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І ПРИРОДОКОРИСТУВАННЯ УКРАЇНИ**

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**ПРАКТИКУМ ІЗ ЛЕКСИКОЛОГІЇ  
АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ**

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Навчально-методичний посібник складається з декількох частин та додатків. Його мета – допомогти студентам з’ясувати основні питання сучасної лексикології англійської мови як складової частини загального мовознавства, з усіма її особливостями і характеристиками, розглянути головні напрямки і методи дослідження лексики, вивчити лексичні явища у їх морфологічному складі, за значенням, сталими властивостями, лексико-стилістичними ознаками, походженням, діалектними розбіжностями.

Матеріал навчально-методичного посібника може бути корисний для всіх, хто цікавиться сучасною англійською мовою.

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## PREFACE

Significance of the manual lies in the development of communicative and professional competence as one of the key types of implementation of competence approach in general.

This manual is intended for teaching English Lexicology at the Department of Romanic and Germanic Languages and translation.

The purpose of this aid is to help students, as advanced learners of English, to extend their linguistic and professional competence by:

- presenting significant notions of Lexicology as a subject;
- helping students preparing for the seminars;
- providing them with some strategies for learning, theoretical and practical material;
- increasing their motivation towards further education;
- developing critical thinking.

The structure of the manual follows definite procedures: plans, recommended resources, objectives and strategies for learning, a concise guide, and points for discussions. The material of the seminars is accompanied with sample assignments for practice and a number of schemes, tables. The aim of the course is to teach students to be word-conscious, to be able to guess the meaning of words they come across from the meanings of morphemes, to be able to recognize the origin of lexical units.

Tests for self-control are suggested at the end of the thematic seminars. It helps to brush up students' theoretical background of the discipline and develop practical skills.

At the end of the aid a conclusion, sample themes for course papers are suggested.

## Seminar 1 LEXICOLOGY AS A SCIENCE

What's in a name? that which we call a rose  
By any other name would smell as sweet...  
(W. Shakespeare. *Romeo and Juliet*, Act II, Sc. 2)

### Plan

1. What is lexicology?
2. What is a word?
3. The word as a linguistic phenomenon:  
What we know and don't know about its nature
4. The modern approach to word studies/external and internal structures of the word
5. Morphemes
6. The main lexicological problems

### References:

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. Лексикология английского языка: [уч. пособие для пед.вузов] / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. – 8-е изд., стереотип. – М.: Дрофа, 2008. – 288 с.
2. Арнольд И. В. The English Word. Лексикология современного английского языка : [учеб. для ин-тов и фак. иностр. яз.] / И. В. Арнольд. – 3-е изд., перераб. и доп. – М. : Высш. шк., 1986. – 295 с.
3. Верба Л.Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов/ Л.Г.Верба. Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. –160 с.
4. Дубенец Э. М. Лексикология современного английского языка: лекции и семинары. Пособие для студентов гуманитарных вузов/ Э. М. Дубенец. – М.: «Глосса-Пресс», 2002. – 192 с.

**Objectives:** The students will be able to

- Give definitions for main terms.
- Compare external and internal structures of the word.
- Make comments on the main lexicological problems.
- Discuss points of the theme.
- Do multiple-choice test 1: Lexicology as a science.

### Strategies for learning:

- Focus your attention on the procedures of the plan.
- List a number of key terms by memory.
- List the most complicated questions.
- Review the notes of the lecture, follow the concise guide.
- Give an explanation for main terms in your own words.
- Design a diagramme for the main lexicological problems.
- Answer the points for a discussion.
- Do test 1. Use all available resources.
- Develop your own multiple-choice test.
- Prepare questions for a lecturer to be answered and discussed.

### Outline

**Lexicology**, a branch of linguistics, is the study of words.

The term «**lexicology**» is of Greek origin / from «lexis» - «word» and «logos» - «science»/. The term «**vocabulary**» is used to denote the system of words and word-groups that the language possesses. The term «**word**» denotes **the main lexical unit** of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning. The term «**word-group**» denotes a group of words which exists in the language as a ready-made unit, has the unity of meaning, the unity of syntactical function.

**Lexicology** can study **the development of the vocabulary**, the **origin** of words and word-groups, their **semantic relations** and the development of their sound form and meaning. In this case it is called **historical lexicology**. Another branch of lexicology is called **descriptive** and studies the vocabulary at a definite stage of its development. By the *vocabulary* of a language is understood the total sum of its words. Another term for the same is the *stock of words*.

### The word as a linguistic phenomenon: What we know and don't know about its nature

Table 1.

What we don't know or know a little about a word	What we know about a word
We do not know much about the origin of language and, consequently, of the origin of words	the word as a linguistic phenomenon
about the mechanism by which a speaker's mental process is converted	each word is a small unit within a vast, efficient and perfectly balanced system

into sound groups called "words"	
reverse process whereby a listener's brain converts the acoustic phenomena into concepts and ideas	a unit of communication
the nature of relations between the word and the referent (i. e. object, phenomenon, quality, action, etc. denoted by the word)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• the total of the sounds which comprise it.</li> <li>• possesses several characteristics</li> </ul>

The modern approach to word studies is based on distinguishing between the **external** and the **internal** structures of the word.

By **external structure** of the word we mean its **morphological structure**. For example, in the *word post-impressionists* the following morphemes can be distinguished: the prefixes *post-*, *im-*, the root *press*, the noun-forming suffixes *-ion*, *-ist*, and the grammatical suffix of plurality *-s*. All these morphemes constitute the external structure of the word *post-impressionists*.

The **internal structure** of the word, or its **meaning**, is nowadays commonly referred to as the word's *semantic structure*.

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

A word can be divided into smaller sense units - morphemes.

The **morpheme** is the smallest meaningful language unit.

The morpheme consists of a class of variants, **allomorphs**, which are either phonologically or morphologically conditioned, e.g. please, pleasant, pleasure.

Morphemes are divided into two large groups:

**lexical** morphemes and **grammatical** (functional) morphemes.

Both lexical and grammatical morphemes can be **free** and **bound**. Free lexical morphemes are roots of words which express the lexical meaning of the word, they coincide with the stem of simple words. Free grammatical morphemes are function words: articles, conjunctions and prepositions ( the, with, and).

Bound lexical morphemes are affixes: prefixes (dis-), suffixes (-ish) and also blocked (unique) root morphemes (e.g. Fri-day, cran-berry). Bound grammatical morphemes are inflexions (endings), e.g. -s for the Plural of nouns, -ed for the Past Indefinite of regular verbs, -ing for the Present Participle, -er for the Comparative degree of adjectives.

## The main lexicological problems:

Phraseology

Vocabulary of a language as a system

Word-building

Word-meaning

### We distinguish 2 different levels of study:

Syntagmatic and paradigmatic

**Syntagmatic deals** with typical contexts (linear relationships with neighbouring words)

**Paradigmatic level** deals with relationships with other words in the vocabulary system.

**Main problems** of paradigmatic level are synonymy, homonymy, antonymy, functional styles

### Points for discussion

1. In what way can one analyse a word a) socially, b) linguistically?
2. What are the structural aspects of the word?
3. What is the external structure of the word *irresistible*? What is the internal structure of this word?
4. What is understood by formal unity of a word? Why is it not quite correct to say that a word is indivisible?
5. Explain why the word *blackboard* can be considered a unity and why the combination of words *a black board* doesn't possess such a unity.
6. What is understood by the semantic unity of a word? Which of the following possesses semantic unity — *a bluebell* (R. *колокольчик*) or *a blue bell* (R. *синий бубенчик*).
7. Give a brief account of the main characteristics of a word.
8. What are the main problems of lexicology?
9. What are the main differences between studying words syntagmatically and paradigmatically?

### Test 1: Lexicology as a science

1. What is the structure of the word?
  - 1) external and morphological
  - 2) internal and semantic
  - 3) syntagmatic and paradigmatic

- 4) external and internal
- 5) lyrical and internal
2. What doesn't relate to the main lexicological problems?
  - 1) phraseology
  - 2) form-building
  - 3) word-building
  - 4) study of word meaning
  - 5) vocabulary of a language as a system
3. What are the levels of study of the main lexicological problems?
  - 1) internal; external
  - 2) semantic; formal
  - 3) phonetic, grammatical, morphological
  - 4) syntagmatic, paradigmatic
  - 5) formal; informal
4. What branch of lexicology is specializing in word-groups which are characterized by stability of structure and transferred meaning?
  - 1) semantics
  - 2) phraseology
  - 3) morphology
  - 4) phonetics
  - 5) the study of dialects
5. How do we call a branch of linguistics which deals with the study of words?
  - 1) phonetics
  - 2) lexicology
  - 3) grammar
  - 4) vocabulary
  - 5) syntax
6. What do we mean by external structure of the word?
  - 1) its syntactical structure
  - 2) its grammatical structure
  - 3) its morphological structure
  - 4) its phonetic structure
  - 5) its semantic structure
7. How many morphemes does the external structure of the word '*post-impressionists*' constitute?
  - 1) 6
  - 2) 7
  - 3) 8
  - 4) 5

5) 2

8. What are the structural aspects of the word?
  - 1) the external and the internal structures
  - 2) the morphological and the syntactical structures
  - 3) the phonological and the morphological structures
  - 4) the syntactical and the phonological structures
  - 5) the semantic and the syntactic structure
9. What is nowadays commonly referred to as the word's *semantic structure*?
  - 1) the external structure of the word
  - 2) the syntactical structure of the word
  - 3) the grammatical structure of the word
  - 4) the morphological structure of the word
  - 5) the internal structure of the word
10. How do we call the area of lexicology specializing in the semantic studies of the word?
  - 1) seismology
  - 2) semantics
  - 3) sema-linguistics
  - 4) morphology
  - 5) there is no special area

**Seminar 2**  
**(Part 1)**  
**FUNCTIONAL STYLES**  
**INFORMAL WORDS**

Plan

1. Functional styles
2. Informal words
- I Colloquial words
- A. literary,
- B. familiar,
- C. low.
- II. Slang words
- III. Dialect words

**References:**

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. Лексикология английского языка: [уч. пособие для пед.вузов] / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. – 8-е изд., стереотип. – М.: Дрофа, 2008. – 288 с.

