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Электронный учебно-методический комплекс (ЭУМК) предназначен для студентов специальности 1-21 05 06 «Романо-германская (английская) филология», а также для всех желающих углубить свои знания, совершенствовать навыки и умения по лексикологии английского языка. ЭУМК содержит теоретический материал, практические задания, в том числе с эвристическим компонентом, тестовые задания, направленные на проверку усвоения предлагаемого теоретического материала, основных терминов и понятий дисциплины «Лексикология». ЭУМК рассматривает такие актуальные лексикологические проблемы, как определение и значения слова, этимология, стилистическая стратификация словарного состава, синонимия, антонимия, неологизмы, словообразование, фразеология, региональные варианты английского языка и многое другое. Четкая организация, интересные задания, целенаправленный контроль позволит обучающимся самостоятельно успешно построить траекторию освоения данной дисциплины, повысить мотивацию.

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## ПОЯСНИТЕЛЬНАЯ ЗАПИСКА

Представленный электронный учебно-методический комплекс по учебной дисциплине «Лексикология» отражает особенности реформирования содержания языкового образования в вузах Республики Беларусь, в частности, расширение сферы применения информационных и коммуникационных технологий на всех его уровнях. В современных образовательных системах внедрение электронных учебно-методических комплексов создает принципиально новые педагогические инструменты, повышает качество учебного процесса, расширяет сектор самостоятельной учебной работы студентов, способствует ее эффективной организации, усиливает мотивацию учащихся. Данный электронный учебно-методический комплекс по дисциплине «Лексикология» входит в модуль «Теоретические основы первого иностранного языка – 2» и является дисциплиной компонента учреждения высшего образования.

ЭУМК позволит студентам рационально распределять учебную нагрузку, организовывать самостоятельную работу по освоению содержания дисциплины «Лексикология», тщательно прорабатывать материал в рамках изучаемых тем с последующим их представлением и обсуждением на семинарских занятиях.

Структура ЭУМК включает четыре раздела: теоретический, практический, контроля знаний, вспомогательный.

В первом разделе содержится теоретический материал по темам:

лексикология как раздел лингвистики; слово как основная структурная и номинативная единица языка; семантическая эволюция слова; этимология, заимствованные слова; способы словообразования; системные отношения в словарном составе языка; дифференциация словарного состава; фразеология; лингвистические основы лексикографии; региональные варианты английского.

Теоретический материал представлен в виде лекций и презентации powerpoint к ним, что позволяет студентам ознакомиться с содержанием предстоящих лекционных занятий, самостоятельно изучить основной теоретический материал, необходимый для дальнейшего выполнения практических заданий.

Во втором разделе содержатся практические задания для семинарских занятий как тренировочного, так и эвристического характера, материал для лексикологического анализа.

Для обеспечения текущего контроля в третьем разделе содержатся тесты по каждому теоретическому модулю, включающие вопросы и задания, помогающие усвоить основное содержание лекций, итоговый тест по всему курсу, тест, контролирующий освоение основных понятий и терминов дисциплины, размещенный в moodle и который можно выполнить в онлайн режиме. Раздел итогового контроля включает критерии оценки результатов учебной деятельности, список вопросов для подготовки к зачету.

В четвертом разделе описывается структура учебной дисциплины, приводится содержание учебного материала, предлагается учебно-методическая карта дисциплины, методические рекомендации по организации самостоятельной работы студентов, список рекомендуемой литературы и дополнительные источники материала для ознакомления.

ЭУМК может использоваться преподавателями и студентами для организации аудиторной и внеаудиторной работы. С этой целью ЭУМК можно разместить в учебной аудитории, оборудованной компьютером, в компьютерном классе, в электронной библиотеке, откуда читатель может получить материал через Интернет, а также на домашнем компьютере. Преподаватель может использовать ЭУМК для подготовки к занятиям, во время учебного процесса при проведении семинарских занятий по дисциплине «Лексикология», для более качественной организации контролируемой самостоятельной работы студентов. Предложенный комплекс способствует формированию самостоятельной познавательной деятельности обучающихся по освоению содержания дисциплины «Лексикология».

# 1. ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКИЙ РАЗДЕЛ

## LECTURE 1. LANGUAGE AND LEXICOLOGY

### The questions under consideration

1. What is lexicology? The definition of lexicology
2. The object of lexicology
3. The importance of studying words
4. The theoretical and practical value of English lexicology
5. The connection of lexicology with other branches of linguistics

### KEY TERMS

lexicology лексикология	It is a branch of linguistics, the study of words. The basic task of it is a study and systematic description of vocabulary in respect to its origin, development and current use.
general lexicology общая лексикология	It is a part of general linguistics. It is concerned with the general study of vocabulary, irrespective of the specific features of any particular language.
special lexicology специальная лексикология	It is the lexicology of a particular language.
etymology этимология	It is the branch of linguistics which studies the origin or derivation of words.
semasiology семасиология	It is the branch of linguistics whose subject-matter is the study of word meaning. The term “semantics” is used to denote the lexical meaning of words or phrases.
onomasiology ономасиология	It is the study of the principles of the signification of things and notions by lexical and lexico-phraseological means of a given language.
descriptive lexicology (описательная лексикология)	It deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development. It studies the functions of words and their specific structure.
historical lexicology историческая лексикология	It is the branch of linguistics. It discusses the origin of various words, their change and development, the linguistic and extra linguistic forces modifying their structure, meaning and usage.
historical phonology historical phonetics	It can be of great use in the diachronic study of synonyms, homonyms and polysemy
sociolinguistics социолингвистика	It is the branch of linguistics, dealing with relations between the way the language works and develops, on the one hand, and the facts of social life, on the other hand.

discourse дискурс		It is a verbal interchange of ideas; connected speech or writing. It is a set of utterances that constitute a speech event, piece of writing or conversation.
contrastive comparative lexicology контрастно- сопоставительная лексикология	and	This relatively new branch of study provides a theoretical basis on which the vocabularies of different languages can be compared and described.
applied прикладная лингвистика	linguistics	It is an interdisciplinary field which identifies, investigates, and offers solutions to language-related real-life problems. Some of the academic fields related to it are education, psychology, communication research, information science, natural language processing, anthropology, and sociology.
lexicography лексикография		It is the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries.

### 1.1. The definition of lexicology

*What is it - Modern English Lexicology?*

*It is the science of the English word;*

*It's an important branch of general philology,*

*And it's OK to give it a good thought.*

*It makes you a good expert in morphology*

*Because it treats the structure of the word.*

*In speech, it opens for you the words' "psychology"*

*And shows that they are in full concord.*

*In short, it turns you into a linguistic prodigy*

*For you just grasp the nature of the WORD!*

Lexicology is a branch of linguistics, the science of language. The term lexicology is composed of two Greek morphemes: *lexis* 'word' and *logos* 'learning'. Lexicology is the part of linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of the language and the properties of words as the main units of language. (Arnold I.V.)

### 1.2. The object of lexicology

Lexicology, a branch of linguistics, is the study of words. (Г.Б. Антрушина)

The basic task of lexicology is a study and systematic description of vocabulary in respect to its origin, development and current use.

### 1.3. The importance of studying words

For some people studying words may seem uninteresting. But if studied properly, it may well prove just as exciting and novel as unearthing the mysteries of Outer Space. To study words is very important. Here's the proof.

"Your boss has a bigger vocabulary than you have.

That's one good reason why he's your boss.



This discovery has been made in the word laboratories of the world. Not by theoretical English professors, but by practical, hard-headed scientists who have been searching for the secrets of success.

After a host of experiments and years of testing they have found out:

1. That if your vocabulary is limited your chances of success are limited.
2. That one of the easiest and quickest ways to get ahead is by consciously building up your knowledge of words.

3. That the vocabulary of the average person almost stops growing by the middle twenties.

4. And that from then on it is necessary to have an intelligent plan if progress is to be made. No hit-or-miss methods will do

5. It has long since been satisfactorily established that a high executive does not have a large vocabulary merely because of the opportunities of his position. That would be putting the cart before the horse. Quite the reverse is true. His skill in words was a tremendous help in getting him his job.

Dr. Johnson O'Connor of the Human Engineering Laboratory of Boston and of the Stevens Institute of Technology in Hoboken, New Jersey, gave a vocabulary test to one hundred young men who were studying to be industrial executives.

Five years later, *all*, without exception, of those who had passed in the upper 10 per cent had executive positions, *while not a single young man of the lower 25 per cent had become an executive.*

Some of the factors that lead to *had become an executive* success can be measured as scientifically as the contents of a test tube, and it has been discovered that the one and only common characteristic of outstandingly successful people is "an extensive knowledge of the exact meaning of English words."

*Vocabulary is one indication of intelligence.* Learning power measurably sharpens when vocabulary increases.

*Words are the tools of thinking.* It naturally follows, then, that the more words you have at your command, the clearer and more accurate your thinking will be.

*Words are your medium of exchange,* the coin with which you do business with all those around you. With words you relate to people, communicate your feelings and thoughts to them, influence them, persuade them, control them. In short, through words you shape your own destiny. For your words are your personality; your vocabulary is you.

*Words are explosive.* A single word can destroy a friendship, can start or end a marital battle, can land a large order.

*Words have changed the direction of history.* Words can also change the direction of your life. They can raise a man from mediocrity to success.

*Words can make you great!* “

*(from Dr. Wilfred Funk & Norman Lewis 30 days to a more powerful vocabulary Give us fifteen minutes a day p.p. 3-5)*

#### **1.4 The theoretical and practical value of English lexicology.**

The theoretical value of lexicology becomes obvious if we realize that it forms the study of one of the three main aspects of language, i.e. its vocabulary, the other two being its grammar and sound system. Lexicology came into being to meet the demands of many different branches of applied linguistics, namely of lexicography, standardization of terminology, information retrieval, literary criticism and especially of foreign language teaching.

Its importance in training a would-be teacher of languages is of a quite special character and cannot be overestimated as it helps to stimulate a systematic approach to the facts of vocabulary and an organised comparison of the foreign and native language. It is particularly useful in building up the learner's vocabulary by an effective selection, grouping and analysis of new words. New words are better remembered if they are given not at random but organised in thematic groups, word-families, synonymic series, etc.

A good knowledge of the system of word-formation helps the student to guess and retain in his memory the meaning of new words on the basis of their motivation and by comparing and contrasting them with the previously learned elements.

Lexicology plays a prominent part in the general linguistic training of every philologist by summing up the knowledge acquired during all his years at the foreign language faculty. It also imparts the necessary skills of using different kinds of dictionaries and reference books, and prepares for future independent work on increasing and improving one's vocabulary.

The course of lexicology helps to stimulate a systematic approach to the facts of vocabulary and an organized comparison of the foreign and native language. It is particularly useful in building up the student's vocabulary by an effective selection, grouping and analysis of new words.

The basic task of lexicology is a study and systematic description of vocabulary in respect to its origin, development and current use. The term "vocabulary" is used to denote the system formed by the sum total of all the words and word equivalents that the language possesses. Lexicology is concerned with words, word-groups, phraseological units, and with morphemes that make up words.

Distinction is made between **general lexicology** and **special lexicology**. **General lexicology** is a part of general linguistics. It is concerned with the general study of vocabulary, irrespective of the specific features of any particular language. **Special lexicology** devotes its attention to the description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language. Thus, **special lexicology** is the lexicology of a particular language (e.g., English, Russian, French, etc.).

Vocabulary studies include such aspects of research as **etymology**, **semasiology** and **onomasiology**.

**Etymology** is the branch of linguistics which studies the origin or derivation of words. In many cases the etymology of a word reveals itself in comparative historical studies.

**Semasiology** is the branch of linguistics whose subject-matter is the study of word meaning. The term "semantics" is used to denote the lexical meaning of words or phrases.

**Onomasiology** is the study of the principles of the signification of things and notions by lexical and lexico-phraseological means of a given language. It is especially important in studying dialects where one and the same object finds its different signification in different regions of the country.

There are two different approaches in linguistic science to the study of language material, namely, the **synchronic** or **descriptive** and **diachronic** or **historical**. Consequently, there are two types of lexicology: **historical lexicology** and **descriptive lexicology**.

**Historical lexicology** discusses the origin of various words, their change and development, the linguistic and extra linguistic forces modifying their structure, meaning and usage.

**Descriptive lexicology** deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development. It studies the functions of words and their specific structure.

Closely connected with historical lexicology is **contrastive** and **comparative lexicology**. This relatively new branch of study provides a theoretical basis on which the vocabularies of different languages can be compared and described. Of primary importance in this respect is the comparison of the foreign language with the mother tongue.

Problems of vocabulary have enjoyed a great importance. Most useful treatments of theory and method in lexicology will be found in linguistic research made by A.A. Ufimtseva, I.V. Arnold, U.K. Amosova, U.S. Ginzburg, and other scholars.

### **1.5. The connection of lexicology with other branches of linguistics**

The word is studied in several branches of linguistics and not in Lexicology only, and the latter, in its turn, is closely connected with general linguistics, the history of the language, phonetics, stylistics, grammar and such new branches of our science as sociolinguistics, paralinguistics, pragmalinguistics.

The importance of the connection between **lexicology** and **phonetics** can be explained if we remember that a word is an association of a given group of sounds with a given meaning. Numerous examples show that in actual speech certain words acquire a different meaning because they are pronounced differently. Thus, discrimination between words may be based upon stress. E.g., *'import, n, im'port, v*. Stress also distinguishes compounds from homonymous word-groups: *blackbird: 'black 'bird*.

**Historical phonetics** and **historical phonology** can be of great use in the diachronic study of synonyms, homonyms and polysemy. When sound changes loosen the ties between members of the same word-family, this is an important factor of semantic changes.

Meaning in its turn is indispensable to phonemic analysis because to establish the phonemic difference between /ou / and /o/ it is sufficient to know that /houp/ means something different from /hop/.

The points of contact between **lexicology** and **grammar** are numerous and varied. Interactions between them are evident both in the sphere of **morphology** and in **syntax**.

Morphological indicators often help to differentiate the meanings of the words. E.g., *plural forms* can serve to form special lexical meanings: *advice (counsel), advices (information), damage (injury), damages (compensation)*. The prefix "re" - can make verbs with the aspective sense of repetition: *remake, reorganize*. Causative meaning can find expression in derivatives with ' the prefix "en": *endear= to cause to be beloved or esteemed= заставить полюбить; внушить любовь*

Syntactic position of a word does not only change its function but its lexical meaning as well. An adjective and a noun of the same group can more or less naturally exchange places, e.g., *library school* (A library school is an institution of higher learning specializing in the professional training of librarians)- *school library*.

The grammatical form and function of the word affect its lexical meaning. E.g. *He is going to write a new book* - the verb expresses an action in the nearest future; *The house is gone* -the verb denotes absence.

**Stylistics**, although from a different angle, studies many problems treated in lexicology. These are the problems of meaning, connotations, synonymy, functional differentiation of vocabulary according to the sphere of communication and others. The expressive elements of a language cannot be studied outside of their relations to other styles, which are emotionally neutral.

The component parts of the theory of any language are: theoretical grammar, theoretical phonetics, and lexicology.

There is a tremendous difference between lexicology, on the one hand, and phonology, morphology and syntax, on the other. And the difference lies in the fact that the word-stock (the vocabulary) of a language directly and immediately reacts to whatever happens in the social life of the speech community in question.

That's why lexicology is closely connected with **sociolinguistics**. It is the branch of linguistics, dealing with relations between the way the language works and develops, on the one hand, and the facts of social life, on the other hand. Language is the reality of thought, and thought develops with the development of society. Every new phenomenon in human society finds a reflection in vocabulary, e.g., *computer, cyclotron, psycholinguistics*. In contrast with Phonology, Morphology and Syntax, Lexicology is essentially a sociolinguistic science. The lexicologist should always take into account correlations between purely linguistic facts and the underlying social, facts which brought into life.

The extra-linguistic factors influence usage and development of language. They are dealt with in sociolinguistics which may be defined as the study of the influence produced upon language by various social factors. This influence is particularly strong in lexis. Let's consider the following examples:

**The new language of cyberspace ("cybervocabulary")**. As computers gradually extended their influence, so did *cyber-*, as a prefix having to do with computers and electronic communication. *Cybernetics* (1948) became the progenitor of a wide range of cyber-compounds in the 1980s and 90s, relating to the use of the Internet, and virtual reality: *cyberphobia, cyberpunk, cyberspace, cyberart, cyberhippy, cyberlawyer, cyberworld, cybermat, cybercop, cybercha, cyber-community, cybernaut, cybrarian* — the new language of cyberspace. Many words discussing

technology are coined with byte, net, mega, web, and digi: digitized cyberads, gigabyte, megalomania.

*PIN* (1981) is an abbreviation of personal identification number, a number allocated by a bank, etc., to a customer for use with a cash card. (1981 *Sunday Times*: Cards with *PINs* written on them have been stolen.)

*E-mail* (1982) is an abbreviation of electronic mail, which by the middle of the 1980s has established itself as the standard term; *hacker* (1983), *Internet* (1986), *cellphone* (1984), *mobile* (1990), *spam* (1994), *web* (1994). English took on a new meaning for a word over 400 years old, at the same time conferring a new meaning on a punctuation mark once simply called "period, full stop", now a "dot" as in "dot com".

The power of English is not confined to the invention and manufacture of new technology. *Dis-*, *diss-* (1986) is to put someone down, to show disrespect for a person by insulting language or behaviour. "Are you *dissing* me?" = Are you showing disrespect for me? *Dis-* is a permanent feature of political discussion that includes *disagreement*, *disputes*, *disappointments*, *disillusion*, *distress*, *dissidents*, and *disorder*.

Another example: the suffix — *holic*, *-aholic*, *-oholoc* (*workaholic* [1968]) describes "all-consuming obsessions", not all of them serious. The suffix could be addicted to play, foods, shopping, news, credit, and junk: *golfaholic*, *footballaholic*, *computerholic*, *leisureholic*, etc. Yahoo published a news story "Eating Chocolate Is Healthy, Doctors Say" by Patricia Reaney. "*Good news for chocoholics. The treat favored by millions not only tastes delicious but is healthy for you...*" (<http://dailynews.yahoo.com/h/nm/20010903/ts/health>). *Chocoholic*, a compulsive eater of chocolate, appeared in 1976. *Shopaholic*, a compulsive shopper, appeared in 1984.

New words comprise various structural types:

**simple** (*cable*, *dude*, *rap*);

**derived** (*buyout*, *to upchuck*, *animalist*, *synergy*, *whicked*);

**compound** (*awesome*, *blockbuster*, *ecofriendly*, *high-maintenance*, *job-hunt*, *script-show*);

**shortenings** (*dis*, *to veg*, *ATM*, *WWW* — 1994, the World Wide Wait, a nickname for the WWW as delays can be frequent depending on the speed of your Internet connection).

Language is always in a state of flux, it can surprise you every day. The adjective *awesome*, for instance, has changed its meaning and began to be used in the sense of "marvellous, wonderful, stunning" (1980). This meaning has dribbled down from the original "awe-inspiring" via "remarkable" (1961): *I just know it 'd be an awesome band* (Making Music 1986).

In the end of the century the whole world worried about the *millennium bug* (1995), because computers recognized years by their last two digits, and couldn't tell the year 2000 from 1900. Another name for it is the *Year 2000 Problem*, abbreviated *Y2K* (*K-n* from the Greek prefix kilo- "one thousand"). The problem was managed to keep us *cool*. Over the years, many different meanings of *cool* have accumulated. *Cool* has meant "daring" (1839), "clever" (1924), "exciting" (1933), "stylish" (1946),

"cautious" or "under control" (1952), and "satisfactory" or "OK" (1952). *To cool it* has meant "to stop" (1952), "to die"(1960), and "to relax" (1986). In the 1990s, among young people, *cool* in the sense "approval" or "appreciation" has even taken on a distinctive pronunciation closer to that of *cull*.

The question arises: Do we expect the phonemes or tenses to change when something happens in the social life of the society in question? The answer is an emphatic "**No**".

In contrast with phonology, morphology and syntax, lexicology is a sociolinguistic discipline. It is based on establishing interrelations between the language, the social life and conventions of language use.

Conventions associated with social situations can have an influence on the structure of individual speech interactions. These can include anything from conventions for beginning a casual conversation to conventions for asking a question in a formal classroom setting or conventions for writing a manual or a novel. No matter what sort of interaction is involved, it is a representation of some type of **discourse**.

Discourse (fr. L. "argument", "conversation") is verbal interchange of ideas; connected speech or writing. It is a set of utterances that constitute a speech event, piece of writing or conversation.

Analysis of the structure of discourse concentrates on how utterances are put together by speakers in individual interactions. Both written and spoken discourse can be subject to discourse analysis using various methods such as, for example, the study of pragmatics, ethnography of communication, ethnomethodology, and text analysis.

In the new millennium, there is the unprecedented rapidity of language change introduced by new technology, expansion of English for specific purposes in science, medicine, business, and politics, global research possibilities, distance education — all this requires effective communicative competence. To understand a word and to use it correctly, we must understand and know its semantics, its pragmatic aspect, and its cultural aspect.

All this makes lexicology a branch of linguistics with its own aims and methods of research; its basic goal being a study and systematic description of vocabulary in respect to its origin, development and use. This is a current approach to the most important issues of lexicology.

## LECTURE 2. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE WORD AS THE BASIC UNIT OF THE LANGUAGE

### The questions under consideration

1. A word as a fundamental unit of language
2. Motivation of words
3. Functional style
4. Informal style
5. Colloquial words
6. Slang
7. Dialect words
8. Learned words
9. Archaic and obsolete words
10. Professional terminology
11. Basic vocabulary

### KEY TERMS

productive elements	They are elements of the lexical system typical of this particular period.
archaic elements	They are elements of the lexical system, dropping out of usage.
neologisms	They are some new phenomena in the lexical system.
syntagmatic level	It is a level of studying words. The semantic structure of the word is analysed in its linear relationships with neighboring words in connected speech.
paradigmatic level	It is a level of studying words. The word is studied in its relationships with other words in the vocabulary system.
word	It is the smallest unit of a given language capable of functioning alone and characterised by positional mobility within a sentence, morphological uninterruptability and semantic integrity.
notion	It is a psychological category.
motivation	It denotes the relationship existing between the phonemic or morphemic composition and structural pattern of the word, on the one hand, and its meaning, on the other.
phonetical motivation	It is a certain similarity between the sound that make up words and their meaning.
morphological motivation	It is the relationship between morphemes and their meanings.

semantic motivation	It is based on the co-existence of direct and figurative meaning of the same word within the same synchronous system.
functional style	It is “a system of expressive means peculiar to a specific sphere of communication”. I.V. Arnold
informal vocabulary	It is used in one’s immediate circle: family, relatives, or friends.
literary colloquial words	These are informal words that are used in everyday conversational speech both by cultivated and uneducated people of all age groups. They are also included in the printed page.
low colloquial words	They are words of illiterate English. They are used in speech by uncultivated people.
slang	It is a language of a highly colloquial style, considered as below the level of standard educated speech, and consisting either of new words or of current words employed in some special sense. They are current words whose meanings have been metaphorically shifted.
dialect	They are regional forms of English. It is a variety of a language which prevails in a district, with local peculiarities of vocabulary, pronunciation and phrase.
learned words	These words are mainly associated with the printed page. It is in this vocabulary stratum that poetry, fiction and scientific prose find their main resources.
officialese	These are the words of the official, bureaucratic language.
archaic words	They are old and no longer used words.
obsolete	They are no longer used because something new was invented. These words have completely gone out of use.
professional terminology	It is a word or a word-group which is specifically employed by a particular branch of science, technology, trade or the arts to convey a concept peculiar to his particular activity.
basic vocabulary	These words are stylistically neutral and used in all kinds of situations, both formal and informal, in verbal and written communication.

## 1. A word as a fundamental unit of language



The term **system** as used in present-day lexicology denotes a set of elements associated and functioning together according to certain laws. The lexical system of every epoch contains **productive elements** typical of this particular period, others that are **archaic** and are dropping out of usage, and, finally, some new phenomena, **neologisms**. The elements of lexical system are characterized by their combinatorial and contrastive properties determining their syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships.

On the **syntagmatic level**, the semantic structure of the word is analysed in its linear relationships with neighbouring words in connected speech. In other words, the semantic characteristics of the word are observed, described and studied on the basis of its typical contexts.

E.g., compare the meaning of the verb "to get" in the sentences

*He got a letter. He got tired*

*He got to London.*

*He could not get the piano through the door.*

**Paradigmatic contrastive relations** exist between words belonging to one subgroup of vocabulary items (e.g., verbs of motion, of sense perception, sets of synonyms, etc.) that can occur in the same context and be contrasted to one another. Paradigmatic relations are observed in the system of language.

E.g. to go a mile

run

walk

stroll

On the **paradigmatic level**, the word is studied in its relationships with other words in the vocabulary system. So, a word may be studied in comparison with other words of similar meaning. E.g. **work** *n* – **labour** *n*. **Work** работа, труд; **1** the job that a person does especially in order to earn money. This word has many meanings (*in Oxford Dictionary – 14*), many synonyms and idioms [*idiemz*]: **creative work** творческая деятельность; **public work** общественные работы; **his life's work** дело его жизни; **dirty work** (*difficult, unpleasant*) **1** чёрная работа; **2** грязное дело, подлость. **Nice work!** Отлично! Здорово! **Saying** (*поговорка*): **All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy** (мешай дело с бездельем, проживёшь век с весельем) – it is not healthy to spend all your time working; you need to relax too.

**Labour:** "work" и "labour" не взаимозаменяемы; **labour** – **1** work, especially physical work: *manual labour, a labour camp* – исправительно-трудовой лагерь; **2** people who work: *a shortage of labour; cheap labour; skilled labour* – квалифицированные рабочие, *Labour Party; labour relations; a labour of Sisyphus*; **Sisyphean labour** [*sisi'fi:en*] сизифов труд; тяжёлый и бесплодный труд – of a task impossible to complete. From the Greek myth in which Sisyphus was punished for the bad things he had done in his life with the never-ending task of rolling a large stone to the top of a hill, from which it always rolled down again.

Other words of similar meaning (e.g. *to refuse v – to reject v*), of opposite meaning (e.g. *busy adj – idle adj; to accept v – to reject v*), of different stylistic characteristics (e.g. *man n – chap n – bloke n – guy n*). **Man – chap** (*coll.*) – парень, малый; **a good chap** – славный малый; **old chap** – старина; **chap** – *BrE*, informal, becoming old-fashioned – used to talk about a man in a friendly way: *He isn't such a bad chap really*. **Bloke** (*coll.*) тип, парень: *He seemed like a nice bloke*. **Guy** – *coll. US* – малый; **tough guy** железный малый; **wise guy** умник; **guys** (*informal, especially US*) a group of people of either sex: *Come on, you guys!*

Consequently, the main problems of paradigmatic studies are **synonymy, antonymy, functional styles**.

The lexical system is not homogeneous. Its central part is formed by lexical units possessing all the distinctive features of words. Phrasal verbs, complex prepositions, some compounds, parasitological units, etc. function as lexical items of the vocabulary of the language.

Thus, words are the central elements of language system. They are the biggest units of morphology and the smallest units of syntax. Words can be separated in an utterance by other such units and can be used in isolation. Uniting meaning and form, a word can be used in isolation is composed of one or more morphemes each consisting of one or more spoken sounds or their written representation.

Morphemes are also meaningful units but they can not be used independently, they are always parts of words whereas words can be used as a complete utterance (e.g., "Listen!"). Unlike words, morphemes cannot be divided into smaller meaningful words.

The definition of a word is one of the most difficult in linguistics, because the simplest word has many different aspects. It has a sound form and morphological structure; when used in-actual speech, it may occur in different word-forms, different syntactic functions and signal various meanings. Being the central element of any language system, the word is a sort of focus for the problems of phonology, lexicology, syntax, morphology and also for some other sciences that have to deal with language and speech, such as philosophy and psychology. All attempts to characterize the word are necessarily specific for each domain of science and are therefore considered one-sided by the representatives of all the other domains.

The word has been defined semantically, syntactically, phonologically and by combining various approaches.

Many eminent scholars such as V.V. Vinogradov, A.I. Smirnitsky, O.S. Akhmanova, M.D. Stepanova, A.A. Ufimtseva, greatly contributed to creating a word theory based upon the materialistic understanding of the relationship between word and thought, on the one hand, and language and society, on the other. The main points may be summarised.

A word is the smallest unit of a given language capable of functioning alone and characterised by **positional mobility** within a sentence, **morphological uninterruptedness** and **semantic integrity**. All these criteria are necessary because they create a basis for the oppositions between the word and the phrase, the word and the phoneme and the morpheme; their common feature is that they are all units of the

language, their difference lies in the fact that the phoneme is not significant, and a morpheme can not be used as a complete utterance.

A word usually conveys a notion. Notion is psychological category. Notion and linguistic categories are closely connected. Notions are realized through words, without words they cannot exist. Notions are realized through the component of the word called meaning. So by meaning we understand the component of the word through which the notion is realized.

We cannot identify word and notion, notion and meaning, word and meaning. Word is wider than meaning. Meaning is not identical to notion, but it may reflect human notions, and in this sense maybe considered as the form of their existence. Notions fixed in meanings of words are formed as generalized and approximately correct reflections of reality; therefore in signifying them words reflect reality in their content.

Every word is a semantic, grammatical and phonological unity.

The French linguist A. Meillet wrote that "a word is defined by the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment." (A. Meillet. *Linguistique historique et linguistique generate*. Paris, 1926. V. 1. P. 30.) It is possible to add that a word is characterized by positional mobility within a sentence and indivisibility.

Thus, the word is the fundamental unit of a language used for the purposes of human communication, resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning, capable of grammatical employment. It is the smallest language unit that can stand alone as a complete utterance. The word is a two-facet unit: it has form and content. Its content or meaning reflects human notions. Concepts fixed in the meaning of words are formed as generalized reflections of reality, therefore in signifying them words reflect reality in their content. The acoustic aspect of the word serves to name objects of reality. In this sense the word may be regarded as a sign. This sign, however, is not arbitrary but motivated by the whole process of its development.

When a word first comes into existence, it is built out according to the existing patterns of the elements available in the language.

## 2. Motivation of words

The term motivation is used to denote the relationship existing between the phonemic or morphemic composition and structural pattern of the word, on the one hand, and its meaning, on the other. There are three types of motivation: **phonetical** motivation, **morphological**, motivation and **semantic** motivation

When there is a certain similarity between the sound that make up words and their meaning, the motivation is **phonetical**, e.g., *bump*, *buzz*, *chatter*, *clatter*, *giggle*, *hiss*, *whistle*, etc. Here the sounds of a word are imitative of sounds in nature because what is referred to is a sound.

It is also suggested that sounds themselves may be emotionally expressive which accounts for the phonetical motivation in certain words. Initial /f / and / p /, e.g., are felt as expressing scorn, disapproval or disgust: *pooh!* *fie!* *fiddle-sticks*, etc. The sound-cluster /ɪŋ/ is imitative of sound or swift movement: *ring*, *sing*, *swing*, *fling*, etc.

The main criterion in **morphological** motivation is the relationship between morphemes and their meanings. Hence, all one-morpheme words are morphologically non-motivated. Morphological motivation is "relative", i.e. the degree of motivation may be different. The word "**endless**" e.g., is completely motivated as both the lexical meaning of the component morphemes and the meaning of the pattern are perfectly transparent. The word "**cranberry**" is only partially motivated because of the absence of the lexical meaning in the morpheme "cran-". The words "matter", "repeat" are non-motivated because the connection between the structure of the lexical unit and its meaning is completely conventional.

**Semantic** motivation is based on the co-existence of direct and figurative meaning of the same word within the same synchronous system. E.g., "**mouth**" denotes a part of a human face and can be metaphorically applied to any opening: *the mouth of a river, the mouth of a furnace*.

Semantic motivation is clear in popular names of flowers, plants and birds *violet, bluebell, bluebottle, blackcup, blackbird, nightingale, hummingbird*, etc.

As to compounds their motivation is morphological if the meaning of the whole is based on the direct meaning of the components (e.g., *headache - pain in the head*), and semantic if the combination of components is used figuratively (*headache - anything or anyone very annoying*).

Sometimes in an attempt to find motivation for a borrowed word the speakers change its form so as to give it a connection with some well-known word. These oases of mistaken motivation received the name of folk etymology (popular etymology, false etymology). E.g. "mushroom" from French "moucheron" has nothing in common with "room".

### **3. Functional style**

The social context in which the communication is taking place determines the modes of speech. When placed in different situations, people instinctively choose different kinds of words and structures to express their thoughts. The suitability or unsuitability of a word for each particular situation depends on its stylistic characteristics or, in other words, on the **functional style** it represents. Professor I.V. Arnold defines it as "a system of expressive means peculiar to a specific sphere of communication".

By the sphere of communication we mean the circumstances attending the process of speech in each particular case: professional communication, a lecture, an informal talk, a formal letter, an intimate letter, a speech in court, etc.

All these circumstances or situations can be classified **into two types: formal** (a lecture, a speech in court, an official letter, professional communication) and **informal** (an informal talk, an intimate letter).

Accordingly, functional styles are classified into two groups, with further subdivisions depending on different situations.

### **4. Informal style**

Informal vocabulary is used in one's immediate circle: family, relatives, or friends. One uses informal words when at home or feeling at home.

Informal style is relaxed, free-and-easy and familiar. But it should be pointed out that the informal talk of well-educated people considerably differs from that of the illiterate or the semi-educated; the choice of words with adults is different from the vocabulary of teenagers; people living in the provinces use certain regional words and expressions. Consequently, the choice of words is determined in each particular case not only by an informal (or formal) situation, but also by the speaker's educational and cultural background, age group, and his occupational and regional characteristics.

Informal words and word-groups are divided into three types: **colloquial, slang** and **dialect words and word-groups**.

### 5. Colloquial words

Among other informal words, **colloquialisms** are used by everybody, and their sphere of communication is comparatively wide, at least of **literary colloquial words**. These are informal words that are used in everyday conversational speech both by cultivated and uneducated people of all age groups. The sphere of communication of **literary colloquial words** also include the printed page.

Vast use of informal words is one of the prominent features of 20th century English and American literature. It is quite natural that informal words appear in dialogues in which they realistically reflect the speech of modern people.

However, in modern fiction informal words are not restricted to conversation in their use, but frequently appear in descriptive passages as well. In this way the narrative is endowed with conversational features. The author creates an intimate, warm, informal atmosphere.

“Fred Hardy was a *bad lot* (*пользовался дурной славой*). Pretty women and an unlucky *knack for backing* the wrong horse had *landed him* in the bankruptcy court by the time he was twenty-five...” (From W.S. Maugham).

Here are some more examples of literary colloquial words. *Pal* (*кореш, друг*) and *chum* (*приятель, дружок*) are colloquial equivalents of *friend*; *girl*, when used colloquially, denotes a woman of any age; *bite* and *snack* (*quick meal – перекусить*) stand for *meal*; *hi*, *hello* are informal greetings, and *so long* a form of parting; *start, go on, finish* and *be through* (*покончить*) are also literary colloquialisms.

A considerable number of shortenings are found among words of this type. E.g. *pram, exam, fridge, flu, zip, movie*.

Verbs with post-positional adverbs are also numerous among colloquialisms: *put up, put over, make up, make out, turn up*, etc.

**Literary colloquial words** are to be distinguished from **familiar colloquial** and **low colloquial**.

The borderline between the literary and familiar colloquial is not always clearly marked. Yet the circle of speakers using familiar colloquial is more limited: these words are used mostly by the young and the semi-educated. This vocabulary group closely verges on slang and has something of its coarse flavour.

E.g. *doc* (for *doctor*), *ta-ta* (for *good-bye*), *to kid smb.* (for *tease, banter – подшутить*), *to pick up smb.* (for *make a quick and easy acquaintance*), *shut up* (for *keep silent*).

**Low colloquial** (*просторечие*) is defined as uses characteristic of the speech of persons who may be broadly described as uncultivated. This group is stocked with words of illiterate (*неграмотный*) English which do not present much interest for our purposes.

The problem of functional styles is not one of purely theoretical interest, but represents a particularly important aspect of the language-learning process. Students often misunderstand the term “**colloquial**” and use it for “**conversational**”. The marker “**colloquial**” is a sign of restricted usage – not in formal circumstances or in reports. But literary colloquial words should be included in functional vocabulary, presented and drilled in suitable contexts and situations, mainly in dialogues. It is important to associate these words with informal, relaxed situations.

## 6. Slang

The Oxford English Dictionary defines slang as “language of a highly colloquial style, considered as below the level of standard educated speech, and consisting either of new words or of current words employed in some special sense.”

All or most slang words are current words whose meanings have been metaphorically shifted. Each slang metaphor is rooted in a joke, but not in a kind or amusing joke. This is the criterion for distinguishing slang from colloquialisms: most slang words are metaphors and jocular, often with a coarse, mocking, cynical colouring.

Then why do people use slang?

For a number of reasons. To be picturesque, arresting, striking and, above all, different from others. To demonstrate one’s spiritual independence and daring. To sound “modern” and “up-to-date”.

It doesn’t mean that all these aims are achieved by using slang. But these are the main reasons for using it.

The circle of users of slang is more narrow than that of colloquialisms. It is mainly used by the young and uneducated.

## 7. Dialect words

Dialect is a variety of a language which prevails in a district, with local peculiarities of vocabulary, pronunciation and phrase. England is a small country, yet it has many dialects which have their own distinctive features (e.g. the Lancashire, Dorsetshire, Norfolk dialects).

So dialects are regional forms of English. Standard English is defined as the language as it is written and spoken by literate people in both formal and informal usage and that is universally current while incorporating regional differences.

Dialectal peculiarities, especially those of vocabulary, are constantly being incorporated into everyday colloquial speech or slang. From these levels they can be transferred into the common stock, i.e. words which are not stylistically marked and a few of them even into formal speech and into the literary language. into the literary language *Car, trolley, tram* began as dialect words. Some examples of dialects: *tha* (*thee*) – the objective case of *thou*; *brass* – money; *nivver* – never; *nowt* – nothing.

## 8. Learned words

Formal style is restricted to formal situations. In general, formal words fall into two main groups: **words associated with professional communication** and a less exclusive group of so-called **learned words**.

These words are mainly associated with the printed page. It is in this vocabulary stratum that poetry and fiction find their main resources.

We find here numerous words that are used in **scientific prose** and can be identified by their dry, matter-of-fact flavour (e.g. *comprise*, *experimental*, *heterogeneous*, *homogeneous*, *conclusive*, *divergent*, etc).

To this group also belongs so-called '**officialese**' (*канцеляризм*). These are the words of the official, bureaucratic language. They should be avoided in speech and in print, e.g. *assist* (for *help*), *endeavour* (for *try*), *proceed* (for *go*), *approximately* (for *about*), *sufficient* (for *enough*), *inquire* (for *ask*).

Probably the most interesting subdivision of learned words is represented by the words found in descriptive passages of fiction. These words, which may be called 'literary', also have a particular flavour of their own, usually described as 'refined'. They are mostly polysyllabic words drawn from the Romance language and, though fully adapted to the English phonetic system, some of them continue to sound singularly foreign. Here are some examples: *solitude*=*loneliness*, *lonely place* (*уединение*, *одиночество*), *sentiment*=*feeling* (*чувство*), *fascination*=*strong attraction* (*очарование*, *обаяние*), *delusion* (*заблуждение*), *meditation* (*размышление*), *cordial*=*friendly* (*сердечный*, *радушный*).

There is one further subdivision of learned words: modes of **poetic diction**. These stand close to the previous group many words from which, in fact, belong to both these categories. Yet, poetic words have a further characteristic – a lofty, sometimes archaic, colouring: “*Alas! (увы)* they had been friends in youth;

But whispering tongues can poison truth

And *constancy (постоянство)* lives in *realms (царства)* above;

And life is thorny; and youth is vain...

Though learned words are mainly associated with the printed page, this is not exclusively so. Any educated English-speaking individual is sure to use many learned words not only in his formal letters and professional communication but also in his everyday speech. Educated people in both modern fiction and real life use learned words quite naturally and their speech is richer for it.

On the other hand, excessive use of learned words in conversational speech presents grave hazards. Utterances overloaded with such words have pretensions of 'refinement' and 'elegance' but achieve the exact opposite verging on the absurd and ridiculous.

Writers use this phenomenon for stylistic purposes. When a character in a book or in a play uses too many learned words, the obvious inappropriateness of his speech in an informal situation produces a comic effect.

However any suggestion that learned words are suitable only for comic purposes, would be quite wrong. It is in this vocabulary stratum that writers and poets find their most vivid paints and colours, and not only their humorous effects. Without

knowing some learned words, it is even impossible to read fiction (not to mention scientific articles) or to listen to lectures in the foreign language.

It is also true that some of these words should be carefully selected and “activized” to become part of the students’ functional vocabulary.

### **9. Archaic and obsolete words**

**Archaic** – are old and no longer used words; **obsolete** – no longer used because something new was invented. Obsolete words have completely gone out of use.

Archaic and obsolete words stand close to the “learned” words, particularly to the modes of poetic diction. Learned words and archaisms are both associated with the printed page. Yet, many learned words may also be used in conversational situations. This cannot happen with archaisms, which are restricted to the printed page. These words are moribund, already partly or fully out of circulation. Their last refuge is in historical novels and in poetry which is rather conservative in its choice of words.

*Thou* [θau] – (*ты*) and *thy* [ðai] – (*твою*), *aye* [ai] – (‘yes’) and *nay* [nei] – (‘no’) are certainly archaic and long since rejected by common usage, yet poets use them even today.

Numerous archaisms can be found in Shakespeare, but it should be taken in consideration that what appear to us today as archaisms in the works of Shakespeare, are in fact examples of everyday language of Shakespeare’s time.

Further examples of archaisms are: *morn* (for *morning*), *eve* (for *evening*), *errant* (for *wandering*, e.g. *errant knights*), etc.

Sometimes an archaic word may undergo a sudden revival. So, the formerly archaic *kin* (for *relatives*; *one’s family*) is now current in American usage.

### **10. Professional terminology**

Hundreds of thousands of words belong to special scientific, professional or trade terminological systems and are not used or even understood by people outside the particular speciality. Every field of modern activity has its specialized vocabulary, and similarly special terminologies for psychology, music, management, finance, economics, jurisprudence, linguistics and many others.

Term, as traditionally understood, is a word or a word-group which is specifically employed by a particular branch of science, technology, trade or the arts to convey a concept peculiar to his particular activity.

So, *share*, *bank*, *balance sheet* are finance terms; *court*, *lawyer*, *civil law* are legal terms; and *top manager*, *creative team*, *motivation* are used in management. *Bilingual*, *interdental*, *labialization*, *palatalization*, *glottal stop*, *descending scale* are terms of theoretical phonetics.

There are several controversial problems in the field of terminology. The **first** is the question whether a term loses its terminological status when it comes into common usage. Today this is a frequent occurrence, as various elements of the media of communication (TV, radio, magazines, etc.) ply people with scraps of knowledge from different scientific fields, technology and the arts. It is quite natural that under circumstances numerous terms pass into general usage without losing connection with their specific fields.



There are **linguists** in whose opinion terms are only those words which have retained their exclusiveness and are not known or recognized outside their specific sphere. From this point of view, words associated with the medical sphere, such as *unit* (*доза лекарственного препарата*), *theatre* (*операционная*), *contact* (*носитель инфекции*) are no longer medical terms as they are in more or less common usage.

There is yet **another point of view**, according to which any terminological system is supposed to include all the words and word-groups conveying concept peculiar to a particular branch of knowledge, regardless of their exclusiveness. Modern research of various terminological systems has shown that there is no impenetrable wall between terminology and the general language system. To the contrary, terminologies seem to obey the same rules as other vocabulary strata. Therefore, exchange between terminological systems and the “common” vocabulary is quite normal, and it would be wrong to regard a term as something “special” and standing apart.

**Two other controversial problems** deal with **polysemy** and **synonymy**. According to some linguists, an “ideal” term should be **monosemantic** (i.e. it should have only one meaning). **Polysemantic** terms may lead to misunderstanding, and that is a serious shortcoming in professional communication. This requirement seems quite reasonable, yet facts of the language do not meet it. There are numerous polysemantic terms. In the terminology of painting, the term *colour* may denote *hue* (*цвет*) and, at the same time, *stuff used for colouring* (*краска*).

The same is true about **synonymy** in terminological systems. There are scholars who insist that terms should not have synonyms because, consequently, scientists and other specialists would name the same objects and phenomena in their field by different terms and would not be able to come to any agreement. This may be true. But, in fact, terms do possess synonyms. In painting, the same term *colour* has several synonyms in both its meanings: *hue*, *shade*, *tint*, *tinge* in the first meaning (“цвет”) and *paint*, *dye* in the second (“краска”).

