
approximately, adv.		
revenue, n.		

2. Semantics vs. Pragmatics.

In fact, even when we mean what we literally say, we often -- maybe always -- mean something more as well. The study of the meaning of language in its context of use is called pragmatics.

Pragmatics is a subfield of linguistics which studies the ways in which context contributes to meaning. Pragmatics encompasses speech act theory, conversational implicature, talk in interaction and other approaches to language behavior in philosophy, sociology, and linguistics. It studies how the transmission of meaning depends not only on the linguistic knowledge (e.g. grammar, lexicon etc.) of the speaker and listener, but also on the context of the utterance, knowledge about the status of those involved, the inferred intent of the speaker, and so on. In this respect, pragmatics explains how language users are able to overcome apparent ambiguity, since meaning relies on the manner, place, time etc. of an utterance. The ability to understand another speaker's intended meaning is called pragmatic competence. Pragmatic awareness is regarded as one of the most challenging aspects of language learning, and comes only through experience. Pragmatics is closely connected to the word meaning and processes for extending it.

You will sometimes see definitions for semantics like "the analysis of meaning," To see why this is too broad, consider the following. *Kim, returning home after a long day, discovers that the new puppy has crapped on the rug, and says "Oh, lovely."*

We don't normally take this to mean that Kim believes that dog faeces have pleasing or attractive qualities, or are delightful. Someone who doesn't know English will search the dictionary in vain for what Kim means by saying *"lovely"*:

(ADJECTIVE): [love-li-er, love-li-est].

    1. Full of love; loving.

    2. Inspiring love or affection.

    3. Having pleasing or attractive qualities.

    4. Enjoyable; delightful.

Obviously this is because Kim is being ironic, in the sense of "using words to convey the opposite of their literal meaning". Kim might have said "great," or "wonderful," or "beautiful", or "how exquisite", and none of the dictionary entries for these words will help us understand that Kim means to express disgust and annoyance. That's because a word's meaning is one thing, and Kim's meaning -- what Kim means by using the word -- is something else.

There are lots of other ways besides irony to use words to mean something different from what you get by putting their dictionary entries together.

3. Word meaning, generalization and specification of meaning.

Word meanings are somewhat like game trails. Some can easily be mapped because they are used enough that a clear path has been worn. Unused trails may become overgrown and disappear. And one is always free to strike out across virgin territory; if enough other animals follow, a new trail is gradually created.

Since word meanings are not useful unless they are shared, how does this creation of new meanings work? There are a variety of common processes by which existing conventional word meanings are creatively extended or modified. When one of processes is applied commonly enough in a particular case, a new convention is created; a new "path" is worn, like, for example, in metaphors.

Consider the difference in meaning between "He's a leech" and. "he's a louse." Both leech and louse are parasites that suck blood through the skin of their host, and we -- being among their hosts -- dislike them for it. Both words have developed extended meanings in application to humans who are portrayed as like a leech or like a louse -- but the extensions are quite different.

According to the American Heritage Dictionary, a leech is "one who preys on or clings to another", whereas a louse is "a mean or 'despicable person." These extended meanings have an element of arbitrariness. Most of us regard leeches as "despicable," and lice certainly "prey on" and "cling to" their hosts. Nevertheless, a human "leech" must be needy or exploitative, whereas a human "louse" is just an object of distaste.

Therefore it's appropriate for the dictionary to include these extended meanings as part of the meaning of the word. All the same, we can see that these words originally acquired their extended meanings by the completely general process of metaphor. A metaphor is "a figure of speech in which a term is transferred from the object it ordinarily designates to an object it may designate only by implicit comparison or analogy." For instance, if we speak of "the evening of her life", we're making an analogy between the time span of a day and the time span of a life, and naming part of life by reference to a part of the day.

In calling someone a leech, we're making an implicit analogy between interpersonal relationships and a particular kind of parasite/host relationship.

