LEXICOLOGY:
Матеріали до вивчення курсу
для студентів напрямів підготовки:
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Lexicology: Матеріали до вивченя курсу. Навчально-методичний посібник для студентів стаціонарної та заочної форми навчання напряму підготовки: 6.020303 Філологія (мова та література (англійська)), галузі знань – 0203 Гуманітарні науки. Укладач Л.О. Пашіс. – Черкаси: ЧНУ, 2014. – 106 с.

Навчально-методичний посібник укладено на допомогу студентам навчально-наукового інституту іноземних мов стаціонарної та заочної форми навчання, які вивчають курс «Лексикологія англійської мови». Навчально-методичний посібник складається з десяти лекцій, у яких подано теоретичний матеріал із загальних проблем курсу, планів семінарів зі списками літератури для підготовки та вправами, списку бібліографії та списку скорочень.

Рецензенти:
Цюра С.В. – кандидат філологічних наук, доцент кафедри іноземних мов Навчально-наукового інституту іноземних мов Черкаського національного університету ім. Богдана Хмельницького
Іванова І.В. – кандидат педагогічних наук, доцент кафедри соціально-гуманітарних наук Черкаського інституту банківської справи УБС НБУ (м. Київ)

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1.1 Lexicology and its tasks
Lexicology is the study of lexis i.e. its vocabulary or lexicon.

Greek *lexis* is 'word' and *logos* denotes 'learning, a department of knowledge'. Vocabulary = lexis = lexicon is the total word stock of the language.

Lexicology is 'the science of the words'. Lexicology studies not only the simple words in all their aspects, but it deals with **complex and compound** words, **the meaningful units** of the language, **etymology**, the study of the origin of words.

Lexicology as a branch of linguistics has its own aims and methods of scientific research. **Its basic task** is a study and systematic description of vocabulary in respect to its origin, development and current use. **Lexicology** is concerned with words, variable word-groups, phraseological units, with morphemes which make up words.

1.2 Two principal approaches
In the framework of lexicology, both **synchronic** (Gr. *syn* "together","with" and *chronos* "time") and **diachronic** or **historical** (Gr. **dia** "through") suggested by the Swiss philologist Ferdinand de Saussure are applied.

The synchronic approach is concerned with the vocabulary of a language as **it exists at a given time**, for instance, at the present time. It is special **Descriptive Lexicology** that deals with the vocabulary and vocabulary units of a particular language at a certain time. A Course in Modern English Lexicology is a course in special **Descriptive Lexicology**, as its object of study is the English vocabulary as it exists at the present time.

The diachronic approach deals with the changes and the development of vocabulary **in the course of time**. It is special **Historical Lexicology** that deals with the evolution of the vocabulary units of a language as time goes by. **An English Historical Lexicology** focuses on the origin of English vocabulary units, their change and development, the linguistic and extralinguistic factors modifying their structure, meaning and usage within the history of the English language.

1.3. Branches of Lexicology
✓ The general study of words and vocabulary, irrespective of the specific features of any particular language, is known as **general lexicology**. Linguistic phenomena and properties common to all languages are referred to as **language universals**.

✓ **Special lexicology** focuses on the description of the peculiarities in the vocabulary of a language.

✓ **Contrastive lexicology** provides a theoretical foundation on which the vocabularies of different languages can be compared and described. Its **priority** is the correlation between the vocabularies of two or more languages.

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

Etymology. The evolution of a vocabulary forms the object of **historical lexicology** or **etymology** (from Gr. etymon "true, real"), discussing **the origin** of various words, their **change and development**, examining the linguistic and extra-linguistic forces that **modify their structure, meaning and usage.**

Semasiology (from Gr. **semasia** "signification") is a branch of linguistics with subject-matter of the study of word **meaning** and the classification of changes in the signification of words or forms, viewed as normal and vital factors of any linguistic development. It is the most relevant to **polysemy and homonymy**.

Onomasiology is the study of the principles and regularities of the signification of things / notions by lexical and lexico-phraseological means of a given language. It has its special value in studying dialects, with relevance to **synonymity.**

2. A WORD AS A FUNDAMENTAL UNIT OF A LANGUAGE

Outline
2.1 Ambiguous nature of a word. Definitions of a word
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2.1 Ambiguous nature of a word. Definitions of a word

The real nature of a word and the term itself has always been one of **the most ambiguous** issues in almost every branch of linguistics.

The word has acquired **definitions** from the syntactic, semantic, phonological points of view as well as a definition combining **various approaches**.

Syntactical point of view:

H. Sweet: a word is *"the minimum sentence"*.

L. Bloomfield: a word is *"the minimum independent unit of utterance"*.

H. Sweet

E. Sapir concentrates on the **syntactic and semantic aspects** calling the word **"one of the smallest completely satisfying bits of isolated meaning, into which the sentence resolves itself".**

A purely **semantic** treatment is observed in **S. Ullmann's** explanation of words as *meaningful segments that are ultimately composed of meaningful units*.

The prominent French linguist **A. Meillet** combines **the semantic, phonological and grammatical criteria:**

"A word is defined by the association of a given meaning with a given group of sounds susceptible of a given grammatical employment".

Our native school of linguistics understands the word *as a dialectical double facet unit of form and content, reflecting human notions, and in this sense being considered as a form of their existence.*

E.Sapir
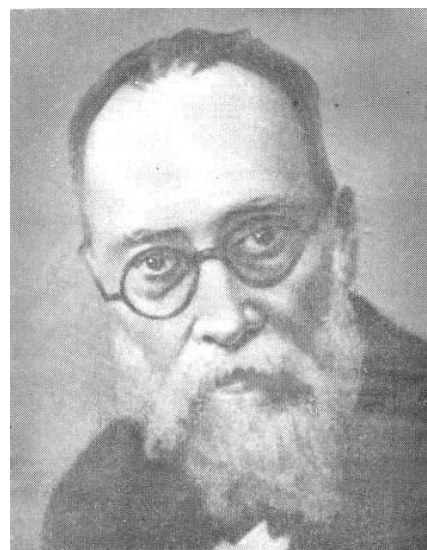
2.2 The nature of the word

First, the word is a unit of speech which serves the purposes of human communication. Thus, the word can be defined as **a unit of communication**. **Second,** the word can be perceived as **the total of the sounds which comprise it. Third**, the word, viewed structurally, **possesses several characteristics**.

A. Meillet

- **External + internal structure.**
  The modern approach to the word as double-facet unit is based on distinguishing between **the external** and **the internal structures of the word**. **The external structure** is **its morphological structure**.

E.g. in the word *post-impressionists* the following morphemes are distinguished:
prefixes *post-*, *im-*
the root *-press-*
the noun-forming **suffixes** *-ion*, *-ist*
and the **grammatical suffix** of plurality *-s*.

The internal structure of the word, or **its meaning**, is commonly referred to as **the word's semantic structure**. This is the word's main aspect. Words can serve the purposes of human communication solely due to their meanings.

- Another structural aspect of the word is **its unity**. The word possesses both its **external** (or formal) unity and **semantic** unity. The formal unity of the word is sometimes interpreted as **indivisibility.**

E.g. *a blackbird* vs *a black bird*
The word *blackbird*, which is characterized by unity, possesses a single grammatical framing: *blackbirds*. The first constituent *black* is not subject to any grammatical changes.

In the word-group *a black bird* each constituent can acquire grammatical forms of its own: *the blackest bird I've ever seen*. Other words can **be inserted** between the components: *a black night bird*.

- **Semantic unity.** The same example may be used to illustrate what we mean **by semantic unity.** In the word-group *a black bird* each of the meaningful words conveys a separate concept: *bird* – a kind of living creature; *black* – a color.

The word *blackbird* conveys only one concept: the type of bird. This is one of the main features of any word:it always conveys **one concept**, no matter how many component morphemes it may have in its external structure.

- A further structural feature of the word is **its susceptibility to grammatical employment**. In speech most words can be used in different grammatical forms in which their interrelations are realized.

 The main formal/structural properties of the word are:
1) *isolatability:*
words can function in isolation, can make a sentence of their own under certain circumstances;
2) *inseparability/unity:*
words are characterized by some integrity, e.g. *a light – alight (with admiration)*;
3) a certain *freedom of distribution:*
exposition in the sentence can be different
4) *susceptibility to grammatical employment*

A word as one of the fundamental units of the language is **a *double facet unit*** of *form* (**its external** structure) **and** *meaning* (its **internal/semantic** structure).

Thus**, a word** is the smallest naming unit of a language with a more or less free distribution used for the purposes of human communication, materially representing a group of sounds, possessing a meaning, susceptible to grammatical employment and characterized by formal and semantic unity.

2.3 Four basic kinds of words:
1) **orthographic words:** words distinguished from each other by their spelling;
2) **phonological words**: distinguished from each other by their pronunciation;
3) **word-forms** which are grammatical variants;
4) **words as items of meaning**, the headwords of dictionary entries, called **lexemes**.

A lexeme is a group of words united by the common lexical meaning, but having different grammatical forms. The base forms of such words, represented either by one orthographic word or

a sequence of words are called **multi-word lexemes** which have to be considered as single lexemes (e.g. phrasal verbs, some compounds).

Any language is a system of systems consisting of two subsystems:

1) the system of words' possible lexical meanings, **the semantic structure**

2) the system of words' grammatical forms, **its paradigm.**

Semantics is the study of meaning. Modern approaches to this problem are characterized by two different levels of study: **syntagmatic and paradigmatic.**

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

On the **paradigmatic level**, the word is studied in its relationships with other words in the vocabulary system. So, a word may be studied in comparison with other words of **a similar meaning** (e. g. *work,* n. – *labor,* n.; *to refuse,* v. – *to reject* v. – to *decline,* v.), **of opposite meaning** (e. g. *busy,* adj. – *idle,* adj.; *to accept,* v. – *to reject,*v.), **of different stylistic characteristics** (e. g. *man,* n. – *chap,* n. – *bloke,* n. — *guy,* n.).

Thus, the key problems of paradigmatic studies are **synonymy, antonymy, and functional styles.**

4. Inner structure of the word

The word consists of **morphemes**. The term **morpheme** is derived from Greek **morphe** (form) + **-eme**. The Greek suffix **-eme** denotes the smallest significant or **distinctive** unit.

The morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit which has a sound form and meaning and occurs in speech only as a part of a word. **A morpheme** is an association of a given **meaning** with a given **sound** pattern. But unlike a word it is **not autonomous.**

Morphemes occur in speech only as **constituent parts** of words, **not independently**, although a word may consist of a single morpheme. They are **not divisible** into smaller meaningful units. So the morpheme is the minimum **double**-**facet** (form/meaning) meaningful language unit that can be subdivided into **phonemes.**

Phonemes are the smallest single-facet distinctive units of language with no meaning of their own. So there are **3 lower levels** of a language

- a phoneme,
- a morpheme,
- a word.

A morpheme is considered to **be free** if it may stand alone without changing its meaning; if not, it is **a bound morpheme** because it is always bound to something else. For example, *sport, sportive, elegant* may **occur alone** as utterances, whereas their parts *eleg-, -ive, -ant* are bound morphemes because they **never occur alone.**

L. Bloomfield

2.5 The method of morphemic analysis

Words are segmented into morphemes with the help of **the method of morphemic analysis.** Its **aim** is to split the word into its constituent morphemes and to determine their number and types. This is accomplished by the procedure known as **the analysis into immediate constituents** (ICs), first suggested by **L. Bloomfield.** The procedure consists of several stages:

- **segmentation** of words;
- **identification** of morphs;
- **classification** of morphemes.

The procedure generally used to segment words into the constituting morphemes is **the method of Immediate and Ultimate Constituents**. It 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 the analysis is in its turn broken **into two smaller meaningful** elements. This analysis is completed when we arrive at constituents **incapable of any further division**, i.e. morphemes. They are called the **Ultimate Constituents** (UCs).

The analysis of the morphemic structure of words reveals:
- the **ultimate** meaningful constituents (UCs),
- their typical **sequence and arrangement**,
- but it does not show the way a word is constructed.

Word Segmentability

Segmentable words are those allowing of segmentation into morphemes,
e.g. *information, unputdownable, silently*
Non-segmentable words are those not allowing of such segmentation, e.g. *boy, wife, call*.
Three types of segmentation of words:
✓ **complete**
✓ **conditional**
✓ **defective**

Complete segmentability is characteristic of words whose morphemic **structure is transparent** enough as their individual morphemes clearly stand out within the word lending themselves easily to isolation. Its constituent morphemes recur with the same meaning in many other words, e.g. *establish**ment**, agree**ment***.

Conditional morphemic segmentability characterizes words whose segmentation into constituent morphemes is **doubtful for semantic reasons,**
e.g. In the words *retain, detain*, or *receive, deceive* the sound-clusters [ri], [di], on the one hand, can be **singled out quite easily** due to their recurrence in a number of words, on the other hand, they have **nothing in common** with the phonetically identical morphemes ***re-. de-*** as found in words like *rewrite, reorganize, decode, deurbanize*; Neither the sound-clusters [ri], [di] nor the sound-clusters [-tein], [si:v]have any lexical or functional meaning of their own.

The morphemes making up words of **complete** segmentability do not reach **the full status of morphemes** for the semantic reason. They are called **pseudomorphemes** or **quasimorphemes.**

Defective morphemic segmentability is the property of words whose unique morphemic components **seldom or never** recur in other words,
e.g. *cranberry, gooseberry, strawberry*.

Defective morphemic segmentability is obvious due to the fact that the morphemes ***cran-, goose-, straw-*** are unique morphemes.

Thus, on the level of morphemic analysis there are two types of elementary units: **full morphemes** and **pseudo- (quasi-)morphemes.**

A great number of words of **conditional** and **defective** segmentability reveal a complex nature of the morphological system of the English language, representing various **heterogeneous layers** in its vocabulary.

Identification of Morphs

The second stage of morphemic analysis is **identification of morphs**. The main criteria here are **semantic and phonetic similarity.** Morphs should have **the same denotational** meaning, but their **phonemic shape** can vary.
e.g.   *please, pleasing   pleasure, pleasant*
Phonetically conditioned positional morpheme variants are called **allomorphs**. They occur in a specific environment, being **identical in meaning or function** and characterized by **complementary distribution,**
e.g. the prefix **in-** (*intransitive*) can be represented by such **allomorphs:**
il-   *il*literate

im- *im*possible
ir- *ir*regular
Classification of Morphemes
The final stage of the procedure of the morphemic analysis is **classification of morphemes.**
Morphemes can be classified from different points of view (POV).
1. Semantic POV: roots and affixes
A root is the **lexical nucleus** of a word bearing the major individual meaning common to a set of semantically related words, constituting one word-family, e.g. *learn – learner – learned – learnable*; *heart, hearten, dishearten, heart-broken, hearty, kind-hearted etc.* with which no grammatical properties of the word are connected. The peculiarity of English as a unique language is explained by its analytical language structure – morphemes are often **homonymous with independent units (words**). A morpheme that is homonymous with a word is called **a root morpheme**. **A root** is the **ultimate constituent** which remains after the removal of all functional and derivational affixes and does not admit any further analysis.
A stem is that **part of the word** that remains unchanged throughout its paradigm (formal aspect):
heart – hearts – to one's heart's content vs. *hearty – heartier – the heartiest*
It is the basic unit at the derivational level, taking the inflections that shape the word grammatically as a part of speech.
There are three **types of stems**: simple, derived and compound.
Simple stems are semantically non motivated and do not constitute a pattern on analogy with which new stems may be modeled: e.g. *pocket, motion, receive*. Simple stems are generally monomorphic and phonetically identical with the root morphemes (*sell, grow, kink,* etc.).
Derived stems are built on stems of various structures, they are motivated, i.e. derived stems are understood on the basis of the derivative relations between their immediate constituents and the correlated stems. Derived stems are mostly polymorphic (e.g. *governments, unbelievable*, etc.).
Compound stems are made up of two immediate constituents, both of which are themselves stems, e.g. *match-box, pen-holder*, *ex-film-star*, etc. It is built by joining two stems, one of which is simple, the other is derived.
The derivational types of words are classified according to the structure of their stems into simple, derived and compound words. Derived words are those composed of one root-morpheme and one or more derivational morphemes. Compound words have at least two root-morphemes, the number of derivational morphemes being insignificant.

Structural types of words
- **simple words**: single root morphemes, e.g. *agree, child, red*, etc.
  Root word has only a root morpheme in its structure. This type is widely represented by a great number of words belonging to the original English stock or to earlier borrowings: *e.g. house, room, book, work, port*.
  In Modern English, it has been greatly enlarged by the type of wordbuilding called conversion: *to hand, v.* formed from the noun *hand; can, v.* from *can,* n.; *to pale,* v. from *pale*, adj.; *a find,* n. from *to find,* v.
- **derivatives**: affixational derived words consisting of one or more affixes: e.g. *enjoyable, childhood, unbelievable.* Derived words are extremely numerous in the English vocabulary.
- **compound words**. Compound words consist of two or more stems e. g. *dining-room, bluebell, mother-in-law, good-for-nothing.* Words of this structural type are produced by the word-building process called composition.
- **compound derivatives**. Derivational compounds are words in which components are joined together by means of compounding and affixation: e.g. *ovalshaped, strong-willed.*
- **phrasal verbs**: *to put up with; to give up; to take for.*

Affixes

The affix, that is a type of morpheme, is generally defined as the smallest indivisible component of the word possessing a meaning of its own.

Meanings of affixes are specific and considerably differ from those of root morphemes. Affixes have widely generalized meanings and refer the concept conveyed by the whole word to a certain category, which is all-embracing,

e.g. noun-forming suffix -er could be roughly defined as designating persons from the object of their occupation or labor:

painter – the one who paints

or from their place of origin:

southerner – the one living in the South.

The adjective-forming suffix *–ful* has the meaning of "full of", "characterized by": *beautiful, careful; -ish* may often mean "simply insufficiency of quality": *greenish – green, but not quite.*

There are numerous derived words whose meanings can really be easily deduced from the meanings of their constituent parts. But such cases represent only the first stage of semantic readjustment within derivatives.

The constituent morphemes within derivatives do not always preserve their current meanings and are open to subtle and complicated semantic shifts,

e.g. *bookish:*(1) *given or devoted to reading or study;*

(2) *more acquainted with books than with real life, i.e. possessing the quality of bookish learning.*

There are semantic distinctions of words produced from the same root by means of different affixes. Compare: *womanly* (used in a complimentary manner about girls and women) – *womanish* (used to indicate an effeminate man and certainly implies criticism);

starry (resembling stars) – *starred* (covered or decorated with stars).

There are a few roots in English which have developed a great combining ability in the position of the second element of a word and a very general meaning similar to that of an affix. These are semi-affixes because semantically, functionally, structurally and stylistically they behave more like affixes than like roots, determining the lexical and grammatical class the word belongs to.

- *-man: cameraman, seaman*
- *-land: Scotland, motherland*
- *-like: ladylike, flowerlike*
- *-worthy: trustworthy, praiseworthy*
- *-proof: waterproof, bulletproof*

2. Position POV

According to their position affixational morphemes fall into:

- **suffixes** – derivational morphemes following the root and forming a new derivative in a different part of speech or a different word class, e.*g. writer, rainy, magnify*
- **infixes** – affixes placed within the word, *e.g. adapt-a-tion, assimil-a-tion*
- **prefixes** – derivational morphemes that precede the root and modify the meaning, e.g. *decipher, illegal, unhappy*

The process of affixation itself consists in coining a new word by adding an affix or several affixes to a root morpheme. Suffixation is more productive than prefixation in Modern English.

3. Functional POV:
- ✓ derivational morphemes
- ✓ functional morphemes

Derivational morphemes are affixal morphemes that serve to make a new part of speech or create another word in the same one, modifying the lexical meaning of the root, e.g. *to teach - teacher; possible - impossible*.

Functional morphemes, i.e. grammatical ones/inflections that serve to build grammatical forms, the paradigm of the word, e.g. *has broken; oxen; clues.* They carry only grammatical meaning and are relevant only for the formation of words. Some functional morphemes have a dual character. They are called functional word-morphemes – auxiliaries: e.g. *is, are, have, will.* The main function of them is to build analytical structures.

4. Structural POV:
- ✓ **free morphemes** which can stand alone as words in isolation (e.g. *"friend"* in *friendly, friendship*)
- ✓ **bound morphemes** that occur only as word constituents (e.g. *misinterpret*)

In modern English there are many morphemes of Greek and Latin origin possessing a definite lexical meaning though not used autonomously:

tele-   far   (television)
-scope   seeing   (microscope)
-graph   writing (typography)

Such morphemes are called combining forms – bound linguistic forms though in Greek and Latin they functioned as independent words.

5. Etymological POV: native and borrowed

Frequent Native Suffixes	Frequent Borrowed Affixes
-er *worker, miner, teacher, painter* -ness *coldness, loneliness, loveliness* -ing *meaning, singing, reading* -dom *freedom, wisdom, kingdom* -hood *childhood, manhood, motherhood,* -ful *joyful, wonderful, sinful, skilful* -less *careless, helpless, cloudless*	**Latin Affixes** The prefix dis- *disable, disagree, disown* The suffix -able *curable, capable, adorable* The suffix -ate *congratulate, create, appreciate* The suffix -ute *contribute, constitute, attribute*
-y *cozy, tidy, merry, snowy* -ish *English, Spanish, reddish, childish* -ly *lonely, lovely, ugly, likely* -en *woolen, silken, golden* -some *handsome, quarrelsome, tiresome* -en *redden, darken, sadden*	**French Affixes** the prefix en- *enable, ensure, enfoldment* the suffix -ous *joyous, courageous, serious* the suffix -ess *hostess, tigress, adventuress*

6. Productivity POV: productive and nonproductive
Productivity is the ability to form new words after existing patterns which are readily understood by the speakers of a language.

Productive affixes are those which take part in deriving new words in this particular period of language development. The best way to identify productive affixes is to look for them among neologisms and the so-called nonce-words, i.e. words coined and used only for this particular occasion. E.g. an *unputdownable thriller* is evidence of the high productivity of the adjective-forming borrowed suffix *-able* and the native prefix *un-*
- ✓ *Professor Pringle was a thinnish, baldish, dispeptic-lookingish cove with an eye like a   haddock.*
- ✓ *I don't like Sunday evenings: I feel so Mondayish.*

There are quite a number of high-frequency affixes which, nevertheless, are no longer used in word-derivation, e. g. the adjective-forming native suffixes *-ful, -ly*; the adjective-forming suffixes of Latin origin *-ant, -ent, -al.*

Productive Affixes	Non-Productive Affixes
Noun-forming suffixes: **-er, -ing, -ness, -ism -ist**	Noun-forming suffixes: **-th, -hood**
Adjective-forming suffixes: **-y, -ish, -ed** *(learned)*, **-able, -less**	Adjective-forming suffixes: **-some, -en, -ous**
Adverb-forming suffixes: **-ly**	Verb-forming suffix: **-en**
Verb-forming suffixes: **-ize/-ise** *(realize)* **-ate** *(facilitate)*	
Prefixes: **un-** *(unhappy)*, **re-** *(reconstruct)*, **dis-** *(disunite)*	

3. WORD STOCK FORMATION
Outline
3.1 Morphological word formation:
- Affixation (suffixation, prefixation, suffixation-and-prefixation).
- Back formation.
- Abbreviation (aphaeresis, apocopy).
- Compounding (compound-derived words, abbreviated compounds, acronyms, initialisms).
- Blending.
- Compound word vs. a word combination.

3.2 Semantic word formation.
- Generalization of meaning.
- Specification of meaning.
- Transposition.
- Conversion.

3.3 Borrowing:
- Borrowings proper.
- Translation loans.
- Semantic loans.
- Barbarisms.

3.1 Morphological word formation

Morphological word formation is the formation of the words with the help of combining morphemes.

- **Affixation** is adding a suffix or a prefix or both to the word stem.

Suffixation is adding a suffix to the end of a stem, e.g. *employee, equipment, threefold, criticize*

Prefixation is adding a prefix at the beginning of the word stem, e.g. *unpleasant, enroll, foresee, overestimate subdivide, impossible*.

Suffixation-and-prefixation is adding of a suffix and prefix to the word stem,
e.g. *unspeakable, disconnection, impossibility overproduction*.