### **11. Basic vocabulary**

These words are stylistically neutral, and, in this respect, opposed to formal and informal words. Their stylistic neutrality makes it possible to use them in all kinds of situations, both formal and informal, in verbal and written communication. Certain of the stylistically marked vocabulary strata are exclusive: professional terminology is used mostly by representatives of the professions; dialects are regional; slang is favoured mostly by the young and the uneducated. Not so basic vocabulary. These words are used every day, everywhere and by everybody, regardless of profession, occupation, educational level, age group or geographical location. These are words without which no human communication would be possible as they denote objects and phenomena of everyday importance (e.g. *house*, *bread*, *summer*, *child*, *mother*, *difficult*, *to go*, etc.).

The basic vocabulary is the central group of the vocabulary, its historical foundation and living core. That is why words of this stratum show a considerably greater stability in comparison with words of the other strata, especially informal.

Basic vocabulary words can be recognized not only by their stylistic neutrality but, also, by lack of other connotations (i.e. attendant meanings). Their meanings are broad, general and directly convey the concept, without supplying any additional information.

For instance, the verb *to walk* means merely ‘to move from place to place on foot’ whereas in the meanings of its synonyms *to stride* (*шагать*), *to stroll* (*прогуливаться*), *to trot* (*семенить, бежать вприпрыжку*), *to stagger – to sway while walking* (*идти шатаясь*) and others, some additional information is encoded as they each describe a different manner of walking, a different gait, tempo, purpose or lack of purpose. Thus, *to walk*, with its direct broad meaning, is a typical basic vocabulary word, and its synonyms, with their additional information encoded in their meanings, belong to the periphery of the vocabulary.

The basic vocabulary and the stylistically marked strata of the vocabulary do not exist independently but are closely interrelated. Most stylistically marked words have their neutral counterparts in the basic vocabulary.

The table gives some examples of such synonyms belonging to different stylistic strata (Table 1).

Table 1- Synonyms belonging to different stylistic strata.

<b>Basic vocabulary</b>	<b>Informal</b>	<b>Formal</b>
begin	start, get started	commence
continue	go on, get on	proceed
end	finish, be through, be over	terminate
child, baby	kid, brat, bearn ( <i>dial.</i> )	infant, babe ( <i>poet.</i> )

The basic vocabulary words comprise the first and essential part of the students’ functional and recognition vocabulary. They constitute the beginner’s vocabulary. Yet, to restrict to the basic vocabulary would mean to deprive the speech of colour, expressive force and emotive shades, for, if basic words are absolutely necessary, they also decidedly lack something: they are not at all the kind of words to tempt a writer or a poet. Actually, if the language had none other but basic vocabulary words, fiction would be hardly readable, and poetry simply non-existent.

### LECTURE 3. THE ORIGIN OF ENGLISH WORDS

#### The questions under consideration

1. The historical circumstances which stimulate the borrowing process
2. Native Words
3. Borrowings
  - 3.1. The earliest group of English borrowings
  - 3.2. Celtic borrowings. The fifth century A.D.
  - 3.3. The period of Cristianization. The seventh century A.D.
  - 3.4. The characteristic features of Scandinavian borrowings
  - 3.5. Norman French borrowings (1066)
  - 3.6. The Renaissance Period
  - 3.7. Modern period
4. Three stages of assimilation
5. International words
6. Etymological Doublets
7. Translation-loans
8. Interrelations between etymological and stylistic characteristics of English words

#### KEY TERMS

borrowing	It is a word taken over from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language.
loan word	
native element	It is a word that is not borrowed from other languages.
native word	It is a word that belongs to the Old English word-stock.
Old English	It is the earliest recorded form of the English language. It was spoken from about A.D. 600 until about A.D. 1100, and most of its words had been part of a still earlier form of the language.
Anglo-Saxon	
Indo-European	It a prehistoric language that was the common ancestor of Greek and Latin as well.
Common Germanic	These words are not to be found in other Indo-European languages but the Germanic. They constitute a very large layer of the vocabulary.
English proper element	These words appeared in the English vocabulary in the 5th century or later, that is after the Germanic tribes migrated to the British Isles. They have no cognates in other languages.
cognates	They are words of the same etymological root, of common origin.
borrowing	It is the process by which a word came into the

	vocabulary of one language from another and a word itself. A source of language change that involves adopting aspects of one language into another.
substratum influence	It is the effect of a politically or culturally nondominant language on a dominant language in the area. a Celtic substratum ( <i>Thames, London</i> )
superstratum influence	It is the effect of a politically or culturally dominant language on another language or languages in the area.
adstratum influence	It refers to the situation where two languages are in contact and neither one is clearly politically or culturally dominant.
assimilation	It is the process of word adjustment to its new environment and adaptation to the norms of the recipient language.
phonetic adaptation	It is a type of adaptation. It is a full adaptation to the phonetic system of the recipient language.
grammatical adaptation	It is a type of adaptation. It is a complete change of the former paradigm of the borrowed word.
semantic adaptation	It is a type of adaptation. It is an adjustment to the system of meanings of the recipient vocabulary.
international words	They are words of identical origin that occur in several languages as a result of simultaneous or successive borrowings from one ultimate source .
etymological doublets	They are words borrowed twice into English. They have different forms and meanings in English. They are words of the same etymological root but which came into the language by different ways.
translation-loans	They are borrowings of a special kind. They have the same phonetic shape as in their own language, but undergo the process of translation of each stem.( <i>masterpiece</i> )

## 1. The historical circumstances which stimulate the borrowing process

English is generally regarded as the richest of the world's languages. Few other languages can match this word power. English owes its exceptionally large vocabulary to its ability to borrow and absorb words from outside. *Atomic, cybernetics, jeans, khaki, sputnik, perestroika* are just a few of the many words that have come into use during XX century. They have been taken from Italian, Hindi, Greek and Russian.

The English vocabulary has been enriched throughout its history by borrowings from foreign languages. A **borrowing** (a loan word) is a word taken over from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language.

The process of borrowing words from other languages has been going on for more than 1,000 years. The fact that up to 80 per cent of the English vocabulary consists of borrowed words is due to the specific conditions of the English language development.

Why are words borrowed? This question partially concerns the historical circumstances which stimulate the borrowing process. Each time two nations come into close contact, certain borrowings are a natural consequence. The nature of contact may be different. It may be wars, invasions or conquests when foreign words are in effect imposed upon the reluctant conquered nation. There are also periods of peace when the process of borrowing is due to trade and international cultural relations.

These latter circumstances are certainly more favourable for stimulating the borrowing process, for during invasions and occupations the natural psychological reaction of the oppressed nation is to reject and condemn the language of the oppressor. The Norman culture of the 11th c. was certainly superior to that of the Saxons. The result was that an immense number of French words forced their way into English vocabulary.

All this only serves to explain the conditions which encourage the borrowing process. The question of why words are borrowed by one language from another is still unanswered.

Sometimes it is done to fill a gap in vocabulary. When the Saxons borrowed Latin words for *butter, plum, beet*, they did it because their own vocabulary lacked words for these new objects. For the same reason the words **potato** and *tomato* were borrowed by English from Spanish when these vegetables were first brought to England by the Spaniards.

But there is also a great number of words which are borrowed for other reasons. There may be a word (or even several words) which expresses some particular concept, so that there is no gap in the vocabulary and there does not seem to be any need for borrowing. Yet, one more word is borrowed which means almost the same, - almost, but not exactly. It is borrowed because it represents the same concept in some new aspect, supplies a new shade of meaning or a different emotional colouring. This type of borrowing enlarges groups of synonyms and greatly provides to enrich the expressive resources of the vocabulary. That is how the Latin *cordial* was added to the native *friendly*, the French *desire* to *wish* and the French *adore* to *like* and *love*.

There are practically no limits to the kinds of words that are borrowed. Words are employed as symbols for every part of culture. When cultural elements are borrowed from one culture by another, the words for such cultural features often accompany the feature. Also, when a cultural feature of one society is like that of another, the word of a foreign language may be used to designate this feature in the borrowing society. In English a material culture word *rouge* was borrowed from French, a social culture word *republic* from Latin, and religious culture word *baptize* from Greek.

Such words become completely absorbed into the system, so that they are not recognized by speakers of the language as foreign. Few people realize that *tomato* is of Aztec origin.

However, some words and phrases have retained their original spelling, pronunciation and foreign identity, for example: *rendezvous, coup, gourmet, detente* (French); *status quo, ego, curriculum vitae, bona fide* (Latin); *patio, macho* (Spanish); *kindergarten, blitz* (German,); *kowtow, tea* (Chinese,); *incognito, bravo* (Italian).

There are many words that have changed their meaning in English, e.g. *mind* originally meant "memory", and this meaning survives in the phrases "to keep in mind", "time out of mind", etc. The word *brown* preserves its old meaning of "gloomy" in the phrase "in a brown study". There are instances when a word acquires a meaning opposite to its original one, e.g. *nice* meant "silly" some hundreds of years ago.

Thus, there are two main problems connected with the vocabulary of a language: (1) the origin of the words, (2) their development in the language.

Etymology (from Greek etymon "truth" + logos "learning") is a branch of linguistics that studies the origin and history of words tracing them to their earliest determinable source.

The etymological structure of the English vocabulary consists of the native element (Indo-European and Germanic) and the borrowed elements.

## 2. Native Words

By the **Native Element** we understand words that are not borrowed from other languages. A native word is a word that belongs to the Old English word-stock. The Native Element is the basic element, though it constitutes only up to 20-25% of the English vocabulary. The native element in English comprises a large number of high-frequency words like the articles, prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions, auxiliaries and words denoting everyday objects and ideas (e.g. *house, child, water, go, come, eat, good, bad, etc.*).

Furthermore, the grammatical structure is essentially Germanic having remained unaffected by foreign influence.

**Old English, or Anglo-Saxon**, is the earliest recorded form of the English language. It was spoken from about A.D. 600 until about A.D. 1100, and most of its words had been part of a still earlier form of the language. Many of the common words of modern English, like *home, stone, and meat* are native, or Old English, words. Most of the irregular verbs in English derive from Old English (*speak, swim, drive, ride, sing*), as do most of the English shorter numerals (*two, three, six, ten*) and most of the pronouns (*I, you, we, who*).

Many Old English words can be traced back to **Indo-European**, a prehistoric language that was the common ancestor of Greek and Latin as well. Others came into Old English as it was becoming a separate language.

**Indo-European Element:** since English belongs to the Germanic branch of the Indo-European group of languages, the oldest words in English are of Indo-European origin. They form part of the basic word stock of all Indo-European languages. There are several semantic groups:

- words expressing family relations: *father, mother, son, daughter, brother*;
- names of parts of the human body: *foot, eye, ear, nose, tongue, lip, heart*;
- names of trees, birds, animals: *tree, birch, cow, wolf, cat, swine, goose*;
- names expressing basic actions: *to come, to know, to sit, to work*;
- plants: *tree, birch (cp. p. берёза), corn*;
- time of day: *day, night*;
- heavenly bodies (небесные тела): *sun, moon, star*;
- words expressing qualities: *new, red, quick, right, glad, sad*;
- numerals: *from one to a hundred*;
- pronouns – *personal* (except *they* which is a Scandinavian borrowing), *demonstrative*.
  - numerous verbs: *be* (cp. русск. БЫТЬ), *stand* (СТОЯТЬ), *sit* (СИДЕТЬ), *eat* (ЕСТЬ), *know*.

There are many more words of Indo-European origin in the basic stock of the English vocabulary.

**Common Germanic words** are not to be found in other Indo-European languages but the Germanic. They constitute a very large layer of the vocabulary, e.g.:

- nouns: *hand, life, sea, ship, meal, winter, ground, coal, goat*;
- adjectives: *heavy, deep, free, broad, sharp, grey, green, blue, white, small, high, old, good*;
- verbs: *to buy, to drink, to find, to forget, to go, to have, to live, to make, see, hear, speak, tell, say, answer, make*;
- pronouns: *all, each, he, self, such*;
- adverbs: *again, forward, near*;
- prepositions: *after, at, by, over, under, from, for*.
- parts of the human body: *head, hand, arm, finger, bone*.
- animals: *bear, fox, calf*.
- plants: *oak, fir, grass*.
- natural phenomena: *rain, frost*.
- seasons of the year: *winter, spring, summer (autumn is a French borrowing)*.
- landscape features: *sea, land*.
- human dwellings and furniture: *house, room, bench*.
- sea-going vessels: *boat, ship*.

The Indo-European and Germanic groups are so old that they cannot be dated. The tribal languages of the Angles, the Saxons, the Jutes, by the time of their migration,

contained only words of Indo-European and Germanic roots plus a certain number of the earliest Latin borrowings.

**The English proper element** is, in certain respects, opposed to the first two groups. Firstly, it can be approximately dated. The words of this group appeared in the English vocabulary in the 5th century or later, that is after the Germanic tribes migrated to the British Isles. Secondly, these words have another distinctive feature: they are specifically English having no cognates in other languages. **Cognates** are words of the same etymological root, of common origin. For Indo-European and Germanic words such cognates can always be found, as, for instance, for the following words of the Indo-European group.

*Star*: Germ. *Stern*, Lat. *Stella*, Gr. *aster*.

*Sad*: Germ. *satt*, Lat. *satis*, R. *сыт*, Snsr. *sā-*.

*Stand*: Germ. *stehen*, Lat. *stare*, R. *стоять*, Snsr. *stha-*.

Here are some examples of English proper words. These words stand quite alone in the vocabulary system of Indo-European languages. They are not numerous but unique: *bird, boy, girl, lord, lady, woman, daisy, always*.

Of course, one might remark that Russian vocabulary also has the words *лорд, леди, бои* (in the meaning of "native servant"). The explanation is simple: these words have been borrowed by Russian from English and therefore are not cognates of their English counterparts.

It should be taken into consideration that the English proper element also contains all the later formations, that is, words which were made after the 5th century according to English word-building patterns both from native and borrowed morphemes. For instance, the adjective *beautiful* built from the French borrowed root and the native suffix belongs to the English proper element. It is natural, that the quantity of such words is immense.

### **3. Borrowings**

By the word borrowing used in singular we understand the process by which a borrowed word came into the vocabulary of one language from another. The same word may denote the result of this process, that is a borrowed word itself.

The borrowed element contains a greater quantity of words than the first. Many scholars estimate the percentage of borrowed words in the English vocabulary at 65 - 70 per cent.

#### **3.1. The earliest group of English borrowings**

The first century B.C. Most territory now known to us as Europe is occupied by the Roman Empire. Among the inhabitants of the continent are Germanic tribes, "barbarians" as the arrogant Romans call them. Theirs is really a rather primitive stage of development, especially if compared with the high civilization and refinement of Rome.

It is from the Romans that they learn how to make *butter* and *cheese* and, as there are no words for these foodstuffs in their tribal languages, they are to use the Latin words to name them. It is also to the Romans that the Germanic tribes owe the knowledge of some fruits and vegetables, and the Latin names of these fruits and



vegetables enter their vocabularies: *cherry, pear, plum, pea, beet, pepper*. It is interesting to note that the word *plant* is also a Latin borrowing of this period.

All these Latin words were destined to become the earliest group of borrowings in the future English language which was built on the basis of the Germanic tribal languages.

### 3.2. Celtic borrowings. The fifth century A.D.

Several of the Germanic tribes (the most numerous amongst them being the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes) migrated across the sea now known as the English Channel to the British Isles. There they were confronted by the Celts, the original inhabitants of the Isles. The Celts desperately defended their lands against the invaders.

Through their numerous contacts with the defeated Celts, the conquerors got to know and assimilated a number of Celtic words (Modern English *bald, down, glen* (ЛОЩИНА), *druid* (КЕЛЬТСКИЙ ЖРЕЦ), *bard, cradle* (КОЛЫБЕЛЬ). Especially numerous among the Celtic borrowings were *place names, names of rivers, hills*, etc. Ironically, even the name of the English capital *London* originates from Celtic.

### 3.3. The period of Cristianization. The seventh century A.D.

This century was significant for the christianization of England. Latin was the official language of the Christian church, and consequently the spread of Christianity was accomplished by a new period of Latin borrowings. These no longer came from spoken Latin as they did eight centuries earlier, but from church Latin. Also, these new Latin borrowings were very different in meaning from the earlier ones. They mostly indicated persons, objects and ideas associated with church and religious rituals.

E.g. *priest* (СВЯЩЕННИК), *bishop* (ЕПИСКОП), *monk* (МОНАХ), *nun* (МОНАХИНЯ), *candle* (СВЕЧА), *dean, cross, alter, abbot*.

Additionally, there were *educational terms*. It was quite natural that these were also Latin borrowings, for the first schools in England were *church schools*, and the first teachers – *priests* and *monks*. The very word *school* is a Latin borrowing.

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

1. Latin-Continental borrowings,
2. Latin-Celtic borrowings,
3. Latin borrowings connected with the Adoption of Christianity.

To the first periods belong **military terms** (*wall, street*, etc.), **trade terms** (*pound, inch*), **names of containers** (*cup, dish*), **names of food** (*butter, cheese*), **words connected with building** (*chalk, pitch*), etc. These were concrete words that were adopted in purely oral manner, and they were fully assimilated in the language. Roman influence was felt in the names of towns, e.g. *Manchester, Lancaster*, etc. from the Latin word *caster* — лагерь.

Such words as *port, fountain* and *mountain* were borrowed from Latin through Celtic.

Latin and Greek borrowings of the Middle English period are connected with the Great Revival of Learning and are **mostly scientific words**: *formula, inertia, maximum, memorandum, veto, superior*, etc. They were not fully assimilated, they retained their grammar forms.

Many words from Greek, the other major source of English words, came into English by way of French and Latin. Others were borrowed in the sixteenth century when interest in classic culture was at its height. Directly or indirectly, Greek contributed *athlete, acrobat, elastic, magic, rhythm*, and many others.

There are some classical borrowings in Modern English as well: *anaemia, aspirin, iodine, atom, calorie, acid, valency*, etc. There are words formed with the help of Latin and Greek morphemes (roots or affixes): *tele, auto*, etc.

Latin and Greek words are used to denote names of sciences, political and philosophic trends; these borrowings usually have academic or literary associations (*per capita, dogma, drama, theory, and pseudonym*).

### 3.4. The characteristic features of Scandinavian borrowings

Scandinavian Borrowings are connected with the Scandinavian Conquest of the British Isles, which took place at the end of the 8<sup>th</sup> century. From the end of the 8<sup>th</sup> c. to the middle of the 11<sup>th</sup> c. England underwent several Scandinavian invasions which left their trace on English vocabulary. Scandinavians belonged to the same group of peoples as Englishmen and the two languages were similar.

The impact of Old Norwegian on the English language is hard to evaluate. Nine hundred words — for example, *take, leg, hit, skin, same* — are of Scandinavian origin. There are probably hundreds more we cannot account for definitely.

Here are some examples of early Scandinavian borrowings: *call v, take v, die v, law n, husband, window, ill*.

Some of the words are easily recognizable as Scandinavian borrowings by the initial *sk-* combination.

E.g. *sky, skill, skin, ski, skirt*.

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

However, many words were borrowed into English, e.g. *cake, egg, kid, window, ill, happy, ugly, to call, to give, to get*, etc. Pronouns and pronominal forms were also borrowed from Scandinavian: *same, both, though, they, them, their*.

### 3.5. Norman French borrowings (1066)

Many other Latin words came into English through **French**. French is the language that had most influence on the vocabulary of English; it also influenced its spelling.

In 1066, toward the end of the Old English period the French under William the Conqueror invaded England and defeated the Anglo-Saxons under King Harold. After the Norman invasion, English was neglected by the Latin-writing and French-speaking authorities. Northern French became the official language in England. And for the next three hundred years, French was the language of the ruling classes in England. During this period, thousands of new words came into English, many of them relating to upper class pursuits: *baron, attorney, luxury*.

There are several semantic groups of French borrowings:

- government terms: *to govern, to administer, assembly, record, parliament*;
- words connected with feudalism: *peasant, servant, control, money, rent*,

*subsidy*;

- military terms: *assault, battle, soldier, army, siege, defence, lieutenant*;
- words connected with jury: *bill, defendant, plaintiff, judge, fine*;
- words connected with art, amusement, fashion, food: *dance, leisure, lace, pleat,*

*supper, appetite, beauty, figure, etc.*

Early French borrowings were fully assimilated; the opposite tendency is to be discerned in the later French borrowings. During the seventeenth century there was a change in the character of the borrowed words. From French, English has taken lots of words to do with cooking, the arts, and a more sophisticated lifestyle in general (*chic, prestige, leisure, repertoire, resume, cartoon, critique, cuisine, chauffeur, questionnaire, coup, elite, avant-garde, bidet, detente, entourage*).

French borrowings of the period of the Norman Conquest have become part and parcel of the English vocabulary. The number of borrowings was so large that it made possible to borrow morphemes and form word-hybrids, e.g.: *god* — *goddess* (-*ess* of French origin was added to the English stem), *short* — *shortage*, *bewilder* — *bewilderment*, *baker* — *bakery*. French stems can form hybrids with the English affixes: *beauty* — *beautiful*, *trouble* — *troublesome*.

In addition to independent words, English borrowed from Greek, Latin, and French a number of word parts for use as affixes and roots, for example prefixes like

*non-, de-, anti-* that may appear in hundreds of different words.

English has continued to borrow words from French right down to the present, with the result that over a **third of modern** English vocabulary **derives from French**.

### **3.6. The Renaissance Period**

In England, as in all European countries, this period was marked by significant developments in science, art and culture and, also, by a revival of interest in the ancient civilizations of Greece and Rome and their languages. Hence, there occurred a considerable number of Latin and Greek borrowings. In contrast to the earliest borrowings (1st c. B.C.) the Renaissance ones were rarely concrete names. They were mostly abstract words (e.g. *major, minor, filial* (дочерний, сыновний), *moderate* (умеренный), *intelligent, permanent, to elect, to create*). There were numerous scientific and artistic terms (*datum, status, phenomenon, philosophy, music*). *Phenomenon, philosophy, method, music*, etc. were borrowed into English from Latin and had earlier come into Latin from Greek. Greek Renaissance borrowings are, e.g. *atom, cycle, ethics*.

The Renaissance was a period of extensive cultural contacts between the major European states. Therefore, it was only natural that new words also entered the English vocabulary from other European languages. The most significant once more were French borrowings. This time they came from the Parisian dialect of French and are known as *Parisian borrowings*. Examples: *regime, routine, police, machine, ballet, matinée* (дневное представление), *scene, technique, bourgeois*, etc.

Italian also contributed a considerable number of words to English, e.g. *piano, violin, opera, alarm*.

### **3.7. Modern period**

In the modern period, English has borrowed from every important language in the world. Depending on the cultural relationship holding between languages three types of influence of one language on another are traditionally identified: **substratum**, **adstratum**, and **superstratum** influence.

**Substratum** influence is the effect of a politically or culturally nondominant language on a dominant language in the area. The influence of a Celtic substratum, for instance, is evident, particularly in place names such as *Thames*, *London*, and *Dover*. Substratum influence does not usually have a major impact on the lexicon of the borrowing language. Borrowed words are usually restricted to place names and unfamiliar items or concepts. This situation reflects the fact that it is usually the speakers of the substratum language who inhabited the area first.

**Superstratum** influence is the effect of a politically or culturally dominant language on another language or languages in the area. For example, Norman French had a superstratum influence. The major impact of French on the vocabulary of English is related to a historical event — the conquest of England by French-speaking Normans in 1066. As the conquerors and their descendants gradually learned

English over the next decades, they retained French terms for political, judicial, and cultural notions. These words were in turn borrowed by native English speakers who, in trying to gain a place in the upper middle class, were eager to imitate the speech of their social superiors. Borrowing was especially heavy in the vocabulary areas pertaining to officialdom: government, the judiciary, and religion. Other areas of heavy borrowing included science, culture, and warfare, for example:

**Government** *tax, revenue, government, royal, state, parliament, authority*

**Judiciary** *jury, evidence, jail, crime, verdict*

**Religion** *sermon, prayer, religion, chaplain*

**Science** *medicine, physician*

**Culture** *art, sculpture, fur, fashion*

**Warfare** *navy, battle, soldier, enemy, captain*

In some cases, French loan words were used in conjunction with native English words to convey distinctions of various sorts. For a minor crime, for example, the English word *theft* was employed, but for a more serious breach of the law, the French word *larceny* was used. The English also kept their own words for domesticated animals but adopted the French words for the meat from those creatures:

English	French
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<i>cow</i>	<i>beef</i>
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<i>calf</i>	<i>veal</i>
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<i>sheep</i>	<i>mutton</i>
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<i>pig</i>	<i>pork</i>
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**Adstratum** influence refers to the situation where two languages are in contact and neither one is clearly politically or culturally dominant. When the Scandinavians settled part of England beginning in A.D. 800, there was substantial contact between the speakers of English and Scandinavian, resulting in an adstratum relationship. Adstratum contact usually results in the borrowing of common, everyday words. In fact, without consulting a dictionary, most English speakers could not distinguish

between borrowings from Scandinavian and native English words. Some loan words from Scandinavian are *anger, cake, call, seat, egg, fellow, gear, get, hit, husband, low, lump, raise, root, score, skill, skin, take, their, they, thrust, ugly, window, wing*.

Borrowed words from many other languages attest to various types of cultural contact and serve often to fill the lexical gaps such contact inevitably brings. Over 120 languages are on record as sources of the English vocabulary. From **Japanese** come *karate, judo, hara-kiri, kimono, and tycoon*; from **Arabic**, *algebra, algorithm, fakir, giraffe, sultan, harem, mattress*; from **Turkish**, *yogurt, kiosk, tulip*; from **Farsi**, *caravan, shawl, bazaar, sherbet*, from **Eskimo**, *kayak, igloo, anorak*; from **Yiddish**, *goy, knish, latke, schmuck*; from **Hindi**, *thug, punch, shampoo*; from **Amerindian** languages, *toboggan, wigwam, Chicago, Missouri, opossum*. From **Italian** come words connected with music and the plastic arts, such as *piano, alto, incognito, bravo, ballerina, as well as motto, casino, mafia, artichoke*, etc. **German** expressions in English have been coined either by tourists bringing back words for new things they saw or by philosophers or historians describing German concepts or experiences (*kindergarten, blitz, hamburger, pretzel, delicatessen, poodle, waltz, seminar*). The borrowings from other languages usually relate to things, which English speakers experienced for the first time abroad (**Portuguese**: *marmalade, cobra*; **Spanish**: *junta, siesta, patio, mosquito, comrade, tornado, banana, guitar, marijuana, vigilante*; **Dutch**: *dock, leak, pump, yacht, easel, cruise, cole slaw, smuggle, gin, cookie, boom*; **Finnish**: *sauna*; **Russian**: *bistro, szar, balalaika, tundra, robot*) (Table 2)

**Table 2 – The Etymological Structure of English Vocabulary.**

The native element	The borrowed element
I. Indo-European element II. Germanic element           III. English Proper element (no earlier than 5th c. A.D.)	I. Celtic (5th – 6th c. A.D.)           II. Latin 1st group: 1st c. B.C. 2nd group: 7th c. A.D. 3rd group: the Renaissance period   III. Scandinavian (8th – 11th c. A.D.)   IV. French 1. Norman borrowings: 11th – 13th c. A.D. 2. Parisian borrowings (Renaissance) V. Greek (Renaissance)

	VI. Italian (Renaissance and later) VII. Spanish (Renaissance and later) VIII. German IX. Indian X. Russian and some other groups
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[Source: Антрушина Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка: Учеб. пособие для студентов / Г.Б. Антрушина, О.В. Афанасьева, Н.Н. Морозова. — М.: Дрофа, 2004.— P.318]

Although borrowing has been a very rich source of new words in English, it is noteworthy that loan words are least common among the most frequently used vocabulary items. This reflects a general tendency for highly frequent words to be relatively resistant to loss or substitution (Table 3).

**Table 3 – Origin of the 5,000 most frequently used words in English.**

Degree of frequency	Source language (%)			
	English	French	Latin	Other
First 1,000	83	11	2	4
Second 1,000	34	46	11	9
Third 1,000	29	46	14	11
Fourth 1,000	27	45	17	11
Fifth 1,000	27	47	17	9

[Source: W. O'Grady. Contemporary Linguistics. P.318]

There are certain structural features which enable us to identify some words as borrowings and even to determine the source language. For example, the initial *sk* usually indicates Scandinavian origin. It is also possible to recognize words of Latin and French origin by certain suffixes, prefixes or endings. The two tables below can help in this (Table 4, Table 5).

**Table 4 – Latin Affixes.**

Nouns	The suffix <i>-ion</i>	communion, legion, opinion, session, union, etc.
	The suffix <i>-tion</i>	relation, revolution, starvation, temptation, unification, etc.
Verbs	The suffix <i>-ate</i> [eit]	appreciate, create, congratulate, etc.
	The suffix <i>-ute</i> [ju:t]	attribute, contribute, constitute, distribute, etc.

	The remnant suffix <i>-ct</i>	act, conduct, collect, connect, etc.
	The remnant suffix <i>-d (e)</i>	applaud, divide, exclude, include, etc.
	The prefix <i>dis-</i>	disable, distract, disown, disagree, etc.
Adjectives	The suffix <i>-able</i>	detestable, curable, etc.
	The suffix <i>-ate [it]</i>	accurate, desperate, graduate, etc.
	The suffix <i>-ant</i>	arrogant, constant, important, etc.
	The suffix <i>-ent</i>	absent, convenient, decent, evident, etc.
	The suffix <i>-or</i>	major, minor, junior, senior, etc.
	The suffix <i>-al</i>	cordial, final, fraternal, maternal, etc.
	The suffix <i>-ar</i>	lunar, solar, familiar, etc.

**Table 5 – French Affixes.**

Nouns	The suffix <i>-ance</i>	arrogance, endurance, hindrance, etc.
	The suffix <i>-ence</i>	consequence, intelligence, patience, etc.
	The suffix <i>-ment</i>	appointment, development, experiment, etc.
	The suffix <i>-age</i>	courage, marriage, passage, village, etc.
	The suffix <i>-ess</i>	tigress, lioness, actress, adventuress, etc.
Adjectives	The suffix <i>-ous</i>	curious, dangerous, joyous, serious, etc.
Verbs	The prefix <i>en-</i>	enable, endear, enact, enfold, enslave, etc.

Notes. 1. The tables represent only the most typical and frequent structural elements of Latin and French borrowings.

2. By remnant suffixes are meant the ones that are only partially preserved in the structure of the word (e.g. Lat. *-ct* < Lat. *-ctus*).

Borrowed words can be classified according to the aspect which is borrowed. All borrowings can be subdivided into the following groups:

- phonetic borrowings (table, chair, people);
- translation loans (Gospel, pipe of peace, masterpiece);
- semantic borrowings (pioneer);
- morphemic borrowings (beautiful, uncomfortable).

The historical survey above is far from complete. Its aim is just to give a very general idea of the ways in which English vocabulary developed and of the major events through which it acquired its vast modern resources.

#### 4. Three stages of assimilation

What happens to the words when they come into the language? Do they undergo certain changes?

Most of the borrowed words adjust themselves to their new environment and get adapted to the norms of the recipient language. They undergo certain changes which gradually erase their foreign features, and, finally, they are assimilated. Sometimes the process of assimilation develops to the point when the foreign origin of a word is quite unrecognizable. It is difficult to believe that such words as *dinner*, *cat*, *take*, *cup*, *travel*, *sport*, *street* are not English by origin. Others, though well assimilated, still bear traces of their foreign background. *Distance* and *development*, for instance, are identified as borrowings by their French suffixes, *skin* and *sky* by the Scandinavian initial *sk*, *police* and *regime* by the French stress on the last syllable. Partially assimilated words are *taiga*, *phenomena*, *police* and unassimilated words are *coup d'etat*, *tete-a-tete*, *ennui*, *eclat*.

Borrowed words are adjusted in the three main areas of the new language system: **the phonetic**, **the grammatical** and **the semantic**.

The lasting nature of **phonetic adaptation** is best shown by comparing Norman French borrowings to later ones. The Norman borrowings have for a long time been fully adapted to the phonetic system of the English language: such words as *table*, *plate*, *courage* bear no phonetic traces of their French origin. Some of the later (Parisian) borrowings still sound surprisingly French: *regime*, *valise* (саквояж, чемодан), *matinee*, *cafe*, *ballet*. In these cases phonetic adaptation is not completed.

**Grammatical adaptation** consists in a complete change of the former paradigm of the borrowed word (i.e. system of the grammatical forms peculiar to it as a part of speech). If it is a noun, it is certain to adopt a new system of declension; if it is a verb, it will be conjugated according to the rules of the recipient language. Yet, this is a lasting process. The Russian noun *пальто* was borrowed from French early in the 19th c. and has not yet acquired the Russian system of declension. The same can be said about such Renaissance borrowings as *datum* (pl. *data*), *phenomenon* (pl. *phenomena*) whereas earlier Latin borrowings such as *cup*, *plum*, *street*, *wall* were fully adapted to the grammatical system of the language long ago.

By **semantic adaptation** is meant adjustment to the system of meanings of the vocabulary. It has been mentioned that borrowing is generally caused either by the



necessity to fill a gap in the vocabulary or by a chance to add a synonym conveying an old concept in a new way. Yet, the process of borrowing is not always so purposeful, logical and efficient as it might seem at first sight. Sometimes a word may be borrowed for no obvious reason – there is no gap in the vocabulary nor in the group of synonyms. The adjective *gay* was borrowed from French in several meanings at once: *noble of birth, bright, shining, multi-coloured*. Rather soon it shifted its ground developing the meaning *joyful, high-spirited* in which sense it became a synonym of the native *merry*. This change was caused by the process of semantic adjustment: there was no place in the vocabulary for the former meanings of *gay*, but the group with the general meaning of *high spirits* obviously lacked certain shades which were supplied by *gay*.

### **5. International Words**

International words are defined as "words of identical origin that occur in several languages as a result of simultaneous or successive borrowings from one ultimate source" (I.V. Arnold, p. 260).

International words reflect the history of world culture, they convey notions which are significant in communication. New inventions, political institutions, foodstuffs, leisure activities, science, technological advances have all generated new lexemes and continue to do so: *sputnik, television, antenna, bionics, gene, cybernetics, bungalow, anaconda, coffee, chocolate, grapefruit*, etc.

Many of them are of Latin and Greek origin. Most names of sciences are international, e.g. *philosophy, mathematics, chemistry, biology, linguistics, lexicology*. There are also numerous terms of art in this group: *music, theatre, drama, artist*. Political terms also frequently occur in the international group of borrowings: *politics, policy, revolution, progress, communism*.

20th c. scientific and technological advances brought a great number of new international words: *atomic, radio, television, sputnik*. The latter is a Russian borrowing.

Fruits and foodstuffs imported from exotic countries often transport their names too and become international: *coffee, cocoa, chocolate, coca-cola, banana, mango*.

The English language also contributed a considerable number of international words to world languages. Among them the sports terms occupy a prominent position: *football, volley-ball, baseball, tennis, golf*, etc. International words are mainly borrowings.

### **6. Etymological Doublets**

Sometimes a word is borrowed twice into English. It has different forms and meanings in English. We have two separate words with the different spellings and meanings but historically they come back to one and the same word. For example, *catch* and *chase, goal* and *jail, quiet* and *quite*.

The words *shirt* and *skirt* etymologically descend from the same root. *Shirt* is a native word, and *skirt* is a Scandinavian borrowing. Their phonemic shape is different, and yet there is a certain resemblance which reflects their common origin. Their meanings are also different but easily associated: both denote articles of clothing (Table 6).

**Table 6 – Regular variation of sh- and sc-**

<b>shirt</b>	OE	whereas	<b>skirt</b>	are etymological
<b>shriek</b>	OE	their	<b>screech</b>	cognates,
<b>share</b>	OE	respective	<b>scar</b>	Scandinavian
<b>shabby</b>	OE	doublets	<b>scabby</b>	borrowings

Such words are called **etymological doublets**. These are words of the same etymological root but which came into the language by different ways:

1) One of the doublets is native, the other is borrowed:

*screw* (n) Scandinavian — *shrew* (n) English.

2) Both doublets may be borrowed from different languages, but these languages must be co-generic, for example:

*captain* (Latin) — *chieftain* (French);

*senior* (Latin) — *sir* (French);

*canal* (Latin) — *channel* (French).

3) Etymological doublets may be borrowed from the same language but in different historical periods, one word earlier, the second later:

*travel* (Norman borrowing) — *travail* (Parisian borrowing);

*corpse* (Norman borrowing) — *corps* (Parisian borrowing);

etymological triplets (i.e. groups of three words of common root):

*hospital* (Latin) — *hostel* (Norman French) — *hotel* (Parisian French);

*to capture* (Latin) – *to catch* (Norman French) – *to chase* (Parisian French). They occur rarer.

4) Both doublets are native, but one originates from the other. A doublet may also consist of a shortened word and the one from which it was derived:

*history* — *story*; *phantasy* — *fancy*; *defence* — *fence*, *shadow* — *shade*, *fantasy* – *fancy*, *fanatic* – *fan*.

Etymological doublets are typical of English.

### **7. Translation-loans**

The term loan-word is equivalent to borrowing. Translation-loans are borrowings of a special kind. They are not taken into the vocabulary of another language more or less in the same phonetic shape in which they have been functioning in their own language, but undergo the process of translation of each stem. It is quite obvious that it is only compound words which can be subjected to such an operation, each stem being translated separately: *masterpiece* (from German *Meisterstück*), *wonder child* (from German *Wunderkind*), *first dancer* (from Italian *prima-ballerina*), *collective farm* (from Russian *колхоз*).

### **8. Interrelations between etymological and stylistic characteristics of English words**

Is it possible to establish regular associations between any of the groups of etymological classification and the stylistic classification of English vocabulary? The answer must be in the affirmative.

It is quite natural to expect to find a considerable number of native words in the basic vocabulary, if we remember that the latter comprises words denoting essential objects and phenomena. Yet, one should keep in mind that among basic vocabulary words there are also rather numerous Latin and French borrowings. Words like *very*, *air*, *hour*, *cry*, *cat*, *pay*, *box*, *face*, *dress* are of foreign origin despite their native appearance and common use. So it would be correct to state that, though native words prevail in the basic vocabulary, this stratum also comprises a considerable number of old borrowings which have become so fully adapted to the English language system that they are practically indistinguishable from the native stock.

The centre of gravity of borrowed words in the stylistic classification is represented by two groups: learned words and terminology. In these strata the foreign element dominates the native. It also seems that the whole opposition of “formal versus informal” is based on the deeper underlying opposition of “borrowed versus native”, as the informal strata, especially slang and dialect, abound in native words.

Comparing the expressive and stylistic value of the French and the English words in such synonymic pairs as *to begin* – *to commence*, *to wish* – *to desire*, we can see that the French word is usually more formal.

The truth of this observation becomes more obvious if we regard certain pairs within which a native word may be compared with its Latin synonym: *motherly* – *maternal*, *fatherly* – *paternal*, *childish* — *infantile*, *daughterly* — *filial*, etc. *Motherly love* seems much warmer than *maternal feelings* — which sounds dutiful but cold. The word *childish* is associated with all the wonder and vivid poetry of the earliest human age whereas *infantile* is quite dry. You may speak about *childish games* and *childish charm*, but about *infantile diseases*, whereas *infantile mind* implies criticism.

It is interesting to note that a similar pair of words *sunny* — *solar* cannot even be regarded as synonyms though semantically they both pertain to the sun. Yet, if a fine day can be described as *sunny*, it certainly cannot be characterized by the word *solar* which is used in highly formal terminological senses (e. g. *solar energy*). The same is true about *handy* — *manual*, *toothy* (e. g. a *toothy grin*) — *dental* (term again), *nosy* (e. g. a *nosy kind of person*) — *nasal* (e. g. *nasal sounds, voice*).

## LECTURE 4. WORD STRUCTURE AND WORD FORMATION

### The questions under consideration

1. Morpheme. Allomorph
2. Word Structure
3. Immediate Constituents Analysis
4. Affixation
5. Conversion
6. Word-Composition
- 6.1. Properties of compounds
7. Other Types of Word Formation

### KEY TERMS

word-formation	It is the branch of lexicology that studies the derivative structure of existing words and the patterns on which a language builds new words.
morpheme	It is the smallest unit of language that carries information about meaning or function.
free morpheme	It is a morpheme that can be a word by itself.
bound morpheme	It is a morpheme that must be attached to another element.
allomorph	It is a positional variant of that or this morpheme occurring in a specific environment.
root	It is the morpheme that expresses the lexical meaning of the word.
prefix	It is an affix added before the root.
suffix	It is an affix added after the root.
base	It is the form to which an affix is added.
derivational suffix	It forms a new part of speech and can also change the meaning of the root.
inflection	It is a morpheme used to change grammar forms of the word.
simple word	It is a word consisting of one root morpheme and an inflexion.
root word	
derived word	It is a word consisting of one root morpheme, one or several affixes and an inflexion.
compound word	It is a word consisting of two or more root morphemes and an inflexion.
compound-derived word	It is a word consisting of two or more root morphemes, one or more affixes and an inflexion.
conversion	It is a process that assigns an already existing word to a new syntactic category. It is sometimes called zero derivation.
word-composition	It is the combination of two or more existing

back-formation disaffixation	words to create a new word. It is a process that creates a new word by removing a real or supposed affix from another word in the language.
blending	These are words that are created from parts of two already existing items, usually the first part of one and the final part of the other.
clipping	It is a process that shortens a polysyllabic word by deleting one or more syllables.
acronym	It is formed by taking the initial letters of the words in a phrase and pronouncing them as a word.
onomatopoeia	The formations of words from sounds that resemble those associated with the object or action to be named, or that seem suggestive of its qualities.

**Word-formation** is the branch of lexicology that studies the derivative structure of existing words and the patterns on which a language builds new words. It is a certain principle of classification of lexicon and one of the main ways of enriching the vocabulary.

Most English vocabulary arises by making new lexemes out of old ones — either by adding an affix to previously existing forms, altering their word class, or combining them to produce compounds.

Like any other linguistic phenomenon word-formation may be studied from two angles — synchronically and diachronically: synchronically we investigate the existing system of the types of word-formation while diachronically we are concerned with the history of word-formation.

### 1. Morpheme. Allomorph

The word is the fundamental unit of language, it has form and content. Linguists define the word as the smallest free form found in language. Words have an internal structure consisting of smaller units organized with respect to each other in a particular way. The most important component of word structure is the **morpheme** (Greek *morphe* "form" + *-eme* "the smallest distinctive unit") — the smallest unit of language that carries information about meaning or function. The word *builder*, for example, consists of two morphemes: *build* (with the meaning of "construct") and *-er* (which indicates that the entire word functions as a noun with the meaning "one who builds"). Similarly, the word *houses* is made up of the morphemes *house* (with the meaning of "dwelling") and *-s* (with the meaning "more than one"). Some words consist of a single morpheme. For example, the word *train* cannot be divided into smaller parts (say, *tr* and *ain* or *t* and *rain*) that carry information about its meaning or function. Such words are said to be simple words and are distinguished from complex words, which contain two or more morphemes.

One	Two	Three	More than three
and			
boy	boy-s		
hunt	hunt-er	hunt-er-s	
act	act-ive	act-iv-ate	re-act-iv-ate

It is important to keep in mind that a morpheme is neither a meaning nor a stretch of sound, but a meaning and a stretch of sound joined together. two-facet language units Morphemes are usually arbitrary — there is no natural connection between their sound and their meaning. Thus, morphemes are the smallest indivisible two-facet language units. They are not independent sense units as words or sentences are. They are always used as parts of words. Like a word a morpheme is a two-facet language unit, unlike a word a morpheme is not an autonomous unit and can occur in speech only as a constituent part of the word. It is the minimum meaningful language unit.

A morpheme that can be a word by itself is called a **free morpheme** whereas a morpheme that must be attached to another element is said to be **bound morpheme**. The morpheme *boy*, for example, is free, since it can be used as a word on its own; plural *-s*, on the other hand, is bound. Thus, structurally morphemes fall into free morphemes and bound morphemes. A free morpheme coincides with the stem or a word-form. Bound morpheme occurs only as a constituent part of a word (bound morphemes often signify borrowings). Affixes are bound morphemes, for they always make part of a word.

Morphemes do not always have an invariant form. Morphemes in various texts can have different phonemic shapes. All the representatives of the given morpheme are called **allomorphs** (from Greek *allos* "other") of that morpheme. The morpheme used to express indefiniteness in English, for instance, has two forms — *a* before a word that begins with a consonant and *an* before a word that begins with a vowel (*an orange, an accent, a car*). The variant forms of a morpheme are its allomorphs.