**Objectives:** The students will be able to

- Give definitions for main terms.
- Compare informal, slang, dialect words.
- Make comments on the main problems of the functional styles.
- Discuss points of the theme.
- Do multiple-choice test 2 (part 1): Functional styles. Informal words.

**Strategies for learning:**

- Focus your attention on the procedures of the plan.
- List a number of key terms by memory.
- List the most complicated and controversial questions.
- Review the notes of the lecture, follow the concise guide.
- Give an explanation for main terms in your own words.
- Design a Venn diagramme for overlapping layers of the informal style.
- Answer the points for a discussion.
- Do test 2 (part 1). Use all available resources.
- Develop your own multiple-choice (open) test.
- Prepare questions for a lecturer and your group mates to be answered and discussed.

## Outline

I. V. Arnold defines the term *functional style* as "a system of expressive means peculiar to a specific sphere of communication".

**Informal style** is relaxed, free-and-easy, familiar and unpretentious.

Just as there is formal and informal dress, so there is formal and informal speech. Consequently, the social context in which the communication is taking place determines both the mode of dress and the modes of speech. When placed in different situations, people instinctively choose different kinds of words and structures to express their thoughts.

The suitability or unsuitability of a word for each particular situation depends on its stylistic characteristics or, in other words, on the functional style it represents.

The term *functional style* is generally accepted in modern linguistics. Professor I. V. Arnold defines it as "a system of expressive means peculiar to a specific sphere of communication".

Accordingly, functional styles are roughly classified into two groups: formal (a lecture, a speech in court, an official letter, professional communication) and informal (an informal talk, an intimate letter) with further subdivisions depending on different situations [3].

## Informal Style

Informal words and word-groups are traditionally divided into three types:

- 1) *colloquial*,
- 2) *slang*
- 3) *dialect words and word-groups*

## Colloquial Words

Among other informal words, *colloquialisms* are the least exclusive: they are used by everybody, and their sphere of communication is comparatively wide, at least of *literary colloquial words*. These are informal words that are used in everyday conversational speech both by cultivated and uneducated people of all age groups. It is quite natural that informal words appear in dialogues in which they realistically reflect the speech of modern people:

"You're at *some sort of* technical college?" she said to Leo, not looking at him ...  
"Yes. I hate it though. I'm *not good enough at maths*. There's a *chap* there *just down from* Cambridge who *puts us through* it. I can't *keep up*. Were you good at maths?"

"Not bad. But I imagine school maths are different."

"Well, yes, they are. I can't *cope with this stuff* at all, it's the whole way of thinking that's beyond me... I think I'm going to *chuck it* and take *a job*."

(From *The Time of the Angels* by I. Murdoch)

Examples of literary colloquial words.

*Pal* and *chum* are colloquial equivalents of *friend*; *girl*, when used colloquially, denotes a woman of any age; *bite* and *snack* stand for *meal*; *hi*, *hello* are informal greetings, and *so long* a form of parting; *start*, *go on*, *finish* and *be through* are also literary colloquialisms; *to have a crush on somebody* is a colloquial equivalent of *to be in love*. *A bit (of)* and *a lot (of)* also belong to this group.

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

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

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

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

E. g. *doc* (for *doctor*), *hi* (for *how do you do*), *ta-ta* (for *good-bye*), *goings-on* (for *behaviour*, usually with a negative connotation), *to kid smb.* (for *tease, banter*), *to pick up smb.* (for *make a quick and easy acquaintance*), *go on with you* (for *let me alone*), *shut up* (for *keep silent*), *beat it* (for *go away*).

Low colloquial is defined by G. P. Krapp as uses "characteristic of the speech of persons who may be broadly described as uncultivated".

"colloquial"- *a sign of restricted usage*.

Slang – informal language not used in formal speech or writing and often restricted to a particular social group or profession.

examples: *mug* (for *face*), *saucers*, *blinkers* (for *eyes*), *trap* (for *mouth*, e. g. *Keep your trap shut*), *dogs* (for *feet*), *to leg (it)* (for *to walk*).

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Why do people use slang?

To be picturesque, striking and different from others, to demonstrate one's spiritual independence and daring, to sound "modern" and "up-to-date".

### **Dialect Words**

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

Dialectal peculiarities, especially those of vocabulary, are constantly being incorporated into everyday colloquial speech or slang. From these levels they can be transferred into the common stock.

*Car, trolley, tram* began as dialect words.

1 *tha (thee)* — the objective case of *thou*;

2 *brass* — money;

3 *to lake* — to play;

4 *nivver* — never;

5 *summat* — something;

6 *nowt* — nothing;

7 *baccy* — tobacco;

8 *mich* — much;

9 *mun* — must;

10 *thi-sen (= thy-self)* — yourself;

11 *ay(e)* — yes. (Yorkshire dialect)

### **Points for discussion**

Consider your answers to the following.

- 1 . What determines the choice of stylistically marked words in each particular situation?
2. In what situations are informal words used?
3. What are the main kinds of informal words? Give a brief description of each group.
4. What is the difference between colloquialisms and slang? What are their common features? Illustrate your answer with examples.
5. What are the main features of dialect words?

## Practical assignment

### 1. Define what text is written by using slang.

1. Bob is a calm person. He never loses control of himself; he hardly ever becomes very angry. Needless to say, he is getting older. But he knows how to compensate by relaxing. He raises early, exercises, and goes to bed early. Bob is successful; he reached his life's goal. He is a good guy.

2. Bob is a great guy. He never blows his slack. He hardly ever flies off the handle. Well, of course, he is actually getting on, too. But he always knows how to make up for the-lost time by taking it easy. He gets up early, works out, and turns in early. He knows how to get away with things. Bob's got it made. This is it for him. He is a cool cat.

### 2 Find the words & word combinations which we can refer to the slang. Give the Russian equivalents.

#### Test 2 (Part 1): Functional styles. Informal words

1. The way of speaking a language that is used only in particular area or by a particular group of people is called:

- 1) formal style
- 2) dialect
- 3) slang
- 4) informal style

2. How many groups of informal words are there?

- 1) 2
- 2) 3
- 3) 4
- 4) 5

3. What do we imply by slang words?

- 1) a word which is no longer in use, out of use for at least a century
- 2) a word, current in an earlier time, but rare in present usage
- 3) a word, denoting an object or phenomenon, which is a thing of the past and no longer exist
- 4) there are no right variants mentioned

4. What words are dialect words?

- 1) colour, table
- 2) phoneme, allophone
- 3) language, book
- 4) a variety of a language which prevails in a district

5. Find the word of informal style.

- 1) to begin
- 2) a kid
- 3) continue
- 4) to commence

**Seminar 2**  
**(Part 2)**  
**FUNCTIONAL STYLES**  
**FORMAL WORDS**

Plan

- Formal words
- I. Learned words
- literary,
  - words of scientific prose,
  - officialese,
  - modes of poetic diction.
- II. Archaic and obsolete words.
- III. Professional terminology.
- Basic vocabulary

**References:**

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. Лексикология английского языка: [уч. пособие для пед.вузов] / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. – 8-е изд., стереотип. – М.: Дрофа, 2008. – 288 с.

**Objectives:** The students will be able to

- Give definitions for main terms.
- Compare formal and informal words.
- Compare learned, archaic and obsolete words, words of professional terminology.
- Make comments on the main problems of the functional styles.
- Discuss points of the theme.
- Do multiple-choice test 2 (part 2): Functional styles. Formal words.

**Strategies for learning:**

- Focus your attention on the procedures of the plan.
- List a number of key terms by memory.
- List the most complicated and controversial questions.
- Review the notes of the lecture, follow the concise guide.
- Give an explanation for main terms in your own words.
- Organize and complete the table for formal words with your own examples.
- Answer the points for a discussion.

- Do test 2 (Part 2). Use all available resources.
  - Develop your own multiple-choice (open) test.
  - Prepare questions for a lecturer and your group mates to be answered and discussed.
  - Use contemporary dictionaries to illustrate your answers with the examples.

### Outline

**Learned words** can be identified by their dry, matter-of-fact flavour.

**Poetic words** have a further characteristic — a lofty, high-flown.

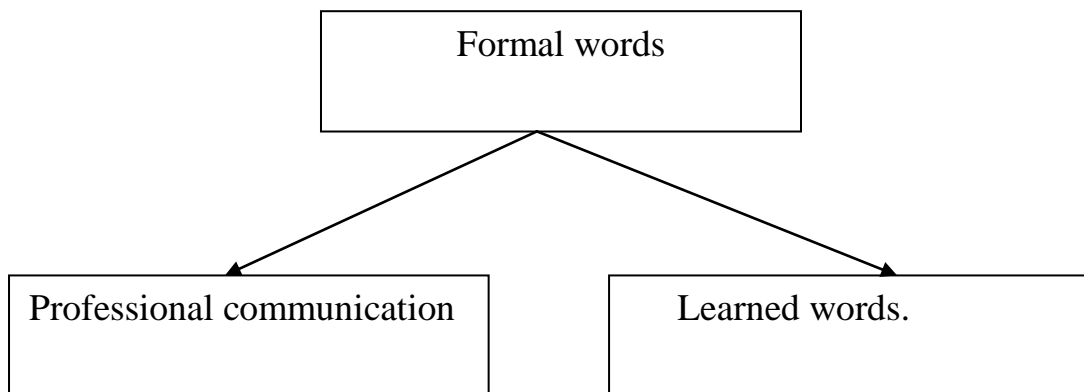
**Archaic words** are no longer in everyday use.