- **Back formation** is formation of a new word from an older and more complex form, e.g.

beggar – to beg	*baby-sitter – to baby-sit*
editor – to edit	*forced landing – to force land*
television – to televise	*blood-transfusion – to blood-transfuse*
rover -- to rove	*finger printings – to fingerprint*
peddlar – to peddle	

- **Abbreviation (clipping, shortening, contraction)** is deriving the new word by cutting off a part of the initial word. Omission of the beginning of the word is called **aphaeresis** / ə'fɪerɪsɪs/ **(fore-clipping),**

e.g. *telephone – phone*
   refrigerator – fridge
   aeroplane – plane

Omission of the last part of the word is called **apocope** /ə'pokəpɪ/ **(back-clipping),**
e.g. laboratory – lab
   doctor – doc
   dormitory – dorm
   camera – cam

advertisement – ad

- **Compounding** is deriving a new word that consists of a combination of stems, e.g. *dark-grey, sunlit, broadcast, whitewash , Anglo-Saxon, into, anything.*

Compounding is one of the most productive types (other productive types are conversion and affixation). **Compound-derived** words are the words with the affix added to the compound stem,
e.g. *housekeeper, trustworthy, heart-breaking*

Compounds are not homogeneous in structure. Traditionally three types are distinguished: **neutral, morphological** and **syntactic.**

In **neutral compounds** the process of compounding is realized without any linking elements by a mere juxtaposition of two stems, e.g. *blackbird, shop-window, sunflower, bedroom*

Subtypes of neutral compounds are:
- **Simple neutral compounds**: they consist of simple affixless stems.
- Compounds which have affixes in their structure are called **derived** or **derivational compounds,** e.g. *absent-mindedness, blue-eyed, golden-haired, broadshouldered, film-goer, music-lover*

The productivity of this type is confirmed by a considerable number of comparatively **recent formations**,
e.g. *teenager, babysitter, fourseater* (a car or a boat with four seats), *double-decker* (a ship or bus with two decks).

Nonce-words are coined on this pattern which is another proof of its **high productivity,**
e. g. *luncher-out* (a person who habitually takes his lunch in restaurants and not at home),
   goose-flesher (murder story),
   attention getter, go-getter (a pushing person),
   do-it-yourselfism,
   dressuppable.

Contracted compounds have a shortened (**abbreviated**) stem in their structure,
e.g. *TV-set /-program/ -show*
   V-day (Victory day),
   G-man (Government man, FBI agent),
   T-shirt
   Hbag (handbag)

Acronyms are words that are composed of the first letters of some words,
e.g**.** *NATO (North Atlantic treaty Organization),*
   UNESCO (United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organization),
   AIDS (acquired immune deficiency syndrome),
   Scuba (self-contained underwater breathing apparatus).

Initialisms are an extreme kind of clipping. Only the initial letters of the words are put together and used as words. They are pronounced with the letters of the alphabet, e.g.

AI (artificial intelligence)	*USA*
BP (blood pressure)	*BBC*
VIP (very important person)	*MP*
gf (girl friend)	*UNO*

Morphological compounds are few in number. This type is **non-productive**. It is represented by words in which two compounding stems are combined by a **linking vowel or consonant**,
e. g.   *Angl**o**-Saxon,*
   *Frank**o**-Prussian,*

> *handiwork, handicraft,*
> *craftsmanship, spokesman, statesman.*

Syntactic compounds are formed from segments of speech, preserving in their structure numerous traces of syntagmatic relations typical of speech: **articles, prepositions, adverbs**, *e.g.*

lily-of-the-valley	*pick-me-up*
Jack-of- all-trades	*know-all*
good-for-nothing	*go-between*
mother-in-law	*get-together*
sit-at-home	*whodunit (*a detective story)

> *e.g. Randy managed to weave through a maze of **one-way-streets, no-left-turns, and no-stopping-zones.***

Blending is a special type of compounding when two elements are combined into a new word with a particular meaning. The constituent parts are easily identifiable. Such words are called **telescopic** words, e.g.

slimnastics	*(slim + gymnastics)*	*slanguage*	*(slang + language)*
brunch	*(breakfast + lunch)*	*Reaganomics*	*(Reagan + economics)*
smog	*(smoke + fog)*	*workaholic*	*(work + alcoholic)*
motel	*(motor + hotel)*	*foodoholic*	*(food + alcoholic)*

A compound vs a word-combination

With the exception of the rare morphological type compounds originate directly from word combinations and are often homonymous to them:

e.g. *a tall boy* — ***a tallboy** (a high chest of drawers made in two sections and placed one on top of the other; chest-on-chest)*

Criteria to distinguish a compound from a word combination are the following:

➢ The **graphic** criterion. In many cases we **cannot** wholly rely on it. The spelling of many compounds can be varied even within the same book,
solid: *headmaster*
with a hyphen: *head-master*
with a break*: head master*

➢ The **semantic** criterion is more reliable. A compound expresses **one concept** while a word group conveys **two or more concepts.** E.g. *dirty-work* "dishonorable proceedings" vs dirty work.

➢ The **phonetic** criterion is convincingly applicable to many compound nouns. There is a strong tendency for compounds to have **a heavy stress on the first** syllable,
'blackboard,'blackbird, 'honeymoon, 'doorway
But there can be **a double stress**, e.g. in compound adjectives, *gray-green, easy-going*

➢ **Morphological and syntactic criteria.** In word groups each of the constituents is **independently open** to grammatical changes; between the constituent parts of the word-group other words can be inserted while in compounds it is **impossible.**

Only **several criteria** – semantic, morphological, syntactic, phonetic, and graphic can convincingly classify a lexical unit as either a compound word or a word group.

Degree of semantic independence

From the point of view of degree of semantic independence there are two types of relationships between the immediate constituents (ICs) of compounds: **coordination** and **subordination.**

In **coordinative compounds** the two ICs are semantically equally important (e.g. *oak-tree, boyfriend, Anglo-American*, etc.).

Coordinative compounds fall into three groups:

1. **Additive compounds** that are built on stems of the independently functioning words of the same part of speech,

e.g. *Afro-Asian, secretary-stenographer, a queenbee.*

2. **Reduplicative compounds** that are made up by the repetition of the same base,

e.g. *goody-goody (a smugly virtuous person), fifty-fifty, hush-hush.*

3. **Phonetically variated rhythmic twin forms.** These compounds are formed by joining the phonetically variated rhythmic twin forms which either alliterate with the same initial consonant but vary the vowels (e.g. *zig-zag, sing-song*), or rhyme by varying the initial consonants,

e.g. *walkie-talkie,*

fuddy-duddy (a person, esp an elderly one, who is extremely conservative or dull),

hoity-toity (arrogant or haughty)

In **subordinative compounds** the components are neither structurally nor semantically equal in significance but are based on the **domination of the headmember** which is, as a rule, the second IC. The **second IC** is the semantically and grammatically dominant part of the word, which **preconditions the part-of-speech** meaning of the whole compound, e.g. *stone-deaf, a baby-sitter*

From the **functional** point of view compounds are viewed as words of different parts of speech. It is **the head-member** of the compound (the second IC) that is indicative of the lexical and grammatical category the compound belongs to. Compounds can be found in all parts of speech, but the bulk of compounds are **nouns and adjectives.**

Compound nouns

N+N *night-club, airhostess* (this pattern is the most productive)

Adj + N *deadline, sweet-heart*

V + N *push-cart, fly-wheel (махове колесо)*

Ving + N *living room, blotting paper*

Compound adjectives

N + V-ing *law-breaking, horseracing*

N + A *show-white, sky-blue*

A + A *red-hot, social linguistic*

A + N-ed *long-legged, navy-eyed*

N + V-ed *crisis-ridden, hand-made*

N/A/Adv/Pron + V-ing *self-denying, peace-making, joy-causing, easy-going, everlasting*

Compound **adverbs**, **pronouns** are represented by an insignificant number of words, e.g. *anything, inside, upright, somebody, otherwise, moreover, elsewhere, anything*

V + Prep

A very characteristic development of Modern English is the growth of **separable verbs** of different types. This term suggested by **W.N. Francis** in his work "The structure of American English". Verbs of the type V + Prep function as simple ones . The most essential and typical in the class are verbs with **postpositive particles**, *back, down, in, off, on, out, up.* Some scholars call them **verb-adverb** combinations. Other terms are **merged verbs, separable compounds, compound verbs and phrasal verbs**.

3.2 Semantic word formation

Semantic word formation is the formation of **new meanings** of a lexeme. A new meaning results from generalization or specifying the earlier meaning.

Generalization of meaning

Generalization of meaning is extending the previous meaning and making it more abstract.

e.g. *picture* 'smth painted' > any 'visual image'

manuscript: 'smth handwritten' > 'any author's copy written or typed'

to arrive (French borrowing) "to come to shore, to land" >the general meaning "to come",

e.g. *to arrive in a village, town, city, country, at a hotel, hostel, college, theatre, place*, etc.

pipe: "a musical wind instrument" > any "hollow oblong cylindrical body", e.g. *water pipes*

In MidE *girl* had the meaning of "a small child of **either sex**" Now >"a small child of the **female sex**". So the range of meaning was somewhat **narrowed**. In its further semantic development the word gradually **broadened** its range of meaning, *a young unmarried woman > any young woman*, in modern colloquial English, *woman.*

Specification/ narrowing

Specification/ narrowing of the meaning occurs when a word of wide meaning acquires a narrower sense in which it is applicable **only to some** of the entities it previously denoted,

Deer: any beast > a certain kind of beast

Meat: any food > a certain food product

Boy: any young person of the male sex > servant of the male sex

Transposition occurs when an item develops **a new sense** within one and **the same part of speech**. The new sense results **neither** from specification **nor** from generalization of meaning. Its meaning relates to the previous meaning via contiguity " суміжність" (**metonymy**) or likeness (**metaphor).**

Leg: part of a body > leg of the table

Arm > arm of the chair

Eye > needle eye

Avenue > avenue to fame

Screw > screw (about the person)

Dish (plate) > dish (meal)

Conversion is a process of word-formation in which the word comes to belong to a **new word class** without addition of any affix. The words changes its part of speech **meaning** and the **formal grammatical** features**.**

N > V are the most numerous, e.g. *hand > to hand, back>to back, face >to face, eye > to eye, monkey > to monkey, blackmail >to blackmail, honeymoon > to honeymoon,*	**V > N** *to do > do* (event, incident) e. g. *This is the queerest do I've ever come across.* *to go > go* (energy) e. g. *He has still plenty of go at his age.* *to make > make, to run >run, to find > find, to catch >catch*	**A > V** *pale >to pale, yellow > to yellow, cool > to cool, grey > to grey, rough > to rough* e. g. *We decided to rough it in the tents as the weather was warm*

Conversion may be accompanied by the **change of stress**,

′object > to ob′ject

′import > to im′port

3. Borrowing

Borrowing is the process of introduction of the word from one language (**source**) into another (**target**) language. This word **is modified** in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language, *paper < Fr papier*

Translation-loans are words and expressions made from the material available in the language **after the patterns characteristic of the given language, but** under the influence of some foreign words and expressions. They are **morpheme-for-morpheme** or **word-for-word translations** form the source language.

> e.g**.** *mother tongue < lingua maternal (Latin)*
> *wall newspaper < стенгазета (Russian)*
> *the fair sex < la beau sexe (French)*

Semantic borrowing

Semantic borrowing is the appearance of a **new meaning** due to the influence of a related word in another language, e.g. *bureau* is used in the political vocabulary, as in ***Political bureau*** (Russian)

Barbarisms are words and phrases **not assimilated** by the target language. They have the form which they had in the source language,

> E.g. Latin *p.m.*
> *Tabula rasa (an opportunity for a fresh start; clean slate)*
> *persona non grata*
> *De facto, de jure*
> Japanese *hara-kiri, sushi*
> French *coup d'etat, rendez-vous*

4. LEXICOGRAPHY
Outline
4.1 Lexicography. History of British lexicography.
4.2 History of American lexicography.
**4.3 Major lexicography issues.**
4.4 Types of dictionaries.

1. Lexicography. History of British lexicography.

Lexicography is an important branch of linguistics which covers the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries.

The history of lexicography goes back to **Old English** where its first traces are found in the form of glosses of religious books with interlinear translation from Latin. Regular bilingual **English-Latin** dictionaries already existed in the **15th** century.

The first unilingual English dictionary, explaining words appeared **in 1604.** It was "A table alphabetical, containing and teaching the true writing and understanding of hard usual English words borrowed from the Hebrew, Greece, Latin or French". This dictionary of 120 pages explaining about 3000 words was compiled by **Robert Cawdrey**, a schoolmaster. Robert Cawdrey's Table Alphabetical was the first single-language English dictionary ever published.
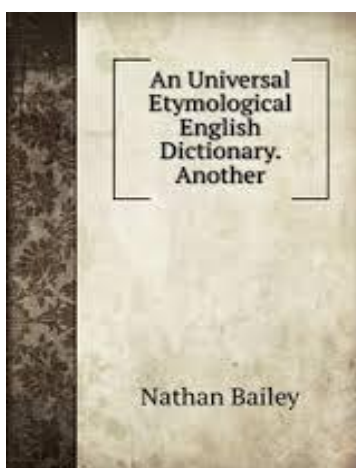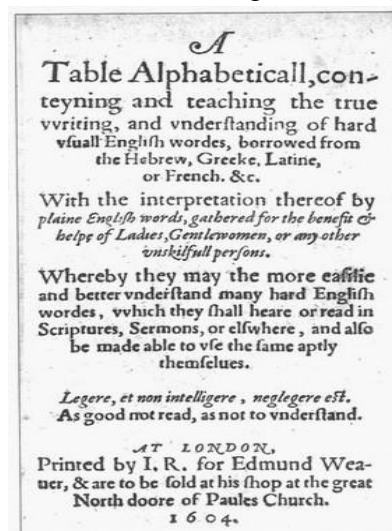
Etymological Dictionary

Nathaniel Bailey published the first edition of *Universal Etymological English Dictionary* in 1721. It was the first to include pronunciation and etymology. It was a little over 900 pages long. In compiling his dictionary, Bailey borrowed greatly from John Kersey's Dictionarium Anglo-Britannicum (1706), which in turn drew from the later editions of Edward Phillips's The New World of English Words. Like Kersey's dictionary, Bailey's dictionary was one of the first monolingual English dictionaries to focus on defining words in common usage, rather than just difficult words.

Although Bailey put the word "etymological" in his title, he gives definitions for many words without also trying to give the word's etymology. A very high percentage of the etymologies he does give are consistent with what's in today's English dictionaries.

In 1727, Bailey published a supplementary volume entitled The Universal Etymological English Dictionary, Volume II. Volume II, almost 900 pages, has some duplication or overlap with the primary volume, but mostly consists of extra words of lesser circulation.

Explanatory dictionary

The **first big explanatory** dictionary *"A Dictionary of the English Language in Which the Words are Deduced from Their Originals and Illustrated in Their General Significations by Examples from the Best Writers: In 2 vols."* was complied
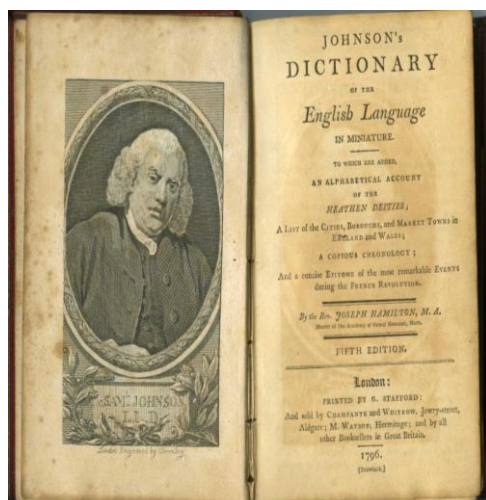
by Dr **Samuel Johnson** and published in 1755.

The most important **innovation** of S. Johnson's Dictionary was the introduction of illustrations of the meanings of the words by **examples from the best writers** (around 114,000 quotations). Pronunciation was not marked, because S. Johnson was sure of the wide **variety** of the English pronunciation and thought it was impossible to set up a standard there. He paid attention only to those aspects of vocabulary where he believed he could improve linguistic usage. **S. Johnson's** influence was tremendous. He remained the unquestionable authority for more than 75 years. When it came out the book was huge, not just in scope but also in size. Johnson himself pronounced the book "Vasta mole superbus" ("Proud in its great bulk").

Pronouncing dictionary

The first pronouncing dictionary was published in 1780 by **Thomas Sheridan**, an Irish stage actor, educator and a major proponent of the elocution movement. He is the grandfather of the great dramatist. The title page of the dictionary says "A complete dictionary of the English language with regard to sound and meaning. One main object of which is to establish a plain and permanent standard of pronunciation to which is prefixed a prosodial grammar."

In 1791 there appeared *The Critical Pronouncing Dictionary and Expositor of the English Language* **by John Walker,** an actor.

Oxford English Dictionary

The Golden Age of English lexicography began in the last quarter of the 19th century when the English Philological Society started work on compiling **The Oxford English Dictionary (OED)** which was originally named *New English Dictionary on Historical Principles* (NED). It is still referred to as either OED or NED.

The **objective** of this dictionary was and still is to trace **the development** of English words from their form in Old English. If the word was not found in Old English, it was shown when it was introduced into the language. For words and meanings which have become obsolete the date of the latest occurrence is provided. The dictionary includes spellings, pronunciations and detailed etymologies.
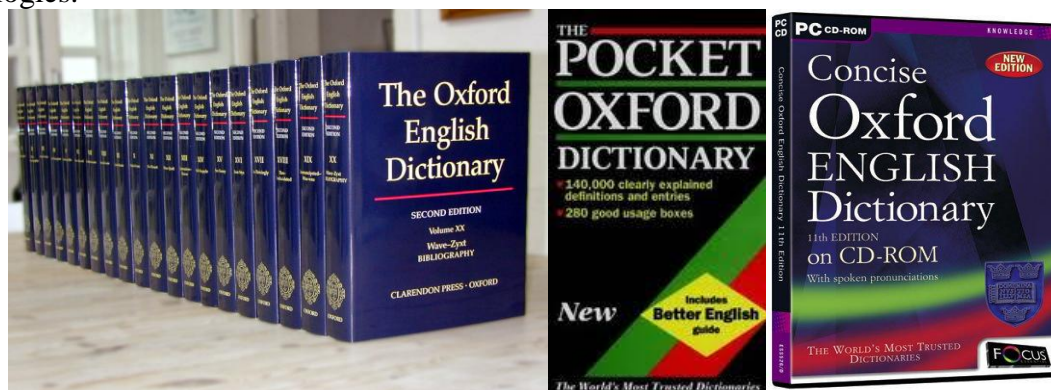
The completion of the work required more than 75 years. The first part of the dictionary appeared in 1884 and the last in 1928. Later it was issued in **twelve volumes** in order to hold new words a three volume Supplement was issued in 1933.

The Concise Oxford Dictionary of current English was first published in 1911. It is not a historical dictionary but of current usage. A still shorter form is **The Pocket Oxford** Dictionary. The new enlarged version of OED was issued in 22 volumes 1994.

With descriptions for approximately 750,000 words, the Oxford English Dictionary is the world's most comprehensive single-language print dictionary according to the *Guiness Book of World Records.* Two Russian borrowings *glasnost* and *perestroika* were included in it. This publication was followed by a two- volume Supplement to hold new words.

English Dialect Dictionary

Another big dictionary is **Joseph Wright's *"English Dialect Dictionary".*** Before this dictionary could be started upon, a thorough study of English dialects had to be completed. The English Dialect Dictionary, being the complete vocabulary of all dialect words still in use, or known to have been in use during the last two hundred years; founded on the publications of the English Dialect Society and on a large amount of material never before printed was published by Oxford University Press in 6 volumes between 1898 and 1905. Its compilation and printing was funded privately by Joseph Wright, a self-taught philologist at the University of Oxford.

Due to the scale of the work, 70,000 entries, and the period in which the information was gathered, it is regarded as a standard work in the historical study of dialect. Wright marked annotations and corrections in a cut-up and rebound copy of the first edition; this copy is among Wright's papers in the Bodleian Library at the University of Oxford.

J. Wright

4.2 History of American Lexicography

The first American dictionary of the English language was compiled by **Samuel Johnson Jr**., a Connecticut schoolmaster, who published **in 1798** a small book **"A School Dictionary"**. This book was followed in 1800 by another dictionary by the same author, which showed already some signs of Americanisation.
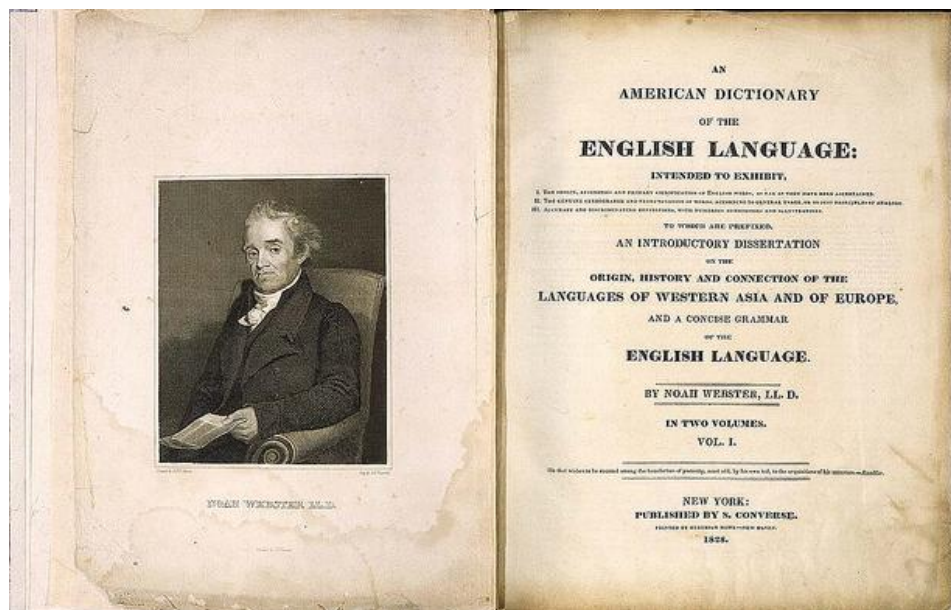
Noah Webster is universally considered to be **the father of** American lexicography, who emphatically broke away from English tradition and embodied in his book the **specifically American usage** of his time. His great work, *The American Dictionary* **of the English Language**, appeared in two volumes in 1828 and later sustained **numerous revised and enlarged editions.**

N. Webster follows the lead of Dr S. **Johnson** (the British lexicographer). But he has also improved and corrected many of S. Johnson's etymologies and his definitions are often more exact. N. Webster attempted to **simplify** the spelling and pronunciation that were current in the USA of the period. He realized the importance of language for the development of a nation, and devoted his

energy to giving the American English **the status of an independent language**, distinct from British English.

N.Webster's dictionary enjoyed great popularity from its first editions. This popularity was due not only to the **accuracy and clarity** of definitions but also to the richness of additional information of **encyclopaedic character**. And it became a tradition in American lexicography.

Soon after N. Webster's death **George and Charles Merriam**, acquired the rights of his dictionary and started the publication of revised **single volume** editions under the name **Merriam-Webster.** Merriam-Webster dictionaries began to be published in electronic formats, including CD-ROMs and handheld devices, in the 1980s. In 1996 Merriam-Webster introduced Merriam-Webster OnLine, a Web site offering language-related features, including access to the full text of *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary* and *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Thesaurus*. In 2002 *Webster's Third New International Dictionary* was made available online at a subscription Web site.
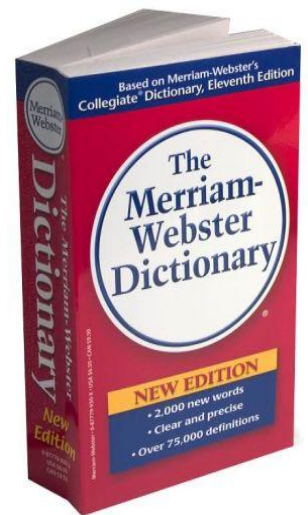
The other great American dictionaries are:

- *the Century Dictionary* first completed in 1891;
- Funk and Wagnalls *New Standard Dictionary* first completed in 1895,
- *the Random House Dictionary* of the English Language, completed in 1967
- *The Heritage Illustrated Dictionary* of the English Language first published in 1969
- C.L. Barnhart's *The World Book Dictionary* presenting a synchronic review of the language in the 20th century
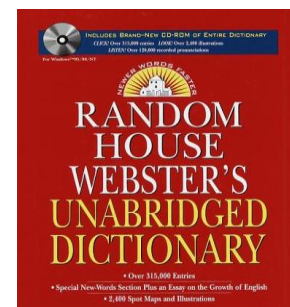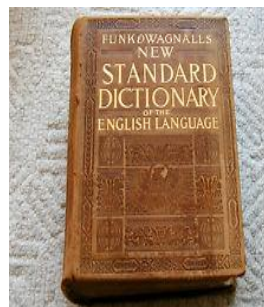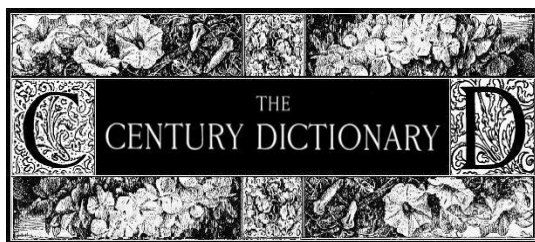
4.3 Major Lexicography Issues:

- the selection of headwords,
- the number, the structure and contents of the vocabulary entry (in different types of dictionaries)
- definitions in a unilingual dictionary

Selection

- It is the problem of whether a general descriptive dictionary should give **the historical information** about a word.
- For the purpose of a dictionary, which must not be too massive, **selection between scientific** and **technical terms** is also a very important task.
- It is a debatable point whether a unilingual explanatory dictionary should try to cover **all the words** of the language, including neologisms, nonce-word, slang, etc. and note with impartial accuracy all the words actually used by English people;

As the great English lexicographer of the 18th century Samuel Johnson used to think, it should be **preceptive**, and **prohibitive**. Dictionary-makers should attempt to improve and stabilize the English vocabulary and advise the readers on **preferable usage**. **A distinctly modern criterion** in selection of entries is **the frequency** of the words to be included.