Another example of allomorphic variation is found in the pronunciation of the plural morpheme *-s* in the following words: *cats, dogs, judges*. Whereas the plural is /s/ in the first case, it is /z/ in the second, and /ɪz/ in the third. Selection of the proper allomorph is dependent on phonological facts.

Other examples of patterns in which a morpheme's form changes when it combines with another element are easy to find in English. The final segment in *assert*, for instance, is [t] when this morpheme stands alone as a separate word but [ʃ] when it combines with the morpheme *-ion* in the word *assertion*. Similar alternations are found in words such as *permit/permis-sive, include/inclus-ive, electric/electric-ity, impress/impress-ion*.

*Catastrophe* consists of the two morphemes having different forms; each morpheme has two allomorphs and they occur in particular combinations. Consider the allomorphic contrasts in *halfpenny* and *twopence, poor* and *poverty, autumn* and *autumnal, divide* and *divisible, profane* and *profanity, serene* and *serenity, receive* and

*receptive* and so on. Thus, an **allomorph** is a positional variant of that or this morpheme occurring in a specific environment.

## 2. Word Structure

In order to represent the morphological structure of words, it is necessary to identify each of the component morphemes. Words that can be divided have two or more parts: a core called a **root** and one or more parts added to it. The parts are called **affixes** — "something fixed or attached to something else." The root is the morpheme that expresses the lexical meaning of the word, for example: *teach* — *teacher* — *teaching*. Affixes are morphemes that modify the meaning of the root. An affix added before the root is called a **prefix** (un-ending); an affix added after the root is called a **suffix**. A word may have one or more affixes of either kind, or several of both kinds. For example:

Prefix	Root	Suffix(es)	Example
un-	work	-able	unworkable
	govern	-ment	government
	fright	-en, -ing	frightening
re-	play		replay
	kind	-ness	kindness

Complex words typically consist of a root morpheme and one or more affixes. A root constitutes the core of the word and carries the major component of its meaning. To find the root, you have to remove any affix there may be, for example, the root *-morph-*, meaning "form", remains after we remove the affixes *a-* and *-ous* from *amorphous*. Roots have more specific and definite meaning than prefixes or suffixes, for example Latin root *-aqua-* means "water" (*aquarium*), *-cent-* means "hundred" (*centennial*), Greek *-neo-* means "new" (*neologism*), etc.

Roots belong to a lexical category, such as noun (N), verb (V), adjective (A), or preposition (P). Nouns typically refer to concrete and abstract things (*door*, *intelligence*); verbs tend to denote actions (*stop*, *read*); adjectives usually name properties (*kind*, *blue*); and prepositions encode spatial relations (*in*, *near*). Unlike roots, affixes do not belong to a lexical category and are always bound morphemes. For example, the affix *-er* is a bound morpheme that combines with a verb such as *teach*, giving a noun with the meaning "one who teaches".

A **base** is the form to which an affix is added. In many cases, the base is also the root. In *books*, for example, the element to which the affix *-s* is added corresponds to the word's root. In other cases, however, the base can be larger than a root. This happens in words such as *blackened*, in which the past tense affix *-ed* is added to the verbal base *blacken* — a unit consisting of the root morpheme *black* and the suffix *-en*. **Black** is not only the root for the entire word but also the base for *-en*. The unit *blacken*, on the other hand, is simply the base for *-ed*.

One should distinguish between suffixes and inflections in English. Suffixes can form a new part of speech, e.g.: *beauty* — *beautiful*. They can also change the meaning of the root,

e.g.: black — *blackish*. Inflections are morphemes used to change grammar forms of the word, e.g.: work — works — worked—*working*. English is not a highly inflected language.

Depending on the morphemes used in the word there are four structural types of words in English:

1) simple (root) words consist of one root morpheme and an inflexion (*boy, warm, law, tables, tenth*);

2) derived words consist of one root morpheme, one or several affixes and an inflexion (*unmanageable, lawful*);

3) compound words consist of two or more root morphemes and an inflexion (*boyfriend, outlaw*);

4) compound-derived words consist of two or more root morphemes, one or more affixes and an inflexion (*left-handed, warm-hearted, blue-eyed*).

In conformity with structural types of words it's possible to distinguish two main types of word-formation: **word-derivation** (*encouragement, irresistible, worker*) and **word-composition** (*blackboard, daydream, weekend*).

Within these types further distinction may be made between the ways of forming words:

WORD FORMATION			
Word Derivation			Word Composition
Affixation	Conversion	Derivational Composition	Derivational Composition

The basic ways of forming words in word-derivation are affixation (*feminist, pseudonym*) and conversion (*water — to water, to run — a run, slim — to slim*). The importance of these processes of construction to the development of the lexicon is second to none. They are used in a complex and productive way. Word-formation has all the rights to be called the grammar of lexicon.

### 3. Immediate Constituents Analysis

The theory of Immediate Constituents (I.C.) was originally set forth by L. Bloomfield as an attempt to determine the ways in which lexical units are related to one another. This kind of analysis is used in lexicology mainly to discover the derivational structure of lexical units.

Immediate constituents are any of the two meaningful parts of a word. The main constituents are an affix and a stem. For example, L. Bloomfield analyzed the word *ungentlemanly*. It consists of a negative prefix *un-* + *an adjective stem*. First we separate a free and a bound forms; *un-* + *gentlemanly* and *gentleman* + *-ly*. Then we break the word *gentleman*: *gentle* + *man*. At any level we obtain only two ICs, one of which is a stem, and, as a result, we get the formula: *un* + (*gentle* + *man*) + *ly*.

The adjective *eatable* consists of two ICs *eat* + *able* and may be described as a suffixal derivative, the adjective *uneatable* however possesses a different structure: the two ICs are *un* + *eatable* which shows that this adjective is a prefixal derivative though the unit has both a prefix and a suffix.



S. S. Khidekel describes numerous cases when identical morphemic structure of different words may be insufficient proof of their identical pattern of word formation structure, which can be revealed only by I.C. analysis. Thus, comparing *snow-covered* and *blue-eyed* we observe that both words contain two root morphemes and one derivational morpheme. I.C. analysis shows that whereas *snow-covered* may be considered a compound consisting of two stems *snow* + *covered*, *blue-eyed* is a suffixal derivative as the underlying structure is different: (*blue* + *eye*) + *ed*.

Thus I.C. analysis is used in lexicological investigations to discover the word-formation structure.

#### 4. Affixation

Affixation — the addition of an affix — is a basic means of forming words in English. It has been productive in all periods of the history of English. Linguists distinguish among three types of affixes. An affix that is attached to the front of its base is called a prefix, whereas an affix that is attached to the end of its base is termed a suffix. Both types of affix occur in English. Far less common than prefixes and suffixes are infixes — a type of affix that occurs within a base of a word to express such notions as tense, number, or gender. English has no system of infixes, though many languages make great use of infixes.

Affixation is divided into suffixation and prefixation. In Modern English, suffixation is characteristic of noun and adjective formation, while prefixation is typical of verb formation. As a rule, prefixes modify the lexical meaning of stems to which they are added. The prefixal derivative usually joins the part of speech the unprefixated word belongs to, e.g. *usual* /*un* — *usual*. In a suffixal derivative the suffix does not only modify the lexical meaning of the stem it is added to, but the word itself is usually transferred to another part of speech, e.g. *care* (*n*) / *care* — *less* (*adj*).

Suffixes and prefixes may be classified along different lines. The logical classification of suffixes is according to:

1. their origin: Romanic (e.g. *-age*, *-ment*, *-tion*), Native (*-er*, *-dom*, *-ship*), Greek (*-ism*, *-ize*), etc,
2. meaning, e.g./*-er* denotes the agent of the action, *-ess* denotes feminine gender, *-ence/ance* has abstract meaning, *-ie* and *-let* express diminutiveness, *-age*, *-dom* — collectivity, *-an*, *-ese*, *-ian* — appurtenance, etc.;
3. part of speech they form, e.g. noun suffixes *-er*, *-ness*, *-ment*; adjective-forming suffixes *-ish*, *-ful*, *-less*, *-y*; verb-suffixes *-en*, *-fy*, etc.;
4. productivity, i.e. the relative freedom with which they can combine with bases of the appropriate category, e.g. productive suffixes are *-er*, *-ly*, *-ness*, *-ie*, *-let*, non-productive (*-dom*, *-th*) and semi-productive (*-eer*, *-ward*).

Since suffixes determine the part of speech of words, we classify them according to parts of speech. The meanings given for the suffixes are very broad, and often they have little connection with the meaning of the resulting word.

Some English derivational suffixes		
Suffix	Meaning	Examples
NOUN		

<i>Old English</i>		
-dom	state, rank, condition	freedom, kingdom
-er	doer	writer
-ness	quality, state	happiness, softness
<i>Foreign (Latin, French, Greek)</i>		
-ence	act, condition, fact	evidence
-ess	feminine	lioness
-ment	means, result, action	amazement, treatment
-y	result, action, quality	jealousy, inquiry
<b>ADJECTIVE</b>		
<i>Old English</i>		
-ful	like, full of	thankful, hopeful
-ish	similar, like	childish
-y	suggesting	sticky
<i>Foreign</i>		
-able	likely, having	understandable, affable
-ate	showing, becoming	separate
-ous	given to	religious
<b>ADJECTIVE OR NOUN SUFFIXES</b>		
-al	doer, pertaining to one	rival, autumnal
-an	belonging to	European, human
-ant	agent, showing	defendant, observant
-ic	style, pertaining to	classic, optimistic
-ive	one belonging to doing	detective, impressive
<b>VERB</b>		
<i>Old English</i>		
-en	cause, become	darken
<i>Foreign</i>		
-ate	become, form	animate
-fy	make, cause	glorify
-ish	do, make, perform	punish, finish
-ize	make, cause to be	nationalize

As prefixes are indifferent to parts of speech they are characterized according to

- their origin: Native, e.g. *un-*; Romanic, e.g. *in-*; Greek, e.g. *sym-*;
- meaning, e.g. negative prefixes *in-*, *un-*, *non-*, *a-*, *dis-*; prefixes of time and order *ex-*, *neo-*, *after-*, *fore-*, *post-*, *proto-*; prefix of repetition *re-*; reversal

prefixes *de-*, *un-*, *dis-*; locative prefixes, such as *extra-*, *pan-*, *super-*, *sub-*, *trans-*; size and degree: *hyper-*, *mega-*, *mini-*, *super-*, *sur-*, *ultra-*, *vice-*, etc.;

c) productivity, i.e. the ability to make new words: e.g. *un-* is highly productive.

Some English derivational prefixes		
Prefix	Meaning	Examples
<i>Old English</i>		
a-	in, on, of, up	asleep, abroad
be-	away, about	behead
for-	off, from	forget
miss-	badly, not	misspell
un-	not, opposing	unhappy
<i>Latin and Latin- French,</i>		
ab-	from, away	absent
bi-	two, twice	bimonthly
de-	away, from	defect
dis-, dif-	off, opposing	disobey, differ
ex-	away from, out	ex-wife
re-	again	redo
super-	over, extra	supervise
trans-	across, beyond	transport
ultra-	beyond	ultramodern

The main function of prefixes is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech. However in Modern English there are prefixes that form one part of speech from another, e.g. *en-* (*endanger*), *be-* forms verbs from adjective, verb and noun stems (*belittle*, *behead*, *befriend*), the prefix *a-* forms statives (*asleep*, *apart*, *aboard*, *ajar*).

To sum it up, affixation (prefixation and suffixation) is the formation of words by adding derivational affixes (prefixes and suffixes) to stems. There are a number of polysemantic, synonymous and homonymous affixes in English. The essential difference between suffixation and prefixation lies in the fact that the former is closely bound up with a certain part of speech, whereas the latter is, as a general rule, neutral to the distinctions between different parts of speech. Classifications of derivational affixes are based on different principles.

### 5. Conversion

The term "conversion" refers to the numerous cases of phonetic identity of word-forms primarily the so-called initial forms of two words belonging to different parts of speech. Let us consider the following examples:

*He was knocked out in the first **round**.*

***Round** the number off to the nearest tenth.*

*The neighbors gathered **round** our barbecue.*

*The moon was bright and **round**.*

*People came from all the country **round**.*

In each sentence *round* is used as different part of speech — noun, verb, preposition, adjective, and adverb. Lexemes are made without the addition of an affix. The items produced in this way are especially the verbs which come from nouns (*to bicycle, to oil, to milk, to bottle*) and the nouns which come from verbs (*a swim, a doubt, a hit*). This process is called **conversion** and it dates back to the Middle English period.

**Conversion** is a process that assigns an already existing word to a new syntactic category. Even though it does not add an affix, conversion is often considered to be a type of derivation because of the change in category and meaning that it brings about. For this reason, it is sometimes called **zero derivation**.

Conversion has been the subject of linguistic discussions since 1891 when H. Sweet used this term in his *New English Grammar*. Various opinions have been expressed on the nature and character of conversion. Prof. Smirnitsky A. I. in his works on the English language treats conversion as a morphological way of forming words, where a word is transferred from one paradigm to another, and it is the paradigm that is used as a word-forming means. Hence, we may define conversion as the formation of a new word through changes in its paradigm. As a paradigm is a morphological category, conversion may be described as a morphological way of forming words.

Other linguists (H. Marchand, V.N. Yartseva, Yu.A. Zhluktenko, A.Y. Zagoruiko, I.V. Arnold) treat conversion as a combined morphological and syntactic way of word-building, as a new word appears not in isolation but in a definite environment of other words, and it involves both a change of the paradigm and a change of the syntactic function, i.e. distribution, of the word. There is also a purely syntactic approach known as a functional approach to conversion.

The three most common types of conversion in English are verbs derived from nouns (*to butter, to ship*), nouns derived from verbs (*a survey, a call*), and verbs derived from adjectives (*to empty*). Less common types of conversion can yield nouns from adjectives (*a bitter, the poor, a final*), from phrases, e.g. *a down-and-out*, from affixes, e.g. *socialism, ologies and isms*, and verbs from prepositions (*up the price*).

Conversion is usually restricted to words containing a single morpheme, although there are a few exceptions such as *referee* (noun and verb), and *dirty* (adjective and verb); in some cases, conversion can even apply to compounds.

There are two indisputable cases of conversion:

- (1) formation of verbs from nouns and more rarely from other parts of speech;
- (2) formation of nouns from verbs and rarely from other parts of speech.

Opinions differ on the possibility of creating adjectives from nouns through conversion (the so-called "stone wall" complexes). We shall consider the indisputable cases, i.e. deverbal substantives and denominal verbs.

There are different semantic groups of converted words that are characterized by different semantic relations. Verbs converted from nouns (denominal verbs) may denote:

- (a) instrumental use of the object, e.g. *screw* — *to screw*, *eye* — *to eye*;
- (b) action characteristic of the object, e.g. *ape* — *to ape*;
- (c) acquisition: *fish* — *to fish*;
- (d) deprivation of the object, e.g. *dust* — *to dust*.

2. Nouns converted from verbs (deverbal substantives) denote:

- (a) instance of an action, e.g. *to move* — *a move*;
- (b) word — agent of an action, e.g. *to bore* — *a bore*;
- (c) place of an action, e.g. *to walk* — *a walk*;

(d) result of the action, e.g. *to cut* — *a cut*. Conversion is a productive way of forming words in English.

## 6. Word-Composition

Word-composition — the combination of two or more existing words to create a new word — is one of the most common and important word-building processes in English. It plays a central role in word formation in many languages. A compound is a unit of vocabulary that consists of more than one lexical stem, e.g. *campsite* (N+N), *bluebird* (A+N), *whitewash* (A+V), *in-laws* (P+N), *jumpsuit* (V+N). With very few exceptions, the resulting compound word is a noun, a verb, or an adjective. In most compounds the rightmost morpheme determines the category of the entire word, e.g. *greenhouse* is a noun because its rightmost component is a noun, *spoonfeed* is a verb because feed also belongs to this category, and *nationwide* is an adjective just as *wide* is. The morpheme that determines the category of the entire word is called the *head*.

### 6.1. Properties of compounds

Compounds in English can be written differently: they are sometimes written as single words, sometimes with an intervening hyphen, and sometimes as separate words. English orthography is not consistent in representing compounds. In terms of pronunciation, however, there is an important generalization to be made. In particular, adjective-noun compounds are characterized by a more prominent stress on their first component. In noncompounds consisting of an adjective and a noun, in contrast, the second element is generally stressed (cf. a compound word *greenhouse* "a glass-enclosed garden" and an expression *green house* "a house painted green").

A second distinguishing feature of compounds in English is that tense and plural markers cannot typically be attached to the first element, although they can be added to the compound as a whole (there are some exceptions, however, such as *passers-by* and *parks supervisor*).

Compounds are used to express a wide range of meaning relationships in English.

In most cases, a compound denotes a subtype of the concept denoted by its head. Thus, *cat food* is a type of food, *sky blue* is a type of blue, and so on. Such compounds are called **endocentric** compounds (*airplane*, *steamboat*, *policeman*, *bath towel*). In a smaller number of cases, however, the meaning of the compound does not follow from the meanings of its parts in this way. Thus, a *redneck* is a person and not a type

of neck; *walkman* is a type of portable radio. Such compounds are said to be **exocentric** compounds.

Compound words may be described from different points of view and consequently may be classified according to different principles:

**1) of the parts of speech compound words represent:**

- (a) nouns: *night-gown, waterfall, looking-glass*;
- (b) verbs: *to honeymoon, to outgrow*;
- (c) adjectives: *peace-loving, hard-working, pennywise*;
- (d) adverbs: *downstairs, lip-deep*;
- (e) prepositions: *within, into, onto*;
- (f) numerals: *thirty-seven*;

**2) of the means of composition used to link the two ICs together:**

(a) neutral — formed by joining together two stems without connecting elements (juxtaposition), e.g. *scarecrow, goldfish, crybaby*;

(b) morphological — components are joined by a linking element, i.e. vowels ‘o’ and ‘i’ or the consonant ‘s’, e.g. *videophone, tragicomic, handicraft, craftsman, microchip*;

(c) syntactical — the components are joined by means of form-word stems, e.g. *man-of-war, forget-me-not, bread-and-butter, face-to-face*;

**3) of degree of semantic independence of components:**

(a) subordinative compounds (often termed determinative) where one of the components is the semantic centre and the structural centre and the second component is subordinate, and the subordinative relations can be

- comparative (*world-wide, snow-white*);
- instrumental or agentive relations (*sunrise, dogbite*);
- relations of purpose (*bookshelf*);
- emphatic relations (*dead-cheap*);
- functional relations (*bathrobe, textbook*);
- sex relations (*he-goat*);
- various relations of adverbial type (*colour-blind*), etc.

Subordinative compounds make the bulk of English compound words;

(b) coordinative compounds (copulative or additive) where both components are semantically equally important fall into three groups:

—reduplicative compounds made up by the repetition of the same base, e.g. *goody-goody, go-go*;

—compounds formed with the help of rhythmic stems, e.g. *a walkie-talkie, boogie-woogie, chit-chat*;

additive compounds are built on stems of the independently functioning words of the same part of speech. They denote a person or an object that is two things at the same time, e.g. *Afro-American, a secretary-stenographer*,

**5) of the order of ICs compounds may be:**

(a) syntactic — formed by merely placing components in direct order that resembles the order of words in free phrases, e.g. *blacklist, handcuffs, a turnkey*;

(b) asyntactic are compounds with indirect order (the order of bases runs counter to the order in which the motivating words can be brought together), e.g. *oil-rich, rain-*

*driven;*

**6) of their structure:**

(a) compounds proper are formed by joining together two stems, e.g. *film-star*, *earthquake*;

(b) compound-derived words (stem + affixes), e.g. *long-legged*, *broad-minded*, *globe-trotter*, *a two-seater*,

(c) compound-shortened words, e.g. *h-bag*, *A-bomb*;

(d) compounds where at least one of the constituents is a compound stem: *wastepaper-basket*;

**7) of the correlative relations with the system of free word-groups:**

(a) non-idiomatic, if the meaning of the whole is the sum total of the meanings of the components, e.g. *flower-bed*, *homeland*;

(b) idiomatic compounds are different in meaning from the corresponding free phrases, e.g. *a night-cap* — "a drink taken before going to bed at night", *butterfingers* — "a person who is likely to let things fall or slip through his fingers".

**7. Other Types of Word Formation**

Affixation, compounding, and conversion are the three major types of word-formation. They play a crucial role in the formation of new words in English. Apart from these a number of other ways of forming words are referred to word formation, such as:

— **back-formation** or **disaffixation** (*baby-sitter* — *to baby-sit*). Back-formation is a process that creates a new word by removing a real or supposed affix from another word in the language. *Resurrect* was originally formed in this way from *resurrection*, *enthuse* from *enthusiasm*, *donate* from *donation*, *orient* or *orientate* from *orientation*, and *self-destruct* from *self-destruction*. Words that end in *-or* or *-er* have proven susceptible to back-formation in English. Because hundreds of such words are the result of affixation (*runner*, *walker*, *singer*, etc.), any word with this shape is likely to be perceived as a verb + *er* combination. The words *editor*, *peddler*, and *swindler* were misanalyzed. The result was the creation of the verbs *edit*, *peddle*, and *swindle*. Back-formation continues to produce new words in modern English, for instance, the form *attrit* was formed from *attrition*, the verb *lase* from *laser*, *liposuct* from *liposuction*;

— **sound interchange** (*speak* — *speech*, *blood* — *bleed*), and **sound imitation** (*walkie-talkie*, *brag rags*, *to giggle*);

— **distinctive change** ('conduct — to con 'duct, 'increase — to in crease, 'subject — to subject);

— **blending**: these are words that are created from parts of two already existing items, usually the first part of one and the final part of the other: *brunch* from *breakfast* and *lunch*, *smog* from *smoke* and *fog*, *spam* from *spiced* and *ham*, *chunnel* (for the underwater link between Britain and the continent) from *channel* and *tunnel*, and *infomercial* from *information* and *commercial*. Some blends have become so integrated into the standard vocabulary of English that speakers are unaware of their status, for example, *motel* from *motor* and *hotel*, *bit* (in computer jargon) from *binary* and *digit*, *modem* from *modulator* and *demodulator*. Sometimes a word is formed by a process that is on the borderline between compounding and blending. It combines all

of one word with part of another, e.g. workaholic, medicare, Eurotunnel, slangvge, guesstimate;

—**clipping** is a process that shortens a polysyllabic word by deleting one or more syllables: prof for professor, burger for hamburger. The word zoo, for instance, was formed from zoological garden; fax was formed from facsimile (meaning "exact copy or reproduction"). Some of the most common products of clipping are names — Liz, Bob, Sue, and so on. Many clipped forms have been accepted in general usage: bike, phone, specs, fancy, doc, ad, auto, lab, sub, deli, condo;

—**acronymy**: NATO, NASA, WAC, UNESCO. Acronyms are formed by taking the initial letters of the words in a phrase and pronouncing them as a word. This type of word formation is especially common in names of organizations and in terminology. NASA stands for National Aeronautics and Space Administration, NATO — North Atlantic Treaty Organization, NOAA — National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration. AIDS stands for acquired immune deficiency syndrome. Such commonly used words as radar (from radio detecting and ranging), and laser (light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation) originated as acronyms;

—**onomatopoeia**, i.e. formations of words from sounds that resemble those associated with the object or action to be named, or that seem suggestive of its qualities. Examples of such onomatopoeic words in English include *hiss*, *buzz*, *meow*, *cock-a-doodle-doo*, and *cuckoo*.



## LECTURE 5. WORD AND ITS MEANING

### The questions under consideration

1. Semantics (Semasiology)
2. Problems of word-meaning
3. Types of meaning
  - 3.1. grammatical
  - 3.2. lexico-grammatical
  - 3.3. lexical
    - 3.3.1. denotational component
    - 3.3.2. connotational component
  - 3.4. types of connotation
    - 3.4.1 stylistic
    - 3.4.2 emotional
    - 3.4.3 evaluative
    - 3.4.4 intensifying
4. Change of meaning
  - 4.1. Causes of semantic changes
  - 4.2. Nature of semantic changes
  - 4.3. Results of semantic changes

### KEY TERMS

semantics semasiology	The separate branch of linguistics studying the meaning in human language.
grammatical meaning	It is the component of meaning in identical sets of individual forms of different words ( <i>asked, thought, walked, etc.</i> ) or ( <i>books, intentions, etc.</i> ).
lexico-grammatical meaning	It is the common meaning of words. It is the feature according to which words are grouped together. ( <i>part-of-speech meaning</i> )
lexical meaning	It is the component of meaning proper to the given linguistic unit in all its forms and distributions. ( <i>go, goes, went, gone</i> )
denotational component	It is the component of lexical meaning of a word. It expresses the conceptual content of a word. It is present in every word and may be regarded as the central factor in the functioning of the language.
connotational component	It is the component of lexical meaning of a word. It expresses the pragmatic communicative value the word receives depending on where, when, how, by whom, for what purpose and in what contexts it is used. This component is optional.
stylistic	It is a type of connotation. It concerns the situation in which the word is uttered (formal,

	familiar, etc.), the social relationships between the interlocutors (polite, rough), the purpose of communication (poetic, official) e.g., <i>parent - father - dad</i>
emotional	It is a type of connotation. It is expressed by the word, for example, in the synonyms ( <i>large, big, tremendous</i> and <i>like, love, worship</i> )
evaluative	It is a type of connotation. It expresses approval or disapproval, e.g., <i>clique - group, magic - witchcraft</i> .
intensifying	It is a type of connotation. It is emphatic, expressing, for example, exaggeration ( <i>magnificent, splendid, superb</i> ).
extra-linguistic	They are causes of semantic changes in the meaning of a word: changes in social life of a community, resulting in the appearance of new words ( <i>sputnik</i> ); change of things the names of which are retained ( <i>car = a four-wheeled wago, car = a motor-car</i> ); terminological use of words where words acquire a new sense, e.g., <i>black box</i> was a term of aviation and electrical engineering, now it is used figuratively to denote any mechanism performing any intricate functions.
linguistic causes	They are causes of semantic changes in the meaning of a word. They act within the language system, may be of paradigmatic (discrimination of synonyms <i>time</i> and <i>tide</i> ) and syntagmatic character (ellipsis <i>to starve = to die</i> → <i>to die of hunger</i> ).
metaphor	It is a semantic process of associating two things, one of which in some way resembles the other. It is a transfer of name based on the association of similarity, it is actually a hidden comparison.
metonymy	It is a semantic process of associating two things one of which makes part of the other or is closely connected with it. It is a transfer of name based on substituting the part for the whole.
synecdoche	It is the simplest case of metonymy by which it is meant giving the part for the whole or vice versa.
hyperbole	It is an exaggerated statement not meant to be understood literally but expressing emotional attitude of the speaker to what he is speaking about.

irony	It is the expression of one's meaning by words of opposite sense.
euphemism	It refers to something unpleasant by using milder words.
restriction of meaning	It is a process when a word of wide meaning acquires a narrower sense in which it only denotes some of the objects which it previously denoted.
specialization of meaning	The usage of a word with the new meaning in the specialized vocabulary of some professional group.
extension of meaning	It is the application of the word to a wider variety of referents.
amelioration	It is a process when words arise from humble beginnings to position of greater importance.
pejoration degradation of meaning	It is a process that involves a lowering in social scale, the acquisition by the word of some derogatory emotive charge.
referential	It is an approach to studying word-meanings. According to this approach word-meanings are studied through establishing the interrelations between words and concepts which they denote.
functional	It is an approach to studying word-meanings. According to this approach word-meanings are studied through the observations of the functions of a word in speech.

### 1. Semantics (Semasiology)

The separate branch of linguistics studying the meaning in human language is called **semantics** or semasiology. The term semantics was first used to refer to the development and change of meaning. It is originated from Greek word "semantikos " meaning "significant". It is the study of meanings — dealing with the relationship between symbols (words, signs, etc.) and what they refer to (called 'referents') — and of behavior in reaction to non-verbal symbols and verbal symbols (words). "Verbal" language is any spoken or written form of communication which is heard or read and which uses words as symbols.

The term semasiology was introduced into linguistic studies in 1825 when the classical scholar C Reisig in his university lecture on Latin philology set up a new division of grammar (semasiology, etymology and syntax). He regarded semasiology as a historical discipline that should establish the principles of governing the development of meaning.

Several decades later, in 1883 Michel Breal — the French philologist — published an article on what he called "intellectual laws" of language in which he argued that there ought to be a science of meaning which he proposed to call

semasiology. In 1897 he published his book which soon spread to other languages and three years later in 1900 after its publication was translated into English under the title: Semantics: Studies in the Science of Meaning.

Another famous book on semantics is "The meaning of meaning" by C. K. Ogden and I. A. Richards published in 1923.

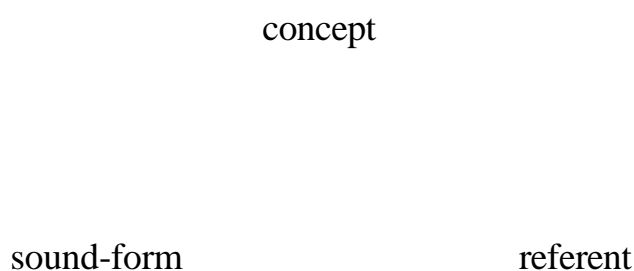
## 2. Problems of word-meaning

The word as any linguistic sign is a two-facet unit possessing both form and content or, to be more exact, sound form and meaning. Neither can exist without the other.

Word meaning is one of the controversial terms in linguistics. There had been many attempts to give a definition of word meaning in accordance with the main principles of different linguistic schools. In our country the definitions of meaning given by various authors, though different in detail, agree in the basic principle; the lexical meaning is the realization of concept (or notion) by means of a definite language system.

In modern linguistics word-meanings are studied from different angles of view: a) through establishing the interrelations between words and concepts which they denote - the so-called **referential approach**; b) through the observations of the functions of a word in speech - the **functional approach**.

The essential feature of **referential** approach is that it distinguishes between the three components closely connected with meaning: the sound-form of the linguistic sign, the concept underlying this sound-form, and the actual referent, i.e. that part of reality to which the linguistic sign refers. The best known referential model of meaning is the so-called "basic triangle". In a simplified form this triangle may be represented as follows:



Originally this triangular scheme was suggested by the German mathematician and philosopher Gotlieb Frege. Well-known English scholars O.K. Ogden and I.A. Richards adopted this three-cornered pattern with considerable modifications.

As can be seen from the diagram, a sign is a two-facet unit comprising form and concept. Thus, the sound-form of the linguistic sign is connected with our concept of the thing which it denotes and through it with the **referent**, i.e. **the actual thing**. The

common feature of any referential approach is the implication that meaning is in some form or other connected with referent.

To distinguish meaning from the referent is of the utmost importance. To begin with, meaning is linguistic, whereas the referent, or the denoted object, belongs to extra-linguistic reality. Then, we can denote one and the same object by more than one word of a different meaning. Last but not least, there are words that have distinct meanings but do not refer to any existing thing, e.g. *angel, phoenix*.

Some advocates of the referential approach identify meaning with sound-form, concept and referent. Meaning of the word is closely connected but not identical with sound-form, concept and referent. It is an objectively existing part of the linguistic sign.

The criticism of the referential theories of meaning may be briefly summarized as follows: a) meaning, as understood in the referential approach, comprises the interrelation of linguistic sign with categories and phenomena outside the scope of language) b) the mentalistic approach to meaning oversimplifies the problem because it takes into consideration only the referential function of words. Actually, however, all the pragmatic functions of language - communicative, emotive, esthetic, etc. - are also relevant and have to be accounted for in semasiology.

The **functional** approach maintains that the meaning of a linguistic unit may be studied only through its relation to other linguistic units. e.g., we know that the meaning of the two words *move* and *movement* is different because they function in speech differently. Comparing the contexts in which we find these words we observe that they occupy different positions in relation to other words: *move the chair, we move - movement of smth, slow movement*. As the distribution of the two words is different, we come to the conclusion that not only do they belong to different classes of words but that their meanings are different too.

It follows that in the functional approach meaning is understood essentially as the function of the use of linguistic units. Functional approach should not be considered an alternative, but rather a valuable complement to the referential theory. There is no need to set two approaches against each other: neither is complete without the other.

### 3. Types of meaning

Word-meaning is not homogeneous but is made up of various components, or types of meaning. They are as follows.

The **grammatical** meaning is the component of meaning in identical sets of individual forms of different words, as e.g., the tense-meaning in the word-forms of verbs (*asked, thought, walked, etc.*) or the meaning of plurality (*books, intentions, etc.*).

The **lexico-grammatical** meaning (part-of-speech meaning) is the common meaning of words belonging to a lexico-grammatical class of words, it is the feature according to which they are grouped together. The interrelation of the lexical and the grammatical meaning varies in different word-classes. In some parts of speech the prevailing component is the grammatical type of meaning (e.g., **in prepositions**), in others - the lexical (e.g., in *nouns, verbs, etc.*).

The **lexical** meaning is the component of meaning proper to the given linguistic unit in all its forms and distributions. e.g., in the forms *go, goes, went, gone* we find

one and the same semantic component denoting the process of movement. Both the lexical and the grammatical meaning make up the word-meaning as neither can exist without the other.

Lexical meaning is not homogeneous either, it includes denotational and connotational components.

The **denotational** component of lexical meaning expresses the conceptual content of a word. Fulfilling the significative and the communicative functions of the word, it is present in every word and may be regarded as the central factor in the functioning of the language.

The **connotational** component of lexical meaning expresses the pragmatic communicative value the word receives depending on where, when, how, by whom, for what purpose and in what contexts it is used. Unlike the denotational component, the connotational component is optional.

There are **four main types of connotation**. They are **stylistic, emotional, evaluative and expressive, or intensifying**.

When associations concern the situation in which the word is uttered (formal, familiar, etc.), the social relationships between the interlocutors (polite, rough), the purpose of communication (poetic, official), the connotation is **stylistic**. e.g., *parent* (bookish) - *father* (neutral) - *dad* (colloquial).

An **emotional** connotation is acquired by the word because the referent named in the denotative meaning is associated with emotions. In the synonyms, e.g., *large, big, tremendous* and *like, love, worship* the emotive charge of the words *tremendous* and *worship* is heavier than that of the other words.

An **evaluative** connotation expresses approval or disapproval, e.g., *clique - group, magic - witchcraft*.

A fourth type of connotation is the **intensifying** connotation (also expressive, emphatic). Thus, *magnificent, splendid, superb* are all used colloquially as terms of exaggeration.

#### **4. Change of meaning**

Different changes of word meaning can be classified according to the **social causes** that bring about change of meaning (socio-linguistic classification), the **nature of these changes** (psychological classification), and the **results of semantic changes** (logical classification). Causes, nature and results of semantic changes should be viewed as three essentially different but inseparable aspects of one and the same linguistic phenomenon as any change of meaning may be investigated from the point of view of its cause, nature and its consequences.

##### **4.1. Causes of semantic changes**

The causes of semantic changes may be subdivided into two groups:

- a) extra-linguistic and
- b) linguistic.

**Extra-linguistic causes** of semantic changes are:

1) changes in social life of a community, resulting in the appearance of new words, e.g., *sputnik, lunokhod, computer, spaceship*;

2) change of things the names of which are retained, e.g., the word *car* from Latin *carrue* which meant *a four-wheeled wagon*, but now it denotes *a motor-car, a railway carriage*;

3) terminological use of words where words acquire a new sense, e.g., *black box* was a term of aviation and electrical engineering, now it is used figuratively to denote any mechanism performing any intricate functions.

**Linguistic causes**, i.e. factors acting within the language system, may be of paradigmatic and syntagmatic character. The commonest form of the syntagmatic semantic changes depending on the context is **ellipsis**. In a phrase made up of two words one of these is omitted and its meaning is transferred to its partner,

e.g., the verb *to starve* had the meaning *to die* and was used with the word *hunger* (ME *sterven of hunger*). Already in the 16th century the verb itself acquired the meaning *to die of hunger*. Similarly, *propose* instead of *propose marriage, be expecting* instead of *be expecting a baby*. An example of linguistic cause of paradigmatic character is **discrimination of synonyms**. It is a gradual change observed in the course of language history

e.g., the words *time* and *tide* used to be synonyms, then *tide* was applied to the shifting waters and *time* is used in the general sense

#### **4.2. Nature of semantic change**

A necessary condition of any semantic change, no matter what its cause, is some connection between the old meaning and the new. There are two kinds of this connections

- a) similarity of meaning, and
- b) contiguity of meaning.

Similarity of meaning, or **metaphor**, may be described as a semantic process of associating two things, one of which in some way resembles the other. Thus, a **metaphor** is a transfer of name based on the association of similarity, it is actually a hidden comparison.

e.g., a woman may be called *a peach, a lemon, a cat, a goose, a lioness*, etc. Metaphors may be based upon very different types of similarity.

e.g., **the similarity of shape**: *the head of a cabbage, the teeth of a saw*; **similarity of function or use**: *the Head of the school, the key to a mystery*; **similarity of position**; *foot of a mountain, foot of a page*;

**similarity of duration of time and space**: *long distance - long speech, a short path-a short time*.

Contiguity of meaning, or **metonymy**, may be described as a semantic process of associating two things one of which makes part of the other or is closely connected with it. Thus, a **metonymy** is a transfer of name based on substituting the part for the whole. The transfer may be conditioned by different relations between the primary and secondary meaning, such as *spatial, temporal, causal, symbolic, instrumental, functional* and others. Spatial relations, e.g., are present when the name of the place is used for the people occupying it: *the bar (the lawyers), the town (inhabitants), the House (the members of the House of Lords or Commons)*. Instrumental relations are

obvious when the instrument for the agent is used instead of the agent, e.g. *hand* (*handwriting*).

The simplest case of metonymy is **synecdoche** by which we mean giving the part for the whole or vice versa. e.g., *ABC* (*alphabet*), *men* (*humanity*), *the squirrel*, *the tiger* (*a whole for a part*); *Makintosh*, *Pullman*, *Sandwich* (*the name of the inventor for the thing invented*).

There are other types of semantic change, besides metaphor and metonymy. These are: **hyperbole, litotes, irony, euphemism**.

**Hyperbole** (from Gr hyperbole "exceed") is an exaggerated statement not meant to be understood literally but expressing emotional attitude of the speaker to what he is speaking about, e.g. I haven't seen you for ages! It's absolutely medden.

The reverse figure is called **litotes** (from Gr litos. "plain"). It expresses a desire to conceal or suppress one's feelings, and to seem indifferent and calm.

E.g., *But this is frightful!* - *Certainly somewhat disturbing*.

**Irony** is the expression of one's meaning by words of opposite sense.

e.g., *you've got us into a nice mess*.

**Euphemism** is referring to something unpleasant by using milder words.

e.g., *to pass away* (*to die*).

#### **4.3. Results of semantic change**

They can be generally observed in the changes of the denotational meaning of the word (**restriction** and **extension** of meaning) or in the changes of its connotational component (amelioration and pejoration of meaning).

**Restriction** of meaning is a process when a word of wide meaning acquires a narrower sense in which it only denotes some of the objects which it previously denoted.

e.g., *meat* originally meant food and drink in general, now - *edible flesh fowl* meant *any bird*, now - *a domestic hen or cock*. If the word with the new meaning is used in the specialized vocabulary of some professional group we speak of **specialization of meaning**.

e.g., *to glide* meant *to move gently and smoothly*, now - *to fly with no engine*".

**Extension** of meaning is the application of the word to a wider variety of referents.

e.g., *target* meant *a small round shield*, now - *anything that is fired at*; *pirate* meant *one who robe on the sea*, now - *any one who robs with violence*.

If the word with the extented meaning passes from the specialized vocabulary into common use, we describe the result of the semantic change as the generalization of meaning,

e.g., *barn* meant *a place for storing barley*, now - *a covered building for storing grain*; *pioneer* - *soldier*, now - *one who goes before*.

**Amelioration** is a process when words arise from humble beginnings to position of greater importance. Many words have been elevated in meaning through the association with the ruling class, e.g., *knight* meant *a young servant*, now - *a man who fought for his feudal*; *minister* meant *a servant*, now - *an important public official*.



**Pejoration**, or **degradation** of meaning is a process that involves a lowering in social scale, the acquisition by the word of some derogatory emotive charge. e.g., *knave* first meant *boy*, then *servant*, now *it's a term of abuse and scorn*; *villain* meant *term servant*, now - *scoundrel*.

## LECTURE 6. THE VOCABULARY OF A LANGUAGE AS A SYSTEM

### The questions under consideration

1. Homonyms: Words of the Same Form
  - 1.1. Sources of homonyms
  - 1.2. Homonymy and polysemy
2. Synonyms
  - 2.1. Expressiveness of synonyms
  - 2.2. The problem of criteria of synonymy
  - 2.3. The dominant synonym
  - 2.4. V.V. Vinogradov's classification system for synonyms
  - 2.5. Classification of synonyms based on difference in connotations
3. Euphemisms. Their types and functions
4. Antonyms
5. Hyponymy and paronymy

### KEY TERMS

homonyms	They are words which are identical in sound and spelling (or, at least, in one of these aspects), but different in their meaning.
homonyms proper	These words are the same in sound and spelling.
homophones	These words are the same in sound but different in spelling.
homographs	These are words which are the same in spelling but different in sound.
full lexical homonyms	The words which represent the same category of parts of speech and have the same paradigm.
simple lexico-grammatical partial homonyms	These are words which belong to the same category of parts of speech. Their paradigms have one identical form, but it is never the same form. ( <i>to found, v - found, v</i> )
complex lexico-grammatical partial homonyms	These are words of different categories of parts of speech which have one identical form in their paradigms ( <i>rose, n - rose, v</i> ).
partial lexical partial homonyms	These are words of the same category of parts of speech which are identical only in their corresponding forms <i>to lie (lay, lain), v - to lie (lied, lied), v - лгать</i> .
synonyms	Two or more words of the same language, belonging to the same part of speech and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical denotational meanings, interchangeable, at least in some contexts, without any considerable alteration in denotational meaning, but differing in morphemic composition, phonetic

	shape, connotations, affective value, style and idiomatic use.
dominant synonym	It is a “central” word whose meaning is equal to the denotation common to all the synonymic group.
ideographic synonym	It is a type of synonyms. They are words conveying the same concept but differing in shades of meaning. (V.V. Vinogradov)
stylistic synonym	It is a type of synonyms. They are words differing in stylistic characteristics. (V.V. Vinogradov)
absolute synonym	It is a type of synonyms. They are words coinciding in all their shades of meaning and in all their stylistic characteristics. (V.V. Vinogradov)
antonyms	The words of the same category of parts of speech which have contrasting meanings.
hyponym	It is a word the meaning of which may be said to be included in that of another word.
paronyms	They are words that are kindred both in sound form and meaning and therefore liable to be mixed but in fact different in meaning and usage and therefore only mistakenly interchanged.

## 1. Homonyms: Words of the Same Form

**1. Homonyms** are words which are identical in sound and spelling (or, at least, in one of these aspects), but different in their meaning,

e.g.: *bank*, n. – a shore; *bank*, n. – an institution for receiving, lending, exchanging money;

*My **hair** is brown and cut short. The little **hare** ran quickly into the forest.*

*I have only **one** apple in my basket. The red team **won** the game.*

*Do not **steal**. The bridge is made of strong **steel**.*

*Please **wait** in line for lunch. She lost **weight** on her diet.*

If groups of synonyms and pairs of antonyms are created by the vocabulary system and can be regarded as the treasury of the language’s expressive resources, homonyms are accidental creations, and therefore purposeless. In the process of communication they are more of an encumbrance, leading sometimes to confusion and misunderstanding.

**2. Homonyms** which are the same in sound and spelling are traditionally termed **homonyms proper**: spring – *весна*, spring – *пружина*, spring – *источник, родник*.

The second type of homonyms is called **homophones** – these are words the same in sound but different in spelling:

night – *ночь*, knight – *рыцарь*;

peace – мир, piece – кусок,  
right – правый, write – писать, rite – обряд.

The third type of homonyms is called **homographs**. These are words which are the same in spelling but different in sound:

bow – лук, bow – поклон;  
tear *n* – слеза, tear *v* – рвать;  
wind *n* – ветер, wind *v* – заводить часы.

**3.** Professor A.I.Smirnitsky classified homonyms into two large classes:

### **I. Full lexical homonyms**

### **II. Partial homonyms**

**Full lexical homonyms** are words which represent the same category of parts of speech and have the same paradigm,

e.g. *match*, *n* – a game, a contest;  
*match*, *n* – a short piece of wood used for producing fire.

**Partial homonyms** are subdivided into three subgroups:

**A. Simple lexico-grammatical partial homonyms** are words which belong to the **same category** of parts of speech. Their paradigms have one identical form, but it is never the same form, as will be seen from the examples:

(*to*) *found*, *v* - *found*, *v* (Past Simple, Past Part. of *to find*);

*to lay* (класть, положить), *v* (Past Simple – *laid*) - *lay*, *v* (Past Simple of *to lie*) – *лежать*.