**Historisms** *are* words denoting objects and phenomena which don't exist any more.

**Basic** words are used every day, everywhere and by everybody, regardless of profession, occupation, educational level, age group or geographical location [3].

### Formal Style

In general, formal words fall into two main groups.



### Learned Words

These words are mainly associated with the printed page.

**Formal words:**

**I.Learned words**

- literary,
- words of scientific prose,
- officialese,
- modes of poetic diction.

## **II. Archaic and obsolete words.**

### **III. Professional terminology.**

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

To this group also belongs so-called "officialese" (cf. with the R. *канцеляризм*). These are the words of the official, bureaucratic language

For example: It goes: "*You are authorized to acquire the work in question by purchase through the ordinary trade channels.*" Which, translated into plain English, would simply mean: "*We advise you to buy the book in a shop.*"

"Literary words" are described as "refined". They are mostly polysyllabic words drawn from French. Their very sound seems to create complex and solemn associations. Here are some examples: *solitude, sentiment, fascination, fastidiousness, delusion, meditation, felicity, elusive, cordial, illusionary*.

### **Poetic words**

Poetic words have a further characteristic — a lofty, high-flown, sometimes archaic, colouring:

"*Alas! they had been friends in youth; But whispering tongues can poison truth  
And constancy lives in realms above; And life is thorny; and youth is vain;  
And to be wroth with one we love, Doth work like madness in the brain...*"

(Coleridge)

### **Archaic and Obsolete Words**

These words stand close to the "learned" words, particularly to the modes of poetic diction. Learned words and archaisms are both associated with the printed page. Yet, as we have seen, many learned words may also be used in conversational situations. This cannot happen with archaisms, which are invariably restricted to the printed page.

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These words are moribund, already partly or fully out of circulation, rejected by the living language. Their last refuge is in historical novels (whose authors use them to create a particular period atmosphere) and, of course, in poetry which is rather conservative in its choice of words.

*Thou* and *thy*, *aye* ("yes") and *nay* ("no") are certainly archaic and long since rejected by common usage, yet poets use them even today.

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

There are several such archaisms in Viola's speech from *Twelfth Night*:

"There is a *fair* behaviour in *thee*, Captain, And though that nature with a *beauteous* wall *Doth oft* close in pollution, yet of thee I will believe *thou hast* a mind that suits With this *thy* fair and outward character. I *prithee* — and I'll pay thee *bounteously* — Conceal me what I am, and be my aid For such disguise as *haply* shall become The form of my intent..."

(Act I, Sc. 2)

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

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

The Random House Dictionary defines an obsolete word as one "no longer in use, esp. out of use for at least a century", whereas an archaism is referred to as "current in an earlier time but rare in present usage".

It should be pointed out that the borderline between "obsolete" and "archaic" is vague and uncertain, and in many cases it is difficult to decide to which of the groups this or that word belongs.

There is a further term for words which are no longer in use: *historisms*. By this we mean words denoting objects and phenomena which are, things of the past and no longer exist.

### **Professional Terminology**

Every field of modern activity has its specialised vocabulary. There is a special medical vocabulary, and similarly special terminologies for psychology, botany, music, linguistics, teaching methods and many others.

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

So, *bilingual*, *interdental*, *labialization*, *palatalization*, *glottal stop*, *descending scale* are terms of theoretical phonetics.

Two other controversial problems of professional terminology deal with *polysemy* and *synonymy*.

According to some linguists, an "ideal" term should be *monosemantic* (i. e. it should have only one meaning).

*Polysemantic* terms may lead to misunderstanding, and that is a serious shortcoming in professional communication.

There are, in actual fact, numerous polysemantic terms. The linguistic term *semantics* may mean both the meaning of a word and the branch of lexicology studying meanings. In the terminology of painting, the term *colour* may denote *hue* ("цвет") and, at the same time, *stuff used for colouring* ("краска").

### Basic Vocabulary

These words are stylistically neutral, and, in this respect, opposed to formal and informal words. Their stylistic neutrality makes it possible to use them in all kinds of situations, both formal and informal, in verbal and written communication.

These words are used every day, everywhere and by everybody, regardless of profession, occupation, educational level, age group or geographical location. These are words without which no human communication would be possible as they denote objects and phenomena of everyday importance (e. g. *house, bread, summer, winter, child, mother, green, difficult, to go, to stand*, etc.).

The basic vocabulary is the central group of the vocabulary, its historical foundation and living core.

The basic vocabulary and the stylistically marked strata of the vocabulary do not exist independently but are closely interrelated. Most stylistically marked words have their neutral counterparts in the basic vocabulary. (Terms are an exception in this respect.)

**The table gives some examples of such synonyms belonging to different stylistic strata**

**Table 2**

Basic vocabulary	Informal	Formal
<i>Begin</i>	<i>start, get started</i>	<i>commence</i>
<i>continue</i>	<i>go on, get on</i>	<i>proceed</i>
<i>end</i>	<i>finish, be through, be over</i>	<i>terminate</i>
<i>child, baby</i>	<i>kid, brat, beam</i>	<i>infant, babe</i>

### Stylistically-neutral words and Stylistically-marked words

**Table 3**

Stylistically-neutral words	Stylistically-marked words	
	Informal	Formal

Basic vocabulary	I Colloquial words A. literary, B. familiar, C. low. II. Slang words. III. Dialect words.	1. Learned words A. literary, B. words of scientific prose, C. officialese, D. modes of poetic diction. II. Archaic and obsolete words. III. Professional terminology.
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### Points for discussion

- 1 . Where are formal words used?
2. Are learned words used only in books? Which type of learned words, do you think, is especially suitable for verbal communication? Which is least suitable and even undesirable?
3. What are the principal characteristics of archaic words?
4. What are the controversial problems connected with professional terminology?
5. Do you think that students of English should learn terms? If so, for which branch or branches of knowledge?
6. What is understood by the basic vocabulary?
7. Which classes of stylistically marked words, in your opinion, should be included in the students' functional and recognition vocabularies in 1) junior and 2) senior school vocabularies?

### Test 2 (Part 2): Functional styles. Formal words

1. How many groups of formal words are there?
  - 1) 2
  - 2) 3
  - 3) 4
  - 4) 5
2. What is a historism?
  - 1) a word which is no longer in use, out of use for at least a century
  - 2) a word, current in an earlier time, but rare in present usage

3) a word, denoting an object or phenomenon, which is a thing of the past and no longer exist

4) there are no right variants mentioned

3. What words are terms?

1) colour, table

2) phoneme, allophone

3) language, book

4) leg, boots

4. Find the word of formal style.

1) to begin

2) a baby

3) dad

4) to commence

5. What do we call the stylistically neutral words?

1) formal words

2) basic vocabulary

3) historisms

4) colloquial words

6. Which words stand close to the 'learned' words, particularly to the modes of poetic diction?

1) officialese and literary

2) formal and informal

3) archaic and obsolete words

4) archaic and literary

5) officialese and obsolete words

7. ... is a word or a word group which is specifically employed by a particular branch of science, technology and so on.

1) term

2) name

3) code

4) nick-name

5) password

8. Choose the 'archaic' words:

- 1) labialization, unit
- 2) to treat, to stroll
- 3) floats, spots
- 4) thou, aye, nay
- 5) homer, inning

9. Choose unsuitable word:

- 1) plot
- 2) air-speed indicator
- 3) forward speed
- 4) the autopilot
- 5) control column

10. The central group of the vocabulary is ...

- 1) professional terminology
- 2) archaic and obsolete words
- 3) learned words
- 4) literary words
- 5) basic vocabulary

11. Choose the words of the basic vocabulary

- 1) mother, house, winter
- 2) palatalization, labialization
- 3) thy, thou hast, thee
- 4) assist, approximately, proceed
- 5) cordial, illusionary, felicity

12. What words stand close to the 'learned words'?

- 1) archaic
- 2) obsolete
- 3) archaic and obsolete
- 4) professional
- 5) officialese

13. The words *aye* (yes) and *nay* (no) are ...

- 1) archaic
- 2) professional
- 3) officialize
- 4) learned

5) formal

14. How we call the words denoting objects and phenomena which are things of the past and no longer exist?

- 1) learned
- 2) officialese
- 3) professional
- 4) historisms
- 5) formal

15. ... is a word or a word-group, which is specifically employed by a particular branch of science, technology, trade or the arts to convey a notion peculiar to this particular activity.

- 1) term
- 2) synonymy
- 3) polysemy
- 4) historisms
- 5) obsolete

16. With what sphere are these words associated? (unit доза лекарственного препарата, theatre – операционная, contact – носитель информации)

- 1) theatre sphere
- 2) medical sphere
- 3) computer sphere
- 4) teaching sphere
- 5) communication sphere

## Seminar 3

### ETYMOLOGY OF ENGLISH WORDS

#### Plan

1. Survey of certain historical events
  - 1st century B.C.
  - 5th c. A.D.
  - the end of 8th c. to the middle of 11th c.
  - the epoch of the Norman Conquest
  - the Renaissance period (14-16c.)
2. Certain structural features
3. Etymological structure of English vocabulary
4. Reasons of borrowing
5. Adjustment of borrowings into the 3 main areas of the new language system: phonetic, grammatical, semantic
6. International words
- 7 Etymological Doublets
8. Translation- Loans

#### References:

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. Лексикология английского языка: [уч. пособие для пед.вузов] / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. – 8-е изд., стереотип. – М.: Дрофа, 2008. – 288 с.