This kind of naming -- and thinking -- by analogy is ubiquitous. Sometimes the metaphoric relationship is a completely new one, and then the process is arguably part of pragmatics -- the way speakers use language to express themselves. However, these metaphors often become fossilized or frozen, and new word senses are created. Consider what it means to call someone a *chicken*, or a *goose*, or a *cow*, or a *dog*, or a *cat,* or a *crab*, or a *bitch*.

Specialisation of the meaning

case = circumstances in which a person or a thing is (general meaning)

Specialised   meanings:

case in law terminology = question decided in a court

case in medicine = a patient, an illness

case in grammar (There are seven cases in the Ukrainian language.)

Generalisation of the meaning

ready = prepared mentally or physically for some experience or action

(The original meaning was 'to be prepared for a ride'.)

fly = to move in or through the air or space; to move, pass or act swiftly

(The original meaning was just 'to move in or through the air by means of wings'.)

4.   Connotation/denotation

In semantics, connotation is a term which is often used in opposition to denotation, covering the more secondary and subjective aspects of meaning that people associate with expressions.

The term is also used more generally to cover everything that is part of the meaning of an expression except for its denotation.

The denotation of an expression (a word, phrase or sentence) is the thing to which that expression refers. The denotation of the proper name *Julius Caesar* is the person with that name; the denotation of the common noun *horse* is the set of horses, etc. The term *denotation* (or *denotatum*) is roughly synonymous with the terms extension and reference, although these terms have acquired more specific content in particular frameworks. The term denotation is sometimes used in opposition to the term connotation to indicate that we abstract away from emotional and sociocultural aspects of meaning, restricting ourselves to what an expression refers to.

The word "sea" denotes a large body of water, but its connotative meaning includes the sense of overwhelming space, danger, instability; whereas "earth" connotes safety, fertility and stability. Of many potential connotations, the particular ones evoked depend upon the context in which words are used. Specific kinds of language (such as archaisms) also have special connotations, carrying a sense of the context in which those words are usually found.

Over time, connotation can become denotation. Thus *trivial* subjects were originally the subjects in the *trivium*, consisting of grammar, rhetoric and logic. These were the first subjects taught to younger students; therefore the connotation arises that the trivium is relatively easy, since it is taught to mere kiddies; therefore something easy is *trivial*.

5.   Nomination.

"Nomination" can mean:

1) the process of denoting ('naming') things, the linguistic part of which consists in the act of connecting a certain denotatum/designatum with a sign/designator. In English they distinguish primary and secondary nomination.

2) a name; a linguistic unit denoting an extralinguistic entity.

Secondary nomination – the process and the result of derivational processes in the vocabulary, when an already existing name is used for the second time to denote another referent. However, the term is assumed to be incorrect because for each referent the process of nomination is always a primary and the only act of nomination.

Assignment 2. Provide e.g. of items of secondary nomination.

Assignment 3. Provide at least 2 holonyms and all their possible meronyms.

Assignment 4. Provide at least 2 hypernyms and all their possible hyponyms.

LECTURE 2. VARIETIES OF ENGLISH.

1. Stylistically marked and stylistically neutral vocabulary.

2. Regional varieties.

3. Language of Mass Media.

4. Politically correct English.

5. Neologisms.

1. Stylistically marked and stylistically neutral vocabulary.

Stylistically coloured words are suitable only on certain definite occasions. They are on the borders of the range:

formal vocabulary (technical, official and literary) – neutral vocabulary – informal vocabulary (colloquialisms, slang and words with local colouring).

Formal vocabulary is the part of English vocabulary used only in official situations, talks, documents, literary works, lectures, scientific works, etc. It is not socially or geographically limited. Formal words are mostly polysyllabic, a lot of them are of the Romance, Latin,or Greek origin. Formal vocabulary is rather conservative, it also uses words that do not belong to the present-day English vocabulary. It contains some archaic connectives and double conjunctions.

E.g. *efficacious* = effective; *donation* = gift; *summon* = send for; *whereby, furthermore.*

Colloquialisms are used in everyday speech and in correspondence to friends. They are emotional, a lot of them jocularly coloured, with figurative meaning. Though they are used mostly in informal conversation, there are sets of colloquialisms specific to particular field of human activity, e.g. in business oral communication. (On the contrary, official correspondence is characterised by highly formal vocabulary.)

