Lesya Ukrainka Eastern European National University

Nataliia Yefremova
Alla Pavliuk
Svitlana Sheludchenko
Valentyna Boichuk

ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY

Teaching Aid for Part-time Students

Lutsk 2019

Рецензенти:

Киселюк Н. П. –   кандидат філологічних наук, доцент кафедри української та іноземної лінгвістики Луцького національного технічного університету

Чарікова І. В. –   кандидат філологічних наук, доцент кафедри англійської філології Східноєвропейського національного університету імені Лесі Українки

Єфремова Н. В., Павлюк А. Б., Шелудченко С. Б., Бойчук В. М. "English Lexicology: teaching aid for part-time students". – Луцьк: Вежа-Друк, 2019. – 60 с.

Навчально-методичні матеріали з лексикології сучасної англійської мови призначені для студентів заочного відділення факультету іноземної філології, а також можуть бути використані викладачами та студентами філологічних спеціальностей закладів вищої освіти. Стислий виклад базових положень сучасної лексикології та рекомендовані практичні завдання спрямовані на оптимізацію засвоєння теоретичного матеріалу курсу та вироблення умінь та навичок практичної роботи з мовним матеріалом.

УДК 811.111'373(075.8)

CONTENTS

PREFACE

"English Lexicology: teaching aid for part-time students" is for part-time students of the Foreigh Philology Faculty. Its main purpose is to introduce the students to some major lexicological problems connected with the general theory of the word. The reader find here the fundamentals of the word theory and the main problems associated with English vocabulary, its characteristics and subdivisions.

The teaching aid pursues practical aims. The exercises included reveal paradigmatc and syntagmatc relations between/among lexical units. The exercises help to promote students' analytical abilites and linguistc insights. The awareness of word correlations develops students' linguisitc competence, which is also a part of the university curriculum. Thus, theory and practice combined are designed to produce desired results.

The current materials help students with comprehension of the English language, especially with the enrichment of vocabulary, and the development of communicaton skills, which in their turn, lead to a higher level of competence in English.

I. LECTURE NOTES ON LEXICOLOGY

LECTURE 1
ETYMOLOGICAL PECULIARITIES OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

1. Lexicology as a Branch of Linguistics.
2. Etymological Peculiarities of the English Vocabulary
   2.1. Words of Native Origin
   2.2. The Foreign Element in the English Vocabulary
   2.3. Criteria of Borrowing
   2.4. Classification of Borrowings

1. Lexicology as a Branch of Linguistics

Lexicology – the part of linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of a language and the properties of words as the main units of language. The term **Lexicology** is composed of two Greek morphemes: lexis – "word, phrase" and logos – "learning, a department of knowledge": Lexicology – "science of the word".

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

Vocabulary – the system formed by the sum total of all the words and the morphemes which make up words, word-groups and phraseological units.

Word – the basic unit of a given language resulting from the association of a given meaning with a given group of sounds susceptible of a given grammatical employment.

Word equivalents – set expressions similar to words in so far as they are integrated semantically, not created in speech but introduced into the act of communication ready-made, and also because they are syntactically treated like single words.

The subject-matter of Lexicology – the word, its morphemic structure, history and meaning.

General Lexicology is part of General Linguistics. It is concerned with the study of vocabulary irrespective of the specific features of any particular language.

Special Lexicology is the Lexicology of a particular language (e.g. English, etc.) that is the study and description of its vocabulary and vocabulary units.

Etymology (from Gr. etymon – 'true, real') is the branch of linguistics which deals with the origin of a word.

Semasiology (from Gr. semasia – 'signification') is the branch of linguistics whose subject-matter is the study of word meaning and the classification of changes in the signification of words or forms, viewed as normal and vital factors of linguistic development.

Onomasiology is the study of the principles and regularities of the signification of things and notions by lexical and lexico-phraseological means of a given language.

Lexicology came into being to meet the needs of many different branches of applied linguistics: lexicography, literary criticism, standardization of terminology, foreign language teaching.

It is particularly useful in building up the learner's vocabulary by an effective selection, grouping and analysis of new words.

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 or patterns.

2. Etymological Peculiarities of the English Language

To comprehend the nature of the English vocabulary and its historical development it is necessary: to examine the etymology of its different layers, the historical causes of their appearance, their volume and role and the comparative importance of native and borrowed elements in replenishing the English vocabulary.

Approximately 70% of the English vocabulary are borrowings and about 30% are words native in origin. The most characteristic feature of English, especially of its word-stock, is its mixed character.

2.1. Words of Native Origin

The term **native** is conventionally used to denote words of Anglo-Saxon origin brought to the British Isles from the continent in the fifth century by Germanic tribes.

The native element of the English vocabulary is subdivided into words of the Indo-European stock and those of common Germanic origin.

The words having cognates in the vocabularies of different Indo-European languages belong to the oldest layer.

father: German – Vater, Greek – pater, Latin – pater;
brother: German – Bruder, Ukr. – брат, Latin – frater;
mother: German – Mutter, Ukr. – мати, Latin – mater, Greek – meter.

A much bigger part of this native vocabulary is formed by words of the Common Germanic stock, i. e. of words having parallels in German, Norwegian, Dutch, Icelandic, etc., but none in Slavonic or Romanic languages.

The native stock includes:

auxiliary and modal verbs (*shall, will, can, may, must*),

most verbs of the strong conjugation, denoting common actions (*to do, to make, to go, to come, to see, to hear, to eat, to keep, to know, to meet,* etc.),

pronouns (*I, you, he, my, his, who,* etc.),

most numerals (one, two, three, etc.),

prepositions (*in, on, out, under*),

conjunctions (*and, but, till, as, etc.*).

Notional words of Anglo-Saxon origin include nouns denoting:

parts of the body (*hand, head, arm, back, body, breast, chin, ear, elbow, eye, finger, foot, heart, heel, knee, neck, nose, shoulder, throat*);

kinship terms (*father, mother, brother, son, daughter, boy, girl, man, woman, widow*);

names of natural phenomena and planets (*snow, rain, wind, moon, star*);

names of animals, birds, fish, insects (*bat, bee, bug, bull, calf, cat, chicken, cock, cow, deer, dog, donkey, duck, fox, goat, hen, horse, mouse*);

names of plants and their fruit (*barley, berry, daisy, garlic, grass, lime, nut, oak, oats, rye, willow*);

names of things of everyday life, instruments, clothes, buildings (*barn, bench, boat, box, broom, bucket, cloth, gate, hat, jar, knife, ladder, lock, nail, needle, pan, roof, room, shelter, spade, spoon, stool, yard*);

some place names (*cliff, land, hill, meadow, marsh*).

Here belong also many **adjectives denoting common qualities and properties** (*black, broad, cool, dark, deep, even, hot, keen, light, long, new, old, red, slow, sweet, white, yellow, young*).

2.2. The Foreign Element in the English Vocabulary

In the 15 century long history recorded in its written manuscripts the English language happened to come in long and close contact with several other languages. As a result of these contacts many foreign words were borrowed by English.

The term **borrowing** is used in linguistics to denote the process of adopting words from other languages and also the result of this process, the language material itself, i. e. words, word-building affixes (e.g. *-able, -ment, -ity,* etc.) and word-groups (e.g. *vis- a -vis, tête- a -tête*).

Borrowings enter the language in **two ways:** through oral speech (by immediate contacts between the peoples) and through written speech (by indirect contact through books, etc.).

2.3. Criteria of Borrowing

Criteria of borrowing: phonetical, grammatical, lexical

Phonetical criterion: the pronunciation of the word (strange sounds, sound combinations, position of stress), its spelling and the correlation between sounds and letters are an indication of the foreign origin of the word.

*wal**tz** (G.), **ps**ychology (Gr.), communiqu**ŭ** (Fr.).*

the initial position of the sounds [v], [dʒ], [z] or the letters ***x, j, z: v**olcano (It.), **v**ase* (*Fr.*), ***j**ungle (Hindi), **z**ero (Fr.), **z**inc (G.),* etc.

Grammatical criterion:

morphological structure of the word: *neur**osis** (Gr.),violon**cello** (It.)*

grammatical *forms:bacteri**a** (pl)- bacteri**um** (sing). L; dat**a** (pl)- dat**um** (sing). L*

Lexical criterion: last but not least is the lexical meaning of the word. The concept denoted by the words ***ricksha(w), pagoda** (Chin.)* make us sure that we deal with borrowings.

2.4. Classification of Borrowings
According to the Language from Which the Word Was Borrowed:

The Celtic Element in the English Vocabulary

Walter William Skeat (the author of the Etymological Dictionary of Modern English) registers 165 words borrowed directly or indirectly from the Celts, including in this number words of uncertain origin supposed to be derived from the Celtic.

Examples of Celtic words appearing in Old English and preserved until the present time are: *dun* (темно-сірий колір), *bin* (засік), *bald* (лисий), *bog* (болото), *gull* (чайка), *loop* (петля), *peat* (хмиз), *penguin* (пінгвін), *tall* (високий), *twig* (гілка).

From other Celtic languages were borrowed such words as *crowd, flannel* (from Welsh), *clan, loch, slogan, whiskey* (from Gallic), *shanty, Tory* (from Irish).

Some Celtic words penetrated into English through other languages. Thus, the words *beak, budget, cloak, clock, gravel, harness, javelin, job, lawn, mine, mineral, mutton* came through French.

The Celtic language left many proper names, namely: *Aileen, Cathleen, Coleen, Doreen, Mona, Sheila and Alan, Brian, Donald, Roy*, etc.

The influence of the Celtic language upon English may also be traced in names of places. Celtic names are common in all parts of England though much more largely in the north and west and especially in Scotland and Ireland. The names of the rivers *Avon, Exe, Esk, Usk, Ux* originate from Celtic words meaning 'river' and 'water'.

Romanic Borrowings

Classical Borrowings:
Latin borrowings

Early Latin loans: 1st century B. C. At that time most of the territory known now as Europe was occupied by the Roman Empire. After a number of wars between the Germanic tribes and the Romans these two opposing peoples came into peaceful contact.

It is to the Romans that the Germanic tribes owe the knowledge of butter, cheese, some new fruits and vegetables of which they had no idea before, and the Latin names of these things enter their vocabularies: ***cherry, pear, plum, pea, beet, pepper, cup, kitchen, mill, port, wine.***

Among the words of early loans from Latin are also such as: ***arc, arena, belt, castle, cell, cereal, chest, colony, cook, cup, dish, kitchen, mile, mill, mule, street, villa, wall.***

Later Latin loans: the seventh A. D. - christianisation of England. Latin was the official language of Christian church, and consequently the spread of Christianity was accompanied by a new period of Latin borrowings which no longer came from spoken language, but from church Latin.

These new Latin borrowings mostly indicated people, objects and ideas associated with church and religious rituals, e.g. ***advent, altar, bishop, candle, capitol, cross, devil, feast, major, nun, pagan, rite, sacrament, temple,*** etc.

To this period the English language owes the names of some articles of foreign production the use of which was brought into England by the Romans (***basalt, chalk,***

fiddle, linen, mantle, marble, pearl, tile)**,** names of some plants (*laurel, lily, palm, pine, plant, cucumber, parsley*)**,** names of some animals (*camel, elephant, leopard, lion, lobster, tiger*)**,** some bookish words (*accent, history, chapter*)**,** some educational terms (*school, scholar, verse, grammar, note*)

The third stratum of Latin borrowings: A great stock of Latin words have entered English through French, namely after the Norman Conquest in 1066 (the 12–14th centuries) and during the Revival of Learning, i. e. the Renaissance (the 15–16th centuries).

The loan words are mainly of scientific character, they were borrowed through writing:

nouns – *antenna, genius, stimulus, omnibus, nucleus, radius, datum, formula, index, series, species, alibi, item, maximum, minimum, vacuum, veto;*

adjectives including those ending in *-ior* **and in** *-ant, -ent* (*junior, senior, prior, evident, reluctant*);

verbs in *-ate, -ute* (*abbreviate, constitute, contribute, execute, irritate, locate*)**.**

Some geographical or topographical terms are also of Latin origin of this period: *equator, continental, meridian, latitude, peninsular.*

Latin abbreviations: *e.g. (exempli gratia) – for example, i. e. (id est) – that is to say, a.m. (ante meridiem – before noon), v.v. (vice versa) – the opposite, etc. (et cetera) – and so on, cf. (confer) – compare.*

Greek Borrowings

Borrowings from Greek go back to an early period. The influx of Greek words did not begin until the time of the Revival of Learning. These are mostly bookish borrowings. Greek terms added much to the precision of scientific terminology.

We can come across terms of Greek origin in the field of: medicine (*adenoids, pediatrics, psychiatry, psychoanalysis*)**;** literature and art (*poem, poetry, drama, tragedy, comedy, epilogue, episode, elegy, rhythm,* etc.)**;** linguistics (*synonym, antonym, homonym, metaphor, hyperbole, idiom*)**;** political life (*democracy*)**;** philosophy (*basis, category*)**;** mathematics (*hypotenuse*); physics (*dynamo, hydraulic, pneumatic*).

A great many Greek words came in chiefly through the medium of Latin, for Latin itself was largely indebted to Greek. Through Latin such words as *abyss, anthem, asylum, camera, cemetery, chaos, character, chart, chorus, comma, diploma, echo, epoch, ethnic, exotic, glossary, hemisphere, idea, laconic, orphan, pyramid, system, thesis* were borrowed.

Some Greek borrowings came to English from Latin through French, e.g.: *academy, anecdote, angel, atom, bulb, calm, carol, carrot, centre, chair, cherry, cream, cube, cycle, daffodil, demon, diet, energy, guitar, harmony, hero, horizon, idiot, ink, lamp, lantern, logic, method, music, noise, ocean, oil, pain, planet, symbol, talent, theatre, theory, tour, tower, trousers, type, zone.*

Some proper names come from Greek too: male names: ***Alexander, Andrew, Basil, Gregory, Nicholas, Peter, Philip, Stephen, Timothy; female: Barbara, Christine, Doris, Lydia, Margaret, Melanie, Sophia.***

The French Element in the English Vocabulary

In 1066 the Norman Conquest began. The immediate results of it was that all the important places in the government, at the court and in the church were filled by French speaking adherents of the conquerors. It opened the door for the abundant influx of Norman-French words.

French borrowings:

terms relating to military matters: ***admiral, arms, battle, camp, chivalry, combat, command, conquer, defense, destroy, enemy, navy, penalty, sergeant, soldier, surrender, traitor, troops, etc.;***

law terms: ***accuse, arrest, constable, court, crime, deny, goal, jail, judge, justice, prison, punish, testify, verdict;***

cookery terms: ***biscuits, boil, dinner, fry, jelly, pastry, roast, soup, sausage, supper;***

political life*: **policy, government, parliament, minister, state, sovereign;***

literary terms: ***novel(ist), publisher, magazine, editor;***

words denoting things which make our life pleasant: ***comfort, delight, joy, flower;***

names of titles and professions: ***baron, duke, duchess, butcher, painter, tailor;***

names of plants: ***cabbage, cauliflower, lettuce, onion;***

names of relatives: ***niece, nephew, uncle, aunt;***

art terms: ***art, colour, image, design;***

architecture terms: ***arch, pillar, porch, palace, tower, column;***

In Modern English there are also some French affixes, among them prefixes ***dis-, des-, en-*** (***disappoint, encircle***) and suffixes ***-ance, -ence, -ment, -ess, -et, -age*** (***entrance, experience, agreement, princess, cabinet, courage***).