**Objectives:** The students will be able to

- Characterize the main historical events which influenced the development of English.
- Characterize the adjustment of borrowings into the 3 main areas.
- Give definitions for main terms.
- Compare international words, etymological doublets, translation-loans.
- Make comments on etymological structure of English vocabulary.
- Discuss points of the theme.
- Do multiple-choice test 3: Etymology of English words.

**Strategies for learning:**

- Focus your attention on the procedures of the plan.
- List a number of historical events which influenced the development of English.
- List the most complicated and controversial questions.
- Review the notes of the lecture, follow the concise guide.


- Give an explanation for main terms in your own words.
- Organize and complete the table for etymological structure of English vocabulary with your own examples.
- Answer the points for a discussion.
- Do test 3. Use all available resources.
- Develop your own multiple-choice (open) test.
- Prepare questions for a lecturer and your group mates to be answered.

### Outline

#### The earliest group of borrowings

Table 4

PERIOD	HISTORICAL EVENTS	ENRICHMENT OF VOCABULARY
The 1st c. B.C.	<p>From the Romans they learn how to make cheese and butter, some knowledge of fruits and vegetables.</p> <p>The Germanic people gain knowledge of new and useful things (before they knew meat and milk).</p> <p>After a number of wars the Germanic tribes and Romans come into peaceful contact</p> <p style="text-align: center;">↑</p> <p>They are occupied by the Roman Empire.</p> <p>Germanic tribes inhabit Europe. They are primitive cattle-breeders, know nothing about land cultivation.</p>	<p>cup, kitchen, mill, port, wine (from Latin).</p> <p>Plant (planta)</p> <p>Pepper (piper)</p> <p>Beet (bēta)</p> <p>Pea (pisum)</p> <p>Plum (prunus)</p> <p>Pear (pirum)</p> <p>Cherry (cesarum)</p> <p>Cheese (cāseus)</p> <p>Butter (būtyrum)</p> <p>Tribal languages contain only Indo-European and Germanic elements.</p> <p>Germanic tribes inhabit Europe. They are primitive cattle-breeders, know nothing about land cultivation.</p>

	 They are occupied by the Roman Empire.	
The fifth century A. D.	Several of the Germanic tribes migrated across the English Channel to the British Isles. Through their numerous contacts with the defeated Celts, the conquerors got to know and assimilated a number of Celtic words	(Mod. E. bald, down, glen, druid, bard, cradle). Especially numerous among the Celtic borrowings were place names, names of rivers, hills, etc. The Germanic tribes occupied the land, but the names of many parts and features of their territory remained Celtic. The names of the rivers Avon, Exe, Esk, Usk, Ux originate from Celtic words meaning "river" and "water". Ironically, even the name of the English capital originates from Celtic Llyn + dun in which llyn is another Celtic word for "river" and dun stands for "a fortified hill", the meaning of the whole being "fortress on the hill over the river".
The seventh century A. D.	Latin was the official language of the Christian church, and consequently the spread of Christianity was accompanied by a new period of Latin borrowings.	Latin borrowings mostly indicated persons, objects and ideas associated with church and religious rituals. E. g. priest

		<p>(Lai. presbyter), bishop (Lai. episcopus), monk (Lat. monachus), nun (Lai. nonna), candle (Lai. candela).</p> <p>Educational terms.. So, the very word school is a Latin borrowing (Lat. schola, of Greek origin) and so are such words as scholar (Lai. scholar(-is) and magister (Lat. magister).</p>
<p>From the end of the 8th c. to the middle of the 11th c.</p>	<p>England underwent several Scandinavian invasions</p>	<p>examples of early Scandinavian borrowings: call, v., take, v., cast, v., die, v., law, n., husband, n. (&lt; Sc. hus + bondi, i. e. "inhabitant of the house"), window n. (&lt; Sc. vindauga, i. e. "the eye of the wind"), ill, adj., loose, adj., low, adj., weak, adj.</p> <p>The initial sk- combination. E. g. sky, skill, skin, ski, skirt.</p> <p>Certain English words changed their meanings under the influence of Scandinavian words of the same root. So, the O. E. bread which meant "piece" acquired its modern meaning by association with the Scandinavian brand. The O. E. dream which meant</p>

		"joy" assimilated the meaning of the Scandinavian draumr(cf. with the Germ. Traum "dream" and the R. дрѣма).
1066	We come to the eventful epoch of the Norman Conquest. England became a bi-lingual country, and the impact on the English vocabulary made over this two-hundred-years period is immense:	<p>French words from the Norman dialect penetrated every aspect of social life. Examples of Norman French borrowings.</p> <p>Administrative words: state, government, parliament, council, power.</p> <p>Legal terms: court, judge, justice, crime, prison.</p> <p>Military terms: army, war, soldier, officer, battle, enemy.</p> <p>Educational terms: pupil, lesson, library, science, pen, pencil.</p> <p>Numerous terms of everyday life were also borrowed from French in this period: e. g. table, plate, saucer, dinner, supper, river, autumn, uncle, etc.</p>

The Renaissance Period.	In England, as in all European countries, this period was marked by significant developments in science, art and culture and, also, by a revival of interest in the ancient civilizations of Greece and Rome and their languages.	A considerable number of Latin and Greek borrowings. In contrast to the earliest Latin borrowings (1st c. B. C.), the Renaissance ones were rarely concrete names. They were mostly abstract words (e. g. major, minor, filial, moderate, intelligent, permanent, to elect, to create). There were naturally numerous scientific and artistic terms (datum, status, phenomenon, philosophy, method, music). The same is true of Greek Renaissance borrowings (e. g. atom, cycle, ethics, esthete).
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**Etymological structure of English vocabulary      Table 5**

The native element	definition	examples
Indo-European element	words of roots common to all or most	<p>I. Family relations: <i>father, mother, brother, son, daughter.</i></p> <p>II. Parts of the human body: <i>foot</i> (cf. R. <i>нога</i>), <i>nose, lip, heart.</i></p> <p>III. Animals: <i>cow, swine, goose.</i></p> <p>IV. Plants: <i>tree, birch</i> (cf. R. <i>береза</i>), <i>corn</i> (cf.</p>

		<p>R. <i>зерно</i>).</p> <p>V. Time of day: <i>day</i>, <i>night</i>. VI. Heavenly bodies: <i>sun</i>, <i>moon</i>, <i>star</i>. VII. Numerous adjectives: <i>red</i> (cf. Ukr. <i>рудий</i>, R. <i>рыжий</i>), <i>new</i>, <i>glad</i> (cf. R. <i>гладкий</i>), <i>sad</i> (cf. R. <i>сыт</i>).</p> <p>VIII. The numerals from one to a hundred.</p> <p>IX. Pronouns — personal (except <i>they</i> which is a Scandinavian borrowing); demonstrative.</p> <p>X. Numerous verbs: <i>be</i> (cf. R. <i>быть</i>), <i>stand</i> (cf. R. <i>стоять</i>), <i>sit</i> (cf. R. <i>сидеть</i>), <i>eat</i> (cf. R. <i>есть</i>), <i>know</i> (cf. R. <i>знать, знаю</i>).</p>
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<p>II. Germanic element</p>	<p>words of roots common to all or most Germanic languages.(German, Norwegian, Dutch, Icelandic)</p>	<p>Some of the main groups of Germanic words are the same as in the Indo-European element.</p> <p>I. Parts of the human body: <i>head, hand, arm, finger, bone.</i></p> <p>II. Animals: <i>bear, fox, calf.</i></p> <p>III. Plants: <i>oak, fir, grass.</i></p> <p>IV. Natural phenomena: <i>rain, frost.</i></p> <p>V. Seasons of the year: <i>winter, spring, summer.</i></p> <p>VI. Landscape features: <i>sea, land.</i> VII. Human dwellings and furniture: <i>house, room,,bench.</i></p> <p>VIII. Sea-going vessels: <i>boat, ship.</i> IX. Adjectives: <i>green, blue, grey, white, small, thick, high, old, good.</i></p> <p>X. Verbs: <i>see, hear, speak, tell, say, answer, make, give,</i></p>
<p>English Proper element (no earlier than 5th c. A. D.)</p>	<p>they are specifically English having no cognates<sup>2</sup> in other languages</p>	<p>These words stand quite alone in the vocabulary system of Indo-European languages: <i>bird, boy, girl, lord, lady, woman, daisy, always.</i></p>

**Table 6**

**The borrowed element**

The borrowed element	examples
<p>I. Celtic (5th — 6th c. A. D.)</p> <p>II. Latin 1st group: 1st c. B. C.</p>	<p><i>bald, down, glen, druid, bard, cradle</i></p> <p>cup, kitchen, mill, port, wine (from Latin).</p> <p>Plant (<i>planta</i>)            Pepper (<i>piper</i>)            Beet (<i>bēta</i>)            Pea (<i>pisum</i>)            Plum (<i>prunus</i>)            Pear (<i>pirum</i>)            Cherry (<i>cesarum</i>)            Cheese (<i>cāseus</i>)            Butter (<i>būtyrum</i>)</p>
<p>2nd group: 7th c. A. D.</p> <p>3rd group: the Renaissance period</p>	<p>Latin borrowings mostly indicated persons, objects and ideas associated with church and religious rituals. E. g. <i>priest (Lai. presbyter), bishop (Lai. episcopus), monk (Lat. monachus), nun (Lai. nonna), candle (Lai. candela).</i></p> <p><i>Educational terms.. So, the very word school is a Latin borrowing (Lat. schola, of Greek origin) and so are such words as scholar (Lai. scholar(-is) and magister (Lat. magister).</i></p> <p>They were mostly abstract words (e. g. <i>major, minor, filial, moderate, intelligent, permanent, to elect, to create</i>). <i>There were naturally numerous scientific and artistic terms (datum, status, phenomenon, philosophy, method, music).</i></p>
<p>III. Scandinavian (8th — 11th c. A. D.)</p>	<p>examples of early Scandinavian borrowings: <i>call, v., take, v., cast, v., die, v., law, n., husband, n.</i> (&lt; Sc. <i>hus + bondi</i>, i. e. "inhabitant of the house"), <i>window n.</i> (&lt; Sc. <i>vindauga</i>, i. e. "the eye of the wind"), <i>ill,</i></p>