E.g. *blind alley job* = job that has no future, *get cracking* = work fast, *long-winded* = using more words than necessary to say something.

To use colloquialisms one must have an adequate fluency in English and sufficient familiarity with the language, otherwise one may sound ridiculous, especially if one uses a mixture of British and American colloquialisms, pronounced with a foreign accent. (SICK, BAD)

Slang is a set of new, very informal words used in private conversation language. Slang is used by a specific social or age group, only later becoming more widely used. Slang words are expressive, witty, frequently ironical and often impolite. Slang helps to make speech vivid, colourful and interesting but it can easily be used inappropriately.

E.g. *yuppie* (Young Upwardly Mobile/ Young Urban Professional) = young successful man with a good job, *baby kissers* = politicians.

Slang may combine with local colouring. American slang is different form British slang.

E.g. *back hander (BE) – hushmoney (AE), to sack (BE) – to fire (AE), bevvy (BE) – booze (AE).*

American slang is very rich, because it reflects the contribution of many nations. It is nowadays very popular because of the expansiveness of American culture (film, music).

Across:
4. A formal word for 'help'.
5. A formal word for 'ask for'.
7. A formal word for 'question'.
8. An informal phrasal verb for 'ascertain'.
10. A formal word for 'sorry'.

Down:
1. An informal word for 'wish'.
2. An informal word for 'appreciate'.
3. A formal pronoun for 'I'.
6. A formal word for 'need'.
9. An informal word for 'inform'.

11. An informal word for "trust".

2. Regional varieties.

Standard English is the official language of Great Britain taught at schools, used by the media, and spoken by educated people. It is that form of English which is current and literary, recognised as acceptable wherever English is spoken.
Local dialects are varieties of the English language spoken in some districts and having no normalised literary form. Regional varieties possessing a literary form are called variants. In Great Britain there are two variants, Scottish English and Irish English, and five main groups of dialects: Northern, Midland, Eastern, Western, and Southern.
One of the best known Southern dialects is Cockney, the regional dialect of London.Cockney vocabulary is lively and witty, imaginative and colourful. Its specific feature is the so-called rhyming slang, in which some words are substituted by other words rhyming with them.

E.g. boots are called *daisyroots*, hat = tit *for tat*, head = loaf *of bread*, wife = *trouble and strife*.

Scottish English uses a number of special dialect words.

E.g. *aye* = yes, *dram* = drink (usually whisky), *loch* = lake, *lassie* = girl.

Black English is the term used to refer to the English which originated in the Caribbean islands and has now spread to many parts of the United Kingdom, Canada and the USA.Some words are also now used in other varieties of English. Many are associated with music.

E.g. *jam* = improvise, *rap* = street talk, *beat* = exhausted.

Indian English – Indglish. Well-educated, middle-aged Indian people speak English which is characterised by sounding more formal than British English. It has retained in everyday usage words that may be found in the classics of the 19th century. English used by Indian writers can be exquisite, because they add an extra dimension to the language. However, Indian English at street level can be almost incomprehensible to the foreigner. The vocabulary is lurid and the grammar has a riot of prepositions, participles and plurals. Verbs lurk at the end of sentences and one word is seldom used when two will do. Indian people have adapted English to suit the needs of a country with fifteen official dialects, in which Indglish is still the most common form of communication between people from different regions.

Australian English is interesting for its rich store of highly colloquial words and expressions. Australian colloquialisms often involve shortening a word. Because of Australian TV programmes and films some of these words are being used by British people, too.

E.g. *smoko* (from smoking) = tea or coffee break, *beaut* (from beautiful) = great.

Canadian English is influenced both by British and American but it also has some specific features. Canadianisms are not very frequent outside Canada.

E.g. *shack* = a hut, *to fathom out* = to explain.

