ЛЕКСИКОЛОГИЯ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

Учебное пособие

Обвинцева О. В. Лексикология английского языка: учеб. пособие/ О. В. Обвинцева; ГОУ ВПО «Рос. гос. проф.-пед. ун-т» Екатеринбург, 2007. 86 с.

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Учебное пособие содержит краткое изложение теоретических основ курса, практические задания, темы для обсуждения теоретических положений курса, а также глоссарий основных лексикологических терминов по дисциплине «Лексикология английского языка».

Предназначено для студентов специальности «Иностранный язык (английский)».

ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Лексикология английского языка – раздел лингвистики, изучающий словарный состав современного английского языка является важной частью курса для студентов, будущих преподавателей английского языка.

В рамках дисциплины на лекциях и практических занятиях подробно рассматриваются основные подходы и направления в лексикологии английского языка, методы исследования, анализа и системного описания его словарного состава, отдельных классов слов и индивидуальных лексических значений.

При изучении отдельных разделов особое внимание уделяется семасиологии и лексической семантике. Подробно рассматриваются парадигматические, синтагматические и вариативные отношения в лексике, фразеология, исторические процессы и современные тенденции в словарном составе английского языка, его социальная и территориальная дифференциация, а также релевантные аспекты словообразования. В рамках курса также освещаются варианты английского языка и актуальные проблемы английской лексикографии.

Цель практических занятий по дисциплине «Лексикология» – углубленное изучение и осмысление студентами теоретических положений курса. Практические занятия тематически связаны с теоретической программой курса и включают следующие виды деятельности:

– обсуждение наиболее важных теоретических положений курса;
– выполнение практических заданий на конкретном языковом материале;
– подготовка сообщений и докладов.

Данные учебное пособие предназначено для применения на практических занятиях и для самостоятельной подготовки студентов и имеет своей целью помочь активизировать теоретические знания,

полученные на лекциях и во время самостоятельной подготовки к занятиям, освоить основные виды лингвистического анализа.

Учебное пособие состоит из 12 разделов, в которые включены краткое изложение теоретических аспектов лексикологии по теме каждого раздела, вопросы для устного обсуждения на практических занятиях, упражнения и практические задания по разделам дисциплины, рекомендуемая литература для самостоятельной подготовки. Учебное пособие также содержат вопросы к экзамену по дисциплине и глоссарий основных лексикологических терминов.

1. Общая характеристика словарного состава современного английского языка. Слово как основная единица языка

General Characteristics of the English Vocabulary.
The Word as the Basic Unit of Language

Lexicology (from Gr *lexis* 'word' and *logos* 'learning') is the part of linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of the language and the properties of words as the main units of language.

The term **vocabulary** is used to denote the system formed by the sum total of all the words and word equivalents that the language possesses. The term **word** denotes the basic unit of a given language resulting from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment.

Lexicology studies: the origin of the words, the mechanism by which a speaker's mental process is converted into sound groups called words, the nature of relations between the word and the referent (object, phenomenon, quality, action, etc. denoted by the word), all kinds of semantic grouping and semantic relations: synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, semantic fields, etc.

Lexicology can be divided into some branches. **General Lexicology** is the general study of words and vocabulary, irrespective of the specific features of any particular language. **Special Lexicology** is the description of the characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language. **Historical Lexicology or Etymology** studies the evolution of any vocabulary, as well as of its single elements, discusses the origin of various words, their change and development, and investigates the linguistic and extra-linguistic forces modifying their structure, meaning and usage. **Descriptive lexicology** deals with the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development. It studies the functions of words and their specific structure as a characteristic inherent in the system.

The term lexical system lexicology denotes a set of elements associated

and functioning together according to certain laws. It is a coherent homogeneous whole, constituted by interdependent elements of the same order related in certain specific ways. The vocabulary of a language is moreover an adaptive system constantly adjusting itself to the changing requirements and conditions of human communications and cultural surroundings. It is continually developing by overcoming contradictions between its state and the new tasks and demands it has to meet.

The elements of the lexical system are characterised by their combinatorial and contrastive properties determining their **syntagmatic** and **paradigmatic** relationships. A word enters into syntagmatic (linear) combinatorial relationships with other lexical units that can form its context, serving to identify and distinguish its meaning. Lexical units are known to be context-dependent. E. g. in *the hat on her head* the noun *head* means 'part of the body', whereas in *the head of the department Head* means 'chief. Syntagmatic relationships are studied by means of contextual, valency, distributional, transformational and some other types of analysis.

A word enters into contrastive paradigmatic relations with all other words, e. g. *head, chief, director,* etc. that can occur in the same context and be contrasted to it. Paradigmatic linguistic relationships determining the vocabulary system are based on the interdependence of words within the vocabulary (synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, etc.).

The units of a vocabulary or **lexical units** are two-facet elements possessing form and meaning. The basic unit forming the bulk of the vocabulary is the word. Other units are **morphemes** – parts of words, into which words may be analysed, and **set expressions** or **word-groups** – groups into which words may be combined.

The definition of every basic notion is a very hard task: the definition of a word is one of the most difficult in linguistics because the simplest word has many different aspects. **It has a sound form** because it is a certain arrangement of phonemes (one or more), e.g. *or, I* – one phonemes words. **It has its morphological structure**, being also a certain arrangement of morphemes. Morphemes are meaningful units, but they cannot be used independently, they are always parts of words, e.g. *black* – one morpheme word. When in speech it

may occur in different word forms. When a derivational affix is added a new word is formed, E.g. *listen* and *listener* are different words. To fulfil different grammatical functions words may take functional affixes, E.g. *listen – listened* are different forms of the same word. Different forms can be also built analytically, e.g. *I listen – I am listening.* **It has different syntactic functions.** We say that words used in sentences together with other words are syntactically organized. The freedom entering into syntactic constructions is limited by many rules, e.g. *They told me the story* not *They spoke me the story.* **Different words signal different meanings** when used in actual speech.

So being the central element of any language system, the word is a sort of focus for the problems of phonology, lexicology, syntax, morphology and also for some other sciences that have to deal with language and speech, such as philosophy and psychology. The variants of definitions were numerous, within linguistics the word has been defined syntactically, semantically, phonologically and by combining various approaches.

Attempts to study the structure of the vocabulary system revealed that the English word-stock may be analysed into numerous lexical sub-systems. Words can be classified in various ways. Classification into monosemantic and polysemantic words is based on the number of meanings the word possesses. More detailed semantic classifications are generally based on the semantic similarity (or polarity) of words or their component morphemes.

Words may be classified according to the concepts underlying their meaning. This classification is closely connected with the theory of conceptual or semantic fields. By the term "semantic fields" we understand closely knit sectors of vocabulary each characterised by a common concept. For example, the words *blue, red, yellow, black,* etc. may be described as making up the semantic field of colours, the words *mother, father, brother, cousin,* etc. — as members of the semantic field of kinship terms, and so on. The members of the semantic fields are not synonyms but all of them are joined together by some common semantic component — the concept of colours or the concept of kinship, etc. This semantic component common to all the members of the field is sometimes described as the common denominator of meaning. All members of the field are semantically interdependent as each member helps to delimit and

determine the meaning of its neighbours and is semantically delimited and determined by them. It follows that the word-meaning is to a great extent determined by the place it occupies in its semantic field.

Another approach to the classification of vocabulary items into lexico-semantic groups is the study of hyponymic relations between words. Lexical units may also be classified by the criterion of semantic similarity and semantic contrasts. The terms generally used to denote these two types of semantic relatedness are synonymy and antonymy.

Points for Discussion

1. The object of Lexicology. The objectives of academic study of words
2. The branches of Lexicology (General and Special Lexicology; Descriptive and Historical Lexicology; Sociolinguistics).
3. The connection of Lexicology with other branches of Linguistics.
4. The structure of the English lexicon.
5. The issue of classification of the word-stock of the English language.
6. Extra-linguistic and linguistic factors of vocabulary changes.
7. The notion of lexical system. Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic relations.
8. The definition of the word. Different approaches to the definition.

Recommended Reading
    [3], [6], [12], [16], [27].

2. Стилистическая характеристика словарного состава английского языка.

Stylistic Characteristics of the English Vocabulary

Words differ not only in their emotive charge but also in their stylistic reference. Stylistically words can be roughly subdivided into **literary, neutral** and **colloquial** layers.

The greater part of the literary layer of Modern English vocabulary are words of general use, possessing no specific stylistic reference and known as

neutral words. Against the background of neutral words we can distinguish two major subgroups —colloquial words and literary or bookish words. In comparison with the word **father** which is stylistically neutral, **dad** stands out as colloquial and **parent** is felt as bookish.

Literary (bookish) words are not stylistically homogeneous. Besides general-literary words, e.g. *harmony, calamity, alacrity*, etc., we may single out various specific subgroups, namely: 1) terms or scientific words such as, e g., *renaissance, genocide, teletype,* etc.; 2) poetic words and archaisms such as, e.g., *whilome — 'formerly', aught — 'anything', ere — 'before, nay — 'no'*; 3) barbarisms and foreign words, such as, e.g., *bon mot* — 'a clever or witty saying', *apropos, faux pas, bouquet,* etc.

The colloquial words may be subdivided into: 1) common colloquial words; 2) slang, i.e. words which are often regarded as a violation of the norms of Standard English, e.g. *governor* for 'father', *missus* for 'wife', *a gag* for 'a joke'; 3) professionalisms, i.e. words used in narrow groups bound by the same occupation, such as, e.g., *lab* for 'laboratory', *hypo* for 'hypodermic syringe', *a buster* for 'a bomb';4) jargonisms, i.e. words marked by their use within a particular social group and bearing a secret and cryptic character, e.g. *a sucker* — 'a person who is easily deceived', *a squiffer* — 'a concertina'; 5) vulgarisms, i.e. coarse words that are not generally used in public, e.g. *bloody, hell, damn, shut up,* etc; 6) dialectical words, e.g. *lass, kirk.*

Points for Discussion

1. Register and functional style. Stylistically marked lexicon.
2. Neutral layer of the vocabulary. Characteristic features of neutral words.
3. Literary layer and its characteristics.
4. Terminology and its characteristics.
5. Archaic words, historicism, poetical words.
6. Neologisms, nonce words.
7. Colloquial layer and its characteristics. Literary, familiar, low colloquial.
8. Professionalisms, jargonisms.
9. Slang and its different treatment.
10. Dialectal words.
11. Vulgarisms and argot words.

Exercises

Exercise 1. Classify the italicized words from the following extracts into bookish words, officials, terms, poetical words, archaic words, professionalisms. jargon words, slang, dialectal words.

T h e   F l o w e r   G i r l. ...*Now you are talking!* I thought you'd *come off it* when you saw a chance of getting back *a bit* of what you *chucked* at me last night. (Confidentially) You'd *had a drop in*, hadn't you?

(From *Pygmalion* by B. Shaw)

Thou still *unravish'd* bride of quietness!
   Thou foster-child of silence and slow time,
Sylvan historian, who *canst* thus express
   A flowery tale more sweetly than our rhyme:
What leaf-fringed legend *haunts* about *thy* shape
   Of *deities* or *mortals*, or of both,
         In *Temple* or the *dales* of Arcady?
   What men or gods are these? What *maidens loathe*?
What mad pursuit? What struggle to escape?
   What pipes and *timbrels*? What wild *ecstasy*?

(From *Ode on a Grecian Urn* by J. Keats)

   My wife has been *kiddin'* me about my friends ever since we was married. She says that ... they ain't nobody in the world got a *rummier bunch* of friends than me. I'll admit that the most of them ain't, well, what you might call *hot*; they're different somehow than when I first *hung around* with them. They seem to be lost without a brass rail to rest their *dogs on*. But of course they are old friends and I can't *give them the air*.

(From *Short Stories* by R. Lardner)

Sir,

in re Miss Ernestina Freeman

We are *instructed* by Mr. Ernest Freeman, father of *above-mentioned* Miss Ernestina Freeman, *to request* you *to attend* at these *chambers* at 3 o'clock this coming Friday. Your failure to attend will be *regarded* as an *acknowledgement* of our client's right *to proceed.*

(From *The French Lieutenant's Woman* by J Fowles)

...the essence of *language* consists in the *assigning* of *conventional,* voluntary *articulated sounds* or of their *equivalents,* to the *diverse elements* of experience. The word "house" is not a *linguistic* fact if by it is meant *merely* the *acoustic* effect produced on the ear by its constituent *consonants* and *vowels,* pronounced in a certain order; nor the *motor processes* and *tactile feelings* which make up the *articulation* of the word ... . It is only when these, and possibly still other, *associated experiences* are automatically associated with the *image* of a house that they begin to take on the nature of *a symbol, a word, an element* of language.

(From *Language: an Introduction to the Study of Speech* by E. Sapir)

"What's wrong, *Cap*?" someone called out. "Have they given you *a month's leave*?"

"Not exactly. They're *handed* us *a bit,* though, that will end by one of us going on a longer leave than that. All they want this time is *a survey* of Miramont – thirty miles behind *the lines.* A sweet *rendezvous. The Hun ships* will be like a swarm of hungry flies."

The other gave vent to a low whistle. "That's a job for a suicide, "he said. "Who gets it?"

"According to my *roster,* it's between Henderson and Doyle," was the answer. "Ordinarily, I'd *detail* one of them, but this time it's sort of different. I'm going to let them decide for themselves."

(From *Famous Short Stories Complied by Frank C. Platt* by N. Tomilson)

L a d y B r a c k n e l l: The line is *immaterial*. Mr Worthing, I *confess* I feel somewhat *bewildered* by what you have just told me. To be born, or at any rate *bred*, in a handbag, whether it had handles or not, seems to me *to display a contempt* for the ordinary *decencies* of family life that reminds one of the worst *excesses* of the French Revolution. And I *presume* you know what that *unfortunate movement* led to. As for the particular *locality* in which the hand-bag was found, *a cloak-room* at a railway station might serve *to conceal* a social *indiscretion* – has *probably*, *indeed*, been used for that *purpose* before now – but it could hardly be *regarded* as an *assured basis* for a *recognized position* in good society.

(From *The Importance of Being Earnest* by O. Wilde)

Walsh matched Kapil Dev's *total* of 434 *wickets* by claiming the first two victims in the Zimbabwe second *innings*. His *home crowd* at Sabina Park rose as one in *rapturous* appreciation, after they had gathered in their thousands over the weekend in high expectation. ... Walsh succeeded only in adding to his world record *tally* of 36 *ducks*, brilliantly *held* at third *slip* by Grant Flower off Jonson.