Early French loans were thoroughly naturalized in English and made to conform to the rules of English pronunciation:

1) words stressed in French on the final syllable are now stressed on the first syllable: ***capital, final, mercy, etc.;***

2) words with the long [i:] sound diphthongized into [ai]: ***fine, line, price;***

3) the long [u:] written **ou** has become [au]: ***spouse.***

The following phonetic peculiarities are indicative of later adoptions from French:

1) keeping the accent on the last syllable: *finance* [fai'nжns]*, supreme* [sju:'pri:m]*, etc.;*

2) ***ch*** is pronounced as [ʃ]: *ch**andelier, ch**arade, ch**ic, mach**ine;*

3) ***g*** before ***e*** and ***i*** is pronounced as [ʒ]: *beig**e, massag**e, prestig**e, regim**e;*

4) ***ou*** is pronounced as [u]: *coup, soup, rou**ge;*

5) ***eau*** is pronounced as [əu]: chât**eau** ['ʃХtəu];

6) final consonants ***p, s, t*** are not pronounced, as in: *coup, debris, debut.*

Italian Borrowings

The earliest Italian borrowing came into English in the 14th century, it was the word *bank* (from the Italian *banko = bench*). Italian money-lenders and money-changers sat in the streets on benches. When they suffered losses they turned over their benches, it was called "banco rotta" from which the English word *bankrupt* originated.

Later on some geological terms (***bronze, granite, lava, volcano***)**,** political terms (***bulletin, manifesto***) and some other words, for instance, ***balcony, niche, archipelago, catacomb, corridor, influenza, macaroni*** were borrowed.

Musical terms (the 18th century):

names of various musical instruments (***violoncello, contrabass, harmonica, mandolin/mandoline, trombone, tuba, violin***)**;**

names of different voices (***alto, baritone, contralto, falsetto, soprano, tenor***)**;**

names of various musical pieces (***libretto, opera, operetta, oratorio, sonata***)**;**

some other terms associated with music (***adagio, aria, concert, duet, maestro, piano, primadonna, quartet, solo, tempo,*** **etc.).**

Among Italian borrowings one can find:

art terms (***fresco, studio***);

military words which were borrowed through French (***brigade, cartridge, cavalry, infantry, pistol***).

Germanic Borrowings

The Scandinavian Element in the English Vocabulary

The Danish invasion of England began in 878. In 879 the Wedmore peace treaty was signed and the Scandinavians occupied the northern coast of England. In 1017 the Danes conquered the whole of England and reigned over it up to 1042.

The effect of the Danish conquest was a contribution of many Scandinavian words in the English vocabulary. Scandinavians belonged to the same group of peoples as Englishmen. Therefore there were many words in these languages which were almost identical.

However there were also many words in the two languages which were different and many of them were borrowed by English ousting the existing Anglo-Saxon words. These borrowings belong mainly to the sphere of everyday life. It is supposed that the Scandinavian element in Modern English amounts to 650 root-words:

nouns: ***anger, bag, booth, cake, cart, clown, cub, dirt, egg, fellow, fir, fog, gate, gun, harbour, husband, kid, leg, lump, lunch, rug, skin, skirt, sky, slaughter, snob, window, wing;***

adjectives: ***big, cosy, flat, happy, ill, nasty, odd, shy, tight, tipsy, ugly, wrong;***

verbs: ***blend, call, cast, crash, crawl, cut, die, gaze, get, give, glitter, guess, happen, jump, kick, leak, scream, smile, stumble, take, want, welcome.***

Some pronouns and connective words were borrowed from Scandinavian which happens very seldom, such as: ***same, both, till, fro*** (now used only in *to and fro*), *though* and pronominal forms with ***th***: ***they, them, their.***

Among proper nouns we can find now geographical names in ***-by: Appleby, Derby, Ashby.*** The name of the day *Thursday* is of Scandinavian origin, too.

In distinguishing Scandinavian borrowings we may apply the criterion of sound: many words with the ***k*** sound before ***e*** and ***i*** and numerous words with the initial ***sk-*** sound combination are to be assigned to Scandinavian origin: *sky, ski, skill, skin, skirt*.

German Borrowings

There are about 800 words borrowed from German into English, most of them are terms:

geological names and the names of metals and minerals (***iceberg, cobalt, nickel, quartz***);

concepts of philosophy, political economy, medicine and psychoanalysis (***determinism, intuition, transcendental, dialectics, inferiority complex***);

words of everyday use (***kindergarten, plunder, rucksack, sauerkraut***).

The loan words which entered the English vocabulary in the period of World War II usually denote political and military notions characterizing the aggressive regime of Hiltler, e.g.: *blitz* (from *Blitzkrieg*), *blackshirt, Bundeswehr, Luftwaffe, nazi.* After the war such words as *Berufsverbot, Volkswagen* appeared.

LECTURE 2
THE MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH WORDS

1.   Morpheme, its Definition and Comparison with Word
2.   Morphemic Analysis of Words
       2.1.   Procedure of Morphemic Analysis
       2.2.   Types of Word Segmentability
       2.3.   Identification of Morphs
       2.4.   Classification of Morphemes
3.   Derivational Level of Analysis

1. Morpheme, its Definition and Comparison with Word

The term **morpheme** comes from Greek: **morphe** = 'form' + suffix **–eme** (the Greek suffix which denotes the smallest unit, cf.: phoneme, sememe, lexeme, etc.) or the minimum distinctive feature.

Morphemes are defined as the smallest indivisible two-facet (possessing sound-form and meaning) language units. They are defined as minimum language units because they can't be further divided into meaningful units. For instance, words like ***reader, writer*** fall into the morphemes ***read-, writ-*** and *-er* by virtue of the recurrence of the morpheme –

er in other similar words and of the morphemes *read-, writ-* in *to read, to write, reading, writing, etc.*

Word is the principal and basic unit of the language system, the largest on the morphological and the smallest on the syntactic plane of linguistic analysis.

A **word** is an autonomous unit of language, it is able to form a sentence by itself. Unlike a word, a **morpheme** is not an autonomous unit as it can occur in speech only as a constituent part of the word, although a word can consist of a single morpheme.

There are two levels of approach to the study of word-structure:
o the level of **morphemic analysis**
o the level of **derivational** or **word-formation analysis.**

2. Morphemic Analysis of Words

2.1. Procedure of Morphemic Analysis

The aim of morphemic analysis of words is to split the word into its constituent morphemes and to determine their number and types. The procedure consists of several stages: segmentation of words, identification of morphemes, and classification of morphemes.

Segmentation of Words

The procedure generally employed for the purposes of segmenting words into the constituting morphemes is the method of Immediate and Ultimate Constituents. First suggested by L. Bloomfield it was later developed by many other linguists (e.g. E. O. Nida).

This method is based on a binary principle, i. e. each stage of the procedure involves two components the word immediately breaks into. At each stage these two components are referred to as **the Immediate Constituents (ICs.).**

Each IC at the next stage of analysis is in turn broken into two smaller meaningful elements. The analysis is completed when we arrive at constituents incapable of further division, i. e. morphemes. In terms of the method employed these are referred to as **the Ultimate Constituents (UCs).**

Friendliness:

It is first segmented into the IC *friendly* recurring in the adjectives *friendly-looking* and *friendly* and the suffix *-ness* found in a countless number of nouns, such as *happiness, darkness, etc.* The IC *-ness* is at the same time an UC of the noun, as it cannot be broken into any smaller elements possessing both sound-form and meaning.

The IC *friendly* is next broken into the ICs *friend-* and *-ly* recurring in *friendship, unfriendly, etc. on the one hand, and wifely, brotherly, etc.,* on the other. Needless to say that the ICs *friend-* and *-ly* are both UCs of the word under analysis.

The analysis of the morphemic composition of words defines the ultimate meaningful constituents (UCs), their typical sequence and arrangement, but it does not reveal the way a word is constructed, nor how a new word of similar structure should be understood.

2.2. Types of Word Segmentability

As far as the complexity of the morphemic structure of the word is concerned all English words fall into **segmentable words**, i. e. those allowing of segmentation into morphemes, e.g. *agreement, information, quickly*, and **non-segmentable words,** i. e. those not allowing of such segmentation, e.g. *house, girl, husband*, etc.

Types of segmentability: **complete, conditional, defective.**

Complete segmentability is characteristic of words the morphemic structure of which is transparent enough as their individual morphemes clearly stand out within the word. Constituent morphemes recur with the same meaning in a number of other words, e.g.: *agreement, development.*

Conditional segmentability characterizes words whose segmentation into constituent morphemes is doubtful for semantic reasons. In words like *retain, detain,* **or** *receive, deceive* the sound-clusters **[ri], [di]** are singled out quite easily due to their recurrence in a number of words. On the other hand, they undoubtly have nothing in common with the phonetically identical morphemes **re-**, **de-** as found in words like *rewrite, re-organize, decode, deorganize.* Neither the sound-clusters **[ri], [di]** nor the sound-clusters **[-tein], [si:v]** possess any lexical or functional meaning of their own. The type of meaning that can be ascribed to them is only a differential and a certain distributional meaning. The cluster **[ri-]** distinguishes *retain* from *detain* and the cluster **[-tein]** distinguishes *retain* from *receive* whereas their order and arrangement point to the status of the **re-**, **de-** as different from that of the **–tain** and **–ceive** within the structure of the words.

The morphemes making up words with conditional morphemic segmentability do not rise to the full status of morphemes for semantic reason. That is why a special term is applied to them in linguistic literature: such morphemes are called **pseudo-morphemes** or **quasi-morphemes**.

Defective segmentability is the property of words whose component morphemes seldom or never recur in other words. One of the component morphemes is a **unique morpheme** in the sense that it doesn't, as a rule, recur in a different linguistic environment.

A unique morpheme is isolated and understood as meaningful because the constituent morphemes display a more or less clear denotational meaning.
○There is no doubt that in the nouns *streamlet, ringlet, leaflet, booklet, etc.* the morpheme *-let* has the denotational meaning of diminutiveness and is combined with the morphemes *stream-, ring-, leaf-, book-* each having a denotational meaning.

Things are entirely different with the noun *hamlet*. The morpheme *-let* retains the same meaning of diminutiveness, but the sound-cluster that is left after isolation of the morpheme *-let* doesn't recur in any other English word with anything like the meaning it has in the word *hamlet* (the noun *ham* denoting 'a smoked and salted upper part of a pig's leg' is irrelevant to the *ham-* in *hamlet*).

2.3. Identification of Morphs

The main criteria for identification of morphemes are semantic and phonetic similarity. Morphemes should have the same denotational meaning. As far as phonemic shapes of morphs are concerned, they may vary. Thus, e.g. the root morpheme in the words *please, pleasing, pleasure, pleasant* is represented by three morpheme variants: [pli:z] in *please, pleasing*, [plez] in *pleasant* and [pleʒ] in **pleasure**. Such positional morpheme variants are called **allomorphs**. Allomorphs don't differ in meaning or function, they show only a slight difference in sound form.

Allomorphs occur in specific environment and are characterized by **complementary distribution,** which is said to take place when two variants can't appear in the same environment.

Allomorphs can be found not only among root-morphemes, but also among affixes, e.g. the prefix *in-* has the following allomorphs: *il-, im-, ir-* (*illiterate, impossible, irregular*).

Different morphemes are characterized by **contrastive distribution**, i. e. if they occur in the same environment they signal different meanings.

Thus, the suffixes *-able* and *–ed* are different morphemes, not allomorphs, because the adjectives in *-able* mean 'capable of being' while the adjectives in *-ed* mean 'having, chracterized by, resembling'.

2.4. Classification of Morphemes

Morphemes may be classified from two points of view:**semantic** and **structural.**

Semantically morphemes fall into two classes: **root-morphemes** and **non-root** or **affixational morphemes**.

The root-morpheme is the lexical nucleus of a word, it has an individual meaning shared by no other morpheme of the language. Besides it may also possess all other types of meaning proper to morphemes except the part-of-speech meaning which is not found in roots, e.g. the morpheme *teach-* in *to teach, teacher, teaching,*
theor- in *theory, theorist, theoretical, etc.*

Non-root morphemes:

inflectional morphemes or inflections

affixational morphemes or affixes

Inflections carry only grammatical meaning and are thus relevant only for the formation of word-forms

Affixes are relevant for building various types of **stems** – the part of a word that remains unchanged throughout its paradigm. Lexicology is concerned only with affixational morphemes.

Affixes are classified into **prefixes** and **suffixes**: a **prefix** precedes the root-morpheme, a **suffix** follows it. Affixes besides the meaning proper to root-morphemes possess the part-of-speech meaning and a generalized lexical meaning.

Structurally morphemes fall into three types: **free**, **bound**, **semi-free** (**semi-bound**)**.**

A free morpheme is defined as one that coincides with the stem or a word-form. A great many root-morphemes are free morphemes. The root-morpheme *friend* of the noun *friendship* is a free morpheme because it coincides with one of the forms of the noun *friend*.

A bound morpheme occurs only as a constituent part of a word. Affixes are, naturally, bound morphemes, for they always make part of a word, e.g. the suffixes *–ness, -ship, -ize, etc.,* prefixes *in-, un-, dis-, etc.* (e.g. *kindness, comradeship, to activize, incomplete, unnecessary, disappear, etc.*).

Many root-morphemes also belong to the class of bound morphemes which always occur in morphemic sequences, i. e. in combination with roots or affixes.

All unique roots and pseudo-roots are bound morphemes. Such are the root-morphemes *theor-* in *theory, theoretical, barbar-* in *barbarism, barbarian, -ceive* in *conceive, perceive*, etc.

Semi-bound (**semi-free**) **morphemes** can function in a morphemic sequence both as an affix and as a free morpheme. For example, the morpheme *well* and *half* occur as free morphemes that coincide with the stem and the word-form in utterances like *sleep well, half an hour, etc.,* on the other hand they occur as bound morphemes in words like *well-known, half-done, etc.*

3. Derivational Level of Analysis

Derivational analysis aims at establishing correlations between different types of words, the structural and semantic patterns words are built on and enables one to understand how new words appear in the language.

The basic unit at the derivational level is the **stem -** the part of the word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm. It takes the inflections which shape the word grammatically as one or another part of speech. Thus, the stem which appears in the paradigm *to ask, asks, asked, asking* is *ask-;* the stem of the word *singer, singer's, singers, singers'* is *singer-.*

The nature, type and arrangement of the ICs of the word is known as its derivative structure.

According to the derivative structure English words fall into four main types:

1) **simple words** (root words) which have only a root morpheme in the structure: *take, go, eat, agree, differ, job, joy, child, fine,* etc.;

2) **derived words** (affixational derivatives) which consist of a root and one or more affixes: *eatable, joyful, brightness, childhood, disagree, indifference,* etc.;

3) **compound words** (compounds) in which two or more stems are combined into a lexical unit: *fruit-tree, snow-white, light-blue, fishing-boat, forget-me-not, fifty-fifty,* etc.;

4) **derivational compounds** in which phrase components are joined together by means of compounding and affixation: *long-legged, blue-eyed, bare-headed.*

16

LECTURE 3
THE SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH WORD

1. The Definition of the Term "Semasiology"
2. Different Approaches to Meaning
3. Types of Meaning
4. Motivation of Meaning

1. The Definition of the Term "Semasiology"

The branch of Lexicology which is devoted to the study of meaning is known as **Semasiology** (from Greek *semasia = signification*).

The main objects of semasiological study:

semantic development of words, its causes and classification,

types of lexical meaning,

polysemy,

semantic structure of words,

semantic grouping and connections in the vocabulary system (i.e. synonyms, antonyms, terminological systems, etc.).

Semasiology came into its own only in the 1830's when a German scholar **Karl Reisig,** lecturing in classical philology, suggested that the studies of meaning should be regarded as an independent branch of knowledge.

It was the French scholar **Michel Bréal,** who played a decisive part in the creation and development of the new science. His book "*Essai de Sémantique*" (Paris, 1897) became widely known and was followed by a considerable number of investigations on meaning in many countries, including England (Richard Chenevix Trench, James Murray, Walter William Skeat, Robert Frank Palmer, John Lyons, F. I. Buslayev, A. A. Potebnya, M. M. Pokrovsky, S. D. Katznelson, Y. D. Apresian, V. A. Zvegintsev, A. Smirnitsky, H. S. Kubryakova).