Separate entry vs. common head-word

The other problem is which of the selected units have the right to a **separate entry** and which are to be included under one **common head-word**. These are the issues *of separateness* and *sameness* of words. The first deals with syntagmatic boundaries of word-units and has to solve such questions as whether *each other* is a group of two separate words to be treated **separately** under the head-words *each* and *other,* or whether *each other* is a **unit** deserving a special entry.

The *sameness* deals with paradigmatic boundaries. E.g. How many entries are justified for *hound?* Concise Oxford Dictionary has two: one for the noun, and the other for the verb: *to chase (as) with hounds*. The verb and the noun are thus treated as homonyms.

Chambers's Twentieth Century Dictionary combines them under **one head-word,** i.e. it takes them as variants of the same word (hence the term "sameness"). The problem is even more complicated with variants belonging to the same part of speech. This involves differentiation between **polysemy and homonymy**.
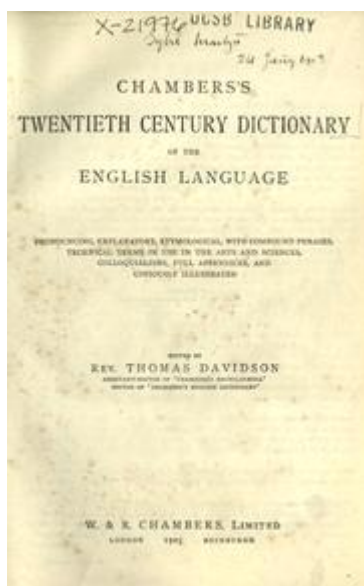
The vocabulary entry

The second group of problems deals with the structure and content of a dictionary entry in different types of dictionaries.

A historical dictionary (the Oxford Dictionary, for instance) is primarily concerned with the development of the English vocabulary. It arranges various senses chronologically, **first comes the etymology**, then **the earliest meanings** marked by the label *obs. – obsolete.* The etymologies are either comparative or confined to a single language. The development is illustrated by **quotations,** ranging from the oldest to recent usages of the word.

A **descriptive dictionary** dealing with current usage has to face its own specific problems. It has to **give precedence** to the most important meanings. But how is the most important meaning determined upon? So far each compiler was guided by his own personal opinion.

An objective criterion would be statistical counts. But counting the frequency of different meanings of the same word is far more difficult than counting the frequency of its forms. Up to now many counts have been undertaken only for word forms, irrespective of meaning.

Also, the interdependence of meanings and their relative importance within the semantic structure of the word do not remain the same. They change almost incessantly, so that establishing **their frequency** would have to be repeated very often. The constant revisions would make the publication of dictionaries very expensive.

A synchronic dictionary should also show the distribution of every word. It has been traditionally done by labelling words as belonging to a certain part of speech, and by noting some special cases of grammatically or lexically bound meanings. Thus, the word *spin* is labelled in The Concise Oxford Dictionary as v.t. & i, which gives a general idea of its distribution; its various meanings are shown in connection with words that may serve as subject or object.

The Advanced Learner's Dictionary by A.S. Hornby, E.V. Gatenby and H. Wakefield supplies information on the **syntactical distribution of each verb.** For this purpose they provide a table of 25 verb patterns and supply the numerical indications in each verb entry.
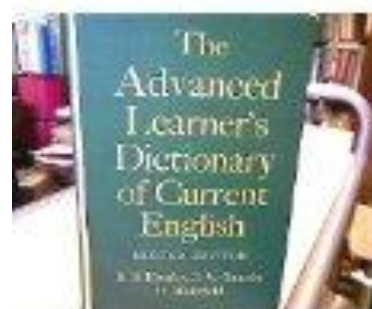
Definitions in a unilingual dictionary

The third group of lexicographic problems is the problem of **definitions in a unilingual** dictionary. The explanation of meaning may be achieved by a **group of synonyms** which together give a general idea. But one synonym is never sufficient for it because **no absolute synonyms** exist. If

synonyms are the only type of explanation used, the user will be placed in a vicious circle of **synonymic references**, with not a single word actually explained.

Definitions serve the purpose much better. **Definitions** are of two main types. If they are only concerned with words as speech material, they are called **linguistic.** If they are concerned with things for which the words are names, they are termed **encyclopaedic.**

American dictionaries are for the most part traditionally encyclopaedic, with much attention paid to graphic illustration. They give their readers far more information about facts and things than their British dictionaries, which are **more linguistic** and are occupied with **purely lexical data** giving grammatical properties of words, their components, their stylistic features, etc. Opinions differ upon the optimum proportion of linguistic and encyclopaedic material.

4.4 Types of dictionaries

The **term dictionary** is used to denote a book listing words of a language with their meanings and often with data regarding:

- **pronunciation**
- **usage**
- **and/or origin**.

There are also dictionaries that concentrate their attention **upon only one** of these aspects:

- **pronouncing** (phonetical) dictionaries (e.g. by Daniel Jones)
- **etymological** dictionaries (e.g. by Walter Skeat, by Erik Partridge)

Dictionaries

Diachronic — Synchronic
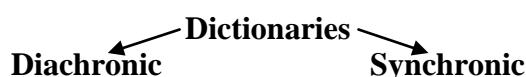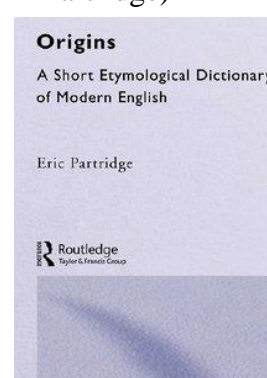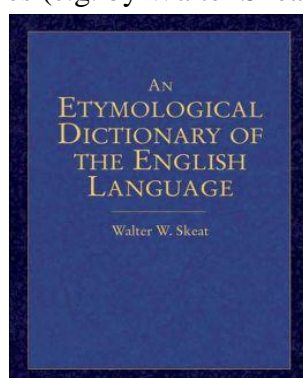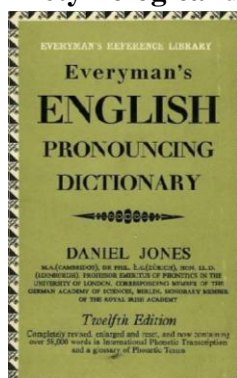
Diachronic dictionaries reflect the development of the English vocabulary by recording **the history of form** and **meaning** for every word registered. E.g. *The Oxford English Dictionary*

Synchronic or descriptive dictionaries of current English are concerned with present meaning and usage of words.

Dictionaries

Unilingual — Bilingual — Multilingual
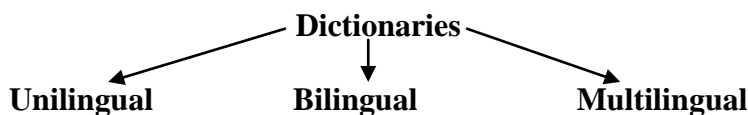
Dictionaries in which the words and their definitions belong to the same language are **unilingual or explanatory**.

Bilingual or translation dictionaries are those that explain words by giving their equivalents in another language. Unilingual dictionaries are further subdivided with regard to the time.

Multilingual dictionaries give the entries in some or many languages.

Dictionaries
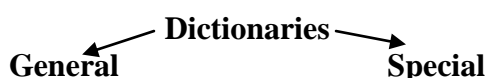
General — Special

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

General dictionaries represent the vocabulary as a whole. E.g. the thirteen -volume Oxford English Dictionary. Some general dictionaries may have very specific aims and still considered general

due to their coverage. They include, for instance, **frequency dictionaries**, i.e. lists of words, each of which is followed by a record of its frequency of occurrence in one or several sets of reading matter.

A **rhyming** dictionary is also a general dictionary, though arranged in inverse order, and so is **a thesaurus** in spite of its unusual arrangement.

Special dictionaries

Special dictionaries have the aim to cover only a **certain specific part of the vocabulary.** Special dictionaries may be further subdivided depending on whether the words are chosen according to

(1) **the sphere of human activity** in which they are used (e.g. technical dictionaries),

(2) **the type of the units themselves** (e. g. phraseological dictionaries),

(3) **the relationships** existing between them (e.g. dictionaries of synonyms).

The first subgroup embraces specialized dictionaries which register and explain **technical terms** for various branches of knowledge, art and trade: **linguistic, medical, technical, economical terms**, etc. Unilingual books of this type giving definitions of terms are called **glossaries.**

The second subgroup deals with specific language units, i.e. with phraseology, abbreviations, neologisms, borrowings, surnames, toponyms, proverbs and sayings. Phraseological dictionary is a type of reference work which lists fixed expressions, phrases or sentences.