(From *Cricket: Test Matches*, the Daily Telegraph)

In saying to Soams that he could not wait and and see, he had expressed a very natural *abhorrence*. Watch, spy, calculate – impossible! To go to Fleur and ask for a frank *exposure* of her feelings was what he would have liked to do; but he could not help knowing the depth of his father-in-law's *affection* and *concern*, and the length of his head; and he had *sufficient* feeling to hesitate before *imperilling* what was as much "old Forsyte's" happiness as his own.

(From *Swang Song* by J. Galsworthy)

Exercise 2. Put the neologisms under the following headings: sport, computer, space, medicine, professions, ecology, society, politics; define the style (formal/informal) they belong to.

Eurocrat, penguin suit, slimnastics, brain-drainer, chairperson, Green Party, fast-tracker, sky-diving, hardware, SALT, contact lenses, multiuser, ski-bob, webmistress, START, cybersurfer, cargo-module, body-building, exstraterrestrials, youthism, AIDS, lobbier, dispensable syringe, glitch, deforestation, tekkie, environmentalist, shuttle, feminazi, depollute, workaholic, housemaker, ecocide, fire fighter, gene pool, workperson, flying saucer, police officer, chapess, fattism, parkscating, interventionalism, hacker, Europarliament, sysop, apparatchik, ableism, velvet revolution, aerophobia, Eurobanker, PC, acupuncture, sideperson.

Exercise 3. Certain established formal phrases are used repeatedly in the language of forms, travel conditions, regulations, advertisements and notices. Rewrite each of the following in simple English as if you were explaining the meaning to someone.

E.g.   Not transferable. (rail ticket)

No one else is allowed to use this ticket.

1) Subject to alteration. (timetable)
2) For further information see over. (timetable)
3) To be retained and produced on request. (rail ticket)
4) Enter maiden name, if applicable. (official form)
5) This portion to be given up. (theatre ticket)
6) Complete and detach bottom section. (bank form)
7) Affix recent photograph here. (application form)
8) Liable to alteration without notice. (timetable)
9) See notes overleaf. (passport application form)
10) Insert correct amount only. (notice on automatic machine)
11) All offers subject to availability (chain-store gift catalogue)
12) Services in bold type convey sleeping cars only. (rail timetable)
13) Delete where applicable. (official form)
14) Enquire within. (notice in shop window)

15) Special rates available for parties. (theatre conditions)

16) Insert full name of spouse. (official form)

17) No gratuities to staff. (museum notice)

18) Patrons are requested not to smoke. (notice in cinema)

19) The management reserves the right of admission. (notice outside pub)

20) All rates subject to VAT. (car hire conditions)

Exercise 4. Rewrite the conversations in a more formal style changing the italicized colloquial and slang expressions into neutral or formal ones.

1) Peter: Lend *us* a few *quid*. I'm *broke*.
   Tony: Here is a *fiver*.
   Peter: *Smashing. Ta.*

2) George: Where's my *thingumajig*?
   Eileen: *Whatsisname*'s got it.

3) Chris: Do you like your new school?
   Gus: It's *OK*.
   Chris: And the *kids* in your class?
   Gus: They're a *decent bunch*.
   Chris: And the teacher?
   Gus: Oh, he's a *terrific bloke*?

4) Fred: I'm not too keen on this new *guy* in the office.
   Alex: *Yeah*, he's a bit of a *big-head*. *Throws his weight around*.
   Fred: *Yeah*, if I get any more *hassle* from him, I'm going to tell him what
I think.
   Alex: *Come off it*. You haven't got the *guts*. You'd *get the sack*.

5) Joe: *Posh* suit!
   Brian: My grandparents' 50th anniversary. We're having a bit of *a do*.
   Joe: Come and have a drink first. *On me.*
   Brian: Just for a *jiffy*. Mustn't get there *plastered*.

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6)   Valerie: Saw a film the other night. *Chap falls for* a girl, then discovers she's dying. Bit of a *tear-jerker*. I suppose it was pretty *corny*, but I liked it. Mary Major had a part in it. She must be *pushing* 70.

7)   Bob: I think my old *banger*'s *clapped out*. I'll have to get a new one.
       Jim: Yes, it does look past it. What'll you get?
       Bob: I rather *fancy* the new Rover.
       Jim: *Classy*. It'll cost you a *pocket*.

8)   Donald: Someone's *walked off with* my *specs*!
       Sheila: Don't be *daft*. You've got them in your hand.
       Donald: Oh, yes. I'm going *bonkers*.

Exercise 5. People often react to certain situations by using sounds rather than real words, and people from different countries often use different sounds, e.g. British people often say 'ouch!' when they feel a sudden pain, whereas other nationalities sometimes say 'aie! The following responses are common to the British. Answer the questions below with sounds in italics.
giddyup! whoops! there, there eh? wow! mm! hear, hear now, now tut-tut oi!
gosh! whoah! ta-ta sh!
What do you say if you...
1) ... want someone to be quiet?
2) ... express surprise?
3) ... don't catch what a friend says?
4) ... express disapproval about something you see or hear?
5) ... want a horse to start or go faster?
6) ... see someone trying to steal your bag?
7) ... comfort a child in pain and crying?
8) ... express your agreement with something said in speech?
9) ... suddenly lose your balance, or drop something?
10) ... say goodbye casually to a friend?
11) ... are suddenly impressed by something?
12) ... calm an over-excited, angry friend?
13) ... express spontaneous delight?
14) ... want a horse to slow down or stop?

Recommended Reading

[3], [6], [7], [15], [21], [26], [27], [31], 32].

3. Этимологическая характеристика словарного состава английского языка.

Etymological Characteristics of the English Vocabulary

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

In linguistic literature the term **native** is conventionally used to denote words of Anglo-Saxon origin brought to the British Isles from the continent in the 5th century by the Germanic tribes — the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes. Professor A. I. Smirnitsky relying on the earliest manuscripts of the English language available suggested another interpretation of the term **native** — as words which may be presumed to have existed in the English word-stock of the 7th century.

The term **borrowing** is used in linguistics to denote the process of adopting words from other languages and also the result of this process, the language material itself. Not only words, but also word-building affixes were borrowed into English (as is the case with *-able, -ment, -ity,* etc.). It must be mentioned that some word-groups, too, were borrowed in their foreign form (e.g. *coup d'état, vis-à-vis*).

Words of native origin consist for the most part of very ancient elements—Indo-European, Germanic and West Germanic cognates. The bulk of the Old English word-stock has been preserved, although some words have passed out of existence. The stock of native words is estimated to make 25—30% of the English vocabulary.

In its 15 century long history recorded in written manuscripts the English language happened to come in long and close contact with several other

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languages, mainly Latin, French and Old Norse (or Scandinavian). The great influx of borrowings from these sources can be accounted for by a number of historical causes. The number and character of borrowings do not only depend on the historical conditions, on the nature and length of the contacts, but also on the degree of the genetic and structural proximity of languages concerned.

Borrowings enter the language in two **ways**: through oral speech (by immediate contact between the peoples) and through written speech (by indirect contact through books, etc.). Oral borrowing took place chiefly in the early periods of history, whereas in recent times written borrowing gained importance.

All borrowed words undergo the process of **assimilation,** i.e. they adjust themselves to the phonetic and lexico-grammatical norms of the language. **Phonetic assimilation** comprises substitution of native sounds and sound combinations for strange ones and for familiar sounds used in a position strange to the English language, as well as shift of stress. **Grammatical assimilation** finds expression in the change of grammatical categories and paradigms of borrowed words, change of their morphological structure. **Lexical assimilation** includes changes in semantic structure and the formation of derivatives

The great number of borrowings brought with them new phonomorphological types, new phonetic, morphological and semantic features. On the other hand, under the influence of the borrowed element words already existing in English changed to some extent their semantic structure, collocability, frequency and derivational ability. Borrowing also considerably enlarged the English vocabulary and brought about some changes in English synonymic groups, in the distribution of the English vocabulary through spheres of application and in the lexical divergence between the variants of the literary language and its dialects.

Points for Discussion

1. Etymological sources of the English lexicon.
2. Types of native words.
3. Borrowings and their classification.
4. Celtic borrowings.
5. Latin borrowings.

6. Scandinavian borrowings.
7. French borrowings.
8. Assimilation of loan words. Completely assimilated words.
9. Partially assimilated words. Barbarisms.
10. Etymological doublets.
11. Translation-loans.
12. International words.

Exercises

Exercise 1. Subdivide the following words of native origin into: a) Indo-European, b) Common Germanic, c) English Proper.

Son, eye, hope, woman, eat, room, slow, land, cow, moon, coal, sea, red, spring, shoe, bear, wind, three, evil, I, lady, always, goose, deep, ground, fox, lord, daughter, tree, nose, birch, he, grey, old, glad, daisy, heart, shirt, hand, night, bull, see, ice, make, water, care, hill.

Exercise 2. Identify the period of the following Latin borrowings; point out the structural and semantics peculiarities of the words from each period.

Major, wall, human, calculus, altar, equivalent, cheese, choir, intelligent, candle, moderate, antenna, priest, philosophy, school, angel, street, virus, create, bishop, cherry, compute, music, phenomenon, nun, elect, curriculum, kitchen, plum, formulae, pepper, datum, cup, status, wine, minimum, method, pear, hospital, prayer.

Exercise 3. Put each of the following Latin borrowings into the correct place in the sentences below.

status quo, per capita, bona fide, ad nauseam, post mortem, pro rate, vice versa curriculum vitae.

1) Duty-free goods may be purchased only by _____ travellers. Please show your flight-ticket when buying.

2) Applicants for this post should write enclosing a detailed _____.

3) Rental rates for our cars are $50 a day. Longer periods will be charged _____ with no reductions, so a one-week rental will be $350.

4) Some people just want to preserve the _____ in this country, but others want change, reform, development.

5) The _____ examination showed that she died of cancer.

6) Canada has a _____ income of about $17,000.

7) I'm afraid he's rather a boring person. He goes on and on _____ about his political views.

8) A great many British people spend their holidays in America, and _____.

Exercise 4. Study the place names of Great Britain and define the names of places, rivers and hills of Celtic, Anglo-Saxon, Latin, Scandinavian origin.

Avon, Winchester, Preston, Derby, Harting, Canterbery, Esk, Doncaster, Hamthorpe, Edinburgh, Gloucester, Hastings, Mansfield, Exe, Durham, Husthwaite, Warwick, Southhampton, Nottingham, Colchester, Kent, Grimsby, Sheffield, Cheltenham, Woking, Lancaster, Ux, Lincoln, Manchester, Whitby, Brighton, Salisbury, Lowestoft, Tyne, Rugby.

Exercise 5. Subdivide the following words borrowed from French into: a) Norman borrowings; b) Parisian borrowings.

Coffee, message, table, imagine, intrigue, masseur, majordomo, science, chef, pencil, limousine, dinner, pork, chauffeur, saucer, silhouette, mayonnaise, breakfast, etiquette, ridiculous, army, commerce, hotel, en route, café, opera, library, government, prison, matinee, scene, parliament, lamb, soldier, police.

Exercise 6. Put each of the following French borrowings into the correct place in the sentences below.

tet-a-tete, hors d'oeuvre, cul-de-sac, rendezvous, blasé, carte blanche, encore, coup, entourage, détente, nouveaux riches, c'est la vie.

1) The advantage of living in a _____ is that there is no through traffic, so it's very quiet.

2) Let's order. I'm hungry. I'm going to start with a nice _____.

3) The boss didn't tell me how he wanted the project carried out. He gave me _____ to do it as I thought best.

4). There was a successful _____ last night. The president has been arrested and the government buildings are in the hands of the army.

5) Film stars don't usually travel alone. They are normally surrounded by a large _____ of agents, secretaries and other helpers.

6) The audience liked her songs so much that at the end they shouted "_____", and she obliged by singing one more.

7) I have one or two ideas I'd like to discuss with you. Could we have a little _____ one day soon.

8) He was very excited when his first book was published, but now, having written over 30, he's fairly _____ about it.

9) Yes, I've had some bad luck recently, but it's no use worrying about it. _____.

10) At the moment there is a _____ between the two countries. Relations are much easier.

11) That restaurant is a favourite _____ for writers and artists.

12) A snob tends to look down on _____ as people who have no money.

Exercise 7. Explain the etymology of the following words, identify the stage of assimilation.

rajah, pen, hors d'oeuvre, rouble, ballet, beet, ciao, crisis, butter, sombrero, skin, machine, take, cup, police, distance, cartoon, monk, garage, touché, phenomenon, wine, bourgeois, justice, de rigueur, lesson, criterion, nice, coup d'etat, sequence, river, incognito, loose, autumn, uncle, café, law, convenient, lunar, corps, skirt, experiment, regime, eau-de-Cologne, bouquet, demagogue, tête-à-tête, window, disappointment, patriarch, bank.

Exercise 8. Explain the etymology of the following words. Comment upon their stylistic characteristics.

Teamwork – cooperation – synergy; rim – margin – periphery; birth – origin – genesis; top – summit – acme; odd – eccentric – idiosyncratic, song – chant – anthem; ghost – specter – phantom; heavenly – celestial – ethereal; holy – sacred – consecrated; goodness – virtue – probity.

Exercise 9. The root word of Latin origin *cide* means *killer / killing*. Complete the definitions (1-5) by selecting from the words given. You will not need to use all the words.

suicide, homicide, herbicide, pesticide, fratricide, genocide, patricide, infanticide.

1. _____ : the extermination of a whole race or nation.

2. _____ : the crime of killing one's father.

3. _____ : the act of killing oneself.

4. _____ : murder (the killing of another human being).

5. _____ : a chemical used by farmers and gardeners to destroy weeds.

Exercise 10. State the origin of the following etymological doublets.

Canal – channel; gaol – jail; captain – chieftain; scabby – shabby; travel – travail; off – of; castle – chateau; corpse – corps; screech – shriek; superior – supreme; gentle – gallant; shade – shadow.

Exercise 11. Analyze the following lexical units from the point of view of their origin and their degree of assimilation.

Government, intelligenzia, baritone, cuisine, nuance, bankrupt, belle-lettres, rhythm, school, machine, fiasco, boutique, skipper, dilettante, sentence, banana, iceberg, deck, steppe, degree, chandelier, emphatic, embargo, rucksack, knife, Gastarbeiter, nomenklatura, sable, noveau riche, possessiveness, wolfram, guitar, lunch, apparatchik, cocoa, appetite, volcano.

Recommended Reading
[3], [6], [11], [12], [33].