2. Different Approaches to Meaning

1) Referential approach - through establishing the interrelations between words and concepts;

2) Functional approach - through the observations of the functional use of a word in speech**.**

Referential approach distinguishes between the three components closely connected with meaning:

the sound-form of the linguistic sign,

the concept underlying this sound-form,

the actual referent, i. e. that part or that aspect of reality to which the linguistic sign refers.

The best known referential model of meaning is the so-called "basic triangle" worked out by C.K. Ogden and I.A. Richards in their book *The Meaning of Meaning: A Study of the Influence of Language upon Thought and of the Science of Symbolism* (1923)

The sound-form of the linguistic sign is connected with our concept of the referent that is the actual piece of reality.

The dotted line between the sound-form and the referent suggests that there is no immediate relation between word and referent: it is established only through the concept.

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

Functional approach:

the meaning of a linguistic unit may be studied only through its relation to other linguistic units and not through its relation to either concept or referent.

one and the same polysemantic word in different syntactical relations can develop different meanings:

1) He treated my words as a joke.
2) The book treats of poetry.
3) They treated me to sweets.
4) He treats his son cruelly.

Functional approach should not be considered an alternative, but rather a valuable complement to the referential theory.

Linguistic investigation:

1) collecting an adequate number of samples of contexts (on examination the meaning or meanings of linguistic units will emerge from the context themselves).

2) referential phase (trying to formulate the meaning thus identified).

3. Types of Meaning

The inner form of the word, i. e. its meaning, presents a structure which is called the **semantic structure** of the word. **Meaning** is a certain reflection in our mind of objects, phenomena or relations that makes part of the linguistic sign – its so-called **inner facet**, whereas the sound-form functions as its **outer facet**.

Word-meaning is not homogeneous but is made up of various components (types of meaning) the combination and the interrelation of which determine the inner facet of the word.

The two main types of meaning that are readily observed are: the **grammatical** and the **lexical** meanings.

Grammatical meaning – the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words, e.g., *tables, girls, books, etc.* (the grammatical meaning of plurality); mother's, girl's, night's, world's (the grammatical meaning of case); *asked, thought, worked, etc.* (the grammatical meaning of tense).

Lexical meaning – the realization of concept or emotion by means of a definite language system:

1) The component of meaning proper to the word as a linguistic unit, i. e. recurrent in all the forms of this word and in all possible distributions of these forms (Ginzburg R.S.; Rayevskaya N.N.)

2) The semantic invariant of the grammatical variation of a word (Nikitin M.V.);

3) The material meaning of a word, i. e. the meaning of the main material part of the word which reflects the concept the given word expresses and the basic properties of the thing (phenomenon, quality, state, etc.) the word denotes. (Mednikova E.M.)

The lexical meaning is not homogenous, it includes:

denotational components;

connotational components.

The **denotational meaning** is that component of the lexical meaning which serves to identify and name the notion, it makes communication possible. Fulfilling the **significative** and the **communicative** functions of the word the denotative meaning is present in every word and may be regarded as the central factor in the functioning of language.

The **connotational** component: connotation is the pragmatic communicative value the word receives depending on *where*, *when*, *how*, *by whom*, *for what purpose* and *in what contexts* it may be used.

Connotations: **stylistic**, **emotional**, **evaluative, expressive/intensifying**.

Stylistic connotation is what the word conveys about the speaker's attitude to the social circumstances and the appropriate functional style (*slay* vs *kill*).

Emotional connotation conveys the speaker's emotions (*mummy* vs *mother*).

Evaluative connotation may show the speaker's approval or disapproval of the object spoken of (*clique* vs *group*).

Expressive or *intensifying connotation* conveys the degree of intensity (*adore* vs *love*).

*The **expressive** function* of the language (the speaker's feelings) and *the **pragmatic** function* (the effect of words upon listeners) are rendered in connotations.

Unlike the denotative meaning, connotations are optional.

Implicational meaning is the implied information associated with the word, with what the speakers know about the referent. *A wolf* is known to be greedy and cruel. The denotative meaning of the word *wolf* is 'a wild animal resembling a dog that kills sheep and sometimes even attacks men'. Its implicational meaning is derived from implied information, from what we know about wolves – 'a crual greedy person' and the adjective *wolfish* means 'greedy'.

4. Motivation of Meaning

The term **motivation** is used to denote the relationship existing between the morphemic or phonemic composition and structural pattern of the word on the one hand, and its meaning on the other.

Types of motivation: phonetical, morphological, and semantic.

Phonetical motivation is observed in words in which the sound-clusters are a direct imitation of the sounds these words denote (they are called echoic words): ***boom, buzz, chatter, clip, crack, cuckoo, giggle, gurgle, hiss, hop, splash, whistle, etc.***

Morphological motivation: The main criterion in morphological motivation is the relationship between morphemes constituting the word. Hence all one-morpheme words are non-motivated. In words composed of more than one morpheme the carrier of the word-meaning is the combined meaning of the component morphemes and the meaning of the structural pattern of the word. The words ***finger-ring*** and ***ring-finger*** contain two morphemes, the combined lexical meaning of which is the same; the difference in the meaning of these words can be accounted for by the difference in the arrangement of the component morphemes.

Semantic motivation is based on the co-existence of direct and figurative meaning, i. e. of the old sense and new within the same synchronous system. Thus the word ***mouth*** denotes a part of a human face, and at the same time it can mean metaphorically any opening or outlet: ***the mouth of a river,*** for instance. In its direct meaning the word *mouth* is not motivated, but in its figurative meaning it is semantically motivated, though this motivation is relative.

LECTURE 4
CHANGE OF MEANING

1. The Causes of Semantic Change
2. The Nature of Semantic Change
   2.1. Similarity of Meaning
   2.2. Contiguity of Meaning
3. Results of Semantic Change

1. The Causes of Semantic Change

Extra-linguistic causes:
changes in the life of a speech community,
changes in economic and social structure,
changes in ideas and scientific concepts,
changes in a way of life and other spheres of human activities.

The word is a linguistic realization of notion. As the human mind achieves more exact understanding of the world of reality and the objective relationships that characterize it, the notions become more and more exact reflections of real things. This process is reflected in the development of lexical meaning.

The history of the social, economic and political life of the people, the progress of culture and science bring about changes in notions and things influencing the semantic aspect of language.

Modern English word *earth* meant in OE 'the ground under people's feet', 'the soil' and 'the world of man' as opposed to heaven that was supposed to be inhabited by God, his saints and the souls of the dead. With the progress of science *earth* came to mean "the third planet from the sun" and the knowledge was constantly enriched.

Linguistic causes:

changes due to the constant interdependence of vocabulary units in language and speech (differentiation between synonym),

changes taking place in connection with ellipses and fixed contexts,

changes resulting from ambiguity in certain contexts.

The verb *to starve*, in Old English (*OE. steorfan*) had the meaning 'to die' and was habitually used in collocations with the word *hunger* (*ME. sterven of hunger*). Already in the 16th century the verb itself acquired the meaning 'to die of hunger'

Ellipsis – in a phrase made up of two words one of these is omitted and its meaning is transferred to its partner.

2. The Nature of Semantic Change

A necessary condition of any semantic change, no matter what its cause, is some connection, some association between the old meaning and the new. There are two kinds of association involved, namely: 1) similarity of meanings and 2) contiguity of meanings.

Similarity of Meaning (Metaphor)

Metaphor is a semantic process of associating two referents, one of which in some way resembles the other / the transfer of meaning based on similarity:

similarity of **shape** and **form**: *head of a cabbage, mouth of a river, bottle-neck* (*вузьке місце*), *bull's eye* (*кишеньковий ліхтар*);

similarity of **size**: *elephantine, mammoth, a grain of truth*;

similarity of **function**: *hand of a clock, finger-post, key to the mystery, wing of the plane;*

similarity of **position**: *foot of a page* (*mountain*), *head of a procession, back of a chair;*

similarity of **colour**: *black* (*book, deed, envy, ingratitude, injustice, list, magic, market,*); *white lie* (*frost, light, night,*); the names of some flowers and shrubs are commonly used to denote their colour (*rose, violet, orange, lilac*);

similarity of **temperature** (to denote certain qualities of human voice, etc.): *cold voice, cold reception/shoulder, cold comfort* (*мала втіха*), *worm words, in warm blood* (*згарячу, зопалу*), *hot* (*розлючений, оскаженілий*), *hot scent* (*гарячий слід*).

Antonomasia – transitions of proper names into common use: *an Adonis* (a very handsome young man); *a Cicero* (a gifted orator); *a Don Juan* (a man who is good at persuading women to have sex with him); *a Don Quixote* (an idealist ready to fight for his ideas); *a Vandal* (*a person who intentionally destroys or damages public property*) etc.

The metaphoric use of the so-called "move and change" class of verbs: ***to come/to jump*** *to a conclusion,* ***to come*** *to an agreement,* ***to fly*** *into a rage,* ***to go*** *into details,* ***to fall*** *in love,* ***to fall*** *a victim,* ***to run*** *into debt,* ***to run*** *wild (рости недоумком).*

Zoosemy (animal metaphor)- Names of animals are used to denote human qualities: **bear** – a gruff, burly, clumsy, bad-mannered, or rude person; **bull** – a large, solidly built person; **donkey** – a foolish person; **dove** – an innocent, gentle, or tender person; **ducky** – (used as a term of endearment or familiarity) dear; sweetheart; darling; pet.

Dead metaphors – are not felt any longer. The verb *to ponder* was borrowed from Latin in the meaning of 'to weigh*'*. Later on it began to be used metaphorically in the meaning 'to consider something*'*. At present it is used only in this meaning as a synonym to verbs *to think, to meditate.*

Contiguity of Meaning (Metonymy)

Metonymy is the semantic process of associating two referents one of which makes part of the other or is closely connected with it. This transfer of meaning is based on the association of contiguity. It is a shift of names between things that are known to be in some way or other connected in reality.

Synecdoche is using the part for the whole, for instance: *ABC* for *alphabet, man* for *humanity*, or vice versa, for instance: *fox* in the meaning of *fur of fox.*

The transfer may be conditioned by various connections: spatial, temporal, causal, symbolic, instrumental and others.

Spatial relations: the name of the place is used for the people occupying it, e. g. the words *town, village* may denote the inhabitants of a town or a village (*the town was sleeping, the village was afoot*), *the White House, the Kremlin, the Pentagon, Wall Street, Fleet Street – the place of the establishment is used not only for the establishment itself or its staff but also for its policy.*

Causal relationship: states and properties serve as names of objects and people possessing them: *youth, age, authorities, forces.* The adjective *dull* developed its meaning 'not clear or bright' on the basis of former meaning 'deficient in eyesight', and its meaning 'not loud or distinct' on the basis of the older meaning 'deficient in hearing'. The association here was that of cause and effect: to a person with weak eyesight all colours appear pale, and all shades blurred; to a person with deficient hearing all sounds are indistinct.

Symbolic relationship. A symbol is used for the thing symbolized it, e.g.: *the crown* for *monarchy, hand* for *handwriting, from the cradle to the grave.* The material may be used for the thing made of this material (*glass, iron, copper, nickel*), receptacle for content (*the kettle is boiling*), a part is applied to the whole: *royal horse* for *cavalry, foot* for *infantry*, etc.

Instrumental relationship: the instrument is used for the agent: *the pen* for *the writer, the sword* for *soldier* (*e.g. the best pens of the day*).

Common names derived from proper names metonymically:

garments known by the names of those who brought them into fashion: *mackintosh* (after its inventor Charles Macintosh), *raglan* (after Lord Raglan), *nicotine* (after Jean Nicit, who introduced tobacco in France), *Wellingtons* (after Duke of Wellington);

many physical and technical units are named after scientists: *volt* (after the Italian physicist Alessandro Volta), *ohm* (after Georg S. Ohm), *watt* (after the Scottish inventor James Watt), *etc.*

geographic names turning into common nouns to name the goods exported or originating there: *bikini* comes from the geographical name in the Marshall Islands; *Madeira* – wine made on the island of Madeira; *champagne* – a white sparkling wine, made in the province of Champagne, France; *china* in the sense of 'dishes made of porcelain' originated from the name of the country which was believed to be the birthplace of porcelain; *tweed* – a coarse wool cloth got its name from the river Tweed; *cheviot* (another kind of wool cloth) – from the Cheviot hills in England.

3. Results of Semantic Change

Results of Semantic Change are the changes of denotational meaning of the word (**narrowing** and **extension** of meaning) and the alteration of its connotational meaning (**degradation** and **elevation** of meaning).

Narrowing of meaning (the **restriction** of the types or range of referents denoted by the word):

deer: any wild animal → only a certain kind of animals;

garage: any safety place → a safety place for a car;

girl: a young person of any sex → a female young person.

Extension of meaning (the application of the word to a wider variety of referents):

arrive: to reach the shore → to reach any destination;

picture: a painting → any image;

season: spring → any time of the year;

Degradation of meaning (pejorative development or the acquisition by the word of some derogatory emotive charge):

boor: a peasant → a coarse, rude person;

gossip: god parent → ill-natured talk;

silly: happy → insane, foolish;

Elevation of meaning (ameliorative development or the improvement of the connotational component of meaning):

adore: to greet → to love very much;

fame: rumours → glory;

handsome: handy → beautiful/

LECTURE 5
VOCABULARY AS A SYSTEM

1.   Meaning Relations in Paradigmatics
     1.1.   The Word and its Wssociative Field
     1.2.   Lexical Fields

1. Meaning Relations in Paradigmatics

Attempts to study the inner structure of the vocabulary revealed that in spite of its heterogeneity the English word-stock may be analysed into numerous sub-systems the members of which have some features in common, thus distinguishing them from the members of other sub-systems.These attempts have focused on three main areas: that of individual words and their associations, that of semantic or lexical fields, that of word families.

1.1. The Word and its Associative Field

According to this approach, every word is involved in a network of associations which connect it with other terms in the language. Some of these associations are based on similarity of meaning, others are purely formal (i.e. based on forms), while others involve both form and meaning.

Lecturer:

(1) connects it with the verb forms *lectured* and *lecturing* by formal and semantic similarity based on the common stem *lecture;*

2) connects it with *teacher* and *tutor* by semantic similarity;

(3) associates it with *gardener* and *labourer* because they all have the suffix *-er* forming agent nouns from verbs;

(4) associates it with the adjective *clever* and the inflected adverb *quicker* by accidental similarity in their endings.

Any word chosen from a given context will suggest other words to us, because they either resemble or differ from each other in form, meaning or both. Such relations are referred to as **'paradigmatic'.**

They are called relations **'in absentia'**, because the terms involved consist of a word present in the utterance and others that are not actually in the same utterance but that are substitutable for it in that context.

For example, 'difficult' is paradigmatically related with 'easy', 'funny', 'silly', etc. in expressions such as 'an easy question', 'a funny question', 'a silly question', etc. Similarly, 'question' is paradigmatically related with 'problem', 'word', etc. in expressions like 'a difficult problem', 'a difficult word', etc.

1.2. Lexical Fields

A semantic or lexical field – 'named area of meaning in which lexemes interrelate and define each other in specific ways' Crystal (1995) . For example, the lexical field of

'kinship terms' comprises the lexemes: *father, mother, son, daughter, cousin, nephew, uncle, aunt, grandfather, grandmother,* etc.

Field theory was first put forward by a number of German and Swiss scholars in the 1920s and 1930s. However, according to Lyons its origin can be traced back at least to the middle of the nineteenth century and more generally to the ideas of Humboldt and Herder.

According to lexical field theory, the vocabulary of a language is essentially a dynamic and well-integrated system of lexemes structured by relationships of meaning. The system is changing continuously by the interaction of various forces such as the disappearance of previously existing lexemes, or the broadening or narrowing of the meaning of some lexemes.

The system is mainly characterized by the general-particular and part-whole relationships, which hold not only between individual lexemes and the lexical field within which they are best interpreted, but also between specific lexical fields and the vocabulary as a whole.