The third subgroup contains synonymic dictionaries. Dictionaries recording the complete vocabulary of **some author** are called **concordances. Concordance** is an alphabetic index of the principal words in **a book** such as the Bible or the **complete works** of Shakespeare with a reference to the passage in which the word appears. It should be distinguished from those that deal only with difficult words, i.e. **glossaries**. To this group are also referred **dialect dictionaries and dictionaries of Americanisms.**

```
                        Dictionaries

     Linguistic              Non-linguistic (encyclopedic)
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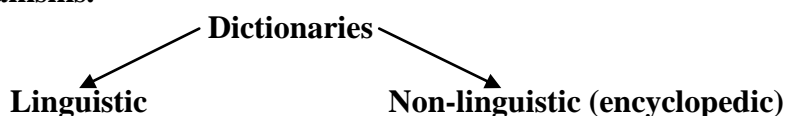
Non-linguistic dictionaries are the ones that give information on all branches of knowledge. They are called **encyclopedias**. **Encyclopedic dictionaries** provide descriptions of the notions designated by words, focus on the meaning, but give no linguistic information about the word. The best known are: ***The Encyclopedia Britannica, the Encyclopedia Americana.***

Linguistic dictionaries focus on the linguistic information related to the word and briefly outline the respective notions or word meanings.
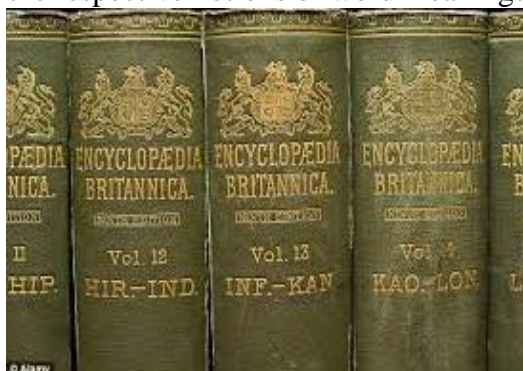
The entry of a linguistic dictionary. The entry of a linguistic dictionary is **the information** about a word. The **components** of the entry are:

(1) **word**, its **spelling** and **pronunciation** (transcription)

(2) **grammatical characteristics** – part of speech, particular word-forms, e.g. specific tense forms for the verb

(3) **meanings**

(4) **stylistic notations** if it doesn't belong to the basic stock or to the neutral vocabulary

(5) **examples**

(6) **set phrases** and **idioms**

Thesaurus contains lists of associated, undefined words (such as synonyms and sometimes antonyms) arranged thematically. Although including synonyms, a thesaurus should not be taken as a complete list of all the synonyms for a particular word. The entries are also designed for drawing distinctions between similar words and assisting in choosing exactly the right word.

The word "thesaurus" is derived from 16th-century New Latin, in turn from Latin thēsaurus, literally "treasure store", generally meaning a collection of things which are of big importance or value (and thus the medieval rank of thesaurer was a synonym for treasurer). This meaning has been largely supplanted by Roget's usage of the term. The most popular is Peter Mark Roget's Thesaurus was first published in 1852. Roget's intention was not to define or discriminate the words but to arrange them **into synonymous and antonymous groups.**

A page from Roget's Thesaurus (1999)

ensue · enthrallment

difficult : entangle, foul, snarl², tangle. *See* ORDER. **2.** To gain control of or an advantage over by or as if by trapping : catch, enmesh, ensnare, entrap, snare, tangle, trammel, trap, web. *See* FREE.

ensue *verb*
1. To occur as a consequence : attend, follow, result. *See* CAUSE, PRECEDE. **2.** To occur after in time : follow, succeed, supervene. *Idiom:* follow on (*or* upon) the heels of. *See* PRECEDE, TIME.

ensure *verb*
To render certain : assure, guarantee, insure, secure, warrant. *Informal:* cinch. *See* CERTAIN.

entail *verb*
1. To have as an accompaniment, a condition, or a consequence : carry, involve. *See* START. **2.** To have as a need or prerequisite : ask, call for, demand, involve, necessitate, require, take. *See* NECESSARY, OVER.

entangle *verb*
1. To twist together so that separation is difficult : ensnarl, foul, snarl², tangle. *See* ORDER. **2.** To make complex, intricate, or perplexing : complicate, embarrass, involve, perplex, ravel, snarl², tangle. *See* SIMPLE.

entanglement *noun*
1. The condition of being entangled or implicated : embranglement, embroilment, enmeshment, ensnarement, involvement. *See* FREE, PARTICIPATE. **2.** Something that is intricately and often bewilderingly complex : cat's cradle, jungle, knot, labyrinth, maze, mesh (often used in plural), morass, skein, snarl², tangle, web. *See* SIMPLE.

enter *verb*
1. To come or go into (a place) : come in, go in, penetrate. *Nautical:* put in. *Idioms:* gain entrance (*or* entry), set foot in. *See* ENTER. **2.** To pass into or through by overcoming resistance : break (through), penetrate, perforate, pierce, puncture. *See* ENTER. **3.** To become a member of : enlist, enroll, join, muster in, sign up. *Informal:* sign on. *See* PARTICIPATE. **4.** To go about the initial step in doing (something) : approach, begin, commence, embark, get off, inaugurate, initiate, institute, launch, lead off, open, set about, set out, set to, start, take on, take up, undertake. *Informal:* kick off. *Idioms:* get cracking, get going, get the show on the road. *See* START. **5.** To place on a list or in a record : insert, post³, record, register. *See* REMEMBER.

enterprise *noun*
1. Something undertaken, especially something

difficult : entangle, foul, snarl², tangle. *See* ORDER. requiring extensive planning and work : project, undertaking, venture. *See* WORK. **2.** An exciting, often hazardous undertaking : adventure, emprise, venture. *See* SAFETY. **3.** A commercial organization : business, company, concern, corporation, establishment, firm², house. *Informal:* outfit. *See* GROUP. **4.** An aggressive readiness along with energy to undertake taxing efforts : drive, hustle, initiative, punch. *Informal:* get-up-and-go, gumption, push. *See* ACTION, TIRED, TRY.

enterprising *adjective*
1. Taking or willing to take risks : adventuresome, adventurous, audacious, bold, daredevil, daring, venturesome, venturous. *See* SAFETY. **2.** Disposed to action : active, brisk, driving, dynamic, dynamical, energetic, lively, sprightly, spry, vigorous, zippy. *Informal:* peppy, snappy. *See* ACTION.

entertain *verb*
1. To occupy in an agreeable or pleasing way : amuse, divert, recreate, regale. *See* EXCITE. **2.** To receive (an idea) and take it into consideration : consider, hear of, think of. *See* THOUGHTS. **3.** To think or think about carefully and at length : chew on (*or* over), cogitate, consider, contemplate, deliberate, excogitate, meditate, mull, muse¹, ponder, reflect, revolve, ruminate, study, think, think out, think over, think through, turn over, weigh. *Idioms:* cudgel one's brains, put on one's thinking cap, rack one's brain. *See* THOUGHTS.

entertaining *adjective*
Providing pleasure or entertainment : amusing, diverting. *See* EXCITE.

entertainment *noun*
1. Something, especially a performance or show, designed to entertain : amusement, distraction, diversion, recreation. *See* EXCITE. **2.** The condition of being amused : amusement, recreation. *See* EXCITE.

enthrall *verb*
1. To act upon with or as if with magic : bewitch, charm, enchant, entrance², spell², spellbind, voodoo, witch. *See* PERSUASION. **2.** To compel, as the attention, interest, or imagination, of : arrest, catch up, fascinate, grip, hold, mesmerize, rivet, spellbind, transfix. *Slang:* grab. *See* EXCITE. **3.** To make subservient or subordinate : enslave, subject, subjugate. *See* FREE.

enthrallment *noun*
Total occupation of the attention or of the mind : absorption, engrossment, immersion, preoccupation, prepossession. *See* EXCITE.

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5. PHRASEOLOGY
Outline
5.1 Phraseology. Free word-groups vs. set expressions.
5.2 Different approaches to the classification of phraseological units.
5.3 Ways of forming phraseological units.

5.1 Phraseology. Free word-groups (FWG) vs. set expressions

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 in some word-groups (e.g. *man of wisdom*, *to take lessons*) possess **semantic and structural independence**. Word-groups of this type are defined as **free phrases** and are usually studied in syntax. Some word-groups (e.g. *by means of, to take place*) are **functionally and semantically inseparable**. They are set-phrases or **phraseological units** that are non-motivated and cannot be **freely made up** in speech but are reproduced as **ready-made**. They are the subject-matter of phraseology.

Phraseology is a branch of lexicology that studies sequence of words that are semantically and often syntactically restricted and they function as single units similar to individual words. **Phraseological units (PU)**, or **idioms** represent the most picturesque, colorful and expressive part of the language's vocabulary. Phraseology draws its resources mostly from the very depths of popular speech.

Confusion about the terminology: Most Ukrainian scholars use the term **phraseological unit** (фразеологічна одиниця). It was first introduced by Russian scholar V.V. Vinogradov. The term **idiom** widely used by western scholars has comparatively recently found its way into Ukrainian phraseology. Other terms are set-expressions, set-phrases, phrases, fixed word-groups, collocations.

The terminology confusion reflects insufficiency of reliable criteria by which PUs can be distinguished from FWGs. The "freedom" of free word-groups is relative and arbitrary. FWGs are so called because they are each time built up anew in the speech process. But idioms are used as ready-made units with fixed and constant structure**s.**

V.V. Vinogradov

The criteria for distinguishing between FWGs and set-phrases:
- **Criterion of stability of the lexical components and lack of motivation.** The constituents of FWG may vary according to communication needs. Member-words of PU are always reproduced as single unchangeable collocations.

E.g. the constituent *red* in the free word-group ***red flower*** may be substituted for by any other adjective denoting color, without essentially changing the denotational meaning of the word-group.

But in the PU ***red tape*** (bureaucratic methods) no substitution like this is possible, a change of the adjective would involve a **complete change** in the meaning of the whole group.
- **Criterion of function**. PUs function as word-equivalents. Their denotational meaning belongs to the word group as a single **semantically inseparable unity** and grammatical meaning i.e. the part-of-speech meaning is belonging to the word-group as a **whole** irrespective of the part-of-speech meaning of the component words.

E.g.: the free word group ***a long day*** and the phraseological unit ***in the long run***.
- **Criterion of context.** FWGs make up variable contexts**.** PU makes up a fixed context.

E. g. in FWG ***small town/ room*** the adj. ***small*** has the meaning "**not large**" but in PU ***small hours*** the meaning of ***small*** has nothing to do with the size (early hours from 1 to 4 a.m.).
- **Criterion of idiomaticity**. PUs are ready-made phrases registered in dictionaries. FWGs are made up spontaneously. The task of distinguishing between FWG and PU is further complicated by the existence of a great number of marginal cases, the so-called

semi-fixed or semi-free word-groups, also called nonphraseological word-groups which share with PUs their structural stability but lack their semantic unity and figurativeness.

E. g. *to go to school, to go by bus, to commit suicide*

- **Other major criteria** for distinguishing between PU and FWG: **semantic** and **structural.**

e.g. A *C a m b r i d g e don: I'm told they're inviting more American professors to this university. Isn't it rather* **carrying coals to Newcastle**?

to carry coals to Newcastle - "to take something to a place where it is already plentiful and not needed"

e.g. *This cargo ship is* **carrying coal to** *Liverpool*.

The semantic difference of the two word groups: *is carrying coal* is used in the direct sense in the second context. The first context has nothing to do either with coal or with transporting it, and the meaning of the whole word-group is something entirely **new** and far removed from the current meanings of the constituents.

The meanings of the constituents in a PU merge to produce an entirely new meaning:

e.g. *to have a bee in one's bonnet* means to have an obsession about something; to be eccentric or even a little mad. The humorous metaphoric comparison with a person who is distracted by a bee continually buzzing under their cap has become erased and half-forgotten, and the speakers using the expression hardly think of bees or bonnets but accept it in its transferred sense: "obsessed, eccentric".

That is what is meant when phraseological units are said to be characterized by **semantic unity**. In the traditional approach, PUs have been defined as word-groups **conveying a single concept,** whereas in FWG each meaningful component stands for a **separate concept.**

This feature makes PU similar to words: both words and PU possess **semantic unity.**

The structural criterion

Structural invariability is an essential feature of PUs, though some of them possess it to a lesser degree than others. Structural invariability of PU finds expression in a number of restrictions.

Restriction in substitution

No word can be substituted for any meaningful component of a PU **without destroying its sense**.

The second type of restriction is **the restriction in introducing any additional components into the structure of a PU.**

The third type of structural restrictions in PU is **grammatical invariability**.

to find fault with somebody

e. g. *The teacher always found f a u l t s with the boy* (**is not correct**)

Proverbs

Proverbs are different from PUs. The first distinctive feature is the obvious structural dissimilarity. PUs are a kind of ready-made blocks which fit into the structure of a sentence performing a certain **syntactical function**, more or less as words do.

e.g. *George liked her for she never* **put on airs** (predicate). ***Big bugs*** *like him care nothing about* ***small fry*** *like ourselves* (subject, prepositional object).

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

In the semantic aspect, **proverbs** sum up the collective experience of the community.

They:

- **moralize** *Hell is paved with good intentions;*

- **give advice** *Don't judge a tree by its bark;*
- **give warning** *you sing before breakfast, you will cry before night;*
- **admonish** *Liars should have good memories;*
- **criticize** *Everyone calls his own geese swans.*

The function of proverbs in speech is *communicative* i.e. they impart certain information. PUs do not stand for **whole statements** as proverbs do but for a **single concept**. Their function in speech is purely **nominative** i.e. they denote an object, an act etc.

The question of whether or not **proverbs** should be regarded as a subtype of PUs and studied together with the phraseology of a language is a **controversial one.** A. V. Koonin includes proverbs in his classification of PUs as **communicative phraseological units**. From his point of view, one of the main criteria of a PU is its **stability.**

The **criterion of nomination** and **communication** cannot be applied here because there is a considerable number of verbal PUs which are word-groups (i.e. nominative units) when the verb is used in the Active Voice, and sentences (i.e. communicative units) when the verb is used in the Passive Voice.

e. g. ***to cross (pass) the Rubicon*** *– the Rubicon is crossed (passed);*
to shed crocodile tears *– crocodile tears are shed*

One more argument is that there **does not exist** any rigid border-line between proverbs and PUs as PUs rather frequently **originate from** the proverb.

e.g. the PU ***the last straw*** originated from the proverb *The last straw breaks the camel's back*
birds of a feather < the proverb *Birds of a feather flock together*
to catch at a straw *(straws)* < *A drowning man catches at straws*

Besides, some proverbs are easily **transformed** into PU

e.g. *Don't put all your eggs in one basket >* **to put all one's eggs in one basket**
Don't cast pearls before swine > to **cast pearls before swine**

5.2 Different approaches to the classification of Pus

- ✓ **Etymological** approach considers the source of PUs.
- ✓ **Semantic** approach stresses the importance of idiomaticity.
- ✓ **Structural** approach is based on the ability to perform the same syntactical functions as words.
- ✓ **Contextual** approach focuses on stability of context combined with idiomaticity.

Etymological / thematic classification

The traditional and oldest principle for classifying phraseological units is based on their original content and might be called **thematic or etymological.** Idioms are classified **according to their sources of origin. "Source"** refers to the particular sphere of human activity, of life of nature, of natural phenomena, etc.:

- **Cultural beliefs, traditions and customs,** *e.g. to keep one's fingers crossed*
- **Historical events,** *e.g. to meet one's Waterloo*
- **Mythology,** *e.g. Achiles' hill*
- **Names of organizations and posts,** *e.g. the White House, the House of Lords*
- **Barbarisms and translation loans,** *e.g. persona non grata, alma mater*

L. P. Smith gives in his classification groups of idioms used by sailors, fishermen, soldiers, hunters and associated with the realia, phenomena and conditions of their occupations.

In Smith's classification there are groups of idioms associated with domestic and wild animals and   birds, agriculture and cooking, from sports, arts. He makes a special study of idioms borrowed from other languages, but that is only **a small part** of his classification system. Smith points out that word-groups associated with **the sea and the life of seamen** are especially numerous in English

vocabulary but most of them have developed **metaphorical meanings** which have no longer any association with the sea or sailors.

E.g. *to be all at sea* – to be unable to understand, be in a state of ignorance or bewilderment about smth;

to sink or swim – to fail 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 smb – to be in a situation in which people share the same difficulties and dangers;

to show one's colors – to betray one's real character or intentions;

to strike one's colors – to surrender, give in, admit one is beaten;

to weather (to ride out) the storm – to overcome difficulties.

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

Semantic classification

Victor Vinogradov's classification system was based on **the semantic principle.** His classification was founded on the **degree of semantic cohesion** between the components of a PU (**its motivation).** V.V. Vinogradov developed some points first advanced by the Swiss linguist **Charles Bally**. This classification was further developed by **Nikolai Shanskii.**

Units with a partially transferred meaning show the **weakest cohesion** between their components. The more distant the meaning of a PU from the current meaning of its constituent parts, the greater is its degree of **semantic cohesion**.

V. Vinogradov classifies phraseological units into three classes:

➢ **phraseological combinations/collocations**
➢ **phraseological unities**
➢ **phraseological fusions.**

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

e.g. *to be at one's wits' end,*

to be good at something,

to have a bite,

to come to a sticky end

Phraseological unities are word-groups with a **completely changed meaning.** 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. It is connected with the image is that of a gunner or gun crew who do not desert their guns even if a battle seems lost;

to sit on the fence – in discussion, politics, etc. refrain from committing oneself to either side;

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

to lose one's head – to be at a loss about what to do; to be out of one's mind);

to lose one's heart to smb. – to fall in love.

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

e.g. *to come a cropper* – to come to disaster;

at sixes and sevens – in confusion or in disagreement;
to set one's cap at smb. – to try and attract a man (about girls and women)
to pull one's leg;
to kick the bucket;
red tape.

Let's examine how some fusions originated.

Red Tape

This is a very common idiomatic expression. We use the term "**red tape**" to denote anything that may delay or hold us up, whatever the process may be. It also refers to a lot of unnecessary bureaucracy or paperwork.

This term originated from the fact that legal and official documents were tied up or bound with red cloth tape in 16th and continuing up to the 19th century. The difficulty of accessing these documents led to the current idiomatic expression.

If you want to say that something is being delayed due to red tape, you'd say, "The budget approval for this project is tied up in red tape."

Usually around election time, politicians promise to reduce bureaucracy by saying that they will cut the red tape in government.

Kick the Bucket

Phrase is used to say that someone is dead or has deceased. The actual origin of the term is from England and dates back to the late Middle Ages. A corpse would be laid out and a bucket of holy water placed at its feet. Visitors then could sprinkle the deceased with holy water. Other explanations (suicide, execution) came later to explain an idiom, the origin of which has ceased mainly as a result of the English reformation.

"To Kick the Bucket" is explained by Bishop Abbot Horne in 1949, in his booklet "Relics of Popery" Catholic Truth Society. He adds "Many other explanations of this saying have been given by persons who are unacquainted with Catholic Custom."

Other sources explain that the term is derived from the times when suicides were common by a person preparing to hang himself/herself and used a bucket to stand on and then kicked the bucket when suicide was desired.

Ole' Charlie kicked the bucket today, we better prepare for his funeral.

Pigs to be slaughtered are bled, that is the blood is drained from the body. One way this is accomplished if to hang the pig upside down from a bar (by one foot) that used to be known as a "buchet", a French word for it. The pig's throat was cut or opened with a sharp spike, and it would rapidly be bled. In its death throes, it would always kick the bucket.

To pull one's leg

If you try to pull someone's leg, you try and make them believe something that isn't true. "You're pulling my leg!" is another way of saying "I don't believe what you're saying" or "You must be joking!"

It often has humorous associations but the origin of the expression has nothing to do with making jokes or telling funny stories. It has its origins in the criminal world of 18th and 19th century London. In those days street robbers often worked in gangs of two. One would trip up the unsuspecting victim and the other would remove his money and other valuables while he was lying on the ground. The robber didn't literally pull the victim's leg but caused him to stumble and fall and then lose his valuables. If your leg is pulled now, you don't lose your money but you might betray your ignorance and lose your temper.

V. Vinoradov's classification system does not take into account the **structural** characteristics of PUs. The border-line separating unities from fusions is **vague** and even subjective. One and

the same phraseological unit may appear motivated to one person (and therefore be labeled as a unity) and demotivated to another (and be regarded as a fusion).

The structural principle

The structural principle of classifying phraseological units is based on their ability to perform the same syntactical functions as words. In the traditional structural approach, the following principal groups of phraseological units are distinguishable:
Verbal (the head word is a verb)
e.g. *to run for one's (dear) life,*
to get (win) the upper hand
Nominative (the head word is a noun)
e.g. *dog's life,*
cat-and-dog life,
calf love,
white lie,
birds of a feather.
Adjectival (the head word is an adjective) e.g. *high and mighty, brand new, safe and sound.*
In this group the so-called comparative word-groups are particularly expressive :
(as) cool as a cucumber,
(as) nervous as a cat,
(as) weak as a kitten,
(as) good as gold,
(as) pretty as a picture,
as large as life,
(as) slippery as an eel,
(as) drunk as an owl (sl.),
(as) mad as a hatter/a hare in March.
 Adverbial
e.g. *by hook or by crook,*
in cold blood,
in the dead of night,
between the devil and the deep sea.
Interjectional
e.g. *My God!*
By George!

A.I. Smirnitsky

Good heavens!
Goodness gracious!

Structural & semantic principles

A.I. Smirnitsky offered a classification system for English PUs **combining the structural and the semantic principles.** Phraseological units in this classification system
are grouped according to **the number and semantic** significance of their constituent parts. Phraseological units in his classification system are grouped according to **the number and semantic** significance of their constituent parts. Two large groups are established:
One-summit units, which have one meaningful constituent,

e. g. *to give up,*
 to make out,
 to pull out,
 to be tired,
 to be surprised.

T**wo-summit and multi-summit** units which have two or more meaningful constituents,
e. g. *black art, first night,*

common sense,
to fish in troubled waters.

Within each of these large groups the phraseological units are classified according to **the category of parts of speech** of the summit constituent. So, **one-summit units are** subdivided into:

a) *verbal-adverbial* units equivalent to verbs in which the semantic and the grammatical centers coincide in the first constituent, e.g. *to give up*;

b) units *equivalent to verbs* which have their semantic centre in the second constituent and their grammatical centre in the first, e.g. *to be tired*;

c) *prepositional-substantive* units equivalent either to adverbs or to copulas and having their semantic centre in the substantive constituent and no grammatical centre, e.g. *by heart, by means of*.

Two-summit and multi-summit phraseological units are classified into:

a) *attributive-substantive* two-summit units equivalent to nouns, e.g. *black art*;

b) *verbal-substantive* two-summit units equivalent to verbs, e.g. *to take the floor*;

c) *phraseological repetitions* equivalent to adverbs, e.g. *now or never*;

d) *adverbial multi-summit* units, e.g. *every other day*.

A.I. Smirnitsky also distinguishes **proper phraseological units** which, in his classification system, are units with non-figurative meanings, and **idioms**, units with transferred meanings based on a metaphor.

A.V. Koonin, the leading Russian authority on English phraseology pointed out certain inconsistencies in this classification system. First of all, the subdivision into phraseological units (as non-idiomatic units) and idioms contradicts the leading criterion of a phraseological unit suggested by A.I. Smirnitsky: It should be idiomatic. A.V. Koonin also objects to the inclusion of such word groups as *black art, best man, first night* in phraseology (in Smirnitsky's classification system, they are the two-summit phraseological units) as all these word-groups are not characterized by a transferred meaning.

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

Contexual classification

The classification is based on **the combined structural-semantic principle** and it also considers **the quotient of stability of phraseological units.** Phraseological units are subdivided into the following four classes according to their function in communication determined by their structural-semantic characteristics.

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

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

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

4. **Communicative phraseological units:** proverbs and sayings.

These four classes are divided into sub-groups according to the type of structure of the phraseological unit. The sub-groups include further rubrics representing types of structural-semantic meanings according to the kind of relations between the constituents and to either full or partial transference of meaning. The classification system includes a considerable number of subtypes and gradations and reflects the wealth of types of phraseological units existing in the language. It is based on truly scientific and modern criteria and represents an earnest attempt to take into account all the relevant aspects of phraseological units and combine them within the borders of one classification system.

5.3 Ways of forming phraseological units

A.V. Koonin classified phraseological units according to the way they are formed, pointing out **primary and secondary ways of forming phraseological units.**

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

a) most productive in Modern English is the formation of phraseological units **by means of transferring the meaning of terminological word-groups,** e.g. *launching pad, to link up*;

b) a large group of phraseological units was formed **from free word-groups by transforming their meaning,** e.g. *granny farm, Troyan horse*;

c) phraseological units can be formed **by means of alliteration**, e.g. *a sad sack, culture vulture, fudge and nudge*;

d) they can be formed **by means of expressiveness, especially it is characteristic for forming interjections,** e.g. *My aunt! Hear, hear!*;

e) by means of distorting a word group, e.g. *odds and ends*;

f) by using archaisms, e.g. *in brown study*;