4. Семантическая структура слова в английском языке. Полисемия. Изменения в семантической структуре

Semantic Structure of the English Word
Polysemy. Semantic Changes

Meaning is one of the most controversial terms in the theory of language. There are broadly speaking two schools to meaning of thought in present-day linguistics: the referential approach and the functional approach. **The functional approach** maintains that the meaning of a linguistic unit may be studied only through its relation to other linguistic-units and not through its relation to either concept or referent. **The referential approach** formulates the essence of meaning by establishing the interdependence between words and the things or concepts they denote. The essential feature of the referential approach is that it distinguishes between the three components closely connected with meaning: the sound-form of the linguistic sign, the concept underlying this sound-form, and the actual referent, i.e. that part or that aspect of reality to which the linguistic sign refers.The meaning is closely connected but not identical with sound-form, concept or referent. Some linguists regard meaning as the interrelation of the three points of the triangle within the framework of the given language, i.e. as the interrelation of the sound-form, concept and referent, but not as an objectively existing part of the linguistic sign. Others and among them some outstanding Soviet linguists, proceed from the basic assumption of the objectivity of language and meaning and understand the linguistic sign as a two-facet unit. Its so-called inner facet is a certain reflection in our mind of objects, phenomena or relations that makes part of the linguistic sign; the sound-form functions as its outer facet.

It is recognised that word-meaning is not homogeneous but is made up of various components. These components are usually described as types of meaning. The two main types of meaning are **the grammatical** and **the lexical meanings.** Proceeding with the semantic analysis we observe that lexical meaning is not homogenous either and may be analysed as including denotational and connotational components. The conceptual content of a word is expressed in its **denotative meaning. Connotative meaning** of the word

conveys the speaker's attitude to the social circumstances and the appropriate functional style, his approval or disapproval of the object spoken, or the degree of intensity. Four main **types of connotations** are described below. They are stylistic, emotional, evaluative and expressive or intensifying.

Word-meaning is liable to change in the course of the historical development of language. The factors accounting for semantic changes may be roughly subdivided into two groups: extra-linguistic and linguistic causes. Generally speaking, a necessary condition of any semantic change is some association between the old meaning and the new. There are two kinds of association involved in various semantic changes: similarity of meanings, or **metaphor** and contiguity of meanings or **metonymy**. Other types of semantic change can be observed in the changes of the denotational meaning of the word (**specialization** and **generalization** of meaning) or in the alteration of its connotational component (**amelioration (elevation)** and **deterioration (degradation)** of meaning).

Points for Discussion

1. Semasiology. Different approaches to the word meaning.
2. Referential approach to the meaning. Semantic Triangle.
3. Functional and operational approaches to the meaning.
4. Semantic structure of an English word. Grammatical and lexico-grammatical meanings.
5. Lexical meaning and its structure. Denotative meaning.
6. Connotative meaning. Types of connotations.
7. Componential analysis.
8. Polysemy. Causes of the phenomenon.
9. Semantic structure of polysemantic words. Lexico-grammatical variants and their classifications.
10. Contextual meaning. Contextual analysis.
11. Semantic changes and their causes.
12. Types of semantic change: specialization, generalization.
13. Types of semantic change: metaphor, metonymy.
14. Types of semantic change: amelioration, degradation.

Exercises

Exercise 1. Identify the denotative and connotative elements of the meanings in the following pairs of words, define the type of connotations.

Odd – queer, magic – witchcraft; to leave – to abandon; love – affection; money – dough; friend – pal; fear – horror; wish – desire; to tremble – to shudder; to grin – to smile; to gaze – to glare; to produce – to fabricate; sad – blue; to grieve – to lament.

Exercise 2. Copy out the following pairs of words grouping together the ones which represent the same meaning of each word. Explain the different meanings and the different usages, giving reasons for your answer.

smart, adj.

smart clothes, a smart answer, a smart house, a smart garden, a smart repartee, a smart officer, a smart blow, a smart punishment.

physical, adj.

physical strength, physical map, physical exercise, physical presence, physical geography, physical chemistry, physical world.

pipe, n.

copper pipes, to play the pipe, to smoke a pipe, to puff at the pipe, a leaking pipe.

root, n.

edible roots, the root of the tooth, the root of the matter, the root of all evil, square root, cube root.

feed, v.

to feed the horse, to feed the fire, to feed a baby, to feed information, to feed the machine.

Exercise 3. In the following sentences two different meanings of the words (in italics) can be realized. Explain the two meanings of each sentence.

1) He was driving on the *right* side of the road.

2) He's very *fair*.

3) She was a very *funny* girl.

4) Half the workers in the factory are *idle*.

5) They did not *recognize* the new President.

6) She's a very *curious* person.

7) It's a very *cheap* newspaper.

8) They are *expected* to arrive at seven.

9) My grand father was a very *powerful* man.

10) I thought he was rather *suspicious*.

11) She was very *jealous* of her husband's reputation.

12) She likes to *entertain* people.

13) He didn't *appeal* to me.

14) The Morning News is a *popular* newspaper.

15) I'm afraid I'm not *prepared* to leave yet.

16) The teacher *insisted* that his pupils did their homework regularly.

17) He *took advantage* of his friend's knowledge.

Exercise 4. The following proper names are often used in ordinary conversation. Explain the metaphorical meaning of the words and put each one in its correct place in the sentences below.

Robin Hood, James Bond, Peter Pen, Billy Bunter, Man Friday, Sherlock Holmes, Walter Mitty, Big Brother, Jekyll and Hyde, Rip Wan Winkle.

1) During the war he was sent on dangerous secret missions abroad. Very exciting! He was a sort of _____ .

2) I think Alan should go on a diet and get more exercise. He is beginning to look like _____ .

3) He's a strange chap. Usually he's very pleasant and reasonable, but there are times when he gets very bad-tempered and almost violent. He's got a _____ personality.

4) I don't like this new government proposal to put details of everyone's private life on computers, it's a bit like _____ isn't it?

5) He still has a very youthful enthusiasm, and he's as slim and fit as he was 20 years ago. He's a _____ .

6) He sounds very impressive when he talks about his adventures and achievements, but it's all fantasy. He's a _____ .

7) Come on, _____ wake up! It's nearly lunch-time.

8) He's not very practical. What he needs is someone to look after him and to do everything for him. He needs a _____ .

9) How on earth did you guess his nationality, occupation and all those other things about him just from his appearance? You're a proper _____ .

10) Well, yes, he was a criminal and he stole a lot of money, but he helped a lot of people with it. He was a bit of a _____ .

Exercise 5. Explain the logical associations in the following groups of meaning for the same words. Define the type of transference, which has taken place.

The wing of a bird – the wing of a building; green grass – green years; the eye of a man – the eye of a needle; nickel (*metal*) – nickel (*coin*); the hand of a child – the hand of a clock; Jersey (*island*) – jersey; the heart of a man – the heart of the matter; black shoes – black despair; Sandwich (*a proper name*) – a sandwich; the bridge across the river – the bridge of the nose; Ford (*proper name*) – a Ford (*car*); the tongue of a person – the tongue of a bell; Kashmir (*town in North India*) – cashmere; Renoir (*a proper name*) – a Renoir (*a painting*).

Exercise 6. In the examples given below identify the cases of generalization and specialization of meaning.

1. The City reacted sharply to the rise of the oil prices. 2. Constable was the great English artist. 3. The market of computer games is full of pirate products. 4. The old Indian woman was grinding corn to make flour. 5. The lady at the tourist office told me it opened at 1 p.m. 6. Male deer usually have horns on their heads. 7. John entered a simply furnished room. 8. Here she is – the very person we were talking about. 9. The hounds picked up the scent of the fox. 10. The Highlands is the region where many original Scottish customs are preserved.

Exercise 7. Comment on the process of development a new meaning in the following examples.

Don Juan, a cardigan, Scrooge, The White House, a diesel engine, a bottleneck, champagne, watt, cheddar, Fleet Street, footnotes, a whip, a raglan coat, burgundy, The Pentagon, wellington boots, vandals, china, volt, Don Quichote, damask steel, Downing Street, a bookworm, jeans, tweed, philistine.

Exercise 8. Explain the following puns by giving the two possible meanings (one meaning is direct and the other is figurative).

1) When you decide to give her a ring, give us a ring. (Advertisement for a jeweller's shop)

2) For a few pounds you can lose a few. (Advertisement for a swimming course)

3) We'll give you sound advice. (Hi-fi shop advertisement)

4) We offer you a good deal. (Bank advertisement)

5) It's not worth dying for a drink. (Warning of the danger of alcoholism)

6) Make a snap decision. (Advertisement for a new camera)

7) Go by air. It's plane common sense. (Advertisement for air travel)

8) Try our glue once and you'll always stick with us. (Advertisement for a brand of glue)

9) Christmas is a time to think of family ties. Buy ours. (Advertisement for men's ties)

10) The weather-men can't guarantee you an Indian summer, but we can. (travel agency advertisement)

Recommended Reading
[3], [4], [6], [12], [16], [20], [22], [27], [30].

5. Морфологическая структура английских слов

Словообразование

Morphological Structure of English Words. Word-Building

We think of words as being the most basic, the most fundamental units through which the meaning is represented in the language. But actually there are even smaller units that carry the fundamental meanings of the language. Words are made up of these units. These smaller units are **morphemes** – the minimum meaningful language units.

Each word must contain at least one morpheme, some words are made up of more than one morpheme. The word *morpheme* itself is made up of two morphemes: *morph* "form, shape" and *-eme* "meaningful". The essential point about morphemes is that they cannot be divided further into smaller meaningful units.

Morphemes must not be confused with syllables. 1) a morpheme may be represented by any number of syllables (though typically only one or two); 2) syllables are units of pronunciation, they have nothing to do with meaning; 3) the number of morphemes in a word is very likely to differ from the number of syllables; e.g.: *car, care* – one syllable words, *carpet, carrot* – two syllable words, *cardigan, caramel* – three syllable words. But each of these words is a single morpheme. Morphemes may be less than a syllable in length. e.g.: the word *cars* has one syllable but two morphemes (*car*, *-s*). The longest morphemes are the names of American Indian origin (*Mississippi, Potawatomi, Cincinnati*).

When an affix is taken away of the word what remains is a **stem**. **Root** is the ultimate component of the word structure which remains after the removal of all functional and derivational affixes and does not admit any further analysis. Every word has at least one root. Roots are the center of word derivational processes. They carry the basic meaning from which the rest of the sense of word can be derived.

Roots and stems can be **free** (they are homonymous to independent words) e.g.: *chair, green, ballet, father, cardigan* and **bound** (they cannot stand

alone as words) e.g.: *seg* in *segment*, *sequ* in *sequience*, *brev* in *brevity*. Most bound roots in Modern English are borrowed words.

The root in English is very often homonymous with the word. This fact is of fundamental importance as it is one of the most specific features of the English language arising from its general grammatical system on the one hand, and from its phonemic system on the other. The influence of the analytical structure of the language is obvious.

All morphemes which are not roots are affixes. They differ from roots in three ways: 1) they do not form words by themselves – they have to be added to a stem; 2) their meaning is not as clear and specific as the meaning of roots. 3) compared with the number of roots, the number of affixes is relatively small (a few hindred at most).

Functional affixes serve to convey grammatical meaning. They build different forms of one and the same word – a word form. **A paradigm** has been defined in grammar as the system of grammatical forms characteristic of a word, e. g. *near, nearer, nearest; son, son's, sons, sons'*. Functional affixes are studied in grammar. **Derivational** affixes form different words. They are studied in lexicology.

Derivational and functional morphemes are different in meaning, function, position, statistical characteristics and in valency (combining possibilities).

Affixes are classified into **prefixes** and **suffixes**: a prefix precedes the root-morpheme, a suffix follows it.

A **suffix** is a derivational morpheme following the stem and forming a new derivative in a different part of speech or a different word class, e.g. *-en, -y, -less* in *hearten, hearty, heartless*. When both forms belong to the same part of speech, the suffix serves to differentiate between lexico-grammatical classes by rendering some very general lexico-grammatical meaning. A **prefix** is a derivational morpheme standing before the root and modifying meaning, e. g. *hearten — dishearten*. It is only with verbs and statives that a prefix may serve to distinguish one part of speech from another, like in *earth* n — *unearth* v, *sleep* n — *asleep* (stative).

Word-building is the process of producing new words from the recourses of this particular language. There are four main types of word-building in Modern English:

Derivation (affixation) – coining new words by adding an affix or several affixes to some root morpheme. **Conversion** – making a new word from some existing word by changing the category of a part of speech, the morphemic shape of the original word remains. **Composition** – combining two or more stems in one word (*dining-room, mother-in-law*). **Shortening** – significant subtraction in which part of the original word is taken away (*flu, VIP*).

Points for Discussion

1. Morphological structure of a word.
2. Classification of morphemes.
3. Four main types of word building.
4. Affixation. Derivational and functional affixes.
5. Classifications of suffixes.
6. Classifications of prefixes.
7. Allomorphs. Semi-affixes.
8. Composition. The criteria of compounds.
9. Classifications of compound words.
10. The "stone wall" problem.
11. Conversion and different parts of speech.
12. Semantic relations between converted words.
13. Substantivation.
14. Shortening.
15. Graphical abbreviations. Blending.
16. Minor types of word building: reduplication, back-formation, onomatopoeia, accent shift.

Exercises

Exercise 1. Explain the etymology and productivity of the affixes given below. Say what parts of speech can be formed with their help.

-ness, -ous, -ly, -y, -dom, -ish, -tion, -ed, -en, -ess, -or, -er, -hood, -less, -ate, -ing, -al, -ful, un-, -re, im-(in-), dis-, over-, ab-.

Exercise 2. Point out suffixes and prefixes in the following words, analyze the affixes from the point of view of their semantic, origin and productivity.

To embed, unsystematic, inwardly, translaterese, clannishness, workaholic, reconstruction, afterthought, childishness, to re-sit, gangsterdom, concentration, counter-culture, allusion, to computerize, slimster, reservation, docu-pulp, nourishment, to encourage, to accompany, dispensable, to de-restrict, jet-wise, to overreach, foundation, transgressor, completenik, pleasure, refusenik, brinkmanship, self-criticism, thoroughly, bioculture, actorishness, ecomenu.

Exercise 3. Explain the difference between the meanings of the following words produced from the same root by means of different affixes. Translate the words into Russian.

Graceful –gracious, embarrassed – embarrassing, demonstrable –demonstrative, colourful – coloured, navigational – navigable, official – officious, respect – respectful – respectable, playing – playful, exhaustive – exhausting – exhausted, poisoned –poisonous, surprised – surprising, paying – payable.

Exercise 4. Explain the meanings of the following words produced by means of different suffixes. Translate the words into Russian.

Germicide, xenophobia, pyromaniac, a fishmonger, patricide, an Anglophile, agoraphobia, business-like, roadworthy, foremost, quarrelsome, statuesque, Francophilia, noteworthy, tiresome, Romanesque, a moonscape, a philanthropist, a duckling, a booklet, a Sinologist, a cloudscape, downward.

Exercise 5. Identify the prefixes in the following words, comment on their meaning. Translate the words into Russian.