"Fields are living realities intermediate between individual words and the totality of the vocabulary; as parts of a whole, they share with words the property of being integrated in a large structure and with the vocabulary the property of being structured in terms of smaller units" (Jost Trier).

For example, the lexical field of 'colour terms' includes the lexemes: black, white, red, green, yellow, blue, orange, etc. Similarly, the lexical field of colour terms, together with those of kinship terms, military ranks, vehicles, among others, are only parts of the whole English vocabulary.

Furthermore, the general lexeme *red* for instance may in turn be considered a lexical field (or sub-field) within which the particular lexemes *scarlet, crimson, vermillion,* etc. may best be interpreted.

1.3. Word Families

Words are grouped into 'families' on the basis of their morphology, both their inflections and their derivations. A family consists of a base form, its possible inflectional forms, and the words derived from it by prefixation and suffixation:

(a) state (verb)

states, stated, stating (inflections) stateable, statement; misstate, restate, understate (derivations)

(b) skill (noun)

skills, skill's, skills' (inflections)

skilful, skilfully, skilfulness, skilless, skilled (derivations)

Laurie *Bauer* and Paul *Nation* (1993) develop the notion of word families by proposing a set of levels into which families are divided. The levels are established on a number of criteria relating to the frequency, productivity, regularity and predictability of the affixes in English.

The criteria are ordered in terms of their importance.

The first concerns frequency, specifically the number of words in which an affix occurs; -er, for example, occurs far more frequently than **-ist** to form 'agent' nouns from verbs (**speaker, violinist).**

The second criterion relates to productivity, the extent to which an affix continues to be used to form new words; **-ly** is still highly productive in deriving adverbs from adjectives (**stubbornly, speculatively).**

The third relates to the predictability of the meaning of the affix; *-ness* is only used to form nouns from adjectives, with the meaning 'quality of' *[craziness, tiredness),* whereas *-ist* has a number of possible meanings.

The remaining criteria concern regularity of spelling and pronunciation (of the base and affix) and regularity of the function of an affix in terms of the word class of the base to which it attaches.

Using these criteria, Bauer and Nation (1993) establish seven levels of family relationship.

At **the first level**, each word form is regarded as a different word; so, there is no family.

The second level groups words that have a common base but variant inflectional suffixes (*plural and possessive for nouns; present and past tense, and present and past participle for verbs; comparative and superlative for adjectives*).

At **the third level** are added words formed by the addition of 'the most frequent and regular derivational affixes', which are established on the basis of an analysis of a computer corpus, viz. *-able, -er, -isb, -less, -ly, -ness, -th, -y, non-, un-* .

At **level four** are added forms with 'frequent, orthographically regular affixes': *-al, -ation, -ess, -ful, -ism, -ist, -ity, -ize, -ment, -ous, in-*.

At **level five** come forms derived with some fifty 'regular but infrequent affixes', e.g. *-ary, -let, anti-, sub-*.

The **sixth level** has forms derived by 'frequent but irregular affixes': *-able, -ee, -ic, -ify, -ion, -ist, -ition, -ive, -th, -y, pre-, re-*.

oLastly, at level seven are included words formed using classical (Latin and Greek) roots and affixes, e.g. *bibliography, astronaut* and the common prefixes *ab-, ad-, com-, de-, dis-, ex-, sub-*.

Develop
Level 2: *develop, develops, developed, developing*
Level 3: *developable, undevelopable, developer(s), undeveloped*
Level 4: *development(s), developmental, developmentally*
Level 5: *developmentwise, semideveloped, antidevelopment*
Level 6: *redevelop, predevelopment.*

2. Synonyms

Synonyms are 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 morphemic composition, phonemic shape, shades of meaning, connotations, affective value, style, valency and idiomatic use (I. V. Arnold).

The synonymic dominant expresses the notion common to all synonyms of the group in the most general way, without contributing any additional information as to the manner, intensity, duration or any attending feature of the referent, i. e. it is a typical basic-vocabulary word.

In the synonymic series *to get, to obtain, to acquire, to gain, to win, to earn* the verb *to get* is a synonymic dominant as it can stand for all the verbs of this group. Characteristic features of the dominant synonym:

high frequency of usage;

broad combinability, i. e. ability to be used in combinations with various classes of words;

broad general meaning;

lack of connotations.

The majority of frequent words are polysemantic and the frequent words usually have many synonyms. The result is that a polysemantic word may belong in its various meanings to several different synonymic groups.

PART:

1) *piece, parcel, section; segment, fragment,* etc. ;
2) *member, organ, constituent, element, component,* etc. ;
3) *share, portion, lot;*
4) *concern, interest, participation;*
5) *allotment, lot, dividend, apportionment;*
6) *business, charge, duty, office, function, work;*
7) *side, party, interest, concern, faction;*
8) *character, role, cue, lines;*
9) *portion, passage, clause, paragraph.*

2.1. Classification of Synonyms

Synonyms are classified into: 1) complete or absolute, 2) ideographic, 3) stylistic, 4) phraseological (K. T. Barantsev).

Absolute synonyms can replace each other in any given context without the slightest alteration in denotative or emotional meaning and connotations (terms peculiar to this or that branch of knowledge):

Linguistics: *noun - substantive; composition – compounding;*

Medicine: *epidermis – scarf-skin, scarlet fever - scarlatina;*

Names of tools, instruments, machines, technological processes: *basement – foundation, fan – ventilator, oil – petrol, plane – aircraft;*

Geographical divergence: *lorry – truck, tin – can, pavement – sidewalk, etc.*

Ideographic synonyms:

denote different shades of meaning or different degrees of a given quality;

are nearly identical in one or more denotational meanings;

are interchangeable at least in some contexts, e.g.:

beautiful – fine – handsome – pretty,

different – various,

idle – lazy – indolent.

According to denotational and connotational meanings **ideographic synonyms** can be subdivided into:

synonyms which are **very close in their meaning**: *horrible – terrible, answer – reply;*

synonyms which **differ in their meaning considerably**: *journey (travelling by land), travel (profession or with scientific purposes or discovering), voyage (by sea or by air), trip (a short period of time);*

synonyms which differ in the **volume** of the notion they denote: *illness – disease* (*illness* is wider for it implies a weakened state of one's health in general whereas *disease* means a special kind of disorder), *smell – scent* (*smell* is wider as it implies any kind of odour whereas *scent* is associated only with pleasant smells).

synonyms which differ in the connotation of **manner of the action**, e. g.: *to shake – to tremble – to shudder – to shiver – to wobble – to rattle – to vibrate*:

To shake *is a fairly general word. It can be used to talk about objects moving. It can also be used to talk about people's bodies moving because of cold, strong emotion, or illness.*

To tremble *- to shake slightly in a way that you cannot control, especially because you are upset or frightened.*

To shudder *- to shake for a short time because you are afraid or cold, or because you think something is very unpleasant.*

*If someone **shivers**, their body shakes with small movements, especially because they are cold or frightened.*

*If something **wobbles**, it moves from side to side because it is not steady or balanced.*

*If something hard **rattles**, it shakes and makes a quick series of short sounds.*

*If something **vibrates**, it makes small quick regular movements that you can hear or feel.*

Synonyms which differ in the **degree** or **intensity of the action**, *e. g.: to alarm – to frighten – to terrify – to intimidate – to scare (to alarm – causing of a milder degree of fear than to frighten; to terrify – to frighten to an extreme degree; to intimidate – pressure, threat; to scare – the causing of sudden and often unreasoning fear or panic);*

synonyms which differ in the **degree of some quality**, e.g. synonyms expressing excellent quality: *big – huge – enormous; tired – exhausted;*

synonyms, the distinctive feature of which is based on the **time**, **duration** and **quickness** of the action, e.g.: *look – glance – glimpse.* All of them denote a conscious and direct endeavour to see, but *a glance* is a look which is quick and sudden and *a glimpse* is quicker still, implying only momentary sight.

Stylistic synonyms are synonymically correlated words which differ not so much in meaning as in **emotive value** and **stylistic sphere of application**.

Thus, pictorial language often uses poetic words as stylistic alternatives of neutral ones, e.g.: **nouns:** *maid* for *girl*, *bliss* for *happiness, eve* for *evening, morn* for *morning, thrall* for *distress, steed* for *horse;* **adjectives**: *lone* for *lonely, forlorn* for *distressed, jocund* for *merry, mute* for *silent;* **verbs**: *quit* for *leave, vanquish* for *conquer, hie* or *speed* for *hasten, smite* for *hit* or *strike;***adverbs**: *haply* for *perhaps, full* for *very,* etc.

○In a great number of cases the semantic difference between synonyms is supported by the difference in valency. In such cases we deal with **phraseological synonyms**. The difference in distribution may be morphological, syntactical and lexical

Morphological valency can be illustrated by such kind of synonyms as *many – much, few – little;* **syntactical** – by *bare* and *naked* (*bare* in reference to persons is used only predicatively while *naked* occurs both predicatively and attributively; **lexical** difference in distribution can be illustrated by the verbs *to win – to gain.* Both can be used in combination with the noun *victory: to win a victory, to gain a victory.* But with the word *war* only *win* is possible: *to win a war.*

2.2. Sources of Synonyms

Scholars distinguish the following sources of synonymy:1) synonyms which originated from the native language: *fast – speedy – swift, handsome – pretty – lovely;* 2) synonyms created through the adoption of words from dialects: *mother – minny* (Scot.), *dark – murk* (O.N.), *charm – glamour* (Scot.); 3) synonyms which owe their origin to foreign borrowings: *to end - to finish* (Fr), *help – aid* (L.), *heaven – sky* (Sc.); 4) synonyms connected with non-literary figurative use of words in pictorial language: *dreamer – star-gazer, profession, occupation – walk of life;* 5) synonyms – euphemisms and vulgarisms employed for certain stylistic purpose: *to lie – to distort facts, to spend – to blow in;* 5) some synonymic oppositions appeared due to shift of meaning, new combinations of verbs with postpositives and compound nouns formed from them: *to choose – to pick up, to abandon – to give up;*6) quite frequently synonyms, mostly stylistical, are due to shortening: *doctor – doc, laboratory – lab.*

3. Antonyms

Antonyms are two or rarely more words of the same language belonging to the same part of speech identical in style and nearly identical in distribution, associated and used together so that their denotative meanings render contrary or contradictory notions. V. N. Komissarov, the author of the Dictionary of English antonyms, classified them into two groups: absolute/root antonyms and derivational antonyms.

Absolute antonyms have different roots (*late – early, day – night*); express contrary notions (*ugly – beautiful*).

Derivational antonyms have the same root but different affixes (*to please – to displease, successful – successless*). In most cases negative prefixes *un-, non-, in-, dis-, pre-, post-* and suffixes *-ful, -less* are used. Express contradictory notions, one of them excludes the other (*active – inactive)*

Antonyms do not differ either in style, emotional colouring or distribution.

Paradigmatic antonyms, i. e. two words revealing regular semantic polarity in their invariant meaning: *thick layer – thin layer, thin forest – thick forest, thick slice – thin slice, etc.*

Antonyms which may be contrasted on the **syntagmatic** axis, only in certain contexts. Thus, for instance, the adjectives *fat* and *thin* are brought together as antonyms in collocations like *a fat man – a thin man.*

LECTURE 6
POLYSEMY. HOMONYMS. PARONYMS

1. Polysemy
   1.1. Definition of Polysemy
   1.2. Diachronic Approach *VS* Synchronic Approach to Polysemy
   1.3. Semantic Structure of Polysemantic Words
2. Homonymy
3. Paronyms

1. Polysemy
1.1. Definition of Polysemy

Polysemy is a semantic universal inherent in the fundamental structure of language. The word 'polysemy' means 'plurality of meanings', it exists only in language, not in speech. It is very important to distinguish between the lexical meaning of a word in speech and its semantic structure in language. The meaning in speech is contextual. The sum total of many contexts in which the word may occur permits to observe and record cases that differ in meaning. They are registered and classified by lexicographers in dictionaries.

The system of meanings of any polysemantic word develops gradually, mostly over the centuries, as more and more new meanings are either added to old ones, or oust some of them. So the complicated process of polysemy development involves both the appearance of new meanings and the loss of old ones.

Wide-spread polysemy in English is conditioned by the peculiarities of its structure (due to the monosyllabic character of English and the predominance of root words). The greater the frequency of the word, the greater the number of meanings that constitute its semantic structure. Frequency – combinability – polysemy are closely connected.

A special formula known as **Zipf's law** has been worked out to express the correlation between frequency, word length and polysemy. Zipf's law is an empirical law, formulated using mathematical statistics, named after the linguist George Kingsley Zipf, who first proposed it. Zipf's law states that given a large sample of words used, the frequency of any word is inversely proportional to its rank in the frequency table. **Zipf's law** - the shorter the word, the higher is frequency of use; the higher the frequency, the wider is combinability, i. e. the more word combinations it enteres; the wider its combinability, the more meanings are realized in these contexts.

The word in one of its meanings is termed a **lexico-semantic variant** of this word. All the lexico-semantic variants of a word taken together form its **semantic structure** or **semantic paradigm.**

No general or complete scheme of types of lexical meanings as elements of a word's semantic structure has so far been accepted by linguists. The following terms may be found with different authors: direct ↔ figurative, main ↔ derived, primary ↔ secondary, concrete ↔ abstract, central ↔ peripheral, general ↔ special, narrow ↔ extanded.

Meaning is *direct* when it nominates the referent without the help of a context, in isolation; meaning is *figurative* when the referent is named and at the same time characterized through its similarity with other objects (*the head of a man ↔ the head of a cabbage*). Differentiation between the terms primary ↔ secondary, main ↔ derived meanings is connected with two approaches to polysemy: diachronic and synchronic.

1.2. Diachronic Approach *VS* Synchronic Approach to Polysemy

If polysemy is viewed **diachronically**, it is understood as the growth and development of or, in general, as a change in the semantic structure of the word. Polysemy in diachronic terms implies that a word may retain its previous meaning or meanings and at the same time acquire one or several new ones.

The problem of interrelation and interdependence of individual meanings of a polysemantic word may be roughly formulated as follows:

- Did the word always possess all its meanings or did some of them appear earlier than the others?
- Are the new meanings dependent on the meanings already existing?
- What is the nature of this dependence?
- Can we observe any changes in the arrangement of the meanings?

Synchronically polysemy is understood as the coexistence of various meanings of the same word at a certain historical period of the development of the English language.

The interrelation and interdependence of individual meanings making up the semantic structure of the word must be investigated along different lines, namely:

- Are all the meanings equally representative of the semantic structure of this word?
- Is the order in which the meanings are enumerated (or recorded) in dictionaries purely arbitrary or does it reflect the comparative value of individual meanings?

E. g.: *TABLE*
a piece of furniture;
the persons seated at a table;
sing. the food put on a table, meals;
a thing flat piece of stone, metal, wood, etc.;
pl. slabs of stone;
words cut into them or written on them (the ten tables);
an orderly arrangement of facts, figures, etc.;
part of a machine-tool on which the work is put to be operated on;
a level area, a plateau.

In the course of a **diachronic** semantic analysis we find out that of all the meanings the primary meaning is '**a flat slab of stone or wood**' which is proper to the word in **the Old English (***OE tabule* **from** *L. tabula***)**. All other meanings are secondary as they derived from the primary meaning of the word and appeared later than the primary meaning. When viewed upon **synchronically** we intuitively feel that the meaning that first occurs to us whenever we hear or see the word *table,* is '**an article of furniture'**. It occupies the central place in the semantic structure of the word *table* and all other meanings are minor in comparison.

1.3. Semantic Structure of Polysemantic Words

There are two main processes of the semantic development of a polysemantic word: radiation and concatination.

Radiation: The primary meaning stands in the centre and the secondary meanings proceed out of it like rays. Each secondary meaning can be traced to the primary meaning.