g) by using a sentence in a different sphere of life, e.g. *that cock won't fight*;

h) by using some unreal image, e.g. *to have butterflies in the stomach, to have green fingers*;

i) by using expressions of writers or politicians in everyday life, e.g. *corridors of power, American dream, the winds of change*).

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

a) **conversion**, e.g. *to vote with one's feet → vote with one's feet*;

b) **changing the grammar form**, e.g. *make hay while the sun shines → to make hay while the sun shines;*

c) **analogy**, e.g. *curiosity killed the cat → care killed the cat*

d) **contrast**, e.g. *acute surgery → cold surgery;*

e) **shortening of proverbs and sayings**, e.g. *you can't make a silk purse out of a sow's ear → a sow's ear;*

f) **borrowing phraseological units from other languages**, **either as translation loans**, e.g. *living space* (German), *to take the bull by the horns* (Latin);

or by means of phonetic borrowings, e.g. *sotto voce* (Italian), *corpse d'elite* (French).

6. ETYMOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF MODERN ENGLISH VOCABULARY
Outline
6.1 Etymological characteristics of the English vocabulary.
6.2 Words of native origin.
6.3 The foreign component in the English vocabulary.
6.4 Assimilation of borrowings.
6.5 Etymological doublets.

6.1 Etymological characteristics of the vocabulary

Etymology is the study of the origin of words. English vocabulary consists of **two layers** – the **native** stock and the **borrowed** stock of words.

Native words comprise only **30%** of vocabulary but the native words form **the bulk of the most frequent** words. The native element in English embraces a large number of **high-frequency** words: the articles, prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions, auxiliaries, words denoting **everyday objects and ideas.**

6.2 Words of native origin

A native word is a word which belongs to the original English stock (native element), as known from the earliest available manuscripts of the **Old English** period.

A loan word, borrowed word or **borrowing** is a word taken over from another language and **modified** in phonemic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language.

Native words are characterized by:

* significant range of lexical and grammatical valency,
* high frequency value
* developed polysemy
* monosyllabic

They show a **great word-building potential** and enter a number of **set expressions**. The grammatical structure is **essentially Germanic** and they remained **unaffected by foreign** influence.

Native words:
(1) the Indo-European core stock
(2) Common Germanic origin, i.e. of words having parallels in German, Norwegian, Dutch, Icelandic, etc., but **none** in Russian, French, and Ukrainian.

(1) the Indo-European element is words of roots **common** to all or most all languages of the Indo-European group.

The words having **cognates** (words of the same etymological root, of common origin) in the vocabularies of different **Indo-European languages** form **the oldest layer**.

They denote **elementary concepts** without which no human communication would be possible.

The Indo-European element:
a) **family relations** / kinship terms, e.g. *father, mother, brother, son, daughter, widow*
b) **parts of the human body**, e.g. *foot, nose, heart, knee, breast, heel, elbow*
c) **animals, birds, fish, insects**, e.g. *cow, swine, donkey, goose, bat, bee, calf, bull, raven, sheep, wolf*
d) **plants**, e.g. *tree, birch, corn, barley, wheat, willow, walnut, garlic, oak,*
e) **time of day,** e.g. *day, night*
f) **names** of **natural phenomena,** e.g. *sun, moon, star, snow, rain, wind*

g) numerous adjectives denoting **common qualities** and properties, e.g. *red, new, glad, sad, cool, dark, sweet, young, light*

h) **the numerals** from one to a hundred

i) **pronouns** –
- **personal** (except *they* which is a Scandinavian borrowing)
- **demonstrative**

j) **numerous verbs**, e.g. *be,stand, sit, eat, know*

k) **some place names**, e.g. *marsh, meadow, hill, land, acre, cliff*

l) names of things of **everyday life**, instruments, clothes, buildings,

e.g.   *nail, needle, rake roof,*
       hammer, yard, box, boat,
       hat, jar, knife, spoon,
       shed, shelter

The Germanic element represents words of roots **common** to all or most **Germanic** languages. Some of the main groups of Germanic words are the same as in the Indo-European element, cf.: *Star:* Germ. *Stern,* Lat. *Stella,* Gr. *aster*
    Stand: Germ, *stehen,* Lat. *stare,* Ukr. *стояти*

English proper words. These words stand quite alone in the vocabulary system, e.g. *bird, boy, girl, lord, lady, woman, daisy, always.*

6.3 The foreign component in the English vocabulary

English vocabulary **is composite and varied.** In its 15 century history English happened to come in long and close **contact** with a number of foreign languages. As a result, many foreign words were borrowed. The **source of borrowing** is applied to the language from which the loan word was taken into English. **The origin of borrowing** refers to the language, to which the word may be traced,
    e.g. *paper < Fr. papier < Lat. papyrus < Gr. papyrus*
French is its **source** of borrowing, Greek is its **origin**.
Sometimes the word **borrowing** is used in a wider sense, and is extended onto the so-called **translation-loans** (or **calques**) and **semantic borrowings.**

Criteria of borrowings:
- phonetical
- grammatical
- lexical

The phonetical criteria are strange sounds, sound combination, position of stress and the correlation between sounds and letters.
    e.g. *wal**tz** (G.), **ps**ychology (Gr.), communi**qué** (Fr.)*
The initial position of sounds [v], [z] or the letters **x, j, z** is a valid sign that the word is borrowed, e.g. ***v**olcano (It.), **v**accine (L.), **j**ungle (Hindi), **z**inc (G.)*
The morphological structure of the word and its grammatical forms also indicate that the word is adopted from another language,
    e.g. the suffixes in the words *neuro**sis** (Gr.), violoncel**lo** (It.)*;
    the irregular plural forms: *bacteria <bacterium (L.), papyri < papyrus (Gr.)*
You can recognize such words by certain **suffixes, prefixes, endings**.

Latin Affixes
Suffix *-ion* e.g. *communion, legion, opinion, union*
Suffix *-tion* e.g. *relation, revolution, starvation, temptation*
Suffix *-ate* e.g. *appreciate, create, congratulate*
Suffix *-ute* e.g. *att'ribute, contribute, constitute, distribute*

Suffix -able e.g. *detestable, curable*
Suffix -ate e.g. *accurate, graduate*
Suffix -ant e.g. *arrogant, constant*
Suffix -ent e.g. *absent, decent, evident*
Suffix -or e.g. *major, minor, junior, senior*
Suffix -al e.g. *cordial, final, fraternal, maternal*
Suffix -ar e.g. *lunar, solar, familiar*
Remnant suffix -ct e.g. *act, conduct, collect*
Remnant suffix -d(e) e.g. *applaud, divide, exclude, include*
Prefix dis- e.g. *disable, distract, disown, disagree*
French Affixes
Suffix -ance e.g. *arrogance, hindrance*
Suffix -ence e.g. *consequence, patience*
Suffix -ment e.g. *appointment, experiment*
Suffix -age e.g. *courage, marriage*
Suffix -ess e.g. *tigress, lioness, adventuress*
Suffix -ous e.g. *curious, dangerous, joyous, serious*
Prefix en- e.g. *enable, enslave*

Borrowed element
Celtic: $5^{th} - 6^{th}$ c
Latin: **1st** group 1^{st} c BC
2nd group 7^{th} c AD
3rd group   the Renaissance period
Scandinavian: 8^{th} c AD
French: Norman borrowings $11^{th} - 13^{th}$ c
Parisian borrowings – 17^{th} c
Renaissance time
Greek: Renaissance
Italian: Renaissance time and later
Spanish: Renaissance time and later
German
Indian
Russian

Why are words borrowed?

a) To fill a gap in vocabulary.
- Latin **butter, plum** and **beet** – no words in Saxon vocabulary;
- *potato* and **tomato** from Spanish when these vegetables were first brought to England.

b) No gap in the vocabulary.
- one more word is borrowed because it represents the same concept in some **new aspect**, enlarging groups of synonyms and greatly enriching the **expressive resources** of the vocabulary.

E.g. **Latin cordial** was added to *friendly;* **French desire** to **wish;** Latin **admire** and French *adore to like* and **love.**

c) "Accidental" borrowings

- Words were borrowed **"blindly", for no obvious reason, they were not wanted.** Quite a number of such **"accidental"** borrowings are very soon rejected by the vocabulary and **forgotten.**

e.g. The adjective *large* was borrowed from French in the meaning of *wide.* It was **not** actually **wanted**, because it **fully coincided** with the English adjective *wide* without adding any new shades or aspects to its meaning. *Large* managed to establish itself very firmly in the English vocabulary by **semantic adjustment**. It entered another synonymic group with the general meaning of "**big in size".**

6.4 Assimilation of borrowings

Assimilation of a loan word is a **partial** or **total** conformation to the phonetical, grammatical and morphological standards of the target language and its semantic system.

The assimilation degree depends on **the length** of the period during which the word has been used in the target language; upon its **importance** for communication purposes and **its frequency.**

Grammatical adaptation consists in a complete change of the former **paradigm** of the borrowed word (i. e. system of the grammatical forms peculiar to it as a part of speech). **Semantic adaptation** is adjustment to **the system of meanings** of the vocabulary.

Completely assimilated loan words are found in all layers of older borrowings, follow all morphological, phonetical and orthographic standards and take an active part in word formation.

e.g. Latin**:** *street, wall, wine, cheese*
Scandinavian*: husband, fellow, gate, take, ill, root, wing, wrong*
French: *table, face, figure, chair, matter, finish*

Partially assimilated loan words:
• **semantically:** e.g. *sombrero, toreador rickshaw, sherbet*
• **grammatically:** e.g. *crisis – crises, datum – data*
• **phonetically:** e.g. *cartoon, police, machine*
• **graphically:** e.g. *buffet, coup, debris*

Unassimilated loan words or **barbarisms** are not assimilated in any way. There are corresponding English equivalents,

e.g. Italian *addio – good-bye*
Latin *ad libitum – at pleasure*

It is often the case that a word is borrowed by several languages. Such **international words** usually convey concepts which are **significant** in the field of communication,

e.g. *philosophy, mathematics, physics, music, theatre, drama, tragedy, comedy, politics, policy, revolution, progress, democracy, atomic, antibiotic, radio, television, sputnik*; sports terms, fruits and foodstuffs imported from exotic countries.

6.5 Etymological doublets

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

Words that originated from the same etymological source, but differ in phonemic shape and in meaning are called **etymological doublets.** They may enter the vocabulary by different routes. Some of these pairs, consist of a **native** word and a **borrowe**d word: *shrew,* n. (E.) — *screw,* n. (Sc). Others are represented by two **borrowings from different languages** which are historically descended from the same root:

e.g. *senior* (Lat.) – *sir* (Fr.),
canal (Lat) – *channel* (Fr.),

captain (Lat.) – *chieftan* (Fr.)(the leader of a people or clan)

Still others were borrowed from the same language **twice**, but in different periods:

e.g. *corpse* [kɔ:ps] a dead body, esp. of a human being (Norm. Fr.)

corps [kɔ:] is a main subdivision of an armed force in the field, consisting of two or more divisions (Par. Fr.)

travel (Norm. Fr.) – *travail* *(painful or laborious effort)* (Par.Fr.)

cavalry (in the past) soldiers who fought on horseback (Norm. Fr.) – *chivalry is the medieval knightly system with its religious, moral, and social code* (Par. Fr.)

gaol *variant spelling of jail* (Norm. Fr.) – *jail* (Par. Fr.)

Etymological triplets are groups of three words of common root. They occur rarely.

e.g. *hospital* *university dormitory* (Lat.)

hostel *an establishment which provides inexpensive food and lodging* (Norm. Fr.)

hotel (Par.Fr.)

to capture (Lat.) – *to catch* (Norm. Fr.) – *to chase* (Par. Fr.) (pursue in order to catch or catch up with)

A doublet may also consist of a **shortened** word, from which it was derived,

e.g. *history – story;*

fantasy – fancy (фантазія, уява , уявлюваний, уявний образ; ілюзія, мрія примха, каприз);

fanatic – fan;

defense – fence;

courtesy (ввічливість, чемність, люб'язність) – curtsy (реверанс, присідання);

shadow – shade (тінь; півморок, присмерк; прохолода, холодок).

7. SEMANTICS
Outline

7.1 Meaning. Semantic triangle
7.2 Lexical meaning and concept
7.3 Types of lexical meaning
7.4 Semantic change

7.1 Meaning. Semantic triangle

Semantics is the study of meaning. **Lexical semantics** is the study of word meaning. Meaning is a message conveyed by words. **Meaning** is a component of the word through which a concept is communicated. In this way it gives the word the ability of denoting real objects, qualities, actions and abstract notions.

Relationships between *referent* (object, denoted by the word), *concept* and *word* are traditionally represented by the following triangle:

Thought or Reference

Symbolizes   *Refers to*

Symbol   *Stands for*   **Referent**
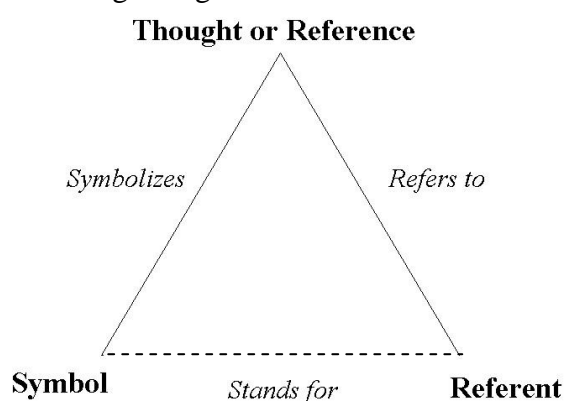
There is no direct relationship between the **word** or 'symbol' and the extralinguistic thing or **'referent'** denoted by it. This is symbolized by the broken line connecting the two, which C.K. Ogden and I.A. Richards characterize as "an imputed relation", saying that the **'symbol'** "stands for" **the 'referent'.** The relationship between the two is **indirect** and mediated by a concept or "thought", which Ogden/Richards call **reference**.

C.K. Ogden

I.A. Richards

Since in this schema a psychological or mental entity, namely **thought**, plays a role, we have a mentalistic model here too.

The term **reference**, identified with *thought*, is used in a different way by Ogden/Richards than in many recent linguistic theories. In the latter, reference is usually understood as a relational concept. The term is either used for the relation between **the full linguistic sign** and **an extralinguistic referent**, or the action of a speaker referring to an extralinguistic object by means of a linguistic sign. Semantic triangle is a model proposed by C.K. Ogden and I.A. Richards in the 1920s. **Meaning** is a three-fold relation between linguistic forms, concepts and referents.

Contemporary interpretations consider meaning as a four-fold relation, with the fourth element being the speaker. The modern approach to semantics is based on the assumption that the inner form of the word (i.e. its meaning) presents a structure which is called the **semantic structure** of the word.

There are two main approaches to the study of lexical meaning: **referential** that studies the connection between words and things or concepts they denote and **functional approach** that deals with relations between words.

The referential approach. The referential model of meaning is the so-called basic semantic triangle. It consists of:

1. The sound-form (**Sign**) of the word: *[bз:d]*.

2. The referent (**Denotatum**) – the object which the word names: *the actual bird*.

3. The concept (**Designatum**) – The essential properties of this object which are reflected in human mind: *"a feathered animal with wings"*.

The functional approach assumes that the meaning of a linguistic unit can be studied only through its relation to other linguistic units and not through its relation to concept or referent,

e.g. the meaning of **bird (n)** and **bird (v)** is different because they function in speech differently.

Analyzing various contexts in which these words are used we can observe that they have **different distribution**.

7.2 Lexical Meaning and Concept

Meaning and concept are very closely associated but not identical. Meaning is a **linguistic category**. Concept is a **logical and psychological category, a unit of thinking.**

Meaning and Concept

- ➢ Concept is emotionally and stylistically neutral. Meaning may include non-conceptual parts: *kid, gorgeous, birdie*.
- ➢ One and the same concept can be expressed differently: *die – pass away, kick the bucket*.
- ➢ The number of concepts does not correspond to the number of words and meanings. One concept may be expressed by several synonymous words: *child, kid – infant*.
  One polysemantic word may express **several concepts:**
  draw – *"move by pulling" (draw a boat out of the water),*
  "obtain from a source" (draw water from a well),
  "make with a pen, pencil or chalk"(draw a straight line).
  Some words **do not express concepts** at all, *e.g. well, must, perhaps.*
- ➢ Concepts are mostly international. Meanings are nationally specific.
  Words expressing identical concepts may have different meanings and different semantic structures in different languages: *house – дом; blue - синий, голубой.*

7.3 Types of Lexical Meaning

The content plane of words includes **denotative** and **connotative** meanings.

1) Denotative or referential meaning, the basic type of lexical meaning, is the **word's reference to the object**.

This reference may be **individual**

e.g. *The dog is trained*

or **general**

e.g. *It's not a dog.*

That is why denotative meaning is subdivided into *demonstrative* and *significative:* the type of denotative meaning varies in different groups of words, the meaning of situational words is relative – it depends on the situation and context,

e.g. *here, son, my, this, now*

Pronominal words do not name the referent, they only point to it,

e.g. *he, she, they*

Their meaning in isolation is very general,

e.g. *he – any male*

But in speech their reference is always individual,

e.g. *he – this particular male*

The **referent of proper names** is always an individual object or person. They refer to each member of a particular class,

e.g. *London, Paris (cities), John, Bob (men)*

Specific and generic terms differ in the size of the referent group,

e.g. *rose – flower; flower – plant*

General terms have a wider meaning and can substitute for any specific term,

e.g. *dog – English bulldog, French poodle, cocker spaniel.*

The referent of abstract words can be perceived by the mind and not by the senses: *miracle, polite, to manage.*

2) Connotative meaning includes various **additional meanings**: emotional, evaluative, intensifying and expressive, e.g. *hillock, to devour.* As a rule, connotation **co-exists** with denotation. Sometimes it comes to the foreground and weakens the word's denotative meaning.

Words also may have a certain stylistic value. It means that they refer to this or that situation or functional style: science, everyday life, business: *get – obtain –procure; child – kid – infant.*

Lexical and Grammatical Meaning

The word is a lexical-grammatical unity. Its content plane includes two types of meaning:
- ✓ **lexical**
- ✓ **grammatical**

Lexical meaning is individual, unique. It does not belong to any other word in the same language: *bicycle – a vehicle with two wheels, handle-bars to guide it with, a seat, and two pedals to make it go.*

Grammatical meaning is general, standard. It belongs **to a whole class of words** and word-forms: *bicycle – a noun in the common case, singular.*

Lexical and grammatical meanings co-exist in the word and are **interdependent:**

➢ **Lexical meaning affects grammatical** meaning:

E.g. abstract or mass nouns have no plural form *(joy, sugar),* relative adjectives have no degrees of comparison *(watery)*, statal verbs are not used in progressive tenses *(see, understand)*.

➢ **Grammatical meaning affects lexical** meaning.

Different meanings of the polysemantic word *go* have their own grammatical peculiarities:

He has gone to China – moved (go + adverb of place);

They are going to get married soon – are planning (be going + to-infinitive);

The children went wild with excitement – became (go + adjective).

➢ Combinability of the word depends both on its lexical and grammatical (part-of-speech) meaning, e.g. the noun *tea* combines with adjective *strong* but not with adverb *strongly.*
➢ Grammatical form may be isolated from the paradigm and become lexicalized:
  works – factory.
➢ Lexical meaning may be grammaticalized, e.g. some **notiona**l verbs may be used **as link-verbs**: *turn red.*

4. Semantic Changes

The Causes of Semantic Changes. The meaning of a word can change in the course of time. Transfer of the meaning is called **semantic word-building**. In such cases the outer aspect of a word does not change.

The causes of semantic changes can be **extra-linguistic and linguistic**: e. g. the change of the lexical meaning of the noun *pen* was due to **extra-linguistic causes.** Primarily *pen* comes back to

the Latin word *penna (a feather of a bird).* As people wrote with goose pens the name was transferred to **steel pens** which were later on used for writing. Later any instrument for writing was called a pen.

Linguistic causes, e.g. the conflict of synonyms when a perfect synonym of a native word is borrowed from some other language one of them may **specialize** in its meaning.

e.g. The noun *tide* in OE was polysemantic and denoted *time, season, hour.* When the French words *time, season, hour* were borrowed into English they ousted the word *tide* in these meanings. It was **specialized** and now means *regular rise and fall of the sea caused by attraction of the moon.*

The meaning of a word can also change due to **ellipsis**;

e.g. the word-group *a train of carriages* had the meaning of *a row of carriages.* Later on *of carriages* was dropped and the noun *train* changed its meaning. It is used now in the function and with the meaning of the whole word-group.

Semantic changes have been classified by different scientists. The most complete classification was suggested by a German scientist **Herman Paul**. It is based on the logical principle. He distinguishes two main ways where the semantic change is gradual (specialization and generalization), two momentary conscious semantic changes (metaphor and metonymy) and **secondary ways**: gradual (elevation and degradation), momentary (hyperbole and litotes).

Specialization. It is a gradual process when a word passes from a general sphere to some special sphere of communication, e.g. *case* has a general meaning *circumstances in which a person or a thing is.* It is specialized in its meaning when used in law *(a lawsuit),* in grammar *(a form in the paradigm of a noun),* in medicine *(a patient, an illness).*The difference between these meanings is revealed in the context.

The meaning of a word can specialize when it remains in general usage. E.g. The English verb *starve* was specialized in its meaning after the Scandinavian word *die* was borrowed into English. *Die* became the general verb with this meaning. *Starve* got the meaning *to die of hunger.*

The third way of specialization is the formation of **proper names from common nouns.** It is often used in toponymics: *the City* – the business part of London.

The fourth way of specialization **is ellipsis**. In such cases primarily we have a word-group of the type *attribute + noun,* which is used constantly in a definite situation, e.g. the meaning of the word *room* was specialized because it was often used in the combinations: *dining room, sleeping room* which meant *space for dining, space for sleeping.*

Generalization. It is the transfer from a concrete meaning to an abstract one, e.g. ***Journey*** was borrowed from French with the meaning *one day trip,* now it means a trip of any duration (*jour* means *a day* in French).

All auxiliary verbs are cases of generalization of their lexical meaning because they developed a grammatical meaning: *have, be, do, shall, will* when used as auxiliary verbs are **devoid of their lexical meaning** which they have when used as notional verbs or modal verbs,

c.f. *I **have** several books by Austin* and *I **have read** some books by Austin.*

Metaphor. It is a transfer of the meaning on the **basis of comparison.** Metaphor can be based on different **types of similarity**:

a) **similarity of shape**: *head (of a cabbage), bottleneck, teeth (of a saw, a comb);*

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

c) **similarity of function, behaviour**: *a **whip** (an official in the British Parliament whose duty is to see that members were present at the voting), **a bookworm** (a person who is fond of books);*

A special type of metaphor is when **proper names become common nouns**,

e.g. ***philistine** – a mercenary person,* ***vandals** – destructive people.*

Metonymy. It is a transfer of the meaning on the **basis of contiguity (суміжність)**. Types of metonymy:

a) **the material** of which an object is made may become the name of the object: *a glass, boards (підмостки, сцена);*

b) **the name of the place** may become the name of **the people or of an object placed there**: *the House – members of Parliament, **the White House** – the Administration of the USA;*

c) names of **musical instruments** may become **names of musicians** when they are united in an orchestra: *the violin, the saxophone;*

d) the name of **some person** may become a common noun, e.g. ***boycott*** was originally the name of an Irish family who were so much disliked by their neighbours that they did not mix with them.

e) **names of inventors** very often become terms to denote **things** they invented, e.g**. *watt** (James Watt), **roentgen** (German physicist W. K. Roentgen or Röntgen who discovered X-rays);*

f) some **geographical names** can also become **common nouns** through metonymy, e.g. ***holland** (linen fabrics), **brussels** (a special kind of carpets), **china** (porcelain).*

8. SEMASIOLOGY
Outline
8.1 Semasiology: definition and its principal task

8.2 Polysemy.

8.3 Homonyms: 8.3a Definition

                8.3b Traditional classification

                8.3c Smirnitsky's classification

                8.3dPatterned homonyms

                8.3e Sources of homonymy

                8.3f Homonymy vs polysemy

8.4 Paronyms.

8.1 Semasiology: definiton

Semasiology is a branch of semantics that studies meaning in the direction from the linguistic form to its meaning / meanings. **The principal task** of semasiology is **to explain the meanings** designated by word sound forms and to show the difference between these meanings.

Semasiology studies

- **polysemy,**
- **homonymy and**
- **paronymy.**

8.2 Polysemy

A word having several meanings is called **polysemantic**. The ability of words to have more than one meaning is **polysemy**. Most English words are polysemantic.

The wealth of expressive resources of a language largely depends on the degree to which polysemy has developed in the language. The process of enriching the vocabulary does not consist merely in adding new words to it, but, also, in the constant development of polysemy.

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 processes of polysemy development involve both the appearance of new meanings and the loss of old ones.

When analyzing the semantic structure of a polysemantic word, it is necessary to distinguish between two levels of analysis. On the first level, the semantic structure of a word is treated as a system of meanings.

E. g. In the system of meanings of the adjective *dull* it is hard to find a **generalized** meaning covering and holding together the rest of the semantic structure.

Dull, adj.

1. Uninteresting, monotonous, boring; e. g. *a dull book, a dull film.*

2. Slow in understanding, stupid; e. g. *a dull pupil*

3. Not clear or bright; e. g. *dull weather, a dull day,a dull colour.*

4. Not loud or distinct; e. g. *a dull sound.*

5. Not sharp, e. g. *a dull knife.*

6. Not active, e. g. *Trade is dull.*

7. Seeing badly, e. g. *dull eyes* (arch.).

8. Hearing badly, e. g. *dull ears* (arch.).

These seemingly miscellaneous meanings have something in common. It is the implication of deficiency, be it of colour (meaning 3), wits (meaning 2), interest (meaning 1), sharpness (meaning 5), etc. The implication of insufficient quality, of something lacking, can be clearly distinguished in each separate meaning. The centre holding together the complex semantic structure of this word is not one of the meanings but a certain component that can be easily singled out within each separate meaning.

Each separate meaning is subject to structural analysis in which it may be represented as **sets of semantic components.**

The meaning of a word is defined as a set of elements of meaning which are not part of the vocabulary of the language itself, but rather theoretical elements, used to describe the semantic relations between the lexical elements of a given language.

The scheme of the semantic structure of the adjective *dull* shows that the semantic structure of a word is not a mere system of meanings, but each separate meaning is subject to further subdivision and possesses an inner structure of its own. Therefore, the semantic structure of a word should be investigated at both levels:

 a) of different meanings,

 b) of semantic components within each separate meaning.