<p>IV French 1. Norman borrowings: V. 11th — 13th c. A. D.</p> <p>VI. 2. Parisian borrowings (Renaissance)</p> <p>V. Greek (Renaissance) VI. Italian (Renaissance)</p>	<p>adj., <i>loose</i>, adj., <i>low</i>, adj., <i>weak</i>, adj. The initial <i>sk-</i> combination. E. g. <i>sky</i>, <i>skill</i>, <i>skin</i>, <i>ski</i>, <i>skirt</i>. <i>Certain English words changed their meanings under the influence of Scandinavian words of the same root. So, the O. E. bread which meant "piece" acquired its modern meaning by association with the Scandinavian brand. The O. E. dream which meant "joy" assimilated the meaning of the Scandinavian draumr(cf. with the Germ. Traum "dream" and the R. дpēma).</i></p> <p>French words from the Norman dialect penetrated every aspect of social life. Examples of <i>Norman French borrowings</i>. <i>Administrative words: state, government, parliament, council, power.</i> <i>Legal terms: court, judge, justice, crime, prison.</i> <i>Military terms: army, war, soldier, officer, battle, enemy.</i> <i>Educational terms: pupil, lesson, library, science, pen, pencil.</i> <i>Numerous terms of everyday life were also borrowed from French in this period: e. g. table, plate, saucer, dinner, supper, river, autumn, uncle, etc.</i></p> <p><i>regime, routine, police, machine, ballet, matinee, scene, technique, bourgeois</i></p> <p><i>atom, cycle, ethics, aesthete</i> <i>piano, violin, opera, alarm, colonel.</i></p> <p>Spanish borrowings came into English mainly through its American variant. There are the following semantic groups of them:</p>
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<p>and later) VII. Spanish (Renaissance and later)</p>	<p>a) trade terms: cargo, embargo; b) names of dances and musical instruments: tango, rumba, habanera, guitar; c) names of vegetables and fruit: tomato, potato, tobacco, cocoa, banana, ananas, apricot etc.</p>
<p>VIII. German</p>	<p>There are some 800 words borrowed from German into English. Some of them have classical roots, e.g. in some geological terms, such as: cobalt, bismuth, zink, quarts, gneiss, wolfram. There were also words denoting objects used in everyday life which were borrowed from German: iceberg, lobby, rucksack, Kindergarten etc.</p> <p>In the period of the Second World War the following words were borrowed: Volkssturm, Luftwaffe, SS-man, Bundeswehr, gestapo, gas chamber and many others. After the Second World War the following words were borrowed: Berufsverbot, Volkswagen etc.</p>
<p>IX. Indian X. Russian XI. And some other groups</p>	

**The three stages of gradual phonetic assimilation** of French borrowings can be illustrated by different phonetic variants of the word *garage*:

gə' rɑ:ʒ, > 'gærɑ:ʒ > 'gærɪdʒ (Amer.).

Grammatical adaptation consists in a complete change of the former paradigm of the borrowed word (i. e. system of the grammatical forms peculiar to it as a part of speech). If it is a noun, it is certain to adopt, sooner or later, a new system of declension; if it is a verb, it will be conjugated according to the rules of the recipient language. Yet, this is also a lasting process. It can be said about such English Renaissance borrowings as *datum* (pl. *data*), *phenomenon* (pl. *phenomena*), *criterion* (pl. *criteria*) whereas earlier Latin borrowings such as *cup*, *plum*, *street*, *wall* were fully adapted to the grammatical system of the language long ago.

**By semantic adaptation** is meant adjustment to the system of meanings of the vocabulary. The adjective *large*, for instance, was borrowed from French in the meaning of "wide". It was not actually wanted, because it fully coincided with the English adjective *wide* without adding any new shades or aspects to its meaning.

### International Words

It is often the case that a word is borrowed by several languages, and not just by one. Such words usually convey concepts which are significant in the field of communication.

Many of them are of Latin and Greek origin. Most names of sciences are international, e. g. *philosophy*, *mathematics*, *physics*, *chemistry*, *biology*, *medicine*, *linguistics*, *lexicology*. There are also numerous terms of art in this group: *music*, *theatre*, *drama*, *tragedy*, *comedy*, *artist*, *primadonna*.

It is quite natural that political terms frequently occur in the international group of borrowings: *politics*, *policy*, *revolution*, *progress*, *democracy*, *communism*, *anti-militarism*.

20th c. scientific and technological advances brought a great number of new international words: *atomic*, *antibiotic*, *radio*, *television*, *sputnik*. The latter is a Russian borrowing, and it became an international word (meaning a man-made satellite) in 1961, immediately after the first space flight by Yury Gagarin.

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

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

It is important to note that international words are mainly borrowings. The outward similarity of such words as the E. *son*, the Germ. *Sohn* and the R. *сын*

should not lead one to the quite false conclusion that they are international words. They represent the Indo-European group of the native element in each respective language and are cognates, *i. e.* words of the same etymological root, and not borrowings.

### **Etymological doublets**

Etymological doublets are two different words with different spelling and meanings but etymologically they descend from the same word.

(They may have originally been dialectal variants ).

They may enter the vocabulary by different routes.

Native word	Borrowed word
shirt	skirt ( Scan. )
shrew	screw

Two borrowings from different languages which are historically descended from the same root:

senior (Lat.)	sir (Fr.)
canal (Lat.)	channel (Fr.)
captain (Lat.)	chieftan (Fr.)

Others were borrowed from the same language twice, but in different periods.

corpse (Norm. Fr.)	gaol (Norm. Fr)
corps (Par. Fr)	jail (Par. Fr)
cavalry (Norm. Fr)	travel ( Norm. Fr)
chivalry (Par. Fr)	travail (Par. Fr)

Etymological doublets may consist of a shortened word and the one from which it was derived.

history – story  
fantasy – fancy  
fanatic – fan  
shadow – shade

Etymological triplets. Grammar of three words of common origin.

hospital (Lat.) – hostel(Norm. Fr) -hotel (Par. Fr.)

## Translation-Loans

The term *loan-word* is equivalent to *borrowing*. By translation-loans we indicate borrowings of a special kind. They are not taken into the vocabulary of another language more or less in the same phonemic shape in which they have been functioning in their own language, but undergo the process of translation. It is quite obvious that it is only compound words (i. e. words of two or more stems) which can be subjected to such an operation, each stem being translated separately: *masterpiece* (from Germ. *Meisterstück*), *wonder child* (from Germ. *Wunderkind*), *first dancer* (from Ital. *prima-ballerina*), *collective farm* (from R. *колхоз*), *five-year plan* (from R. *пятилетка*).

The Russian *колхоз* was borrowed twice, by way of translation-loan (*collective farm*) and by way of direct borrowing (*kolkhoz*).

The case is not unique. During the 2nd World War the German word *Blitzkrieg* was also borrowed into English in two different forms: the translation-loan *lightning-war* and the direct borrowings *blitzkrieg* and *blitz*.

## Points for discussion

1. How can you account for the fact that English vocabulary contains such an immense number of words of foreign origin?
2. What is the earliest group of English borrowings? Date it.
3. What Celtic borrowings are there in English? Date them.
4. Which words were introduced into English vocabulary during the period of Christianization?
5. What are the characteristic features of Scandinavian borrowings?
6. When and under what circumstances did England become a bi-lingual country? What imprint features were left in English vocabulary by this period?
7. What are the characteristic features of words borrowed into English during the Renaissance?
8. What suffixes and prefixes can help you to recognize words of Latin and French origin?
9. What is meant by the native element of English vocabulary?
10. Which conditions stimulate the borrowing process?
11. Why are words borrowed?
12. What stages of assimilation do borrowings go through?
13. In what spheres of communication do international words frequently occur?
14. What do we understand by etymological doublets?
15. What are the characteristic features of translation-loans?

16. How are the etymological and stylistic characteristics of words interrelated?

### Practical assignments

#### I. Subdivide all the following words of native origin into:

a) Indo-European, b) Germanic, c) English proper.

Daughter, woman, room, land, cow, moon, sea, red, spring, three, I, lady, always, goose, bear, fox, lord, tree, nose, birch, grey, old, glad, daisy, heart, hand, night, to eat, to see, to make.

#### II. Read the following jokes. Explain the etymology of the italicized words. If necessary consult a dictionary.

1. He dropped around to the *girl's house* and as he ran up the steps he was confronted by her *little brother*.

"Hi, Billy."

"Hi," said the brat.

"Is your *sister* expecting me?"

"Yeah."

"How do you know that?"

"She's gone out."

2. A *man* was at a theatre. He was sitting behind *two women* whose continuous chatter became more than he could bear. Leaning forward, he tapped *one* of them on the *shoulder*. "Pardon me, madam," he said, "but I can't *hear*." "You are not supposed to — this is a private conversation," she hit back.

3. Sonny: *Father*, what *do* they *make* asphalt roads of?

Father: That makes a *thousand* question you've asked today. Do give me a *little* peace. What do you *think* would happen if I had asked my father so *many* questions?

Sonny: You might have learnt how to answer some of mine.

#### III. Explain the etymology of the following words. Write them out in three columns: a) fully assimilated words; b) partially assimilated words; c) unassimilated words. Explain the reasons for your choice in each case.