E.g. HEAD

its central meaning '*the top part of a human body*' stands in the centre from which such meanings radiated:

1) mind, mental ability (e.g. *get it out of your head*);

2) person in charge (*You should discuss the matter with your head of department*);

3) front, leading position (*at the head of the table*);

4) the top of smth. (*the head of a flower or a plant*).

Concatination (semantic chain): the central meaning stands at the very beginning of a chain and all the secondary meanings develop from the previous meaning. In such cases it is difficult to trace some meanings to the primary one.

E.g. *STYLE*:

a pointed stick;

a pointed stick for writing on wax in Rome;

a manner of writing;

a manner of doing smth. in general.

The split of polysemy. These two ways of semantic development (**radiation and concatination**) merge – polysemy ends and homonymy starts.

E.g. BAR: Its primary meaning was '*a long narrow piece of metal*' which developed by means of radiation a number of other meanings, namely: '*a bolt', 'a crowbar', 'gratings*', a musical term '*bar line*', i. e. vertical lines dividing printed music into metrical units (*the first bars of the symphony*).

– '*a narrow band/strip of colour or light*',

– '*barrier/obstacle*' (*poor health may be a bar to success*),

– '*a counter separating the judge and the lawyers and the prisoner from spectators*'

– '*the counter where spirits are sold*'.

Later on the last two meanings developed meanings of their own: the last but one developed the meaning '*barrister*' (*She is training for the bar*) and the last one developed

the meaning '*a place where food and drinks are served*' (*a sandwich bar, a coffee bar, a wine bar*). Here polysemy splits and homonymy starts.

2. Homonymy

Homonyms – words identical in sound-form or spelling, or both in sound-form and spelling but different in meaning are called. The term is derived from Greek (*homos* means 'similar' and *onoma* – 'name') and thus expresses the sameness of name combined with the difference in meaning.

Classification of Homonyms. Homonyms can be classified due to different principles. **Walter Skeat** classified homonyms according to their spelling and sound forms: **absolute** (or **full**) homonyms, **homographs**, **homophones**.

Absolute (or **full**) homonyms - words identical both in pronunciation and in spelling but different in meaning:

bear (n) (ведмідь) – *bear (v)* (носити);
pale (adj) (блідий) – *pale (n)* (кіл, паля);
school (n) (школа) – *school (n)* (косяк риби);

Homographs - words which are identical in spelling but different in sound and meaning:

bow (n) (поклін) – *bow (n)* (лук);
row (n) (шум, гвалт) – *row (n)* (ряд, низка);
lead (n)(свинець) – *lead (v)* (вести, показувати шлях; керувати);

Homophones – words identical in sound but different in spelling and meaning:

son (n) – *sun (n)*;
by (prep) – *buy (v)*;
night (n) – *knight (n);*
pear (n) – *pair (n);*
air (n) – *heir (n);*

Homonyms may belong both to the same and different categories of parts of speech. A classification of homonyms should reflect this distinctive feature. The paradigm of each word should be considered, because it has been observed that the paradigms of some homonyms coincide completely, and of others only partially.

Sources of Homonymy:

diverging meaning development of a polysemantic word (see the word *bar*). The same happened in the case of Modern English *flower* and *flour* which originally were one word;

converging sound development of two or more different words.

The great majority of homonyms arise as a result of **converging sound development** which leads to the coincidence of two or more words which were phonetically distinct at an earlier date. Thus, the words *night* and *knight* were not homonyms in Old English but owing to phonetic changes which words underwent in the course of their historical development became homonyms. Some other examples: OE *ic*

and *eae* have become identical in pronunciation (MnE *I* [ai] and *eye* [ai]); the verb *to write* had the form *wrĪtan* and the adjective *right* had the forms *reht, riht.*

Words borrowed from other languages may through phonetic convergence become homonyms. A borrowed word may, in the final stage of its phonetic adaptation, duplicate in form either a native word or another borrowing. Thus, e.g.: ON *ras* and Fr *race* are homonyms in Modern English (*race1* as running and *race2* as a distinct ethnical stock).

Shortening is a further type of word-building which increases the number of homonyms. For instance, *fan (n)* in the sense of '*an enthusiastic admirer of some kind of sport or of an actor, singer, etc.'* 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".*

3. Paronyms

Paronyms are words that are alike both in sound form and meaning and liable to be mixed, but in fact different in meaning and usage and therefore only mistakenly interchanged. The term comes from Greek, it means *para* – 'beside', *onyma* 'name'.

E. g.: *To affect and to effect.* The borderline between these two verbs is quite sharp and distinct and yet they are often confused because of their phonetic and semantic proximity. **To affect** means 'to influence', and **to effect** is *'to bring about', 'to result in'.*

Paronyms are somewhat related to homonyms. They are words alike in form, but different in meaning, e.g.:

1)   words having one and the same root but different derivational prefixes, e.g. *precede* 'передувати' and *proceed* 'продовжувати'; *prescription* 'припис, рецепт' and *proscription* 'оголошення поза законом'; *preposition* 'прийменник' and *proposition* 'пропозиція'; *anterior* 'передній, попередній' and *interior* 'інтер'єр, внутрішня сторона';

2)   words having one and the same root but different derivational suffixes, e.g.: *popular* 'народний, популярний' and *populous* 'густонаселений, багатолюдний';

3)   words derived from different roots, the likeness may be accidental, e.g. *complement* 'додаток' and *compliment* 'комплімент'.

LECTURE 7
STYLISTIC CLASSIFICATION OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

1.   Standard English Vocabulary
2.   Special Literary Vocabulary
3.   Special Colloquial Vocabulary

Stylistically the word-stock is divided into three layers: the literary layer, the neutral layer, the colloquial layer.

The literary vocabulary includes:1) common literary words; 2) terms or learned words; 3) poetic words; 4) archaic words; 5) barbarisms and foreign words;6) literary coinages including nonce-words.

The colloquial vocabulary consists of: 1) common colloquial words; 2) slang; 3) jargonisms; 4) professional words; 5) dialectal words; 6) vulgar words; 7) colloquial coinages.

1. Standard English Vocabulary

This layer of the English vocabulary consists of 1) stylistically neutral words; 2) common literary words; 3) common colloquial words.

Stylistically Neutral Words form the bulk of the English vocabulary. They are used in both literary and colloquial language. Etymologically these words are mostly native, and if of foreign origin, borrowed long ago and completely assimilated (e.g. Latin borrowings *wall, street*, French borrowings *river, mutton*, Scandinavian loan-words *husband, call*, etc.).

Common literary words are chiefly used in writing and in polished speech. One can always tell a literary word from a colloquial word though no objective criteria for this differentiation have been worked out yet. E.g.:

Infant – child – kid;

Parent – father – daddy;

Associate – fellow – chap;

Retire – go away – get out.

These are stylistic synonyms. Stylistic difference may be of various kinds:

it may lie in the emotional tension,

in the sphere of application,

in the degree of the quality denoted.

Common colloquial vocabulary borders both on the neutral vocabulary and on the special colloquial vocabulary. Some of these lexical items are close to the non-standard colloquial groups such as jargonisms, professionalisms, etc. Others approach the neutral bulk of the English vocabulary. Thus, the words *teenager* (a young man or young girl) and *hippie/hippy* (a young person who leads an unordered and unconventional life) are colloquial words passing into the neutral vocabulary. They are gradually losing their non-standard character and becoming widely recognized.

2. Special Literary Vocabulary

Special literary vocabulary includes: 1) terms or learned words; 2) poetic words; 3) archaic words; 4) barbarisms and foreign words; 5) literary coinages including nonce-words.

Terms are special words which express certain concepts of science, engineering, politics, diplomacy, philosophy, linguistics, etc. They are names of different phenomena, processes, qualities peculiar to a certain branch of science, art, etc.

A term is directly connected with the concept it denotes.

Terms have some peculiarities:

1) terms have no emotional, expressive colouring; they have exact definitions and are stylistically neutral;

2) they are never used in figurative, transferred meaning;

3) in one and the same branch of science a term is usually monosemantic; polysemy in technical vocabulary is hardly desirable;

4) terms are strictly systemized; each term has its place in the terminological system;

5) terms are usually of international character.

Types of terms:

1) terms which exist as terms only and function within the limits of one terminology, e.g.: *diphthong, monophthong, etc.;*

2) terms which may be used in several terminological systems with different specialized meanings, e.g. *operation, assimilation;*

3) terms which may function as terms and ordinary words, e.g. *to dress* (in medical terminology it means "to bandage a wound", in agriculture it means "to prepare the earth for sowing" and in naval terminology it means "to decorate with flags").

Poetic and highly literary words: There is no poetic style in the English language. But there remains a set of words which contrast with all other words because, having been traditionally used only in poetry, they have poetic connotations. These words are more lofty and more abstract in their denotative meaning than their neutral synonyms. The main function of poetic words – to sustain the special elevated atmosphere of poetry. They are:

nouns: *array – clothes; billow – wave; brine – salt water; main – sea;*

verbs*: behold – see; deem – think; trow – believe; quoth – past tense of speak;*

adjectives: *fair – beautiful; hapless – unhappy; lone – lonely; murky – grim;*

adverbs: *anon – presently; nigh – almost; oft – often;*

pronouns: *thee, ye; aught – anything; naught – nothing;*

conjunctions: *albeit – although; ere – before.*

Archaic words are obsolete words for existing objects. They have synonyms in Modern English, differing in stylistic sphere. Archaic words are divided into lexical and grammatical.

Lexical archaisms are archaic nouns *woe* (sorrow), *main* (sea), *steed* (horse), verbs *slay* (kill), adjectives *fair* (beautiful), *lone* (alone), pronouns *aught* (anything), *naught* (nothing), adverbs *eke* (also), *ere* (before).

Grammatical archaisms are obsolete grammatical forms – morphological forms, belonging to the earlier stages in the development of the language: the pronoun *thou* (you) and its forms *thee, thy, thine;* verbal endings *-est* for the second person singular (*thou makest, hast, dost*), the *-(e)th* inflection for the third person singular (*he maketh),* the verb-forms *art* (are)*, wert* (was), *shalt, wilt* (shall, will).

Barbarisms and foreign words are words of foreign origin which have not entirely been assimilated into English. They bear the appearance of a borrowing and are felt as something alien. Etymologically they are Latin, Greek or French. Most of them have corresponding English synonyms but are preferred for certain stylistic purposes: *bon mot*

(= a witty saying)*, de facto* (in fact), *en regle* (according to rules), *belles lettres* (fiction), *brochure* (booklet), *au revoir!* (good bye!, so long!), etc.

Literary coinages (including nonce-words). *Neologism* is a new word or a new meaning for an established word, the novelty of which is still felt.

Neologisms can develop in three ways:

1) a lexical unit existing in the language can change its meaning to denote a new object or phenomenon. In such cases we have semantic neologisms, e.g. the word *umbrella* developed the meanings 'авіаційне прикриття, політичне прикриття';

2) a new lexical unit can develop in the language to denote an object or phenomenon which already has some lexical unit to denote it; in such cases we have transnomination, e.g. the word *slum* was first substituted by the word *ghetto* then by the word-group *inner town*;

3) a new lexical unit can be introduced to denote a new object or phenomenon; in this case we have 'a proper neologism', many of them are cases of new terminology.

New words are mainly coined according to the productive models for word-building in the given language, namely by means of derivation, composition, word-combination, root-creation. Besides, neologisms may come from foreign languages as direct adoption of foreign words or as translation of the lexical unit.

Modern information technology made its contribution to many other spheres of modern life and caused the appearance of new words and word-combinations, e.g. *electronic foot-prints* (електронні відбитки), *data spills* (інформація приватного характеру, відома третій стороні), *cyberthief* (кіберзлодій), *cybercrook* (кібершахрай), *cyberpirate* (кіберпірат), cyberhacking (хакерство).

Nonce-word - a word coined to suit one particular occasion. They are created to designate some subjective idea or phenomenon. They rarely pass into the language as legitimate units of the vocabulary, but they remain in the language as constant manifestations of its innate power of word-building. E. g. *Let me say in the beginning that even if I wanted to avoid Texas I could not, for I am* <u>*wived*</u> *in Texas, and* <u>*mother-in-lawed*</u>*, and* <u>*uncled*</u>*, and* <u>*aunted*</u>*, and* <u>*cousined*</u> *within an inch of my life* (J. Steinbeck).

3. Special Colloquial Vocabulary

Special colloquial vocabulary includes:1) slang; 2) jargonisms; 3) professionalisms; 4) dialectal words; 5) vulgarisms; 6) colloquial coinages.

Slang may be defined as:

a) the special vocabulary used by any set of persons of a low or disreputable character; language of a low and vulgar type;

b) the *cant* or *jargon* of a certain class or period;

c) language of a highly colloquial type considered as below the level of standard educated speech, and consisting either of new words or of current words employed in some special sense (New Oxford English Dictionary).

I. V. Arnold stresses that *slang words* are identified and distinguished by contrasting them to standard literary vocabulary. They are expressive, mostly ironical words serving to create fresh names for some things that are frequent topics of discourse. For the most part they sound somewhat vulgar, cynical and harsh, aiming to show the object of speech in the light of an off-hand contemptuous ridicule. E. g.

money: beans, brass, dibs, dough, chink, wads.
head: attic, brain-pan, hat peg, nut, upper-story.
drunk: boozy, cock-eyed, high and many more.

The best-known English slang dictionary is compiled by E. Partridge.

Jargonisms are words whose aim is to preserve secrecy within one or another social group. **They are** generally old words with entirely new meanings imposed on them. **Jargonisms** are absolutely incomprehensible to those outside the social group which has invented them. They may be defined a code within a code, i. e. special meanings of words that are imposed on the recognized code – the dictionary meaning of the words. Thus the word *grease* means "money"; *loaf* means "head"; *a tiger hunter* means "a gambler"; *a lexer* is "a student preparing for a law course".

Jargonisms are not regional, they are social in character: the jargon of thieves and vagabonds, generally known as *cant;* the jargon of the army, known as military slang; the jargon of sportsmen.

Professionalisms are the words used in a definite trade, profession or calling by people connected by common interests both at work and at home. They commonly designate some working process or implement of labour. Professionalisms are correlated to terms, but terms nominate new concepts that appear in the process of technical progress and the development of science, and professionalisms name anew already existing concepts, tools or instruments, and have the typical properties of a special code, e.g. *tin-fish* (=submarine); *block-buster* (= a bomb especially designed to destroy blocks of big buildings); *piper* (= a specialist who decorates pastry with the use of a cream-pipe); *outer* (= a knockout blow).

Dialectal words are words which in the process of integration of the English national language remain beyond its literary boundaries; their use is generally confined to a definite locality.

Some dialectal words have become so familiar in colloquial or standard colloquial English that they are universally accepted as recognized units of the standard colloquial English. To these words belong *lass*, meaning 'a girl or a beloved girl' and the corresponding *lad,* 'a boy or a young man', *daft* from the Scottish and the northern dialect, meaning 'of unsound mind, silly'; Still they have not lost their dialectal associations and therefore are used in literary English with the stylistic function of characterization.

Vulgarisms are expletive and swear words which are of an abusive character, like *damn, bloody, to hell, goddam* and obscene words, i. e. the so-called four-letter words the use of which is banned in any form of intercourse as being indecent. The function of these expletives is to express strong emotions, mainly annoyance, anger, vexation and the like.

They are not to be found in any functional style of language except emotive prose, and here only in the direct speech of the characters.

Colloquial Coinages are spontaneous and elusive. Not all of them are fixed in dictionaries or even in writing and therefore most of them disappear from the language leaving no trace in it whatsoever. Unlike literary nonce-words, nonce-words of a colloquial nature are not usually built by means of affixes but are based on certain semantic changes in words that are almost imperceptible to the linguistic observer until the word finds its way into print.