The leading semantic component in the semantic structure of a word is called denotative component / referential component. The denotative component expresses the conceptual content of a word.

One of the most important "drawbacks" of polysemantic words is that there is sometimes a chance of misunderstanding when a word is used in a certain meaning but accepted by a listener or reader in another.

E.g. C u s t o m e r . I would like a book, please.

B o o k s e l l e r . Something light?

C u s t o m e r . That doesn't matter. I have my car with me.

Context is a powerful preventative against any misunderstanding of meanings. For instance, the adjective *dull,* if used out of context, would mean different things to different people or nothing at all. It is only in combination with other words that it reveals its actual meaning:

e.g. *a dull pupil, a dull play, a dull razor-blade, dull weather,* etc.

One of the methods of studying the semantic structure of a word is by examining the word's linear relationships with other words in typical contexts, i.e. its **combinability**.

8.3 Homonyms

8.3a Homonyms are words which are identical in sound and spelling, or, at least, in one of these aspects, but **different in their meaning.**

e.g. *bank,* n. – a shore

bank, n. – an institution for receiving, lending, exchanging, and safeguarding money.

ball, n. – a sphere; any spherical body

ball, n. – a large dancing party.

English vocabulary is rich in such pairs and even groups of words. Their identical forms are **mostly accidental**: the majority of homonyms coincided due to phonetic changes that occurred during their development.

8.3b Traditional classification

The most widely accepted classification of homonyms is:

- **homonyms proper,**
- **homophones**
- **homographs**.

Homonyms proper (or **complete**, **perfect**, **absolute**) are words **identical in pronunciation** and **spelling** but different in meaning.

e.g. *back* n. – part of the body   *bear* n. – animal

back adv. – away from the front   *bear* v. – carry, tolerate

back v. – go back

Homophones are words of the **same sound form** but of different spelling and meaning,

e.g. *buy* v. – *by* prep.

him pr. – *hymn* n.

piece n. – *peace* n.

rite n. – *write* v. – *right* adj.

Homographs are words different in sound and in meaning but accidentally identical in spelling,

e.g. *bow* [bau], v. – to incline the head or body in salutation;

bow [bou], n. – a flexible strip of wood for propelling arrows;

lead [li:d], v. – to conduct on the way, go before, to show the way;

lead [led] n. – a heavy, rather soft metal.

Homoforms are words identical in some of their grammatical forms.

e.g. *to bound* (jump, spring) – *bound* (past participle of the verb *bind);*

found (establish) – *found* (past participle of the verb *find).*

8.3c Smirnitsky's classification

A. I. Smirnitsky classified homonyms into two large classes:

- **full homonyms**
- **partial homonyms**

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

e.g. *match,* n. – a game, a contest;

match, n. – a short piece of wood used for producing fire.

Partial homonyms are subdivided into three subgroups:

➢ **Simple lexico-grammatical partial homonyms** are words which belong to the same category of parts of speech. Their paradigms have one identical form, but it is never the same form.

e.g. *found, v.* – *found,* v. (Past Ind., Past Part, *of to find);*

lay, v. – *lay,* v. (Past Ind. of *to lie).*

➢ **Complex lexico-grammatical partial homonyms** are words of different categories of parts of speech which have one identical form in their paradigms.

e.g. *rose,* n. – *rose,* v. (Past Ind. of *to rise);*

left, adj. – *left,* v. (Past Ind., Past Part, of *to leave);*

bean, n. – *been,* v. (Past Part, of *to be*).

➢ **Partial lexical homonyms** are words of the same category of parts of speech which are identical only in their corresponding forms.

e.g. *lie (lay, lain),* v. – *lie (lied, lied),* v.;

hang (hung, hung), v. – *hang (hanged, hanged),* v.

8.3d Patterned homonyms

I.V. Arnold distinguishes patterned homonyms, which, unlike other homonyms, possess a common component in their lexical meanings. These are homonyms formed either by means of conversion, or by leveling of their grammar inflexions. They are different in their grammar paradigms, but identical in their basic forms.

e.g. *warm – to warm;*

to cut – cut;

before   as an adverb, a conjunction and a preposition .

Homonyms in English are very numerous. Oxford English Dictionary registers 2540 homonyms, of which 89 % are monosyllabic words, 9,1 % are two-syllable words.

8.3e Sources of homonyms

(1) **Phonetic changes** which words undergo in the course of their historical development. As a result of such changes, two or more words which were formerly pronounced differently may develop identical sound forms and become homonyms.

e.g. *night* and *knight* were not homonyms in Old English as the initial *k* in the second word was pronounced, and not dropped as it is in its modern sound form: OE. *knight,* OE *nihi (night).*

A more complicated change of form brought together another pair of homonyms:

to knead (OE *cnēdan) 1) замішувати, місити (тісто, глину) 2) змішувати в загальну масу 3) формувати (характер тощо) 4) масажувати, розминати;*

to need (OE *nēodian)*

(2) Conversion which serves creating of grammatical homonyms,

e.g. *iron →to iron,*

work→ to work.

(3) Shortening is a further type of word-building which increases the number of homonyms,

e.g. *fan,* n. in the sense of "an enthusiastic admirer of some kind of sport or of an actor, singer" is a shortening produced from *fanatic.* Its homonym is a Latin borrowing *fan,* n. which denotes an implement for waving lightly to produce a current of air.

Rep, n. denoting a kind of fabric (репс – тканина) has three homonyms made by shortening:

repertory → rep, n., (a building or place where a stock of things is kept; repository)

representative → rep, n.,

reputation → rep, n.

(4) Borrowing is another source of homonyms. A borrowed word may, in the final stage of its phonetic adaptation, duplicate in form either a native word or another borrowing,

e.g. Lat. *ritus → rite* n. – *write* v. – *right* adj.;

OFr. *pais → piece*, n.

OFr. *pettia → peace* n.

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

e.g. *bang,* n. "a loud, sudden, explosive noise"

bang, n. "a fringe of hair combed over the forehead" (чубок)

mew, n. "the sound a cat makes"

mew, n. "a sea gull"

mew, n. "a pen in which poultry is kept"

mews, n. "small terraced houses in Central London"

8.3f Homonymy vs polysemy

One of the most debatable points in semasiology is the demarcation line between homonymy and polysemy, i.e. between different meanings of one word and the meanings of two or more homonymous words.

Different criteria can be applied to distinguish a homonym from a polysemantic word:

1. **Semantic criterion**. If a connection between various meanings is apprehended by the speaker, they are to be considered as making up the semantic structure of a polysemantic word, otherwise it is a case of homonymy.

2. **The criterion of distribution**. It is helpful in cases of lexico-grammatical homonyms (e.g. the homonymic pair *paper* n. – *paper* v.) but it fails in case of lexical polysemy.

3. **The criterion of spelling**. Homonyms differing in graphic forms such as *flower – flour* are easily perceived to be two different lexical units.

8.4 Paronyms

Paronyms are words that are alike in form, but different in meaning and usage. They are liable to be mixed and sometimes mistakenly interchanged. Paronymy is partial similarity of word sound

forms; the roots are identical but the affixes are different. The term paronym comes from the Greek *para* "beside" and *onoma* "name",

    e.g. *precede*   *proceed*
         preposition   *proposition*
         popular   *populous*
         grateful   *gracious*

9. ONOMASIOLOGY

9.1 Onomasiology: definition

Onomasiology is the branch of semantics that studies meaning in the direction from the **concept to the linguistic form** that evokes this concept.

Onomasiological studies of the words explore the word groups grounded on the meaning. They demonstrate the relations of **synonymy, antonymy, partonymy and hyponymy.**

9.2 Synonyms.

9.2a Synonyms are traditionally described as words different in sound-form but identical or similar in meaning. **I.V. Arnold** gives the following definition of 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, valency and idiomatic use."

The principal function of synonyms is to represent the same phenomenon in different aspects, shades and variations. A carefully chosen word from a group of synonyms is a great asset both on the printed page and in a speaker's utterance. It was Mark Twain who said that *the difference between the right word and just the right word is the difference between the lightning and the lightning-bug.*

I.V. Arnold

9.2b Synonymic dominant

The synonymic dominant is the most general term potentially containing the specific features rendered by all the other members of the group.

e.g. The words *face, visage, countenance* have a common denotational meaning – the front of the head which makes them close synonyms. *Face* is the dominant, the most general word. *Countenance* is the same part of the head with the reference to the expression it bears. *Visage* is a formal word, chiefly literary, for *face* or *countenance*.

The semantic structure of a synonymic dominant is quite simple: it consists only of denotative component and it has no connotations. All synonymic groups have a "central" word of this kind whose meaning is equal to the denotation common to the entire synonymic group.

e.g.**to surprise** – *to astonish – to amaze – to astound;*

to shout – *to yell – to bellow – to roar;*

to shine – *to flash – to blaze – to gleam – to glisten – to sparkle – to glitter — to shimmer — to glimmer*

The **dominant synonym** expresses the notion common to all synonyms of the group in the most general way, without contributing any additional information as to the manner, intensity, duration or any attending feature of the referent. So, any dominant synonym is a typical basic-vocabulary word. Its meaning, which is **broad and generalized**, more or less covers the meanings of the rest of the synonyms, so that it may be substituted for any of them.

The characteristic features of the dominant synonym are the following:

1) high frequency of usage;

2) broad combinability (ability to be used in combinations with various classes of words);

3) broad general meaning;

4) lack of connotations.

In a great number of cases **the semantic difference between two or more synonyms** is **supported by the difference in valency,**

e.g. the verbs *win* and *gain* – both may be used in combination with the noun ***victory****:*

to win a victory, to gain a victory

*b*ut with the word ***war*** only *win* is possible: *to win a war*

9.2c Classification of synonyms. Synonyms are classified into:

➢ **ideographic** – words conveying the same concept but differing in shades of meaning,

➢ **stylistic** – differing in stylistic characteristics,

➢ **absolute** – coinciding in all their shades of meaning and in all their stylistic characteristics.

Absolute (complete, perfect)synonyms are rare in the vocabulary and, on the diachronic level, absolute synonymy is anomalous and consequently temporary. The vocabulary system invariably tends to abolish it either by rejecting one of the absolute synonyms or by developing differentiation characteristics in one or both (or all) of them.

9.2d According to the criterion of interchangeability in context synonyms are classified into:

➢ **total,**

➢ **relative**

➢ **contextual.**

Total synonyms are those members of a synonymic group which can replace each other in any given context, **without the slightest alteration** in denotative meaning or emotional meaning and connotation. They are **rare**. Examples can be found mostly in special literature among technical terms and others. E.g. *fatherland – motherland; suslik – gopher; noun — substantive; functional affix – inflection; scarlet fever – scarlatina.*

Relative synonyms denote different **degree of the same notion** or different shades of meanings and can be substituted only in some contexts. E.g. *ask – beg – implore, like – love – adore, gift – talent – genius, famous – celebrated – eminent*

Contextual or context-dependent synonyms are similar in meaning only under some specific distributional conditions. It may happen that the difference between the meanings of two words is contextually neutralized. E.g. *buy* and *get* would not generally be taken as synonymous, but they are synonyms in the following examples –

*I'll go to the shop and **buy** some bread.*

*I'll go to the shop and **get** some bread.*

9.2e Difference in connotation classification

Classification of synonyms may be based on the definition **describing synonyms as words differing in connotations.**

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

to surprise – to astonish – to amaze – to astound;

to shout – to yell — to bellow — to roar;

to like — to admire — to love — to adore — to worship.

2. The synonyms having **a connotation of duration** in their semantic structure.

E.g. to stare – to glare – to gaze – to glance – to peep – to peer, all the synonyms except *to glance* denote a lasting act of looking at smb or smth, but *to glance* describes a brief, passing look. Other examples are: *to flash (brief) – to blaze (lasting); to shudder (brief) – to shiver (lasting).*

3. The synonyms that are differentiated from the other words of the group by **emotive connotations,** and from each other by the nature of the emotion they imply, e.g. *to stare – to glare – to gaze.*

4.**The evaluative connotation** conveys the speaker's attitude towards the referent, labeling it as *good* or *bad.* e.g. *well-known – famous – notorious – celebrated,*   the adjective *notorious* bears a negative evaluative connotation and *celebrated* a positive one.

Cf: *a notorious murderer, robber, swindler, coward, ladykiller, flirt,*

but a celebrated scholar, artist, singer, man – of – letters

5.**The causative connotation** can be illustrated by the examples:

e.g. *to sparkle* **and** *to glitter:* one's eyes *sparkle with positive emotions, glitter with negative emotions.*

e.g. *to shiver* **and** *to shudder,* in whose semantic structures the cause of the act or process of trembling is encoded:

to shiver with cold, from a chill, because of the frost;

to shudder with fear, horror, etc.

6. **The connotation of manner**

e.g. *to stroll – to stride – to trot – to pace – to swagger – to stagger – to stumble* (all denote different ways and **types of walking**, encoding in their semantic structures the length of pace, tempo, gait and carriage, purposefulness or lack of purpose).

7. **Connotations of duration and manner:**

e.g. *peep and peer*

One *peeps* at smb./smth. through a hole, crack or opening, from behind a screen, a half-closed door, a newspaper, a fan, a curtain, etc.

One *peers* at smb./smth. In darkness, through the fog, through dimmed glasses or windows, from a great distance; a shortsighted person may also *peer* at things. So, in the semantic structure of *to peer* are encoded circumstances preventing one from seeing clearly.

8. **The connotation of attendant features:**

The synonyms *pretty, handsome, beautiful* **are more or less interchangeable**. Yet, each of them describes a special type of human beauty:

  – *beautiful* is mostly associated with classical features and a perfect figure,
  – *handsome* with a tall stature, a certain robustness and fine proportions,
  – *pretty* with small delicate features and a fresh complexion.

9. **Stylistic connotations** stand somewhat apart for two reasons. **Firstly**, some scholars do not regard the word's stylistic characteristic as a connotative component of its semantic structure. **Secondly**, stylistic connotations are subject to further classification, namely: colloquial, slang, dialect, learned, poetic, terminological, archaic,

e.g. *Snack, bite (coll.), snap (dial), repast, refreshment, feast (formal).*These synonyms, besides stylistic connotations, have connotations of attendant features: *snack, bite, snap* all denote a meal taken in **a hurry**; *refreshment* is also a light *meal; feast* is a rich or abundant meal.

9.2f Difference in denotational and connotational component. According to whether the difference is in **denotational or connotational** component synonyms are classified into **ideographic** and **stylistic.**

Ideographic synonyms denote different shades of meaning or different degrees of a given quality. They are nearly identical in one or more denotational meanings and interchangeable at least in some contexts, e.g. *beautiful – fine – handsome – pretty.* **Beautiful** conveys the strongest meaning; it marks the possession of that quality in its fullest extent. The other words denote the possession of it **in part only**. Fineness, handsomeness and prettiness are related to beauty as parts to a whole.

Stylistic synonyms. Pictorial language often uses poetic words, archaisms as stylistic alternatives of neutral words (e.g. *bliss* for *happiness, steed* for *horse, quit* for *leave)*. In many cases a stylistic synonym has an element of elevation in its meaning (e.g. *face – visage, girl – maiden).*

Along with elevation of meaning there is the reverse process of degradation, e.g. *to begin – to fire away, to eat – to devour, to steal – to pinch, face – muzzle.*

9.3 Sources of synonymy:

1) Synonyms which originated from the native language
   e.g. *Fast – speedy – swift*
   handsome – pretty – lovely
   bold – manful – steadfast
2) Synonyms created through the adoption of words **from dialects or varieties**:
   e.g. *mother – minny* (Scot.);
   charm – glamour (Scot.);
   *long distance call (*AE*) – trunk call* (BE);
   radio (AE) *– wireless* (BE)
3) Synonyms that owe their origin to foreign **borrowings**:
   e.g. *Help – aid* (Fr);
   heaven – sky (Sc.);
   freedom – liberty (L.)

The peculiar feature of synonymy in English is the contrast between simple **native** words which are **stylistically neutral**, **literary** words **borrowed from French** and **learned** words from **Greek** and **Latin.**

English	*French*	*Latin*
to ask	to question	to interrogate
to end	to finish	to complete
to rise	to mount	to ascend
teaching	guidance	instruction
belly	stomach	abdomen

4) Synonyms created by means of all word-forming processes productive in the language. Synonyms may influence each other semantically in two opposite ways: dissimilation or differentiation and reverse process, i.e. assimilation.

Many words now marked in the dictionaries as archaic or obsolete have dropped out of the language in the competition of synonyms, others survived with a meaning more or less different from the original one. This process is called synonymic differentiation**,** *soil* (Fr.) – a strip of land

   *eorþe, land, folde (*OE) – the upper layer of earth in which plants grow → *soil, earth, ground –* the mould in which plants grow.

The assimilation of synonyms consists in parallel development.

E.g. pejorative meanings acquired by the nouns *wench, knave* and *churl* which originally meant "girl", "boy", and "laborer" respectively. This loss of old dignity became linguistically possible because there were so many synonymous words of similar meaning. As the result all the three words underwent **degradation** in their meanings:

wench → indecent girl;
knave → rascal;
churl → country man.

5) Synonyms connected with **non-literary** figurative use of words in pictorial language:
e.g. *dreamer – star-gazer;*
profession – walk of life.

6) Synonyms – **euphemisms and vulgarisms** employed for certain stylistic purposes:
e.g. *to steal – to scoop;*
to lie – to distort facts.

7) Some synonymic oppositions appeared due to shift of meaning, new combinations of verbs with postpositives and compound nouns formed from them:
e.g. *to choose – to pick up;*
arrangement – layout;
to enter – to come in

8) Synonyms developed due to shortening:
e.g. *examination – exam; doctor – doc; memorandum – memo.*

9.4 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.**

Antonymy is not evenly distributed among the categories of parts of speech. Most antonyms are **adjectives**, which seems to be natural because qualitative characteristics are easily compared and contrasted, e.g. *high – low, wide — narrow, strong— weak, old—young, friendly – hostile.*

Verbs take second place. E.g.*to lose – to find, to live – to die, to open – to close, to weep – to laugh.*

Nouns are not rich in antonyms, e.g. *friend – enemy, joy – grief, good – evil, heaven – earth, love – hatred.*

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

In the semantic structures of all words, which regularly occur in antonymic pairs, a special **antonymic connotation** can be singled out.
E.g. the semantic structure of *hot* can be said to include the antonymic connotation of "**not cold"**, the semantic structure of *enemy –* the connotation of **"not a friend".**

A careful examination will reveal three kinds of oppositeness of meaning represented by the following pairs of antonyms. Consider: a) *narrow – wide, small – large, tall-short;* b) *alive – dead, male – female, open – shut*; c) *over – under, receive – give, wife – husband.*

9.4a Types of antonyms

Gradable antonyms are adjectives which do not refer to absolute qualities, but which may be subject to comparison or qualification. e.g. *narrow – wide, small – large, tall – short.*

Complementary antonyms represent two interrelated entities, one doesn't exist without another. It means that the denial of one member of the pair implies the assertion of the other member, *e.g. alive – dead, male – female, open – shut.*

Converses or **relational opposites.** One member of the pair refers to the converse relation referred to by the other member, e.g. *over – under, receive – give, wife – husband.*

9.5 Partonymy

Partonymy shows **'part – whole'** relations between word meanings,
e.g. *body – head*, *hand – finger, flock – bird*
The word that represents the **'whole'** is **holonym** and the word representing 'a part' is a **partonym.**

9.6 Hyponymy

A hyponym /'hipənim/ is a word of narrower or more specific meaning that comes under another of wider or more general meaning, e.g. *rose* under *flower*. In this relationship the word *flower* is hyperonym /'haipənim/ or superordinate. In its order flower is a hyponym of *plant.*
e.g. *handle – door, beard – face, foot – leg*
Handle and *beard* are segmental parts because they can be detached (*handle* is optional for door, *beard* is opt. for face) but *foot* cannot be detached => it's connected to the whole.

Hyponyms and hypernyms are organized in 'tree' structures.
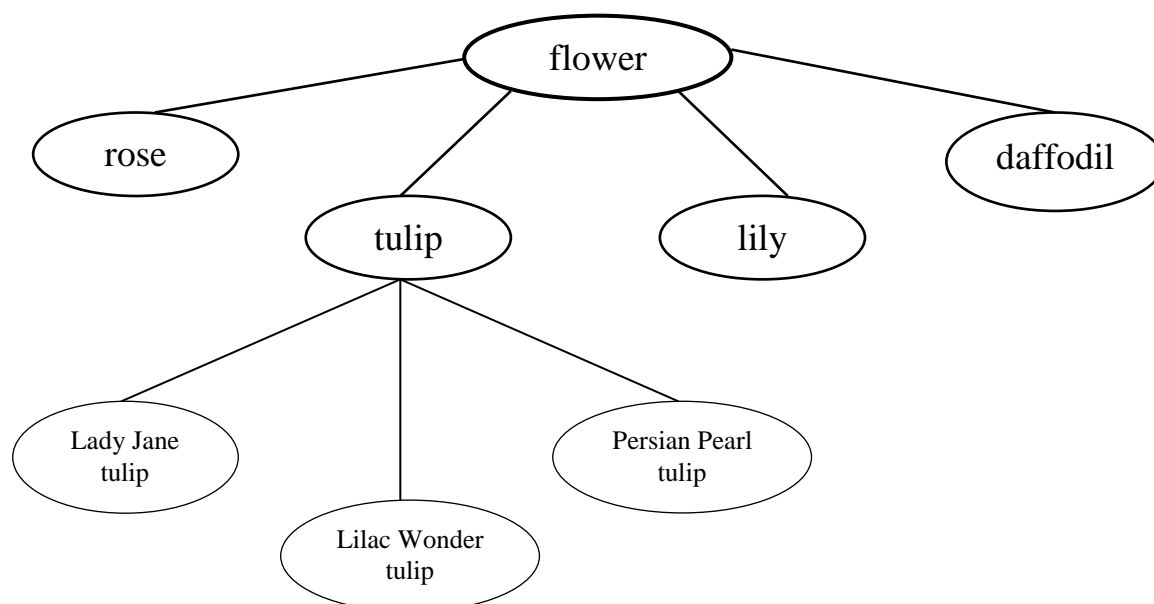
9.7 Lexical semantic fields

Lexical semantic fields include words that belong to the same part of speech and designate some general concept.
e.g. *fields of clothing, colour, parts of the body etc*.
All these words could be considered together. Such large groups are called **lexical semantic fields.** The theory of semantic fields was developed by J.Trier and W. Porzig in 1934.

10. WORD STOCK STRATIFICATION
Outline

10.1 Chronological stratification: 1a. The basic vocabulary
1b. Historic / archaic words
1c. New words / neologisms

10.2 Stylistic stratification: 10.2a Stylistically neutral words
10.2b Bookish words
10.2c Special terminology
10.2d Colloquial Words: (1) Dialectal words. Cockney
(2) Professionalisms
(3) Jargonisms
(4) Slang words
(5) Vulgarisms / obscenities
(6) Taboos

10.1 Chronological stratification

Chronological stratification is concerned with the change of vocabulary strata through time. The strata include the *basic word-stock*, as well as *'old' and 'new'* words. With the course of time, words can move from one stratum to another.

10.1a The basic vocabulary

The basic vocabulary is **the central group** of the vocabulary. Basic vocabulary words can be recognized not only by their **stylistic neutrality** but also by their entire **lack of other connotations**. Their meanings are **broad** and they directly convey the concept without supplying any additional information.

Basic	Informal	Formal
end	*finish, be trough, be over*	*terminate*
child	*kid, beam (dial.)*	*infant*

10.1b Historic / archaic words

The Random House Dictionary defines an **obsolete** word as one no longer in use, esp. out of use for at least a century. An **archaism** is referred to as current in an earlier time but rare in present use,
e. g. *thou, thy,*
damsel (for a girl),
moon (for a month),
morn (for morning).

10.1c New words / neologisms

A **neologism** is a newly coined word or phrase or a new meaning for an existing word or a word borrowed from another language.
e.g. *de-orbit, laseronic, aeroneurosis, backpacker*

10.2 Stylistic stratification represents the strata of words that are applied in different functional styles. The three basic strata are:

- **neutral words**
- **bookish words**
- **colloquial words**

Stylistic Classification of the English Vocabulary
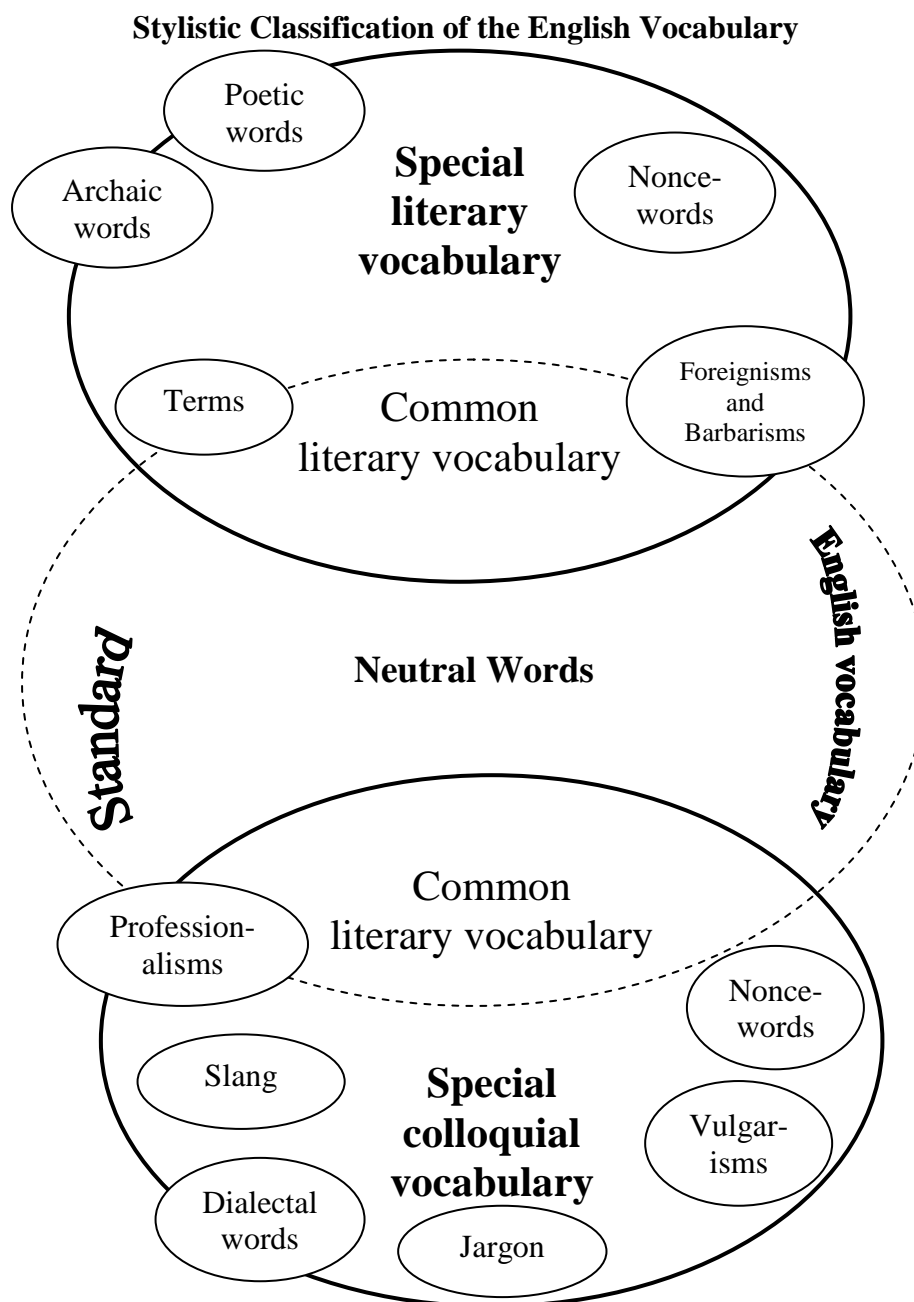
10.2a Stylistically neutral words

Stylistically neutral words include the most **vital part** of the vocabulary. **Etymologically** they are mostly native, or borrowed long ago and assimilated,

e.g. Latin borrowings and words of Greek origin borrowed through Latin, *copper, wall, church, street;*

early French borrowings: *pleasure, army, judge, mutton;*

the bulk of early Scandinavian borrowings, *e.g. husband, sky.*

Stylistically neutral words are often root words. Since they are devoid of emotional colouring their frequency value is very high and therefore they are often polysemantic.

10.2b Bookish words

Bookish words are mostly borrowed ones, chiefly of Romanic origin, going back to Latin or Greek root. They are polymorphemic and polysyllabic, their range of application is rather narrow, they are mostly monosemantic.

e.g. father – paternal, home – domestic, lip – labial, mind – mental, sun – solar.

Such words are also called **learned vocabulary.** This vocabulary comprises such words as *hereby, herein, moreover, therein, furthermore, however, in consequence*.

10.2c Special Terminology

A term is a word or word-group used to name the notion characteristic of some special field of knowledge, industry or culture. A term is a very peculiar type of word. Terms are mostly monosemantic. Polysemy (if it arises) is a drawback, so all try to avoid. Terms are not emotionally coloured. Many of the terms that in the first period of their existence are known to a few specialists, later become used by a wide circle of people,

e.g. stratosphere (1908), gene (1908), vitamin (1912), isotope (1932), radar (1942), transistor (1952).

10.2d Colloquial Words

Colloquial words are marked by their special emotional colouring. They are closer to neutral words both etymologically and structurally than to bookish words. However affixation (forming diminutives) is rather frequent,

–ie	*auntie, birdie*
–y	*baby, granny, kitty*
–ette	*kitchenette*
–ish	*piggish*

Hyperbolic expressions are also common here:

e.g. *awfully nice, terribly sweet, unutterably exotic, etc.*

Polysemy in general is a prominent feature here:

e.g. *way, thing, take, set, give*

(1) Dialectal words

Standard English is the official language of Great Britain taught at schools and universities, used by the press, the radio and TV and spoken by educated people. It is form of English which is correct and literary, uniform and recognized as acceptable wherever English is spoken and understood.

Its vocabulary is contrasted to dialect words belonging to various local dialects. There are **local dialects** which are varieties of the English language, peculiar to some districts and having no normalized literary form and **variants** which are regional varieties possessing a literary form.

In Great Britain there are two variants - Scottish English and Irish English, and five main dialects: Northern, Midland, Eastern, Western and Southern. Every group contains several dialects. One of the best known Southern dialects is **Cockney,** the regional dialect of London. The OED's first recorded use of *Cockney* is dated 1776. But it has been suggested that a Cockney style of speech is much older.

Cockney exists on two levels:

1) as spoken by the educated lower middle classes. It's a regional dialect marked by some deviations in pronunciation but few in vocabulary and syntax.

2) as spoken by the uneducated, Cockney differs from Standard English also in vocabulary, morphology and syntax. B. Show's play "Pygmalion" clearly renders this level of Cockney. Professor

Henry Higgins, the main character of the play, speaking about Aliza Doolitle, the flower girl, says: *You see this creature with her curbstone English: the English that will keep her in the gutter to the end of her days. Well, in three months I could pass this girl off as a duchess. It requires better English.*

The difference between Standard English and Cockney in pronunciation.

1. Dropping the sound **/h/** at the beginning of words: *ave (have)*; and adding it to words beginning with vowels:

> *e.g. atmosphere – hatmosphere*
> *influence – hinfluence*

2. Dropping **/v/** in *of*