Pen, hors d'oeuvre, ballet, beet, butter, skin, take, cup, police, distance, monk, garage, phenomenon, wine, large, justice, lesson, nice, coup d'état, autumn

### Test 3: Etymology of English words

1. The term 'source of borrowings' should be distinguished from the term:
  - 1) 'history of English'
  - 2) 'origin of borrowings'
  - 3) 'history of the language'
  - 4) 'origin of synonyms'
  - 5) 'history of antonyms'
2. Examples of which borrowings are: *-cest – chest*
  - 1) Latin
  - 2) French
  - 3) Morphemic
  - 4) Italian
  - 5) Russian
3. Native words are subdivided into:
  - 1) Dutch and Common Germanic
  - 2) Indo-European, Germanic, English Proper element
  - 3) German and Norwegian
  - 4) Icelandic and Norwegian
  - 5) Russian and Dutch
4. More than ...of the English vocabulary are borrowings.
  - 1) 2/3
  - 2) 1/3
  - 3) 3/4
  - 4) 1/2
  - 5) 5/6
5. Of what origin are the most of the borrowings?
  - 1) Italian
  - 2) Spanish
  - 3) Dutch
  - 4) Romantic
  - 5) French
6. According to the borrowing aspect borrowings are....
  - 1) completely assimilated, partly assimilated, non-assimilated
  - 2) phonetic, translation loans, semantic borrowings, morphemic borrowings
  - 3) etymological doublets, semantic borrowings
  - 4) partly assimilated, phonetic, translation loans

**Seminar 4**  
**(Part1)**  
**WORD-BUILDING**  
**MAIN WAYS OF WORD-BUILDING**

**Plan**

1. Word-building is one of the main ways of enriching vocabulary
2. Main ways of word-building
  - 2.1. Affixation
    - 2.1.1. Suffixation
    - 2.1.2. Prefixation
  - 2.2. Composition
    - 2.2.1. Ways of forming compound words
    - 2.2.2. Classification of English compounds
    - 2.2.3. Conversion
    - 2.2.4. Abbreviation

**References:**

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. Лексикология английского языка: [уч. пособие для пед.вузов] / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. – 8-е изд., стереотип. – М.: Дрофа, 2008. – 288 с.
2. Арнольд И. В. The English Word. Лексикология современного английского языка : [учеб. для ин-тов и фак. иностр. яз.] / И. В. Арнольд. – 3-е изд., перераб. и доп. – М. : Высш. шк., 1986. – 295 с.
3. Верба Л.Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов/ Л.Г.Верба. Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. –160 с.
4. Дубенец Э. М. Лексикология современного английского языка: лекции и семинары. Пособие для студентов гуманитарных вузов/ Э. М. Дубенец. – М.: «Глосса-Пресс», 2002. – 192 с.

**Objectives:** The students will be able to

- Characterize the main ways of word-building.
- Classify English compounds.
- Give definitions for main terms.
- Compare different ways of word-building.
- Discuss points of the theme.
- Do multiple-choice test 4 (Part1): Word-building.

### **Strategies for learning:**

- Focus your attention on the procedures of the plan.
- List the most complicated and controversial questions.
- Review the notes of the lecture, follow the concise guide.
- Give an explanation for main terms in your own words.
- Organize and complete the table for main ways of word-formation with your own examples.
- Answer the points for a discussion.
- Do test 4 (Part 1). Use all available resources.
- Develop your own multiple-choice (open) test.
- Prepare questions for a lecturer and your group mates to be answered and discussed.

### **Outline**

By **word-building** are understood processes of producing new words from the resources of this particular language. Together with borrowing, word-building provides for enlarging and enriching the vocabulary of the language.

There are **four main ways of word-building** in modern English: **affixation, composition, conversion, abbreviation.**

There are also **secondary ways of word-building**: sound interchange, stress interchange, sound imitation, blends, back formation.

Affixation is one of the most productive ways of word-building throughout the history of English. It consists in adding an affix to the stem of a definite part of speech. Affixation is divided into suffixation and prefixation.

The main function of suffixes in Modern English is to form one part of speech from another, the secondary function is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech. ( e.g. «translate» is a verb, «translator» is a noun, and «king» is a noun, «kingdom» is also a noun)

Suffixes which can form different parts of speech.

There are different classifications of suffixes:

1. Part-of-speech classification.
2. Semantic classification
3. Lexico-grammatical classification
4. Origin of suffixes.
5. Productivity.
6. Structure

## Prefixation

Prefixation is the formation of words by means of adding a prefix to the stem.

In English it is characteristic for forming verbs. Prefixes are more independent than suffixes. Prefixes can be classified according to the nature of words in which they are used : *prefixes used in notional words* and *prefixes used in functional words*.

Prefixes used in notional words are proper prefixes which are bound morphemes, e.g. un- (unhappy).

Prefixes used in functional words are semi-bound morphemes because they are met in the language as words, e.g. over- (overhead) (cf. over the table ). The main function of prefixes in English is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech.

Classification of prefixes

Prefixes can be classified according to different principles:

1. Semantic classification
2. Origin of prefixes:

## COMPOSITION

Composition is the way of word-building when a word is formed by joining two or more stems to form one word. The structural unity of a compound word depends upon :

the unity of stress,

solid or hyphenated spelling,

semantic unity,

unity of morphological and syntactical functioning.

These are characteristic features of compound words in all languages. For English compounds some of these factors are not very reliable. As a rule English compounds have one uniting stress (usually on the first component), e.g. hard-cover, best-seller.

We can also have a double stress in an English compound, with the main stress on the first component and with a secondary stress on the second component, e.g. blood-vessel.

The third pattern of stresses is two level stresses, e.g. snow-white, sky-blue. The third pattern is easily mixed up with word-groups unless they have solid or hyphenated spelling.

## CLASSIFICATIONS OF ENGLISH COMPOUNDS

1. According to the parts of speech compounds are subdivided into:
  - a) nouns, such as : baby-moon (искусственный спутник Земли),
  - b) adjectives, such as : free-for-all,
  - c) verbs, such as : to honey-moon,

- d) adverbs, such as: backward, headfirst,
  - e) prepositions, such as: into, within,
  - f) numerals, such as : fifty-five.
2. According to the way components are joined:
- a) neutral, which are formed by joining together two stems without any joining morpheme, e.g. ball-point, to window-shop,
  - b) morphological where components are joined by a linking element :vowels «o» or «i» or the consonant «s», e.g. «astrospace», «handicraft», «sportsman»,
  - c) syntactical where the components are joined by means of form-word stems, e.g. here-and-now, free-for-all.
3. According to their structure compounds are subdivided into:
- a) compound words proper which consist of two stems, e.g. to job-hunt, train-sick, go-go, tip-top ,
  - b) derivational compounds, e.g. ear-minded, hydro-skimmer,
  - c) compound words consisting of three or more stems, e.g. cornflower-blue, eggshell-thin, singer-songwriter,
  - d) compound-shortened words, e.g. tourmobile, V-day, Eurodollar,
4. According to the relations between the components compound words are subdivided into:
- a) subordinative
  - b) coordinative
5. According to the order of the components compounds are divided into compounds with direct order, e.g. killjoy, and compounds with indirect order, e.g. nuclear-free, rope-ripe .
6. According to the meaning of the whole compound we can point out idiomatic (a blackboard) and non-idiomatic (a black board).

## **CONVERSION**

Conversion is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. It is also called affixless derivation or zero-suffixation. The term «conversion» first appeared in the book by Henry Sweet «New English Grammar» in 1891.

Conversion consists in making a new word from some existing word by changing the category of a part of speech, the morphemic shape of the original word remaining unchanged.

Conversion is the main way of forming verbs in Modern English.

## Abbreviations of words

**Abbreviation** of words consists in clipping a part of a word.

As a result we get a new lexical unit where either the lexical meaning or the style is different from the full form of the word.

In such cases as «fantasy» and «fancy», «fence» and «defence» we have different lexical meanings.

In such cases as «laboratory» and «lab», we have different styles.

Abbreviation does not change the part-of-speech meaning.

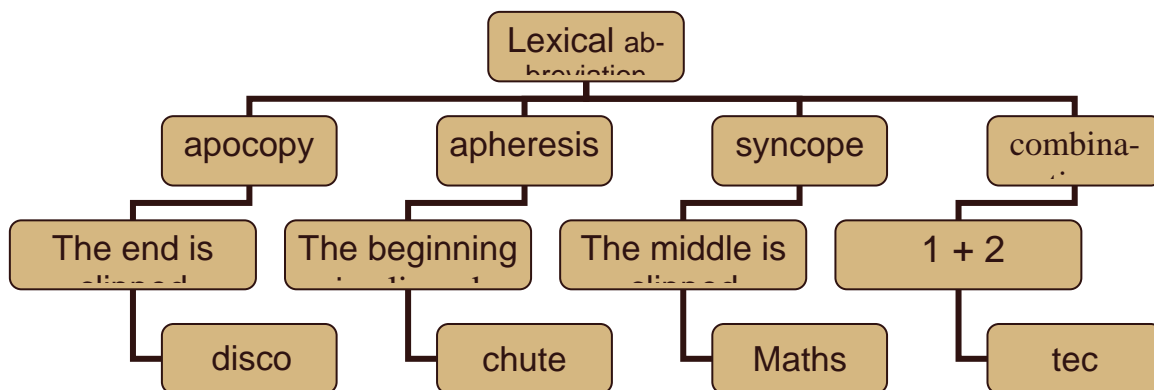
Mostly nouns undergo abbreviation.

Pronouns, numerals, interjections, conjunctions are not abbreviated. The exceptions are: fif (fifteen), teen-ager, in one's teens (apherisis from numerals from 13 to 19).

Adjectives can be abbreviated but they are mostly used in school slang and are combined with suffixation, e.g. comfy, dilly, mizzy etc.

Sometimes shortening influences the spelling of the word, e.g. «c» can be substituted by «k» before «e» to preserve pronunciation, e.g. mike (microphone), Coke (coca-cola) etc.