**B. Complex lexico-grammatical partial homonyms** are words of different categories of parts of speech which have one identical form in their paradigms. E.g. *rose*, *n* – *rose*, *v* (Past Simple of *to rise*); *left*, *adj.* – *left*, *v* (Past Simple, Past Part. of *to leave*)

**C. Partial lexical partial homonyms** are words of the same category of parts of speech which are identical only in their corresponding forms. E.g. *to lie* (*lay*, *lain*), *v* – *to lie* (*lied*, *lied*), *v* – *лгать*.

### **1.1. Sources of homonyms**

They are **phonetic changes**, **borrowing**, **conversion**, **shortening**, **sound-imitation**, **split polysemy**.

1) One source of homonyms are **phonetic changes** which words undergo in the course of their historical development. As a result of such changes, two or more words which were formerly pronounced differently may develop identical sound forms and thus become homonyms. *Night* (ночь) and *knight* (рыцарь), for instance, were not homonyms in Old English as the initial *k* in the second word was pronounced, and not dropped as it is in its modern sound form.

2) **Borrowing** is another source of homonyms. A borrowed word may duplicate in form either a native word or another borrowing. So, in the group of homonyms *rite*, *n* (обряд) – *to write*, *v* – *right*, *adj.*

the second and third words are of native origin whereas *rite* (обряд) is a Latin borrowing.

3) Word-building also contributes significantly to the growth of homonymy, and the most important type in this respect is **conversion**. Such pairs of words as *comb*, *n*

(*гребень*) – *to comb*, *в (расчёсывать)*; *to make*, *в (делать)* – *make*, *н (работа)* are numerous in the vocabulary. Homonyms of this type, which are the same in sound and spelling but refer to different categories of parts of speech, are called **lexico-grammatical homonyms**.

**4) Shortening** is a further type of word-building which increases the number of homonyms.

E.g. *fan*, *n* in the sense of “an admirer of some kind of sport or of an actor, singer” is a shortening produced from *fanatic*.

Its homonym is a Latin borrowing *fan*, *n* which denotes an implement for waving lightly to produce a cool current of air.

**5)** Words made by **sound-imitation** can also form pairs of homonyms with other words:

e.g. *bang*, *n* (a loud, sudden, explosive noise) –

*bang*, *n* (a fringe of hair combed over the forehead – *чёлка*).

The above-described sources of homonyms have one important feature in common. In all the mentioned cases the homonyms developed from two or more different words, and their similarity is purely accidental. In this respect, conversion presents an exception for in pairs of homonyms formed by conversion one word of the pair is produced from the other: *a find* < *to find*.

**6)** Now we come to a further source of homonyms which differs from all the above cases. Two or more homonyms can originate from different meanings of the same word when the semantic structure of the word breaks into several parts. This type of formation of homonyms is called **split polysemy** (*распад полисемии*). The semantic structure of a polysemantic word presents a system within which all its constituent meanings are held together by logical associations. In most cases, the function of the arrangement and the unity is determined by one of the meanings (e.g. the meaning “flame” in the noun *fire*). If this meaning happens to disappear from the word’s semantic structure, the semantic structure loses its unity and falls into two or more parts which then become accepted as independent lexical units.

Let us consider the history of three homonyms:

*board*, *n* – a long, thin piece of timber

*board*, *n* – daily meals provided for pay, e.g. *room and board*

*board*, *n* – an official group of persons who direct or supervise some activity, e.g. *a board of directors*.

It is clear that the meanings of these three words are in no way associated with one another. Yet, most larger dictionaries still enter a meaning of *board* that once held together all these other meanings “table”. It developed from the meaning “a piece of timber” by transference based on **contiguity** (association of an object and the material from which it is made). The meanings “meals” and “an official group of persons” developed from the meaning “table”, also by transference based on contiguity:

meals are easily associated with a table on which they are served;

an official group of people in authority are also likely to discuss their business round a table.

Nowadays, however, the item of furniture, on which meals are served and round which boards of directors meet, is no longer denoted by the word *board* but by the French Norman borrowing *table*, and *board* in this meaning, though still registered by some dictionaries, can be marked as archaic as it is no longer used in common speech. That is why, with the intrusion of the borrowed *table*, the word *board* lost its corresponding meaning.

### 1.2. Homonymy and polysemy

It should be stressed, however, that **split polysemy** as a source of homonyms is not accepted by some scholars. It is really difficult sometimes to decide whether a certain word has or has not been subjected to the split of the semantic structure and whether we are dealing with different meanings of the same word or with homonyms, for the criteria are subjective and imprecise. The imprecision is recorded in the data of different dictionaries which often contradict each other on this very issue, so that *board* is represented as two homonyms in Müller's dictionary and as one and the same word in Hornby's dictionary.

## 2. Synonyms

**Synonyms** can be defined in terms of linguistics as two or more words of the same language, belonging to the same part of speech and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical denotational meanings, interchangeable, at least in some contexts, without any considerable alteration in denotational meaning, but differing in morphemic composition, phonetic shape, connotations, affective value, style and idiomatic use.

Synonymy is one of modern linguistics' most controversial problems. The very existence of words traditionally called **synonyms** is disputed by some linguists.

Even though one may accept that synonyms in the traditional meaning of the term are somewhat elusive (*неясный*) and, to some extent, fictitious, it is certain that there are words in any vocabulary which clearly develop regular and distinct relations when used in speech.

The verbs *like*, *admire* and *love*, all describe feelings of attraction (*привлекательность*), approbation (*одобрение*), fondness (*любовь, нежность*)

Yet, each of the three verbs, though they all describe more or less the same feeling of liking, describes it in its own way.

The duality of synonyms is, probably, their most confusing feature: they are somewhat the same, and yet they are most obviously different. Both aspects of their dual characteristics are essential for them to perform their function in speech: revealing different aspects, shades and variations of the same phenomenon.

Synonyms add precision to each detail of description and show how the correct choice of a word from a group of synonyms may colour the whole text.

In the following extract an irritated producer is talking to an ambitious young actor:

“Think you can play Romeo? Romeo should *smile*, not *grin* (*ухмыляться*), *walk*, not *swagger* (*расхаживать с важным видом*); *speak* his lines, not *tumble* them.”

Here the second synonym in each pair is quite obviously contrasted and opposed to the first:

“...*smile*, not *grin*.” Yet, *to grin* means more or less the same as *to smile*, only denoting a broader and a rather foolish smile.

In the same way *to swagger* means “to walk”, but to walk in a defiant or insolent manner.

*Mumbling* is also a way of speaking, but of speaking indistinctly or unintelligibly.

### 2.1. Expressiveness of synonyms

The principal function of synonyms is to present the same phenomenon in different aspects, shades and variations.

Let us consider the verb

*to walk* and its three synonyms

*to stagger* (*идти шатаясь*),

*to stumble* (*идти спотыкаясь*),

*to shamble* (*волочить ноги, тащиться*), each of which describes the process of walking in its own way.

But *to walk* merely conveys the bare idea of going on foot while the other three words connote (*подразумевают*) the manner of walking as well.

*Stagger* means “to sway while walking” and, also, implies a considerable, sometimes painful, effort.

*Stumble*, means “to walk tripping over uneven ground and nearly falling.”

*Shamble* implies dragging one’s feet while walking; a physical effort is also connoted by the word.

A carefully chosen word from a group of synonyms is a great asset not only on the printed page but also in a speaker’s utterance.

The skill to choose the most suitable word in every context and every situation is an essential part of the language learning process.

### 2.2. The problem of criteria of synonymy

Synonymy is associated with some theoretical problems which at present are still an object of controversy. The most controversial among these is the problem of criteria of synonymy. We are still not certain which words should correctly be considered as synonyms.

The problem can be solved with **conceptual criterion, semantic criterion and the criterion of interchangeability**.

1) Traditional linguistics solved this problem with the **conceptual criterion** and defined synonyms as words of the same category of parts of speech conveying the same concept but differing either in shades of meaning or in stylistic characteristics.

Some aspects of this definition have been criticized. It has been pointed out that linguistic phenomena should be defined in linguistic terms and that the use of the term concept makes this an extralinguistic definition.

2) In contemporary research on synonymy **semantic criterion** is frequently used. In terms of componential analysis synonyms may be defined as words with the

same denotation, or the same denotative component, but differing in connotations, or in connotative components.

A group of synonyms may be studied with the help of their dictionary definitions (**definitional analysis**). In this work the data from various dictionaries are analysed comparatively. After that the definitions are subjected to transformational operations (**transformational analysis**). In this way, the semantic components of each analysed word are singled out.

Let us consider the results of the definitional and transformational analysis of some of the numerous synonyms for the verb *to look*.

	Denotation	Connotations
<i>to stare:</i>	to look	+ steadily, lastingly + in surprise, curiosity
<i>to glare:</i>	to look	+ steadily, lastingly + in anger, rage, fury
<i>to gaze:</i>	to look	+ steadily, lastingly + in tenderness, admiration, wonder
<i>to glance:</i>	to look	+ briefly, in passing
<i>to peep:</i>	to look	+ quickly, secretly + by stealth; through an opening
<i>to peer:</i>	to look	+ steadily, lastingly + with difficulty or strain

The common denotation *to look* shows that, according to the semantic criterion, the words grouped in the table: *to stare*, *to glare*, *to glance*, *to peep* (*to look quickly and secretly at sth*), *to peer* (*to look closely or carefully at sth*) are synonyms. The connotative components: steadily, lastingly, briefly, in surprise, in anger, etc. highlight their differentiations.

3) In modern research on synonyms **the criterion of interchangeability** is sometimes applied. According to this, synonyms are defined as words which are interchangeable at least in some contexts without any considerable alteration in denotational meaning.

This criterion of interchangeability has been much criticized. Almost every attempt to apply it to this or that group of synonyms seems to lead one to the inevitable conclusion that either there are very few synonyms or that they are not



interchangeable. It is sufficient to choose any set of synonyms placing them in a simple context to demonstrate the point. Confer: *glare – gaze – glance – peer*.

Consequently, it is difficult to accept interchangeability as a criterion of synonymy because the specific characteristic of synonyms is that **they are not, cannot and should not be interchangeable**, in which case they would simply become useless ballast in the vocabulary.

All this does not mean that no synonyms are interchangeable. One can find whole groups of words which can readily be substituted one for another. The same girl can be described as *pretty, good-looking, handsome or beautiful*. Yet, even these words are far from being totally interchangeable.

In conclusion, let us stress that even if there are some synonyms which are interchangeable, it is quite certain that there are also others which are not. A criterion should be applicable to all synonyms and not just to some of them.

### **2.3. The dominant synonym**

All (or, at least, most) synonymic groups have a “central” word whose meaning is equal to the denotation common to all the synonymic group. This word is called the **dominant synonym**.

Here are examples of some dominant synonyms with their groups:

**To tremble** – to shiver – to shudder – to shake.

**To make** – to produce – to create – to fabricate – to manufacture.

**Angry** – furious – enraged.

The dominant synonym expresses the notion common to all synonyms of the group in the most general way, without contributing any additional information as to manner, intensity, duration or any attending feature of the referent. Its meaning, which is broad and generalized, more or less “covers” the meanings of the rest of the synonyms, so that it may be substituted for any of them. It seems that here the idea of **interchangeability of synonyms** comes into its own. And yet, each such substitution would mean an irreparable (неисправимый) loss of the additional information supplied by connotative components of each synonym. **So**, using *to look* instead of *to glare, to stare, to peep* we preserve the general sense of the utterance but lose a great deal of precision, expressiveness and colour.

Summing up what has been said, the following characteristic features of the dominant synonym can be underlined:

**I.** High frequency of usage.

**II.** Broad combinability, i.e. ability to be used in combinations with various classes of words.

**III.** Broad general meaning.

**IV.** Lack of connotations. (This goes for stylistic connotations as well, so that neutrality as to style is also a typical feature of the dominant synonym).

### **2.4. V.V. Vinogradov’s classification system for synonyms**

The only existing classification system for synonyms was established by V.V. Vinogradov, the famous Russian scholar. In his classification system there are three types of synonyms: **ideographic** (which he defined as words conveying the same

concept but differing in shades of meaning), **stylistic** (differing in stylistic characteristics) and **absolute** (coinciding in all their shades of meaning and in all their stylistic characteristics).

However, the following aspects of his classification system are open to question.

**Firstly, absolute synonyms** are rare in the vocabulary. The vocabulary system tends to abolish them either by rejecting one of the absolute synonyms or by developing differentiation characteristics in one or both, or all of them. Therefore, it does not seem necessary to include absolute synonyms, which are a temporary exception, in the system of classification.

**Secondly**, there seems to be no rigid demarcation line between synonyms differing in their shades of meaning and in stylistic characteristics. There are numerous synonyms which are distinguished by both shades of meaning and stylistic colouring. Therefore, even the subdivision of synonyms into **ideographic** and **stylistic** is open to question.

### **2.5. Classification of synonyms based on difference in connotations**

A more modern and a more effective approach to the classification of synonyms may be based on the definition describing synonyms as words differing in **connotations**. It seems convenient to classify **connotations** by which synonyms differ rather than synonyms themselves.

#### **Types of connotations**

They are

**the connotation of degree or intensity,**

**the connotation of duration,**

**the emotive connotation,**

**the evaluative connotation,**

**the causative connotation,**

**the connotation of manner,**

**the connotation of attendant circumstances, stylistic connotations**

**I. The connotation of degree or intensity** can be traced in such groups of synonyms as

*to surprise – to astonish – to amaze – to astound; to like – to admire – to love – to adore – to worship.*

**II.** In the group of synonyms *to stare – to glare – to gaze – to glance – to peep – to peer*, all the synonyms except *to glance, to peep* denote a lasting act of looking at somebody or something, whereas *to glance, to peep* describe a brief look. These synonyms may be said to have a **connotation of duration** in their semantic structure.

**III.** The synonyms *to stare (уставиться) – to glare (пристально или сердито смотреть) – to gaze (уставиться)* are differentiated from other words of the group by **emotive connotations**, and from each other by the nature of the emotion they imply.

One should be warned against confusing words with emotive connotations and words with emotive denotative meanings, e.g. *angry – furious – enraged; fear –*

*terror – horror*. In the latter, emotion is expressed by the leading semantic component whereas in the former it is an accompanying, subsidiary characteristic.

**IV. The evaluative connotation** conveys the speaker's attitude towards the referent, labelling it as *good* or *bad*. So in the group *well-known – famous – notorious – celebrated*, the adjective *notorious* bears a negative evaluative connotation and *celebrated* a positive one. Confer: *a notorious murderer, robber, coward, but a celebrated scholar, artist, singer*.

**V. The causative connotation** can be illustrated by the examples *to shiver* and *to shudder*, in whose semantic structures the cause of the act or process of trembling is encoded: *to shiver with cold, from a chill; to shudder with horror, fear*, etc.

**VI. The connotation of manner** can be singled out in some groups of verbal synonyms. The verbs *to stroll – to stride – to trot – to swagger – to stagger – to stumble* all denote different ways and types of walking.

**VII.** The above mentioned verbs *to peep* and *to peer* are differentiated by connotations of duration and manner. But there is some other peculiarity in their semantic structures.

One *peeps* at smb./smth. through a hole, an opening, a newspaper, a curtain, etc. It seems as if “the set of scenery” is actually built within the word's meaning and is reflected in the word's semantic structure. We shall call this **the connotation of attendant circumstances**.

One *peers* at smb./smth. in darkness, through the fog, from a great distance. So, in the semantic structure of *to peer* are encoded circumstances preventing one from seeing clearly.

**VIII.** The synonyms *pretty, handsome, beautiful* have been mentioned as the ones which are more or less interchangeable. Yet, each of them describes a special type of human beauty: *beautiful* is mostly associated with classical features and a perfect figure, *handsome* with a tall stature and fine proportions, *pretty* with small delicate features and a fresh complexion. This connotation may be defined as **VIII. the connotation of attendant features**.

**IX. Stylistic connotations** stand somewhat apart for two reasons.

Firstly, some scholars do not regard the word's stylistic characteristic as a connotative component of its semantic structure.

Secondly, stylistic connotations are subject to further classification, namely: colloquial, slang, dialect, poetic, terminological, archaic. Here again we are dealing with stylistically marked words, but this time we approach the feature of stylistic characteristics from a different angle: from the point of view of synonyms' frequent differentiation characteristics.

Here are some examples of synonyms which are differentiated by stylistic connotations. The word in brackets starting the group shows the denotation of the synonyms.

**(Girl).**

Girlie (*coll.*) – девушка, особенно стриптизёрша; lass, lassie (*dial.*); bird, birdie, jane, fluff, skirt (*sl.*), maiden (*poet.*) – дева; damsel (*arch.*) – девица.

**3.Euphemisms. Their types and functions**

There are words in every language which people instinctively avoid because they are considered indecent, indelicate, rude or impolite. As the “offensive” referents, for which these words stand, must be alluded to, they are often described in a round-about way, by using substitutes called **euphemisms**. This device is dictated by social conventions which are sometimes apt to be over-sensitive, see “indecency” where there is none and seek refinement in absurd avoidances and pretentiousness.

The word *lavatory* has produced many euphemisms: *powder room, washroom, restroom, and ladies’ (room), gentlemen’s room*.

Pregnancy is another topic for “delicate” references. Here are euphemisms used as substitutes for the adjective *pregnant*: *in an interesting condition, in a delicate condition, in the family way, expecting*.

The love of affectation, which displays itself in the excessive use of euphemisms, has never been a sign of good taste or genuine refinement. Quite the opposite. Fiction writers have often ridiculed pretentious people for their weak attempts to express themselves in a delicate and refined way.

“ Mrs. Sunbury never went to bed, she *retired*, but Mr. Sunbury who was not quite so refined as his wife always said, “Me for Bedford”

*To retire* in this ironical passage is a euphemistic substitute for *to go to bed*.

There are words which are easy targets for euphemistic substitution. These include words associated with drunkenness, which are very numerous. The adjective *drunk* has a great number of such substitutes, e.g. *intoxicated* (form.), *tipsy, high, merry, overcome, full* (coll.), *drunk as a lord* (coll.), *boiled* (sl. набравшийся), *soaked* (sl. насосавшийся).

Euphemisms may be used due to genuine concern not to hurt someone’s feelings. For instance, a liar can be described as a person who *does not always tell the truth* and a stupid man can be said to be *not exactly brilliant*.

All the euphemisms that have been described so far are used to avoid the so-called **social taboos**. Their use is inspired by social convention.

**Superstitious taboos** gave rise to the use of other type of euphemisms. The reluctance to call things by their proper names is also typical of this type of euphemisms, but this time it is based on a deeply-rooted subconscious fear.

Superstitious taboos have their roots in the distant past of mankind when people believed that there was a supernatural link between a name and the object or creature it represented. Therefore, all the words denoting evil spirits, dangerous animals, or the powers of nature were taboo. If uttered, it was believed that unspeakable disasters would result not only for the speaker but also for those near him. That is why all creatures, objects and phenomena threatening danger were referred to in a round-about descriptive way. So, a dangerous animal might be described as *the one-lurking-in-the-wood*. Euphemisms are probably the oldest type of synonyms.

**The Christian religion also made certain words taboo**. The proverb *Speak of the devil and he will appear* (лѣзок на помине) must have been used and taken quite literally when it was first used, and the fear of *calling the devil by name* was inherited from ancient superstitious beliefs. So, the word *devil* became taboo, and a number of

euphemisms were substitutes for it: *the Prince of Darkness, the black one, the evil one, deuce* (coll.), *(Old) Nick* (coll.).

The word *God*, also had a great number of substitutes which can still be traced in such phrases as *Good Lord!, By Heavens!, Good Heavens!, (My) goodness gracious!*

Even in our modern emancipated times, old superstitious fears still lurk behind words associated with death and fatal diseases. People are not superstitious nowadays and yet they are reluctant to use the verb *to die* which has a long chain of substitutes, e.g. *to pass away, to be taken, to close one's eyes, to go West* (sl.), *to kick off* (sl.).

All the above examples show that **euphemisms** are substitutes for their synonyms. Their use and very existence are caused either by social conventions or by certain psychological factors. Most of them have stylistic connotations in their semantic structures. One can also assume that there is a special euphemistic connotation that can be singled out in the semantic structure of each such word. Let us point out, too, that euphemistic connotations in **formal euphemisms** are different in "flavour" from those in **slang euphemistic substitutes**. In the first case they are solemn (*официальный*) and delicately evasive (*уклончивый*), and in the second rough and cynical.

#### 4. Antonyms

We use the term **antonyms** to indicate words of the same category of parts of speech which have contrasting meanings, such as *hot – cold, light – dark, to accept – to reject, up – down*.

If synonyms form whole, often numerous, groups, antonyms usually appear in pairs.

On the other hand, a polysemantic word may have an antonym (or several antonyms) for each of its meanings. So, the adjective *dull* has the antonyms *interesting, amusing, entertaining* for its meaning of "deficient in interest", *clever, bright, capable* for its meaning of "deficient in intellect", etc.

**Antonymy is not evenly distributed among the categories of parts of speech.** Most antonyms are **adjectives** which is only natural because qualitative characteristics are easily compared and contrasted: *high – low, wide – narrow, old – young*.

**Verbs** take second place: *to lose – to find, to live – to die, to close – to open*.

**Nouns** are not rich in antonyms: *friend – enemy, joy – grief, good – evil*.

Antonymic **adverbs** can be subdivided into two groups: a) adverbs derived from adjectives: *warmly – coldly, merrily – sadly*; b) adverbs proper: *now – then, here – there, ever – never*.

There are three types of opposition that are traditionally associated with antonymy: **contradictory** (*high – low*), **qualitative or gradual** opposition (*large – small*), **vectorial** opposition (*to widen – to narrow*). Thus, antonymy exists in several forms.

Not every word may have an antonym, though practically every word has a synonym (for example, words of concrete denotation have no antonyms: *table, blackboard*). Words may be put into antonymic groups according to their lexico-

semantic variants: *dry* — *wet*, *dry* — *interesting*; *dear* — *cheap*, *dear* — *hateful*. So, if a word is polysemantic, it can have several antonyms.

The most widely known dictionary of antonyms in Russia compiled by V.N. Komissarov. In this *Dictionary of English Antonyms*, antonyms are subdivided into two groups: a) **root** antonyms (*bad* — *good*, *tall* — *short*, *slow* — *fast*, *ancient* — *modern*) expressing contrary notions, and b) **derivational** antonyms (*like* — *dislike*, *efficient* — *inefficient*, *useful* — *useless*, *logical* — *illogical*) expressing contradictory notions. There are several affixes in English which help in the formation of antonyms: *un-*, *in-* (with its allomorphs *//-*, *im-*, *ir-*). The difference between derivational and root antonyms is in their structure and in their semantics.

Antonymy is a regular and very natural feature of language and can be defined fairly precisely. Antonyms are words of the same part of speech having common denotational component of meaning but expressing contrasting points of the same notion. They have the same grammatical and lexical valency and often occur in the same contexts. E.G.: *It seems a short stay after such a long journey. (G. Greene) East or West — home is best. <...> she seemed suddenly so strong and I so weak... (I. Murdoch*

Antonyms represent an important group of expressive means of the language.

- "How nice!" I said when I learned I had to work all weekend.
- A man is known by the company he keeps. A woman is known by the company she keeps out of. (O. Wilde)
- "That's a super orchestra. The conductor is really bad." Kate looked at him in momentary confusion, then her brow cleared. "Ah. I presume that means he's good." (S. Sheldon)

Not so many years ago antonymy was not universally accepted as a linguistic problem, and the opposition within antonymic pairs was regarded as purely logical and finding no reflection in the semantic structures of these words. The contrast between *heat* and *cold* or *big* and *small*, said most scholars, is the contrast of things opposed by their nature.

Nowadays most scholars agree that in the semantic structures of all words, which regularly occur in antonymic pairs, a special antonymic connotation can be singled out. We are so used to coming across *hot* and *cold* together, in the same contexts, that even when we find *hot* alone, we cannot help subconsciously registering it is *not cold*. The word possesses its full meaning for us not only due to its direct associations but also because we subconsciously oppose it to its antonym, with which it is regularly used, in this case to *hot*. Therefore, it is reasonable to suggest that the semantic structure of *hot* can be said to include the antonymic connotation of "not cold", and the semantic structure of *enemy* the connotation of "not a friend".

Together with synonyms, antonyms represent the language's important expressive means. Antonyms are often used as a stylistic device of contrast.

## 5. Hyponymy and Paronymy

Hyponymy (J. Lyons's term) is a paradigmatic relation of sense between a more specific, or subordinate lexeme, and a more general, or superordinate, lexeme, for example *cow* is a hyponym of *animal*. *Rose* is a hyponym of *flower*, and so on (*honesty*:

*virtue, buy :get, crimson : red*). And further, .since *rose, tulip, daffodil*, etc. each is a hyponym of *flower* they are co-hyponyms of the same lexeme. The upper term is the **superordinate** lexeme.

The relationship between the lexemes can be shown as a tree diagram, where the more general term is placed at the top, and the more specific terms are placed underneath.

<b>red</b>		
scarlet	vermilion	crimson

<b>vegetable</b>		
potato	cabbage	carrot

**Hyponym** (Greek "under" + "name") is a word the meaning of which may be said to be included in that of another word. In the two examples above, the more specific words (in the bottom line) are co-hyponyms of the more general words (in the top line) which are said to be superordinate to their hyponyms. Thus semantic relationship of inclusion is the main feature of hyponymic hierarchical structures. Hyponymy is the core relationship within a dictionary; it expresses basic meaning relationships in the lexicon.

**Paronyms** are words that are kindred both in sound form and meaning and therefore liable to be mixed but in fact different in meaning and usage and therefore only mistakenly interchanged. This is the case with the verbs *to affect* ("to influence") and *to effect* ("to bring about, to result in"); with *prosecute* and *persecute*; *policy* and *politics*; *moral* and *morale*; *respectfully* and *respectively*; *human* and *humane*; *conscience*, *conscious*, *consciousness* and *conscientious*.

(To choose the right word, make use of *A Dictionary of Modern English Usage* by H.W. Fowler.)

## LECTURE 7. PHRASEOLOGY

### The questions under consideration

1. Phraseology as an expressive resource of vocabulary
2. Phraseological units and free word-groups. Criteria for distinguishing
3. Proverbs
4. The traditional principle for classifying phraseological units
5. The semantic principle of classification for phraseological units
6. The structural principle of classification for phraseological units
7. Classification system offered by Professor A. I. Smirnitsky
8. The classification system of phraseological units suggested by Professor A.V. Koonin

### KEY TERMS

phraseological unit	It is a stable word-group characterized by a completely or partially transferred meaning.
phraseological combinations	They are word-groups with a partially changed meaning. They may be said to be clearly motivated, that is, the meaning of the unit can be easily deduced from the meanings of its constituents. ( <i>V.V. Vinogradov</i> )
phraseological unities	They are word-groups with a completely changed meaning, that is, the meaning of the unit does not correspond to the meanings of its constituent parts. They are motivated units; the meaning of the whole unit can be deduced from the meanings of the constituent parts. ( <i>V.V. Vinogradov</i> )
phraseological fusions	They are word-groups with a completely changed meaning but, in contrast to the unities, they are demotivated, that is, their meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of the constituent parts. ( <i>V.V. Vinogradov</i> )

### 1. Phraseology as an expressive resource of vocabulary

**Phraseological units**, or **idioms**, as they are called by most western scholars, represent what can probably be described as the most picturesque, colourful and expressive part of the language's vocabulary.

Word-groups known as phraseological units or idioms are characterized by a double sense: the current meanings of constituent words build up a certain picture, but the actual meaning of the whole unit has little or nothing to do with that picture, in itself creating an entirely new image.

So, *a dark horse* is actually not a horse but a person about whom no one knows anything definite, and so one is not sure what can be expected from him.



The imagery of a *bull in a china shop* lies very much on the surface: the idiom describes a clumsy person (Russian – *слон в посудной лавке*).

A *white elephant* (*обуза*), however, is not even a person but a valuable object which involves great expense or trouble for its owner and which is difficult to dispose of. *To let the cat out of the bag* has actually nothing to do with cats, but means simply “to let some secret become known” (*проболтаться*)

The ambiguousness of these interesting word-groups may lead to an amusing misunderstanding. Puns are frequently based on the ambiguousness of idioms.

So, together with synonymy and antonymy, phraseology represents expressive resources of vocabulary.

V.H. Collins writes in his **Book of English Idioms**: “In standard spoken and written English today idiom is an essential element that, used with care, ornaments and enriches the language”.

**Used with care** is an important warning because speech overloaded with idioms loses its freshness and originality. Idioms are ready-made units, and their continual repetition sometimes wears them out: they lose their colours and become trite cliches (*банальные клише*). Such idioms can hardly be said to “ornament” or “enrich” the language.

In modern linguistics, there is considerable confusion about the terminology associated with these word-groups. Most Russian scholars use the term “**phraseological unit**” (“*фразеологическая единица*”) which was first introduced by Academician V.V. Vinogradov. The term “idiom” widely used by western scholars has comparatively recently found its way into Russian phraseology.

There are some other terms denoting more or less the same linguistic phenomenon: **set-expressions, set-phrases, collocations**.

## **2. Phraseological units and free word-groups. Criteria for distinguishing**

The confusion in the terminology reflects insufficiency of positive or wholly reliable criteria by which phraseological units can be distinguished from “free” word-groups.

It should be pointed out at once that the “freedom” of free word groups is relative and arbitrary (*произвольная*). Nothing is entirely “free” in speech as its linear relationships are governed, restricted and regulated, on the one hand, by requirements of logic and common sense and, on the other hand. One can speak of *a black-eyed girl* but not of *a black* by the rules of grammar and combinability. *-eyed table*.

Free word-groups are so called not because of any absolute freedom in using them but simply because they are each time built up anew in the speech process whereas idioms are used as ready-made units with fixed and constant structures.

**How to distinguish phraseological units from free word-groups?** This is probably the most discussed – and the most controversial – problem in the field of phraseology.

There are two major criteria for distinguishing between phraseological units and free word-groups: **semantic** and **structural**.

Compare the following examples:

**A.** Cambridge don: I'm told they're inviting more American professors to this university. *Isn't it rather carrying coals to Newcastle?*

(*To carry coals to Newcastle* means "to take something to a place where it is already plentiful and not needed". Compare with the Russian *В Тулу со своим самоваром.*)

**B.** *This cargo ship is carrying coal to Liverpool.*

The first thing that captures the eye is **the semantic difference** of the two word-groups consisting of the same essential constituents. In the second sentence the free word-group *is carrying coal* is used in the direct sense, the word *coal* standing for real hard, black coal and *carry* for the plain process of taking something from one place to another. The first context quite obviously has nothing to do either with coal or with transporting it, and the meaning of the whole word-group is something entirely new and far removed from the current meanings of the constituents.

V.V. Vinogradov spoke of the semantic change in phraseological units as "a meaning resulting from a peculiar chemical combination of words". This seems a very apt comparison because in both cases an entirely new quality comes into existence.

The semantic shift affecting phraseological units does not consist in a mere change of meanings of each separate constituent part of the unit. The meanings of the constituents merge to produce an entirely new meaning: e.g. *to have a bee in one's bonnet* means "to have an obsession about something; to be eccentric or even a little mad".

In the traditional approach, **phraseological units** have been defined as word-groups conveying a single concept (whereas in free word-groups each meaningful component stands for a separate concept).

It is this feature that makes phraseological units similar to words: both possess semantic unity. Yet, words are also characterized by structural unity which phraseological units lack being combinations of words.

Most Russian scholars today accept **the semantic criterion** of distinguishing phraseological units from free word-groups as the major one and base their research work in the field of phraseology on the definition of a phraseological unit offered by Professor **A.V. Koonin**, the leading authority on problems of English phraseology in our country: "**A phraseological unit is a stable word-group characterized by a completely or partially transferred meaning**".

The definition clearly suggests that the degree of semantic change in a phraseological unit may vary ("**completely or partially transferred meaning**"). In actual fact the semantic change may effect either the whole word-group or only one of its components. The following phraseological units represent **the first case**:

*to skate on thin ice* (= to put oneself in a dangerous position; to take risks. – Rus. *быть на грани опасности; играть с огнём*);

*to wear one's heart in one's sleeve* (= to expose, so that everyone knows, one's most intimate feelings – *не уметь скрывать свои чувства; что на уме, то и на языке*);

*to have one's heart in one's mouth* (= to be greatly alarmed by what is expected to happen. – Rus. *струсить; душа в пятки ушла*).

**The second type** is represented by phraseological units in which one of the components preserves its current meaning and the other is used in a transferred meaning:

*to lose one's temper,*

*to fall ill,*

*to fall in love,*

*bosom friends* (*закадычные друзья*),

*small talk* (*пустая болтовня*).

The term “idiom”, both in this country and abroad, is mostly applied to phraseological units with completely transferred meanings, that is to ones in which the meaning of the whole unit does not correspond to the current meanings of the components. There are many scholars who regard idioms as the essence of phraseology and the major focus of interest in phraseology research.

**The structural criterion** also brings forth pronounced distinctive features characterizing phraseological units and contrasting them to free word-groups.

Structural invariability is an essential feature of phraseological units and it finds expression in a number of restrictions.

**1) First of all, restriction in substitution.** As a rule, no word can be substituted for any meaningful component of a phraseological unit without destroying its sense. *To carry coals to Manchester* makes as little sense as *В Харьков со своим самоваром*.

At the same time, in free word-groups substitution does not present any dangers and does not lead to any serious consequences. In *The cargo ship is carrying coal to Liverpool* all the components can be changed: *The ship/vessel/boat carries/transport/brings coal to (any port)*.

**2) The second type of restriction is the restriction in introducing any additional components into the structure of a phraseological unit.**

In a free word-group such changes can be made without affecting the general meaning of the utterance: *This big ship is carrying a large cargo of coal to the port of Liverpool*.

In the phraseological unit *to carry coals to Newcastle* no additional components can be introduced.

**3) The third type of structural restrictions in phraseological units is grammatical invariability.** A typical mistake with students of English is to use the plural form of *fault* in the phraseological unit

*to find fault with somebody* (*придираться*). Though the plural form in this context is logically well-founded, it is a mistake in terms of the grammatical invariability of phraseological units.

Yet, there are exceptions to the rule. One can

*built a castle in the air*, but also *castles*. A shameful or dangerous family secret is picturesquely described as *a skeleton in the cupboard* (*из избы сору не*

*выносить*). The first substantive component being frequently and easily used in plural form, as in: *I'm sure they have skeletons in every cupboard!*

### 3. Proverbs

Proverbs are different from those phraseological units which have been discussed above. The first distinctive feature that strikes one is **the structural dissimilarity**. Phraseological units are a kind of ready-made blocks which fit into the structure of a sentence performing a certain syntactical function, more or less as words do.

Proverbs, if viewed in their structural aspect, are sentences, and so cannot be used in the way in which phraseological units are used.

If one compares proverbs and phraseological units in the **semantic aspect**, the difference seems to become more obvious. Proverbs could be best compared with minute fables for, like the latter, they sum up the collective experience of the community. They moralize (*Hell is paved with good intentions – Благими намерениями вымощен ад*),

give advice (*Don't judge a tree by its bark – Не по словам судят, а по делам*),

admonish (*Liars should have good memories – Лжецам нужна хорошая память*).

No phraseological unit ever does any of these things. They do not stand for whole statements as proverbs do but for a single concept. Their function in speech is purely **nominative** (i.e. they denote an object, an act, etc.). The function of proverbs in speech is **communicative** (i.e. they impart certain information).

The question of whether or not proverbs should be regarded as a subtype of phraseological units and studied together with the phraseology of a language is a controversial one.

A.V. Koonin includes proverbs in his classification of phraseological units and labels them **communicative phraseological units**. From his point of view, one of the main criteria of a phraseological unit is its stability.

It may be added, as one more argument in support of this concept, that there does not exist any rigid or permanent border-line between proverbs and phraseological units as the latter rather frequently originate from the former.

So, the phraseological unit *birds of a feather* (*птицы одного полёта, два сапога пара*) originated from the proverb *Birds of a feather flock together* (*Рыбак рыбака видит издалека*). What is more, some of the proverbs are easily transformed into phraseological units,

e.g. *Don't put all your eggs in one basket* (*Не складывай все яйца в одну корзину*) > *to put all one's eggs in one basket* (*рисковать, поставить всё на карту*);

*don't cast pearls before swine* > *to cast pearls before swine* (*метать бисер перед свиньями*).

### 4. The traditional principle for classifying phraseological units

A phraseological unit is a complex phenomenon with a number of important features, which can therefore be approached from different points of view. Hence,

there exist a considerable number of different classification systems devised by different scholars and based on different principles.

**The traditional and oldest principle** for classifying phraseological units is based on their original content and might be alluded to as “**thematic**” (although the term is not universally accepted). The approach is widely used in numerous English and American guides to idiom, phrase books, etc. On this principle, idioms are classified according to their sources of origin.

This principle of classification is sometimes called “**etymological**”. The term does not seem appropriate since we usually mean something different when we speak of the etymology of a word or word-group: whether the word (or word-group) is native or borrowed. So, the general principle is not etymological.

The thematic principle of classifying phraseological units has real merit but it does not take into consideration the linguistic characteristic features of the phraseological units.

### **5. The semantic principle of classification for phraseological units**

The considerable contribution made by Russian scholars in phraseological research cannot be exaggerated. The classification system of phraseological units devised by V.V. Vinogradov is considered by some linguists of today to be outdated, and yet its value is beyond doubt because it was the first classification system which was based on the **semantic principle**. It goes without saying that semantic characteristics are of immense importance in phraseological units. It is also well known that in modern research they are often sadly ignored. That is why any attempt at studying the semantic aspect of phraseological units should be appreciated.

**Vinogradov’s classification system is founded on the degree of semantic cohesion (сцепление) between the components of a phraseological unit.** Units with a partially transferred meaning show the weakest cohesion between their components. The more distant the meaning of a phraseological unit from the current meaning of its constituent parts, the greater is the degree of semantic cohesion. Accordingly, V.V. Vinogradov classifies phraseological units into three classes: **phraseological combinations, phraseological unities and phraseological fusions** (*фразеологические сочетания, фразеологические единства и фразеологические сращения*).

**1) Phraseological combinations** are word-groups with a partially changed meaning. They may be said to be clearly motivated, that is, the meaning of the unit can be easily deduced from the meanings of its constituents.

E.g. *to look a sight* (coll.) (*выглядеть пугалом*), *to take something for granted* (*принимать как должное*),

*bosom friends* (*закадычные друзья*).

**2) Phraseological unities** are word-groups with a completely changed meaning, that is, the meaning of the unit does not correspond to the meanings of its constituent parts. They are motivated units; the meaning of the whole unit can be deduced from the meanings of the constituent parts; the metaphor, on which the shift of meaning is based, is clear and transparent.

E.g. *to stick to one's guns* (стоять на своём) – (= to be true to one's views or convictions);

*to sit on the fence* (сохранять нейтралитет) – (= in discussion, politics refrain from committing oneself to either side);

*to lose one's head* (потерять голову) – (= to be at a loss what to do);

*to lose one's heart to smb.* (полюбить кого-либо) – (= to fall in love);

*to look a gift horse in the mouth* (смотреть в зубы дарёному коню; критиковать подарок) – (= to examine present too critically);

*to ride the high horse* (важничать) – (= to behave in a superior, haughty way);

*a big bug/pot, sl.* (важная шишка) – (= a person of importance);

*a fish out of water* (человек не в своей тарелке; рыба без воды) – (a person situated uncomfortably outside his usual or proper environment).

**3) Phraseological fusions** are word-groups with a completely changed meaning but, in contrast to the unities, they are demotivated, that is, their meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of the constituent parts; the metaphor, on which the shift of meaning was based, has lost its clarity and is obscure.

E.g. *to come a cropper* (to come to disaster – *попасть в беду*; прямое значение – *упасть с лошади вниз головой*); *at sixes and sevens* (in confusion or in disagreement – *в беспорядке*); *to set one's cap at smb.* (to try and attract a man; spoken about girls and women - *завлекать, охотиться за женихом*).

It is obvious that this classification system does not take into account the structural characteristics of phraseological units. On the other hand, the border-line separating unities from fusions is vague and even subjective. One and the same phraseological unit may appear motivated to one person (and therefore be labelled as a unity) and demotivated to another (and be regarded as a fusion).

### **6. The structural principle of classification for phraseological units**

The structural principle of classifying phraseological units is based on their ability to perform the same syntactical functions as words. In the traditional structural approach, the following principal groups of phraseological units are distinguishable.

**A. Verbal.** E.g. *to run for one's (dear) life* (*бежать сломя голову*); *to talk through one's hat* (*говорить вздор*); *to sit pretty* (*командовать; руководить*).

**B. Substantive.** E.g. *dog's life* (*собачья жизнь*); *cat-and-dog life* (*живут, как кот с собакой*); *white lie* (*ложь во спасение*); *red tape* (*волокита*).

**C. Adjectival.** In this group the so-called comparative word-groups are particularly expressive and sometimes amusing: E.g. *high and mighty* (*высокомерный*); *safe and sound* (*жив, здоров; цел и невредим*); *(as) cool as a cucumber* (*хладнокровный*); *dead as a doornail* (*без всяких признаков жизни*).

**D. Adverbial.** E.g. *high and low* (*люди высокого звания*); *by hook or by crook* (*всеми правдами и неправдами*); *in cool blood* (*хладнокровно*).

**E. Interjectional** (восклицательные). E.g. *my God! good Heavens! Goodness Gracious!*

### **7. Classification system offered by Professor A.I. Smirnitsky**

Professor Smirnitsky offered a classification system for English phraseological units which is interesting as an attempt to combine the structural and the semantic

principles. Phraseological units in this classification system are grouped according to the number and semantic significance of their constituent parts. Accordingly two large groups are established:

**A. One-summit units** (*одновершинные фразеологические единства*), which have one meaningful constituent (e.g. *to give up*, *to make out* (*разбираться*), *to be tired*, *to be surprised*). It should be pointed out that most Russian scholars do not regard these as phraseological units; so this is a controversial point.

**B. Two-summit and multi-summit units** (*двухвершинные и многовершинные фразеологические единства*) which have two or more meaningful constituents. E.g. *black art* (*чёрная магия*), *first night* (*преьера*), *common sense* (*здравый смысл*), *to fish in troubled waters* (*ловить рыбу в мутной воде*).

Within each of these large groups the phraseological units are classified according to the category of parts of speech of the summit constituent.

Professor Smirnitsky also distinguishes **proper phraseological units** (*собственно фраз. единства*) which, in his classification system, are units with non-figurative meanings, and **idioms**, that is, units with transferred meanings based on a metaphor.

Professor Koonin, the leading Russian authority on English phraseology, pointed out certain inconsistencies in this classification system.

**1) First of all**, the subdivision into phraseological units (as non-idiomatic units) and idioms contradicts the leading criterion of a phraseological unit suggested by Pr. Smirnitsky: it should be idiomatic.

**2) Pr. Koonin also objects** to the inclusion of such word-groups as *black art*, *first night* in phraseology as all these word-groups are not characterized by a transferred meaning.

**3) It is also pointed out** that verbs with post-positions (e.g. *give up*) are included in classification but their status as phraseological units is not supported by any convincing argument.

## **8. The classification system of phraseological units suggested by Professor A.V. Koonin**

The classification system of phraseological units suggested by Professor A.V. Koonin is the latest outstanding achievement in the Russian theory of phraseology. **The classification is based on the combined structural-semantic principle and it also considers the quotient of stability of phraseological units.**

Phraseological units are subdivided into the following four classes according to their function in communication determined by their structural-semantic characteristics.

**1) Nominative phraseological units** are represented by word-groups, including the ones with one meaningful word, and coordinative phrases of the type *wear and tear* (*износ*), *well and good*.

The first class also includes word-groups with a predicative structure, such as *as the crow flies* (*напрямик, кратчайшим путём*) and predicative phrases of the type *see how the land lies* (*понимать положение вещей*).

2) **Nominative-communicative phraseological units** include word-groups of the type *to break the ice* (*нарушить молчание*)– *the ice is broken*.

3) Phraseological units which are **neither nominative nor communicative** include interjectional word-groups. *Goodness Gracious!*

4) **Communicative phraseological** units are represented by proverbs and sayings.

These four classes are divided into sub-groups according to the type of structure of the phraseological unit.

The classification system is based on truly scientific and modern criteria.