3. Substituting **/v/** by **/w/** and vice versa,

> *e.g. wery and vith*

4. The simplification of the diphthong *au* to *a*:

> *e.g.houses* /'ha:ziz/

Cockney is lively and witty and its vocabulary is imaginative and colourful. It has set expressions of its own. Its specific feature is **so-called rhyming slang.**

> e.g. *head – loaf of bread*
> *wife – trouble and strife*

Rhyming Slang phrases are derived from taking an expression which rhymes with a word and then using that expression instead of the word, e.g. the word *"look"* rhymes with *"butcher's hook"*.

In many cases the rhyming word is omitted – so you won't find too many Londoners having a *"bucher's hook"*, but you might find a few having a *"butcher's"*. *"Use your loaf"* is an everyday phrase for the British, but not too many people realise it is Cockney Rhyming Slang *("loaf of bread: head")*.

English Rhymes with Cockney

Feet	Plates of meat	Plates
Legs	Scotch eggs	Scotches
Arms	Chalk farms	Chalk farms
Hair	Barnet fair	Barnet
Face	Boat race	Boat race
Mouth	North and South	North and South

Dialects are now chiefly preserved in rural communities and in the speech of elderly people.

(2) Professionalisms

Professionalisms are words connected with the productive activities of people united by a common occupation or profession.

Professionalisms are understood only by a certain professional group.

> *e.g. to back – to iron*
> *washer – washing machine (laundry professionalisms)*
> *fancy starch – starching and ironing lacy linen.*

(3) Jargonisms

Jargonisms are words and expressions created by various social groups and classes, a sort of secret code invented with special "agreed upon" meaning or distorted to look strange and not understandable for others.

> *e.g. splosh (money)*
> *spec – speculations*
> *to put on the spot – decide to get rid of*

Jargonisms is a very unstable lexical category, they shift from one group of users to another.

(4) Slang words

Slang words are identified and distinguished by contrasting them to standard literary vocabulary. They are expressive, mostly ironical words serving to create fresh names to some things that are frequently used. For 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. head – *attic, brain ,pan, nut, upper storey;*
    drunk – *boozy, cock-eyed, high.*

Slang has often attracted the attention of many lexicographers. The best known English dictionaries of slang is compiled by ***E. Partridge.*** Slang has been widely discussed by linguists. After the slang word has been used in speech for a certain period of time, people get accustomed to it, and it ceases to produce that shocking effect for the sake of which it was originally coined. The most vital are then accepted into literary vocabulary.

  e.g. chap, donkey, fun, odd, shabby, snob, trip.

(5) Vulgarisms / obscenities

Vulgarisms / obscenities, are coarse words that cause offence and belong to the lowest stylistic register,

  e.g. English "four-letter words";
   Ukr. *жерти, придурок, недоносок.*

Vulgarisms relate to **dysphemisms** that are offensive expressions used instead of neutral ones,

  e.g. *mug* "face",
   boneshaker "car".

(6) Taboos

Taboos are words which people may not use without causing offence, because they refer to acts, objects, or relationships which are widely felt to be embarrassing, distasteful, or harmful. Verbal taboos are usually related to sex, the supernatural, and death. Many of the words related to these topics have been stigmatized as bad language, foul language. They have been banned in polite conversation or writing and very often in print.

  Evasive words or expressions used in place of verbal taboos are called **euphemisms,**

  e.g. *to pass away, to pass on* "to die",
   bathroom, restroom, "toilet".

SEMINARS: OUTLINES AND ASSIGNMENTS

Seminar №1

What is Lexicology? A word as a fundamental unit of language

Outline

1. Lexicology and its tasks

2. Two principal approaches

3. Branches of Lexicology

4. Ambiguous nature of a word. Definitions of a word

5. The nature of a word

6. Four basic kinds of words

7. Inner structure of the word

Exercises and Tasks

Exercise 1. Examine the following definition of "word" from different dictionaries and comment on them.

- Collins English Dictionary (1992):

  one of the units of speech or writing that native speakers of a language usually regard as the smallest meaningful element of the language, although linguists would analyse these further into morphemes.

- Illustrated Oxford Dictionary (1998):

  a sound or combination of sounds forming a meaningful element of speech, usually shown with a space on either side of it when written or printed.

- Webster's Encyclopedic Unabridged Dictionary (1996):

  a unit of language, consisting of one or more spoken sounds or their written representation, that can stand as a complete utterance or can be separated from the elements that accompany it in an utterance by other such units. Words are composed of one or more morphemes with relative freedom to enter into syntactic construction, and are either the smallest units susceptible of independent use or consist of two or three such units combined under certain linking conditions, as with the loss of primary accent which distinguishes 'blackbird from 'black 'bird.

Exercise 2. Comment on structural types of words. Arrange the following words into:

a) simple,

b) derived,

c) compounds,

d) derivational compounds.

Railway, child, childish, bald-headed, toy, mute, deaf, deaf-mute, act. actor, longlegged, dark, darkness, friend, friendship, everything, boyishness, open-hearted, daytime, narrow-minded, whatever, big, biggish, space, spaceman, old, old-timer, teenager, ill, ill-mannered, double, fame, famous, norm, normal, sunrise, timesaving, sharp, sharpen, hand, handful, handy, moon, honey-mooner, week-end, bare, leg, bare-legged, three-coloured, film, film-star, mistress, breakdown, overgrow, light-blue.

Exercise 3. Arrange the following words into three groups: those having:
a) free stems;
b) bound stems;
c) semi-bound stems.

Public, voyage, boyish, disarrange, 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 4. Comment on simple stems and derived stems. Arrange the following words into two groups:
a) those having simple stems,
b) those having derived stems.

Hearty, heartily, organise, organised, consciously, boyish, boyishness, enslave, enslavery, effortless, boxer, princess, quickly, familiarity, brutality, singer, steadiness, courageous, worker, boiled, appearance.

Exercise 5. Give allomorphs of the negative prefix *in-*. Form adjectives using these allomorphs.

Regular, polite, rational, mortal, movable, legal, proper, mobility, literate, logical, mature, measurable, patience, perfect, personal, relevant, responsible.

Seminar №2

Word stock formation

Outline

1. Morphological word formation
2. Semantic word formation
3. Borrowing

Execises and Tasks

Exercise 1. Look through the list of prefixes. Pick out those which have the generic denotational meaning of: a) negation; b) reversion; c) time and order; d) location and disposition.

A- *(of, on),* a- *(not),* ab- *(from, away),* ad- *(addition),* after-, ampni-, ante-, anti-, arch-, be-, bis-/bi-, by-, circum-, com-/co-, contra-/contro-, counter-, de- *(down, separation, reversion),* di-/dis- *(twice),* dis- *(separation, negation),* ex- *(former, out of),* en-, extra-, fore-, forth-, in- *(in, into),* in-*(negation),* inter-, intra-, mis-, non-, ob-, off-, on-, out-, over-, per-, poly-, post-, pre-, pro-, re-, retro-, sub-, super-, trans-, ultra-, un-, under-, up-, vice-, with-.

Exercise 2. Comment on the meaning of the prefix non-. Translate the following words into Ukrainian.

Non-ability, non-acquaintance, non-admission, non-aggressive, non-alcoholic, non-arable, non-believer, non-durable, non-effective, non-essential, non-European, non-existence, non-ferrous, non-freezing, non-fulfillment, non-human, non-logical, non-official, non-permanent, non-persistent, nonsense, non-smoker, non-standard, non-stop, non-transportable, non-voter.

Exercise 3. Classify the following -*er* nouns into:
a) agent-nouns;
b) nouns denoting things which do what the stem denotes;
c) nouns denoting persons who live in a certain country or locality.

Announcer, cutter, defender, driver, fighter, footballer, foreigner, free-thinker, gardener, listener, Londoner, Netherlander, New-Yorker, offender, owner, reader, reaper, speaker, villager.

Exercise 4. Comment on the meaning of the noun-forming suffix -*ess*. Give Ukrainian/Russian equivalents of the following nouns in -*ess*.

Baroness, poetess, actress, stewardess, empress, heiress, lioness, tigress, traitress, adventuress, hostess, Jewess, laundress, shepherdess, waitress, countess, goddess.

Exercise 5. Comment on the meaning of the semi-suffix -*man*. Give Ukrainian equivalents of the following nouns in -*man*.

Airman, cavalryman, guardsman, seaman, Dutchman, Englishman, Frenchman, Irishman, Scotchman businessman, congressman, policeman, yachtsman.

Exercise 6. Form nouns in -*hood*. Comment on their meaning.

Baby, bachelor, boy, child, father, girl, likely, man, mother, parent, sister, widow, woman.

Exercise 7. Comment on the meaning of the suffix -*ed*. Paraphrase these word-combinations containing adjectives in -*ed*.

Bespectacled eyes; dogged face; hooked nose; talented actor; rugged face; bearded gentleman; skilled reader; aged voice; moneyed person; domed roof; experienced doctor.

Exercise 8. Arrange the following adjectives in -y into two groups according to their meaning:
a) looking like, characterised by;
b) lacking some quality.

Bloody, brushy, chatty, doughy, dreamy, dusty, fatty, funny, fussy, greedy, greeny, gummy, handy, inky, lucky, muddy, noisy, powdery, pinky, rainy, rosy, steamy, stony, stuffy, sunny, waxy, windy.

Exercise 9. Translate the following words into Ukrainian paying attention to the difference in their meaning.

amusing – amused,   childish – childlike,
bored – boring,   colourful – coloured,

delightful – delighted,

distressed – distressing,

economic – economical,

embarrassed – embarrassing,

exhaustive – exhausting – exhausted,

feverish – fevered,

flowery – flowered – flowering,

godlike – godly,

historic – historical,

loving – lovely – lovable,

man – mannish,

pleasant – pleased,

reddened – reddish,

respected – respectful – respectable,

rightful – righteous,

shortened – shortish,

snaky – snake-like,

starry – starred,

tasty – tasteful,

touchy – touched – touching,

watery – waterish,

womanlike – womanly – womanish.

Exercise 10. Classify the following compounds according to the part of speech they belong to.

Age-old, home-made, anything, skin-deep, killjoy, yes-man, salesman, ill-fitting, whitewash, three-room, first-rate, metal-cutting, baby-sit, haymaker, water-proof, handshake, well-bred, tender-hearted, whatever, anybody, one-sidedly, never-to-be-forgotten, himself, bottleneck, widespread, old-looking, sunbathe, whoever, third-rate, clean-shaven, hairdresser, hair-do, well-wisher, oak-tree, life-long.

Exercise 11. Classify the following compounds into:
a) co-ordinative,
b) subordinative.

Frontbenchers, mother-of-thousands, sea-coast, dining-room, person-to-person, blueeyed, criss-cross, pine-apple, pigtail, carefree, motorcycle, acid-resisting, first-hand, wardamaged, fifty-fifty, oil-poor, fire-proof, play-ground, sunrise, blue-berry, crystal-clear, man-eater, good-for-nothing, walking stick, skyscraper, cinema-goer, lamp-shade, hotdog, odd-looking, record-breaking, two-room, second-hand, thick-skinned, lazy-bones, frost-resistant, all-destroying, self-analysis, whole-hearted.

Exercise 12. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian paying attention to the phenomenon of bahuvrihi.

1. Liz nodded her agreement, shaking an **I-told-you-so** finger at Jake.

2. Even if I never came down here again in my life, I didn't want to leave people with that opinion of me, that half-contemptuous, **see-what-you-get-for-thinking-too-much** attitude.

3. There was no sense of relief attached to the memory, that **thank-God-it-was-only-a-dream** feeling you get after a particularly nasty nightmare.

4. Owen gave him a nod, trying to project an air of confidence, of command, of **everythings-under-control**.

5."Ron," said Hermione, in an **I-don't-think-you're-being-very-sensitive** sort of voice, "Harry doesn't want to play Quidditch right now."

6. When I told the clerk at the reception desk that I had no reservation, his face took on that distant **no-room-at-the-inn** look of hoteliers in a good season.

7. Everyone's told me. About how you survived when **You-Know-Who** tried to kill you and how he disappeared.

8. Dobby remembers how it was when **He-Who-Must-Not-Be-Named** was at the height of his powers.

9. And Jake had to admire her: her steady, **give-away-nothing** voice.

10. For the first time in her life she had found something to which she was willing to commit herself. Not a casual commitment, either. Not an **until-I-get-bored** commitment. She was willing to put her life on the line for this, for Jim and what he could become.

11. Underhill was going to walk away, leaving him with a lot of **could-have-beens** and **might-have-beens**.

12. "Rick?" Jonesy asked in a hushed voice. A **don't-wake-the-baby** voice.

Exercise 13. Find examples of conversion in the sentences below. State to what part of speech these words belong.

1. Have you ever summered in the country? It's a marvelous thing, isn't it?

2. You are not down. Nothing will down you.

3.1 picture myself taking courage to make a declaration to Miss Larkins.

4. She might come and room with her.

5. The room faced the street.

6. From the first Soames had nosed out Darties's nature.

7. D'you think you are the man to head it?

8. She fingered the dollar.

9. That's Gloucester Road. Plenty of time to get there if we tube.

10. You had to have a strong head and a fine constitution to drink, drink for drink.

11. In the long run, anyone is bound to think that the left is right, and the right is wrong.

12. At last they came into the open.

13. Fact is, I can't quite believe it's all true till I see it in black and white.

14. Isabel wirelessed him from the ship.

15. I've told you forty times not to touch that jam or I would whip you.

Exercise 14. Comment on the meaning of the following converted verbs. Use them in sentences of your own.

ape → to ape	face → to face
arm → to arm	finger → to finger
back → to back	fish → to fish
dog → to dog	head → to head
duck → to duck	line → to line
dress → to dress	pocket → to pocket

Exercise 15. Comment on the phenomenon of shortening (or clipping). Arrange the following shortenings into:
a) those formed by apocope;
b) those formed by aphaeresis;
c) those formed by syncope.

Pub, fridge, fancy, photo, comfy, chap, doc, bike, specs, pop, flu, bus, van, prep, peal, cause, exam, chute, ma'am, tween, ad, cycle, taxi, fan, cap, imposs, math, gym, lab, story, phone, mend, fend, vets, auto, plane, mag, drome, ne'er, sis, zoo, gent.

Exercise 16. Comment on initial abbreviations. Write the following abbreviations in full.

AD, BBC, BC, CIA, EEC, FBI, NATO, NB, OK, PS, RAF, SAT, SOS, TV, UK, UNO, UNESCO, USA, BA, CID, FO, GCE, MP, PEN, PM, RN, VP.

Exercise 17. Give English words or phrases corresponding to the following Latin abbreviations:

A.D., p.m., e.g., L. (lb.), op. cit, P.S., viz., ad lib, q.v., cf, id., loc. cit., ob., ibid., v.

Exercise 18. a) Comment on the formation of the following blends, b) Translate the blends into Ukrainian.

airtel, animule, atomaniac, beefalo, beefish, bit, boatel, breathalyser, branch, cablevision, cashomat, chortle, chunnel, cinegoer, cincrama, colorcast, cyclotron, datamation, dawk, dictabelt, dumbfound, dunch, ecopolitics, eldercare, electrocute, Eurovision, Euratom, flurry, flush, fruice, galumph, glasphalt, glaze, goodbye, helibus, heliport, jetomic, keyphone, lansign, medicare, motel, motorcade, Oxbridge, paratroops, positron, refereader, skurflng, slanguage, slash, slimnastics, smaze, spam, spork, stagflation, swellegant, telecast, teleprinter, tigon, transceiver, transistor, travelogue, twirl, yakow, zebrule, zedonk.

Exercise 19. Study the following "telescoped" words. Comment on the lexico-grammatical categories involved and then arrange the blends given into three groups as to the type of contraction:
1) the initial element + the final element;
2) one notional word + the final element;
3) the initial element + the notional word.

Animule (animal + mule), baseart (basket + cart), brunch (breakfast + lunch), cablegram (cable + telegram), electrocute (electricity + execute), flurry (fly + hurry), galumph (gallop + triumph), glaze (glare + gaze), laundromat (laundry +automat), macon (mutton + bacon), mobus (motor + bus), seadrome (sea + aerodrome), slash (slay + dash), smaze (smoke + haze), smog (smoke + fog), swellegant (swell + elegant).

Exercise 20. Comment on the following cases of back-formation.

baby-sit ← baby-sitter,
beg ← beggar,
broke ← broker,
catalyse ← catalysis,
edit ← editor,
greed ← greedy,
hawk ← hawker,
house-clean ← house-cleaner,

kittle ← kittling,

peddle ← peddler,

reminisce ← reminiscence,

sculpt ← sculptor,

televise ← television,

typewrite ← typewriter,

ush ← usher.

Seminar № 3

Lexicography

Outline

1. History of Lexicography

    1.1. British Lexicography

    1.2. American Lexicography

2. Major lexicography issues

3. Types of dictionaries

Exercises and tasks

Exercise 1. Analyse the dictionary according to the following plan:

1. Title, place and year of publication.

2. The objectives of the dictionary.

3. The total number of entries.

4. What are the sections?

5. What is the structure of a dictionary entry?

6. In what way is pronunciation explained? (International system or other)

7. Is etymology of the word provided? What is the system of etymological labels?

8. Are all derivatives given in the entry?

9. Are there compounds in the entry?

10. Are there idioms in the entry and in what way are they placed?

11. What is the quality of the definitions and explanation?

12. What specific labels are there in the dictionary? (archaisms, jargonisms,

    colloquialisms, terms, Americanisms).

13. Are there any supplements?

14. What is your point of view of the dictionary?

Exercise 2. Study the structure of the entry of Roget's Thesaurus. What does the entry include?

Thesaurus Entries

Main entry ———— **favorite** *adjective* ———————— **Part of speech**

1. Given special, usually doting treatment :
darling, fair-haired, favored, pet[1]. *See* TREAT
WELL. **2.** Being a favorite : favored, popular,
preferred, well-liked. *See* LIKE. ———— **Category reference**

Subentry ———— **favorite** *noun* **1.** One liked or preferred above
all others : darling, pet[1]. *Idiom:* apple of one's
eye. *See* LIKE **2.** A competitor regarded as the
most likely winner : *Informal:* shoo-in. *See*
WIN.

feast *noun*
A large meal elaborately prepared or served : ———— **Clear definition**
banquet, junket, spread. *Informal:* feed. *See* IN-
GESTION.

Phrasal verb ———— **feast on** *verb* To be avidly interested in : de-
vour, eat up, relish. *See* CONCERN.

fleet *verb*
To move swiftly : bolt, bucket, bustle, dart,

Synonyms ———— dash, festinate, flash, flit, fly, haste, hasten, hot-
foot, hurry, hustle, pelt[2], race, rocket, run,
rush, sail, scoot, scour, shoot, speed, sprint,
tear[1], trot, whirl, whisk, whiz, wing, zip, zoom.
Informal: rip. *Slang:* barrel, highball. *Chiefly* ———— **Usage label**
British: nip[1]. *Idioms:* get a move on, get crack-

Idioms ———— ing, go like lightning, go like the wind, hotfoot
it, make haste, make time, make tracks, run like
the wind, shake a leg, step (*or* jump) on it. *See*
MOVE.

fool around *verb* See **fool.** ———————— **Cross-reference**

Exercise 3. Choose a word from the list: *hand, arm, thing, to go, to be*, and analyze its dictionary entry and its semantic structure in the following dictionaries:

- Webster's Encyclopedic Unabridged Dictionary of the English Language
- Illustrated Oxford Dictionary
- Zagnitko A.P., Danylyuk I.G. Великий сучасний англо-український, українсько-англійський словник.

Exercise 4. Examine the following entry for discriminate, taken from CED (1998):
discriminate *vb* [dɪ'skrɪmɪ.neɪt]. 1 (*intr,* usu. followed by *in favour of or against*) to single out a particular person, group, etc., for special favour or, esp., disfavour, often because of a characteristic such as race, colour, sex, intelligence, etc. 2 (when *intr,* followed by *between* or *among*) to recognize or understand the difference (between); distinguish: *to discriminate right and wrong; to discriminate between right and*

wrong. 3 (*intr*) to constitute or mark a difference. 4 (*intr*) to be discerning in matters of taste. 5 showing or marked by discrimination. [C17: from Latin *discriminare* to divide, from *discrimen* a separation, from *discernere* to DISCERN] > dis'criminately *adv* > dis'crimi,nator *n*

What information does it give about: pronunciation, morphology, syntax?

Exercise 5. Examine the entries for the following words in two or three dictionaries of a similar size: *height, nucleus, subjective*.

How many numbered meanings does each dictionary identify, and do they identify the same range of meanings?

Phraseology

Outline

1. Phraseology. Free word-groups vs. set expressions

2. Different approaches to the classification of phraseological units

3. Ways of forming phraseological units

Exercises & Tasks

Exercise 1. Explain the meaning of the following phraseological units. Arrange them into groups according to their origin:

- expressions associated with some customs;
- expressions associated with some historical events;
- expressions borrowed from some literary sources;
- 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 2. Comment on structural classification of phraseological units. Arrange the following phraseological units functioning like nouns into groups reflecting the most typical patterns of their formation:

- N + N
- N's + N
- N + + prep + N
- N + and + N
- Adj + N

cold reason;	a slip of the pen;
black ingratitude;	queer bird;

lord and master;	a piece of somebody's mind,
the last straw;	Judas kiss;
old bird;	wolf in sheep's clothing;
a new broom;	maiden name;
a mare's nest;	the apple of somebody's eye;
the early bird;	blank verse;
old song;	Hercules' labour;
snake in the grass;	the sword of Damocles;
bag and baggage;	Solomon's judgement.

Exercise 3. Arrange the following phraseological units functioning like verbs into groups in accordance with the most typical patterns of their formation:

- V + N
- V + prep + + N
- V + (one's) + N + (prep)
- V + and + V
- V + + or + V
- V + subordinate clause
- V + postpositive

to cross the Rubicon;	to play a trick;
to catch cold;	to sink or swim;
to lose the game;	to run into debt;
to render a service;	to pick and choose;
to come to one's sense;	to take a walk;
to come into fashion;	to see how the land lies;
to fall into disrepute;	to make one's way;
to make a mistake;	to make friends with,
to grasp the shadow;	to make a fool of somebody;

to have a finger in the pie;	to play a wrong card;
to be at a loss;	to take revenge;
to hit below the belt;	to know what is what;
to fall into a rage;	to see which way the wind blows;
to break ground;	to go through fire and water;
to lose one's heart;	to turn one's coat;
to play the fool with;	to open the ball.
to beat the air;	

Exercise 4. Arrange the following phraseological units functioning like adjectives into groups in accordance with the patterns after which they are formed:

- Adj + Adj
- (as) + + Adj + as + N

as old as the hills;	as cool as a cucumber;
high and mighty;	safe and sound;
mild as a kitten;	as busy as a bee;
as slippery as an eel;	as cold as ice;
hungry as a wolf;	as hard as nails.
silent as the grave;	

Exercise 5. Arrange the following phraseological units functioning like adverbs into groups in accordance with the patterns after which they are formed:

- N + N
- prep + N
- adv + prep + N
- prep + N + or + N
- conj + + subordinate clause

by heart;	at a stroke,
once upon a time;	by slow degrees;

once in a blue moon;	at all costs;
tooth and nail;	for love or money;
by hook or by crook;	of course;
within reach; under one's nose;	at one jump;
before one can say Jack Robinson;	within a stone's throw.

Exercise 6. Match the following English idioms with their Ukrainian equivalents.

• as fussy as hen with one chick	• вовка ноги годують
• the dog that trots finds a bone	• вовк в овечій шкурі
• you should not look into the gift horse's mouth	• ворон воронові ока не виклює
• dog does not eat dog	
• crows do not pick crow's eyes	• дарованому коню в зуби не дивляться
• geese with geese and women with women	• забув віл, коли телям був
• what can you get of the cat but her skin?	• як кіт наплакав
• the sow likes bran better than roses	• знайся кінь з конем, а віл з волом
• better an egg today than a hen tomorrow	• з поганої вівці хоч вовни жмут
• a bird in the hand is worth two in the bush	• кому що, а курці просо
• a sparrow in hand is worth a pheasant that fly by	• краще синиця в жмені, ніж журавель у небі
• to buy a pig in a poke	• купити кота в мішку
• with foxes we must play the fox	• між вовками по-вовчому вий
• flies go to a lean horse	
• a wolf in a sheep's clothing	• на похиле дерево і кози скачуть
• dogs bark, but the caravan goes	• пес бреше, дощ чеше, а вітер далі несе

on	• носиться, як курка з яйцем
• the moon does not heed the barking of the dogs	
• as like as an apple to an oyster	• схожий, як свиня на коня (тільки шерсть не така)
• old cow thinks she was never a calf	
• as scarce as hen's teeth	

Exercise 7. Give the equivalents of the following English idioms:

Good riddance (to bad rubbish); once bitten twice shy; speak of the devil, and he will appear; quick choice, long repentance; easy come and easy go; too many cooks spoil the broth; as well be hanged for a sheep as for a lamb; look before you leap; teach one's grandmother to suck eggs; every cook praises his own broth.

Exercise 8. Give the equivalents of the following Ukrainian idioms:

Не варта шкурка вичинки; бачили очі,що купували, їжте, хоч повилазьте; вовків боятися - в ліс не ходити;; одна голова добре, а дві – ще краще; не вмер Данило, так болячка задавила; голодній кумі хліб на умі; брат братом, сват сватом, а гроші не рідня; прийшло махом, пішло прахом; поки сонце зійде, роса очі виїсть; і сам не гам, і другому не дам.

Exercise 9. Classify the following proverbs into:
a) simple sentences; b) compound sentences; c) complex sentences.

1. Love is blind. 2. Hope is a good breakfast, but a bad supper. 3. Never pup off till tomorrow what you can do today. 4. Too many cooks spoil the broth. 5. When guns speak it's too late to argue. 6. All cats are grey in dark. 7. When the cat is away, the mice will play. 8. It never rains, but it pours. 9. It is an ill bird that fouls his own nest. 10. Live and learn. 11. Look before you leap. 12. Man does not live by bread alone. 13. No news is good news. 14. So many countries, so many customs. 15. They that have got good store of butter may lay it thick on their bread. 16. Time is a great healer. 17. United we stand, divided we fall. 18. What can't be cured must be endured. 19. What will be, will be. 20. While there is life, there is hope.

Etymology

Outline

1. Etymological characteristics of the English vocabulary.

2. Words of native origin.

3. The foreign component in the English vocabulary.

4. Assimilation of borrowings.

5. Etymological doublets.

6. International words (for independent study).

Exercises & Tasks

Exercise 1. Here are some English words that still betray which language they have been borrowed from. Without looking them up, make an intelligent guess at their language of origin.

addendum (plural, addenda), baguette, cannelloni, con brio, criterion (plural, criteria), id est (i.e.), in loco parentis, manana, sang-froid, vis-a-vis, zucchini.

Exercise 2. Comment on the origin of the following geographical names.

Aberdeen, Beaulieu, Beckford, Cambridge, Chester, Derby, Essex, Grimsby, Lancashire, Lancaster, London, Manchester, Oxford, Sussex, Worcester.

Exercise 3. What is the difference between the words in the following pairs? Analyse the examples and prove that etymological and stylistic characteristics of words are closely interrelated.

motherly – maternal,	to begin – to commence,
fatherly – paternal,	to wish – to desire,
childish – infantile,	to love –to adore,
daughterly – filial,	to build – to construct,
womanly – feminine,	to go on – to proceed,
brotherly – fraternal,	to take part in – to participate.

to rise – to mount – to ascend,	fire – flame – conflagration,
to ask – to question – to interrogate,	fear – terror – trepidation,

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holy – sacred – consecrated,   goodness – virtue – probity.

time – age – era,

Exercise 4. Study the following Latin roots. Give words containing these roots.

audio – слухати;   porto – носити, доставляти;

centum – сто;   scribe, scriptum – писати, написаний;

circus – круг;   specto – дивитися;

civilis – цивільний, громадський,   video – бачити, зір;

державний;   visus – видіння;

lingua – мова, мовлення;   vita – життя.

Exercise 5. Give Modern English equivalents of the following abbreviations of Latin origin.