Outspeed, unregistered, invaluable, pro-rebel, contra-sedative, de-individualized, ex-Fellow, counter-measures, non-fiction, overmodest, para-military, interindustry, hyperacidity, post-school, re-familiarizing, sub-literary, self-quotation, unmalajust, super-organized, bebutton, anti-environment, atoasting, co-author, underachiever, prefabricate, miscast, telebanking, retrorocket, megamarket, post-impressionism.

Exercise 6. Explain the meanings of the following words produced by means of different prefixes. Translate the words into Russian.

A pseudonym, arch-rivals, maladministration, outsize, neo-classical, a foretaste, hypertension, apolitical, unicorn, pentagon, cent, decathlon, tricolour, sexagenarian, quintuplets, bicameral, an octopus, monorail, a decade.

Exercise 7. Explain the semantic correlations within the following pairs of words.

Nail – to nail, back – to back, to cut – a cut, butterfly – to butterfly, queen – to queen, cassette – to cassette, garage – to garage, to flirt – a flirt, fish – to fish, parent – to parent, shoulder – to shoulder, umbrella – to umbrella, waitress – to waitress, corner – to corner, pig – to pig, to walk – a walk.

Exercise 8. Divide the following compounds into neutral, morphological and syntactic.

notebook, son-in-law, speedometer, well-dressed, theatre-goer, forget-me-not, kleptomania, up-to-the-minute, blood-thirsty, sportsman, airbus, giver-away, Anglo-Russian, fair-haired, cease-fire, good-for-nothing, audiotyping, body-builder, coin change, air piracy, meat-and-potatoes, behind-the-scenes, left-winger, trouble-shooter, clockwatch.

Exercise 9. Translate the following sentences. Pay attention to the nonce words syntactic compounds.

1. The boss, she realized at once, was back in his role of the humble-man-trying-to-please. 2. The room had the intimacy of much-lived-in places. 3. Each pocket

of the shoplifter was turned wrong-side-out. 4. In his bachelor days he had been a happy-go-lucky Roman without a care in the world. 5. This small restaurant was the only light-lunch-and-tea place of the semigenteel kind in the district. 6. She came into the room with a worried end-of-the-world frown on her face. 7. Her husband-to-be was a famous actor. 8. It was a take-no-action-now but wait-and-see philosophy. 9. She made a few acid comments on the double-whisky life in the small provincial town. 10. Jill gave Nora a look that said What's-going-on-between-you-and-Sam, and Nora gave Jill a look that replied Nothing-I-can-tell-you-and-just-mind-your-own-business.

Exercise 10. Identify the neutral compounds in the word combinations given below and subdivide them into three groups: simple neutral, neutral derived and neutral contracted.

An air-sick passenger, an old videoplayer, to remember V-day, a bold shoplifting, to job-hunt regularly, a complicated shoptalk, white Xmas, a peace-loving type, a long-legged girl, a dangerous U-turn, a sweet honeymoon, whole-hearted devotion, to hitch-hike bravely, an important e-mail, a plump mill-owner, an absent-minded student, an unisex style, a nice H-bag.

Exercise 11. Decide whether the compounds given below are Idiomatic or Non-idiomatic.

Knee-deep, dog-tired, hangover, pickpocket, world-wide, home-made, good-looking, blackboard, blackmail, heart-throb, snow-boarder, page-turner, weight-watcher, sky-diving, bookkeeper, bootlicker, three-coloured, bare-legged, many-sided, narrow-minded, stone-deaf, green-grocer, blood-thirsty, carefree, hi-jacker.

Exercise 12. Explain the meaning of the following abbreviations. If necessary consult the dictionary.

UNO, AI, viz, BCN, NASA, OPEC, yuppie, BASIC, WAY, Xrds, a.o.b., B.A., i.e., a.m., S.O.S., FIP, n.g., WOMAN, BBC, MP, fwd., HQ, Ltd., jnr., govt., A/C, approx., vs., OHMS, w.p.m., RSVP, snr., advt., NB, PLC, hr.

Exercise 13. Put each of the following reduplicative compounds (rhyming combinations) in its correct place in the sentences below.

nitty-gritty, pell-mell, humdrum, higgledy-piggledy, silly-billy, hanky-panky, roly-poly, willy-nilly, fun-run, walkie-talkie.

1) In the army you don't have much choice where you go. You are sent where you are needed, _____.

2) The two world leaders met and after the usual greetings and formalities got down to the _____ of their talks.

3) There have been accusations of illegalities, suspicious irregularities and other _____ during the elections.

4) It's been a terrible morning. I overslept, rushed out _____ to the bus stop, missed the bus, had to get a taxi…

5) A policeman usually carries a _____ to keep in touch with his police station.

6) She'd like to find a more interesting, exciting job. She finds her present work very _____.

7) 5,000 people are taking part in a five-mile _____ on Sunday to raise money for charity.

8) Oh, I'm a _____. I've bought salt and I meant to buy sugar.

9) After a robbery everything was in a mess, _____ all over the place.

10) You've put on weight. You're getting quite _____.

Exercise 14. Match each onomatopoeic word on the left with an item on the right.

(a)	ding-dong	iron gates closing
(b)	tick-tock	violin-string breaking
(c)	twang	wood fire burning
(d)	clang	large bell
(e)	toot-toot	car braking at speed
(f)	bleep	car horn
(g)	bang	clock
(h)	pitter-patter	horses' hoofs on road
(i)	crackle	light rain on window
(j)	screech	bath-water going down plug-hole
(k)	clip-clop	electronic personal caller
(l)	gurgle	gun
(m)	ping	spoon tapping empty wine-glass

Exercise 15. Define the particular type of word-building process by which the following words are made and say as much as you can about them.

Sci-fic, laundromat, brunch, tele-interviewer, to giggle, to tinkle, to ding-dong, export, Spanglish, a make, chunnel, consumer-oriented, slanguage, to splash, airy-fairy, coke, Oxbridge, to babysit, boyish, to hustle, racketeer, thorn-proof, Eurovision, CNN, face-to-face, musicdom, hyperactivity, teck, appointee, a pub, to snowball, counter-measure, a find, ciggy, fuddy-duddy, underpriced, A-bomb, the outs, super-duper, fashionwise, hotsy-totsy, acrylic, UFO, earthquake-proof, open-mindedness, to soprano, slumb, dramedy, minidress, all-to-none, self-criticism, here-and-now, to computerize, cheeseburger, to blood-transfuse, untrustworthy.

Recommended Reading
[3], [6], [11], [12], [22], [27], [33].

6. Омонимия: источники, классификации

Homonyms in the English Language. Hyponymy and Paronymy

Words identical in sound-form but different in meaning are tradition-ally termed **homonyms**. Modern English is exceptionally rich in homonymous words and word-forms. It is sometimes suggested that abundance of homonyms in Modern English is to be accounted for by the monosyllabic structure of the commonly used English words.

The most widely accepted classification is that recognising **homonyms proper, homophones** and **homographs**

Homographs are words identical in spelling, but different both in their sound-form and meaning, e.g. *bow* [bou] — 'a piece of wood curved by a string and used for shooting arrows' and *bow* [bau] — 'the bending of the head or body'.

Homophones are words identical in sound-form but different both in spelling and in meaning, e.g. *sea* and *see; son* and *sun.*

Homonyms proper are words identical both in spelling and in sound-form but different in meaning, e.g. *case₁* — 'something that has happened' and *case₂* — 'a box, a container'

The two main sources of homonymy are: 1) diverging meaning development of a polysemantic word, and 2) converging sound development of two or more different words.

Another approach to the classification of vocabulary items into lexico-semantic groups is the study of hyponymic relations between words. By **hyponymy** is meant a semantic relationship of inclusion. Thus, e.g., *vehicle* includes *car, bus, taxi* and so on. Hyponymic classification may be viewed as objectively reflecting the structure of vocabulary and is considered by many linguists as one of the most important principles for the description of meaning.

The term **paronym** comes from the Greek *para* 'beside' and *onoma* 'name'. Paronyms are words that are kindred both in sound form and meaning and therefore liable to be mixed but un fact different in meaning and usage and therefore only mistakenly interchanged. This is the case with the adjectives *ingenious* and *ingenuous*. The first of these means 'clever' and may be used both of man and of his inventions and doings, e. g. *an ingenious craftsman, an ingenious device. Ingenuous* means 'frank', 'artless', as *an ingenuous smile.* The likeness may be accidental as in the verbs *affect* and *effect.* The first means 'influence', the second — 'to produce'. These come from different Latin verbs. The similarity may be also due to a common source. It is etymologically justified in *alternate* 'succeeding each other' and *alternative* 'providing a choice', or *consequent* 'resulting' and *consequential* 'important', or *continuance* 'an uninterrupted succession' and *continuation* which has two distinct meanings 'beginning again' and 'sequel' as *the continuation of a novel.*

Points for Discussion

1. Homonyms and their origin.
2. The sources of homonymy in the English language.
3. Classifications of homonyms.
4. Hyponyms.
5. Paronyms and lexical variants.

Exercises

Exercise 1. Find the homonyms in the following contexts. Classify them into homonyms proper, homographs and homophones.

1. a) Come on, you two, fight fair! b) She has luxurious fair hair. c) This is the annual world trade fair. 2. a) After years of fighting people longed for peace. b) He lost one of the pieces of his model engine. 3. a) This is the third day in a row that's rained. b) Oh, what a row over money they are having again. 4. a) The gate bolts on the inside. b) The horse always bolts in terror at the sound of the gun. 5. a) We travelled by overnight coach to Scotland. b) He is a talented football coach. 6. a) She tossed back her thick mane of dark hair. b) My main concern is the welfare of the children. c) The gas main exploded and set fire to the house. 7. a) Long ago a man hunted with a bow and arrows. b) The bow of the actor was full of dignity. 8. a) We have a maid to do the housework. b) Peter and Judy seem made for one another, don't they. 9. a) Don't bounce on the bed – you'll break the springs. b) In spring leaves begin to grow on the trees. 10. a) This cutlery is made of stainless steel. b) Watch out! This man is going to steal your watch. 11. a) The curtains were flapping backwards and forwards in the wind. b) Two rivers wind its way along the narrow valley.

Exercise 2. Fill in the blanks with the correct homophone in brackets to complete each sentence.

1. The _____ spent the _____ in the castle (knight, night). 2. The _____ on a _____ is called fur (hare, hair). 3. He decided to _____ his new belt but he doesn't know _____ he put it (where, wear). 4. The coach announced which _____ of the teams _____ the game (won, one). 5. We brought a _____ of cool water to the _____ traveller (pail, pale). 6. Do you always _____ the skin off a _____ before you eat it (pare, pear)? 7. The boat sailed _____ through the _____ (strait, straight). 8. After his illness John felt _____ for a _____ (weak, week). 9. Yesterday the sky was _____ and the wind _____ from the north (blue, blew). 10. Have you heard the fairy _____ about the cat with no _____ (tail, tale)?

Exercise 3. A pun (the play upon the words) is often a humorous use of polysemantic words or homonyms. Puns are used not only in jokes but in many forms of publicity because they catch the eye and amuse. Explain the following puns by giving the two possible meanings.

1. When you decide to give her a ring, give us a ring. (Advertisement for a jeweller's shop).

2. For a few pounds you can loose a few. (Advertisement for a slimming course).

3. We'll give you sound advice. (Hi-fi shop advertisement).

4. Make a snap decision. (Advertisement for a new camera).

5. Money matters. (Title of the financial section of a newspaper).

6. Go by air. It's plane common sense. (Advertisement for air travel).

7. Sea for yourself. (Advertisement to attract recruits to the Royal Navy).

8. Christmas is a time to think of family ties. Buy ours. (Advertisement for men's ties).

9. Go up in the world. (Advertisement to recruit air stewardesses).

10. It's good for you, naturally. (Advertisement for fruit juice).

Exercise 4. Find a homophone for each of the words given below.

Two, eye, guest, waste, male, way, wear, war, here, pair, wait, steel, bored, seize, principal, caught, hole, sale, meet, past, blue, red, stairs, born, road, so, rain, sweet, bold, miner, died, sort, pause, berry, higher, morning, praise, ceiling, heard, sent, sell, course, tire, idle.

Exercise 5. Find and correct any spelling mistakes in the sentences below.

1) I was very surprised when she walked straight passed me without even saying "hello".

2) I wasn't sure weather he was joking or not when he said he was going to wring my neck.

3) The frail old man looked quite pail.

4) Behind a fur tree lurked a bear waiting for its prey.

5) He intends to buy some new softwear for his computer.

6) We had to dress very formely for the occasion.

7) It poured with reign and we got soaked.

8) We were extremely greatful to them for their support.

Exercise 6. Complete each sentence choosing between two paronyms.

1) It made no difference. It didn't (affect / effect) us at all.

2) It was just an optical (allusion / illusion).

3) It was quite an (appreciative / appreciable) rise in price.

4) I'd like to (complement / compliment) you on your work.

5) Many (eminent / imminent) scientists agree with her.

6) Who will stop the (elicit / illicit) trade in whale meat.

7) The escaped prisoner (eluded / alluded) capture for over a week.

8) He is brilliant. He has come up with an (ingenious / ingenuous) solution to the problem.

9) All I am saying is that (moral / morale) amongst staff is very low.

10) I am (loath / loathe) to discuss this matter any further without other members of staff being present.

Recommended Reading

[3], [4], [6], [12], [22], [27], [32], [36], [37], [39], [42], [46].

7. Отношения синонимии, антонимии в английском языке

Synonyms, Antonyms, Euphemisms in the English Language

Lexical units may also be classified by the criterion of semantic similarity and semantic contrasts. The terms generally used to denote these two types of semantic relatedness are synonymy and antonymy.

Synonyms are traditionally described as words different in sound-form but identical or similar in meaning. I.V. Arnold defines synonyms as two or more words of the same language, belonging to the same part of speech and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical denotational meanings, interchangeable, at least in some contexts without any considerable alteration in denotational meaning, but differing in morphemic composition, phonemic shape, shades of meaning, connotations, style, valency and idiomatic use.

The English word-stock is extremely rich in synonyms which can be explained by abundant borrowing. Synonyms in modern English are also created by means of all word-forming processes, shift of meaning, new combinations of

verbs with postpositives and compound nouns formed from them, shortenings, set expressions and conversion.

Synonyms form **synonymic groups** (e.g.: *hope, anticipate, expect, look forward to*). Each synonymic group comprises a dominant element – **synonymic dominant** that is the most general term of its kind potentially containing the specific features rendered by all the other members of the group, as, for example, *hope* in the above. As for polysemantic words, one and the same word may belong in its various meanings to several different synonymic groups.

Synonyms are subdivided into different groups:

Ideographic synonyms: the difference in the meaning concerns the notion expressed (*to walk – to pace – to stroll – to stride*).

Stylistic synonyms have the same denotational components but differ in connotational components of meaning (*hearty – cordial; terrible – horrible – atrocious; to die – to pass away*).