## LECTURE 8. TYPES OF DICTIONARIES (YCP 1)

### The questions under consideration

1. Lexicography and dictionaries
2. Bilingual dictionaries
3. Special bilingual dictionaries
4. Unilingual dictionaries
5. Special unilingual dictionaries

### KEY TERMS

lexicography	It is the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries and an important branch of applied linguistics. It has a common object of study with lexicology as both describe the vocabulary of a language.
dictionary	It is a book listing words of a language with their meanings and often with data regarding pronunciation, usage and/or origin.
unilingual or explanatory	Dictionaries in which the words and their definition belong to the same language.
bilingual or translation	Dictionaries that explain words by giving their equivalents in another language.
multilingual or polyglot	Dictionaries that serve chiefly the purpose of comparing synonyms and terminology in various languages.
diachronic	Dictionaries that reflect the development of the English vocabulary by recording the history of form and meaning for every word registered.
synchronic or descriptive	Dictionaries of current English concerned with present-day meaning and usage of words.
ideographic	This is a type of dictionary. In these dictionaries the main body is arranged according to a logical classification of notions expressed. But dictionaries of this type always have an alphabetical index attached to facilitate the search for the necessary word.
thesaurus	This is a type of dictionary. These dictionaries supply words by which a given idea may be expressed. They are meant for readers having a good knowledge of English, and enable them to pick up an adequate expression and avoid overuse of the same words.

### 1.Lexicography and dictionaries

**Lexicography**, that is the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries, is an important branch of applied linguistics. It has a common object of study with lexicology as both describe the vocabulary of a language.

The term **dictionary** is used to denote a book listing words of a language with their meanings and often with data regarding pronunciation, usage and/or origin. There are also dictionaries that concentrate their attention upon only one of these aspects: pronouncing (phonetical) dictionaries and etymological dictionaries.

For dictionaries in which the words and their definition belong to the same language the term **unilingual** or **explanatory** is used, whereas **bilingual** or **translation** dictionaries are those that explain words by giving their equivalents in another language. **Multilingual** or **polyglot** dictionaries are not numerous, they serve chiefly the purpose of comparing synonyms and terminology in various languages.

Unilingual dictionaries are further subdivided with regard to time. **Diachronic** dictionaries, of which the **Oxford English Dictionary** is the main example, reflect the development of the English vocabulary by recording the history of form and meaning for every word registered. They may be contrasted to **synchronic** or **descriptive** dictionaries of current English concerned with present-day meaning and usage of words. The examples of such dictionaries are **Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English** by A.S. Hornby (*the new 7th edition in 2005*), **Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners**, **Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English**.

Both bilingual and unilingual dictionaries can be **general** and **special**.

General dictionaries represent the vocabulary as a whole.

General dictionaries are contrasted to special dictionaries whose stated aim is to cover only a certain specific part of the vocabulary. Special dictionaries may be further subdivided depending on whether the words are chosen according to the sphere of human activity in which they are used (**technical dictionaries**), the type of the units themselves (e.g. **phraseological dictionaries**) or the relationships existing between them (e.g. **dictionaries of synonyms**).

English lexicography is probably the richest in the world with respect to variety and scope of the dictionaries published.

A dictionary is the most widely used reference book in English homes and business offices. Correct pronunciation and correct spelling are of great social importance because they are necessary for efficient communication.

## **2. Bilingual dictionaries**

A bilingual dictionary is useful to several kinds of people: to those who study foreign languages, to specialists reading foreign literature, to translators, to travellers, and to linguists. It may have two principal purposes: reference for translation and guidance for expression. It must provide an adequate translation in the target language of every word and expression in the source language. It is also supposed to contain all the inflectional, derivational, semantic and syntactic information that its reader might ever need, and also information on spelling and pronunciation.

The entries of a dictionary are usually arranged in alphabetical order.

What is unfortunately not always realized in connection with the compiling of bilingual dictionaries is that the same bilingual dictionary cannot serve the needs of the speakers of both languages. An English-Russian dictionary for Russians is different from an English-Russian dictionary for British or American readers.

It should also be realized that a bilingual dictionary is not equivalent to a unilingual dictionary.

The English-speaking user of a unilingual dictionary is likely to know the meaning of all the words in the explanatory part and should therefore be able to find the appropriate meaning for his context. The Russian-speaking user of a Russian-English dictionary would refer to its entries in order to express himself in English and he will need to know how the English words he finds there are used.

To sum up: the native-to-foreign and foreign-to-native dictionaries have to meet different requirements as they supply information for different types of work.

A good dictionary is one where you can quickly find what you are looking for.

**English-Russian Dictionary** by Professor V.K. MÜLLER is well-known and popular in Russia. It was first published in 1945 and later sustained numerous revised and enlarged editions. It is not a historical dictionary but one of current usage.

**The Concise Oxford Russian Dictionary** is an abridgement of **The Oxford Russian Dictionary**, published in 1933. It was first published in 1993; the revised edition was published in 1998. It is the leading intermediate Russian dictionary. This dictionary provides users with an authoritative guide to contemporary Russian and English in a concise and accessible format. The dictionary contains over 120,000 words and phrases, and 190,000 translations. All major fields of reference – from general to technical, business to literary – are covered. Thousands of examples, including modern idioms and colloquial expressions, ensure the user has a detailed picture of contemporary Russian and English. For the convenience of users all headwords in the English-Russian section are transcribed.

### **3. Special bilingual dictionaries**

This subgroup embraces highly specialized dictionaries of limited scope which may appeal to a particular kind of reader. They register and explain terms for various branches of knowledge: medical, linguistic, technical, economical, business, law terms.

**English-Russian Dictionary of Economics and Finance** edited by A.V. Anikin is the most complete and comprehensive English-Russian dictionary in its field. It contains 75,000 words and expressions and covers all branches of business and finance, including business colloquialisms and stockmarket slang. Appendices include a glossary of abbreviations and a table of monetary units.

**English-Russian Law Dictionary** by S.N. Andrianov represents the modern legal vocabulary. It contains 50,000 terms. Due accent in the dictionary was given to the modern American legal vocabulary. Together with general legal terms, the dictionary includes economic, banking, business and generally accepted legal Latin vocabulary.

The next subgroup deals with specific language units, i.e. with phraseology, synonyms, abbreviations, surnames, borrowings, neologisms, proverbs and sayings, etc.

It is necessary to mention **English-Russian Phraseological Dictionary** by A.V. Koonin. It is a unique comprehensive dictionary of English idioms. It contains about 25,000 phraseological units, thousands of examples, including idioms. This dictionary is an indispensable companion for translators.

#### **4. Unilingual dictionaries**

The most important unilingual dictionary of the English language is **The Oxford English Dictionary**. It appeared in thirteen volumes in 1933. The first part of the Dictionary appeared in 1884. Its prestige is enormous. It is considered superior to corresponding major dictionaries for other languages. It keeps to all the main principles of historical presentation and covers literary and colloquial English. Words are both defined and illustrated with key quotations.

**The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary** is the world bestseller recommended by learners of English and their teachers. It happens that the publication of this, the seventh edition of Dictionary, comes 250 years after the appearance of the first comprehensive dictionary of the English language, compiled by Samuel Johnson. Since then, the English has dispersed and diversified, has been adopted and adapted as an international means of communication by communities all over the globe. This obviously poses a problem for the dictionary maker: which words are to be included in a dictionary? This dictionary has more words and more help with British and American English than any other dictionary. It includes 183,500 British and American words, phrases and meanings, 85,000 example sentences, 7,000 synonyms and opposites. It has the Compass CD-ROM.

**The Macmillan English Dictionary** is a major new dictionary based on a 200 million word corpus of real spoken and written text. It includes over 100,000 references with 30,000 idioms and phrases. Its clear, simple definitions are written using 2,500 of the most common and familiar words, which are listed at the back of the dictionary.

The father of American lexicography was Noah Webster. His great work, **The American Dictionary of the English Language**, appeared in two volumes in 1828 and later sustained numerous revised and enlarged editions. He devoted his energy to giving the American English the status of an independent language, distinct from British English.

Webster's dictionary enjoyed great popularity from its first editions. This popularity was due not only to the accuracy and clarity of definitions but also to the richness of additional information of encyclopaedic character, which had become a tradition in American lexicography. As a dictionary it provides definitions, pronunciation and etymology. As an encyclopaedia it gives explanations about things named, including scientific and technical subjects.

Soon after N. Webster's death two printers and booksellers of Massachusetts, George and Charles Merriam, secured the rights of his dictionary from his family and started the publication of revised single volume editions under the name Merriam-

Webster. The staff working for the modern editions is a big institution numbering hundreds of specialists in different branches of human activity.

The latest completely revised edition is **Webster's Third New International Dictionary, Unabridged**, published by Merriam-Webster Inc. in 1961. It is America's most comprehensive dictionary of the English Language.

There are some other fine dictionaries in the Merriam-Webster line and the very latest in that series is **Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, Tenth Edition, 1993**. The 1600 pages of this Collegiate make it the most comprehensive. The information given is based on the collection of 14,500,000 citations used in a wide range of printed sources. More than 215,000 definitions deliver extensive coverage of the words. Special sections offer up-to-date information and include: Biographical Names, Geographical Names, Abbreviations, Foreign Words and Phrases, Signs and Symbols.

Some general dictionaries may have very specific aims and still be considered general due to their coverage. And so is a **Thesaurus** in spite of its unusual arrangement. The Latin word **thesaurus** means 'treasury'. **Roget's Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases** was first published in 1852. About 80 succeeding revised editions have appeared since. This type of dictionary is called **ideographic**. In the ideographic dictionaries the main body is arranged according to a logical classification of notions expressed. But dictionaries of this type always have an alphabetical index attached to facilitate the search for the necessary word.

The ideographic type of dictionary is in a way the converse of the usual type: the purpose of the latter is to explain the meaning when the word is given. The **Thesaurus**, on the contrary, supplies the words or words by which a given idea may be expressed. The book is meant for readers (*either native or foreign*) having a good knowledge of English, and enables them to pick up an adequate expression and avoid overuse of the same words.

### **5.Special unilingual dictionaries**

Unilingual dictionaries of this type giving definitions of terms are often prepared by boards of commissions appointed for the task of improving terminology and nomenclature. The most burning issues are connected with the selection of head-words, the arrangement and contents of the vocabulary entry, the principles of sense definitions.

**Longman Business English Dictionary** (new edition; first edition published in 2000, second – in 2007) is a comprehensive and authoritative guide to business vocabulary. Based on analysis of millions of words of authentic business texts, the dictionary covers a broad range of business fields. Clear definitions and authentic example sentences show clearly how words and phrases are used. It includes 30,000 up-to-date business terms from marketing, computing, banking and finance. All definitions are written using the 2,000-word vocabulary, so that even difficult words are clearly defined and without technical jargon.

Real example sentences are based on authentic business sources such as *The Financial Times*, *The Wall Street Journal* and the *Internet*. British and American English are equally important in the world of business and this dictionary has been

written by both British and American lexicographers and it fully covers British and American business terms.

Business Resource Section includes BEC and BULATS exam practice, emails, and financial statements. There is edition with CD-ROM.

Whenever somebody thinks of law dictionaries, **Black's** seems inevitably to come to mind. H.C.Black (1860-1927) first published his magnum opus in 1891, and his achievement might easily be taken for granted today. **Black's Law Dictionary** evolved over its six unabridged editions. The last edition was compiled on modern lexicographic methods. The specialized vocabularies are included – from bankruptcy to securities law. All headwords, including abbreviations, are alphabetized letter by letter, not word by word. Many terms in this dictionary are collected by topic. For example, the different types of contracts are defined under the main term *contract*.

There are dictionaries concentrated on one of the distinctive features of the word.

The new (*second*) edition of the **Cambridge Idioms Dictionary** (2007) clearly explains the meaning and use of over 7,000 idioms current in British, American, and Australian English. Example sentences for every idiom and guidance on usage help learners understand and use idioms with confidence.

The new edition of the **Cambridge Phrasal Verbs Dictionary** (2007) covers around 6,000 phrasal verbs current in British, American, and Australian English. Its key features:

- Fully updated with new phrasal verbs.
- Clear advice on grammar and usage.
- Thousands of example sentences show phrasal verbs in typical contexts.

The **Cambridge English Pronouncing Dictionary** (*17th edition*) is the ultimate guide to pronunciation in English. Thousands of pronunciations not shown in general dictionaries are included, from people and places, to words from science, technology and literature. It is based on the classic work by Daniel Jones. It includes clear, accessible layout with 80,000 entries and 220,000 British and North American pronunciations using the International Phonetic Alphabet.

## LECTURE 9. REGIONAL VARIETIES OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE (YCP 2)

### The questions under considerations

1. The English Language in modern world. The notion of World Standard English
2. The main variants of the English Language
3. General overview of British and American dialects

### KEY TERMS

accent  
Americanism  
American English  
Australian English  
bricism  
British English (BrE)  
Canadian English  
dialect  
General American  
Global English  
internationalism  
lexical differences  
linguistic variety  
mother tongue  
national language  
national standard  
North American English (NAme)  
official language  
regional variation  
sociolect/Social dialect  
Standart English  
variant  
World Standard English  
World English(es)

### 1. The English Language in modern world. The notion of World Standard English

The English language exists in the form of its varieties. For historical and economic reasons the English language has spread over vast territories where it has acquired distinctive peculiarities. **Variants** of the language are regionally marked. They are in the domain of a standard literal language, characterised by some minor peculiarities in the sound form, vocabulary, grammar and by their own literary norms.

**Standard English** is the language of Great Britain taught at schools and universities, used by the press, the radio and the television and spoken by educated

people. It may be defined as that form of English which is current and literary, substantially uniform and recognised as acceptable wherever English is spoken or understood. There is no doubt that the dialect of English that has the highest social status is the dialect, which is widely known as Standard English. Standard English is the dialect found in dictionaries and grammar books.

The form of speech that is frequently used in US mass media scientific, political and educational discourse referred to as **General American (GA)** is known as an umbrella term denoting American English - a continuum of accent - commonly attributed to a majority of Americans. It is widely perceived as lacking any distinctly regional, ethnic, or socioeconomic characteristics. Its status is still being debated by scholars.

## **2. The main variants of the English Language**

Today scholars distinguish **five variants** of the English language:

**British English (BrE).** What might be called the standard English of Great Britain is the speech of the educated people who live in London and the southeastern part of England. But this is only one of the regional dialects that has, over the centuries, achieved more extensive use than others. Other dialects include the class dialect of London known as Cockney and also Northern dialects, Midland dialects, South Western dialects, Welsh dialects, Lowland and Highland Scottish, Cornish, and Irish dialects of the English language.

**American English.** In spite of the standardizing effects of radio and television, there are still a number of dialect regions across the United States. Black Americans and Hispanics have significantly contributed to the creation of new dialects. Neither of these groups, however, has a uniform dialect but each has its regional variations. The influence of the US English on Canadian English has been strong because there is no natural boundary between the two countries. Most Americans may find it difficult to distinguish the English language used in the western provinces of Canada from that spoken in the United States.

**The English language of Australia and New Zealand.** Both Australia and New Zealand were settled by the British, and the English language taken there came from a variety of British dialects. New terms were coined to describe the unusual plants and animals, and some words were picked up from the speech of the Aborigines in Australia and Maoris in New Zealand. There is little regional variation in Australia, but there is significant social variation, as in Britain. The language of New Zealand is quite similar to that of Australia.

**The English language of South Asia** is made up of the countries of India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Nepal, and Bhutan. The area is a vast complex of ethnic and linguistic differences; there are more than 1,600 dialects and languages in India alone. The English language, brought by a colonizing nation, became a second language there long ago. Today it exhibits wide diversity, depending on the background of those who adopt it and the native vocabularies they contribute to it.

**South Africa**, the oldest British settlement in Africa, has two accepted European languages - English and Afrikaans, or Cape Dutch. Although the English spoken in South Africa differs somewhat from standard British English, its speakers



do not regard it as a separate dialect. Residents have added many Afrikanerisms to the language to denote features of the landscape.

Elsewhere in Africa, the most multilingual area of the world, English helps answer the needs of wider communication. It functions as an official language in Botswana, Lesotho, Swaziland, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Malawi, Uganda, and Kenya. The West African states of the Gambia, Sierra Leone, Nigeria, Ghana, and Liberia have English as the official language.

It is the national language of the UK, the USA, Australia, New Zealand and some parts of Canada.

Modern linguistics distinguishes territorial **variants** of a national language and local dialects. Variants of a language are regional varieties of a standard literary language characterised by some minor peculiarities in the sound system, vocabulary and grammar and by their own literary norms.

Dialects are varieties of a language used as a means of oral communication in small localities; they are set off from other varieties by some distinctive features of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. The most marked difference between dialects and regional variants in the field of phonetics lies in the fact that dialects possess phonemic distinctions, while regional variants are characterised by phonetic-distinctions. In matters of vocabulary and grammar the difference is in the greater number and greater diversity of local peculiarities in the dialects as compared with the regional variants.

### **3. General overview of British and American dialects**

British English also presupposes the division into dialects. **Dialects** are varieties of a language peculiar to some small locations, used in everyday speech as a means of oral communication and having non-normalised literary form. They differ from Standard English and from one another in pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. Dialects can be **social** and **regional, traditional** and **mainstream**.

The Standard English dialect itself is not entirely uniform. Scottish Standard English is clearly different from the Standard English of England at a number of points. It uses words such as *outwith* - "outside", *ronne* - "drainpipe", and *asht* - "serving dish" that are not known in England or Wales. And Scottish Standard English speakers also use grammatical forms that are not found in the Standard English elsewhere, such as: *Had you a good time last night? My clothes need washed. Will I shut the door?* Whereas similar speakers in England and Wales would say: *Did you have a good time last night? My clothes need washing. Shall I shut the door?*

There are also differences between the north and south of England. In the south, for example, people are more likely to say: *I haven't seen him. She won't do it*, while in the north of England you are more likely to hear people say: *I've not seen him. She'll not do it*.

Generally speaking, however, there is relatively little geographical variation within Standard English. The further down the social scale you go, the more apparent become regional differences. Thus, the Standard English relative pronoun *who* corresponds to a number of different nonstandard forms in different parts of the country:

- Standard English dialect: *the woman who taught us*;  
non-standard dialects: *the woman what taught us*; *the woman as taught us*; *the woman at taught us*; *the woman which taught us*.

This relationship between social and regional variation, with more regional variation at the bottom of the social scale and less at the top, also applies to **accents**. Accent simply refers to pronunciation. A dialect, on the other hand, has to do also with the grammatical forms, as well, perhaps, as any regional vocabulary that is employed. It is important to make this distinction between dialect and accent, in order to be able to show that it is possible to speak Standard English with a regional accent. Standard English has nothing to do with pronunciation. In fact, most people who speak Standard English do so with some form of regional pronunciation, so that you can tell where they come from much more by their accent than by their grammar or vocabulary. There is only a slim minority of the population, not more than 2 to 5 per cent, who speak Standard English with the totally regionless accent which is sometimes referred to as the BBC English [17].

In addition to regional and social dialects and accents, English also has different styles, which are used in different social situations, and different registers, which are used for different topics.

Sociolinguist Peter Trudgill assumes that dialects of English can be divided into two other types: **Traditional dialects**, which are most often spoken by older people in geographically peripheral, more rural parts of the country, and **Mainstream dialects**, which are more like Standard English, and are more associated with younger, urban speakers.

As long as traditional dialects are mainly, spoken by older people, and thus are gradually disappearing, they are being replaced by mainstream dialects. Their most typical characteristic, however, is that they are linguistically very different from one another and from Standard English. Differences are likely to be found in grammar and pronunciation.

The British Isles boast many speech varieties confined to particular areas. These local dialects traceable to Old English dialects may be classified into **six distinct divisions**:

- 1)Lowland (Scottish or Scotch, North of the river Tweed);
- 2)Northern (between the rivers Tweed and Humber);
- 3)Western;
- 4)Midland;
- 5)Eastern (between the river Humber and the Thames);
- 6)Southern (South of the Thames).

Their sphere of application is confined to the oral speech of the rural population in a locality and only the Scottish dialect can be said to have a literature of its own with Robert Burns as its greatest representative.

Since BrE, NAmE and AuE have essentially the same grammar system, phonetic system and vocabulary, they cannot be regarded as different languages. Nor can they be referred to as local dialects; because they serve all spheres of verbal

communication in society, within their territorial area they have dialectal differences of their own; besides they differ far less than local dialects.

Another consideration is that NAmE has its own literary norm and AuE is developing its own one. Thus, we must distinguish **three variants of the English language**:

- the first one spoken in the British Isles;
- another spoken in the USA;
- the third - in Australia.

**Canadian English** is influenced both by British and American English but it also has some specific features of its own. Specifically Canadian words are called **Canadianisms**.

Today scholars analyse Australian English, Canadian English, and Indian English. Each of these has developed a literature of its own, and is characterised by peculiarities in phonetics, spelling, grammar and vocabulary.

The main lexical differences between the variants are caused by the lack of equivalent lexical units in one of them, divergences in the semantic structures of polysemantic words and peculiarities of usage of some words on different territories. Local variations in the USA are relatively small. What is called by tradition American dialects is closer in nature to regional variants of the national literary language.

Nowadays English is often described as a global language. According to David Crystal "A language achieves a genuinely global status when it develops a special role that is recognized in every country. This might seem like stating the obvious, but it is not, for the notion of 'special role' has many facets. Such a role will be most evident in countries where large numbers of the people speak the language. <...> in the case of English, this would mean the USA, Canada, Britain, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, several Caribbean countries and a sprinkling of other territories. However, no language has ever been spoken by a mother tongue majority in more than a few countries (Spanish leads, in this respect, in some twenty countries, chiefly in Latin America), so mother-tongue used by itself cannot give a language global status. To achieve such a status, a language has to be taken up by other countries around the world. They must decide to give it a special place within their communities, even though they may have few (or no) mother-tongue speakers" [Crystal, D. English as a global language/ D.Crystal. 2nd ed. Cambridge, 2003].

The English language appears to have become our global language because "Firstly, a language can be made the official language of a country, to be used as a medium of communication in such domains as government, the law courts, the media, and the educational system. To get on in these societies, it is essential to master the official language as early in life as possible. Such a language is often described as a 'second language', because it is seen as a complement to a person's mother tongue or 'first language'. The role of an official language is today best illustrated by English, which now has some kind of special status in over seventy countries, such as Ghana, Nigeria, India, Singapore and Vanuatu. Secondly, a

language can be made a priority in a country's foreign language teaching, even though this language has no official status.

English is now the language most widely taught as a foreign language in over 100 countries, such as China, Russia, Germany, Spain, Egypt and Brazil - and in most of these countries it is emerging as the chief foreign language to be encountered in schools, often displacing another language in the process. In 1996, for example, English replaced French as the chief foreign language in schools in Algeria (a former French colony)" [Crystal, D. English as a global language/ D.Crystal. 2nd ed. Cambridge, 2003].

Another notion which is relevant today is **World English(es)**. This term is used for emerging localized or indigenized varieties of English, especially varieties that have developed in territories influenced by the United Kingdom or the United States. The study of World English(es) consists of identifying varieties of English used in diverse sociolinguistic contexts globally and analyzing how sociolinguistic histories, multicultural backgrounds and varied contexts influence the use of English in different parts of the world.

The issue of World Englishes was first raised in 1978 to examine concepts of regional Englishes globally. Pragmatic factors such as appropriateness, comprehensibility and interpretability justified the use of English as an international and intra-national language. In 1988, at a Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) conference in Honolulu, Hawaii, the International Committee of the Study of World Englishes (ICWE) was formed. In 1992, the ICWE formally launched the International Association for World Englishes (IAWE) at a conference of "World Englishes Today", at the University of Illinois, USA. There is now an academic journal devoted to the study of this topic, titled "World Englishes".

Currently, there are approximately 75 territories where English is spoken either as a first language (L1) or as an unofficial or institutionalized second language (L2) in fields such as government, law and education. It is difficult to establish the total number of Englishes in the world, as new varieties of English are constantly being developed and discovered.

In 1985 Braj Kachru proposed his conceptualization of the then situation of the English speaking world in terms of three concentric circles: Inner Circle (IC), Outer Circle (OC) and Expanding Circle (EC). The Inner Circle represents countries in which English is used as the "primary" language such as the United Kingdom, the United States, and Australia. The Outer Circle includes countries where English has been 'institutionalized' and functions as an official or a major language, such as Singapore, India, and Nigeria. OC societies underwent colonization by English users from the United Kingdom and the United States of America.

The colonisers brought along the language to and initiated the use of it in these new lands. The Expanding Circle (EC) represents the countries where English is used when the local people come into contact with people from other countries; thus, is referred to as an "international" language, for example, Vietnam, Indonesia and Thailand. The conceptualisation of the three Circles was based on "the types of spread, the patterns of acquisition and the functional domains in which English is

used across cultures and languages". In the 1990s, he visualised in a diagram how the three circles related to each other.

At about the same time, another diagram visualising the three Circles of English was also introduced in "The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language" [Crystal, D. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language/ D.Crystal. Printed in Italy, 1995].

This diagram represents the idea of concentricity of the Circles, and, in a sense, the diasporic spread of English to other parts of the world. However, the model with the Inner Circles as the centre and the colour fading away from the centre does not reflect Kachru's conceptualization of the 'World Englishes [24]. Instead, this model is misleading in that IC Englishes are positioned as central and hence can be advocated to serve as "the source of models of correctness, the best teachers, and English-language goods and services consumed by those in the periphery".

## 2. ПРАКТИЧЕСКИЙ РАЗДЕЛ

### 2.1. Практические занятия

#### WORKSHOP 1. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE WORD

##### Task 1. Find the word which is colloquial in style

- a) parent; c) dad;  
b) father; d) ancestor.
2. Find the word which is bookish in style:  
a) darkness; c) foolish;  
b) harmony; d) glad.
3. Find a non-literary word (slang):  
a) wife; c) missus;  
b) sister; d) mother.
4. Find a non-literary word (professionalism):  
a) a shop; c) a store;  
b) a lab; d) a barn.
5. Find a non-literary word or expression (vulgarism):  
a) bad; c) awful;  
b) negative; d) bloody.
6. Find the word which is motivated morphologically:  
a) father; c) aunt;  
b) singer; d) niece.
7. Find the word which is completely motivated morphologically:  
a) long; c) big;  
b) endless; d) large.
8. Find the word which is partially motivated morphologically:  
a) cherry; c) plum;  
b) apple; d) cranberry.
9. Find the word which is motivated phonetically:  
a) hiss; c) table;  
b) book; d) chair;

##### Task 2. Match the traditionally used words and their politically correct equivalents

- |   |            |    |                          |
|---|------------|----|--------------------------|
| 1 | mankind    | a) | nonspecialist            |
| 2 | salesman   | b) | incomplete success       |
| 3 | weatherman | c) | refuse collector         |
| 4 | layman     | d) | salesperson              |
| 5 | binman     | e) | domestic arts            |
| 6 | slums      | f) | correctional institution |

7	housework	g)	humanity
8	failure	h)	substandard housing
9	prison	i)	meteorologist
10	man-made	k)	follicularly challenged
11	boring	l)	emotionally different
12	bald	m)	synthetic
13	crazy	n)	involuntarily leisured
14	homeless	o)	involuntarily undomiciled
15	unemployed	p)	differently interesting

**Task 3. The following synonyms illustrate the relations that exist between the neutral, literary and colloquial words in the English language. Distinguish the layers the lexical units given belong to (colloquial-neutral-literary)**

kid	child	infant
mate / buddy	friend	companion
chap	fellow	associate
guy	man	male / male individual
boss	boss	manager / supervisor
medic	doctor	physician / GP
goon	continue	proceed
go ahead	start	commence
go after	follow	pursue
bring in	introduce	present
hold sth out	offer	extend

**Task 4 Comment on the style and usage labels these words have in the New Oxford Dictionary, the Concise English Dictionary and the Oxford Advanced Learner's dictionary.**

NOUNS: billow, swain, yeoman, main, maid, dolour, nuptials;  
 ADJECTIVES: lone, dreaded/dread, lovesome, clamant, direful, duteous;  
 VERBS: wax, quath, list, throw, tarry, hearken (hear);  
 PRONOUNS: thee, thou, thy, aught, naught;  
 ADVERBS: scarce, haply, oft, whilom, of yore, anon;  
 CONJUNCTIONS: albeit, ere, e'er, 'neath, sith;  
 PREPOSITIONS: anent, amidst, betwixt.

## WORKSHOP 2. STYLISTIC CLASSIFICATION of the ENGLISH VOCABULARY

**Task 1. How large is the English lexicon? How large is your lexicon? To test it use:**

Preply [Электронный ресурс] .-Режим доступа: <https://preply.com/en/learn/english/test-your-vocab>. - Дата доступа: 06.03.2023.

Cambridge [Электронный ресурс] .- Режим доступа: <https://www.cambridgeenglish.org/test-your-english/>. - Дата доступа: 06.03.2023

**Task 2. Make up lists of formal and informal words (10+10).**

**Task 3. Suggest neutral synonyms to the poetical words.**

Behold, deem, gore, array, lone, murky, nigh, oft, albeit, ere.

**Task 4. Consult a dictionary and give the definitions of the following words:**

Archaisms; archaic; barbarisms; dialect; dialectal

**Task 5. Give the barbarisms their corresponding English equivalents.**

Bon mot, et cetera, Alma Mater, ad hoc, tete-a-tete.

**Task 2. The following words appeared as slang words. Consult dictionaries to see if they still preserve this stylistic reference.**

Beans, chink, attic, nut, cock-eyed, mob, snob, chap, humbug.

**Task 2. Consult a dictionary and define the stylistic reference of the words and word-combinations given below.**

Whereafter, brow, thee, horse, gee-gee, commence, labial, donation, fair, woollies, where on earth, good Lord, hat peg, boozy, cradle-snatcher.

**Task 2. Pick out the archaic words from the list given below and comment their usage and meaning.**

Do, dost, does, you, thee, ye, thou, horse, though, albeit, also, eke, spring, vernal, said, quoth, told, maiden, girl, perhaps, ere, before.

**Task 2. Consult a dictionary and substitute modern forms and words for:**

hath, dost, thee, didst, wight, ye, whilom, sooth, yon, rhymeth, sate.



**Task 2. Give modern English equivalents of the words. Translate them into Russian.**

Bade, spouce, dire, aught, kine, swain, courser, ire, charger, thy, thine, troth, hath, whit.

### WORKSHOP 3. NEOLOGISMS, SLANG, TWO-WORD PHRASES

**Task 1. Comment on the word-building means used in the following neologisms. Translate them into Russian.**

Gogglebox, deterrent, redundancy, landslide, rethinking, denuclearize, reflation, parolee, filmnik, detainee, no-goodnik, pray-in, sitters-in, showmanship, brinkmanship, outdoorsman, to front-page, the foodie, the go-ahead, sci-fi, Reagagate, Monicagate, to snow-ball, to deglamorize, mini-cruise, foodoholic, brown-bagger.

**Task 2. Translate the word-combinations and compound-neologisms. Use them in sentences of your own.**

Character assassination, double standard, paper-back book, brain tank, communication gap, job-hopper, shockwave, shuttle democracy, marginal man, fall-out, sweet heart contract, nine-to-fiver, Gay liberation, doublespeak, spaghetti-western, runaways.

**Task 3. Create new words using the following word parts: *cyber-space=(cyber+space), cafe, land, law, punk, crime, threat, hygiene.***

Word: \_\_\_\_\_

Definition: \_\_\_\_\_

Example sentence: \_\_\_\_\_

**Task 4. Match common slang and dialect terms with their definitions (explanations)**

#### A. Greetings, Please and Thank You

1	Alright?	a)	This is usually said as a toast when you raise your glasses to celebrate, but it also means Thank you'.
2	Hiya or Hey up	b)	Let's go or Come on. This is popular in the north east of England.
3	What about ye?	c)	Thank you:
4	Howay	d)	These informal greetings both mean

			Hello and are especially popular in the north of England.
5	Cheers	e)	Hello. How are you?
6	See you	f)	This is popular in Northern Ireland and is another way of saying 'How are you?'
	Ta	g)	Goodbye and see you soon.

### B. People, Friends and Family

Don't be confused if someone calls you **pet, duck, sweetie, love, chicken, chuck, chucky-egg or sunshine**. Older people in the UK often use these terms when they are addressing younger people as a sign of affection and friendliness. (It is usually not appropriate for younger people to use these terms with older people, however.)

Other common slang and dialect terms are hear:

1	Bairn	a)	This means my brother or my sister. It is especially popular in the northwest and midlands of England.
2	Lad	b)	Grandmother
3	Lass or Lassie	c)	Grandfather
4	Bloke or Chap	d)	These both mean Friend, too. They are more old-fashioned now, but you may still hear people use them in a light-hearted way.
5	Mate or Pal	e)	Boy
6	Me old mucker or Chum	f)	Baby or young child. This word is especially popular in Scotland and the north east of England.
7	Mum, Mummy, Ma or Mam	g)	Girl
8	Our kid	h)	Father
9	Gran, Nan or Granny	i)	Man
10	Grandpa or Grandad	k)	Friend
11	Dad or Daddy	l)	Mother

**Task 5. Study thoroughly two-word phrases often used in spoken English and fill in the gaps in the sentences with the most suitable ones.**

1. **so-so** = OK;

2. **on-off** = not constant;

3. **love-hate** = having feelings for someone / something which swing from love to hate;

4. **mish-mash** = when things are combined together and so appear untidy;

5. **riff-raff** = quite a 'snobby' expression to describe people you think are lower in class than you;

6. **chit-chat** = small talk or unimportant conversation;

- 7. **ship-shape** = everything in its right place;
- 8. **zig-zag** = move diagonally;
- 9. **ding-dong** = an argument;
- 10. **higgledy-piggledy** = in a mess;
- 11. **wishy-washy** = weak opinion, argument or person.

1. "That bookshelf is all \_\_\_\_\_!"
2. "His argument is a bit wish \_\_\_\_\_ - I don't get the impression that he really knows what he wants to think."
3. "He asked us to stop our \_\_\_\_\_ and get on with our work."
4. "I want to leave the place \_\_\_\_\_ when we go on holiday."
5. "They have a very \_\_\_\_\_ relationship."
6. "Let's send out invitations for the party. We don't want the town's \_\_\_\_\_ turning up and eating all the food."
7. "I have a bit of a \_\_\_\_\_ relationship with my car."
8. "He lost control of the car and it \_\_\_\_\_ across the road."
9. "The new policy is a bit of a \_\_\_\_\_ of the last two policies we've had."
10. "They've had a bit of a \_\_\_\_\_ and they're not talking to each other at the moment."
11. "How was the meeting?" " \_\_\_\_\_ - it was nice to see everyone, but we didn't get anything decided."

## WORKSHOP 4. ETYMOLOGICAL SURVEY OF THE ENGLISH WORD-STOCK

**Task 1. Consult the glossary of terms and give the definitions of the following words:**

1) Borrowings; 2) translation loans; 3) doublets; 4) assimilation; 5) international words; 6) pseudo-international words

**Task 2. State from what languages the following expressions and shortenings are borrowed. Translate them into Russian.**

1) coup d'etat, kindergarten, tete-a-tete, Blitzkrieg, enfant terrible, persona grata, beau monde, leit-motiv, bon mot, primadonna, ottava rima, Hun, nazi, sputnik, ballet, football;

2) etc., e.g., a.m., p.m.

**Task 3. Here bellow are some borrowings from English currently used in Russian. Do you know the original words? What do they look and sound like in English?**

Бизнесмен, битник, бутсы, бульдозер, кемпинг, круиз, мокасины, мотель, сервис, стриптиз, хепенинг, хеппи-энд, хиппи, хипстер, хобби.

**Task 4. Using a dictionary compare the meaning, of the following pairs of words and explain why they are called etymological doublets.**

Abridge - abbreviate, artist - artiste, captain - chieftain, card - chart, cavalry - chivalry, catch - chase, corps - corpse, egg - edge, gage - wage, hotel - hospital, hale - whole, liquor - liqueur, of- off, pauper - poor, raise - rear, senior - sir, scar - share, skirt - shirt, shade - shadow, whit - wight; kirk - church, nay - no, skin - hide, sky - heaven; warden - guardian, chair - cathedral, camera – chamber

**Task 5. Determine the etymology and the degree of assimilation of the following lexical units:**

mascara	machine
delicatessen	school
macaroni	bourgeois
cereal	boutique
pattern	Zoo
purple	moustache
centennial	emphatic
millennium	nouveau riche
intelligence	hybrid
alumnus	gifted
coffee	café
conservatory	conservatoire

police	husband
cradle	datum
squaw	clinic

## **WORKSHOP 5. INTERNATIONAL AND PSEUDOINTERNATIONAL WORDS**

**Task 1 Group these units into a) international words, b) pseudointernational words**

- |                 |                |
|-----------------|----------------|
| 1 actual        | 18 idiom       |
| 2 ammunition    | 19 instructive |
| 3 antenna       | 20 magazine    |
| 4 antibiotic    | 21 match       |
| 5 artillery     | 22 navigator   |
| 6 artist        | 23 opera       |
| 7 billet        | 24 Parliament  |
| 8 cabin         | 25 piano       |
| 9 catholic      | 26 pilot       |
| 10 club         | 27 plaster     |
| 11 cocktail     | 28 pullover    |
| 12 conductor    | 29 relict      |
| 13 conservatory | 30 sputnik     |
| 14 extravagant  | 31 tennis      |
| 15 film         | 32 trolley-bus |
| 16 football     | 33 virtuous    |
| 17 hospital     |                |

**Task 2 Compare these pseudointernational words with their Russian counterparts and classify them into two groups: a) words which are similar in form but completely different in meaning, b) words which have some common features and differences in their meanings**

1	brigadier	12	compositor
2	meeting	13	mayor
3	protection	14	record
4	liver	15	lunatic
5	physician	16	auditory
6	pamphlet	17	carton
7	novelist	18	appellation
8	balloon	19	physique

9	correspondence	20	nation
10	genial	21	advocate
11	fabric	22	pathos

**Task 3 Make a careful study of the following pairs of words and explain the difference in the pragmatic aspect of their meanings (stylistic, emotional, evaluative)**

1. career – карьера
2. affair – афера
3. speculation – спекуляция
4. ambition - амбиция
5. clique – клика
6. pedagogue – педагог
7. manifestation - манифестация

**Task 4 Choose the English counterparts of the underlined words.**

1. За три года аспирант должен подготовить к защите кандидатскую диссертацию.
  - a) aspirant
  - b) post-graduate (student)
2. Медленно потягивая красными губами ликер, он рассказывал... (А. Куприн).
  - a) liqueur
  - b) liquor
3. Шофер несколько раз пробовал завести двигатель, но мотор всякий раз глох.
  - a) probed
  - b) tried
4. В хлебном магазине она купила два батона хлеба.
  - a) batons
  - b) long loaves
5. "Нельзя же планы превращать в мертвую цифру!" - раздалась громкая реплика из глубины зала (В. Тендряков).
  - a) replica
  - b) retort

6. [Доктор] прописал мне пять рецептов, а главное - запретил жить зимою в Ялте (А.П. Чехов).

- a) prescriptions
- b) receipt
- c) recipe

**Task 5 Choose the correct translation for the underlined pseudointernational words.**

**Set I**

I. He found them already eating marmalade (J. Galsworthy).

- a) мармелад
- b) варенье

2. For lunch ... we could have biscuits, cold meat, bread and butter and jam... (J.K. Jerome).

- a) печенье, крекеры
- b) бисквиты

3. A careful motorist strictly observes safety rules on the road.

- a) автомобилист, водитель
- b) моторист

4. She was taken to a clothes factory and became a good machinist.

- a) машинистка
- b) швея

5. Whisky-and-water was ordered, which was drunk upon the perron before the house (W. Thackeray).

- a) терраса, крыльцо
- b) перрон

6. The chemist took a matrass from a shelf, poured in some fluid and corked it.

- a) матрас
- b) колба, пробирка

7. No woman should ever be quite accurate about her age (O. Wilde).

- a) аккуратная
- b) точная

## Set II

1. К чаю подали печенье и мармелад.
  - a) marmalade
  - b) candied fruit jelly
2. Перед диваном возвышался наполненный душистым шоколадом, окруженный чашками, графинами с сиропом, бисквитами и булками, даже цветами - огромный фарфоровый кофейник ... (И. Тургенев).
  - a) biscuits
  - b) sponge-cakes
3. Кирилл начал с мотористов на теплоходе, но служба в армии сделала его танкистом (А. Рыбаков).
  - a) motor-mechanic
  - b) motorist
4. Она не пошла работать машинисткой.
  - a) typist
  - b) machinist
5. Геннадий выбежал на перрон за шесть минут до отхода (В. Панова).
  - a) perron
  - b) platform
6. В витрине выставлены стулья, обитые черной клеенкой, куцая цветастая тахта с толстыми валиками, белесый буфет и - дыбом - пружинный матрац ... (В. Панова).
  - a) mattress
  - b) matrass
7. Это был молодой инженер, аккуратный, выдержанный и корректный ... (Д. Мамин-Сибиряк).
  - a) accurate
  - b) thorough

### Task 6 a) or b) ?

1. актуальная книга	a) actual book	b) topical book
2. кризис доверия	a) credibility gap	b) confidence crisis
3. контингент избирателей	a) the electorate	b) contingent of voters
4. фальшивые (поддельные)	a) false documents	b) forged documents (papers)



документы		
5.формировать чей-либо характер	a) to shape a personality	b)to form somebody's character

**Task 7 Complete the sentences using the suitable English equivalents to the words in brackets.**

1. The ..... where the children were taught was a large light room. (*класс*)
2. The school has splendidly equipped physics and chemistry ..... .(*кабинеты*)
3. The sister was more ..... than her brother. (*практичный*)
4. It was ..... work in three volumes on the history of Japan. (*капитальный*)
5. Their morning walks have become a ..... .(*система*)
6. As a child he had been enthusiastic about collecting ..... .(*марки*)
7. The disease ..... rapidly. (*прогрессировать*)
8. The lecturer placed the main ..... on the economic relations between the two countries. (*акцент*)
9. Severe frosts are expected in the first ..... of January. (*декада*)
10. The public utility department ordered new ..... for the municipal gardens. (*урны*)

**Task 8 Suggest Russian translation of the underlined pseudointernational words in the following contexts.**

1. Dempsey had a glacial eye, a dominating slit of n mouth, an indestructible jaw, a complexion like a belle's and the coolness of a champion (O. Henry).
2. He was a delight to work with and is one of the most intelligent people I have run across (T.J. Cooney).
3. The princess of silks and satins wiped a red drop or two from Raggles's brow with a fragrant cobweb (O. Henry).
4. Then the gent at the window across the air-shaft would get out his flute; the nightly gas leak would steal forth to frolic in the highways; the dumb waiter would slip off its trolley; the janitor would drive Mrs. Zanolowski's five children once more across the Yalu, the lady with the champagne shoes and the Skye terrier would trip downstairs and paste her Thursday name over her bell and letter-box - and the evening routine of the Frog-more flats would be under way (O. Henry).
5. She was talking to her friend Mrs. Massington, whom she always found sympathetic (A. Christie).
6. Sam was at the depot ... (O. Henry).
7. Twenty thousand people in Cactus City scatter their silver coin with liberal hands

for the things that their hearts desire (O. Henry).

8. Simon began to relax for the first time as the debate continued, but his mood changed as some back-bench members started to express more and more anxiety over the Patriots' Provision (J. Archer).
9. One need only drop the first three words of the message "In my opinion there is other life in the universe" to demonstrate how meaning can shift dramatically (T.J. Cooney).
10. Billy McMahan was the district leader. Upon him the Tiger purred, and his hand held manna to scatter. Now, as Ikey entered, McMahan stood, flushed and triumphant and mighty, the centre of a huzzaing concourse of his lieutenants and constituents (O. Henry).
11. He absorbed information so accurately that he seemed to be almost familiar with each job as the men who were working on it... (J.J. Marris).
12. The motion of the Charter was agreed to without a division (J. Archer).

## WORKSHOP 6. AFFIXATION

**Task 1 Consult the glossary of terms and give definitions of the words and word-combinations**

1.Word-formation; 2. Morpheme; 3.Free morpheme; 4.Abound morpheme;  
5.Allomorph; 6.Root; 7.Prefix; 8.Suffix; 9.Base; 10.Suffix ;11.Inflexion

**Task 2 Study the words and comment on the meaning of the derivational affixes they contain**

ageism  
boyhood  
clubber  
doable

growth  
groceries  
ex-president

refuel  
shopaholic  
spoonful

**Task 3 Analyse the words morphologically**

Acquire, accordingly, calculable, drawback, fruitfulness, flower-pot, speechless, ringlet, cranberry, rewrite, retain, handy, friendship, governmental, runner, unsystematic, railroad, superman, unpleasant, wonderful, readable.