LECTURE 8
ENGLISH PHRASEOLOGY

1. Free Word-Groups
2. Free Word-Groups VS Set-Expressions
   2.1. Criteria of Set-Expressions
   2.2. Classification of Set-Expressions
   2.3. Ways of Forming Phraseological Units
3. Proverbs, Familiar Quotations and Clichés

1. Free Word-Groups

Words put together to form lexical units make phrases or word-groups. The degree of structural and semantic cohesion of word-groups may vary.

The component members' **free word-groups** possess semantic and structural independence (e.g. *a week ago, to take lessons, man of wisdom).* Free word-groups are habitually studied in syntax.

Structurally free word-groups may be approached in various ways: according to their distribution; according to their syntactic pattern.

According to their distribution free word-groups are:

endocentric (if the word-group has the same linguistic distribution as one of its members, i. e. having one central member functionally equivalent to the whole word-group, e.g. *red flower* is distributionally identical with its central component *flower: I saw a red flower – I saw a flower*);

exocentric (if the distribution of the word-group is different from either of its members, i. e. as having no such central member, e.g. *side by side, grow smaller*).

The structure of a word-group is described in relation to the head-word: to take books (to take + N); to build houses (to build + N). According to their syntactic pattern free word-groups may be:

predicative - have a syntactic structure similar to that of a sentence, e. g. *he went, John works*;

non-predicative. Non-predicative word-groups may be subdivided according to the type of syntactic relation between the components into **subordinative** and **coordinative**.

In **subordinative** word-groups some words are subordinated to others (*red flower, a man of wisdom*), while in **coordinative** ones the members are functionally and semantically equal (*women and children, do or die*).

Subordinative word-groups may be classified according to their head-words into: **nominal** (*red flower*); **adjectival** (*kind to people*); **verbal** (*to speak well*); **pronominal** (*all of them*); **statival** (*fast asleep*).

The border-line between free word-groups and phraseological units is not clearly defined. The so-called free word-groups are only relatively free as collocability of their member-words is fundamentally delimited by their lexical and grammatical valency.

2. Free Word-Groups *VS* Set-Expressions

Phraseological units (**set-phrases, set-expressions**):

are functionally and semantically inseparable (e.g. *at least, by means of, take place, to stew in one's own juice)*;

are non-motivated;

cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready-made units;

are regarded as the subject-matter of the branch of lexicology that studies phraseology.

2.1. Criteria of Set-Expressions

Scholars suggest the following criteria for distinguishing between free word-groups and set-phrases:

criterion of stability of the lexical components and lack of motivation;

criterion of function;

criterion of context;

criterion of idiomaticity.

Criterion of stability of the lexical components and lack of motivation. Unlike components of free word-groups which may vary according to the needs of communication, member-words of phraseological units are always reproduced as single unchangeable collocations. E. g. the constituent *red* in the free word-group *red flower* may, if necessary, be substituted by any other adjective denoting colour, without essentially changing the denotational meaning of the word-group under discussion (a flower of a certain colour). In the phraseological unit *red tape* ('bureaucratic methods') no such substitution is possible. A change of the adjective would involve a complete change in the meaning of the whole group. The phraseological unit *red tape* is semantically non-motivated (its meaning can't be deduced from the meaning of its components and it exists as a ready-made linguistic unit). The origin of this phrase: in English offices documents are sewn together with red tape. Hence: red-tapish = бюрократичний, red tapist = бюрократ.

Criterion of function. In a free word-group each component has its own denotational meaning and its own grammatical meaning.

Phraseological units function as word-equivalents, the denotational meaning belongs to the word group as a single semantically inseparable unit and the grammatical meaning i.

e. the part-of-speech meaning is felt as belonging to the word-group as a whole irrespective of the part-of-speech meaning of the component words.

A free word-group *a long day* (the adjective *long* and the noun *day* preserve the part-of-speech meaning proper to these words taken in isolation). A phraseological unit *in the long run* (the part-of-speech meaning belongs to the group as a single whole: it is grammatically equivalent to adverbs *finally, ultimately*).

Criterion of context. Free word-groups make up variable contexts (in free word-groups *small town, small room* the adjective *small* has the meaning 'not large').

The essential feature of phraseological units is a fixed context (in the set-phrase *small hours* the meaning of the word *small* has nothing to do with the size. It means 'early hours from 1 to 4 a.m.').

Criterion of idiomaticity. Phraseological units are ready-made phrases registered in dictionaries while free word-groups are made up spontaneously.

2.2. Classification of Set-Expressions

A phraseological unit is a complex phenomenon with a number of important features, which can be approached from different points of view. Hence, there exist a considerable number of different classifications devised by different scholars and based on different principles:

thematic principle (L. P. Smith);
semantic principle (V. V. Vinogradov);
structural/functional principle;
etymological principle.

Thematic principle (L. P. Smith). According to the particular sphere of human activity, of life of nature, of natural phenomena, etc. (used by sailors, fishermen, soldiers, hunters and associated with the realia, phenomena and conditions of their occupations, phrases associated with domestic and wild animals and birds, agriculture and cooking, sports and arts, etc.). Word-groups associated with the sea and the life of seamen are especially numerous in English vocabulary. Some of them have no longer any association with the sea or sailors:

to sink or swim = to fall or succeed*;*
in deep water = in trouble or danger;
in low water, on the rocks = in strained financial circumstances;
to be in the same boat with somebody = to share the same difficulties;
to sail under false colours = to pretend to be what one is not;
half seas over (*sl.*) = drunk.

Semantic principle (V. V. Vinogradov). V. V. Vinogradov's classification is founded on the degree of semantic cohesion between the components of a phraseological unit: phraseological combinations (collocations), phraseological unities; phraseological fusions.

Phraseological combinations (collocations) are word-groups with a partially changed meaning. They are clearly motivated, the meaning of the unit can be easily

deduced from the meaning of its constituents, moreover, the word-group contains one component used in its direct meaning, e.g.: *bosom friends, to be good at something, to have a bite, to meet the requirements, to take something for granted, to stick to one's word, gospel truth.*

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 ≈ to be true to one's views or convictions;

to catch/to clutch at a straw ≈ when in extreme danger, avail oneself of even the slightest chance of rescue;

to lose one's head ≈ to be at a loss what to do;

to lose one's heart to smb. ≈ to fall in love with smb.;

to ride the high horse ≈ to behave in a superior way;

a big bug/pot (*sl.*) ≈ a person of importance;

a fish out of water ≈ a person situated uncomfortably outside his usual or proper environment.

Phraseological fusions are word-groups with a completely changed meaning, but in contrast to the unities, they are demotivated, i. e. 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.:

neck and crop = entirely, altogether, thoroughly;

at sixes and sevens = in confusion or in disagreement;

to set one's cap on smb. = to try to attract a man;

to leave smb. in the lurch = to abandon a friend when he is in trouble;

to show the white feather = *to behave in a cowardly way*;

to dance attendance on smb. = to try to show exaggerated attention to smb.

Structural / functional principle is based on the ability of phraseological units to perform the same syntactical functions as words.

Traditional structural approach:

1)   **verbal phrases:** *to win the upper hand, to talk through one's hat, to make a song and dance about smth.;*

2)   **substantive phrases:** *dog's life, cat-and-dog life, calf love, white lie, birds of a feather;*

3)   **adjectival phrases:** *high and mighty, spick and span, brand new, safe and sound* (the comparative word-groups : *(as) nervous as a cat, (as) weak as a kitten, (as) good as gold, (as) pretty as a picture, (as) drunk as an owl* (sl.), *(as) mad as a hatter*)

4)   **adverbial phrases:** *high and low, by hook or by crook, for love or money, in cold blood, between the devil and the deep sea;*

42

5) **interjectional:** *my God!, by Jove!, by George!, goodness gracious!, good Heavens!* (Amer.);

6) **prepositional phrases:** *in the course of, in front of;*

7) **conjunctional phrases:** *as long as, as soon as.*

Structural + semantic principles (A. I. Smirnitsky): phraseological units are grouped according to the number and semantic significance of their constituent parts. Accordingly two large groups are established:

1) **one-summit units,** which have one meaningful constituent: *to give up, to make out, to be tired, to be surprised, at hand, etc.;*

2) **two-summit and multi-summit units** which have two or more meaningful constituents: *black art, first night, common sense, to fish in troubled waters, etc.*

Functional + semantic principles (A. V. Kunin). Phraseological units are grouped according to their function in communication determined by their structural-semantic characteristics:

nominative phraseological units are represented by word-groups, including the ones with one meaningful word, and coordinative phrases of the type *wear and tear, well and good.* This group also includes word-groups with a predicative structure, such as *the crow flies,* as also predicative phrases of the type *see how the land lies, ships that pass in the night*;

nominative-communicative phraseological units include word-groups of the type *to break the ice – the ice is broken, i. e.* verbal word-groups which are transformed into a sentence when the verb is used in the Passive Voice;

phraseological units which are neither nominative nor communicative include interjectional word-groups;

communicative phraseological units are represented by proverbs and sayings.

Etymological principle. In this respect phraseological units may be classified into native and borrowed from other languages, on the one hand, and into classes of phraseological units which came from different sources – literary works, Bible, folklore, etc., on the other hand.

Many phraseological units were borrowed from Latin, Greek, French, Spanish and other languages of the world. Some of them exist as calques, others have been partially changed. French borrowings: *baptism of fire* (бойове хрещення), *apropos of nothing* (ні з того, ні з сього), *to give beans* (відлупцювати, відплатити тим же).

Latin borrowings: *hunger is the best sauce* (голод – найкращий повар), *man is to man a wolf* (людина людині вовк), *second to none* (неперевершений), *with a grain of salt* (скептично, недовірливо), *after meat mustard* (дорога ложка до обіду), *snake in the grass* (таємний ворог).

The majority of phraseological units are of the native origin. Some of them are associated:

with historical events (the phrase *as well be hanged/hung for a sheep as for a lamb* comes from an old English law when a man could be sentenced to death for stealing a sheep);

43

with customs and traditions of the English people (*a baker's dozen* comes from a custom when tradesmen received from bakers thirteen loaves of bread instead of twelve ones (the thirteenth loaf served as a source of income);

with popular beliefs and superstitions (the phrase *a crooked sixpence* comes from a superstition spread in England that a crooked sixpence brings his owner luck and happiness; the phrase *a black sheep* is based on the belief that a black sheep bears a devil's stamp);

legends: the phrase *a peeping Tom* (a person who gets pleasure esp. of a sexual nature from secretly watching others) is after the legendary *Peeping Tom* of Coventry who was the only person to see the naked Lady Godiva, the wife of a duke of Mercia, who imposed a heavy tax on the inhabitants of Coventry. When his wife interceded for the people her husband said that he would cancel that tax if Lady Godiva rode naked in the city at midday. And Lady Godiva agreed. All the inhabitants of the city closed the shutters of their windows in order not to confuse a young lady. But a young tailor Tom by name couldn't help peeping. He opened his window and began to look through a chink and was struck by blindness on the spot.

As to literary sources, the most important of them is **the Bible**: *daily bread* (хліб щоденний), *at the eleventh hour* (в останню хвилину), *thirty pieces of silver* (тридцять срібників, ціна зради), *can the leopard change his spots?* (горбатого могила виправить), *cast pearls before swine* (кидати перла перед свиньми), *the olive branch* (оливкова гілка, символ миру і спокою), *the root of the evil* (корінь зла),*ask for bread and be given a stone* (просити хліба, а одержати камінь).

Shakespeare's works range second after the Bible in the number of set-phrases which enriched modern English: *a fool's paradise* (примарне щастя) "Romeo and Juliet"; *give the devil his due* (віддати належне супернику) "King Henry V"; *the green-eyed monster* (ревнощі) "Othello"; *midsummer madness* (справжнє божевілля) "Twelfth Night"; *to one's heart's content* (вдосталь) "Merchant of Venice"; *cakes and ale* (безтурботність) "Twelfth Night".

2.3. Ways of Forming Phraseological Units

Phraseological units can be also classified according to the ways they are formed. Thus, A. V. Kunin distinguishes **primary** and **secondary ways of forming phraseological units**.

Primary ways of forming phraseological units (when a unit is formed on the basis of a free word-group):

1) by means of transferring the meaning of terminological word-groups: thus, for instance, *launching pad* in its terminological meaning is *стартовий майданчик*, and in its transferred meaning – *відправний пункт; to link up – стикуватися (про космічні кораблі)*, in its transferred meaning it means *знайомитися;*

2) by transforming the meaning of free word-groups: *granny farm – пансіонат для людей поважного віку, Troyan horse – комп'ютерна програма, призначена для навмисного пошкодження комп'ютера;*

3) by means of alliteration: *a sad sack* – нещасний випадок, *culture vulture –* людина, яка цікавиться мистецтвом;

4) by means of distorting a word-group: *odds and ends ← odd ends;*

5) by means of using archaisms: *in brown study = in gloomy meditation* (both components preserve their archaic meanings);

6) by using some unreal images: *to have butterflies in the stomach = to feel very nervous about, to have green fingers = to be very good ae gardening.*

Secondary ways of forming phraseological units (when a phraseological unit is formed on the basis of another phraseological unit). They are:

1) conversion: *to vote with one's feet → vote with one's feet;*

3) analogy: *curiosity killed the cat → care killed the cat;*

4) contrast: *fat cat → thin cat;*

5) shortening of proverbs or sayings: *birds of feather ← birds of feather flock together;*

6) borrowing phraseological units from other languages, either as translation loans: *to take the bull by the horns* (Latin).

3. Proverbs, Familiar Quotations and Clichés

A proverb is a short familiar epigrammatic saying expressing popular wisdom, a truth or a moral lesson in a concise way. Proverbs have much in common with set expressions because their lexical components are also constant, their meaning is traditional and mostly figurative, and they are introduced into speech ready-made.

The question of whether or not proverbs should be regarded as a subtype of phraseological units and studied together with phraseology of a language is really a controversial one. Thus, Professor Kunin includes proverbs in his classification of phraseological units and labels them *communicative phraseological units.*

Others like N. N. Amosova think that it is erroneous to include them into the system of language because they are independent units of communication, proverbs are different from phraseological units.

Phraseological Units VS. Proverbs

structural dissimilarity: phraseological units are ready-made blocks which fit into the structure of a sentence performing a certain syntactical function, more or less as words;

proverbs structurally are sentences, and so cannot be used in the way in which phraseological units are used;

proverbs and phraseological units differ also semantically: proverbs could be compared with minute fables for they sum up the collective experience of the community, they moralize, give advice, give warning, criticize, while no phraseological unit ever does any of these things;

phraseological units do not stand for whole statements as proverbs do but for a single concept. Their function in speech is purely *nominative* while the function of proverbs is *communicative.*

There does not seem to exist a rigid or permanent border-line between proverbs and phraseological units as the latter rather often originate from the former: *the last straw* originated from the proverb *the last straw breaks the camel's back,* the phraseological unit *birds of feather* − from the proverb *birds of feather flock together,* the phraseological unit *to catch a straw / straws* − from the proverb *a drowning man catches at straws.*

As to **familiar quotations**, they are different from proverbs in their origin. They come from literature but by and by they become part of the language.

The Shakespearian quotations have become and remain extremely numerous, they have contributed enormously to the store of the language:

To be or not to be.
Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.
Something is rotten in the state of Denmark.
Brevity is the soul of wit.

Some quotations are so often used that they come to be considered **clichés**, i. e. such phrases that are constantly and mechanically repeated: *astronomical figures, to break the ice, the irony of fate, ample opportunities, the arms of Morpheus,* etc.

II. SEMINARS IN LEXICOLOGY

SEMINAR 1
ETYMOLOGICAL PECULIARITIES OF MODERN ENGLISH VOCABULARY

Items for Discussion
1. General Remarks Concerning the Etymology of the English Vocabulary. Words of Native Origin, their Specific Features.
2. The Foreign Element in the English Vocabulary
   2.1. Causes and Ways of Borrowing
   2.2. Criteria of Borrowing
3. Classification of Borrowings According to the Language they Were Borrowed from.
   3.1. The Celtic Element in the English Vocabulary
   3.2. Romanic Borrowings. The Classical Element in the English Vocabulary
   3.3. Germanic Borrowings
   3.4. Various Other Elements in the English Vocabulary
4. Assimilation of Borrowings
5. Etymological Doublets. Etymological Hybrids. International Words

Glossary
Etymology is a branch of Lexicology that studies the origin and history of words.
Borrowing is 1) the process of adopting foreign words; 2) the result of this process.
Assimilation is used to denote a particular or total conformation to the phonetic, graphical and morphological standards of the receiving language and its semantic structure.