Total (absolute) synonyms can replace each other in any given context, without the slightest alteration in denotative or emotional meaning and connotations, Examples of this rare type can be found among technical terms.

Contextual synonyms are similar in meaning only under some specific distributional conditions. (*buy* and *get*).

Antonyms may be defined as two or more words of the same language belonging to the same part of speech and to the same semantic field, identical in style and nearly identical in distribution, associated and often used together so that their denotative meanings render contradictory or contrary notions.

Contradictory notions are mutually opposed and denying one another, e. g. *alive* means 'not dead' and *impatient* means 'not patient'. **Contrary** notions are also mutually opposed but they are gradable, e. g. *old* and *young* are the most distant elements of a series like: *old : : middle-aged : : young.*

Antonyms form mostly pairs, not groups like synonyms: *above : : below; absent : : present; asleep : : awake; back : : forth; bad : : good; big : : little,* etc. Unlike synonyms, antonyms do not differ either in style, emotional colouring or distribution. They are interchangeable at least in some contexts.

Another classification of antonyms, suggested by Komissarov, is based on a morphological approach: root words form **absolute antonyms**

(right : : *wrong),* the presence of negative affixes creates **derivational antonyms** *(happy : : unhappy).*

J. Lyons suggests a different classification. He distinguishes **antonyms proper** and **complementary antonyms**. Antonyms proper represent contrary notions, they are regularly gradable, grading is based on the operation of comparison. One can compare the intensity of feeling as in *love — attachment — liking — indifference — antipathy -— hate.* Complementary antonyms like other antonyms are regularly contrasted in speech *(male* and *female),* and the elements of a complementary pair have similar distribution.

There is one further type of semantic opposition to consider – **conversives.** Conversives denote one and the same referent or situation as viewed from different points of view, with a reversal of the order of participants and their roles. They can be illustrated by such pairs as *buy* : : *sell; give* : : *receive; parent* : : *child; left* : : *right; cause : : suffer.*

Euphemism (from Greek *eu* – "well" and *pheme* – "speaking") is the substitution of words of mild or vague connotations for expressions rough, unpleasant. Euphemisms are used to replace unpleasant words or expressions by conventionally more acceptable ones. For example, the word *to die* has the following euphemisms: *to expire, to pass away, to depart, to join the majority, to kick the bucket,* etc. The use of euphemisms nowadays is dictated by social usage, etiquette, tact, diplomatic considerations, political propaganda. Political euphemisms belong to a special kind of euphemisms used not only in the sphere of politics, but in the spheres of ethnical relations, warfare, commerce and industry, education, etc.

Points for Discussion

1. Synonyms, their nature and sources.
2. The definition of synonyms.
3. Synonymic group and synonymic dominant.
4. Criteria of synonymy (conceptual, semantic, etc).
5. Classifications of synonyms (V.V. Vinogradov, G.B. Antrushina).
6. Antonyms and their classifications. Conversives.
7. Euphemisms. Subject spheres of euphemisms. Political euphemisms.

Exercises

Exercise 1. Find synonyms for the words given below.

Way, weapons, seller, poetry, prisoner, arms, manner, captive, verse, peddler, to throw, to refuse, to hug, to retreat, to criticize, to embrace, to decline, to cast, to blame, to withdraw, conscious, contented, tender, monstrous, precise, aware, gentle, exact, satisfied, dreadful.

Exercise 2. Find opposites for the words given below.

Debt, defeat, fright, hope, amateur, courage, victory, credit, professional, despair, married, rough, ignorant, dim, deep, natural, smooth, bright, artificial, single, shallow, to admire, to delete, to bend, to include, to demand, to omit, to supply, to straighten, to despise, to insert.

Exercise 3. Prove that the groups of words given below are synonyms. Use the semantic criterion to justify your opinion. Find the dominant synonym in each group. If necessary consult English-Russian Synonymic Dictionary.

1) Bare – naked – bald – barren. 2) fault – blame – culpability – guilt. 3) to depart – to quit – to withdraw – to leave. 4) intelligent – clever – smart – bright. 5) pang – ache – pain – twinge. 6) to shout – to yell – to roar – to cry. 7) to amaze — to astonish – to surprise – to flabbergast. 8) sadness – melancholy – depression – gloom – blues. 9) calling – occupation – vocation – business. 10) deranged – crazy – insane – mad. 11) scent – perfume – smell – odour – aroma. 12) to glare – to gaze – to peep – to look – to stare – to glance.

Exercise 4. Find the dominant synonyms for the following italicized words. Can they be used as substitutes? What is lost if we make the substitution?

1. For several minutes the old groom did not speak, but continued to dart pessimistic *glances* at Andrew. 2. And all the time she was moved by her *affection* towards Anthony. 3. Any person could enter and *gain* the attention of the clerk. 4. Her *vocation* is teaching – after a normal education. 5. He *loathed* not only Bosman, but Jean too, and her petty little world of pleasure. 6. She almost smiled at his *clumsy* attempts to reconcile her to his good humour. 7. Her red hat was quite *chic*. 8. She complained of faintness and *depression*, and said

she felt sick. 9. Wilfrid Desert still maintained his *chambers* on Cork Street. 10. He smoked two cigarettes in quick succession as he *paced* in the street outside.

Exercise 5. Unite the given euphemisms into thematic groups under the following subject headings: age, bribery, drunkenness, illnesses, prisons, unemployment, warfare.

Ageful, sight deprived, sweeten, labour education, longer-living, grease a hand, senior citizen, cock-eyed, palm soap, intoxicated, distinguished, under the weather, tight, heart condition, challenged, mature, cross bar hotel, boozer, behind the wire, between jobs, border incident, consumption, adventure, counter-attack, economically inactive, preventive reaction, soft commission, defence, glove money, conflict, gratitude, Dutch courage, enjoy her majesty hospitality, unwaged.

Exercise 6. There are genuine examples of modern euphemistic expressions – "officially correct language" used by bureucrats. What do all these sentences mean in plain English?

A domestic service engineer, a horticultural festive element, a grain consuming unit, a follicly challenged person, to subject a department to over-ratio amelioration, hairlogist, to offer accelerated retirement, optically challenged person, waste management worker, security coordinator, a verbally deficient person, a uniquely proficient person, negatively privileged people, an individual behaviour adjustment unit, an agricultural science specialist, a correctional facility.

Recommended Reading
[3], [4], [6], [12], [22], [27], [32], [36], [37], [39], [42], [46].

8. Лексическая сочетаемость в английском языке

Valency and Combinability in the English Language

The vocabulary of any language consists not only of words but also of different word groups. All word groups are subdivided into **free word groups** and **set expressions**. Set expressions (e.g. *part and parcel, black sheep, to break the ice*) are semantically non-motivated, reproduced in speech. They are the subject matter of phraseology. Free word groups (e.g. *a beautiful flower, next week, to read a book*) are produced, not reproduced in speech, semantically they are motivated.

To get a better insight into the structure and meaning of free word-groups we must consider the main factors active in uniting words into word-groups – the lexical and the grammatical valency of words. It is a fact that words are used in certain lexical contexts, in combination with other words.

The aptness of a word to appear in various combinations is its **lexical valency. Lexical collocability** is the realization in speech of the potential connections of a word with other words. The range of the lexical valency of words is linguistically restricted by the inner structure of the language. For example, though the verbs *lift* and *raise* are usually treated as synonyms, it is only the latter that is collocated with the noun *question.* There is a certain norm of lexical valency for each word and any deviation from this norm is felt as a stylistic device. Such word-groups as for example *a cigarette ago, shove a question* illustrate the point. As we recognise that *shove* and *question* are not normally collocated we feel that the combination of them can produce a stylistic effect.

Words habitually collocated in speech tend to constitute a cliché (e.g. *put forward a question, last but not least, blissful ignorance*). The lexical valency of correlated words in different languages is not identical. Both the English word *empty* and its Russian counterpart — *пустой,* may be combined with a number of other words all of which denote some containers, e.g. *empty room, empty box,* etc. (cf. the Russian *пустая комната, пустая коробка,* etc.). The English word, however, cannot enter into combination with the word *person* to denote a light minded human being (cf. *пустой* человек – a *shallow* person).

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Words are used also in grammatical contexts. The aptness of a word to appear in specific grammatical structures is its **grammatical valency.**

The range of grammatical valency is delimited by the part of speech the word belongs to. It follows that the grammatical valency of each individual word is dependent on the grammatical structure of the language. This is not to imply that grammatical valency of words belonging to the same part of speech is necessarily identical. This can be best illustrated by comparing the grammatical valency of any two words belonging to the same part of speech, e.g. of the two synonymous verbs *suggest* and *propose*. Both verbs can be followed by a noun (*to propose* or *suggest a plan, a resolution*). But only *propose* can be followed by the infinitive of a verb (*to propose to do smth.*)

Specific linguistic restrictions in the range of grammatical valency of individual words imposed on the lexical units by the inner structure of the language are also observed by comparing the grammatical valency of correlated words in different languages. The English verb *influence,* for example, can be followed only by a noun (*to influence a person, a decision, choice,* etc.). The grammatical valency of its Russian counterpart *влиять* is different. The Russian verb can be combined only with a prepositional group (cf. *влиять* на *человека,* на *выбор,* etc.).

Free word groups can be classified by some criteria. All word groups may be also analysed **by the criterion of distribution** into two big classes: endocentric and exocentric word groups. If the word group has the same linguistic distribution as one of its members, it is described as **endocentric,** i.e. having one central member functionally equivalent to the whole word group (e.g. *red flower, bravery of all kinds*) If the distribution of the word-group is different from either of its members, it is regarded as **exocentric,** i.e. as having no such central member (*side by side, grow smaller*) and others where the component words are not syntactically substitutable for the whole word group.

Word groups may be classified **according to their headwords** into **nominal** groups or phrases (e.g. *red flower*), **adjectival** groups (e.g. *kind to people*), **verbal** groups (e.g. *to speak well*), etc. The head is not necessarily the component that occurs first in the word-group.

Word groups are also classified **according to their syntactic pattern** into **predicative** and **non-predicative** groups. Such word-groups as *John works, he went* that have a syntactic structure similar to that of a sentence, are classified as predicative, and all others as non-predicative. Non-predicative word-groups may be subdivided **according to the type of syntactic relations between the components** into subordinative and coordinative. Such word-groups as *red flower, a man of wisdom* and the like are termed **subordinative** because the words *red* and *of wisdom* are subordinated to *flower* and *man* respectively. Such phrases as *women and children, day and night, do or die* are classified as **coordinative**.

Points for Discussion

1. Free word-combinations and set expressions.
2. Lexical and grammatical valency. Collocability and its types.
3. Classifications of free word-groups.
4. Interrelation of lexical valency and polysemy in word-groups.
5. Norms of lexical valency and collocability in different languages.

Exercises

Exercise 1. Analyze the lexical valency of the polysemantic words. Translate the sentences into Russian.

to run

1. The horse *runs*. 2. The film *runs* for two hours. 3. The water *runs*. 4. The tap *runs*. 5. His nose *runs*. 6. The motor *runs*. 7. The wine *ran* over the floor. 8. The whole argument *runs* on this point. 9. She *ran* the water into the bath-tub. 10. He *ran* his business well.

to charge

1. He *charged* the man ten cents for the pencil. 2. He *charged* the battery. 3. He *charged* them to do their duty. 4. He *charged* these goods to the man's account. 5. The soldiers *charged* the enemy. 6. I don't want *to charge* my memory with trifles. 7. The judge *charged* him with the crime.

Exercise 2. State the difference in the grammatical valency of the following pairs of words. Give their syntactic patterns.

1. to suffocate – to choke. 2. to ride – to go. 3. to cure – to treat. 4. to blame – to accuse. 5. to let – allow. 6. to care – to interest.

Exercise 3. Give words of the same root in Russian, compare their valency.

Chance, situation, partner, surprise, risk, instruction, satisfaction, business, manager.

Exercise 4. Find one words in each group that does not make a strong word partnership with the word in BLOCK LETTERS.

1. BRIGHT: idea, green, smell, child, day, room.

2. CLEAR: attitude, need, instruction, alternative, day.

3. LIGHT: traffic, work, day, entertainment, suitcase, rain, green, lunch.

4. NEW: experience, job, food, potatoes, baby, situation, year.

5. STRONG: possibility, doubt, smell, influence, views, coffee, language.

Exercise 5. Explain the meaning of the following word groups a) as free word groups; b) as set expressions.

Skate on thin ice, best man, black ball, first night, run out, give a ring, break the ice, burn one's fingers, on the rocks, to start the ball rolling, get to the point, a piece of cake, black sheep.

Recommended Reading
[2], [3], [12], [13], [14], [19], [22], [27], [29], [38].

9. Фразеология современного английского языка

Phraseology. Phraseological Units in the English Language

Phraseology is a branch of linguistics which studies different types of set expressions which like words name various objects and phenomena. The term phraseological unit was introduced by acad. V.V. Vinogradov. **Phraseological units** are defined as non-motivated word groups that cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready-made units. This definition proceeds from the assumption that the essential features of phraseological units are stability of the lexical components and lack of motivation.

According to the **semantic classification** of phraseological units suggested by acad. V.V. Vinogradov phraseological units are classified into three big groups: phraseological fusions, phraseological unities and phraseological combinations.

Phraseological fusions are completely non-motivated word groups e.g. *red tape, kick the bucket*. The meaning of the whole group cannot be deduced from the meanings of the components. It is combined with complete stability of the lexical components and the grammatical structure of the fusion. **Phraseological unities** are partially non-motivated as their meaning can usually be perceived through the metaphoric meaning of the whole phraseological unit e.g. *to show one's teeth, to wash one's dirty linen in public*. **Phraseological combinations** are motivated, the components they are made up possess specific lexical valency which accounts for a certain degree of stability in such word groups. E.g. *bear a grudge* may be changed into *bear malice*, but not into *bear a fancy*.

Structural approach assumes that phraseological units may be defined as specify word-groups functioning as word-equivalents. **Structural** approach and the **classification** were suggested by prof. A. I. Smirnitsky. The fundamental features of phraseological units thus understood are their semantic and grammatical inseparability which are regarded as distinguishing features of isolated words. Prof. Smirnitsky suggested three classes of set expressions: **traditional phrases** (*nice distinction, rough sketch*), **phraseological**

combinations (*to fall in live, to get up*), **idioms** (*to wash one's dirty linen in public*), but only the second group is given a detailed analysis.

Contextual classification of phraseological units was suggested by prof. N.N. Amosova. She considered phraseological units to be units of fixed context. Fixed context is characterized by a specific and unchanging sequence of definite lexical components and peculiar relationship between them. Units of fixed context are subdivided into **phrasemes and idioms** according to whether or not one of the components of the whole word group possesses specialised meaning.