**Task 4 Study the following adjectives and combine them with the prefixes given**

**dis-, il-, in-, im-, ir-, mis-,over-, sub-,un-,under-**

experienced  
honest  
legal  
normal

mature  
potential  
valuable  
conscious

**Task 5 Choose the verbs that form their opposite with the help of the prefix *dis-***

Agree, appeal, approve, become, believe, forget, like, mantle, qualify

**Task 6 With the help of appropriate suffixes form the nouns from the verbs given**

Annul, behave, choose, destroy, enjoy, help, manage, produce

### Task 7

Which unit is the odd one out in each of the following sets?

#### Set I

1. noun-forming suffixes: **-or, -ive, -hood, -ism**
2. adjective-forming suffixes: **-able, -less, -ous, -ty**
3. verb-forming suffixes: **-ize, -ify, -ful, -ise**

#### Set II

1. suffixes denoting the agent of an action: **-er, -or, -ist, -ment**
2. suffixes denoting nationality: **-tion, -ian, -ese, -ish**
3. suffixes denoting diminutiveness: **-ie, -kin, -ock, -ster**
4. suffixes denoting feminine gender: **-ess, -age, -ine, -ette**
5. suffixes having derogatory meaning: **-ard, -ster, -ist, -ton**

#### Set III

1. suffixes of native origin: **-ful, -less, -able, -dom, -ish, -ship**
2. suffixes of Romanic origin: **-ment, -en, -eer, -age, -ance**
3. suffixes of Greek origin: **-ist, -ism, -ite, -nik**

#### Set IV

1. prefixes of negative meaning: **in-, non-, en-, un-**
2. prefixes denoting repetition or reversal action: **re-, pre-, dis-, de-**
3. prefixes denoting space: **sub-, inter-, trans-, mis-**
4. prefixes denoting time and order: **im-, fore-, pre-, post-**

### Task 8

Insert an appropriate negative prefix: **un-, il-, im-, in-, ir-, ab-, dis-, mis-, non-**.

#### Set I

1. The food dished up for the prisoners was practically ...eatable (J.H. Chase).

2. ...to get furious with those who ...agree with us (T.J. Cooney).
3. Crime is personal. Evidence of crime is ...personal (E.S. Gardner).
4. Greta, stolid as ever, glanced at the farm with ...curious eyes (A. Seton).
5. I fancied our characters were not ...similar (Ph. Carr).
6. It could be a lie, an ...intentional untruth, a partial truth, or an opinion (T.J. Cooney).
7. They were drawn to each other by a magnet that was ...resistible (B. Cartland).
8. All while they were taking pictures they were yelling at us in the most ...respectful way (J.M. Cain).
9. A ...obvious option might be to ask the pilot to circle around one more time (T.J. Cooney).
10. Every time she came near me, she seemed to envelop me; she seemed deeper than water, as ...escapable as air... (J. Baldwin).
11. Home had not changed, but she had - ...measurably... (A. Seton).
12. For herself, she was ...different and intent as a wild animal, and as ...responsible (D.H. Lawrence).
13. The farm hasn't managed that for us, of course, but it has done other things, ...expected. ...logical (N. Gordimer).
14. Did anything strike you about them - any ...normality, any ...sincerity? (A. Christie).

## Set II

1. a) A bit of teasing and ...comfort wouldn't do him any harm (R. Dahl).  
b) Travis looked slightly ...comfortable (L. Turner).
2. a) It is most ...fortunate (Ph. Carr).  
b) They had the ...fortune to be hit by a violent storm (Oxford Advanced Learner's Encyclopedic Dictionary).
3. a) He thought them ...interesting and crude (A. Christie).  
b) My advice is quite ...interested (Oxford Advanced Learner's Encyclopedic Dictionary).
4. a) "A very ...explicable business," said Mr. Quin... (A. Christie).  
b) An ...explainable aimlessness engulfs me (W.P. Kinsella).
5. a) He has proved himself completely ...trustworthy (Collins COBUILD Essential English Dictionary).

b) The older I grow the more I ...trust the familiar doctrine that age brings wisdom (H.L. Mencken).

6. a) They stared at it in a mixture of relief and ...belief (L. Fosburgh).

b) She's got an ...believable number of cats! (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English).

### Task 9

**Identify the meaning of the suffix *-ish* in the underlined words. The meanings of the suffix are:**

- a) "of being, or pertaining to";
- b) "after the manner of, having the characteristics of like";
- c) "addicted to, inclined or tending to";
- d) "near, approximately";
- e) "somewhat, rather".

1. He brushed away some beads of perspiration on his pinkish brow (P. Highsmith).
2. Some women have told me I look boyish, which I don't take as a compliment (I. Shaw).
3. She's Swedish (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English).
4. There was a longish pause (R. Dahl).
5. I can see you around eightish. Mike (Internet).
6. The woman's face was white and bloodless, and there was a slight bluish-grey tinge around the nostrils and the mouth (R. Dahl).
7. I must not be foolish and fanciful (Ph. Carr).
8. She was always a bookish child (Oxford Advanced Learner's Encyclopedic Dictionary).
9. He had got out of the car and walked to the nearest house, a smallish farm building about fifty yards off the road... (R. Dahl).
10. Look at her - isn't it awfully good - just like a shrewish woman (D.H. Lawrence).

**Task 10 Form verbs with the following prefixes, translate them into Russian:**

be-, re-, per-, pro-, for-, trans-, dis-, de-, mis-.

**Task 11 Read the information presented below.**

#### The Prefix tells the number

After each number are one or more prefixes used to form words that include that number. Knowing what the prefix stands for can help you understand the meaning of the word. For example, a **monorail** has one track. A **pentagon** has five sides.

**September** gets its name from the calendar used in Roman times when it was the seventh month (the Roman year began in March). An **octopus** has eight arms. I,

**a) Translate the words given in the list.**

1	uni-, mon-, mono-	<b>unicycle, unicon, monorail, monarch</b>
2	bi-	<b>bicycle, binary, binoculars, bifocals</b>
3	tri-	<b>tricycle, triangle, trilogy, trio</b>
4	quadr-, tetr-	<b>quadrangle, quadruplet, tetrahedron</b>
5	pent-, quint-	<b>pentagon, pentathlon, quintuplet</b>
6	hex-, sext-	<b>hexagon, sextuplet, sextet</b>
7	hept-, sept-	<b>heptathlon, septuplet</b>
8	oct-	<b>octave, octet, octopus, octagon</b>
9	non-	<b>nonagon, nonet</b>
10	dec-	<b>decade, decibel, decimal</b>
100	cent-	<b>centipede, century</b>
1000	kilo-	<b>kilogram, kilometer, kilowatt</b>
million	mega-	<b>megabyte, megahertz,</b>
billion	giga-	<b>gigabyte, gigawatt</b>

**Task 12 Consult the dictionary for giving other words as examples with the prefixes given in the list.**

**WORKSHOP 7. Conversion, compounds**

**Task 1 In these jokes there are words formed by conversion. What are they?**

1. "Ma," said a little boy after coming home from a walk, "I've seen a man who makes horses."

"Are you sure?" asked his mother.

"Yes," he replied. "He had a horse nearly finished when I saw him. He was just nailing his feet."

2. Tom: "Don't be angry with me, Daddy. I'm very sorry that I've got a two in arithmetic."

Father: "How could it happen? Did you understand the teacher's question?"

Tom: "Of course I did. It is he who didn't understand my answer."

3. Dentist: "Have you seen any small boys ring my bell and run away?"

Policeman: "They weren't small boys - they were grown ups."

**Task 2 Find the cases of conversion in the sentences:**

1. He took the cup she offered him and sugared it (B. Neels).
2. It was impossible for them to calm her (S. Sheldon).
3. She might come and room with her (Th. Dreiser).
4. However everything in life has positive and negative consequences and it is sometimes a mistake to only see the negative (Internet).
5. Since I was the only child in their charge they mothered me (A. Marshall).
6. Renie narrowed her brown eyes at her cousin (M. Daheim).
7. Penreddy's face clouded (M. Daheim).
8. Actually I've been toying with this idea (F.M. Stewart).
9. She finished before an hour was up, tidied her desk and put on her coat... (B. Neels).
10. I minored in history (J. Smith).
11. She wrinkled her forehead (N. Shute).
12. Judith gave a single shake of her head (M. Daheim).
13. He himself bandaged the wound... (Ph. Carr).

**Task 3 Identify the part of speech of the underlined words:**

1. I have no say in the matter.
2. She is such a dear.
3. He liked to know the ins and outs.
4. Soap does not lather in hard water.
5. I shan't go into the whys and wherefores.
6. She reads only glossies and comics.
7. I don't want to be a bad third.
8. He was familiar with ups and downs of life.

**Task 4 It is not always easy to guess the meaning of the verb formed from the name of an animal. "Switch on" your linguistic intuition and match the words with their definitions.**

1. **RAM**, v    **LAMB**, v
  - a) to give birth to lambs
  - b) to drive or force by heavy blows, to strike with great force
2. **APE**, v    **MONKEY**, v
  - a) to imitate, to mimic
  - b) informal to play or trifle idly, to fool
3. **PIG**, v    **HOG**, v



- a) to appropriate selfishly, to take more than one's share of
  - b) informal to eat something quickly, to gulp
4. **PARROT**, v    **CROW**, v
- a) to repeat or imitate without thought or understanding
  - b) to gloat, boast, or exult
5. **DOG**, v    **HOUND**, v    **BITCH**, v
- a) slang to make spiteful comments, to complain
  - b) to follow closely or track, especially with hostile intent
  - c) to pursue or harass without respite
6. **MOUSE**, v    **RAT**, v
- a) slang to desert one's party or associates, especially in a time of trouble
  - b) to prowl about, as if in search of something, to seek or search stealthily or watchfully, as if for prey

**Task 5 One of the italicized words in the following examples was made from the other by conversion. What semantic correlations exist between them?**

1. a) "You've got a funny *nose*," he added, b) He began to *nose* about. He pulled out drawer after drawer, pottering round like an old bloodhound. 2. a) I'd seen so many cases of fellows who had become perfect slaves of their *valets*, b) I supposed that while he had been *valeting* old Worplesdon Florence must have trodden on his toes in some way. 3. a) It so happened that the night before I had been present at a rather cheery little *supper*, b) So the next night I took him along to *supper* with me. 4. a) Buck seized Thornton's *hand* in his teeth. b) The desk clerk *handed* me the key. 5. a) A small hairy object sprang from a basket and stood yapping in the middle of the *room*, b) There are advantages, you see, about *rooming* with Julia. 6. a) "I'm engaged for *lunch*, but I've plenty of time." b) There was a time when he and I had been lads about town together, *lunching* and dining together practically every day.

7. a) Mr. Biff en rang up on the *telephone* while you were in your bath, b) I found Muriel singer there, sitting by herself at a table near the door. Corky, I took it, was out *telephoning*. 8. Use small *nails* and *nail* the picture on the wall. 9. a) I could just see that he was waving a letter or something equally foul in my *face*. b) When the bell stopped, Crane turned around and *faced* the students seated in rows before him. 10. a) Lizzie is a good *cook*, b) She *cooks* the meals in Mr. Priestley's house. 11. a) The *wolf* was suspicious and afraid, b) Fortunately, however, the second course consisted of a chicken fricassee of such outstanding excellence that the old boy, after *wolfing* a plateful, handed up his dinner-pail for a second instalment and became almost genial. 12. Use the big *hammer* for those nails and *hammer* them in

well. 13. a) "Put a ribbon round your hair and be Alice-in-Wonderland," said Maxim. "You look like it now with your *finger* in your mouth." b) The coach *fingered* the papers on his desk and squinted through his bifocals. 14. a) The room was airy but small. There were, however, a few vacant spots, and in these had been *placed* a washstand, a chest of drawers and a midget rocker-chair, b) "Well, when I got to New York it looked a decent sort of *place* to me ..." 15. a) These men wanted *dogs*, and the dogs they wanted were heavy dogs, with strong muscles and furry coats to protect them from the frost, b) "Jeeves," I said, "I have begun to feel absolutely haunted. This woman *dogs* me."

**Task 6 Which of the two words in the following pairs is made by conversion? Deduce the meanings and use them in constructing sentences of your own.**

star, *n.* — to star, *v.* age, *n.* — to age, *v.*

picture, *n.* — to picture, *v.* touch, *n.* — to touch, *v.*

colour, *n.* — to colour, *u.* make, *n.* — to make, *v.*

blush, *n.* — to blush, *v.* finger, *n.* — to finger, *v.*

key, *n.* — to key, *v.* empty, *adj.* — to empty, *v.*

fool, *n.* — to fool, *v.* poor, *adj.* — the poor, *n.*

breakfast, *n.* — to breakfast, *v.* pale, *adj.* — to pale, *v.*

house, *n.* — to house, *v.* dry, *adj.* — to dry, *v.*

monkey, *n.* — to monkey, *v.* nurse, *n.* — to nurse, *v.*

fork, *n.* — to fork, *v.* dress, *n.* — to dress, *v.*

slice *n.* — to slice, *v.* floor, *n.* — to floor, *v.*

## COMPOUNDS

**Task 7 Match the compound and its meaning:**

1.	cocktail	A.	a yeoman of the English royal guard or a warder of the Tower of London
2.	ducktail	B.	an informer; a person who betrays, denies, or abandons his or her associates, social group, beliefs
3.	bobtail	C.	an alcoholic drink consisting of a spirit or

			spirits mixed with fruit juice, etc.
4.	dogfish	D.	a North Atlantic rockfish used for food
5.	rosefish	E.	a small thin sponge cake
6.	dogrose	F.	a long thin green vegetable from southern countries (a tropical plant with green seed pods eaten as a vegetable)
7.	cheesecake	G.	a kind of small shark
8.	cheese-eater	H.	a short or docked tail
9.	beefcake	I.	pictures of women with shapely bodies, especially as used in advertisements
10.	beefeater	J.	a smartweed having pink or purplish flowers and lance-shaped leaves with a spot resembling a thumbprint
11.	lady's-slipper	K.	a wild rose having pink or white flowers
12.	ladyfinger	L.	a type of wild or garden orchid with a flower shaped like a pouch
13.	lady's fingers	M.	a male hairstyle, in which the hair is slicked back on both sides to overlap at the back of the head
14.	lady's-thumb	N.	pictures of strong muscular men, especially as used in advertisements or sex magazines

### Task 8 What are the types of the compounds?

#### Set I

- a) *a compound with a linking vowel;*
- b) *a compound with a linking consonant;*
- c) *a compound with a preposition stem;*
- d) *a compound with a conjunction stem*

- |                         |                        |
|-------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. pepper-and-salt, n   | 5. door-to-door, adj   |
| 2. speedometer, n       | 6. handicraft, n       |
| 3. Stratford-on-Avon, n | 7. momndad, n          |
| 4. bridesmaid, n        | 8. stick-in-the-mud, n |

#### Set II

- a) *a coordinative compound;*
- b) *a subordinative compound*

- |                |                     |
|----------------|---------------------|
| 1. lipstick, n | 4. bittersweet, adj |
|----------------|---------------------|

- |                     |                       |
|---------------------|-----------------------|
| 2. fifty-fifty, adj | 5.pink-and-white, adj |
| 3. road-building, n | 6.wine-coloured, adj  |

### Set III

- a) *a compound proper;*  
 b) *a derivational compound*

- |                       |                    |
|-----------------------|--------------------|
| 1. smoke-filled, adj  | 5.first-nighter, n |
| 2. puffy-eyed, adj    | 6.mill-owner, n    |
| 3. cruel-hearted, adj | 7.do-gooder, n     |
| 4. soft-boiled, adj   | 8.dish-washer, n   |

### Set IV

- a) *a compound with two simple stems;*  
 b) *a compound in which one of the stems is derived;*  
 c) *a compound in which one of the stems is clipped;*  
 d) *a compound in which one of the components is a compound stem*

- |                         |                        |
|-------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. drugstore, n         | 5.football, n          |
| 2. great-grandmother, n | 6.lawbreaker, n        |
| 3. dog-tired, adj       | 7.wastepaper-basket, n |
| 4. maths-mistress, n    | 8.bluish-white, adj    |

### Set V

- a) *an endocentric compound;*  
 b) *an exocentric compound*

- |                  |                    |
|------------------|--------------------|
| 1. steamboat, n  | 4.pickpocket, n    |
| 2. sugardaddy, n | 5.dressing-gown, n |
| 3. girlfriend, n | 6.lazy-bones, n    |

## WORKSHOP 8. COMPOUNDS, SHORTENINGS, CLIPPINGS, ABBREVIATIONS, BLENDS

### Task 1

What are the types of the compounds?

#### Set I

- e) a compound with a linking vowel;*
- f) a compound with a linking consonant;*
- g) a compound with a preposition stem;*
- h) a compound with a conjunction stem*

- |                         |                        |
|-------------------------|------------------------|
| 5. pepper-and-salt, n   | 5. door-to-door, adj   |
| 6. speedometer, n       | 6. handicraft, n       |
| 7. Stratford-on-Avon, n | 7. momndad, n          |
| 8. bridesmaid, n        | 8. stick-in-the-mud, n |

#### Set II

- c) a coordinative compound;*
- d) a subordinative compound*

- |                     |                        |
|---------------------|------------------------|
| 4. lipstick, n      | 4. bittersweet, adj    |
| 5. fifty-fifty, adj | 5. pink-and-white, adj |
| 6. road-building, n | 6. wine-coloured, adj  |

#### Set III

- c) a compound proper;*
- d) a derivational compound*

- |                       |                     |
|-----------------------|---------------------|
| 1. smoke-filled, adj  | 5. first-nighter, n |
| 2. puffy-eyed, adj    | 6. mill-owner, n    |
| 3. cruel-hearted, adj | 7. do-gooder, n     |
| 4. soft-boiled, adj   | 8. dish-washer, n   |

#### Set IV

- e) a compound with two simple stems;*
- f) a compound in which one of the stems is derived;*
- g) a compound in which one of the stems is clipped;*
- h) a compound in which one of the components is a compound stem*

- |                         |                        |
|-------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. drugstore, n         | 5.football, n          |
| 2. great-grandmother, n | 6.lawbreaker, n        |
| 3. dog-tired, adj       | 7.wastepaper-basket, n |
| 4. maths-mistress, n    | 8.bluish-white, adj    |

### Set V

*c) an endocentric compound;*

*d) an exocentric compound*

- |                  |                    |
|------------------|--------------------|
| 1. steamboat, n  | 4.pickpocket, n    |
| 2. sugardaddy, n | 5.dressing-gown, n |
| 3. girlfriend, n | 6.lazy-bones, n    |

### Set VI

*a) a non-idiomatic compound, i.e. a compound whose meaning is transparent and can be inferred from the meanings of its components;*

*b) an idiomatic compound, i.e. a compound whose meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of its components*

1. **highbrow**, n (a person who has or is thought to have superior intellectual and cultural tastes)
2. **fingerprint**, n (a mark made by the tip of a finger on a surface and used for identifying people, especially criminals)
3. **dumb-waiter**, n (a small lift for carrying food, etc. from one floor to another, especially in a restaurant)
4. **wallflower**, n (in the meaning "a common garden plant that has sweet-smelling /usually orange or brownish-red/ flowers in spring")
5. **wallflower**, n (in the meaning "a person /especially a woman/ who has no dancing partners at a dance and has to sit or stand around while others dance")
6. **bookworm**, n (in the meaning "a person devoted to reading or studying")
7. **bookworm**, n (in the meaning "any of various insects that feed on books, especially a booklouse")
8. **screwdriver**, n (in the meaning "a tool with a handle and a blade that fits into a slot, etc. in the head of a screw to turn it")
9. **screwdriver**, n (in the meaning "a mixed drink made with vodka and orange juice")

**Task 2 Are these compounds built in the same way? What is the last word-formation act for each of these words?**

1. brainstruster
2. honeymooner
3. mill-owner

### Task 3

*Is this a compound word?*

- |              |                 |
|--------------|-----------------|
| 1. childhood | 4. handkerchief |
| 2. eggplant  | 5. blackguard   |
| 3. mushroom  | 6. horsemanship |

### Task 4

*Find the reduplicative compounds in the sentences. Determine their types:*

- a) *a reduplicative compound proper, m.e. a compound which is formed by the repetition of a stem;*
- b) *an ablaut compound, i.e. a compound consisting of a basic free morpheme (sometimes it is a pseudo-morpheme) which is repeated in the other component with a different vowel, the typical changes being [i]-[se], fij-foj;*
- c) *a rhyme compound, i.e. a compound consisting of two components (most often pseudo-morphemes) which are joined to rhyme.*

1. It will be a sharp lesson to him not to raise people's hopes and shilly-shally in this manner (P.G. Wodehouse).
2. And making a scene is a definite no-no (Cosmopolitan).
3. You know Mason's book will be a mishmash of old magazine articles, Eileen (J. Smith).
4. Skulls of deer, mice, squirrels, bear and even little itsy-bitsy things that belonged to birds (L. Fosburgh).
5. The car was second-hand but there's nothing wrong with it and the paint-work is in tip-top condition (Internet).
6. ...and as he listened to the gay chit-chat of elegant women, or the ponderous discourse of his political friends, he longed to be back among soldiers with no ambition but to beat the Boche and no pleasure beyond waking each morning to find oneself alive (P.P. Read).
7. He dreams of becoming rich and famous, but he lives in a never-never land, I'm afraid (B. Lockett).
8. Two training planes piloted by air cadets collided in mid-air. The pilots who had safely bailed out were interrogated about the accident.

"Why didn't you take any evasive action to avoid hitting the other plane?"

"I did," the first pilot explained, "I tried to zigzag."

"And what?"

"But he was zigzagging, too, and zagged when I thought he was going to zig." (A. Joke).

9. He is rather conceited and a bit of a snob; the type we called hoity-toity when we were children (Internet).
10. The little house was very orderly, and just big enough for all it contained, though to some tastes the bric-a-brac in the parlour might seem excessive (U. Le Guin).

## SHORTENING

### Task 5 Do you know what these shortenings stand for?

#### Set I

1.SOS	7.G-7
2.GCSE	8.asap
3.bldg	9.dee-jay
4.OPEC	10.r-t-e
5.fan	11.WTO
6.UFO	12.F2F

#### Set II

1.PTO	3.MP
2.sec	4.rep

### Task 6 Specify the types and subtypes of the underlined shortenings.

1. He inquired whether Dr. Fane was in (W.S. Maugham).
2. We stopped our bikes and stared through the mouth of that tunnel and I could tell they were just as scared as I was even though they were older (S. Shepard).
3. The European Headache Foundation (EHF) is concerned misuse of painkillers could be causing headaches rather than curing them (Cosmopolitan).



4. He ought to be the man in command and he was quite determined to oust Col. Andrews if it could possibly be done (A. Christie).
5. Other teams have fused goat embryos with sheep embryos, to produce a new life-form they call a geep. (Listener).
6. Even the children's clinic, which was to grow into a hospital and a research station, was more real to me than - say - the puzzled misery of the last time he came home on leave just after V.E.Day (M. Allingham).
7. Danish immigrants of the late 1800s brought with them information about a new kind of business: the cooperative. How does a co-op work? (Bright Ideas Calendar).
8. "I need your expertise," Bundy said. (Avery lapped up that sort of flattery.) "How does five cc.'s compare with five hundred mg. 's'?"  
"It doesn't. Five cc.'s is a liquid measure. It's a spoonful."

"What I want to know is, how much vitamin C am I getting in five cc.'s?" (W. Morris).

9. He said, "What do you do in the evenings, Lorna? Do you watch Telly?" I did take this as an insult, because we call it TV, and his remark made me out to be uneducated (M. Spark).
10. Springtime... is a welcome time for workaholics, and perhaps a better time for "resolutions" than during the cold grim days of January and February. And the recent studies on SAD (Seasonal Affective Depression) seem to confirm this (Daily Telegraph).
11. Paine, who jumps from a plane but has forgotten his chute, is not in a decision-making situation (T.J. Cooney).
12. He allowed that even world leaders needed constructive criticism now and then. I took this to be a not-too-subtle allusion to his stint in Washington during the first Roosevelt Administration. But I was not about to set him up to reminisce about F.D.R., or his role in U.S. bank reform (E. Segal).
13. Aquacise teachers use routines devised by ex-swimming instructress/synchronised swimmer Jennifer Horrocks; physiotherapists at local hospitals and GPs have also created some routines (Essentials) .
14. Jon was (according to Jon) a 5ft 11 in ex-tennis pro, with blond hair and green eyes (Cosmopolitan).
15. He was from LA and, for the next two months, we exchanged faxes, letters, phone calls and increasingly affectionate e-mails (Cosmopolitan).

**Task 7 Find the clippings in the following contexts and identify their types:**

- a) *an initial clipping;*
- b) *a final clipping;*
- c) *a medial clipping;*
- d) *an initial and final clipping.*

*What are the words from which these clippings are formed?*

1. I got an A minus on the exam... (E. Segal).
2. They teach us vets all about animals' souls (J. Herriot).
3. He had emptied the fridge, packed the food into a box, switched the fridge off and left the door open (B. Vine).
4. Talking of the lab, we must send you for a blood test (A. Hailey).
5. Oh, my dear, I have a boy of fifteen. I'm a middle-aged gent. In another two or three years I shall just be a fat old party (W.S. Maugham).
6. German immigrant Levi Strauss patented pants made of a sturdy, dark blue material called *serge de Nimes* (fabric from Nimes, France) (Bright Ideas Calendar).
7. Even before I got miserable marks in math and science they used to ask (J. Smith).
8. So I did not say anything about the cracked lino, and the paintwork all chipped (M. Spark).
9. They've been on the phone for an hour (Oxford Advanced Learner's Encyclopedic Dictionary).
10. Next we heard a noise by the river and advancing carefully saw a hippo cow and her calf feeding in the lush vegetation on the opposite bank (J. Adamson).
11. A ref blew his whistle (E. Segal).
12. They had good jobs - Liz worked as a product development scientist - and decided to postpone having children to concentrate on their careers (Cosmopolitan).
13. What makes you so sure I went to prep school? (E. Segal).
14. Jewish-American research scientist Dr. Jonas Salk developed the first effective vaccine against polio during the 1950s (Bright Ideas Calendar).
15. He was an elegant old gentleman, as thin and tall as a trout rod, with frazzled shirt-cuffs and specs on a black string (O. Henry).
16. It was the only labeled room in the condo (J. Grisham).

**Task 8 Find the abbreviations in the sentences and establish their types:**

*a) an alphabetic abbreviation;*

*b) an acronymic abbreviation.*

*Say which of them are graphical abbreviations.*

1. "You're frightfully B.B.C. in your language this afternoon, Albert," said Tuppence, with some exasperation (A. Christie).
2. And if you take that to mean that I think you're all right - O.K., that's what I do think (J.M. Cain).

3. My cousin hadn't met any of these people until they barged into her B & B last week (M. Daheim).
4. In Nebraska barbers are breaking the law if they eat onions between the hours of 7 a.m. and 7 p.m. (Life and Issues in the USA: Past and Present).
5. On the other side are the state of Maryland and the National Organization for Women, even though their position would cost women money. "There's an important principle at stake," explains Martha Davies of the NOW Legal Defense and Education Fund. "Can women be treated differently as a class simply because they are women?" (U.S. News & World Report).
6. I am an M.D., you know, and before I specialized I did a good deal of general work in a hospital. The fact that I'm first and foremost a bacteriologist is all to the good. It will be an admirable chance for research work (W.S. Maugham).
7. We overstretched ourselves slightly when we bought a run-down three-bedroom house just outside London, but I was happy renovating it - DIY wasn't Mike's thing (Cosmopolitan).
8. By shrewdly capitulating at the crucial moment -i.e., by pretending that I suddenly wanted to - I got my book (E. Segal).
9. I hear the RSPCA had a man in court last week over a job like that (J. Herriot).
10. Jenny at one time thought D.C. might be good... but I leaned toward New York (E. Segal).
11. Yeah, but why is it I suddenly wish my name was Abigail Adams, or Wendy WASP? (E. Segal).
12. As soon as she had been old enough, she had begun to help her mother with the washing, in addition to attending the school; then her mother had died of T.B. and her aunt had left the location with "another man" (D. Jacobson).

**Task 9 Find the blends (telescoped words) in the contexts. Determine what words (or, rather, parts of words) these blends are built from.**

1. The sky had a white glare and there was not much smog (R. Chandler).
2. I went back to the motel to phone Jenny (E. Segal).
3. So, before embarking on any major plastic surgery, discuss it carefully with your doctor and consult Medicare and your health fund (New Idea).
4. Off duty, the self-confessed shopaholic declares she never wears one designer head-to-toe. Instead, she mixes top labels and vintage couture with thrift-shop finds (Cosmopolitan).
5. Ashley Patterson was on the gallows being hanged, when a policeman ran up and said, "Wait a minute. She is supposed to be electrocuted." (S. Sheldon).
6. Do you feel a pang of envy when you watch Friends, the hit sitcom in which buddies live so closely and happily together? (Cosmopolitan).
7. Two new words have entered the fast-expanding vocabulary of mail-order fashion. We can thank Kit, the cheap and cheerful fashion division of Great Universal Stores, for "magalog" and "videolog", natural offspring of the now superseded catalogue and specialogue. The new Kit offering for this summer is packaged as a

glossy, full-colour 143-page fashion magazine, or magalog, available at 7,000 newsagents, including major branches of W.H. Smith, for £1.50 (Daily Telegraph).

### Task 10

*Find the definition for each of these blends. Establish the structural types of them:*

- A) *a splinter. + a splinter;*
- B) *a splinter + a full stem;*
- C) *a full stem + a splinter;*
- D) *a full stem + a full stem (with the elements of superposition at their juncture /phonetic, graphic or both/).*

1.	toytoon	A. psychological disturbance arising from an excess of wealth
2.	Spanglish	B. the combined qualities of beauty and utility
3.	docu-fantasy	C. a theatrical production in which food plays a prominent part, especially one in which the audience participates by eating
4.	boomflation	D. Latin American Spanish containing English expressions
5.	beautility	E. (in sport) a player who is classed as an amateur, while often making money like a professional
6.	infomercial	F. a short film produced by an advertiser giving information about goods for sale, to be shown on television
7.	rockumentary	G. inflation fuelled by a high level of consumer spending in an expanding economy
8.	shamateur	H. an animated cartoon for children featuring characters of which models can be bought as toys
9.	influenza	I. a television presentation which uses factual elements as the basis of a farfetched dramatic reconstruction or projection of events
10.	gastrodrama	J. a documentary-style film about, and featuring, rock music

### WORD FORMATION (MISELLANY)

**Task 11** Examine the underlined words and establish the word-formation method (or a combination of methods) by which each word is created

1. He was still laughing when Miss Pratt reentered the room (A. Huxley).
2. The wineglass was empty (J. Grisham).
3. They cut through the glass with a laser (Internet).
4. Poirot did not allow himself to be angered (A. Christie).
5. She shifted sharply, she knocked him as she pretended to pick up her glove, she groped among his feet (D.H. Lawrence).
6. Well, he was a great blustering, vivid sort of chap. Great womanizer, beer drinker - all the rest of it (A. Christie).
7. The liveliness of the dance enthused the audience (Random House Webster's Unabridged Dictionary).
8. A cigar smoked in a green glass ash-tray (R. Chandler).
9. I hate these stupid plastic sporks (Internet).
10. He shook his head and looked again because he thought he might still be asleep (W. Saroyan).
11. Aunt Maria would mildly observe that, next time Uncle Podger was going to hammer a nail into the wall, she hoped he'd let her know in time, so that she could make arrangements to go and spend a week with her mother while it was being done (J.K. Jerome).
12. The first thing I heard was that both of them had gone off to seek their fortunes, as if they were in some silly fairy tale (G.K. Chesterton).
13. To make your computer come to life, you need software - information you feed into the PC either on a floppy disk or a CD (Cosmopolitan).
14. Prehistoric people sculpted animal bones; Italian Michelangelo used marble; Frenchman Auguste Rodin used bronze; African sculptors used wood; Native Americans used clay. Which substance do you think would be easiest to sculpt? (Bright Ideas Calendar).
15. I've partied and made a lot of new friends and just done the things I'd never done while I was married to Mike (Cosmopolitan).
16. Push "3" on the vator to get to the third floor (Internet).
17. Vacuum cleaners were not terribly expensive, and one extra monthly payment shouldn't make all that difference (A. Hailey).
18. His hair had thinned and what was left was stringy, yellowish-gray (I. Shaw).
19. Try their High Performance anti-perspirant spray -you cannot buy a more effective aerosol. It keeps you fresh and dry all day long with the added reassurance that it is skin-friendly (Cosmopolitan).
20. The sad truth is people with bags of confidence breeze through life with far more ease than those who weigh themselves down with self-criticism (Cosmopolitan).
21. I dressed in a striking green dress and very high-heeled black shoes, so I would tower over her (Cosmopolitan).
22. Every so often there's a clean-up and a shakedown (E.S. Gardner).
23. "A lot of vegetarians I know are much less judgmental these days about people who eat meat, and I know a number of people who class themselves as

- vegetarians but will very occasionally eat meat," says ex-veggie Paul (Internet).
24. Are you a has-been, a might-have-been, or a never-was? (Internet).

**Task 12 Identify the word-formation methods with the help of which these new words are built:**

- a) *prefixation*;
- b) *suffixation*;
- c) *conversion*;
- d) *word-composition*;
- e) *alphabetic abbreviation*;
- f) *acronymic abbreviation*;
- g) *clipping*;
- h) *blending*;
- i) *back-formation*;
- j) *postpositivation*.

1. **reskill**, v (to retrain workers in the skills required by a modern business)
2. **LAN** (local area network: a system of linking together computers, usually in the same office or building, so that they can communicate and share resources)
3. **cable up**, v (to /cause to/ become connected to a cable television system)
4. **emoticon**, n (a sideways smile face, :-), or similar combination of symbols, as ;-), a winking face, or :-(, a sad face, used to communicate humour, sarcasm, sadness, etc., in an electronic message; from emotion and icon)
5. **laptop**, n (a portable, usually battery-powered microcomputer small enough to rest on the user's lap)
6. **enviro**, n (an environmentalist)
7. browse, n (an instance of reading or surveying data files, especially across a computer network)
8. **DVD** (an optical disk that can store a very large amount of digital data, as text, music, or images)
9. **sequelize**, v (to make a sequel to: *to sequelize a hit movie*)
10. **zootique**, n (a pleasantly landscaped zoo featuring animals in natural-style habitats, and comfortable facilities for those in a spectating situation)
11. **mouse potato**, n (a slang term for a person who spends an excessive amount of time in front of a computer, especially one who uses it online)
12. **POSSLQ**, n (a person of the opposite sex sharing living quarters, especially a live-in partner or flat mate)
13. **caffeinated**, adj (containing caffeine, having had caffeine added; from **decaffeinated**)
14. **TV-14** (a television program rating advising parents that a program is unsuitable for children under the age of 14)

**Task 13 Read the sentences and decide how the underlined occasional words (nonce words) are formed.**

1. I went to the post-office, and as I stood on the steps, umbrellaless, hesitating before plunging into the slushy road, a little, hesitating voice seemed to come from under my elbow (K. Mansfield).
2. Cooper, a psychology professor, and Waffes, a script writer, start by defining stress factors: everything from "hurry-sickness", environmental ill-health and bereavement to family pressure, bureaucracy and low self-image (Independent).
3. There was a momentary inside-out feeling as his ship and himself for one moment of non-space and non-time, became non-matter and non-energy, then reassembled itself instantaneously in another part of the Galaxy (I. Asimov).
4. Worker to his friend: "I am taking a honey-day vacation this year. You know, this is when you stay home and the whole time your wife says, 'Honey, do this and Honey, do that.'" (A. Joke).
5. We therefore decided that we would sleep out on fine nights; and hotel it, and inn it, and pub it, like respectable folks, when it was wet, or when we felt inclined for a change (J.K. Jerome).
6. Two men pass me, each carrying a grasshopper-legged sprinkler (W.P. Kinsella).
7. OK, he is quietly charming and good-lookingish... (Cosmopolitan).
8. That guy really whatevers me (Internet).
9. Some of Matthew's questions were puzzling me considerably - not only by their un-Matthew-like character, but because, now that Chocky's existence was acknowledged, Matthew did not always present the questions as his own (J. Wyndham).
10. To look at Montmorency you would imagine that he was an angel sent upon the earth, for some reason withheld from mankind, in the shape of a small fox-terrier. There is a sort of Oh-what-a-wicked-world-this-is-and-how-I-wish-I-could-do-something-to-make-it-better-and-nobler expression about Montmorency that has been known to bring the tears into the eyes of pious old ladies and gentlemen (J.K. Jerome).

## WORKSHOP 9. SEMASIOLOGY. THE STUDY OF MEANING

### Task 1. Find the word with the grammatical meaning of singularity (noun)

- a) He *works* well.
- b) His *work* is done well.
- c) His *works* are known everywhere.
- d) They *work* at a big plant.

### 2. Find the word with the grammatical meaning of plurality (noun):

- a) All his *answers* were correct.
- b) He *answers* well.
- c) If you are not sure, don't *answer* this question.
- d) Your *answer* is wrong.

### 3. Find the word in which the emotive charge is heavier:

- a) large;
- b) big;
- c) tremendous;
- d) vast.

### 4. Find a monosemantic word:

- a) table;
- b) hydrogen;
- c) head;
- d) country.

### 5. Which is the most frequent meaning of the polysemantic word "hand"?

- a) factory or dockyard worker;
- b) the pointer of a watch;
- c) side or direction;
- d) part of the human arm beyond the wrist.

### 6. In which of the word-groups the lexical context is of primary importance to determine the meaning of a polysemantic word?

- a) heavy storm;
- b) to make a good teacher;
- c) to make everybody laugh;
- d) to get to the place.

### 7. In which of the word-groups the grammatical context is of primary importance to determine the meaning of a polysemantic word?

- a) heavy artillery;
- b) to make somebody work;
- c) handsome reward;
- d) to take the tram

### 8. Find a set of words not belonging to the same thematical group

- a) tree — grow — green
- b) journey — train — ticket
- c) sun — shine — brightly
- d) apple — read — snow



**Task 2 Which of the following meanings unites the words:**

- a) *lexical meaning;*
- b) *grammatical meaning;*
- c) *lexical meaning and grammatical meaning?*
  - 1. deprived, arrived, decayed, described
  - 2. fast, quick, rapid, swift
  - 3. forget-me-nots, radii, Russians, oxen
  - 4. to buy, to sell, price, money, expensive

**Task 3 What are the meanings of the polysemantic words which are played upon in these jokes?**

1. Customer: "I would like a book, please." Bookseller: "Something light?"

Customer: "That doesn't matter. I have my car with me."

2. The new house cleaner was full of her own importance. She had worked on the Continent and felt superior to the other servants.

One day she was telling "below stairs" some of her experiences.

"How do the foreign dishes compare to English ones?" asked one of her audience.

"Oh," replied the house cleaner, airily, "they break just the same."

3. The teacher was giving her class a test in natural history.

"Now, Tony," she said, "tell me where the elephant is found."

Tony thought a little and then answered: "The elephant is such a large animal that it is hardly ever lost."

4. Pam: "Hasn't Harvey ever married?"

Beryl: "No, and I don't think he intends to, because he's studying for a bachelor's degree."

**Task 4 Find out the difference in the denotational meaning of the words**

*appreciate, value, cherish; affect and effect.*

**Task 5 Find out the difference in the connotational meaning of the words**

*beautiful* and *beauteous*.

**Task 6 Determine the denotative and connotative meanings in the following pairs of words**

muzzle vs. face

fat vs. plump

infant vs. kid

beg vs. implore

friend vs. crony

love vs. adore

talent vs. genius

famous vs. notorious

gobble vs. eat

**Task 7 Comment on the connotations the following expressions convey:**

*an ugly duckling, the Trojan horse, crocodile tears, a swan song, Achilles' heel.*

**Task 8 Compare the semantic structure of the following words:**

(a) *slender* and *skinny*, (b) *to stop* and *to cease*.

**Task 9 Define the meanings of the words in the following sentences. Say how the meanings of the same word are associated one with another.**

1. I walked into Hyde Park, *fell* flat upon the grass and almost immediately *fell* asleep. 2. a) 'Hello', I said, and thrust my hand through the *bars*, whereon the dog became silent and licked me prodigiously, b) At the end of the long *bar*, leaning against the counter was a slim pale individual wearing a red bow-tie. 3. a) I began to search the flat, looking in drawers and boxes to see if I could find a *key*. b) I tumbled with a sort of splash upon the *keys* of a ghostly piano, c) Now the orchestra is playing yellow cocktail music and the opera of voices pitches a *key* higher, d) Someone with a positive manner, perhaps a detective, used the expression 'madman' as he bent over Welson's body that afternoon, and the authority of his voice set the *key* for the newspaper report next morning. 4. a) Her *mouth* opened crookedly half an inch, and she shot a few words at one like pebbles, b) Would you like me to come to the *mouth* of the river with you? 5. a) I sat down for a few minutes with my head in my *hands*, until I heard the phone taken up inside and the butler's voice calling a taxi, b) The minute *hand* of the electric clock jumped on to figure twelve, and, simultaneously,

the steeple of St. Mary's whose vicar always kept his clock by the wireless began its feeble imitation of Big Ben. 6. a) My *head* felt as if it were on a string and someone were trying to pull it off. b) G. Quartermain, board chairman and chief executive of Supernational Corporation was a bull of a man who possessed more power than many *heads* of the state and exercised it like a king.

**Task 9** The verb "to take" is highly polysemantic in Modern English. On which meanings of the verb are the following jokes based? Give your own examples to illustrate the other meanings of the word.

1. "Where have you been for the last four years?"  
"At college taking medicine."

"And did you finally get well?"

2. "Doctor, what should a woman take when she is run down?"

"The license number, madame, the license number."

3. **Proctor** (*exceedingly angry*): So you confess that this unfortunate Freshman was carried to this frog pond and drenched. Now what part did you take in this disgraceful affair?

**Sophomore** (*meekly*): The right leg, sir.

**Task 10** Explain the basis for the following jokes. Use the dictionary when in doubt.

1. **Caller**: I wonder if I can see your mother, little boy. Is she *engaged*?

**Willie**: *Engaged!* She's married.

2. **Booking Clerk** (*at a small village station*): You'll have to *change* twice before you get to York.

**Villager** (*unused to travelling*): Goodness me! And I've only brought the clothes I'm wearing.

3. The weather forecaster hadn't been right in three months, and his resignation caused little surprise. His alibi, however, pleased the city council.

"I can't stand this town any longer," read his note. "The climate doesn't *agree* with me."

4. **Professor:** You *missed* my class yesterday, didn't you?

**Unsubdued student:** Not in the least, sir, not in the least.

**Task 11** Choose any polysemantic words that is well-known to you and illustrate its meanings with examples of your own. Prove that the meanings are related one to another.

**Task 12** Try your hand at the following research work. Illustrate the semantic structure of one of the following words with a diagram; use the dictionary if necessary.

Foot, n.; hand, n.; ring, n.; stream, n.; warm, adj.; green, adj.; sail, n.; key, n.; glass, n.; eye, n.

## WORKSHOP 10. SYNONYMY

### Task 1 Match the synonym and the interpretation of its meaning.

#### Set I

These verbs mean "to cause bafflement or confusion".

1. puzzle	a) this verb emphasizes extreme mental confusion
2. perplex	b) this word implies defying comprehension by obscuring facts
3. mystify	c) it suggests difficulty in solving or interpreting something
4. bewilder	d) it means "to confuse and astonish"
5. confound	e) this verb stresses uncertainty or anxiety, as over reaching an understanding or finding a solution

#### Set II

These adjectives refer to what is so uninteresting as to cause mental weariness.

1. boring	a) this word describes what is demanding of time and effort and yet is dull and often unrewarding
2. monotonous	b) this adjective is applied to something that is uninteresting because of lack of variety
3. tedious	c) something that can be characterized by this adjective fatigues because it seems to be interminable or to be marked by unremitting sameness
4. irksome	d) this word refers to what is commonplace, trivial, or unexcitingly routine
5. tiresome	e) it implies feelings of listlessness and discontent
6. humdrum	f) this adjective suggests dull slowness or long-windedness

#### Set III

These nouns refer to concise verbal expressions setting forth wisdom or truth.