Translation Loans are words or word combinations which are formed from the material of a given language but after the foreign pattern by means of literally morpheme-for-morpheme (word-for-word) translation.

Etymological Hybrids are words whose elements are derived from different languages.

Etymological Doublets are two or more words borrowed from the same source at different times and, therefore, having different forms and meaning.

International Words are words of identical origin, which occur in several languages as a result of simultaneous or successive borrowing from the same ultimate source.

Exercises

Exercise 1. *Arrange the following words into the following groups: a) native words, b) Latin borrowings, c) Greek borrowings.*

Absolute, acacia, album, and, animal, apple, ask, atmosphere, autobiography, bake, barometer, be, bear, begin, berry, bird, biscuit, board, boy, bread, brother, brown, but, by, calculate, can, cat, character, child, church, cock, cold, come, concrete, conscious, continuous, cow, create, crisis, cup, curriculum, daughter, day, delicate, devil, dog, door, duck, eat, emotion, end, equal, expect, father, field, fish, four⁻, fox, from, genius, girl, go, green, hand, hen, history, home, horse, knight, land, life, lord, manuscript, may, meat, mile, milk, noon, nun, of, old, organization, palm, panic, paper, pipe, plum, pound, propaganda, queen, rain, rector, red, reduce, room, say, shall, sheep, sing, six, spoon, spring, stimulus, system, tell, wall, water, we, wine, winter, wolf, work, you.

Exercise 2. *Arrange the following borrowings of Scandinavian origin in groups according to the part of speech they belong to.*

Anger, birth, both, call, cast, clip, die, doze, fellow, fir, fit, flat, gate, get, glitter, happen, happy, hasten, heaven, hit, husband, ill, knife, lift, loose, low, meek, odd, raise, root, saga, same, scatter, sister, skill, skin, sky, sly, smile, struggle, take, they, though, till, ugly, want, weak, window, wing, wrong.

Exercise 3. *Arrange the following French borrowings into three groups according to the degree of their assimilation: a) fully assimilated, b) partially assimilated, c) unassimilated.*

Act, admiral, aim, arm, art, autumn, ball, bank, baron, beauty, beef, beige, blindage, bon mot, branch, brilliant, butcher, camouflage, capital, captain, chandelier, chateau, chauffeur, chic, city, close, colleague, command, commence, coup d'état, count, courage, crime, cry, debris, decide, degree, delight, emperor, employee, etiquette, exposure, face, fatigue, financé, foyer, fruit, garage, gazette, honour, hour, large, legal, leisure, machine, madam, magazine, marine, measure, minister, monsieur, mutton, naive, nation, nice, office, pass, pleasure, poet, prestige, restore, rouge, sergeant, soldier, soup, supreme, toast, troops, vessel.

Exercise 4. Mind the following Italian borrowings. Comment on the sphere of life they are *used in.*

Adagio, allegro, alt, aria, baritone, bass, bust, colonnade, conceit, corridor, fiasco, fresco, granite, influenza, libretto, macaroni, miniature, opera, operetta, piano, primadonna, quartet, revolt, solo, sonata, soprano, studio, tempo, trio.

Reading & Summary

1. Антрушина Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. – Учеб. пособие для студентов. 3-е изд. – М. : Дрофа, 1999. – С. 44–78.
2. Гороть Є. І. Нариси з лексикології сучасної англійської мови /Є. І. Гороть, С. В. Бєлова. – Луцьк: РВВ «Вежа» Волин. нац. ун-ту ім. Лесі Українки, 2008. – С. 10–21.
3. Зыкова И. В. Практический курс английской лексикологи / И. В. Зыкова. – М. : Издательский центр «Академия», 2008. – С. 103–109.

SEMINAR 2
THE STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH WORD.
WORD-FORMATION

Items for Discussion

1. Morpheme, its Definition and Comparison with Word
2. Morphemic Analysis of Words
    2.1. Procedure of Morphemic Analysis
    2.2. Types of Word Segmentability
    2.3. Identification of Morphs
    2.4. Classification of Morphemes
3. Word-Formation: Definition. Basic Peculiarities.
    3.1. Affixation.
    3.1.1. Suffixes.
    3.1.2. Prefixes.
3.2. Conversion.
3.3. Word-composition (compounding).
3.4. Other ways of replenishing the vocabulary.

Glossary

Morphemes are defined as the smallest indivisible two-facet language units. They are defined as minimum language units because they can't be further divided into meaningful units.

Allomorphs are positional variants of a morpheme**.**

Word-formation is the process of coining new words from the material available in the given language after certain semantic and structural pattern.

Affixation is the formation of new words by adding affixes to different stems.

Compounding/composition is coining new words by combining two or more stems which occur in the language as free forms.

Conversion is the process of coining new words without adding derivative elements, through changes in the paradigm

Substantivation is the process in which adjectives or participles acquire the paradigm and syntactic functions of nouns.

Abbreviations (or initial shortenings) are words produced by shortening the phrasal terms up to their initial letters.

Reversion (or back-formation) is inferring of a short word from a long one.

Shortening may be represented as significant subtraction, in which part of the original word is taken away.

Blending is a special type of compounding by means of merging parts of words into one new word.

Sound imitation (or onomatopoeia) (from the Greek word '*onoma*' – '*name*' and '*poein*' – '*to make*'), is naming the action or object by more or less exact reproduction or a sound associated with it.

Exercises

Exercise 1. *Comment on the essence of the morphemic analysis of the word. Analyse the following words into their Ultimate Constituents (UCs).*

Friendship, freedom, lucky, luckily, agreement, frightful, merciless, suddenly, lifeless, uncomfortable, steadiness, bathroom, northern, actress, blue-eyed, visitor, ex-seaman, half-finished, supernaturally, uncomprehendingly, unemployment, reinforcement, uplifted, hopelessly, unworthiness, impassable, extravagant, unconsciousness.

Exercise 2. *Arrange the following words into three groups, those having: a) free stems; b) bound stems; c) semi-bound stems.*

Public, voyage, boyish, disrange, manly, freedom, vital, waiter, experience, businesslike, annual, speechless, careful, policeman, well-known, half-done, personal, difference, patience, untrue, longish, length, likely, terrorist, unselfish, tremendous, famous, weekly.

Exercise 3. *Form adjectives by adding the negative prefix **in-** or its allomorphs **il-, im-, ir-**.*

Accurate, active, attentive, capable, comparable, convenient, correct, frequent, human, legal, literate, logical, moral, movable, possible, probable, proper, regular, respective, rational.

Exercise 4. *Arrange the following noun-forming suffixes into groups according to their origin and productivity into: **A**: a) native, b) foreign; **B**: a) productive, b) semi-productive, c) non-productive..*

-ade, -age, -an/-ian, -ance/-ence, -ancy/-ency, -ant/-ent, -ar, -ard/-art, -asm, -ast, -

ate/-at, -cy, -dom, -ee, -eer, -er, -ess, -ful, -hood, -ier/-yer, -ing, -ie/-y, -ic, -ice, -ics, -ine, -ion, -ism, -ist, -ite, -let, -ling, -ment, -mony, -ness, -oid, -or, -ory, -our/-eur, -ry/-ery, -ship, -ster, -th, -tion, -tude, -ty, -ure, -y.

Exercise 5. *Arrange the following compounds according to the type of composition and the linking elements into: a) those formed by juxtaposition; b) those with a vowel or a consonant as a linking element; c) those with linking elements represented by conjunctions and prepositions.*

Man-of-war, editor-in-chief, undertaker, looking-glass, get-at-able, stay-at-home, red-hot, butter-fingers, lady-bird, up-to-date, officer-in-charge, workday, Anglo-American, speedometer, midday, hide-and-seek, frying-pan, sick-leave, handicraft, salesman, electroplate, queen-bee, fine-looking, washing-machine, high-heeled, touch-me-not, cherry-orchard, servant-of-all-work, saleslady, Turco-Russian, note-book, give-and-take, well-to-live, mother-in-law, gas-mask, fountain-pen, sunburnt, inlet, black-eyed, bloodtest, night-flight, oil-rich, factory-packed, waste-paper-basket, once-a-year, do-it-yourself, difficult-to-leam, nearby, deep-cut, far-gone, hard-working, peace-loving.

Reading & Summary

1. Антрушина Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. – Учеб. пособие для студентов. 3-е изд. – М. : Дрофа, 1999. – С. 78–120.
2. Арнольд И.В. Лесикология современного английского языка / И. В. Арнольд. – М. : Высш. шк., 1986. – С. 77–163.
3. Гороть Є. І. Нариси з лексикології сучасної англійської мови /Є. І. Гороть, С. В. Бєлова. – Луцьк: РВВ «Вежа» Волин. нац. ун-ту ім. Лесі Українки, 2008. – С. 21–45.
4. Зыкова И. В. Практический курс английской лексикологи / И. В. Зыкова. – М. : Издательский центр «Академия», 2008. – С. 52–93.

SEMINAR 3
THE SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH WORD.
CHANGE OF MEANING.

Items for Discussion
1. Problems of Word-meaning
  1.1. Different Approaches to Meaning
  1.2. Types of Meaning
2. Motivation of Meaning
3. Change of Meaning
  3.1. The Causes of Semantic Change
  3.2. The Nature of Semantic Change

Glossary

Meaning is a certain reflection in our mind of objects, phenomena or relations that makes part of the linguistic sign – its so-called inner facet, whereas the sound-form functions as its outer facet. .

Grammatical meaning may be defined as the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words.

Lexical meaning is the realization of concept or emotiom by means of a definite language system.

Denotational meaning is that component of the lexical meaning which serves to identify and name the notion and makes communication possible.

Connotation is the pragmatic communicative value the word receives depending on *where, when, how, by whom, for what purpose, in what contexts it may be used*. There are four main types of connotations: *stylistic, emotional, evaluative, expressive/intensifying*.

Implicational meaning is the implied information associated with the word.

Motivation of meaning is the relationship between the morphemic or phonemic composition and structural pattern of the word on the one hand, and its meaning on the other.

Metaphor is the transfer of meaning based on similarity.

Metonymy is the transfer of meaning based on contiguity.

Extension (broadening) of meaning is the semantic process of changing the denotational meaning of the word which results in the application of the word to a wider variety of referents (e.g.: the word *ready* originally meant '*prepared for ride*' and now the meaning is generalized).

Narrowing (specialisation) of meaning is the semantic process of changing the denotational meaning of the word which results in the restriction of the range of referents (e.g.: the word *wife* originally meant 'woman' and now it means '*a married woman*').

Degradation (pejorative development) of meaning is the semantic process of the pejorative development of the connotational aspect of the meaning of the word; the word acquires some derogatory emotive charge (e.g.: the word *boor* was originally used to denote *'a villager'*, but then acquired a derogatory, contemptuous connotational meaning '*a clumsy, ill-bred fellow, a rude person, a scoundrel*').

Elevation (amelioration) of meaning is the semantic process of the improvement of the connotational component of meaning (e.g.: the word *minister* originally meant '*a servant, an attendant*' and now it means '*a civil servant of high rank*').

Exercises

Exercise 1. *Define denotative and connotative meanings of the words in bold.*

1. I suppose **muggins** will have to do it. 2. Give **mummy** the **doggie** then. 3. My brother is terrible. Let's get rid of this little **beastie**. 4. Let me get you the **aforementioned**. 5. We are away to the sunnier **climes**. 6. Anastasia had **to fork out** a lot for that present. 7. For us it's been a real **catch-22**, because we had the time to take a vacation without having any money.

Exercise 2. *Comment on the phenomenon of metaphor. State on what signs of resemblance the following cases of metaphor are based.*

Arm (рукоятка), bridge (перенісся), boat (посудина для підливи), ear (вушко), egg (бомба), elephantine (величезний), face (фасад), finger (стрілка), foot (підніжжя), hand (стрілка), heart (центр), leg (ніжка), mouth (отвір), nose (носик), tube (метро).

Exercise 3. *Comment on the etymology and meaning of the following cases of metonymy.*

Bikini, boston, boycott, bordeaux, cardigan, champagne, cheviot, china, colt, electricity, Downing Street, Fleet Street, Wall Street, the White House, the Pentagon, mackintosh, madeira, malaga, sardines, cheviot, sandwich, silhouette, tweed, raglan, Mocco, hooligan.

Exercise 4. *Comment on the phenomenon of synecdoche. State whether in the following examples the singular stands for the plural, the part for the whole, the individual for the class, the concrete for the abstract, the name of the material for the thing made.*

1. The *cat* is a domestic *animal*. 2. Do you know *ABC*? 3. She is wearing a *mink.* 4. Your silver *fox* perfectly goes with this evening gown. 5. Be careful, the *iron* is very hot. 6. Having emptied his *glass* he put it on the table. 7. An excellent statue, the *marble speaks*. 8. Her character is a mixture of the *fox* and the *mouse*.

Exercise 5. *Trace the process of:*
a) extension of meaning in the following words.
Arrive, box, free, paper picture, salary, season, thing, Utopian.
b) narrowing the meaning in the following words.
Bread, cattle, deer, fowl, garage, girl, hospital, meat, starve, team, voyage, wife.

Exercise 6. *Trace the process of:*
a) elevation of meaning in the following words.
Adore, fame, handsome, knight, marshal, minister, nice.
b) degradation of meaning of the following words.
Boor, gossip, idiot, silly, vulgar.

Reading & Summary

1. Антрушина Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. – Учеб. пособие для студентов. 3-е изд. – М. : Дрофа, 1999. – С. 129–165.
2. Арнольд И.В. Лесикология современного английского языка / И. В. Арнольд. – М. : Высш. шк., 1986. – С. 27–77.
3. Гороть Є. І. Нариси з лексикології сучасної англійської мови /Є. І. Гороть, С. В. Бєлова. – Луцьк: РВВ «Вежа» Волин. нац. ун-ту ім. Лесі Українки, 2008. – С. 22–39.
4. Зыкова И. В. Практический курс английской лексикологи / И. В. Зыкова. – М. : Издательский центр «Академия», 2008. – С. 11–33.
5. Jackson Howard, Etienne Zé Amvela. Words, Meaning and Vocabulary : An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology. – A&C Black – 2000 – P. 65–72.
6. Lipka Leonhard. An Outline of English Lexicology. An Outline of English Lexicology. – Max Niemeyer Verlag. – 1992. – P. 43–68.

SEMINAR 4
POLYSEMY. HOMONYMS. PARONYMS.

Items for Discussion

1. Polysemy
   1.1. Definition of Polysemy.
   1.2. Diachronic Approach VS Synchronic Approach to Polysemy.
   1.3. Semantic Structure of Polysemantic Word.
2. Homonyms
   2.1. Classification of Homonyms
   2.2. Sources of Homonymy
   2.3. Polysemy VS Homonymy
3. Paronyms

Glossary

Polysemy is plurality of meanings of a word.

Semantic structure (semantic paradigm) of a word is all the lexico-semantic variants of this word taken together.

Lexico-semantic variant of the word is one of the meanings of this word.

Homonyms are words identical in sound-form or spelling, or both in sound-form or spelling, but different in meaning.

Perfect (full, absolute) homonyms are words identical both in pronunciation and in spelling but different in meaning.

Homographs (heteronyms) are words identical in spelling but different in sound and meaning.

Homophones are words identical in sound-form but different in spelling and meaning.

Partial homonyms are words in which some word-forms are homonymous, but the whole paradigm is not identical.