Phrasemes are two-member word-groups in which one of the members has specialised meaning dependent on the second component, e.g. *in small hours*.

Idioms are different from phrasemes by the idiomaticity of the whole word-group (*red tape*). Unusualness of collocability, or logical incompatibility of member-words is indicative of the idiomaticity of the phrase.

Functional classification of phraseological units, suggested by prof. I.V. Arnold, is based on the grammatical unity typical of all phraseological units and on their functioning in the language as words equivalents. Phraseological units may be subdivided into: 1) **noun equivalents**: N+N: (*family jewels*); N's+N: (*Hob-son's choice*); Ns'+N: (*ladies' man*); N+prp+N: (*skeleton in the cupboard*); N+A: (*red tape*); N+and+N: (*lord and master*); N+subordinate clause (*ships that pass in the night)*. 2) **verb equivalents**: V+N: (*take advantage*); V+and+V: (*pick and choose*); V+(one's)+N+(prp): (*snap ones fingers at); V+one+N: (give one the bird*); V+subordinate clause: (*see how the land lies*); 3) **adjective equivalents**: A+and+A: (*high and mighty*); (as)+A+as+N: (*as mad as a hatter*); 4) **adverb equivalents**: N+N: (*tooth and nail*); prp+N: (*against the grain*); adv+prp+N: (*once in a blue moon); prp+N+or+N: (by hook or by crook*); cj+clause: (*before one can say Jack Robinson*); 5) **prepositions equivalents**: prp+N+prp: (*in consequence of*); 6) **interjections equivalents**: (*God bless me*).

A detailed **structural and semantic classification** is developed by prof. A.V. Kunin. He divides all set expressions into three classes: phraseological units, phraseomatic units and borderline cases. **Phraseological** and **phraseomatic units** are characterized by phraseological stability that

distinguishes them from free phrases and compound words. Prof. Kunin developed the theory of stability – a complex notion that consists of some aspects (stability of use, lexical stability, semantic stability and syntactic stability).

Points for Discussion

1. Phraseology. Phraseological units and their fundamental features.
2. Criteria of a phraseological unit.
3. Classifications of phraseological units (V.V. Vinogradov, A.I. Smirnitsky, I.V. Arnold, N.N. Amosova, A.V. Kunin).
4. Proverbs and sayings,
5. Familiar quotations and clichés.

Exercises

Exercise 1. Deduce the meanings of the following phraseological units. Use them in a sentence of your own.

To talk to the wind; not to turn a hair; to play the fool, to hold one's tongue; to be at the end of one's rope; to keep pace with smth; out of the blue; to fly off the handle; for a rainy day; to screw up one's courage; diamond cut diamond, to walk on air; to cry on someone's shoulder; to turn the tables; when pigs fly.

Exercise 2. Put the following phraseological units into the sentences in place of the italicized phrases.

The rat race; to be pig-headed; a hen party; a bookworm; to duck one's head.

1. She always seems to have her nose in a book. She's *a keen reader*.
2. *Lower your head*! The ceiling is very low.
3. The men are having an all-men party, so why don't we women have *a women-only party*.
4. You really are the most stupid, ignorant and *stubborn* person I've ever met.
5. They had had enough of *the pressures and competition of modern life*.

To let off steam; to break the ice; like fish out of water, a drop in the ocean; the tip of the iceberg.

1. My contribution is *only small* but every little bit helps.

2. She *felt awkward* being the only woman in the parliament.

3. Nobody's talking to anyone. We need a game *to get the party going*.

4. The problem she mentioned was only *the most obvious one*; there were many other reasons too.

5. The children needed to *use up some energy* after having sat quietly for three hours.

Once in a blue moon; red tape; out of the blue; a red herring; to give black looks.

1. Did you notice Jane *staring angrily* at Ron? I wouldn't like to be him when they get home.

2. One way to stop potential football hooligans from travelling to international matches would be to make all the *paperwork and bureaucracy* so difficult that people wouldn't bother.

3. I hadn't heard from my ex-boyfriend for years and then one day, completely *unexpectedly*, a letter arrived from him.

4. Do you often go to discos? No, *very rarely*.

5. Introducing the question of shorter working hours at this stage is just *an attempt to side-track the discussion*.

Exercise 3. Read the following proverbs. Give their Russian equivalents or explain their meanings.

1. You cannot make a silk purse out of a sow's year. 2. Well begun is half done. 3. Too many cooks spoil the broth. 4. There is a black sheep in every flock. 5. A stitch in time saves nine. 6. Still waters run deep. 7. The proof of the pudding is in the eating. 8. The pot calls the kettle black. 9. One man's meat is another man's poison. 10. Make hay while the sun shines. 11. Life is not all beer and skittles. 12. The leopard cannot change his spots. 13. It is no use crying over spilt milk. 14. In for a penny, in for a pound. 15. The grass is always greener on the other side of the fence.

Exercise 4. Give the English equivalents for the following Russian proverbs.

1. От добра добра не ищут. 2. Лучше синица в руках, чем журавль в небе. 3. Без труда не вытащишь и рыбку из пруда. 4. Любопытной Варваре нос оторвали. 5. Нашла коса на камень. 6. Не выноси сор из избы. 7. В Тулу со своим самоваром не ездят. 8. Не делай из мухи слона. 9. В гостях хорошо, а дома лучше. 10. Нет худа без добра. 11. Каждый человек кузнец своего счастья. 12. Не убив медведя, шкуры не делят. 13. Дай ему палец – он всю руку откусит. 14. Хорошо смеется тот, кто смеется последним. 15. Доброе слово и кошке приятно.

Exercise 5. Give the proverbs from which the following phraseological units have developed.

To cry over spilt milk; the last straw; to serve two masters; pigs might fly; a new broom; the mills of God grind slowly; Jack of all trades; a friend in need; a skeleton in the cupboard; to sit between two stools; the rotten apple.

Exercise 6. Make the following similes complete. Translate the phraseological units into Russian.

A	B
as savage	as a lord
as pretty	as rain
as drunk	as a wolf
as regular	as the grave
as busy	as a rail
as fresh	as a tiger
as hungry	as a bee
as right	as a cucumber
as silent	as a picture
as thin	as clockwork

Exercise 7. Match the words in Column A to their partners in Column B. Then find the correct definition of the phraseological unit in Column C. Translate the phraseological units into Russian.

Column A	Column B	Column C
odds and	goings	exact data
pros and	downs	various activities or topics
give and	ends	advantages and disadvantages
peace and	parcel	a tingling feeling in your limbs
this and	take	tranquility
ups and	figures	the busy activity at a scene
pins and	cons	good times and bad times
part and	that	a variety of different items
comings and	quiet	an essential component
facts and	needles	concessions on both sides

Exercise 8. In the examples given below identify the phraseological units and classify them on the semantic principle.

1. Do you have any idea who this dark horse is? 2. He has been poking his nose into my business again. 3. They decided it would be best to soft pedal the whole affair. 4. After having been divorced Mr Nicholas had to sell the house and its contents lock, stock and barrel. 5. Our landlord has always been such a kind, easy-going man, but when I accidentally smashed his window he really showed his teeth. 6. The man got stuck when he paid six thousand dollars for this old car.

7. It's no use appealing to Uncle Paul. You can't get blood out of the stone. 8. Let's start the discussion without beating about the bush. 9. This is really confidential so, please have your lips sealed. 10. The whole affair seemed to me hanky-panky. 11. This court case has been hanging over my head for the last three months. I shall be glad when it is over. 12. I don't want to spend time with that blue-stocking, she is interested only in her books. 13. We wished them every success in their work from the bottoms of our hearts. 14. The bill is much too high, but for goodness sake let's pay it rather than make a scene. 15. For that salary everybody would work all round the clock.

Exercise 9. In the examples given below identify the phraseological units and classify them on the functional principle.

1. The book is here somewhere but I can't lay my hands on it. 2. I need experience to get a job but without a job I can't get experience – it's a vicious circle. 3. The new M.D. destroyed an organization root and branch. 4. He was known for his care-for-nothing attitude and tongue-in-cheek remarks. 5. We don't want any Tom, Dick and Harry using the club bar. 6. He cheated the company for years until one of their colleagues blew the whistle on them. 7. Television sponsorship is the slippery slope towards loss of editorial independence. 8. All of his journeys to and fro between London and Paris got him completely exhausted. 9. Don't worry their jobs are as safe as houses. 10. Though the family seemed to live from hand to mouth they were always in high spirits. 11. The failure to agree on manning levels is a major stumbling block to settling the dispute. 12. He left her high and dry in a strange country without a passport. 13. You'll be glad to hear that Bill is alive and kicking. 14. All his schemes for making money seem to come to grief. 15. Higher earnings mean more tax, so it's all swings and roundabouts. 16. The worried look disappeared from her face and she was all smiles again. 17. He turned the corner and found himself face to face with a policeman. 18. When you get this job of a sales manager you'll be as pleased as Punch.

Exercise 10. Group the following italicized phraseological units, using Professor Kunin's classification system.

1. Margot brightened *"Now you are talking!* That would be a step up for women's lib. 2. Why was I more interested in the one *black sheep* than in all the *white lambs* in my care? 3. To the young, clichés seem freshly minted. *Hitch your wagon to the star!* 4. *Out of sight out of mind.* Anyway it'll do you good to have a rest from me. 5. In a sense it could be said that *the ice was broken* between us. 6. Rose Waterford smothered a giggle, but the others preserved a stony silence. Mrs. Forrester's smile froze on her lips. Albert had *dropped a brick.* 7. "The fact is that Albert Forrester has made you all look a lot of damned fools." "All, "said Clifford Boyleston. *"We're all in the same boat."* 8. *It's no good crying over spilt milk.* 9. Like many serious patriots, in her inability *to*

know for certain *which way the cat would jump* she held her political opinions in suspense. 10. "How long do you want to go for? For always?" "Yes, for always." "Oh, *my God!*" 11. That's also been a gentleman's paper, but it *had bees in its bonnet.* Bees in bonnets were respectable things but personally Soames did not care for them.

Recommended Reading
[2], [3], [12], [13], [14], [19], [22], [27], [29], [38].

10. Особенности английского языка за пределами Англии

Variants and Dialects of the English Language

Standard English — the official language of Great Britain taught at schools and universities, used by the press, the radio and the television and spoken by educated people. That form of English is current and literary, substantially uniform and recognised as acceptable wherever English is spoken or understood. Its vocabulary is contrasted to dialect words or dialecticisms. **Local dialects** are varieties of the English language peculiar to some districts and having no normalised literary form. **Variants** are regional varieties possessing a literary form. In Great Britain there are two variants, Scottish English and Irish English, and five main groups of dialects: Northern, Midland, Eastern, Western and Southern. Every group contains several (up to ten) dialects.

One of the best known Southern dialects is **Cockney**, the regional dialect of London. This dialect exists on two levels: as spoken by the educated lower middle classes it is a regional dialect marked by some deviations in pronunciation but few in vocabulary and syntax; as spoken by the uneducated, Cockney differs from Standard English not only in pronunciation but also in vocabulary, morphology and syntax.

The **Scottish Tongue** and the **Irish English** have a special linguistic status as compared with dialects because of the literature composed in them. Words from dialects and variants may penetrate into Standard English. The Irish

English gave, for instance, *blarney* – 'flattery', *bog* – 'a spongy, usually peaty ground of marsh', *Shamrock* – a trifoliate plant, the national emblem of Ireland. Some of the most frequently used Scotticisms are: *bairn* 'child', *billy* 'chum', *bonny* 'handsome', *brogue* 'a stout shoe', *glamour* 'charm', *laddie, lassie, kilt, raid, slogan, tartan,* etc.

The variant of English spoken in the USA has received the name of American English. American English cannot be called a dialect although it is a regional variety, because it has a literary normalised form called Standard American, whereas by definition given above a dialect has no literary form. The American variant of the English language differs from British English in pronunciation, some minor features of grammar, but chiefly in vocabulary.

Some specific features of **American pronunciation** are stress, peculiar pronunciation standards, such as [æ] for [a:] in *ask, dance, path,* etc., or [e] for [ei] in *made, day* and some other.

The **American spelling** is in some respects simpler than its British counterpart, in other respects just different. The suffix *-our* is spelled *-or,* so that *armor* and *humor* are the American variants of *armour* and *humour. Altho* stands for *although* and *thru* for *through.*

The existing cases of **differences in vocabulary** between the two variants can be classified into: 1) cases where there are no equivalents in British English: *drive-in* 'a cinema where you can see the film without getting out of your car'; *dude ranch* 'a sham ranch used as a summer residence for holiday-makers from the cities'; 2) cases where different words are used for the same denotatum, such as *can, candy, mailbox, movies, suspenders, truck* in the USA and *tin, sweets, pillar-box* (or *letter-box), pictures* or *flicks, braces* and *lorry* in England; 3) cases where the semantic structure of a partially equivalent word is different. The word *pavement,* for example, means in the first place 'covering of the street or the floor and the like made of asphalt, stones or some other material'. In England the derived meaning is 'the footway at the side of the road'. The Americans use the noun *sidewalk* for this, while *pavement* with them means 'the roadway'; 4) cases where otherwise equivalent words are different in distribution. The verb *ride* in Standard English is mostly combined with such nouns as *a horse, a bicycle,* more seldom they say *ride on a bus.* In American

English combinations like *a ride on the train, ride in a boat* are quite usual; 5) cases when the same word is used in American English with some difference in emotional and stylistic colouring. *Nasty,* for example, is a much milder expression of disapproval in England than in the States, where it was even considered obscene in the 19th century; 6) difference in frequency characteristics. Thus, *time-table* which occurs in American English very rarely yielded its place to *schedule.*

It should be noted that American English is not the only existing variant. There are Australian English, Canadian English, Indian English. Each of these has developed a literature of its own, and is characterised by peculiarities in phonetics, spelling, grammar and vocabulary. The vocabulary of all the variants is characterised by a high percentage of borrowings from the language of the people who inhabited the land before the English colonisers came. Many of them denote some specific realia of the new country: local animals, plants or weather conditions, new social relations, new trades and conditions of labour. The local words for new notions penetrate into the English language and later on may become international, if they are of sufficient interest and importance for people speaking other languages.

Points for Discussion.

1. Standard English, variants and dialects.
2. Variants of English in the UK (Scottish English, Irish English).
3. Local dialects in Great Britain.
4. Variants of English outside the British Isles.
5. American English. Peculiarities in phonetics, grammar, spelling.
6. American English. Peculiarities in vocabulary.
7. Reciprocal influence of British and American variants of the English language.

Exercises

Exercise 1. Read the following passage. Draw up a list of terms denoting the University teaching staff in Great Britain and in the USA. What are the corresponding Russian terms?

– But speaking of universities, we also got a different set of labels for the teaching staff, haven't we?