The variety of English spoken in the USA cannot be a dialect although it is a regional variety, because it has a literary normalised form called Standard American. Neither it is a separate language (as some American authors claimed), because it does not possess phonetic system nor vocabulary of its own. Norms of American national standard are just modified norms of those accepted in Great Britain. American English slightly differs from British English in pronunciation, vocabulary, spelling and grammar. From the lexical point of view we may speak about the set of Americanisms.

The term Americanism is referred to a word or phrase peculiar to the English language as spoken in the USA.

Common American words with their British equivalents.

AE	BE	AE	BE
apartment	*flat*	faucet	*tap*
antenna	*aerial*	flashlight	*torch*
baggage	*luggage*	French fries	*chips*
baby carriage	*pram*	garbage	*rubbish*

blow-out	*puncture*	gas, gasoline	*petrol*
can	*tin*	line	*queue*
cab	*taxi*	mad	*angry*
closet	*wardrobe*	mail	*post*
cookie	*biscuit*	movies	*picture*
diaper	*nappy*	one-way ticket	*single ticket*
drugstore	*chemist's*	panties	*knickers*
drapes	*curtains*	round-trip ticket	*return ticket*
elevator	*lift*	sidewalk	*pavement*
eraser	*rubber*	store	*shop*
fall	*autumn*	vacation	*holidays*

University degrees:

AE vs. BE

instructor	= assistant lecturer
assistant	= lecturer
associate professor	= senior lecturer, reader
professor	= professor

3. Language of Mass Media. The vocabulary of newspapers is very special and requires a high level of language command. The main idea followed by mass media is economical, condensed and attractive language. Headline writers try to catch the reader's eye by using as few words as possible:

- Grammar words like articles or auxiliary verbs are often left out.

E.g. *Turkish Minister Quits in Car Crash Scandal*

- A simple form of the verb is used.

E.g. *Pepsi To Test New Colours, Cities Seek Restitution*

- The infinitive is used to express the fact that something is going to happen.

E.g. *USD 20 Million to Be Invested in Office Centre.*

Newspaper headlines prefer words that are usually shorter and generally sound more dramatic than ordinary English words. That is why newspaper headlines often use abbreviations. The nouns are often converted verbs and *vice versa*.

newspaper word	meaning	newspaper word	meaning
aid ~	*help*	*hit*	*affect badly*
bar ~	*exclude, forbid*	*key*	*essential, vital*
bid ~	*attempt*	*oust*	*push out*
boost ~	*encourage*	*pledge ~*	*promise*
drive ~	*campaign, effort*	*ploy*	*clever activity*

The marked words (~) in this table can be used either as nouns or verbs.

 Some journalists enjoy making jokes to attract reader's attention. They do this by playing with words, punning (humorous use of words with nearly the same sound but different meanings) or making anagrams from the names of famous people (rearranging the letters to spell something else).

E.g. Wild *Ant, Yes?* = Walt Disney (Disney's new animal theme park opens.)

James' Romance = James Cameron (Director of "Titanic" romantic story.)

4. Political correctness

Though it may be asserted that the speakers of English have become more open while communicating on certain subjects, in modern English-speaking society there are still thriving the verbal and social taboos on using direct nominations concerning class, ethnicity, race, intellectual abilities, property status etc. That confirms the viewpoint of many linguists that social norms play an important role in personal communication.

In the English language, particularly in its American, Canadian and Australian variants, in recent years has become increasingly popular the so called "political correctness", that concerns not only political, but also other types of discourse. **Political correctness** (adjectivally, **politically correct**; both forms commonly abbreviated to **PC**) is a term used to describe language, ideas, policies, or behavior seen as seeking to minimize offense to gender, racial, cultural, disabled, aged or other identity groups. The very desire to be politically correct induces the speaker to coin new language devices instead of those that insult a person or violate his/her rights. So, political correctness is aimed at language loyalty, 'com'bating verbal humiliation. The history of the term "political correctness" is difficult to trace, but the Oxford English Dictionary provides the earliest example of its usage:

"No matter what criticisms are hurled at this feminist fiction, no doubt the author will be cushioned by her political correctness".

(Washington Post, 09/16/1979).