1. saying	a) this noun denotes an expression of a general truth or a rule of conduct
2. maxim	b) this noun applies to a saying that has gained credit through long use
3. adage	c) this word refers to an old and popular saying that illustrates something such as a basic truth or a practical precept
4. saw	d) it means "an often repeated and familiar expression"
5. motto	e) this noun stands for a concise expression of a principle or

	truth, implies depth of content and stylistic distinction
6. proverb	f) this word denotes an expression which reveals the aims, character, or guiding principles of a person, group, or institution
7. aphorism	g) it refers to a familiar saying that has become trite through frequent repetition

**Task 2 Fill in the blanks with the suitable words whose meanings are represented with the help of the componential analysis into their common and differential features.**

**Set I**

**guide            lead            conduct            direct**

synonyms	common feature	differential features
1. ....	“to show the way”	“by explaining how to get to a place”
2. ....	“to show the way”	“by going with or by bringing by”
3. ....	“to show the way”	“by going in front”
4. ....	“to show the way”	“by going with and 1)explaining things, 2)possessing certain, specific, or intimate knowledge

**Task 3 Point out the synonymous words in the contexts and explain the difference between them. Use an explanatory dictionary or/and a dictionary of synonym necessary.**

1. I tried not to bore you with my love; I knew I couldn't afford to do that and I was always on the lookout for the first sign that you were impatient with my affection (*W.S. Maugham*).
2. I butted one cop in the behind, with all my might I dragged on one of his legs. "Get that kid out of here," one of them said, and somebody tried to grab me, but I kicked and bit again. I tumbled headlong down the steps and grabbed the policeman's leg again (*J. Baldwin*).
3. I understood then why I had been attracted by him. I had thought he reminded me of Beau because of a faint resemblance which I had thought was merely that of one dandy for another. I thought of the button I had found in Enderby

Hall; the lingering odour of musk. Beau's son, of course, who perhaps had been wearing a coat with buttons which had belonged to his father - who had been brought up with a taste for the musk scent (*Ph. Carr*).

4. She thought about it. "I could hardly give you all that money for something that doesn't belong to you," she said, and smiled. "Please give them me. Please, Philip. Leila ought to have them back"

"For how much dough?" (*R. Chandler*).

5. The chauffeur, poor devil, was completely stiff from the long wait, and I ordered him into the tonneau and took the wheel myself.

Partly was this due to pity for the driver, partly to a desire to leave Harry to his own thoughts, which I knew must be somewhat turbulent (*R. Stout*).

**Task 4 Not only words, but set expressions as well, can be grouped into synonymic pairs or even sets. Match the synonymic phraseological units.**

- |                           |                                   |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. to harbour malice      | a)to give somebody his due        |
| 2. to harbour a suspicion | b)to be in good spirits           |
| 3. to do justice (to)     | c)to smell a rat                  |
| 4. to be in Queer Street  | d)to be in a jam                  |
| 5. to be on Easy Street   | e)to nurse a grudge               |
| 6. to be in high feather  | f)to be in funds                  |
| 7. to be in the soup      | g)to be as poor as a church mouse |

**Task 5 Identify the type of these synonyms:**

- a) *absolute*;
- b) *ideographic*;
- c) *stylistic*.

I. brainy - intelligent	8. a border - a margin
-------------------------	------------------------

2. fog - mist	9. nearly - approximately
3. to begin - to commence	10. to mend - to repair - to patch
4. wet - humid	11. a patella - a kneecap
5. a fag - a cigarette	12. lean-lanky
6. to tremble - to shiver	13. to end - to terminate
7. breathed (consonants) - voiceless (consonants)	

**Task 6 Discuss differences between the following pairs of synonyms**

- a) donation, gift
- b) reverent, pious
- c) lean, gaunt
- d) void, vacuum
- e) gracious, cordial
- f) congenital, hereditary

**Task 7 Prove that in a language synonyms have a double nature: on the one hand, they have something in common, on the other hand, there are certain differences between them. For this, bring out the common features and the differential features of the underlined synonyms, which are somehow opposed or contrasted in the following contexts.**

1. "<...> You have also become a very beautiful young woman, and that brings all sorts of difficulties in its way."

He was well aware that Laela was staring at him in astonishment.

"Do you really mean," she asked in a tone of voice that sounded incredulous, "that I am pretty?"

"I said 'beautiful', and I meant 'beautiful'!" the Marquis affirmed. "The two words are very different." (B. Cartland).

2. I didn't say you loved me. I only said you liked me (P. La Mure).

3. Then, as he made no attempt to conceal his feelings of mental superiority, suspicion turned to dislike and finally to hate (A. Hailey).

4. The light of the lamp displayed his profile as though it were a cameo. With his regular and finely-cut features it was very distinguished, but it was more than severe, it was grim: that immobility of his, only his eyes moving as he perused each page, was vaguely terrifying (W.S. Maugham).



5. Princeteau smilingly held out his sketchbook Henri began to draw a pair of trotting horses under the eyes of the deaf-mute artist, who watched him with an indulgent interest, that soon changed to surprise, then astonishment. For a few second he stared incredulously at the boy (P. La Mure).

6. He sat there smiling to show that he was pleased and amused, but his smile was forced: it was more like a sarcastic smirk, and you could not help feeling that he thought all those people enjoying themselves a pack of fools (W.S. Maugham).

### **Task 8 Establish the sources of synonymy:**

- a) *borrowing from other languages;*
- b) *borrowing from the dialects and variants of English;*
- c) *affixation;*
- d) *conversion;*
- e) *shortening;*
- f) *postpositivation.*

- 1. to ask - to question - to interrogate
- 2. to postpone - to put off
- 3. a wireless - a radio
- 4. a professor - a prof
- 5. a fiddle - a violin
- 6. laugh - laughter
- 7. to lift - to pick up
- 8. to rise - to mount - to ascend
- 9. effectivity - effectiveness
- 10. a tube - a subway - an underground
- 11. an examination - an exam
- 12. a belly - a stomach - an abdomen

## WORKSHOP 11. ANTONYMY

### Task 1 Find 15 pairs of antonyms:

definite, ever, full, all, heat, possible, fall, back, thick, alone, fire, seldom, light, together, cold, often, dark, indefinite, pull, earth, front, water, empty, never, nothing, rise, impossible, thin, sky, push

### Task 2 Not only words, but set expressions as well, can be grouped into antonymic pairs. Find in the following list the phrases that can be opposed with each other.

- I. a bad loser
2. be off one's game
3. of much account
4. somebody's evil genius
5. get the right end of the stick
6. high camp
7. a hard heart
8. of no account
9. get the wrong end of the stick
10. low camp
11. be on one's game
12. gain time
- I3. a soft heart
14. lose time
15. a good loser
16. somebody's good genius

### Task 3 In these “familiar quotations” 1) find the antonyms; 2) identify their types:

- a) *contrary*;
- b) *contradictory*;
- c) *conversive*;
- d) *vectorial*.

1. To find the fault is easy; to do better may be difficult (Plutarch).
2. Rivalry is the life of trade, and the death of the trader (E. Hubbard).
3. Some people say that a wife can ruin her husband if she doesn't give him stability in the home (Eleonor Roosevelt).
4. Our greatest glory consists not in never falling, but in rising every time we fall (O. Goldsmith).
5. It takes less time to do thing right than it does to explain why you did it wrong (H.W. Longfellow).
6. No question is so difficult to answer as that to which the answer is obvious (G.B. Shaw).
7. To be seventy years young is sometimes far cheerful and hopeful than to be forty years forty. (O.W. Holmes).
8. I divide all readers into two classes: those who read to remember and those who read to forget. (E. Phelps).
9. A small leak will sink a great ship (B. Franklin).
10. I guess the only way to stop divorce is to stop marriage (W. Rogers).
11. If parents could only realize how they bore their children! (G.B. Shaw).
12. Purity is the feminine, truth the masculine of honor (A.W. Hare).
13. Better make a weak man your enemy than your friend (J. Billings).
14. Be slow of tongue and quick of eye (S.M. Servantes).
15. The absent are never without fault. Nor the present without excuse (B. Franklin).
16. Be nice to people on your way up because you'll meet them on your way down (W. Mizner).
17. ...some say that by the nature of the world there is an opposition between good and evil and that each is metaphysically necessary to the other (W.S. Maugham).
18. In all things it is better to hope than to despair (J.W. Goethe).
19. As I would not be a slave, so I would not be a master. This expresses my idea of democracy (A. Lincoln).
20. Patience is bitter, but its fruit is sweet (J.J. Rousseau).
21. It is better that ten guilty persons escape than that one innocent suffer (W. Blackstone).
22. An angry man opens his mouth and shuts up his eyes (M.P. Cato).
13. Any subject can be made interesting, and therefore any subject can be made boring (H. Belloc).
24. Neither a borrower nor a lender be ... (W. Shakespeare).
25. There are some defeats more triumphant than victories (M.E. Montaigne).

#### **Task 4**

#### **Set I**

**The word *profligacy* in one of its meanings stands for reckless extravagance. Can you spot the word in the list below that has the opposite meaning?**

- a) dissoluteness
- b) prodrome
- c) propinquity
- d) thrift

## **Set II**

**The container called *cornucopia* is a symbol of an abundant harvest, and one meaning of *cornucopia* is "abundance". Can you identify the word in the list below that has the opposite meaning?**

- a) attire
- b) profusion
- c) dearth
- d) efficiency

**Task 5 Put 2 antonyms into each of the following proverbs and sayings.**

1. Joy and ..... as ..... and tomorrow.
2. No great ..... without some ..... profit.
3. Fire and water are ..... , but bad masters.
4. The man who ..... only by hope will die with .....
5. Rather be ..... but ..... than unhappy and comely.
6. The fool that ..... till he is sick must fast till he is .....
7. What soberness conceals, ..... .
8. Superiors ..... the wind, and their ..... reap the whirlwind.

**Task 6 Establish the types of these antonyms:**

- a) *antonyms indicating place;*
- b) *antonyms indicating time;*
- c) *antonyms indicating direction;*
- d) *antonyms indicating shape;*
- e) *antonyms indicating quantity;*
- f) *antonyms indicating quality.*

1. undergarment - overgarment
2. pre-war - post-war
3. narrow - wide
4. monomorphic - polymorphic
5. chivalrous - cowardly
6. smooth - uneven
7. inwards - outwards
8. glorify - defame
9. local - national
10. shortage - abundance

**Task 7 To each of the following gradable antonyms add the rest of the scale**

- |           |       |
|-----------|-------|
| cold      | hot   |
| big       | small |
| love      | hate  |
| beautiful | ugly  |

**Task 8 Choose the best antonym**

1. EFFRONTERY a) wickedness b) conceit c) dishonesty d) shyness e) snobbishness
2. CONTENTIOUS a) modest b) oblivious c) grotesque d) peaceful e) retrospective
3. DENOUNCE a) show b) derogate c) praise d) rehabilitate e) violate
4. IGNOMINY a) knowledge b) cogitation c) humor d) honor e) humus
5. PRODIGIOUS a) prodigal b) obtuse c) ordinary d) improper e) sterile
6. CONTEMPT a) hate b) respect c) loss d) help e) refuse
7. LICENTIOUS a) temporary b) decorated c) moral d) difficult e) simple
8. GIBBERISH a) meaningful b) sarcastic c) cruel d) talented e) honorable

9. FORMIDABLE a) insincere b) weak c) mean d) sincere e) famous

10. IMMACULATE a) legal b) vacant c) filthy d) impressive e) unstable

**Task 9 For each pair of words below give the common word that is opposite to both:**

**Opposite**

- |    |                    |              |
|----|--------------------|--------------|
| a. | wrong, left        | <u>right</u> |
| b. | young, new         | _____        |
| c. | tall, long         | _____        |
| d. | bring, give        | _____        |
| e. | stop, come         | _____        |
| f. | soft, easy         | _____        |
| g. | sharp, interesting | _____        |

**Task 10 Analyze the semantic structures of the following lexemes:**

friendly — hostile (person)      wonderful — awful (performance)

hot — cold (room)      warm — chilly (house)

warm — cold (water)      old — young (man)

young — elderly (woman)      happy — wretched (girl)

dirty — clean (collar)      clean — filthy (towel)

rich — poor (man)      thin — fat (person)

fat — skinny (boy)      bright — dusky (room)

## WORKSHOP 12. PHRASEOLOGY

**Task 1. Match up the correct phraseological unit on the left (1-7) with the definitions on the right (a-g)**

1. to have two faces	A. to be impudent enough to
2. to face the music	B. to become opposed to
3. to face someone with	C. to grimace
4. to set one's face against	D. to appear courageous
5. to make a face or faces	E. to make one's appearance
6. to show one's face	F. to accuse someone with
7. to have the face to	G. to be hypocritical

**Task 2. Think of all the phraseological units that you can which contain the following words, use each phraseological unit in a sentence and explain the meaning of it.**

eye(s), nose, ear(s), mouth, teeth

**Task 3. Shakespeare's plays provide us with many idiomatic expressions. What is the meaning of each of the following? Match up the phraseological units (a-i) with their definitions (1-9).**

A. to give the devil his due	1. a good thing which the ignorant are unable to appreciate
B. to wear one's heart on one's sleeve	2. moral lessons from nature
C. to do yeoman service	3. artlessly to display one's feeling
D. a foregone conclusion	4. by nature or by training well fitted
E. an itching palm	5. a predetermined outcome
F. the primrose path	6. greediness, especially for money
G. to the manner born	7. a pleasurable, comfortable life
H. sermons in stones	8. to perform a useful, usually humble function
I. caviar to the general	9. to deal fairly, impartially, to recognize for merits of someone even with major

**Task 4. True or false? Say whether the phraseological units in the following sentences are used correctly (true) or incorrectly (false).**

1. He goes there often - at least *once in a blue moon*. 2. He didn't have much power; he has *only a figurehead*. 3. It's not new; it's *second-rate*. 4. My grandmother has been married for fifty years and she's still a very happy *old maid*. 5. I don't understand it; it's *all Greek to me*. 6. You would probably feel very proud if someone *gave you the sack*. 7. He was so hungry that he *ate his heart out*. 8. We ate *potatoes in their jackets* last night. 9. He loved animals and spent a lot of his free time *in the doghouse*. 10. This book is *dog-eared*. I can't possibly sell it.

**Task 5. Complete the following proverbs choosing from those marked a-p. Then try to explain what each proverb means.**

1. Honesty ...	A. ... less speed.
2. Better late ...	B. ... gathers no moss
3. Still waters ...	C. ... twice shy.
4. Actions ...	D. ... lie.
5. More haste...	E. ... while the sun shines.
6. A fool and his money...	F. ... is the best policy.
7. All's well...	G. ... was not built in a day.
8. A rolling stone...	H. ... than never.
9. A stitch in time...	I. ... leap.
10. Don't count your chickens ...	J. ... are soon parted.
11. Strike...	K. ... run deep.
12. Let sleeping dogs...	L. ... that ends well.
13. Look before you...	M. ... while the iron is hot.
14. Once bitten...	N. ... before they are hatched.
15. Make hay...	O. ... saves nine.
16. Rome...	P. ... speak louder than words.

**Task 6. Substitute phraseological units with the noun "heart" for the italicized words. What is the difference between the two sentences?**

1. He is not a man who *shows his feelings openly*. 2. She may seem cold but she *has true, kind feelings*. 3. I learned that piece of poetry *by memory*. 4. When I think about my examination tomorrow I *feel in despair*. 5. When I heard that strange cry in the darkness I *was terribly afraid*. 6. It was the job I *liked very much*. 7. I didn't win the prize but I'm *not discouraged*.



**Task 7. Show that you understand the meaning of the following phraseological units by using each of them in a sentence.**

1. Between the devil and the deep sea; 2. to have one's heart in one's boots; 3. to have one's heart in the right place; 4. to wear one's heart on one's sleeve; 5. in the blues; 6. once in a blue moon; 7. to swear black is white; 8. out of the blue; 9. to talk till all is blue; 10. to talk oneself blue in the face.

**Task 8. Read the following proverbs. Give their Russian equivalents or explain their meanings.**

A bargain is a bargain. A cat in gloves catches no mice. Those who live in glass houses shouldn't throw stones. A good beginning is half the battle. A new broom sweeps clean. An hour in the morning is worth two in the evening. It never rains but it pours. Don't look a gift horse in the mouth. Make hay while the sun shines.

**Task 9. Give the English equivalents for the following Russian proverbs.**

Нет худа без добра. В гостях хорошо, а дома лучше. С глаз долой, из сердца вон. Дуракам закон не писан. Он пороху не выдумает. Слезами горю не поможешь. Поспешишь — людей насмешишь. Взятся за гуж, не говори, что не дюж.

**Task 10. Complete the following sentences, using the phraseological units given in the list below. Translate them into Russian.**

1. If I pay my rent, I won't have any money to buy food. I'm between ..... . 2. It's no use grumbling about your problems — we're all ..... . 3. He's sold his house and his business to go to Australia, so he's really ..... . 4. She prefers not to rely on anyone else, she likes to ..... . 5. They didn't know whether to get married or not, but they finally ..... . 6. You can't expect everything to go right all the time, you must learn to ..... .

to take the rough with the smooth; between the devil and the deep sea; to take the plunge; in the same boat; to paddle one's own canoe; to burn one's boats

**Task 11. Choose the word or phrase which best completes each sentence.**

1. I really must go and lie down for a while; I've got a ..... headache.

a) *cutting*; b) *splitting*; c) *ringing*; d) *cracking*.

2. Stop ..... about the bush, James! Just tell me exactly what the problem is.

- a) *rushing*; b) *beating*; c) *hiding*; d) *moving*.
3. I usually buy my clothes ..... It's cheaper than going to a dressmaker.  
a) *off the peg*; b) *on the house*; c) *in public*; d) *on the shelf*.
4. If you want a flat in the centre of the city you have to pay through the ..... for it.  
a) *teeth*; b) *back of your head*; c) *nose*; d) *arm*.
5. I caught the last bus by the skin of my .....  
a) *mouth*; b) *leg*; c) *neck*; d) *teeth*.
6. Because the owner wanted a quick sale, the house went for ..... only 30.000.  
a) *loose change*; b) *a song*; c) *a loaf of bread*; d) *a smile*.
7. You didn't think I was being serious, did you, Brian! It was a joke! I was pulling your ....., that's all!  
a) *thumb*; b) *hair*; c) *toe*; d) *leg*.
8. The accident was caused by a taxi driver ..... the traffic light.  
a) *rushing*; b) *missing*; c) *jumping*; d) *beating*.
9. Lend me 20, please, John. I'm ..... at the moment.  
a) *broke*; b) *down the drain*; c) *stuck up*; d) *a bit thick*.
10. Those second-hand Walkmans are selling like ..... If you want one, you'd better buy one now before they're all gone.  
a) *shooting stars*; b) *fresh bread*; c) *hot cakes*; d) *wildoats*.
11. She would do anything for her youngest son. He was the ..... of her eye.  
a) *plum*; b) *centre*; c) *star*; d) *apple*.
12. I always get ..... in my stomach before visiting the dentist.  
a) *worms*; b) *butterflies*; c) *crabs*; d) *hedgehogs*.

**Task 12. Complete the paired phraseological units in the sentences below. Choose from the following:**

blood; large; shoulders; sound; take; thumbs; cons; nail; soul; span; thin; tired; fast; sweet
--

1. She was an outstanding student whose work was head and \_\_\_\_\_ above the others in her class.
2. The lecture was just the way the students liked it - short and \_\_\_\_\_
3. Although it has its faults, by and \_\_\_\_\_ Britain is a pretty good country to live in.
4. Don't ask James to do anything practical; he's all fingers and \_\_\_\_\_
5. Pauline was so funny on Saturday. She really was the life and \_\_\_\_\_ of the party.
6. Oh, thank heavens you're both safe and \_\_\_\_\_! I was so worried about you.
7. They promised to stand by each other through thick and \_\_\_\_\_.
8. You can't throw him out, surely? Not your brother; not your own flesh and \_\_\_\_\_.
9. A certain amount of give and \_\_\_\_\_ is essential in any relationship.
10. His flat was so spick and \_\_\_\_\_ that it looked more like a well-kept museum than a home.
11. I'm afraid you'll have to wear a tie, sir. It's a hard and \_\_\_\_\_ rule of the club.
12. They're always fighting tooth and \_\_\_\_\_ I'm surprised they don't get divorced.
13. The managing director outlined the pros and \_\_\_\_\_ of the proposed plan.
14. I don't know about you, David, but I'm sick and \_\_\_\_\_ of hearing about his fantastic children.

## WORKSHOP 13. Phraseology

### Task 1. Fill in gaps with phraseological units from the list

*have a heart for, at heart, ate her heart out, has set her heart on, after my own heart, lost his heart to, a bleeding heart, to wear her heart in her sleeve, from the bottom of his heart, heart sank*

1. Nelly's \_\_\_\_\_ when she saw the bull coming in her direction.
2. She's a girl \_\_\_\_\_.
3. Mom says that Deb's not bad \_\_\_\_\_.
4. Mary doesn't \_\_\_\_\_ this type of work.
5. Nick is \_\_\_\_\_ and supports the team that is not expected to win.
6. Nelly \_\_\_\_\_ thinking which way to choose.
7. Your daughter \_\_\_\_\_ going to the city tomorrow.
8. Everyone saw that Mitchel \_\_\_\_\_ Abby.
9. I hope Fred spoke \_\_\_\_\_
10. It's not typical of Lisa \_\_\_\_\_

### Task 2. Match the food idioms on the left with their explanations of the right and fill in the gaps in the sentences with the proper expression

1.	to butter both sides of one's bread	a.	to get what you want by flattery
2.	to be one's bread and butter	b.	to be behaving in a very strange or silly way
3.	to butter sb. up	c.	to get a very low salary
4.	to be the breadwinner	d.	to tell something that someone else wanted you to keep a secret
5.	to be full of beans	e.	to profit from two things at the same time
6.	to get paid peanuts	f.	to be an activity or job you do to get the money you need
7.	to spill the beans	g.	to be very lively, eager, full of energy
8.	not know beans about	h.	to have no money at all
9.	not be worth a hill of beans	i.	to know nothing at all about a subject
10.	not have a bean	j.	to earn the main salary
11.	be out to lunch	k.	to be worth nothing

1. This employer can't be trusted — he is sure
2. It's the kids' party today and they \_\_\_\_\_
3. I'm sorry, but he won't suit because \_\_\_\_\_

4. She earns the main salary — she is the \_\_\_\_\_ in our family.
5. Helen hasn't heard a word you said — she's \_\_\_\_\_
6. He works for one company during the day and at the same time he has a job with another company during the evening — he wants to \_\_\_\_\_
7. I can't pay you today — I \_\_\_\_\_
8. I don't write just for fun — it's my \_\_\_\_\_
- 9 \_\_\_\_\_ing me up will get you nowhere.
10. He is a hotel worker. He works long hours but \_\_\_\_\_ He can hardly make both ends meet.
11. The story you got involved in is \_\_\_\_\_

**Task 3. Complete the following similes. Translate the phraseological units into Russian. If necessary, use your dictionary.**

A	B
as black as .....	..... as a loon
as green as .....	..... as a lamb
as cold as .....	..... as a mouse
as white as .....	..... as a cat
as old as .....	..... as a kitten
as changeable as .....	..... as an eel
as safe as .....	..... as an owl
as brown as .....	..... as a wolf
as clean as .....	..... as a cricket
as dull as .....	..... as a bee

**Task 4. Complete the following sentences, using the words from the list below. Translate the phraseological units into Russian.**

*ice, beetroot, mule, feather, sheet, toast, clockwork, bee, rail, peacock*

1. She was so embarrassed that she went as red as a .....
2. I can carry the suitcase easily, it's as light as a .....
3. The room is as warm as .....
4. My sister does so many things that she's always as busy as a .....
5. He is as proud as a ..... of his new car.
6. It's as cold as ..... in that office.
7. Once he's made up his mind,

he'll never change it, he's as stubborn as a ..... . 8. She was so frightened that her face went as white as a ..... . 9. The postman always calls at 8 o'clock, he's as regular as ..... 10. However much he eats, he's always as thin as a ..... .

**Task 5. Would you be pleased or displeased if someone said the following things to you?**

1. You certainly know your stuff	5. You're such a know-all.
2. You get on my wick.	6. You're as thick as two short planks.
3. You're nobody's fool.	7. You're such a smart aleck.
4. You're two sandwiches short of a picnic.	8. You've got the gift of the gab.

**Task 6. Correct the mistakes in the idioms in these sentences.**

- 1 It's no fun spending time with Jez and Sal as they only have an eye for each other.
- 2 Try to solve these problems by using your pink matter.
- 3 Most parents weren't born today - they have a good idea of what their kids get up to.
- 4 Maggie could talk the front legs off a donkey.
- 5 Mary's on cloud seven now she's at university.
- 6 They are head over feet in love.
- 7 I haven't the cloudiest idea what we should do about this letter.
- 8 Gilly has a soft place for Jim - she's always talking about him.
- 9 Ruth and Paul raved after the play.

**Task 7. Match the beginnings and endings of the idioms below.**

as luck	that ends well
famous	believe it
in next	would have it
all's well	it all
to crown	last words
would you	to no time

**Task 8. Match the underlined idioms with their definitions. Use a good general dictionary or a dictionary of idioms if necessary.**

**Idioms**

- 1 I had a feeling of deia vu.

- 2 So far so good. I thought.
- 3 One thing led to another.
- 4 If you can't beat them, join them.
- 5 You can't win them all.
- 6 I had nothing to lose, so I did it.

### **Definitions**

- a) A series of events all happened, over which the speaker had little control.
- b) The speaker felt he or she had already experienced what was about to happen.
- c) One always has to accept that bad things will happen as well as good.
- d) Things were already bad, and the proposed action could not make them worse.
- e) Things were going fine up to that point.
- f) One is resigned to accept something that one has been struggling against.

## WORKSHOP 14.

### FINAL TEST

#### 1. Define the status of the given lexical items

hot dog	walk
-hood	blue stocking
over-	-ment
sunny	railway

#### 2. There are some words and roots borrowed into English from Latin. See whether you can fill in the gaps and state the meaning of some of the roots

Latin Root	Meaning	English
aqua	water	aquatic, aquarium, aqua
audi-o	?	audition, auditory, audio
bene	well	benefit, benevolent
cent-um	hundred	century, percent, cent
fer-o	carry	ferry, transfer, refer
fin-is	?	finish, finite, define
ign-is	fire	ignite, igneous, ignition
liber	?	liberate, liberal, liberty
loc-us	?	local, locate, locale
maxim-us	?	maximal, maximize
man-us	hand	manual, manipulate
mar-e	?	(sub)marine, maritime
mult-us	?	multiple, multiply, multi-

#### 3. There are some words and roots borrowed into English from Greek. See whether you can fill in the gap and state the meaning of some of the roots.

Greek Root	Meaning	English
aer	?	aerosol, aerobic
auto	self	automobile, autograph
bi-os	life	biography, bionic, biology
graph-o	?	autograph, photograph
hydor	?	hydrant, hydrophobia
hyper	?	hyperactive, hypercritical
mania	madness	mania, maniac, kleptomania
mikr-os	?	microbe, microchip
path-e	suffering	psychopath, pathology
phon-e	?	telephone, microphone
tri-a	?	trident, tripod, triple

#### 4. State the degree of assimilation of the following words.

- 1) pen    6) sauerkraut
- 2) phenomenon                      7) allegretto



- 3) restaurant                      8) sky  
 4) mill    9) beret  
 5) chronicle                      10) paper

**5. Translate choosing the proper word.**

1. He booked a *номер* in the hotel.  
 a) number                      b) room            c) space  
 2. He was not *принят* to college.  
 a) admit                      b) accept            c) receive  
 3. The dog lost its *хозяин*.  
 a) host                      b) master            c) manager  
 4. This *история* happened long ago.  
 a) history                      b) story            c) tale  
 5. Who *изобрел* the telephone?  
 a) discover                      b) invent            c) disclose  
 6. When do you *сдавать* your exam in English?  
 a) pass                      b) take            c) have  
 7. It was Doctor Todd who *вылечил* him.  
 a) cure                      b) treat            c) recover

**6. Discriminate between different types of motivation.**

- 1) conventionalism                      6) actor-manager  
 2) to howl                      7) snow-white  
 3) go-between                      8) murmur  
 4) disreputable                      9) coatless  
 5) sizzle

**7. Find antonyms for the words given below.**

Good (adj); deep (adj); narrow (adj); clever (adj); young (adj);  
 love (v); to reject (v); to give (v); strong (adj); to laugh (v); joy (n); up (adv); slowly  
 (adv); sad (adj); to die (v); to open (v); clean (adj); darkness (n); big (adj).

**8. Find synonyms and paronyms to the words in the left column.**

- 1) policy                      a) stuff  
 2) physician                      b) campaign  
 3) company                      c) strategy  
 4) personnel                      d) politics  
    e) doctor

- f) personal  
 g) physicist  
 h) enterprise

**9. Find "translator's false friends" and correct the mistakes.**

- 1) датский флот - Dutch fleet;  
 2) аккуратная одежда - accurate clothes;  
 3) сценарий фильма – the scenery of the film;  
 4) присутствовать на репетиции - be present at the repetition;  
 5) марка машины – the mark of the car.

**10. Find the appropriate contextual meaning of the verb *to mind*.**

- |                                  |                     |
|----------------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Are you sure you don't mind?  | a) to be cautious   |
| 2. Who is minding the baby?      | b) to observe       |
| 3. Mind the traffic rules        | c) to look after    |
| 4. Mind the broken glass.        | d) to control       |
| 5. Mind your own business.       | e) that is OK       |
| 6. I wouldn't mind a cup of tea. | f) not to interfere |
| 7. Never mind!                   | g) to want          |
| 8. Mind your language.           | h) to be against    |

**11. Phraseological units may be native and borrowed. Identify the origin of the phraseological units given below.**

- |                   |                      |
|-------------------|----------------------|
| the Russian soul  | to do a Thatcher     |
| the kiss of Judas | to cross the Rubicon |
| a black sheep     | a sacred cow         |
| a whipping boy    | the hot seat         |
| a blue coat       | the fair sex         |

**12. The words under analysis are prefixal or suffixal derivatives. Decide which type of derivatives each word belongs to.**

- |              |              |
|--------------|--------------|
| unfriendly   | outrageous   |
| accountable  | beggarly     |
| dishearten   | overrule     |
| impossible   | fruitfulness |
| disguisement | boyhood      |
| befriend     | asystematic  |

**13. Decide which words are monomorphemic and which ones are polymorphemic.**

- |              |          |
|--------------|----------|
| hostess      | cry      |
| historian    | mistrust |
| age-long     | house    |
| duck         | hatless  |
| hamlet       | famous   |
| carelessness | defrost  |

**14. A non-affixal type of word-building is known as...**

- a) compounding;
- b) conversion;
- c) sound imitation;
- d) blending;
- e) acronymy.

**15. Consider the morphemic and derivational structure of the words given and decide which word is the odd one in each column and why.**

brotherhood	partnership	compliment
good	argot	arrangement
rehouse	proceed	involvement

**16. Compounds may be coordinative and subordinative according...**

- a) to the order of their immediate constituents;
- b) the nature of their immediate constituents;
- c) the relations between their immediate constituents.

**17. Conversion is the formation...**

- a) of verbs or nouns from other parts of speech;
- b) of verbs;
- c) of nouns.

**18. Which of the phraseological units are completely non-motivated and usually stable?**

- a) phraseological unities;
- b) phraseological fusions;
- c) phraseological collocations.

**19. The main criteria of the semantic approach to phraseology are**

- a) function;
- b) stability and idiomaticity;
- c) non-variability of context and partial variability of context.

**20. Phraseological units are classified into phrasemes and idioms according...**

- a) to the semantic approach to phraseology;
- b) the functional approach to phraseology;
- c) the contextual approach to phraseology.

**21. A variety of a language which prevails in a district, with local peculiarities of vocabulary, pronunciation and phrase is...**

- a) a dialect;
- b) an accent.

**22. British, American, Australian and Canadian English are...**

- a) local dialects;
- b) regional variants of standard language.

**23. The science of dictionary-compiling is known as...**

- a) lexicology;
- b) stylistics;
- c) lexicography;
- d) morphology.

**24.Linguistic dictionaries only deal with...**

- a) set expressions;
- b) lexical units; b) concepts;
- d) rules of grammar.

## 2.2. Эвристические задания

1. Lexicology came into being to meet the demands of many different branches of applied linguistics, namely of lexicography, standardization of terminology, information retrieval, literary criticism and especially of foreign language teaching. The list is not full. What other branches of science can be put on it this list? Justify your decision.

2. The word-stock (the vocabulary) of a language directly and immediately reacts to whatever happens in the social life of the speech community in question. Split into three groups. Visit sites devoted to neologisms About words. A blog from Cambridge Dictionary.- Режим доступа: <https://dictionaryblog.cambridge.org/tag/neologisms/>. - Дата доступа: 06.03.2023, thoroughly study neologisms appeared in the last two years and find out what aspects of life they reflect. Report to the class, giving presentations.

3. The elements of lexical system are characterized by their combinatorial and contrastive properties determining their syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships. What resources do you need to study words on both levels?

Visit the site of BBC.- Режим доступа: <https://www.bbc.co.ukhttps://dictionaryblog.cambridge.org/tag/neologisms/>. - Дата доступа: 06.03.2023 choose any article you are interested in to read. Then pick up words from the chosen article and illustrate their properties on syntagmatic and paradigmatic levels.

4. Three types of motivation of words exist: **phonetical** motivation, **morphological**, motivation and **semantic** motivation. To examine this issue split into groups and carry out a detailed analysis of semantic groups of words in English, Russian, French, German and Italian. You can choose among echo-word, words meaning quick, foolish, indistinct talk, words denoting noises, etc. Do words in the above languages have the same motivation? Do any of the words combine different types of motivation?

5. If we know enough the etymology of a word, we can frequently find it changing its meaning several times. The word *silly* is cognate to Danish *salig* and German *selig*, both of which mean *happy* though the Danish is more likely to mean happy for religious reasons, and the German may mean *happy* because of drunkenness. In English it meant *deserving of pity* in the fifteenth century, *ignorant* in the sixteenth century and then developed to mean *foolish, as it does today*.

Can you guess by looking carefully at the words what *awful*, *terrific* and *wonderful* once mean?

6. Choose your own passage for analysis and identify the type of English to which it belongs — formal, informal, or nonstandard. Characterize the passage by elements of style. Note the particular words and constructions that cause you to label the passage as you do so. Explain the choice of words according to the formality of the situation in which they are used in the passage under analysis.

7. Visit the site [DisserCat](https://www.dissercat.com) — электронная библиотека диссертаций [Электронный ресурс ].- Режим доступа: <https://www.dissercat.com>. - Дата доступа: 06.03.2023

and find out what aspects of medicine/economic/legal/finance/marketing terminology have been studied.

8. Find out the most productive models of word-formation visiting the site Oxford Learner's Dictionaries [Электронный ресурс].- Режим доступа:

<https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/>.- Дата доступа: 06.03.2023 and analyzing New words and meanings added: March 2023

9. Choose any polysemantic words that is well-known to you and illustrate its meanings with examples of your own. Prove that the meanings are related one to another.

10. Try your hand at the following research work. Illustrate the semantic structure of one of the following words with a diagram; use the dictionary if necessary.

Foot, n.; hand, n.; ring, n.; stream, n.; warm, adj.; green, adj.; sail, n.; key, n.; glass, n.; eye, n.

11. Prove that in a language synonyms have a double nature: on the one hand, they have something in common, on the other hand, there are certain differences between them. For this, bring out the common features and the differential features of the underlined synonyms, which are somehow opposed or contrasted in the contexts you can find while reading newspapers, books.

12. Describe the structure of the entries of the same word in 3-4 dictionaries of different types. Bring out the similarities and differences between them

13. Consult reliable monolingual dictionaries and find words with partially different semantic structures representing British English and North American English.

### **3. РАЗДЕЛ КОНТРОЛЯ ЗНАНИЙ**

#### **3.1. Перечень рекомендуемых средств диагностики и методика формирования итоговой оценки**

Для контроля качества усвоения учебной дисциплины «Лексикология» используются различные средства диагностики, а именно: устный опрос на семинарских занятиях, подготовка текстовых и текстово-графических презентаций, составление рефератов, написание эссе по отдельным разделам дисциплины, выполнение открытого эвристического задания, решение практических заданий, зачет.

При оценивании ответов на лекциях (опрос) и семинарских (практических) занятиях учитывается полнота ответа, наличие аргументов, примеров из практики.

Критериями оценивания реферата являются содержание и полнота раскрытия темы, структура и последовательность изложения, корректная интерпретация используемых источников, оформление, соответствующее стандарту.

При оценке эвристического задания учитывается: оригинальность созданного образовательного продукта, полнота и разносторонность исследования изучаемого феномена, учет межпредметных знаний из различных областей, личностная значимость достигнутых результатов.

Критерии оценки презентации включают содержание информации, логичность структуры, лаконичный дизайн, оправданность использования графических и анимационных эффектов, соблюдение принципов оформления,.

При оценивании решения практических заданий акцентируется внимание на уместности и верности применения того или иного переводческого приема.

Формой текущей аттестации по дисциплине «Лексикология» учебным планом предусмотрен зачет.

При формировании итоговой оценки используется рейтинговая оценка знаний студента, дающая возможность проследить и оценить динамику процесса достижения целей обучения. Рейтинговая оценка предусматривает использование весовых коэффициентов для текущего контроля знаний и текущей аттестации студентов по дисциплине.

#### **3.2. Вопросы и тестовые задания для контроля освоения курса**

##### **TEST 1. ON LECTURE 1**

###### **1. Name the type of lexicology which deals with**

- a) the origin of various words, their change and development, the linguistic and extra linguistic forces modifying their structure, meaning and usage
- b) the general study of vocabulary, irrespective of the specific features of any

particular language

- c) the comparison and description of the vocabularies of different languages;
- d) the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of the development;
- e) the description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language.

## **2. Answer the following questions**

1. What is the subject-matter of lexicology as a branch of linguistics?
2. What is the only common characteristic of outstandingly successful people?
3. What are the two approaches in linguistic science to the study of language material?
4. What types of Lexicology do you know? Comment on the difference between them.
5. What aspects of research do vocabulary studies include? What do these aspects deal with?
6. What are the points of interactions between lexicology and phonetics?
7. Morphological indicators can help to differentiate the meanings of the words. Can you give examples other than in the lecture to illustrate the statement?
8. The lexical meaning of the word depends on the grammatical context in which it occurs. Can you give any examples?
9. Discuss the relationship between lexicology and stylistics.
10. Give your reasons why lexicology is considered to be essentially a sociolinguistic science?

## **3. Give Russian equivalents to the following words**

Cyberphobia, cyberpunk, cyberspace, cyberart, cyberhippy, cyberlawyer, cyberworld, cybermat, cybercop, cybercha, cyber-community, cybernaut, cybrarian;  
PIN, E-mail hacker (1983), Internet (1986), cellphone (1984), mobile (1990), spam (1994), web (1994);  
disagreement, disputes, disappointments, disillusion, distress, dissidents, disorder;  
golfaholic, footballaholic, computerholic, leisureholic;  
cable, dude, rap; buyout, to upchuck, animalist, synergy, whicked;  
blockbuster, ecofriendly, high-maintenance, job-hunt, script-show; awesome, I just know it 'd be an awesome band (Making Music 1986); Cool, to cool.

## **TEST 2. ON LECTURE 2**

### **1. Give definitions to the following:**

lexical system, syntagmatic relations, paradigmatic relations, a word, motivation, phonetic motivation, morphological motivation, semantic motivation, folk etymology, colloquial words, slang, dialect words, archaic and obsolete words, professional terminology, basic vocabulary.

### **2. Complete the following sentences using words and expressions given in the list below:**



- A. The smallest meaningful units of the language are called ... .
  - B. The biggest units of morphology and the smallest units of syntax are ... .
  - C. A set of elements associated and functioning together according to certain laws is termed ... .
  - D. Contrastive relations of a lexical unit with all other units that can occur in the same context and be contrasted to it are known as ... .
  - E. When there is a certain similarity between the sounds that make up words and their meaning, the motivation is ... .
  - P. Morphological motivation, when both the lexical meaning of the component morphemes and the meaning of the pattern are perfectly transparent, is called ... .
  - G. Motivation based on the co-existence of direct and figurative meaning of the same word within the same synchronous system is termed ... .
- 1) lexical system; 2) semantic; 3) paradigmatic relations; 4) complete; 5) words; 6) phonetical; 7) morphemes.

### **3. Answer these questions**

1. What determines the choice of stylistically marked words in each particular situation?
2. In what situations are informal words used?
3. What are the main kinds of informal words? Give a brief description of each group.
4. What is the difference between colloquialisms and slang? What are their common features? Illustrate your answer with examples.
5. What are the main features of dialect words?
6. Where are formal words used?
7. Are learned words used only in books? Which type of learned words, do you think, is especially suitable for verbal communication? Which is least suitable and even undesirable?
8. What are the principal characteristics of archaic words?
9. What are the controversial problems connected with professional terminology?
10. Do you think that students of English should learn terms? If so, for which branch or branches of knowledge?
11. What is understood by the basic vocabulary?
12. Which classes of stylistically marked words should be included in the students' functional vocabulary?

## **TEST 3. ON LECTURE 3**

### **1. Give definitions to the following:**

a cognate, assimilation (adaptation), grammatical adaptation, semantic adaptation, international words, etymological doublets.

**2. Complete the following sentences using words and expressions given in the list below:**

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

By the ..... we understand words that are not borrowed from other languages. A native word is a word that belongs to the Old English word-stock. It is the basic element, though it constitutes only up to 20-25% of the English vocabulary.

..... is the earliest recorded form of the English language. It was spoken from about A.D. 600 until about A.D. 1100, and most of its words had been part of a still earlier form of the language.

..... is a prehistoric language that was the common ancestor of Greek and Latin as well. Others came into Old English as it was becoming a separate language.

---

a. Indo-European; b. Native Element; c. borrowing; d. Old English, or Anglo-Saxon

**3. Complete the following sentences or fill the blanks in them using one of the words from those in brackets**

A. A borrowed word enters into the ..... (dictionary, vocabulary, grammar) of one language from another.

B. The words of the same etymological root are called ..... (nouns, compounds, cognates, derivatives).

C. The process of adjustment of borrowed words to the norms of the recipient language is called ..... (organization, specialisation, adaptation).

D. Grammatical assimilation of a borrowed word is usually connected with the change of its ..... (structure, shape, paradigm).

E. Translation loans are ..... (root, derived, international, compound) words which undergo the process of translation of each stem.

**4. Answer these questions.**

1. How can you account for the fact that English vocabulary contains such an immense number of words of foreign origin?

2. What are the main reasons for the process of borrowing?

3. What element does quantitatively prevail in the English vocabulary?

4. What is the earliest group of English borrowings? Date it.

5. What Celtic borrowings are there in English? Date them.

6. Which words were introduced into English vocabulary during the period of Christianization?

7. What are the characteristic features of Scandinavian borrowings?

8. When and under what circumstances did England become a bilingual country?

9. What are the characteristic features of words borrowed into English during the Renaissance?

10. What languages did English borrow in the modern period?

11. What suffixes and prefixes can help you to recognize words of Latin and French origin?

12. What are the main areas for the assimilation of borrowings?
13. What kind of notions do most international words convey?
14. How are the etymological and stylistic characteristics of words interrelated?

#### TEST 4. ON LECTURE 4

**Task 1. Answer these questions**

1. What is word-formation? How is word-formation classified?
2. How do you distinguish between a morpheme and a word?
3. What types of morphemes do you know?
4. What structural types of words are distinguished in English?
5. How are affixes classified?
6. What is conversion? How many semantic groups are converted lexical units divided? What are they?
7. Could you give examples of different types of composition?
8. What are ways of forming compounds?
9. How are compound words classified?
10. What is back-formation?
11. What is abbreviation, clipping, blending?

**Task 2. Using dictionaries find out the allomorphs in the word clusters of the lexemes:**

*admire, estimate, demonstrate.*

**Task 3. Divide the following words into parts putting a slant line (/) at the point of division. Explain how the parts produce the total meaning**

impolite	subordinate	antipode
bibliophile	transmission	pseudonym
intervene	verify	essence
environment	excess	nominee

**Task 4. Look up in a dictionary the meaning of the following suffixes, give examples:**

- a) noun-forming suffixes: *-er, -ness, -hood, -ence, -ism, -dom, -ment, -ity*;
- b) adjective-forming suffixes: *-less, -like, -ish, -ed, -ful, -able*;
- c) verb-forming suffixes: *-en, -ize, -ify*.

**Task 5. List most common Latin affixes and define their probable meanings**

Suffix or Prefix	Meaning	Examples


**Task 6. What prefixes would be used with the following words to make them negative?**

.....organized	.....able	.....perfect	.....accessible
.....professional	.....social	.....normal	.....sincere
.....important	.....loyal	.....regular	.....patient

**Task 7. Fill in the chart, analyze how different suffixes added to the same base change the meaning of the word**

Noun	Adjective	Person	Verb	Adverb
organization	organized	organizer	organize	
	disabled			
		employer		
			predict	
	intelligent			
difference				

**Task 8. Use nouns based on two-word verbs:**

- 1) The machinery might break down. There was a \_\_\_ in the machinery.
- 2) The people cry out against high taxes. There was a loud \_\_\_
- 3) Sales will drop off. There will be a \_\_\_ in sales.
- 4) They often get together. They had a \_\_\_ with their friends.
- 5) Don't mix up the price tags. A \_\_\_ could be serious.
- 6) The driver needed to speed up. The \_\_\_ was sudden.
- 7) Good friends stand by one another. You are my old \_\_\_\_\_ .
- 8) The plane will soon take off. The \_\_\_\_\_ was smooth.
- 9) John will write up his lessons. His \_\_\_ is two pages long.