– Yes, in the United States, for example, our full time *faculty*, which we call *staff* incidentally – is arranged in a series of steps which goes from *instructor* through ranks of *assistant professor, associate professor* to that of *professor*. But I wish you'd straighten me out on the English system. *Don* for example, is a completely mysterious word and I'm never sure of the difference, say, between a *lecturer* and a *reader*.

– Well, readers say that lecturers should lecture and readers should read! But seriously, I think there's more similarity here than one would imagine. Let me say, first of all, that this word *don* is a very informal word and that it is common really only in Oxford and Cambridge. But corresponding to your instructor we've got the rank of *assistant lecturer*, usually a beginner's post. The assistant lecturer who is successful, is promoted, like your instructor and he becomes a lecturer and this lecturer grade is the main teaching grade throughout the university world. Above lecturer a man may be promoted to *senior lecturer* or *reader*, and both of these – there's little difference between them – correspond closely to your associate professor. And then finally he may get a chair, as we say – that is a professorship, or, as you would say, a full professorship. It's pretty much a difference of labels rather than of organization, it seems to me.

(From *A Common Language*
by A.H. Marckwardt and R Quirk)

Exercise 2. Read the following dialogue. Explain the difference in the meanings of the italicized words and expressions in American and British English.

The telephone rings in a house in the London suburb of Twickenham.

An American Voice: Good morning. *Is this Mrs Jones?*

Mrs Jones (rather puzzled): I'm Mrs Jones.

American: Oh, fine I'm Drusilla Applebee, and I'm *calling* about your house advertised *to rent* for the summer months.

Mrs Jones (still rather puzzled): Why yes, when are you going *to call*?

Mrs Applebee: I mean I'm *calling* you about it *right now*. We're a large family and your house sounded the sort of place we need for July, August and September.

Mrs Jones: Oh, yes, of course. How many are you in the family?

Mrs Applebee: Six, so we hope you have plenty of *closets*.

Mrs Jones: Er – oh, you mean what we call *cupboards*! Yes, we've got plenty of those. And lots of *chest of drawers* too.

Mrs Applebee: Chest of drawers...?

Mrs Jones: Oh, I should have remembered – the American term is *dresser*, isn't it?

Switchboard operator (in strong American voice): *Are you through?*

Mrs Jones: Oh, yes, *I'm through.*

Mrs Applebee: (simultaneously): No, no, *we're not through* yet. I'm speaking from my husband's office and they are all Americans here. Gosh, I'd no idea the British were so different about languages. What do you mean when you say you are through? We mean we're finished with the call.

Mrs Jones: Oh, dear we mean we've been "put through", we're connected! Perhaps you'd like to come and see the house and then we needn't misunderstand each other quite so much.

Mrs Applebee: I should love to see your house, but I've no car right now. Can I get to you easily some other way? I'm in Church Street.

Mrs Jones: You can take a 27 bus to the Twickenham roundabout, then use the *subway* right there...

Mrs Applebee: Excuse me, I didn't know the *subway* went to Twickenham.

Mrs Jones: Oh, of course, my fault. The underground doesn't go to Twickenham. I just meant when you get off the bus you take the passage under the road and when you come up the other side our house is at the end of Aldridge Avenue, opposite. How soon would you come?

Mrs Applebee: Is three o'clock today OK?

Mrs Jones: Fine, I'll expect you.

(From *Can You Speak Over the Telephone?*
by T.G. Shelkova, I.Y. Melekh)

Exercise 3. Match the words in American English in Column A to their British equivalents in Column B.

Column A	Column B	Column A	Column B
1. cop	A) turtleneck	1. chap	A) passage
2. blow-out	B) telegramme	2. candy	B) chips
3. gasoline	C) garden	3. cookies	C) handbag
4. bed-sitter	D) pavement	4. drapes	D) waistcoat
5. trunk	E) bobby	5. hall	E) rubber
6. sidewalk	F) label	6. eraser	F) rubbish
7. barrister	G) petrol	7. faucet	G) sweets
8. tag	H) lawyer	8. flashlight	H) biscuits
9. truck	I) boot	9. French fries	I) tap
10. poloneck	J) puncture	10. garbage	J) guy
11. wire	K) lorry	11. purse	K) torch
12. yard	L) studio	12. vest	L) curtains

Exercise 4. Read the following words and give their British variants.

Apartment, line, elevator, can, subway, streetcar, drugstore, mail-box, crackers, raincoat, vacation, baggage, fall (a season), corn, doctor's office, ballpoint, sophomore, attorney, realtor, freeway, rest room, resume, freshman, high school, pants, grade, suspenders, schedule, to rent, fenders, package, shopping bag.

Exercise 5. Subdivide the following list of words and into two groups according to the spelling norms accepted in the USA and in Great Britain.

Centre, jewelry, catalog, encyclopaedia, defence, fiber, to infold, marvellous, colour, woolen, judgment, to encrust, metre, offense, cheque, program, honor, tho, favour, thro, traveler, acknowledgement, favor, theatre, fabulos.

Recommended Reading
[3], [6], [8], [16], [13].

11. Лексикография английского языка

English Lexicography

Lexicography is the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries, an important branch of applied linguistics. Lexicography has a common object of study with lexicology, both describe the vocabulary of a language. Lexicology aims at systematisation revealing characteristic features of words. It cannot, however, claim any completeness as regards the units themselves, because of the great number of these units. The objective of lexicography is the semantic, formal, and functional description of all individual words.

Dictionary is a book listing words of a language with their meanings and often with data regarding pronunciation, usage and/or origin.

First of all dictionaries may be classified into **linguistic** (a book of words in a language, usually listed alphabetically, with definitions, pronunciations, etymologies and other linguistic information or with their equivalents in another language/other languages) and **non-linguistic** – **encyclopaedias** (a book which does not contain words, but facts and concepts, gives information on all branches of knowledge).

Linguistic dictionaries may be divided into different categories by different criteria: 1) the nature of the word-list, 2) the information supplied, 3) the language of the explanations, 4) the prospective user.

According to the nature of their word-list all dictionaries are divided into **restricted** and **unrestricted**. To restricted dictionaries belong terminological,

phraseological, dialectal word-books, dictionaries of new words, of foreign words, of abbreviations, etc. Unrestricted dictionaries contain lexical units from various spheres of life, they are unrestricted in their word-list and general in the information they contain.

According to the information given about each item all linguistic dictionaries fall into two groups: **general** – presenting a wide range of data about the vocabulary items in ordinary use, and **specialized** – restricting themselves to one particular subject. To general dictionaries belong two types, i.e. **explanatory** dictionaries and **translation** dictionaries. Specialized dictionaries are dictionaries of synonyms, dictionaries of euphemisms, ideographic dictionaries, etc.

According to the language of the explanations all types of dictionaries can be **monolingual, bilingual** and **polyglot**. According to the the prospective user all dictionaries can be divided into learner's dictionaries and those designed for the general public.

Ideographic dictionary or **thesaurus** is the type of dictionary which categorizes words only according to their semantic similarities, without regard for shared form or ancestry. The most famous such listing is *Roget's Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases*, first published in 1852 and in many editions subsequently. For expanding one's vocabulary, a thesaurus is likely to be even more useful than a standard dictionary, because it is arranged according to a universal set of concepts (e.g. *space, matter, intellect, abstract relations*) and then each of these is divided further and further until finally all the words can be grouped together which refer to closely similar meanings. Definitions are not given, just synonyms; and much of the book is an elaborate index to help you to find the head entry under which all the semantically similar words of a particular category are listed.

The most important issues of lexicography are connected with the selection of head-words, the arrangement and contents of the vocabulary entry, the principles of sense definitions and the semantic and functional classification of words.

Modern trends in English Lexicography are connected with the appearance and rapid development of such branches of Linguistics as **corpus**

(or corpus-based) linguistics and **computational linguistics**. Corpus-based linguistics deals with compiling various electronic corpora for conducting investigations in different linguistic fields. Corpora are large and systematic enterprises: whole texts or sections of texts are included, such as conversations, magazine articles, brochures, newspapers, lectures, sermons, broadcasts, chapters of novels, etc. The recent development of corpus-based linguistics has given birth to corpus-based lexicography and a new corpus-based generation of dictionaries. For example, the COBUILD English Dictionary used the Bank of English – the corpus of 20 million words in contemporary English developed at Birmingham University.

Computational linguistics is the branch of linguistics in which the techniques of computer science are applied to the analysis and synthesis of language and speech. Computational lexicography deals with the design, compilation, use and evaluation of **electronic dictionaries**. There are two types of electronic dictionaries: **on-line dictionaries** (e.g. *Oxford English Dictionary Online*) and **CD-ROM dictionaries** (e.g. *The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English on CD-ROM*).

To use on-line dictionaries it is necessary to have access to the Internet. CD-ROM dictionaries on most cases are electronic versions of the printed reference books supplemented by more visual information, pronunciation, interactive exercises and games.

Points for Discussion

1. Lexicography as a branch of Linguistics.
2. Historical development of British and American Lexicography.
3. Types of dictionaries (encyclopaedia / linguistic dictionary).
   Classification of linguistic dictionaries.
4. Ideographic dictionaries and Thesaurus.
5. Some of the main problems of Lexicography.
6. Types and common characteristics of learner's dictionaries.
7. Corpus-based Lexicography.
8. Electronic dictionaries.

Exercises

Exercise 1. Define the type of a dictionary by analyzing the following entries.

1. **Discover** (French – Latin) Middle English *discouvren (discouveren)* – Old French *descouvrir*, to uncover, disclose. – Old French **des-** (Latin **dis-**), apart, *couvrir* to cover.

2. **nuts** [nats] *adj* [pred] (*sl*) **1** crazy; mad: *Stop that, will you? It's driving me nuts.* **2 ~ about sb/sth; ~ on sth** very much in love with smb or very enthusiastic about sth: *I'm absolutely nuts about her.* * *He's nuts on cars.*

3. **vegetable** [ˋvedʒətəbl] *n* Gemüse *nt*; (plant) Pflanze *f.*

4. **Surmounting Преодоление**
>   **surmount** *v* преодолевать (*препятствия, трудности*).
>   **overcome** *v* (overcame, overcome) преодолеть, побороть, превозмочь.
>   **cope** *v* справиться, совладать (*с чем-л*).
>   **manage** *v часто с* can, could справляться, суметь сделать.
>   **puff off** *phr v* добиться˙ (*несмотря на трудности*); справиться с задачей.
>   **win through** *phr v* (won) пробиться, преодолеть (*трудности*).

5. **hulk** a prison
Originally a ship, and then the hull of a ship which was no longer seaworthy but good enough for the confinement of convicts. Often in the plural.   ,

Exercise 2. Define the type of the dictionary.
The Concise Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology; the Penguin Dictionary of English Idioms; the New Oxford Dictionary of English; the Modern English-Russian Dictionary; the Longman Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs; the Longman Language Activator; the English-Russian Dictionary of Linguistics and Semiotics; the English Pronouncing Dictionary; the Longman Business English Dictionary; The New Oxford Thesaurus of English; the Dictionary of Neologisms; the Chambers Book of Facts; Random House Webster's Dictionary of American Slang; the Dictionary of Literary Terms; the Cambridge Guide to Fiction in English.

Recommended Reading
[3], [6], [9], [12], [16], [17], [23], [40], [41], [43], [44], [45], [47].

КОНТРОЛЬНЫЕ ВОПРОСЫ ПО ДИСЦИПЛИНЕ

1. The object of Lexicology, its branches. The connection of Lexicology with other branches of Linguistics.

2. The notion of lexical system. Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic relations. The definition of the word. Different approaches to the definition.

3. Register and functional style. Stylistically marked lexicon. Stylistic classification of the English vocabulary: neutral, literary, colloquial layers and their characteristics.

4. Neutral layer of the vocabulary. Characteristic features of neutral words.

5. Literary layer and its characteristics. Terminology and its characteristics. Archaic words, historisms, poetical words. Foreignisms and barbarisms.

6. Colloquial layer and its characteristics. Literary, familiar, low colloquial.

7. Professionalisms, jargonisms. Slang and its different treatment. Dialectal words. Vulgarisms and argot words.

8. Etymological sources of the English lexicon. Types of native words.

9. Borrowings and their classification. Celtic borrowings. Latin borrowings. Scandinavian borrowings. French borrowings.

10. Assimilation of loan words. Completely assimilated words. Partially assimilated words. Barbarisms.

11. Etymological doublets. Translation-loans. International words.

12. The definition of the word. Motivation of words.

13. Semasiology. Different approaches to the word meaning. Referential approach to the meaning. Semantic Triangle. Functional and operational approaches to the meaning.

14. Semantic structure of an English word. Grammatical and lexico-grammatical meanings. Lexical meaning and its structure. Denotative meaning. Connotative meaning. Types of connotations. Componential analysis.

15. Polysemy. Causes of the phenomenon. Semantic structure of polysemantic words. Lexico-grammatical variants and their classifications. Contextual meaning. Contextual analysis.

16. Semantic changes and their causes. Types of semantic change: specialization, generalization, metaphor, metonymy, amelioration, degradation.

17. Morphological structure of a word. Types of morphemes (root, stem, suffix, prefix) and their characteristics. Classification of morphemes. Derivational and functional affixes. Four main types of word building.

18. Affixation. Derivational and functional affixes. Classifications of suffixes. Classifications of prefixes. Allomorphs. Semi-affixes.

19. Composition. The criteria of compounds. Classifications of compound words. The "stone wall" problem.

20. Conversion and different parts of speech. Semantic relations between converted words. Substantivation.

21. Shortening. Graphical abbreviations. Blending.

22. Minor types of word building: reduplication, back-formation, onomatopoeia, accent shift.

23. Homonyms and their origin. The sources of homonymy in the English language. Classifications of homonyms.

24. Hyponyms. Paronyms and lexical variants.

25. Synonyms, their nature and sources. The definition of synonyms. Synonymic group and synonymic dominant. Criteria of synonymy (conceptual, semantic, etc). Classifications of synonyms (V.V. Vinogradov, G.B. Antrushina).

26. Antonyms and their classifications. Conversives.

27. Euphemisms. Subject spheres of euphemisms. Political euphemisms.

28. Free word-combinations and set expressions. Lexical and grammatical valency. Collocability and its types. Classifications of free word-groups.

29. Interrelation of lexical valency and polysemy in word-groups. Norms of lexical valency and collocability in different languages.

30. Phraseology. Phraseological units and their fundamental features. Criteria of a phraseological unit. Origin of phraseological units in the English language.

31. Classifications of phraseological units (V.V. Vinogradov, A.I. Smirnitsky, I.V. Arnold, N.N. Amosova, A.V. Kunin). Kunin's theory of stability.