In its narrow sense political correctness is associated with men's superiority over women, and in its broader understanding it covers the delicate subjects of age, racial, national and sex discrimination, social and property status, health and appearance, physical development, unemployment, sexual orientation etc, which require the use of secondary nomination units for avoiding offence, discrimination or incorrect attitude to a person.

The study of political correctness as a peculiar expression of the English communication etiquette causes substantial difficulties. The classification of the words into politically correct and politically incorrect ones is sometimes rather subjective and is caused by the individual world view of the participants of the communicative act and their perception of the communicational situation. However, in most cases the speakers motivate the use of politically correct vocabulary by the desire to avoid any kind of discrimination (sex, gender, racial, age, class, intellectual etc.). For example, in the USA any representative of white people is nominated by the terms *non African American, non African-Indian, European American* or *Caucasian*, and not by the word *white*, the use of which, as the supporters of political correctness think, discriminates blacks.

The pragmatic intention of avoiding various kinds of discrimination is expressed in the use of politically correct units that refer to the following characteristics of personality or society:

1) physical disabilities: *optically darker, photonically non-receptive* (*blind*); *visually oriented, hearing impaired* (*deaf*); *comb-free* (*bald*); *differently abled, handicapped, physically challenged, mobility impaired, inconvenienced, otherly abled* (*crippled*);

2) race: *African American, person of colour* (*black*);

3) socio-economic status: *economically unprepared, lower income brackets* (*poor*); *displaced homeowner* (*bum*); *developing countries* (*poor countries*);

4) mental abnormality and deficiency: *selectively perceptive, developmentally disabled* (*retarded*);

5) marital status: *dysfunctional family* (*broken home*); *bachelor girl* or *swinging single* (*spinster*); *newly single* (*divorced*);

6) education: *special* or *approved schools* (*schools for the backward or troublesome*); *self-paced cognitive ability* (*learning disability*).

Education has become a source of attraction of the politically correct vocabulary for denoting problematic processes that are taking place in this sphere in English-speaking countries. Education does not only deal with teaching students, it has also become business and commerce, especially in universities. Therefore, in this sphere there appear new nominations with predominating elevational function. But the main reason for the use of PCV in the sphere of education is the desire to avoid any discrimination of students because of their ability or inability to study. In the sphere of American education speakers avoid such terms as *lazy, idle, stupid,* therefore, very popular have become the word combinations *educationally disadvantaged, on the lower end of the ability scale* etc. Both a capable child, and a child with lower educational abilities, are called *the exceptional child* (and not *abnormal child*). Such phrases are aimed at destroying the differences between academically capable and incapable children;

7) gender or sex: *council person, council member* (*alderman, alderwoman*), *bat attendant* (*bat boy*), *cowhand* (*cowboy*), *they* (*he, she*);

9) occupation: *tonsorialist* (*barber*), *chiropodist, podiatrist* (*corn-cutter*), *fineologist, scandicopist* (*chimney sweep*); *to dehire, to excess, to put into the mobility pool* (*to fire*);

10) age: *advanced in years, senior citizens, chronologically gifted, golden agers, gerontologically advanced (old).*

Usually politically correct terms are used to substitute for terms without any negative connotation: *mailman – mail person, seamstress – sewer.* The denotatum of the direct nomination is not negative, the substitution occurs

only because of the negative "sounding" of the word, which causes the negative associations in the speakers' mind: *drugstore* is changed into *pharmacy, foreign* (*student, scholar* or *visitor*) – into *international* (*student, scholar* or *visitor*) because of the possible negative associations of the speakers with the words "foreign" and "drugs"; sometimes the newly-coined PCV becomes the object of mocking, as in the example of herstory (history) – the identical pronunciation of "he" and "hi".