## Lexical abbreviation



## Points for discussion

1. What are the main ways of enriching the English vocabulary?
2. What are the principal productive ways of word-building in English?
3. Name characteristic features of English compounds.
4. Classify ways of forming compound words.
5. Which category of parts of speech is especially affected by conversion?

6. What do we imply by lexical and graphical abbreviations?

**Practical assignment**

I. Put one word in each box to form three compound nouns.

ache, brush, paste

brush, dresser, cut

mail, port, conditioning

lights, warden, jam

cup, spoon, pot

set, glasses, tan

centre, spree, list

dining, changing, waiting

wrapping, writing, toilet

credit, birthday, business

II. Add the correct prefix to the words in bold from the box

Out-, over-, post-, pre-, pro-

1. Mark... **ran** the other athletes and managed to win the race.
2. More and more people nowadays are buying...**packed** food.
3. Everyone at the conference in London was... **-technology**.
4. The ...-**war** years were very difficult for many people.
5. Margaret had ...**cooked** the meal and the guests couldn't eat it.

III. Add the correct prefix to the words in bold from the box

Re-, semi-, sub-, super-, trans-, under-

1. This airline provides ... **continental** flights at reasonable prices.
2. Toby decided to ...**write** his essay before he handed it in.
3. They arranged the chairs in a ...**circle** for the meeting.
4. The north of the country was hit by ...- **zero** temperatures this week.
5. That dog is very thin – it looks ...**fed**.
6. The man seemed to have... **human** strength.

**Test 4 (Part 1): Word-building**

**1. The main types of shortening are:**

- A) grammatical and lexical;
- B) graphical and grammatical;
- C) morphological and lexical;
- D) lexical and graphical
- E) morphological and graphical

**2. Conversion is the main way of forming**

- A) nouns;
- B) adjectives;

- C) verbs;
- D) adverbs;
- E) pronouns

**3. Choose the productive suffixes:**

- A) –er, -eze, -ness;
- B) –able, -teen;
- C) –tion, -ment, -ism;
- D) –ical, -ation;
- E) –er, -tion, -teen

**4. Decide which group of words belongs to stress interchange:**

- A) bath – to bath;
- B) to conflict – conflict;
- C) to baby – sit – baby-sitter;
- D) hot – to hit;
- E) eye – to eye

**5. Apocopy it is when...**

- A) the end is clipped;
- B) the middle is clipped;
- C) the beginning is clipped;
- D) the ends and beginning are clipped;
- E) the end is added

**6. What parts of speech are not abbreviated?**

- A) pronouns, conjunctions;
- B) nouns, verbs;
- C) verbs, adjectives;
- D) adverbs, nouns
- E) pronouns, nouns

**7. Abbreviation is:**

- A) shortening of words;
- B) borrowings in the English language;
- C) the main way of forming verbs;
- D) shortening of sentences;
- E) shortening of phrases

**8. Choose the words with non-productive suffixes:**

- A) laggard, drunkard, length;
- B) guitarist, baldish;
- C) storiette, seawards, mountaineer;
- D) speaker, taxist;
- E) drunkard, guitarist

**9. Choose the correct variant. *Over* – indicate the crossing of some kind of barrier:**

- A) A detailed list of awards is given overleaf;
- B) Will you be staying overnight?
- C) The film was overrated in my view.
- D) He has a very overbearing personality
- E) It was overdosed.

**10. Suffix – en makes...**

- A) nouns from adjectives;
- B) adjectives from nouns;
- C) verbs from nouns;
- D) nouns from verbs;
- E) verbs from adjectives

**11. The causes of shortening can be:**

- A) linguistic and underlinguistic;
- B) lexical and linguistic;
- C) linguistic and extralinguistic;
- D) lexical and graphical;
- E) graphical and linguistic

**12. The main unit of the lexical system of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning is...**

- A) morpheme;
- B) phoneme;
- C) word;
- D) suffix;
- E) prefix

**13. What is the approximate meaning of the prefixes in the following words: *promote, proliferate, procrastinate, procreate***

- A) adding something to something;
- B) some kind of negative behavior;
- C) indicate an excess of something;
- D) pushing something forward or increasing it;
- E) something below another thing

**14. Think how you can classify these words:**

breathable, unhappy, prestigious, singly, table ward, pre-election, booklet, overhead, gooseling, kitchenette, interplanetary, hypertension, ex-student, reasonably, adaptation, overdrugging, quality, hopelessness, intranet, admission, answerability, terribly, converse, upturn, nonformals, untrue, decolonize, ablaze, invaluable, disconnect.

**15. Classify the following words into three columns (adverbs, adjectives or verbs): *dampen, friendly, dearly, silken, roughen, masterly, kindly, darken.***

**16. Which suffix is polysemantic?**

- A) –er;
- B) -teen;
- C) – gate;
- D) – burger;
- E) –aholic.

17. Word-building is one of the main ways of enriching vocabulary. Four main ways of enriching vocabulary: affixation, composition, conversion, abbreviation.

Classify the words according to the way of word-formation.

To job-hunt, WHO, train-sick, videoplayer, to eye, to slim, to blind, UNESCO, handicraft, IMP, ball-point, OBE, GMT, IOC, astronautics, ironical, length, dancer, smogless, booklet

affixation	composition	conversion	abbreviation

**Seminar 4**  
**(Part 2)**  
**SECONDARY WAYS OF WORD-BUILDING**  
**Plan**

**I. Secondary ways of word-building**

1. Sound interchange
2. stress interchange
3. sound imitation
4. blend
5. back-formation (disaffixation)

**References:**

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. Лексикология английского языка: [уч. пособие для пед.вузов] / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. – 8-е изд., стереотип. – М.: Дрофа, 2008. – 288 с.
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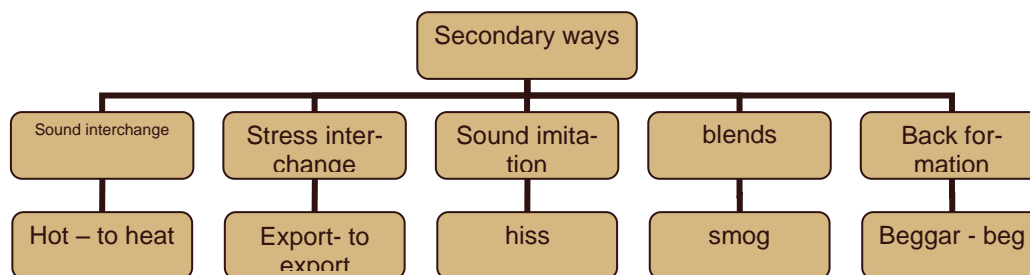
**Objectives:** The students will be able to

- Characterize the secondary ways of word-building.
- Classify secondary ways of word-building.
- Give definitions for main terms.
- Compare secondary ways of word-formation.
- Discuss points of the theme.

**Strategies for learning:**

- Focus your attention on the procedures of the plan.
- List the most complicated and controversial questions.
- Review the notes of the lecture, follow the concise guide.
- Give an explanation for main terms in your own words.
- Organize and complete the table for secondary ways of word formation with your own examples.
- Answer the points for a discussion.
- Compile your own multiple-choice (open) test.
- Prepare questions for a lecturer and your group mates to be answered and discussed.

## Secondary ways of word-building



**Sound interchange** is the way of word-building when some sounds are changed to form a new word. Stress interchange can be mostly met in verbs and nouns of Romanic origin: nouns have the stress on the first syllable and verbs on the last syllable,

**Sound imitation** is the way of word-building when a word is formed by imitating different sounds. There are some semantic groups of words formed by means of sound imitation.

**Table 7**

### SOUND IMITATION

sounds produced		
by human beings	by animals, birds, insects	by nature and objects
<i>to whisper, to giggle, to mumble, to sneeze, to whistle etc</i>	<i>to hiss, to buzz, to bark, to moo, to twitter etc.</i>	<i>to splash, to rustle, to clatter, to bubble, to ding-dong,</i>

### BLENDS

Blends are words formed from a word-group or two synonyms. In blends two ways of word-building are combined : abbreviation and composition.

To form a blend we clip the end of the first component (apocope) and the beginning of the second component (apheresis) .

As a result we have a compound-shortened word. One of the first blends in English was the word «smog» from two synonyms: *smoke* and *fog* which means *smoke mixed with fog*. From the first component the beginning is taken, from the second one the end, «o» is common for both of them.

## BACK FORMATION

It is the way of word-building when a word is formed by dropping the final morpheme to form a new word. It is typical of English to form nouns denoting the agent of the action by adding the suffix -er to a verb stem (speaker).

But a verb can be produced from a noun by subtraction. To butle from butler, to baby-sit from baby-sitter, to blood-transfuse from blood-transfusion.

### Points for discussion

- Sound interchange
- stress interchange
- sound imitation
- blend
- back-formation (disaffixation)

### Practical assignments

I. Complete the missing parts of the scheme

sounds produced		
by human beings	by animals, birds, insects	by nature and objects

II. Classify the words according to the way of word-formation.

to whisper, bath - to bathe, to sneeze, to televise, slanguage, to whistle, magalog, life -to live, breath - to breathe, smog, to compute, to reminisce, to enthuse, mumble, contact – to contact, export – to export.

sound inter-change	stress inter-change	sound imitation	blends	back formation

## Seminar 5 SEMASIOLOGY

### Plan

1. Word-meaning
2. Lexical-meaning notion
3. Polysemy
4. Homonyms
- 4.1 .Classification of homonyms
5. Synonyms
- 5.1. Classification of synonyms
6. Antonyms
- 6.1. Classification of antonyms

### References:

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. Лексикология английского языка: [уч. пособие для пед.вузов] / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. – 8-е изд., стереотип. – М.: Дрофа, 2008. – 288 с.
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**Objectives:** The students will be able to

- Characterize lexical-meaning notion.
- Classify homonyms, synonyms, antonyms.
- Give definitions for main terms.
- Compare different classifications of homonyms, synonyms, antonyms.
- Discuss points of the theme.
- Do multiple-choice test 5 on Semasiology

### **Strategies for learning:**

- Focus your attention on the procedures of the plan.
- List the most complicated and controversial questions.
- Review the notes of the lecture, follow the concise guide.
- Give an explanation for main terms in your own words.
- Organize and complete the table for classification of homonyms (synonyms, antonyms) with your own examples.
- Answer the points for a discussion.
- Do test 5. Use all available resources.
- Develop your own multiple-choice (open) test.
- Prepare questions for a lecturer and your group mates to be answered and discussed.