Lexical homonyms are words identical in sound-form or spelling (belong to the same part of speech; the difference is confined to the lexical meaning only).

Grammatical homonyms are homonymic word-forms differing in grammatical meaning only.

Lexico-grammatical homonyms (homoforms) are identical only in some of their paradigm constituents, both lexical and grammatical meanings differ.

Partial homonyms are words in which some word-forms are homonymous, but the whole paradigm is not identical.

Patterned homonyms are homonyms formed either by means of conversion or by leveling of grammar inflexion.

Paronyms are words that are kindred both in sound-form and meaning and therefore are often confused because of their phonetic and semantic proximity though in fact.

Exercises

Exercise 1. *Comment on the phenomenon of homonymy. Arrange the following homonyms into three groups: a) perfect homonyms, b) homographs, c) homophones.*

Air (n), heir (n); ball (n), ball (n); be (v), bee (n); bear (n), bear (v); bow (n), bow (v); can (v), can (n); capital (n), capital (adj); dear (adj), deer (n); ear (n), ear (n); fir (n), fur (n); flat (n), flat (adj); hare (n), hair (n); heel (n), heal (v); here (adv), hear (v); I (pr), eye (n); lead (v), lead (v); lie (v), lie (v); minute (n), minute (adj); night (n), knight (n); pale (adj), pail (n); peace (n), piece (n); plant (n), plant (v); rain (n), reign (n); right (adj), write (v); row (n), row (v); sale (n), sail (n); sea (n), see (v); seal (n), seal (n); so (adv), sew (v); some (pr), sum (n); son (n), sun (n); tear (n), tear (v); week (n), weak (adj); well (n), well (adv); wind (n), wind (v); won (v), one (num); work (n), work (v).

Exercise 2. *Choose appropriate homophones.*

1. My (sole, soul) is dark. 2. Honey is (sweet, suite). 3. Don't (sale, sail) the (bear's, bears) skin before you have (court, caught) it. 4. After (reign, rain) comes fine (whether, weather). 5. (No, know) living man all things can. 6. Make hay while the (sun, son) shines. 7. (To, two) heads are better than (one, won). 8. Out of (site, sight) out of mind. 9. (Too, two) many cooks spoil the broth. 10. (New, knew) wine in old bottles. 11. One can (here, hear) the grass grow. 12. One's (hart, heart) goes into (once, one's) boots. 13. Like (father, farther) like (sun, son). 14. It never (reigns, rains) but it (paws, pours).

Exercise 3. *Comment on the phenomenon of paronymy. Make distinctions between the following paronyms.*

Bear – beer; bare – beer; canal – channel; career – carrier; cause – course; collar – colour; company – campaign; conscience – conscious; contents – context – contest; courage – carnage; coips – corpse; cost – coast; crash – crush; draught – draughts; draught

– drought; hare – heir; hair – hear; human – humane; lay – lie; law – low; lawyer – lower; major – mayor; modal – model; Paul – poll; pair – pier; pear – pier; personal – personnel; petrol – patrol; pour – poor; price – prize; quiet – quite; raise – rise; seize – cease; sell – sail; skirt – shirt; sergeant – surgeon; soil – soul; suit – suite.

*Exercise 5. Comment on the meanings of the adjective **loose** in the following sentences.*

1. One can buy milk loose or in packets. 2. I'm afraid I'll have to have my loose tooth out. 3. I find this translation to be very loose. 4. Try to fix the loose end of the rope to the wall. 5. My shoe lace got loose. 6. I've got some loose change in my pocket, but nothing else. 7. I Don't like his manners, they are rather loose. 8. The dog is too dangerous to be left loose. 9. The jacket is too loose in shoulders. 10. Does she always wear her hair loose? 11. He had been leading a loose life since he got married. 12. Calculations must be exact, not loose. 13. I can't make out anything, your handwriting is very loose. 14. This material is very loose, I Don't like it. 15. Be careful with this book, some of its pages have become loose. 16. To say so would be loose grammar. 17. What are you busy with at loose hours? 18. His cheeks are so loose after his illness. 19. She often has a loose tongue. 20. I hate tight clothes, I prefer loose ones.

*Exercise 6. Comment on the polysemy of the verb **to run.***

1. «What distance have you ran?» «I have ran a mile.» 2. Every morning he ran his cattle to the pasture. 3. After that attack the enemy ran. 4. Life runs smoothly for her. 5. This route runs every three minutes. 6. The traffic does not run today. 7. Time runs fast. 8. Thoughts ran in his head. 9. This tune is constantly running in my ear. 10. The news ran like lightning. 11. The rumour ran through the town. 12. I felt the blood running to my head. 13. This law runs for five years. 14. The road ran up to the hill. 15. The scar runs across his left cheek. 16. The wine ran all over the table. 17. This agreement has two years to run. 18. Rivers run into the sea. 19. Most British rivers ran eastwards. 20. Tears were running across her cheeks. 21. His face was running with sweat. 22. My pen Won't write, the ink Won't run. 23. Our conversation was running on the latest events. 24. The proverb runs: To run one's head into the lion's mouth. 25. Who runs the house in your family? 26. Have you run the car into the garage? 27. The motor runs smoothly. 28. This film has been running since Monday. 29. Trams run on rails.

Reading & Summary

1. Антрушина Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. – Учеб. пособие для студентов. 3-е изд. – М. : Дрофа, 1999. – С. 166–184.
2. Гороть Є. І. Нариси з лексикології сучасної англійської мови /Є. І. Гороть, С. В. Бєлова. – Луцьк: РВВ «Вежа» Волин. нац. ун-ту ім. Лесі Українки, 2008. – С. 37–43.
3. Зыкова И. В. Практический курс английской лексикологи / И. В. Зыкова. – М. : Издательский центр «Академия», 2008. – С. 29–34.

4. Jackson Howard, Etienne Zé Amvela. Words, Meaning and Vocabulary : An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology. – A&C Black – 2000 – P. 68–73.

5. Lipka Leonhard. An Outline of English Lexicology. An Outline of English Lexicology. – Max Niemeyer Verlag. – 1990. – P. 135–139.

SEMINAR 5
ENGLISH PHRASEOLOGY

Items for Discussion

1. Free Word-Groups. Structure of Free Word-Groups
2. Free Gord-Groups *VS* Set-Expressions
    2.1. Criteria of Set-Expressions
    2.2. Classification of Set-Expression.
    2.3. Ways of Forming Phraseological Units
3. Proverbs, Sayings, Familiar Quotations and Clichés

Glossary

Free word-groups are word combinations the component members possess semantic and structural independence (e.g. *a week ago, to take lessons, man of wisdom).*

Phraseological units (set-phrases) are non-motivated ready-made units which cannot be freely made up in speech.

Phraseological combinations are clearly motivated word-groups with a partially changed meaning (to make a mistake).

Phraseological fusions are demotivated word-groups with a completely changed meaning (at sixes and sevens = in confusion).

Phraseological unities are partially motivated word-groups with a completely changed meaning (to lose one's head = to be at a loss).

Proverb is a short familiar epigrammic saying expressing popular wisdom in a concise way.

Sayings are phrases which are devoid of generalised instructive or didactic meaning, they are often syntactically incomplete

Exercises

Exercise 1. Comment on the difference between phraseological fusions, phraseological unities and word combinations. Arrange the following phraseological units into three groups: 1) word combinations, 2) phraseological units, 3) phraseological fusions.

1. To see the world through rosy spectacles. 2. To show the white feather. 3. To kiss the hare's foot. 4. To call a spade a spade. 5. To make friends. 6. To take revenge. 7. A house of cards. 8. To make up one's mind. 9. To shed crocodile tears. 10. To commit

suicide. 11. Judas kiss. 12. To play the first fiddle. 13. To find faults with somebody. 14. The apple of one's eye. 15. To get in touch with somebody. 16. True to fact. 17. To dot the I's and cross the T's. 18. I am fed up with it! 19. A pretty kettle of fish. 20. To give way. 21. To nip in the bud. 22. To wash one's hands. 23. To rest on one's oars. 24. Let sleeping dogs lie. 25. To have all the trumps in one hand. 26. Between wind and water. 27. To lose one's way (temper). 28. To go a long way. 29. A slip of the tongue (pen). 30. Blank verse. 31. To establish control. 32. A hard nut to crack.

Exercise 2. Explain the meaning of the following phraseological units. Arrange them into groups according to their origin: 1) expressions associated with some customs; 2) expressions associated with some historical events; 3) expressions borrowed from some literary sources; 4) expressions borrowed from the Bible.

1. The land of promise. 2. Baker's dozen. 3. New wine in old bottles. 4. Ask for bread and be given a stone. 5. To beat the air. 6. To give the devil his due. 7. Vanity fair 8. Daily bread. 9. Forbidden fruit is sweet. 10. It rains cats and dogs. 11. To rob Peter to pay Paul. 12. Thirty pieces of silver. 13. To wash one's hands of something. 14. A prodigal son. 15. Something is rotten in the state of Denmark. 16. A thorn in the flesh of somebody. 17. To catch somebody red-handed. 18. Marriage is a lottery. 19. To fight the windmills. 20. Judas kiss.

Exercise 3. Comment on the etymology of the following phraseological units.

1. To carry coals to Newcastle. 2. A black sheep. 3. When queen Anne was alive. 4. To cut the Gordian knot. 5. Solomon's judgement. 6. A crooked sixpence. 7. To be born under a lucky star. 8. From the bottom of one's heart. 9. A peeping Tom. 10. To dance attendance on.

Exercise 4. State from what languages the following phraseological units were borrowed.

1. The horn of plenty. 2. Blue blood. 3. Through thick and thin. 4. Achilles' heel. 5. The apple of discord. 6. It goes without saying. 7. A storm in a tea-cup. 8. The fifth column. 9. A marriage of convenience. 10. Snake in the grass. 11. To lead somebody by the nose. 12. One's place in the sun. 13. To burn the candle at both ends. 14. The bed of Procrustes. 15. The game is not worth the candle. 16. To pull the devil by the tail.

Exercise 5. Classify the following phraseological units into: a) nominative, b) verbal, c) adjectival, d) adverbial.

To try one's hand at something; a great deal; a stony heart; to the last drop of blood; not to lift a finger; as brave as a lion; at long last; a bull in a china shop; a fish out of water; out of a clear sky; Indian summer; a dog in the manger; to hang in the balance; to live from hand to mouth; to the bitter end; the evil spirit; with all one's heart; a bed of roses; the king of beasts; by fits and starts; next door; to show one's true colours; flesh and blood; far and wide; to die a dog's death; in the long run; jack of all trades; to stir up a nest of hornets; odd fish; shed crocodile tears; to cause pain; blank wall; Dutch courage; like a shot; to

know on which side one's; bread is buttered; at sixes and sevens; at one's feet; from top to toe; to milk the ram; double dealing; German silver; by all means; in fact; inch by inch; at hand; sit like statue; soft as wax; melt as wax; hot as fire; live like a king.

Exercise 6. *Pick out synonymous proverbs.*

1. There is no place like home. 2. Accidents will happen in the best regulated families. 3. After death the doctor. 4. Appearances are deceptive. 5. The apples on the other side of the wall are the sweetest. 6. As a man lives, so shall he die. 7. East or West, but home is best. 8. As a man sows, shall he reap. 9. Good health is above wealth. 10. Well begun is half done. 11. A good beginning makes a good ending. 12. As you brew, so must you drink. 13. Beggares cannot be choosers. 14. Four eyes see more than two. 15. Two heads are better than one. 16. Better an egg today than a hen tomorrow. 17. Wealth is nothing without health. 18. Better a small fish than an empty dish. 19. As you make your bed, so you must lie on it. 20. A bird in the hand is better than two in the bush. 21. Catch the bear before you sell his skin. 22. Death ends all things. 23. Every dog has his day. 24. Death is the great leveller. 25. Deeds, not words. 26. Everything is good in its season. 27. Doing is better than saying. 28. Don't boast until you see the enemy dead. 29. Let sleeping dogs lie. 30. Don't touble trouble till trouble troubles you. 31. Dry bread at home is better than roast meat abroad. 32. Don't look a gift horse in the mouth. 33. No cross, no crown. 34. He that would eat the fruit must climb the tree. 35. Every family has a black sheep. 36. A fair face may hide a foul heart (soul). 37. First catch your hare, then cook him. 38. Forbidden fruit is sweet. 39. Half a loaf is better than no bread. 40. In the evening one may praise the day. 41. It is no use crying over spilt milk.

Reading & Summary

1. Антрушина Г.Б. Лексикология английского языка / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. – Учеб. пособие для студентов. 3-е изд. – М. : Дрофа, 1999. – С. 25–251.
2. Арнольд И.В. Лесикология современного английского языка / И. В. Арнольд. – М. : Высш. шк., 1986. – С. 165–182.
3. Гороть Є. І. Нариси з лексикології сучасної англійської мови /Є. І. Гороть, С. В. Бєлова. – Луцьк: РВВ «Вежа» Волин. нац. ун-ту ім. Лесі Українки, 2008. – С. 64–72.
4. Зыкова И. В. Практический курс английской лексикологи / И. В. Зыкова. – М. : Издательский центр «Академия», 2008. – С. 121–136.

RECOMMENDED LITERATURE

Essential

1. Антрушина Г. Б. Лексикология английского языка: учеб. пособие для студентов. – 3-е изд. / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова.– М. : Дрофа, 2001. – 288 с.

2. Арнольд И. В. Лесикология современного английского языка / И. В. Арнольд. – М. : Высш. шк., 1986. – 296 с.

3. Гороть Є. І. Нариси з лексикології сучасної англійської мови / Є. І. Гороть, С. В. Бєлова. – Луцьк: РВВ «Вежа» Волин. нац. ун-ту ім. Лесі Українки, 2008. – 372 с.

4. Гороть Є.І. Теоретична й практична лексикологія сучасної англійської мови / Є. І. Гороть, С. В. Гончарук, Л. К. Малімон, А.Є. Рогатюк, О. О. Рогач [за ред. Є. І. Гороть]. – Луцьк : Волин. нац. ун-т ім. Лесі Українки, 2011. – 340 с.

5. Зыкова И. В. Практический курс английской лексикологи / И. В. Зыкова. – М. : Издательский центр «Академия», 2008. – 288 с.

6. Мостовий М. І. Лексикологія англійської мови / М. І. Мостовий. – Харків : Основа, 1993. – 256 с.

7. Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика / А. Г. Ніколенко. – Вінниця : Нова книга, 2007. – 528 с.

8. Arnold I. V. The English Word / I. V. Arnold. – M., 1973. – 346 p.

9. Ginzburg R. S. A Course in Modern English Lexicology / R. S. Ginzburg, S. S. Khidekel, G. Y. Knyazeva, A. A. Sankin. – M., 1966. – 270 p.

10. Jackson Howard, Etienne Zé Amvela. Words, Meaning and Vocabulary : An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology. – A&C Black – 2000 – P. 65–72.

11. Lipka L. An Outline of English Lexicology. An Outline of English Lexicology / Leonhard Lipka. – Max Niemeyer Verlag. – 1990. – P. 43–68.

12. Poluzhyn M M. Lecture Notes on Historiography of Linguistics / M. M. Poluzhyn. – Вінниця : Вид-во «Фоліант», 2004. – 272 с.

Optional

1. Д'яков А. С. Основи термінотворення: Семантичні та соціолінгвістичні аспекти / А. С. Д'яков, Т. Р. Кияк, З. Б. Куделько. – К. : Вид. дім "КМ Academia", 2000.

2. Телия В. Н. Коннотативный аспект семантики номинативных единиц / В. Н. Телия . – М., 1981.

3. Харитончик З. А. Лексикология английского языка / З. А. Харитончик. – Минск, 1992.

Навчально-методичне видання

Nataliia Yefremova
Alla Pavliuk
Svitlana Sheludchenko
Valentyna Boichuk

ENGLISH
LEXICOLOGY

Teaching Aid for Part-time Students