There are a great number of Mc Jobs that require elevational substitution: *rubbish-collector* becomes *garbologist* (*sanitation man, sanitation engineer*), *teacher – educator, window-cleaner – glass maintenance engineer, hairdresser – hairologist* (*hair stylist, hair artist, coiffeur [kwo'fe:], tonsorial artist*), *bedding manufacturer – mattress engineer, encyclopedia salesman – educational adviser, dentist – dental surgeon* or *odontologist, real estate agent – realtor, press-agent – publicist, floor worker – aisle manager, second-hand car salesman – used vehicle merchandising coordinator, filing clerk – information retrieval administrator, female beautician – aestheticienne (visagiste), launderer – clothes doctor.*

The analysis of the PCV in mass media allows to define its following characteristic features in comparison with the direct nomination.

1. The use of gender-neutral terms instead of words with the components *man* or *woman* or other gender-transparent morphemes: *mixologist* instead of *barman* or *barmaid, waitron* instead of *waiter* or *waitress*. Most frequently the following components are substituted for:

а) the indicators of the masculine gender:

-man: fireman – firefighter, deliveryman – delivery person, foreman – foreperson, lineman – lineworker;

-boy: cowboy – cowhand, busboy – busperson, ball boy – court attendant, bat boy – bat attendant;

-master: harbour master – superintendant, brewmaster – head brewer, choirmaster – choir director, concertmaster – concert leader;

б) the indicators of the feminine gender:

-woman: cleaning woman – domestic, charwoman – charworker;

-wife: housewife – domestic engineer;

-lady: office charlady – sanitor;

-mother: housemother – residential adviser;

-maid: bridesmaid – attendant, barmaid – mixologist;

-mistress: headmistress – headteacher, wardrobe mistress – wardrobe supervisor;

-girl: shoeshine girl – shoeshiner, flower girl – flower carrier;

-nurse: district nurse – community nursing officer;

-ess: stewardess – flight attendant, seamstress – sewer:

Most examples of such kind are characterized by the substitution of the component "person" for "man". The use of words with the morpheme "man" discriminates women, thus, using gender-neutral terms, the speakers nominate the profession or occupation, recognizing, that women can also represent them. It might be assumed that such lexemes as *lady/woman doctor* can be used to denote the "female" denotatum", but increasingly spread is the opinion that women, as to whom such terms are used, are valued much less than their male colleagues. Therefore, such word combinations are dysphemistic ones, and the speakers prefer to use their neutral correspondents. In this case we see the manipulation by the gender category – the use of gender-neutral units instead of their gender-transparent synonyms – which is sometimes traced even in the names of inanimate objects (*manhole – personhole, chessman – chess piece*).

2. The initial use of the word *person* in substantive word-combinations*: person with diabetes* (direct nomination *diabetic); person with paraplegia (paraplegic); person with a disability (disabled person); person with a visual impairment* (*blind person*); *person with a hearing impairment* (*deaf person*). The motivation for such a substitution is to place in perception first a person, and then his/her disability.

3. Post-adverbial use in adjectival word-combinations of the following lexemes for denoting some difference, surplus or lack of some quality:

– *advantaged: chronologically advantaged* (*old*); *culturally advantaged* (*rich*);

– *disadvantaged: culturally disadvantaged, economically disadvantaged, socially disadvantaged* (*poor*);

– *enhanced: experientially enhanced* (*old*);
– *gifted: chronologically gifted* (*old*);
– *deprived: culturally deprived* (*poor*);
– *affected: chemically affected* (*drunk*);
– *impaired: visually impaired* (*blind*);
– *inconvenienced: visually inconvenienced* (*blind*); *aurally inconvenienced* (*deaf*); *chemically inconvenienced* (*drunk*);
– *challenged: horizontally challenged, quantitatively challenged* (*fat*); *odorously challenged* (*smelly*); *physically challenged* (*crippled*); *chemically challenged* (*drug addicts*); *biologically* or *metaphysically challenged* (*dead*); *educationally challenged* (*stupid*); *vertically challenged* (*short*):

4. The avoidance of the component *black* in any context: *blacklist* becomes *denounce, blacksmith – farrier, black sheep – outcast, urban black workers – temporary sojourners, bootblack – footwear maintenance engineer*.

PC chains. What is a PC chain?