**Task 9. Analyze the following lexical units according to their structure:**

computerize	nobody
moneywise	giver-away

computaholic	agribusiness
braindrain	biotechnology
take-in	psychology
good-for-nothing	technophobia
skinhead	brunch
Eurovision	megalomaniac
helter-skelter	finger-wringer
burger	CD
HMO	dilly-dally
snow-surfing	couch potato
ecofriendly	sound-bites
nevertheless	hitch-hike
Xmas	snacketeria
hijack	proof-read
counsellor	irritation
panorama	splashdown

## TEST 5. ON LECTURE 5

### Task 1. Give definitions to the following

grammatical meaning, lexico-grammatical meaning, lexical meaning, the denotational component of lexical meaning, the connotational component of lexical meaning, an emotional connotation, an evaluative connotation

### Task 2. Find the name to which the following might be an explanation

- a) the reflection in the mind of real objects and phenomena in their essential features and relations;
- b) the object of reality denoted by the linguistic sign;
- c) a two—facet unit comprising both form (phonetic and orthographic), and content, or sound form and meaning;
- d) establishing the interrelations between the meaning of the word and the

actual referent, i.e. that part of reality to which the linguistic sign refers;

e) understanding the meaning of a linguistic unit only through its relation to other linguistic units, i.e. as the function of the use of a linguistic unit.

1. functional approach to word-meaning 2. concept (notion) 3. a linguistic sign 4. a referent 5. referential approach to word-meaning

### **Task 3. Complete the following sentences**

1. The common meaning of words belonging to a lexico-grammatical class of words is called .....

2. The conceptual concept of a word is expressed by ... .

3. When the referent named in the denotative meaning is associated with emotions, the connotation is .....

4. The meaning proper to the given linguistic unit in all its forms and distributions is termed .....

5. The pragmatic communicative value that the word receives depending on where, when, how, by whom, for what purpose it is used, is expressed by .....

6. The component of meaning in identical sets of individual forms of different words is called .....

7. When associations concern the situation in which the word is uttered, the social relationships between the interlocutors, the purpose of communication, the connotation is .....

8. The connotation which expresses approval or disapproval, is known as .....

a) grammatical meaning b) lexico-grammatical meaning c) lexical meaning d) denotational component of lexical meaning e) connotational component of lexical meaning f) stylistic connotation g) emotive connotation h) evaluative connotation

### **Task 4. Answer the questions**

1. How is word meaning defined?

2. What are the two approaches to the study of word-meaning in modern linguistics? Point out their essential features and give their criticism.

3. Word meaning is not homogeneous. What is it made up of?

4. Draw a table showing all components of word meaning. Illustrate all types of meaning giving examples.

5. What points of view can any change of meaning be investigated from?

6. What are the main causes of semantic changes? What groups are they subdivided? Give examples of each semantic change.

7. What kinds of connection exist between the old meaning and the new one? What are they?

8. What types of similarities are metaphors based upon? Give examples.
9. What is metonymy? What relations between the primary and secondary meaning can the transfer of name be conditioned? Give examples.
10. What changes of meaning can the results of semantic changes be observed in?
11. How can restriction of meaning be defined? Give examples.
12. How can extension of meaning be defined? Give examples.
13. What is amelioration? Give examples.
14. What is pejoration or degradation of meaning? Give examples.

**Task 5. Find the synonymous terms in the list.**

1. amelioration	10. generalization
2. differentiation of synonyms	11. discrimination of synonyms
3. degradation	12. broadening
4. extension	13. deterioration
5. elevation	14. widening
6. worsening	15. specialization
7. restriction	16. degeneration
8. melioration	17. narrowing
9. pejoration	18. bettering

**4. Group the following words into motivated and non-motivated. Define the type of motivation**

Driver, write, mew, ding-dong, sunrise, workaholic, discuss, actor, cry, twitter, blackboard

**TEST 6. ON LECTURE 6**

**Task 1. Answer these questions**

1. Which words do we call homonyms?
2. Why can't homonyms be regarded as expressive means of the language?
3. What is the traditional classification of homonyms? Illustrate your answer with examples.
4. What are the distinctive features of the classification of homonyms suggested by Professor A.I. Smirnitsky?
5. What are the main sources of homonyms? Give examples.
6. In what respect does split polysemy stand apart from other sources of homonyms?
7. Prove that the language units *board* ("a long and thin piece of timber") and *board* ("daily meals") are two different meanings of one and the same word.
8. What are synonyms?
9. Say why synonyms are one of the language's most important expressive means. Illustrate your answer with examples.

10. Synonyms are sometimes described as words with “dual” characteristics. What is meant by this?
11. Which word in a synonymic group is considered to be the dominant synonym?
12. Can the dominant synonym be substituted for certain by other members of a group of synonyms? Is the criterion of interchangeability applicable in this case?
13. What types of synonyms were defined in V.V. Vinogradov’s classification system?
14. How can synonyms be defined in the terms of componential analysis? On what criterion is this definition based?
15. Why is the definition of synonyms based on the criterion of interchangeability open to question?
16. What is a more modern and a more effective approach to classifying synonyms? Give examples.
17. What connotations differentiate the verbs *to peep* and *to peer*; the adjectives *pretty*, *handsome* and *beautiful*?
18. Which words are called euphemisms?
19. What are their two main types? What functions do they perform in speech?
20. Show that euphemisms may be regarded as a subtype of synonyms. Which type of connotation is characteristic for them?
21. Which words do we classify as antonyms? Give examples.
22. To which parts of speech do most antonyms belong?

### **Homonyms: Words of the Same Form**

#### **Task 2. Find the homonyms in the following extracts. Classify them into homonyms proper, homographs and homophones**

1. "Mine is a long and a sad tale!" said the Mouse, turning to Alice, and sighing. "It is a long tail, certainly," said Alice, looking down with wonder at the Mouse's tail; "but why do you call it sad?"
2. a) My seat was in the middle of a row. b) "I say, you haven't had a row with Corky, have you?"
3. a) Our Institute football team got a challenge to a match from the University team and we accepted it. b) Somebody struck a match so that we could see each other.
4. a) It was nearly December but the California sun made a summer morning of the season, b) On the way home Crane no longer drove like a nervous old maid.
5. a) Do you always forget to wind up your watch? b) Crane had an old Ford without a top and it rattled so much and the wind made so much noise.
6. a) In Brittany there was once a knight called Eliduc. b) She looked up through the window at the night.
7. a) He had a funny round face, b) — How does your house face? — It faces the South.



8. a) So he didn't shake his hand because he didn't shake cowards' hands, see, and somebody else was elected captain, b) Mel's plane had been shot down into the sea.

9. a) He was growing progressively deafer in the left ear. b) I saw that I was looking down into another cove similar to the one I had left.

10. a) Iron and lead are base metals, b) Where does the road lead?

**Task 3. On what linguistic phenomenon is the joke in the following extracts based? What causes the misunderstanding?**

1. Husband and wife were enjoying a quiet evening by their fireside, he deep in a book and she in a cross word puzzle. Suddenly she questioned him:

"Darling, what is a female sheep?"

"Ewe [ju:]," he replied. His further explanation hardly soothed her.

2. "I spent last summer in a very pretty city in Switzerland."

"Berne?"

"No, I almost froze."

3. **Officer** (*to driver in parked car*): Don't you see that sign "Fine for parking"?

Driver: Yes, officer, I see and agree with it.

**Task 4**

**a. Find the homonyms proper for the following words; give their Russian equivalents**

1. *band* — a company of musicians. 2. *seal* — a warm-blooded, fish-eating sea-animal, found chiefly in cold regions. 3. *ear* — the grain-bearing spike of a cereal plant, as in corn. 4. *cut* — the result of cutting. 5. *to bore* — to make a long round hole, esp. with a pointed tool that is turned round. 6. *corn* — a hard, horny thickening of the skin, esp. on the foot. 7. *fall* — the act of falling, dropping or coming down. 8. *to hail* — to greet, salute, shout an expression of welcome. 9. *draw* — something that attracts attention.

**b. Find the homophones to the following words, translate them into Russian or explain their meanings in English**

Heir, dye, cent, tale, sea, week, peace, sun, meat, steel, knight, sum, coarse, write, sight, hare.

**c. Find the homographs to the following words and transcribe both**

1. *To bow* — to bend the head or body. 2. *wind* — air in motion. 3. *to tear* — to pull apart by force. 4. *to desert* — to go away from a person or place. 5. *row* — a number of persons or things in a line.

**Task 5. Classify the following italicized homonyms. Use Professor A. I. Smirnitsky's classification system**

1. a) He should give the *ball* in your honour as the bride, b) The boy was playing with a *ball*.
2. a) He wished he could explain about his *left* ear. b) He *left* the sentence unfinished.
3. a) I wish you could stop *lying*. b) The yellow mouse was still dead, *lying* as it had fallen in the crystal clear liquid.
4. a) This time, he turned on the *light*, b) He wore \$ 300 suits with *light* ties and he was a man you would instinctively trust anywhere.
5. a) When he's at the door of her room, he sends the *page* ahead, b) Open your books at *page* 20.
6. a) Crockett's voice *rose* for the first time, b) I'll send you roses, one *rose* for each year of your life.
7. a) He was *bound* to keep the peace for six months, b) You should *bound* your desires by reason.
8. a) The pain was almost more than he could *bear*, b) Catch the *bear* before you sell his skin.
9. a) To *can* means to put up in airtight tins or jars for preservation, b) A man *can* die but once.

## TEST 7. ON LECTURE 7

### Task 1. Answer these questions

1. What do we mean when we say that an idiom has a “double” meaning?
2. Why is it very important to use idioms with care?
3. What other terms are used to describe “phraseological unit”?
4. How can you show that the “freedom” of free word-groups is relative and arbitrary?
5. What are the two major criteria for distinguishing between phraseological units and free word-groups?
6. How would you explain the term “grammatical invariability” of phraseological units?
7. How do proverbs differ from phraseological units?
8. Can proverbs be regarded as a subdivision of phraseological units? Give reasons for your answer.
9. What is the basis of the traditional and oldest principle for classifying phraseological units?
10. What other criteria can be used for the classification of phraseological units?
11. Do you share the opinion that in idioms the original associations are partly or wholly lost?
12. What are the merits and disadvantages of the thematic principle of classification for phraseological units?
13. Explain the semantic principle of classification for phraseological units.
14. What is the basis of the structural principle of classification for phraseological units?

15. Analyse Professor A.I. Smirnitsky's classification system. What is it based on? Do you see any controversial points in the classification system?

16. Discuss the merits of Professor A.V. Koonin's system for the classification of phraseological units. What is it based on? Do you find any points in the classification system which are open to question?

**Task 2. Shakespeare's plays provide us with many idiomatic expressions. What is the meaning of each of the following? Match up the phraseological units (a-i) with their definitions (1-9)**

A. to give the devil his due	1. a good thing which the ignorant are unable to appreciate
B. to wear one's heart on one's sleeve	2. moral lessons from nature
C. to do yeoman service	3. artlessly to display one's feeling
D. a foregone conclusion	4. by nature or by training well fitted
E. an itching palm	5. a predetermined outcome
F. the primrose path	6. greediness, especially for money
G. to the manner born	7. a pleasurable, comfortable life
H. sermons in stones	8. to perform a useful, usually humble function
I. caviar to the general	9. to deal fairly, impartially, to recognize for merits of someone even with major

**Task 3. Give the proverbs from which the following phraseological units have developed**

Birds of a feather; to catch at a straw; to put all one's eggs in one basket; to cast pearls before swine; the first blow; a bird in the bush; to cry over spilt milk; the last straw.

## TEST 8. ON LECTURE 8

**Task 1. Answer these questions**

1. What is lexicography?
2. What does the term "dictionary" mean?
3. What types of dictionaries do you know?
4. What dictionaries are called bilingual? Give examples.
5. Why a bilingual dictionary is not equivalent to a unilingual dictionary?
6. What dictionaries are called special?
7. What special bilingual dictionaries do you know?
8. What is the most famous unilingual dictionary of the English language?
9. What comprehensive dictionaries of English language do you know?
10. Speak about Webster's dictionary and its history.

11. What type of dictionary is called “ideographic”? Give example.
12. What dictionaries are called special unilingual? Give examples.

**Task 2. Establish the typological features of 3-4 dictionaries of your choice. Point out the differences between them**

1. Describe the structure of the entries of the same word in 3-4 dictionaries of different types. Bring out the similarities and differences between them.
2. Compare the systems of pronunciation presentation employed in British and American dictionaries (International Phonetic Alphabet vs. specific phonetic notation). Give examples and all necessary explanations.
3. Take 3-4 explanatory and translation dictionaries and analyse the types of labels which are used in them. Give a classification of labels illustrated by examples.
4. Trace the origin and development of the words **English** and **England** (or any other word) using an etymological dictionary and The Oxford English Dictionary.
5. Describe *Roget's Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases* according to the scheme: its history, its author, dictionary structure, structure of word entry.

### Vocabulary

**diachronic dictionary** диахронический словарь – словарь, описывающий язык в его историческом развитии

**ideographic dictionary** идеографический словарь – в нём слова располагаются исходя из значений слов, т.е. даются списки слов-понятий с их синонимами. Словарь предназначен для переводчиков на английский язык.

**synchronic (descriptive) dictionary** синхронический (описательный) словарь, т.е. словарь, описывающий один исторический этап в развитии языка.

**thesaurus** тезаурус, сокровищница

## TEST 9. ON LECTURE 9

### Task 1. Answer the following questions

1. What is a linguistic variety?
2. What does the term 'Standard English' mean?
3. What is known to you about World English (World Standard English)?
4. Which regional labels are most common in modern dictionaries of English?
5. How can you differentiate between the main two variants of English, known as British English and North American English?
6. What are the causes for the existing differences in the vocabulary of British and North American English?
7. What dialects and regional variants are registered in the British Isles?
8. What is the most important linguistic change that has been affecting English since the 1960s?

9. What is the role of Englishes in the replenishment of the English lexicon?

**Task 2. Read the following words and distribute them into two columns according to the variant of English they represent, i. e. British English and American English. Remember to consult reliable dictionaries**

analyze	flavour	parlour
calibre	humor	sympathize
center	jeweler	traveler
colour	offence	woolly

**Task 3. Consult reliable monolingual dictionaries and find words with partially different semantic structures representing British English and North American English. For example, the words *caravan* and *fla***

**Task 4. Comment on the difference between the following words**  
Year - grade -form; pavement - sidewalk –footpath; the pictures — the movies - the cinema; subway — railway station — underground.

**Task 5. Comment on nature of the words below with reference to the variant of English they represent**

bill	postbox
candy	pram
elevator	prom
faucet	pub
hammock	vacation

**Task 6. Analyse the meanings of the words or word combinations below and decide which of them: a) don't have equivalents in American English; b) don't have equivalents in British English**

back bench	bank holiday	barrio
grammar school	green card	pub
public school	holiday season	community college
Groundhog Day	(the) Ivy League	(the) Privy Council

## TEST “Lexicology terms”

Выполнение теста на сайте образовательного портала:

<https://eduphil.bsu.by/course/view.php?id=39>

### Give terms to the following definitions

1.	It is a branch of linguistics, the study of words. The basic task of it is a study and systematic description of vocabulary in respect to its origin, development and current use.
2.	It is a part of general linguistics. It is concerned with the general study of vocabulary, irrespective of the specific features of any particular language.
3.	It is the lexicology of a particular language.
4.	It is the branch of linguistics which studies the origin or derivation of words.
5.	It is the branch of linguistics whose subject-matter is the study of word meaning. The term “semantics” is used to denote the lexical meaning of words or phrases.
6.	It is the study of the principles of the signification of things and notions by lexical and lexico-phraseological means of a given language.
7.	It deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development. It studies the functions of words and their specific structure.
8.	It is the branch of linguistics. It discusses the origin of various words, their change and development, the linguistic and extra linguistic forces modifying their structure, meaning and usage.
9.	It can be of great use in the diachronic study of synonyms, homonyms and polysemy.
10.	It is the branch of linguistics, dealing with relations between the way the language works and develops, on the one hand, and the facts of social life, on the other hand.

11.	It is a verbal interchange of ideas; connected speech or writing. It is a set of utterances that constitute a speech event, piece of writing or conversation.
12.	They are elements of the lexical system typical of this particular period.
13.	They are elements of the lexical system, dropping out of usage.
14.	They are some new phenomena in the lexical system.
15.	It is a level of studying words. The semantic structure of the word is analysed in its linear relationships with neighbouring words in connected speech.
16.	It is a level of studying words. The word is studied in its relationships with other words in the vocabulary system.
17.	It is the smallest unit of a given language capable of functioning alone and characterised by positional mobility within a sentence, morphological uninterruptability and semantic integrity.
18.	It is a psychological category.
19.	It denotes the relationship existing between the phonemic or morphemic composition and structural pattern of the word, on the one hand, and its meaning, on the other.
20.	It is a certain similarity between the sound that make up words and their meaning.
21.	It is the relationship between morphemes and their meanings.
22.	It is based on the co-existence of direct and figurative meaning of the same word within the same synchronous system.
23.	It is “a system of expressive means peculiar to a specific sphere of communication”. I.V. Arnold
24.	It is used in one’s immediate circle: family, relatives, or friends.
25.	These are informal words that are used in everyday conversational speech both by cultivated and uneducated people of all age groups. They are also included in the printed page.

26.	They are words of illiterate English. They are used in speech by uncultivated people.
27.	It is a language of a highly colloquial style, considered as below the level of standard educated speech, and consisting either of new words or of current words employed in some special sense. They are current words whose meanings have been metaphorically shifted.
28.	They are regional forms of English. It is a variety of a language which prevails in a district, with local peculiarities of vocabulary, pronunciation and phrase.
29.	These words are mainly associated with the printed page. It is in this vocabulary stratum that poetry, fiction and scientific prose find their main resources.
30.	These are the words of the official, bureaucratic language.
31.	They are old and no longer used words.
32.	They are no longer used because something new was invented. These words have completely gone out of use.
33.	It is a word or a word-group which is specifically employed by a particular branch of science, technology, trade or the arts to convey a concept peculiar to his particular activity.
34.	These words are stylistically neutral and used in all kinds of situations, both formal and informal, in verbal and written communication.
35.	It is a word taken over from another language and modified in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language.
36.	It is a word that is not borrowed from other languages. It is a word that belongs to the Old English word-stock.
37.	It is the earliest recorded form of the English language. It was spoken from about A.D. 600 until about A.D. 1100, and most of its words had been part of a still earlier form of the language.
38.	It a prehistoric language that was the common ancestor of Greek and Latin as well.



39.	These words are not to be found in other Indo-European languages but the Germanic. They constitute a very large layer of the vocabulary.
40.	These words appeared in the English vocabulary in the 5th century or later, that is after the Germanic tribes migrated to the British Isles. They have no cognates in other languages.
41.	They are words of the same etymological root, of common origin.
42.	It is the process by which a word came into the vocabulary of one language from another and a word itself. A source of language change that involves adopting aspects of one language into another.
43.	It is the effect of a politically or culturally nondominant language on a dominant language in the area. a Celtic substratum ( <i>Thames, London</i> )
44.	It is the effect of a politically or culturally dominant language on another language or languages in the area.
45.	It refers to the situation where two languages are in contact and neither one is clearly politically or culturally dominant.
46.	It is the process of word adjustment to its new environment and adaptation to the norms of the recipient language.
47.	It is a type of adaptation. It is a full adaptation to the phonetic system of the recipient language.
48.	It is a type of adaptation. It is a complete change of the former paradigm of the borrowed word.
49.	It is a type of adaptation. It is an adjustment to the system of meanings of the recipient vocabulary.
50.	They are words of identical origin that occur in several languages as a result of simultaneous or successive borrowings from one ultimate source .
51.	They are words borrowed twice into English. They have different forms and meanings in English. They are words of the same etymological root but which came into the language by different ways.
52.	They are borrowings of a special kind. They have the same phonetic shape as in their own language, but undergo the process of translation of each stem. ( <i>masterpiece</i> )

53.	It is the branch of lexicology that studies the derivative structure of existing words and the patterns on which a language builds new words.
54.	It is the smallest unit of language that carries information about meaning or function.
55.	It is a morpheme that can be a word by itself.
56.	It is a morpheme that must be attached to another element.
57.	It is a positional variant of that or this morpheme occurring in a specific environment.
58.	It is the morpheme that expresses the lexical meaning of the word.
59.	It is an affix added before the root.
60.	It is an affix added after the root.
61.	It is the form to which an affix is added.
62.	It forms a new part of speech and can also change the meaning of the root.
63.	It is a morpheme used to change grammar forms of the word.
64.	It is a word consisting of one root morpheme and an inflexion.
65.	It is a word consisting of one root morpheme, one or several affixes and an inflexion.
66.	It is a word consisting of two or more root morphemes and an inflexion.
67.	It is a word consisting of two or more root morphemes, one or more affixes and an inflexion.
68.	It is a process that assigns an already existing word to a new syntactic category. It is sometimes called zero derivation.
69.	It is the combination of two or more existing words to create a new word.
70.	It is a process that creates a new word by removing a real or supposed affix from another word in the language.
71.	These are words that are created from parts of two already existing items,

	usually the first part of one and the final part of the other.
72.	It is a process that shortens a polysyllabic word by deleting one or more syllables.
73.	It is formed by taking the initial letters of the words in a phrase and pronouncing them as a word.
74.	The formations of words from sounds that resemble those associated with the object or action to be named, or that seem suggestive of its qualities.
75.	The separate branch of linguistics studying the meaning in human language.
76.	It is the component of meaning in identical sets of individual forms of different words ( <i>asked, thought, walked, etc.</i> ) or ( <i>books, intentions, etc.</i> ).
77.	It is the common meaning of words. It is the feature according to which words are grouped together. ( <i>part-of-speech meaning</i> )
78.	It is the component of meaning proper to the given linguistic unit in all its forms and distributions. ( <i>go, goes, went, gone</i> )
79.	It is the component of lexical meaning of a word. It expresses the conceptual content of a word. It is present in every word and may be regarded as the central factor in the functioning of the language.
80.	It is the component of lexical meaning of a word. It expresses the pragmatic communicative value the word receives depending on where, when, how, by whom, for what purpose and in what contexts it is used. This component is optional.
81.	It is a type of connotation. It concerns the situation in which the word is uttered (formal, familiar, etc.), the social relationships between the interlocutors (polite, rough), the purpose of communication (poetic, official) e.g., <i>parent - father - dad</i>
82.	It is a type of connotation. It is expressed by the word, for example, in the synonyms ( <i>large, big, tremendous</i> and <i>like, love, worship</i> )
83.	It is a type of connotation. It expresses approval or disapproval, e.g.,

	<i>clique - group, magic - witchcraft.</i>
84.	It is a type of connotation. It is emphatic, expressing, for example, exaggeration ( <i>magnificent, splendid, superb</i> ).
85.	They are causes of semantic changes in the meaning of a word: changes in social life of a community, resulting in the appearance of new words ( <i>sputnik</i> ); change of things the names of which are retained (car = <i>a four-wheeled wago</i> , car = <i>a motor-car</i> ); terminological use of words where words acquire a new sense, e.g., <i>black box</i> was a term of aviation and electrical engineering, now it is used figuratively to denote any mechanism performing any intricate functions.
86.	They are causes of semantic changes in the meaning of a word. They act within the language system, may be of paradigmatic (discrimination of synonyms <i>time</i> and <i>tide</i> ) and syntagmatic character (ellipsis <i>to starve = to die</i> → <i>to die of hunger</i> ).
87.	It is a semantic process of associating two things, one of which in some way resembles the other. It is a transfer of name based on the association of similarity, it is actually a hidden comparison.
88.	It is a semantic process of associating two things one of which makes part of the other or is closely connected with it. It is a transfer of name based on substituting the part for the whole.
89.	It is the simplest case of metonymy by which it is meant giving the part for the whole or vice versa.
90.	It is an exaggerated statement not meant to be understood literally but expressing emotional attitude of the speaker to what he is speaking about.
91.	It is the expression of one's meaning by words of opposite sense.
92.	It refers to something unpleasant by using milder words.
93.	It is a process when a word of wide meaning acquires a narrower sense in which it only denotes some of the objects which it previously

	denoted.
94.	The usage of a word with the new meaning in the specialized vocabulary of some professional group.
95.	It is the application of the word to a wider variety of referents.
96.	It is a process when words arise from humble beginnings to position of greater importance.
97.	It is a process that involves a lowering in social scale, the acquisition by the word of some derogatory emotive charge.
98.	It is an approach to studying word-meanings. According to this approach word-meanings are studied through establishing the interrelations between words and concepts which they denote.
99.	It is an approach to studying word-meanings. According to this approach word-meanings are studied through the observations of the functions of a word in speech.
100.	They are words which are identical in sound and spelling (or, at least, in one of these aspects), but different in their meaning.
101.	These words are the same in sound and spelling.
102.	These words are the same in sound but different in spelling.
103.	These are words which are the same in spelling but different in sound.
104.	The words which represent the same category of parts of speech and have the same paradigm.
105.	These are words which belong to the same category of parts of speech. Their paradigms have one identical form, but it is never the same form. ( <i>to found, v - found, v</i> )
106.	These are words of different categories of parts of speech which have one identical form in their paradigms ( <i>rose, n - rose, v</i> ).
107.	These are words of the same category of parts of speech which are identical only in their corresponding forms <i>to lie (lay, lain), v - to lie (lied, lied), v - лгать. .</i>

108.	Two or more words of the same language, belonging to the same part of speech and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical denotational meanings, interchangeable, at least in some contexts, without any considerable alteration in denotational meaning, but differing in morphemic composition, phonetic shape, connotations, affective value, style and idiomatic use.
109.	It is a “central” word whose meaning is equal to the denotation common to all the synonymic group.
110.	It is a type of synonyms. They are words conveying the same concept but differing in shades of meaning. ( <i>V.V. Vinogradov</i> )
111.	It is a type of synonyms. They are words differing in stylistic characteristics. ( <i>V.V. Vinogradov</i> )
112.	It is a type of synonyms. They are words coinciding in all their shades of meaning and in all their stylistic characteristics. ( <i>V.V. Vinogradov</i> )
113.	The words of the same category of parts of speech which have contrasting meanings.
114.	It is a word the meaning of which may be said to be included in that of another word.
115.	They are words that are kindred both in sound form and meaning and therefore liable to be mixed but in fact different in meaning and usage and therefore only mistakenly interchanged.
116.	It is a stable word-group characterized by a completely or partially transferred meaning.
117.	They are word-groups with a partially changed meaning. They may be said to be clearly motivated, that is, the meaning of the unit can be easily deduced from the meanings of its constituents. ( <i>V.V. Vinogradov</i> )
118.	They are word-groups with a completely changed meaning, that is, the meaning of the unit does not correspond to the meanings of its constituent parts. They are motivated units; the meaning of the whole unit can be deduced from the meanings of the constituent parts. ( <i>V.V. Vinogradov</i> )

119.	They are word-groups with a completely changed meaning but, in contrast to the unities, they are demotivated, that is, their meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of the constituent parts. (V.V. Vinogradov)
120.	It is the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries and an important branch of applied linguistics. It has a common object of study with lexicology as both describe the vocabulary of a language.
121.	It is a book listing words of a language with their meanings and often with data regarding pronunciation, usage and/or origin.
122.	Dictionaries in which the words and their definition belong to the same language.
123.	Dictionaries that explain words by giving their equivalents in another language.
124.	Dictionaries that serve chiefly the purpose of comparing synonyms and terminology in various languages.
125.	Dictionaries that reflect the development of the English vocabulary by recording the history of form and meaning for every word registered.
126.	Dictionaries of current English concerned with present-day meaning and usage of words.
127.	This is a type of dictionary. In these dictionaries the main body is arranged according to a logical classification of notions expressed. But dictionaries of this type always have an alphabetical index attached to facilitate the search for the necessary word.
128.	This is a type of dictionary. These dictionaries supply words by which a given idea may be expressed. They are meant for readers having a good knowledge of English, and enable them to pick up an adequate expression and avoid overuse of the same words.
129.	They are regionally marked. They are characterized by some minor peculiarities in the sound form, vocabulary, grammar and by their own literary norms.
130.	It might be called the standard English of Great Britain. It is the speech of the educated people who live in London and the

	southeastern part of England.
131.	It is the language of Great Britain taught at schools and universities, used by the press, the radio and the television and spoken by educated people.
132.	They are varieties of a language used as a means of oral communication in small localities; they are set off from other varieties by some distinctive features of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. They are varieties of a language peculiar to some small locations, used in everyday speech as a means of oral communication and having non-normalised literary form.
133.	It simply refers to pronunciation



### 3.3. Содержание зачета по дисциплине «Лексикология»

#### Примерный перечень вопросов

1. What is the subject-matter of lexicology as a branch of linguistics?
2. What is the only common characteristic of outstandingly successful people?
3. What are the two approaches in linguistic science to the study of language material?
4. What types of Lexicology do you know? Comment on the difference between them.
5. What aspects of research do vocabulary studies include? What do these aspects deal with?
6. What are the points of interactions between lexicology and phonetics?
7. Morphological indicators can help to differentiate the meanings of the words. Can you give examples other than in the lecture to illustrate the statement?
8. The lexical meaning of the word depends on the grammatical context in which it occurs. Can you give any examples?
9. Discuss the relationship between lexicology and stylistics.
10. Give your reasons why lexicology is considered to be essentially a sociolinguistic science?
11. What determines the choice of stylistically marked words in each particular situation?
12. In what situations are informal words used?
13. What are the main kinds of informal words? Give a brief description of each group.
14. What is the difference between colloquialisms and slang? What are their common features? Illustrate your answer with examples.
15. What are the main features of dialect words?
16. Where are formal words used?
17. Are learned words used only in books? Which type of learned words, do you think, is especially suitable for verbal communication? Which is least suitable and even undesirable?
18. What are the principal characteristics of archaic words?
19. What are the controversial problems connected with professional terminology?
20. Do you think that students of English should learn terms? If so, for which branch or branches of knowledge?
21. What is understood by the basic vocabulary?
22. Which classes of stylistically marked words should be included in the students' functional vocabulary?
23. How can you account for the fact that English vocabulary contains such an immense number of words of foreign origin?
24. What are the main reasons for the process of borrowing?
25. What element does quantitatively prevail in the English vocabulary?

26. What is the earliest group of English borrowings? Date it.
27. What Celtic borrowings are there in English? Date them.
28. Which words were introduced into English vocabulary during the period of Christianization?
29. What are the characteristic features of Scandinavian borrowings?
30. When and under what circumstances did England become a bilingual country?
31. What are the characteristic features of words borrowed into English during the Renaissance?
34. What languages did English borrow in the modern period?
35. What suffixes and prefixes can help you to recognize words of Latin and French origin?
36. What are the main areas for the assimilation of borrowings?
37. What kind of notions do most international words convey?
38. How are the etymological and stylistic characteristics of words interrelated?

### **3.4. Шкала оценки**

Итоговая оценка формируется на основе:

1. Правил проведения аттестации студентов (Постановление Министерства образования Республики Беларусь №53 от 29 мая 2012 г.);
2. Положения о рейтинговой системе оценки знаний по дисциплине в БГУ (Приказ ректора БГУ от 18.08.2015 №382-ОД)
3. Критериев оценки знаний студентов (письмо Министерства образования от 22.12.2003 г.)

При прохождении аттестации учитывается следующее:

1. Посещаемость занятий (не менее 70%).
2. Усвоение программного материала в соответствии с этапами его изучения.
3. Активная работа в аудитории и при выполнении самостоятельных заданий.
4. Количество и качество выполненных контрольных заданий.

### **3.5. Оценивание собственных студенческих продуктов**

При оценке эвристического задания учитывается: оригинальность созданного образовательного продукта, полнота и разносторонность исследования изучаемого феномена, учет межпредметных знаний из различных областей, личностная значимость достигнутых результатов.

## **4. ВСПОМОГАТЕЛЬНЫЙ РАЗДЕЛ**

### **4.1. Структура учебной дисциплины**

Дисциплина «Лексикология» изучается в IV семестре на 2-м курсе. Всего на изучение учебной дисциплины отведено:

- для очной формы получения высшего образования - 108 часов, в том числе 52 аудиторных часа: лекции - 20 часов, семинарские занятия - 28 часов, управляемая самостоятельная работа - 4 часа.

Трудоемкость учебной дисциплины составляет 3 зачетные единицы. Форма текущей аттестации - зачет

### **4.2. Содержание учебного материала**

#### **Тема 1. Язык и лексикология**

1.1. Предмет и разделы лексикологии

1.2. Задачи лексикологии

1.3. Связь лексикологии с другими разделами языкознания

1.4. Значение лексикологии в практике перевода и обучения иностранным языкам

#### **Тема 2. Слово как основная единица лексической системы**

2.1. Слова как базовая единица языка

2.2. Мотивация слов

2.3. Функциональный стиль

2.4. Неофициальный стиль

2.5. Просторечные, нелитературные слова

2.6. Сленг

2.7. Диалекты

2.8. Книжные слова

2.9. Архаичные и вышедшие из употребления слова

2.10. Профессиональная терминология

2.11. Основной словарный фонд

#### **Тема 3. Этимология английских слов**

3.1. Исконные слова

3.2. Причины заимствований

3.3. Классификация заимствований: по источнику и эпохе заимствования

3.3.1. Кельтские заимствования

3.3.2. Латинские заимствования трех разных периодов

3.3.3. Скандинавские заимствования

3.3.4. Французские заимствования

3.3.5. Заимствования из других языков

3.4. Ассимиляции

3.5. Интернациональные слова

3.6. Этимологические дублиеты

3.7. Роль заимствований в английском языке на разных этапах его существования

#### **Тема 4. Основные способы английского словообразования**

4.1. Морфологическая структура слова. Понятие алломорфа.

4.2. Типы словообразования: морфологический, морфолого-синтаксический (конверсия), лексико-семантический

4.3. Морфологический анализ слова

4.4. Аффиксы словообразования и словоизменения

4.5. Конверсия или безаффиксное словообразование

4.6. Словосложение. Определение и общая характеристика сложных слов.

Классификация сложных слов

4.7. Второстепенные способы словообразования

#### **Тема 5. Значение слова. Семантическая структура и изменения семантики**

5.1. Семасиология. История семасиологии. Объект семасиологии

5.2. Лексическое значение слова. Значение слова в функциональном аспекте. Соотношение слова, лексического значения и понятия

5.3. Классификации типов лексических значений

5.4. Методы разграничения значений и выявления компонентов значений

5.4.1. грамматический

5.4.2. лексико-грамматический

5.4.3. лексический

5.4.4. денотативный

5.4.5. коннотативный

5.4.6. типы коннотаций

5.4.7. стилистический

5.4.8. эмоциональный

5.4.9. оценочный

5.4.10. экспрессивный

5.5. Изменение значений

5.5.1. Причины изменения значений

5.5.2. Классификация типов изменений значения

5.5.2.1 Сужение (специализация), расширение (генерализация) лексического значения слова

5.5.2.2 Семантический сдвиг или перенос лексического значения слова: метафора и метонимия

5.5.2.3 Прочие типы изменения ЛЗС: ухудшений (пейоризация), улучшение (амелиорация), гипербола и литота

#### **Тема 6. Словарный состав языка как система**

6.1 Омонимия ее место в лексической системе языка.

6.1.1. Происхождение омонимов и их классификация

6.1.2. Омонимия и полисемия

6.2. Определение понятия «синоним». Типы синонимов

6.2.1. Экспрессивность синонимов

6.2.2. Проблема критериев синонимии

6.2.3. Доминантный синоним

6.2.3. Классификация синонимов В.В. Виноградова

6.2.3. Классификация синонимов, основанная на различии в коннотативном значении

6.4. Эвфемизмы: типы и функции

6.5. Антонимы

6.6. Гипонимы, паронимы

### **Тема 7. Фразеология**

7.1. Фразеология как экспрессивный источник словаря

7.2. Свободные и устойчивые словосочетания. Критерии их разграничения.

7.3. Половицы

7.4. Традиционные принципы классификации фразеологических единиц

7.5. Семантическая классификация фразеологических единиц (В.В.Виноградов): фразеологические сращения, единства, сочетания

7.6. Структурная классификация фразеологических единиц (А.И.Смирницкий)

7.7. Структурно-семантическая классификация ФЕ (А.В.Кунин)

7.8. Функциональная классификация ФЕ (И.В.Арнольд)

7.9. Контекстуальная классификация ФЕ (Н.Н.Амосова)

### **Тема 8. Основы лексикографии**

8.1. Связь лексикологии и лексикографии

8.2. Типы словарей. Построение словарной статьи. Классификация лингвистических словарей: по характеру материала, по представленным языкам, по предназначенности (пользователю)

8.3. Диалектологические, этимологические и идеографические словари. Словари синонимов

8.4. Прочие типы словарей

8.5. Использование словарей разных типов в практике перевода

### **Тема 9. Социальная и территориальная группировка лексики**

9.1. Социальные причины особенностей употребления лексических единиц. Жаргоны и арготизмы

9.2. Соотнесенность языка, варианта и диалекта

9.3. Диалекты Великобритании (лалланс, кокни)

9.4. Особенности американского варианта английского языка. Различия в семантике, комбинаторике английских слов, специфика фразеологии в Соединенном королевстве и США. Семантические отличия афроамериканского варианта английского языка

9.5. Особенности словарного фонда канадского, австралийского, новозеландского, индийского вариантов английского языка

9.6. Пиджины и креольские языки на основе английского языка

### 4.3. Учебно-методическая карта учебной дисциплины

#### Дневная форма получения образования

Номер раздела, темы	Название раздела, темы	Количество аудиторных часов					Количество часов	Форма контроля знаний
		Лекции	Практические	Семинарские занятия	Лабораторные	Иное		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.	Язык и лексикология	2						экспресс-опрос
2.	Слово как основная единица лексической системы	2		6				экспресс-опрос презентации эвристическое задание
3.	Этимология английских слов	2		4				устный опрос практическое задание
4.	Основные способы английского словообразования	2		4				контрольная работа практическое задание
5.	Значение слова. Семантическая структура и изменения семантики	4		4				устный опрос эссе практическое задание

6.	Словарный состав языка как система	4		4				контрольная работа, тесты
7.	Фразеология	4		6				реферат практическое задание
8.	Основы лексикографии						2	презентации
9.	Социальная и территориальная группировка лексики						2	реферат
<b>Итого:</b>		<b>20 ч.</b>		<b>28 ч.</b>			<b>4 ч.</b>	

#### **4.4. Методические рекомендации по организации самостоятельной работы студентов**

Организация самостоятельной работы осуществляется в соответствии с Положением о самостоятельной работе студентов, утвержденном приказом Министра образования Республики Беларусь от 06 апреля 2015 г. Самостоятельная работа проходит в трех формах:

внеаудиторная подготовка (выполнение домашних заданий) к практическим занятиям;

подготовка и работа на занятиях семинарского типа;

самостоятельные поиски студентами ответов на задаваемые преподавателем в процессе аудиторной работы проблемные вопросы.

Целевой установкой первой формы самостоятельной работы является отработка и закрепление пройденного в аудитории материала.

Целью второй формы самостоятельной работы (УСР) является развитие исследовательских, творческих умений студентов. Задания для такого вида деятельности носят более обобщающий характер, включающий элементы проблемности, что требует от студентов значительной самостоятельной работы в выборе способов их выполнения, а также поиск необходимого познавательного материала.

Третья форма самостоятельной работы студентов - это их активная, познавательная деятельность на аудиторных занятиях.

## **4.5. Рекомендуемая литература**

### **Перечень основной литературы**

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. Лексикология английского языка. English Lexicology : учебник и практикум для вузов / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. — 8-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва : Издательство Юрайт, 2020. — 196 с. — (Высшее образование). — ISBN 978-5-534-07119-1. — Текст : электронный // Образовательная платформа Юрайт [сайт]. — URL: <https://urait.ru/bcode/449987> (дата обращения: 02.04.2023).

2. Бабич Г.Н. Lexicology A Current Guide. Лексикология английского языка: учеб. пособие / Г.Н. Бабич. — М.: Флинта: Наука, 2019. — 200 с.

3. Гвишиани, Н. Б. Современный английский язык: лексикология : учебник для вузов / Н. Б. Гвишиани. — 3-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва : Издательство Юрайт, 2023. — 273 с. — (Высшее образование). — ISBN 978-4-9916-2921-8. — Текст : электронный // Образовательная платформа Юрайт [сайт]. — URL: <https://urait.ru/bcode/509761> (дата обращения: 02.04.2023).

4. Катермина В.В. Лексикология английского языка. Практикум. — / В.В. Катермина. — М.: Флинта: Наука, 2018.— 120 с.

5. Лаврова Н.А. A Coursebook on English Lexicology: Английская лексикология: учеб. Пособие / Н.А.Лаврова. — 2-е изд., стер. — М.: ФЛИНТА: Наука, 2018. — 168 с.

### **Перечень дополнительной литературы**

1. Дубенец Э.М. Современный английский язык. Лексикология: Пособие для студентов гуманитарных вузов. — М./СПб.: Феникс, Глосса-Пресс, 2010. — 192 с.

2. Кульгавова, Л.В. Лексикология английского языка: учебно-практические материалы / Л.В. Кульгавова. — изд. 2-е перераб.— М.: АСТ: Восток – Запад, 2008.— 511 с.

3. Лещева, Л.М. Лексикология английского языка: учеб. пособие для студентов учреждений высшего образования по специальности «Современные иностранные языки (по направлениям)» / Л. М. Лещёва. — Минск : МГЛУ, 2016. — 247 с.

4. Середа Л.М. Лексикология: практикум/ Л.М. Середа, А.Г. Ольшевская. — Гродно: ГрГУ, 2010. — 49 с.

5. Харитончик З.А. Лексикология английского языка: [Учеб. пособие для ин-тов и фак. иностр. яз.] / З. А. Харитончик . — Мн.: Вышэйш. шк. 1992. — 228 с.

6. Arnold, I.V. The English Word / I.V. Arnold. - М., 1986. — 295 с.

7. Ginsburg, R.S. A Course in Modern English Lexicology / R.S. Ginsburg, S.S. Khidekel, G.Y. Knyazeva, A.A. Sankin/ — М.: Высш. школа, 1979.— 269 с.

### **Рекомендуемые лексикографические источники**

1. Апресян, Ю. Д. Новый большой англо-русский словарь: в 3-х т. Около 250000 слов. / Ю. Д. Апресян, Э. М. Медникова, А. В. Петрова [и др.]; под общ. рук. Ю. Д. Апресяна. — 6-е изд. — М.: Русский язык, 2001. — Т. 1: А-Ф. — 832 с.; Т. 2: G-Q. — 828 с.; Т. 3: R-Z. — 824 с.



2. Большой англо-русский словарь АБВУ Lingvo: в 2 т. / колл. авторов. – М.: Рус. яз. – Медиа, 2007. – Т. 1: А-К. – 1365 с.; Т. 2: L-Z. – 1376 с.
3. Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary [Электронный ресурс]. – Режим доступа: <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/>. – Дата доступа: 06.03.2023.
4. Collins Dictionary [Электронный ресурс]. – Режим доступа: <https://www.collinsdictionary.com/>. – Дата доступа: 06.03.2023.
5. Macmillan Dictionary [Электронный ресурс]. – Режим доступа: <https://www.macmillandictionary.com/>. – Дата доступа: 06.03.2023.
6. Merriam-Webster dictionary [Электронный ресурс]. – Режим доступа: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/>. – Дата доступа: 06.03.2023.
7. Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English Online [Electronic resource]. – Mode of access: <http://www.ldoceonline.com/>. – Дата доступа: 06.03.2023.
8. Online Etymological Dictionary [Электронный ресурс]. – Режим доступа: <https://www.etymonline.com/>. – Дата доступа: 06.03.2023.
9. Oxford dictionary [Электронный ресурс]. – Режим доступа: <https://www.lexico.com>. – Дата доступа: 06.03.2023.
10. The free dictionary by Farlex [Electronic resource]. – Mode of access: <http://www.thefreedictionary.com/>. – Дата доступа: 06.03.2023.

#### **4.6. Электронные ресурсы**

1. Образовательный портал БГУ [Электронный ресурс]. – Режим доступа: <http://dl.bsu.by>. – Дата доступа: 06.03.2023.
2. Электронная библиотека БГУ [Электронный ресурс]. – Режим доступа: <http://elib.bsu.by>. – Дата доступа: 06.03.2023.