32. Proverbs, sayings, familiar quotations and cliches.

33. Standard English, variants and dialects. Variants of English in the UK (Scottish English, Irish English). Local dialects in Great Britain.

34. Variants of English outside the British Isles. Canadian English. Australian English. Indian English.

35. American English. The History of American English. Peculiarities in phonetics, grammar, spelling and vocabulary. Reciprocal influence of British and American variants of the English language.

36. Lexicography as a branch of Linguistics. Historical development of British and American Lexicography.

37. Types of dictionaries (encyclopaedia / linguistic dictionary). Classification of linguistic dictionaries.

38. Some of the main problems of Lexicography. Corpus-based Lexicography. Electronic dictionaries.

39. 6. Neologisms, nonce words. Semantic groups. Ways of forming neologisms.

ГЛОССАРИЙ ЛЕКСИКОЛОГИЧЕСКИХ ТЕРМИНОВ

Abbreviation

a form of a word, phrase, etc that is shorter than a full form.

Ex.: *UNO* (the United Nations Organizations); *Dr* (Doctor).

Acronym

an abbreviated written form which is read and sound like an ordinary English word and is homonymous to an ordinary word.

Ex.: *WOMAN* (World Organization for Mothers of All Nations).

Affixation

coining a new word by adding an affix or several affixes to some root morpheme.

Allomorph

a positional variant of a morpheme occurring in a specific environment.

Ex.: *im-* (impossible); *ir-* (irregular); *il-* (illegal); *in-* (indirect, inability).

Antonyms

words belonging to the same part of speech, identical in style, expressing contrary or contradictory notions.

Archaisms

words that were once common but no longer used in everyday speech and now replaced by synonyms. Archaisms remain in the language, but they are used as stylistic devices to express solemnity.

Assimilation (of loan words)

a partial or total conformation to the phonetical, graphical and morphological standards of the receiving language and its semantic system.

Back-formation

the derivation of new words by subtracting a real or supposed affix from existing words through misinterpretation of their structure.

Ex.: *to accreditate* (from *accreditation*); *to enthuse* (from *enthusiasm*)

Bahuvrihi

possessive exocentric compounds in which a person, animal or thing are metonymically named after some striking feature they possess, chiefly a striking feature of their appearance. Semantically the bahuvrihi are characterized by an ironical emotional tone.

Ex.: *bigwig* (a person of importance); *lazy-bones* (a lazy person).

Barbarism

words from other languages used by English people in conversation or in writing but not assimilated in any way, and for which there are corresponding English equivalents.

Bias words

the words involving opinions or feelings that strongly favour one side in an argument, ideological viewpoints. Bias words are especially characteristic of the newspaper vocabulary reflecting different ideologies and political trends in describing political life.

Blending

the process of word-formation that combines two words including the letters or sounds they have in common as a connecting element.

Ex.: *brunch* (breakfast + lunch); *smog* (smoke + fog).

Borrowing

a word taken over from another language and modified in phonetic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language.

Cliché

phrases which have become hackneyed and stale.

Ex.: *to pave the way; the irony of fate; astronomical figures.*

Clipping

see **Shortening**

Collocability, lexical

the realisation in speech of the potential connections of a word with other words.

Colloquialisms

words that are used in everyday conversational speech both by cultivated and uneducated people of all age groups.

Combinability

the ability of linguistic elements to combine in speech.

Componential analysis

a method of linguistic investigation of the meaning of words in terms of a universal inventory of semantic components and their possible combinations.

Composition

the way of word-building, in which a word is formed by joining two or more stems.

Compounds

words consisting of at least two stems which occur in the language as free forms. In a compound word the immediate constituents obtain integrity and structural cohesion that make them function in a sentence as a separate lexical unit.

Ex.: *bestseller; snow-white.*

Connotative meaning

a part of the lexical meaning of a word expressing the speaker's attitude to the social circumstances and the appropriate functional style, his approval or disapproval of the object spoken of, about the speaker's emotions, etc. Connotative meanings are optional.

Contextual analysis

a method of linguistic research concentrated its attention on determining the minimal stretch of speech and the conditions necessary and sufficient to reveal in which of its individual meanings the word in question is used.

Conversion

the process of coining a new word in a different part of speech but without adding any derivative element, so that the basic form of the original and the basic form of the derived words are homonymous.

Conversives

words which denote one and the same referent or situation as viewed from different points of view, with the reversal of the order of participants and their roles.

Ex.: *buy – sell; parent – child; left – right.*

Cunt

a secret lingo of the underworld – of thieves and robbers.

Degradation of meaning

see **Pejoration**

Denotative meaning

the part of the lexical meaning of a word expressing its conceptual content. Fulfilling the significative and the communicative function of the word it is present in every word.

Derivation

the process of coining a new word by adding an affix or several affixes to some root morpheme.

Derivational affixes

serve to supply the stem with components of lexical and lexico-grammatical meaning, and thus form different words.

Derivatives

words which consist of a root morpheme and an affix or several affixes.

Dialect

a variety of a language which prevails in a district, with local peculiarities of vocabulary, pronunciation and phrase.

Distribution

the position which lexical units may occupy in the text or in the flow of speech.

Doublets, etymological

words originating from the same etymological source but differing in phonemic shape and in meaning.

Ex.: *canal* (Lat.) *– channel* (Fr.); *gaol* (Norm. Fr.) *– jail* (Par. Fr.).

Elevation

semantic change depending on the social attitude to the object named, connected with higher evaluation of the object in the social scale.

Equonyms

elements of hypero-hyponymic interrelation which are on the same level of the hierarchy.

Ex.: the words *dog, cat, horse, cow* are equonyms or co-hyponyms of *animal*

Etymology

the branch of linguistics studying the origin of various words, their change and development, the evolution of the vocabulary.

Euphemisms

mild vague or periphrastic expressions which are used to substitute something unpleasant or embarrassing. The use of euphemisms nowadays is dictated by social usage, tact, etiquette, advertising, diplomatic considerations and political propaganda.

Functional affixes

serve to convey grammatical meaning. They build different forms of one and the same word.

Functional approach (to meaning)

one of two schools representing the main lines of contemporary thinking on the problem of meaning, which studies the functions of a word in speech and is less concerned with what meaning is than how it works.

Functional style

a system of expressive means peculiar to a specific sphere of communication.

Generic terms

words in which abstraction and generalization are so great that they can substitute any word of their class.

Ex.: *matter, group, person.*

Generalization (Widening of meaning)

the type of semantic change when the scope of the new notion is wider than that of the original one.

Grammatical meaning

an expression in speech of relationships between words based on contrastive features of arrangements in which they occur. Grammatical meaning unites words into big groups such as parts of speech or lexico-grammatical classes.

Ex.: *Father* is a personal noun.

Historism

words that name the things no longer used. They are names of social relations, institutions and objects of material culture of the past.

Ex.: *knight, sword, phaeton, galleon.*

Homographs

words different in sound and in meaning but accidentally identical in spelling.

Ex.: *bow* [bou] – *bow* [bau]; *wind* [wind] – *wind* [waind].

Homonyms

two or more words identical in sound and spelling but different in meaning, distribution and (in many cases) origin.

Homophones

words of the same sound but of different spelling and meaning.

Ex.: *air – heir; rain – reign; write – right.*

Hyperonym

an element of the lexical system denoting some generic notion.

Ex.: the word *animal* is the heteronym of *dog, cat, horse, cow.*

Hyponym

an element of the lexical system denoting some specific notion.

Ex.: the words *dog, cat, horse, cow* are hyponyms of the hyperonym *animal.*

Idioms

see **Phraseological units**

International words

words of identical origin that occur in several languages as a result of simultaneous or successive borrowings from one ultimate source.

Ex.: *opera, antenna, tennis, jazz.*

Jargon words

non-terminological, unofficial substitutes for professional terms (especially when used outside the professional sphere) or official terms misused deliberately to express disrespect.

Ex.: *sewing machine* (for *machine-gun*); *big gun* (for *an important person*).

Lexeme

a word in all its meanings and forms, i.e. a word as a structural element of language.

Lexical variants

examples of free variation in language which concern morphological, phonological features or spelling in so far as they are not conditioned by contextual environment but are optional with the individual speaker. Lexical variants are different from synonyms, because they are characterized by similarity in phonetical or spelling form and identity of both in meaning and distribution.

Ex.: directly [di'rektli] / [dai'rektli]; whisky / whiskey

Lexical meaning

the realization of concept or emotion by means of a definite language system.

Lexico-grammatical variants (of a word)

the variants of a word characterized by paradigmatic or morphological peculiarities, different valency, different syntactic functions; very often they belong to different lexico-grammatical groups of the same part of speech.

Lexicography

the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries, an important branch of applied linguistics.

Loan words

see **Borrowings**

Metaphor

transfer of name based on the association of similarity and thus actually is a hidden comparison.

Ex.: She is *a real flower.*

Metonymy

transfer of name of one object onto another to which it is related or of which it is a part.

Ex.: *Crown* for "sovereign"; *wealth* for "rich people".

Morpheme

the minimum meaningful language unit. Morphemes occur in speech only as constituent parts of words, not independently, although a word can consist of a single morpheme.

Motivation

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

Native words

words which belong to the original English stock, as known from the earliest available manuscripts of the Old English period.

Neologism

a newly coined word or phrase or a new meaning for an existing word, or a word borrowed from another language.

Nonce word

a word coined for one occasion, a situational neologism.

Notion

the reflection in the mind of real objects and phenomena in their essential features and relations.

Obsolete words

words that no longer in use, especially out of use for at least a century.

Onomasiology

the branch of Linguistics studying means and ways of naming the elements of reality.

Onomatopoeia

the naming of an action or thing by a more or less exact reproduction of a sound associated with it.

Ex.: *splash, giggle, buzz.*

Paradigm

a set of all the different forms of a word.

Paradigmatic relations

based on the interdependence of words within the vocabulary (synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy etc.). On the paradigmatic level , the word is studied in its relationships with other words in the vocabulary system.

Paronyms

words that are kindred in origin, sound form and meaning and therefore liable to be mixed but in fact different in meaning and usage and therefore only mistakenly interchanged.

Ex.: *ingenious* – "clever" / *ingenuous* – "frank"; *affect* – "influence" / *effect* – "to produce".

Pejoration

semantic change depending on the social attitude to the object named, connected with lower evaluation of the object in the social scale.

Phraseology

the branch of Linguistics studying word groups which can be classified as set expressions (phraseological units).

Phraseological unit

a word group consisting of two or more words whose combination is integrated so that it is introduced in speech ready-made as a unit with a specialized meaning of the whole that is not understood as a mere sum total of the meanings of the elements.

Poetic words

mostly archaic or very rarely used highly literary words which aim at producing an elevated effect.

Polysemy

the ability of words to have more than one meaning (plurality of word meanings). It exists only in the language, not in speech.

Polysemantic word

a word which has more than one meaning.

Prefix

a morpheme that precede the root in the structure of the word.

Professionalisms

special words in the non-literary layer used in a definite trade, profession or calling by people connected by common interests both at work and at home. They commonly designate some working process or implement of labour.

Proverb

a short familiar epigrammatic saying expressing popular wisdom, a truth or a moral lesson in a concise and imaginative way.

Quotations, familiar

a short familiar epigrammatic saying that came from literature and by and by became part and parcel of the language.

Reduplication

the process of coining new words by doubling a stem, either without any phonetic changes or with a variation of the root0vowel or consonant.
Ex.: *bye-bye; ping-pong.*

Referent

the part or the aspect of reality to which the linguistic sign refers.

Referential approach (to meaning)

one of two schools representing the main lines of contemporary thinking on the problem of meaning, which formulates the essence of meaning by establishing the interdependence between words and things or concepts they denote.

Rhyme combinations

twin forms consisting of two elements (most of them pseudo-morphemes) which are joined to rhyme.

Ex.: *helter-skelter* – "in disordered haste"; *willy-nilly* – "compulsorily".

Register

a term widely used by English linguists for systematic vocabulary variations according to social context, subject matter and professional activity. It includes the language of science and law, advertising and newspaper reporting, church worship or casual conversation, etc.

Root

the ultimate constituent element of a word which remains after the removal of all functional and derivational affixes and does not admit any further analysis.

Semantic change

the development and change the semantic structure of a word.

Semantic structure (of the word)

consists of the grammatical meaning of a word (noun, verb, etc) and its lexical meaning, which in its turn is subdivided into denotative and connotative meanings.

Semantic structure (of polysemantic words)

all the lexical and lexico-grammatical variants taken together.

Semantic Triangle

the best known referential model of meaning as the interrelation of the three points of the triangle (sound-form, concept, referent) within the framework of the given language.

Semasiology

the branch of Lexicology that is devoted to the study of meaning.

Seme

the smallest semantic component of meaning.

Semi-affixes

the elements of the English vocabulary occurring both as independent nouns and as second elements of compounds.

Ex.: *-man, -like, -worthy, -wise.*

Set expressions

see **Phraseological units**.

Shortening

coining of new words by means of significant subtraction, in which part of the original word or word-group is taken away.

Ex.: *doc* (from *doctor*); *fancy* (from *fantasy*); *Frisco* (from *San Francisco*).

Slang

part of the vocabulary consisting of commonly understood and widely used words and expressions of humorous and derogatory character – intentional substitutes for neutral or elevated words and expressions.

Ex.: *pub, movies, chap, hitch-hiker.*

Sound imitation

see **Onomatopoeia**.

Specialization (Narrowing of meaning)

the type of semantic change when the scope of the new notion is narrower than that of the original one.

Stem

the constituent element of a word which remains after the removal of a functional or a derivational affix. The stem expresses the lexical and part of speech meaning.

Substantivation (of adjectives)

the result of ellipsis (syntactical shortening) when a word combination with a semantically strong attribute loses its semantically weak noun. In

cases of perfect substantivation the attribute takes the paradigm of a countable noun.

Ex.: *a criminal, a musical, a grown-up.*

Suffix

a morpheme that followed the root in the structure of the word.

Synonymic dominant

the most general term in the group of synonyms potentially containing the specific features rendered by all the other members of the group.

Synonyms

two or more words of the same language, belonging to the same part of speech and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical denotative meaning, interchangeable, at least in some contexts, but differing in morphemic composition, phonetic shape, shades of meaning, connotations, style, valency and idiomatic use.

Syntagmatic relations

linear combinatorial relationships with other lexical units that can form its context, serving to identify and distinguish its meaning.

Term

any word or word-group used to name a notion characteristic of some special field of knowledge, industry or culture.

Telescoping

see **Blending.**

Valency, lexical

the aptness of a word to appear in various combinations.

Vulgarisms

words which are considered too offensive for polite usage (expletives, swear words, obscene words).

Word

the smallest significant unit of a given language capable of functioning alone and characterized by positional mobility within a sentence, morphological uninterruptability and semantic integrity.

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