1) *old – elderly – golden agers – senior citizens – gerontologically advanced, advanced in years, chronologically advantaged, chronologically gifted, distinguished, experientially enhanced* (*old*);

2) *crippled – handicapped – disabled, handi-capable – differently abled – challenged – special, otherly abled, afflicted* (physically disabled):

3) *retarded – special – exceptional* (retarded);

4) *black – darky – colored – African American – non-white* (black):

5) *poor – deprived – underprivileged – disadvantaged – culturally disadvantaged* (poor);

6) *to fire – to select out, to deselect, to dismiss, to lay off, to release, to non-renew – to de-layer, to re-engineer, to downsize, to restructure, to dehire – to excess, to dislocate, to displace, to rightsize, to put into the mobility pool* (to fire):

The analysis and use of PCV allows to discover new reasons and motives for indirect nomination in the English language.

ASSIGNMENT. Provide "politically incorrect" items for the given politically correct substitutes.

Dermatologically challenged
Follicularly challenged
Chalkboard
Dysfunctional family
Camera operator

Artisan

Biologically challenged (metaphysically challenged)
Aurally inconvenienced
Hygienically challenged
Access controller

Refuse disposal operative

Hollander

Inuit
Differently sized (differently-weighted)
Founders

Non-identical twins

Greek society

First-year student

Informal agreement

Gingerbread cookie

Romani (travelling people)
Generalist

Self-paced cognitive ability
Birth name

Employee hour

Earth children

Artificial

Display figure

Parental leave

Community
Gender
Single parent

Snow figure

To rest
To sit pretzel-style
Social lie
Surviving spouse

5. Neologisms

A **neologism** from Greek *νέο- (néo-)*, meaning "new", and *λόγος (lógos)*, meaning "speech, utterance") is a newly coined term, word, or phrase, that may be in the process of entering common use, but has not yet been accepted into mainstream language. Neologisms are often directly attributable to a specific person, publication, period, or event. According to Oxford English Dictionary "neologism" was first used in print in AD 1483.

Neologisms are often created by combining existing words or by giving words new and unique suffixes or prefixes. Portmanteaux are combined words that are sometimes used commonly. "Brunch" is an example of a portmanteau word (breakfast + lunch). Lewis Carroll's "snark" (snake + shark) is also a portmanteau. Neologisms also can be created through abbreviation (acronym), by intentionally rhyming with existing words or simply through playing with sounds.

Newly-created words entering a language tend to pass through the following stages:

☐ Unstable - extremely new, being proposed, or being used only by a small subculture (also known as *protologisms*)

☐ Diffused - having reached a significant frequency of use, but not yet having gained widespread acceptance

☐ Stable - having gained recognizable, being *en vogue* , and perhaps, gaining lasting acceptance

☐ Dated - the point where the word has ceased being novel, entered formal linguistic acceptance and, even may have passed into becoming a cliché

☐ Passé - when a neologism becomes so culturally dated that the use of it is avoided because its use is seen as a stigma, a sign of being out of step with the norms of a changed cultural tradition, perhaps, with the neologism dropping from the lexicon altogether

Neologisms can become popular by way of mass media, the Internet, and word of mouth, including academic discourse in many fields renowned for their use of distinctive jargon, and often become accepted parts of the language. Other times, however, they disappear from common use just as readily as they appeared. Whether a neologism continues as part of the language depends on many factors, probably the most important of which is acceptance by the public. It is unusual, however, for a word to enter common use if it does not resemble another word or words in an identifiable way.

When a word or phrase is no longer "new", it is no longer a neologism. Neologisms may take decades to become "old", however. Opinions differ on exactly how old a word must be to cease being considered a neologism.

Popular examples of neologism can be found in science, fiction, branding, literature, linguistic and popular culture. Examples include *laser* (1960) from **L**ight **A**mplification by **S**timulated **E**mission of **R**adiation, *robotics* (1941), and *agitprop* (1930).

Many neologisms have come from popular literature and tend to appear in different forms. Most commonly, they are simply taken from a word used in the narrative of a book; a few representative examples are: "grok" (to achieve complete intuitive understanding), from *Stranger in a Strange Land* by Robert A. Heinlein; "McJob", from *Generation X: Tales for an Accelerated Culture* by Douglas Coupland; "cyberspace", from *Neuromancer* by William Gibson; "nymphet" from *Lolita* by Vladimir Nabokov.