A.D. (Anno Domini), a.m. (ante meridiem), d (dinarius), e.g. (exempli gratia), etc. (et cetera), i.e. (id est), lb (libre), op.cit. (opus citatum), p.a. (per anum), p.m.(post merediem), s (solidi), v.v. (vice versa).

Exercise 6. Arrange the following names of geographical places into two groups according to their origin: Celtic or Latin.

Aberdeen, Avon, Chester, Concaster, Dover, Dunbar, Gloucester, Kent, Lancaster, Lincoln, Manchester, Trent, Thames, Worchester, Winchester, Leicester.

Exercise 7. Give adjectives of Latin origin corresponding to the following nouns.

Model: father – paternal;

heaven – celestial.

Brother, child, daughter, foe, friend, husband, man, mother, son, wife, woman, youth; blood, body, ear, eye, hand, head, heart, kidney, lip, mind, mouth, nose, akin, tongue, tooth; cat, cow, dog, fox, horse, ox, sheep, worm; cloud, day, earth, fire, life, light, moon, night, sea, spring, star, stream, sun, time; book, egg, home, house, island, milk, name, room, sight, town, tree, truth, war, water.

Exercise 8. Study the following Greek roots. Supply words containing these roots. Illustrate the meaning of these words by the examples of your own.

autos, automates – сам;

bios – життя;

chronos, chronikos – час;

demos – народ;

grapho – писати;

homos – однаковий;

lexis, lexicon – слово, словник;

logos – вчення;

onoma – ім'я;

phone – звук;

phos, photos – світло;

scopeo – спостерігати; роздивлятися;

tele – далеко.

Exercise 9. Pick out the Ukrainian borrowings from the following sentences; translate the sentences into Ukrainian.

1. They tried to reveal the mystery of the legendary Hetman Pavlo Polubotok's treasures.

2. The first donation of 1.000.000 karbovanets was made by the Lviv Regional State Administration.

3. Ukraine is the biggest supplier of horilka.

4. The Association "Svit Kultury" has done a lot: it organized the international festivals of Ukrainian songs "Zoloti Trembity", competitions of kobza players and spiritual music.

5. Now the "Pysanka" duet has in its repertoire spring songs: gaivki, vesnianki;... Christmas songs - shchedrivki, koliadki.

6. The tune to the concert was set by kobzar Pavlo Suprun.

7. Regional ethnographers of Zaporizhya have found evidence of scholars' suppositions that Zaporizhyan Cossaks had an undersea fleet.

8. Mr. Chornovil announced that Rukh was going to launch a massive campaign called "The Spring of Ukraine".

9. In the Philharmonic Society Hall, the forgotten legends about pysanka... and Easter songs were heard for the first time after many years of oblivion.

10. Perhaps as fate willed Oxana Savchuk - a singer from Bukovina, and Ivan Kavatsyuk - a musician from Gutsulland, met each other at the first All-Ukrainian variety song festival "Chervona Ruta".

Exercise 10. Analyse the words of Scandinavian origin given in the bold type . Translate the sentences into Ukrainian/Russian.

1. She had **wanted** a great many **things** in her life; she had **them** all now. Wealth and position, a kind **husband,** two dear little girls, beauty, youth.

2. Mrs. Hardisty had a roomy house in Laguna Street, with dark front **windows**.

3. Sure she ought to **take** a vacation and **skip** to New York, he said.

4. Lee pattered about without his usual **smiles**.

5. The curtains at the high windows were of **kid skins** laced together.

6. Avery was **down** at Catalina at the moment, fishing for **big** game fish.

7. There is not a single cloud in the **sky**.

8. At last he knew that he was going to **die**.

9. She was a Russian Princess, and had driven all the way from Finland in a sledge drawn by six **reindeer**.

10. And as he slept he **dreamed** a **dream**.

11. "And he has actually got one of my best **blooms**," exclaimed the White Rose-Tree.

12. Something **scuffled** in the yard, and she started.

13. He was in build what they **call** a **tight** little **fellow**.

14. "Have you any cause which shows why the judgement of death should not now be pronounced against you according to law?".

15. The king continued to call his Great Council together, a meeting of feudal lords which gave the king information on the state of the country and which had to **raise** money for him.

Exercise 11. Compare the meaning of the following etymological doublets. State their origin. Translate the doublets into Ukrainian/Russian.

eatable – edible,	shirt – skirt,
naked – nude,	shriek – screech;
nine – noon;	cathedral – chair,
bench – bank,	deacon – dean,
corn – grain,	papyrus – paper;
lapel – label,	chief – chef,
name – noun,	hostel – hotel,
ward – guard,	saloon – salon,
word – verb;	sergeant – servant,
draw – drag,	suit – suite;
hale – hail,	camp – campus,
shabby – scabby,	cross – crux,

inch – ounce,   canal – channel,

street – stratum;   card – chart.

Exercise 12. From the list below pick up international words, words which have partial equivalents in Ukrainian/Russian and false friends of translator:

test, object, decade, process, address, figure, faculty, minister, objective, collection, notation, journal, pilot, data, model, expression, novel, negative, license, order, scholar, complement, problem, category, expertise, specialization, regular, academic, coupe, selection, routine, presentation, concern, anonymous, formalism, final, control, intelligence, concrete, technique.

<p style="text-align:center">Seminar №6</p>
<p style="text-align:center">Semantics</p>
<p style="text-align:center">Outline</p>

1. Meaning. Semantic triangle

2. Lexical meaning and concept

3. Types of lexical meaning

4. Semantic change

<p style="text-align:center">Exercises & Tasks</p>

Exercise 1. Trace the process of narrowing the meaning in the following words.

Bread, cattle, deer, fowl, garage, girl, hospital, meat, starve, team, voyage, wife.

Exercise 2. Trace the process of changing the meaning in the following words. State the way of changing the meaning.

Fiction – вигадка → белетристика;

Follow – іти слідом → шпигувати;

Producer – виробник → продюсер фільму;

Rival – той, хто живе на другому березі ріки → суперник;

Stock – запас дров → запас будь-яких товарів.

Exercise 3. Trace the process of degradation of meaning of the following words.

Boor, gossip, idiot, silly, vulgar.

Exercise 4. With the help of an etymological dictionary comment on the results of semantic changes in denotation and connotation, comparing the present-day and former meanings of the words in bold type.

A. Extension of meaning

1. When the **season** opened, the huntsman, in red coat would blow the small horn – and they were away.

2. The prices were so ruinous that even **foreigners** blenched at them.

3. Sir Charles called his few witnesses, the prisoner himself went into the **box** and told his story.

4. Don't agree that we've rather neglected that **channel** of inquiry.

5. It doesn't necessarily mean that the man's a dangerous criminal. Lots of respectable **citizens** fall in love with other people's wives.

6. She had expected a **wire** in reply appointing some rendezvous, but nothing had come.

7. He sat long about his **meal** until a white-faced **maid** came to clear the table.

B. Narrowing of meaning

1. John had a view – the fox racing across a skyline,... tail straight up in the air to leave no scent. But the **hounds** had the view as well, and they were after it.

2. There was no orchard and even cooking-apples had to be purchased -but there she was lucky as John did not care much for fresh **fruit**.

3. Wonder how he's getting on? The sort of fellow who could be **starving** and sleeping in the street and he'd never complain.

4. As a **girl** she wanted to be a movie star.

5. There's a certain responsibility about having been the **wife** of genius.

6. There was only one room, a **room** in which everything could be seen from the doorway.

7. He sat down and examined all the details of the tapestry picture. A man... had just killed a **deer** with an arrow.

C. Degradation of meaning

1. Beresford did not die. He had taken less of the **poison** than his wife.

2. "I really feel I've been terribly **silly**," she said.

3. Moira moved rapidly away. Bobby sprang up to follow her, but Frankie pushed him firmly back... "Stay there, **idiot**, leave this to me".

4. Possibly you are paying too much attention to local gossip. Local **gossip** is very unreliable. I have heard the wildest stories.

5. She looked **sad** and thoughtful.

6. You know, Lady Frances, there are some queer **customers** going about.

7. Many of them were **seedy**, even **doubtful characters**.

D. Elevation of meaning

1. **Marshal** Von Grock was a true Prussian... He had the sense of reality which belongs to soldiers.

2. You can leave that to me. I've got a **splendid** idea.

3. He accepted the **lady's** invitation to come down and stay at her little cottage at Chipping Somerton.

4. "You've been wonderful, simply wonderful... You've been an **angel**," said Frankie.

5. Eliduc's overlord was the king of Brittany, who was very **fond** of the **knight** and looked after his interests.

6. When Johnson closed the door, Sharkey gazed after him. What a good **comrade** he is, he thought.

7. She's amusing to talk to and she's **nice** to look at.

Exercise 5. Comment on the phenomenon of metaphor. State on what signs of resemblance the following cases of metaphor are used.

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

Exercise 6. Study the following proverbial sayings containing the names of animals, birds and insects used metaphorically. Give Ukrainian equivalents. Supply situations in which they can be used.

1. Bull in a china-shop. 2. Can the leopard change his spots? 3. A dog in the monger. 4. A frog in the throat. 5. A snake in the grass. 6. It's raining cats and dogs. 7. To take a bee line. 8. As a crow flies. 9. Donkey work. 10. To cherish a viper in one's bosom. 11. Hare may pull dead lions by the bear. 12. Cat-and-dog existence. 13. Fox is not taken twice in the same snare. 14. Wolf in sheep's clothing.

Exercise 7. Comment on a special group of metaphors comprising transitions of proper names into common ones. State what we mean when we call a person:

Adonis, Cicero, Don Juan, Don Quixot, Othello, Vandal.

Exercise 8. Trace the way of changing the meaning in the following words.

ampere – французький фізик → одиниця сили струму;

cockney – лондонець із низів → просторіччя;

fork – виделка → розвилка;

glass – скло → склянка;

glove – долоня → рукавичка;

iron – залізо → праска;

knit – в'язати вузли → в'язати спицями;

root – корінь рослини → корінь слова;

tower – вежа на Темзі, побудована в XI ст. → вежа;

win – боротися → боротися і перемагати → перемагати.

Seminar №7

Semasiology

Outline

1. Semasiology: definition and its principal task

2. Polysemy

3. Homonyms

4. Paronyms

Exercises and Tasks

Exercise 1. List all the meanings that you can think of for the lexemes *lemon* (noun) and *review* (verb).

Exercise 2. Which of the following pairs do you think are homonyms, and which are cases of polysemy?

barge - noun (boat), verb (intervene);

court - noun (entourage), verb (woo);

dart - noun (missile), verb (move quickly);

fleet - noun (ships), adjective (fast);

jam - noun (preserve), verb (block);

pad - noun (thick metal), verb (walk softly);

steep - adjective (of gradient), verb (immense);

stem - noun (of plant), verb (stop);

stuff - verb (fill), noun (material);

watch - verb (observe), noun (timepiece).

Exercise 3. Comment on the phenomenon of homonymy. Arrange the following homonyms into three groups:

- perfect homonyms,
- homographs,
- homophones.

air (n), heir (n);	night (n), knight (n);
ball (n), ball (n);	pale (adj), pail (n);
be(v), bee (n);	peace (n), piece (n);

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

Exercise 4. Give the main nominative meanings of the following homonyms.

farther (n), farther (adv);	new (adj), knew (v);
firm (n), firm (adj);	no (pr), know (v);
horse (n), hoarse (adj);	pair (n), pear (n);
hole (n), whole (pr);	paw (n), pour (v);
host (n), host (n);	rose (n), rose (v);
match (n), match (v);	saw (n), saw (v);
meat (n), meet (v);	sweet (adj), suite (n);
	to (prep), two (num).

Exercise 5. The following words are homographs. How are they pronounced and what do they mean?

ball (n), ball (n);	minute (n), minute (adj);
bear (n), bear (n);	row (n), row (v);
bow (n), bow (v);	tear (n), tear (v);
lead (v), lead (n);	wind (n), wind (v).

Exercise 6. Give words homophonous with the following.

fare, flour, hair, heel, here, eye, night, peace, reign, pear, plain, right, soul, sum, sun, week.

Exercise 7. Pick out homonyms and define their type. Translate the following sentences.

1. a) Well, it's not the first time a man has loved the human race so much he's left his own family to starve.
b) He was breathing as if he had just run a race.
2. a) Look here, would it be a bore for you if we had tea somewhere?
b) The picture of those early nights which remained in my memory bore no resemblance to the dinners and shows much as I gloated in them.
3. a) We had just left a coffee stall.
b) I sat on Mr. March's left opposite Katherine.
4. a) He told his mother countless stories every night about his school companions.
b) There are now large apartment houses, several storeys high.
5. a) The old dog looked up and wagged his tall.
b) I don't believe a word of it, it's some old woman's tale.
6. a) He went to the dining-room to wait for dinner.
b) He lost seven pounds in weight.
7. a) Old Jolyon stepped out and, in paying the cab-fare, gave the driver a sovereign in mistake for a shilling.
b) "Vanity Fair" is a novel without a hero.
8. a) I hope my dress will be ready in time for the ball.
b) They were amusing themselves by throwing the ball carelessly from hand to hand.
9. a) Could you give a box of matches?
b) This match demonstrated a change in football ratings.

Exercise 8. a) Define the meanings of the following paronyms, b) Use them in constructing sentences of your own.

anterior - interior;	draught - draughts - drought;
canal - channel;	physics -physique;
career - carrier;	popular - populous;
cause - course;	preposition - proposition;
complement -compliment;	prescription -proscription;
conscience - consciousness;	price - prize;
	wander - wonder.

Exercise 9. Comment on the phenomenon of paronymy. Make distinctions between the following paronyms.

bear - beer;	law - low;
bare - beer;	lawyer - lower;
canal - channel;	major - mayor;
career-carrier;	modal - model;
cause - course;	Paul - poll;
collar - colour;	pair - pier;
company - campaign;	pear -pier;
conscience - conscious;	personal - personnel;
contents - context - contest;	petrol - patrol;
courage - carnage;	pour - poor;
corps - corpse;	price - prize;
cost - coast;	quay - queue;
crash - crush;	quiet - quite;
dairy - diary;	raise - rise;

draught - draughts;	seize - cease;
draught - drought;	sell - sail;
hare - heir;	skirt - shirt;
hair - hear;	sergeant - surgeon;
human - humane;	soil - soul;
lay - lie;	suit - suite;
	very - vary.

Exercise 10. Fill in the blanks with appropriate paronyms.

Campaign, company

1. The election... in England lasts about a month. 2. It was Napoleon's last.... 3. Misery loves.... 4. Don't talk about your diseases.in....

Canal, channel

1. The Great Lakes are connected with.... 2. The English... washes Great Britain in the south. 3. This film is devoted to the builders of the Suez.... 4. The North... separates Scotland from Ireland.

Cause, course

1. Let tilings take their.... 2. All of them are devoted to their common.... 3. In the... of time he will realise everything. 4. There is no... to worry.

Context, contents, contest

1.1 don't remember the... of the letter. 2. The... can Ichange the meaning of the word. 3. Who won this... ? 4. I have never come across the word in this.... 5. Look it up jin the table of.... 6. Have you tested the... of this bottle?

Exercise 11. Comment on the meaning of the polysemantic noun *bottom* in the following sentences.

1. The steamer touched the bottom of the river.

2. He emptied the glass to the very bottom.

3. Let's meet at the bottom of the stairs.

4. He has always been at the bottom of the class.

5. It is my bottom penny.

6. He examined me from top to bottom.

7. At last we got to the bottom of the problem.

8. At the bottom of her heart she was sorry for him.

9. I got to the bottom of the ladder.

10. I think, a special copy should have been sent to me. What? Initialed at the bottom by F.E.G." 11. He was wondering how the fact that the bottom was going to drop out of local street-railways would affect Cowperwood so seriously.

Exercise 12. 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.

Onomasiology

Outline

1. Onomasiology: definition

2. Synonyms

3. Sources of synonymy

4. Antonyms

5. Partonymy

6. Hyponymy

7. Lexical Semantic Fields

Exercise and Tasks

Exercise 1. Arrange the following ideographic synonyms according to the degree of intensity.

1. Ask, beg, implore.

2. Desire, long, wish.

3. Decay, fade, wither.

4. Beautiful, handsome, lovely, pretty.

5. Annoy, irritate, vex.

6. Alarmed, frightened, terrified.

7. Delight, happiness, pleasure.

8. Affliction, despair, sadness.

9. Astonishment, consternation, surprise.

10. Excuse, forgive, pardon.

11. Accident, disaster, misfortune.

12. Capability, genius, talent.

Exercise 2. Fill in the blanks with appropriate words.

Bad. ill, wicked, evil

1. Working on a newspaper one does not learn the way to break... news.

2. Nessie fiddled with her tea-spoon, dropped it, then blushed shamefully as though discovered in a... act.

3. It is not a... plan.

4. He could see the little... eyes.

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5. A pretty face may cover a... heart.

6. I know how cruel and... my temper can be.

7. I thought it was... news you were going to tell me.

High, tall, lofty

1. He looked ahead at the... grass with the flat-topped trees behind.

2. "Women upset," said Wilson to the... man.

3. Oh, one's mode of life might be... and scrupulous.

4. The captain was a... man of about forty.

5. Her drawing room has three windows looking on the river, and the ceiling is not so... as it would be in an older house of the same pretension.

6. She said in a very... way, "Do you mind following me into the drawing room?"

7. He wore a... hat.

8. The... polish of his boots shone even in the dimness of the tent.

Firm, hard, solid

1. His sister, who was a..., rather practical person, used to complain that there were too many scents at Manderley.

2. The stones were... and... under my feet.

3. She looked very... and grim.

4. It was... to give in while I still had some fight in me.

5. He uttered a... laugh.

6. These orders that are coming now are turned into... business.

7. He felt triumphant, proud,... and successful man among a lot of failures.

8. "Well," she said, her voice dry and..., not the voice she would have used to him.

Exercise 3. Give antonyms to the following words. Arrange them into three columns:

- derivational antonyms (careful - careless: active - inactive);
- absolute antonyms (white - black);
- mixed antonyms (correct - incorrect, wrong).

Active, alert, alive, amity, appearance, arrange, artless, attentive, aware, bad, big, begin, brave, busy, careful, comfortable, competent, consistent, continue, convenient, correct, courage, descend, discord, distinct, employed, enemy, expensive, faithful, faulty, final, free, frequent, gay, hostile, kind, legal, low, misfortune, normal, painful, polite, post-war, preceding,

progressive, rational, revolutionary, rough, safety, sane, slow, sufficient, temporary, timidity, underestimate, uniformity, wet, white, wrong.

Exercise 4. Fill in the blanks with words antonymous to those in italics.

1. Why do you *reject* my offer and... his?
2. He may be *dexterous* at football, but he is very... on the dance floor.
3. I enjoy the climate that is *rigorous* in winter and... in summer.
4. Some of the books were *excluded* from the list but those that were... were obligatory.
5. I'm afraid the *sweet* cream will get... if you keep it in the warm.
6. Most exercises were *correct,* but several were....
7. Near the bank the river was *shallow,* but in the middle it was... enough to swim.
8. The basket was disposed on a *low* settee beside the... clipboard.

Exercise 5. Express the contrary meaning using antonyms. State whether they are absolute or derivational.

1. All the seats were *occupied.*
2. The room was lighted by the *strong* rays of the sun.
3. A lamp is a *necessary* thing in this room.
4. The little boy was *outside* the car.
5. He drew a *crooked* line.
6. The lesson seemed to be *long* and *difficult.*
7. On the tray there was a jug of *cold* water.
8. The coach was *empty* of passengers.
9. Around the garden ran a *high* wall.
10. The book looked *dull.*
11. They chose a *cheap* restaurant.
12. He was *tall.*
13. He *opened* the door.
14. He was *sad* again.

Exercise 6. What distinguishes each of the following pairs of synonyms - dialect, formality, or connotation?

1. astonished – flabbergasted
2. chat – gossip
3. earwig – clipshears
4. give – donate
5. hate – loathe
6. ice lolly – icey pole
7. insect – creepy-crawlie
8. much – mickle
9. slippery – slippy
10. throw – hurl

Exercise 7. For each of the following words: (a) say whether it has an antonym and give it if it does; (b) say what kind of antonymy is involved (gradable, complementary, converse).

emigrate, equine, freedom, frothy, new, proud, simple, speak, straight, triangular.

Exercise 8. Propose a hyponymy tree with *crockery* as the most superordinate term. Can you identify any lexical gaps or where you need to use the same term on more than one level?

Seminar №9

Word stock stratification

Outline

1. Chronological stratification: 1a. The basic vocabulary

                                          1b. Historic / archaic words

                                          1c. New words / neologisms

2. Stylistic stratification: 2a. Stylistically neutral words

                             2b. Bookish words

                             2c. Special terminology

                             2d. Colloquial Words: (1) Dialectal words. Cockney

                                                             (2) Professionalisms

                                                               (3) Jargonisms

                                                              (4) Slang words

                                                              (5) Vulgarisms / obscenities

                                                              (6) Taboos

Exercises & Tasks

Exercise 1. Pick out colloquialisms from the sentences below and comment on their meaning and word-formative structure.

1. The backcountry look never left her. She came from the sticks; there could be no mistake about that.

2. Could anybody have been tailing him? Guys with zoom lenses or telescopic sights on the Chelsea rooftops? Ithiel smiled, and pooh-poohed this. He wasn't that important.

3. I don't say that I'm better than other women. I'm not superior. I'm nutty, also.

4. "What's your opinion of Frederic – an occasional stealer or a pro?"

5. Involuntarily Clara fell into Dr. Gladstone's way of talking... As the sessions were short, she adopted his lingo to save time, notwithstanding the danger of false statements.

6. Wilder has gone to Minnesota to see some peewee politician who needs a set of speeches.

7. "Did I hurt your feelings?" "If that means bossy, no. My feelings weren't hurt when I knew you better".

8. "What could she do?" "Heaps of things," said Frankie vigorously.

9. For three weeks two days he had a breather and slowly hauled himself out of the abyss.

10. Daddy had looked tired sometimes, he worked so fantastically hard; but he was a super daddy.

11. Rickey always had three or four dollars in his pocket and was happy-go-lucky about things.

12. Dean had arrived the night before, the first time in New York, with his beautiful little sharp chick Marylou.

13. "And the play was well received?" "In Saratoga, we were a smash. Every night we felt blessed".

Exercise 2. Pick out special terms from the extracts below. State what branch of science or field of life they belong to.

1. Acute leukaemia is more indolent than has been thought. There is good precedence for it in other haematology disorders.

2. The word plays such a crucial part in the structure of language that we need a special branch of linguistics to examine it in all its aspects. This branch is called Lexicology and it forms, next to Phonology, the second basic division of linguistic science.

3. A fraction is a part of some thing which is treated as a whole or a unit. In arithmetic, a proper fraction is a number which represents a part, that is, a number which is less than 1. In writing a common fraction, two numbers are used, called the numerator and denominator.

4. The most important combinations of sulphur and oxygen are sulphur dioxide SO_2 and sulphur trioxide SO_3, which form with water sulphurous acid H_2SO_3 and sulphuric acid H_2SO_4.

Exercise 3. Comment on archaisms. Arrange the following archaic words into lexical and grammatical archaisms.

Aught, belike, didst, dost, eke, ere, hast, hath, maiden, naught, quoth, shall, steed, thee, thou, wert, woe.

Exercise 4. Pick out obsolete words and comment on them.

1. De Bracy blew his horn three times, and the archers who stood along the wall hastened to lower the dragbridge and admit them.

2. Locksley, for such was the name of this yeoman, readily took part in the archery contest and I won the prize.

3. Their triumph was announced by the heralds, the trumpeters and shouts of the spectators.

4. Each touched with the reverse of his lance the shield of the antagonist whom he wished to oppose.

5. A narrow space between these galleries and the lists was occupied chiefly by the yeomanry and the burghers.

6. On the platform beyond the southern entrance were placed the five magnificent pavilions of the five knights who were the challengers.

7. At each of these gates stood two heralds, attended by six trumpets and a strong body of men-at-arms.

8. He looked like a strolling minstrel, for he carried a harp in his hand, which he played, while his sweet tenor voice sang a merry love-song.

Exercise 5. Comment on the barbarisms in bold type. State what language they came from and give their stylistically neutral synonyms.

1. The first months, Clara watched her **new au pair** girl closely.

2. **Khozraschot** means the end of huge subsidies to inefficient enterprises, which will result in closures and lay-offs.

3. "Bratsie's a **bona fide** war hero," explained Junior, building him up. "He's downed all kinds of pianos".

4. Billy wrote: "Annabel Christopher's performance is a chef-d'oeuvre which is also a **succes d'estime**. Although she will never make the big star grade she has an undeniable presence, a **je ne sais quoi**".

5. "Well, I've thought over this **demarche** of Getliffs".

6. "I may not have his talent," said Stephen quietly. "You never know," said the dean brightly. "We never can say what is in us. I most certainly should not be despondent. **Per aspera ad astra**."

7. "Do you intend that now," the squat student said, "as **ipso facto** or, let us say, as so to speak?"

8. Cumberland's memory was of white sunny days, vast rows of statues in long gorgeous galleries, the immensity of St. Peter's, and the uselessly stately tread of imposing **Carabinieri**.

9. She knew she could never rival Lady Lechdale in the **haut monde.** She became the Lady Lechdale of the **demimonde**.

10. It would be tedious to describe at any length the phases of this **Wanderjahr**, which undoubtedly inspired young Cibber with the ideals and ambitions which he pursued with calm consistency throughout his life.

Exercise 6. Comment on slang words and phrases in bold type.

1. Tell the **old bag** to mind her own business.
2. I need some **dough** to buy some groceries.
3. I need to get some **bread** to live on.
4. Who's the **doll** I saw you with last night?
5. Let's go out and **booze up**!
6. **I am** too **muggy** to drive.
7. Wipe that smile off your **mug**!
8. He's been drinking since noon and is pretty **wet**.
9. Hard liquor makes people **soft**.

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Useful E-Resources

1. Cockney Rhyming Slang
   http://www.cockneyrhymingslang.co.uk/
2. English Idioms
   http://www.learn-english-today.com/idioms/idioms_proverbs.html
3. English Etymology
   http://englishlexicology.blogspot.com/2011/12/etymology.html
4. Onomasiology and Semasiology
   http://www.christianlehmann.eu/termini/onomasiology&semasiology.html
5. Proper Names in English Phraseology
   http://www.linguistik-online.de/36_08/pierini.html
6. Theories on Lexical Semantics by Dirk Geeraerts
   http://npu.edu.ua/!e-book/book/djvu/A/iif_kgpm_Geeraerts%20D.%20Theories%20of%20Linguistic%20Semantics..pdf
7. What is Semantics?
   http://web.eecs.umich.edu/~rthomaso/documents/general/what-is-semantics.html
8. Words and Concepts in Time
   http://www.metaphorik.de/sites/www.metaphorik.de/files/journal-pdf/01_2001_blank.pdf

List of Abbreviations

AE - American English
BE - British English
FWG - free word group
IC - immediate constituents
NED - New English Dictionary on Historical principles
OE - Old English
MidE – Middle English
OED - Oxford English Dictionary
POV - point of view
PU - phraseological unit
UC - ultimate constituents

Л.О. Пашіс

Навчально-науковий інститут іноземних мов

LEXICOLOGY:
Матеріали до вивчення курсу

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