Sometimes the title of a book becomes the neologism, for instance, *Catch-22* (from the title of Joseph Heller's novel). Alternatively, the author's name may become the neologism, although the term is sometimes based on only one work of that author. This includes such words as "Orwellian" (from George Orwell, referring to his novel *Nineteen Eighty-Four*) and "Ballardesque" or "Ballardian" (from J.G. Ballard, author of *Crash*). The word "sadistic" is derived from the cruel sexual practices Marquis de Sade described in his novels. Kurt Vonnegut's *Cat's Cradle* was the container of the Bokononism family of nonce words.

Another category is words derived from famous characters in literature, such as *quixotic* (referring to the titular character in *Don Quixote de la Mancha* by Cervantes), a *scrooge* (from the main character in Dickens's *A Christmas Carol*), or a *pollyanna* (from Eleanor H. Porter's book of the same name). James Joyce's *Finnegans Wake*, composed in a uniquely complex linguistic style, coined the words *monomyth* and *quark*.

Lewis Carroll has been called "the king of neologistic poems" because of his poem, "Jabberwocky", which incorporated dozens of invented words. The early modern English prose writings of Sir Thomas Browne are the source of many neologisms as recorded by the Oxford English Dictionary.

The children's book *Frindle* by Andrew Clements is a story about a neologism.

List of Neologisms

Science

Words or phrases created to describe new scientific hypotheses, discoveries, or inventions include:

- x-ray, or röntgenograph(November 8, 1895, by Röntgen)
- radar (1941) from **Ra**dio **D**etection **A**nd **R**anging
- laser (1960) from **L**ight **A**mplification by **S**timulated **E**mission of **R**adiation
- blackhole (1968)
- meme (1976)
- prion (1982)
- beetle bank (early 1990s)
- lidar (late 90s) from **Li**ght **D**etection **A**nd **R**anging

Science fiction

Concepts created to describe new, futuristic ideas include:

- beaming (1931)
- hyperspace (1934)
- robotics (1941)
- waldo (1942)
- Dyson sphere (circa 1960)
- ansible (1966)
- phaser (1966)
- warp speed (1966)
- ringworld (1971)
- replicant (1982)
- cyberspace (1984)
- xenocide (1991)
- metaverse (1992)
- alien space bats (1998)
- teleojuxtaposition (2003)

Politics

- genocide (1943)
- Dixiecrat (1948)
- meritocracy (1958)
- pro-life (1961)
- homophobia (1969)
- political correctness (1970-s)
- Californication (1970s)
- pro-choice (1975)
- heterosexism (1979)
- glocalisation (1980s)
- sie and hir (pronouns) (1981)
- Republicrat (1985)

- astroturfing (1986)
- dog-whistle politics (1990)
- Islamophobia (1991)
- soccer mom (1992)
- fauxtography (1996)[7]
- red state/blue state/swing state (c. 2000)
- corporatocracy (2000s)
- Islamofascism (2001)
- santorum (2003)
- Chindia (2004)
- NASCAR dad (2004)
- datagogy
- Saddlebacking (2009)

Popular culture

Words or phrases evolved from mass media content or used to describe popular cultural phenomena (these may be considered a variety of slang as well as neologisms) include:

- *moin* (early 20th century)
- prequel (1958)
- Internet (1974)
- jumping the shark (late 1970s)
- queercore (mid 1980s)
- plus-size (1990s)
- blog (late 1990s)
- chav (early 2000s)

Commerce and advertising

Genericised trademarks include:

- aspirin
- hoover
- laundromat
- band-aid
- kleenex

Linguistics

Words or phrases created to describe new language constructs include:

- retronym (popularized in 1980)
- backronym (1983)
- aptronym (2003; popularized by Franklin Pierce Adams)
- snowclone (2004)
- xerox
- googling
- photoshopping
- protologism (2005)

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