### **Outline**

The branch of lexicology which deals with the meaning is called semasiology.

### **WORD - MEANING**

Every word has two aspects: the outer aspect (its sound form) and its inner aspect (its meaning) . Sound and meaning do not always constitute a constant unit even in the same language.

E. g. the word «temple» may denote «a part of a human head» and «a large church». In such cases we have homonyms. One and the same word in different syntactical relations can develop different meanings, e.g. the verb «treat» in sentences: a) He treated my words as a joke. b) The book treats of poetry. c) They treated me to sweets. d) He treats his son cruelly.

In all these sentences the verb «treat» has different meanings and we can speak about polysemy. On the other hand, one and the same meaning can be expressed by different sound forms, e.g. «pilot», and «airman», «horror» and «terror». In such cases we have synonyms.

Both the meaning and the sound can develop in the course of time independently. E.g. the Old English /lufian/ is pronounced /l<sup>^</sup>v / in Modern English. On the other hand, «board» primarily means « a piece of wood sawn thin» It has developed the meanings: a table, a board of a ship, a stage, a council etc.

## LEXICAL MEANING - NOTION

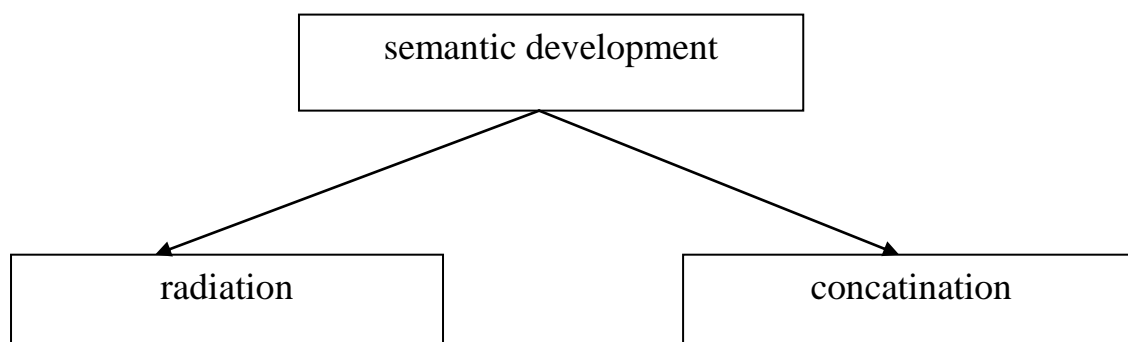
The lexical meaning of a word is the realization of a notion by means of a definite language system. A word is a language unit, while a notion is a unit of thinking. A notion cannot exist without a word expressing it in the language, but there are words which do not express any notion but have a lexical meaning. Interjections express emotions but not notions, but they have lexical meanings, e.g. Alas! /disappointment/, Oh, my buttons!/surprise/ etc. There are also words which express both, notions and emotions, e.g. girlie, a pig /when used metaphorically/.

The term «notion» was introduced into lexicology from logics. A notion denotes the reflection in the mind of real objects and phenomena in their relations. Notions, as a rule, are international, especially with the nations of the same cultural level. While meanings can be nationally limited.

## POLYSEMY

The word «polysemy» means «plurality of meanings» it exists only in the language, not in speech. A word which has more than one meaning is called polysemantic. Different meanings of a polysemantic word may come together due to the proximity of notions which they express. E.g. the word «blanket» has the following meanings: a woolen covering used on beds, a covering for keeping a horse warm, a covering of any kind /a blanket of snow/, covering all or most cases /used attributively/, e.g. we can say «a blanket insurance policy».

There are some words in the language which are monosemantic, such as most terms, /synonym, molecule, bronchites/, some pronouns /this, my, both/, numerals.



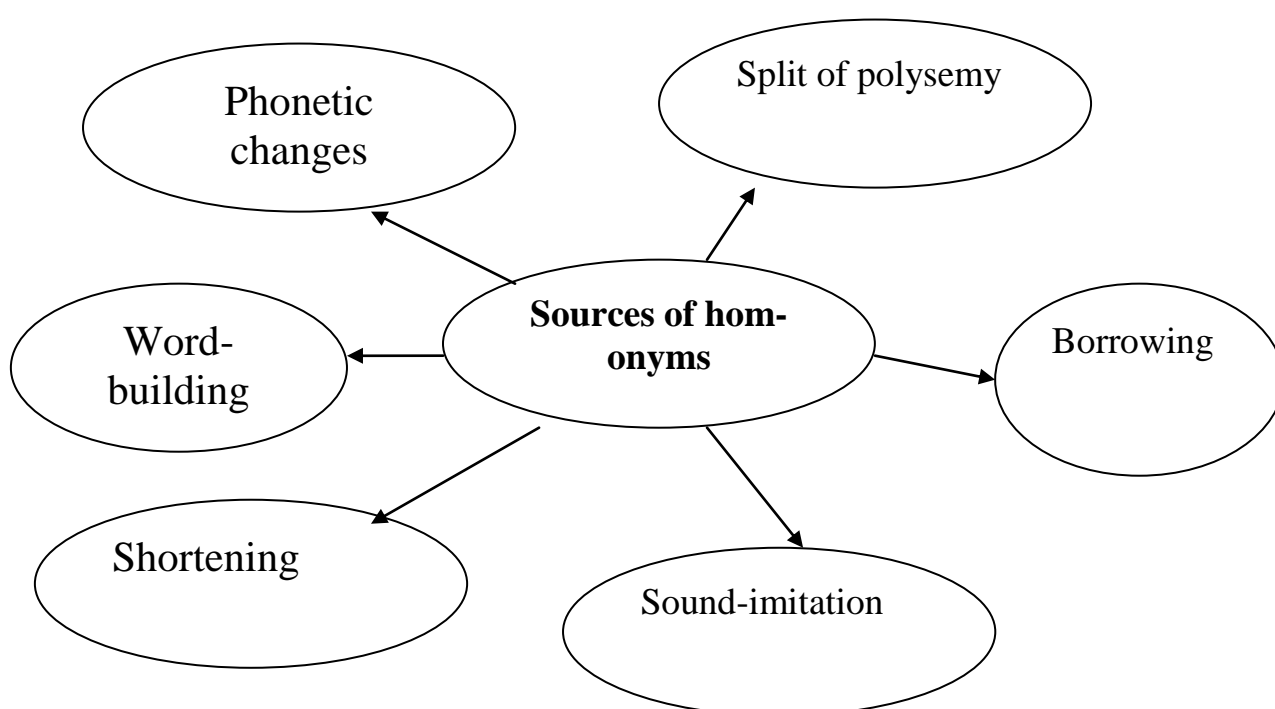
In cases of radiation the primary meaning stands in the centre and the secondary meanings proceed out of it like rays. Each secondary meaning can be traced to the primary meaning. E.g. in the word «face» the primary meaning denotes «the front part of the human head» Connected with the front position

the meanings: the front part of a watch, the front part of a building, the front part of a playing card were formed. Connected with the word «face» itself the meanings: expression of the face, outward appearance are formed.

In cases of concatenation secondary meanings of a word develop like a chain. In such cases it is difficult to trace some meanings to the primary one. E.g. the word crust (hard outer part of bread developed a secondary meaning **hard part of anything (a pie, a cake)**, then harder layer over soft snow, then **a sullen gloomy person**. This phenomenon is called is called the **split of polysemy**.

### HOMONYMS

**HOMONYMS** are words different in meaning but identical in sound or spelling, or both in sound or spelling.



**CLASSIFICATION OF HOMONYMS (By Skeat) Table 8**

term	Perfect homonyms	Homographs	Homophones
<b>definition</b>	They are words which identical in sound and spelling.	They are words with the same spelling but different pronunciation.	They are words with the same pronunciation but different spelling pronunciation.
<b>example</b>	School – school Board - board	Bow – bow Row -row	Night – knight Weather -whether

**CLASSIFICATION OF HOMONYMS (by A.I. Smirnitsky) Table 9**

<b>term</b>	<b>Full (lexical) homonyms</b>	<b>Partial homonyms</b>
<b>definition</b>	They are words which represent the same category of parts of speech and have the same paradigm.	They are subdivided into 3 sub-groups: 1) Simple lexico-grammatical p.h-s belong to the same part of speech. Their paradigms have one identical form. 2) Complex lexico-grammatical p.h-s belong to the different parts of speech. Their paradigms have one identical form. 3) Partial lexical homonyms belong to the same part of speech. They are identical only in their corresponding forms.
<b>example</b>	School – school; Board – board; Match – match; Wren – wren.	1) to found, v.; found, v.( to find); to lay, v. lay, v. (to lie); 2) rose, n.; rose, v. (to rise); bean, n.; been, v.(to be); 3) to lie (lay, lain), v.; to lie (lied, lied), v.

**CLASSIFICATION OF HOMONYMS (by I.V. Arnold)**

**Perfect homonyms**

I. V. Arnold suggested four criteria of their classification: lexical meaning, grammatical meaning, basic forms and paradigms.

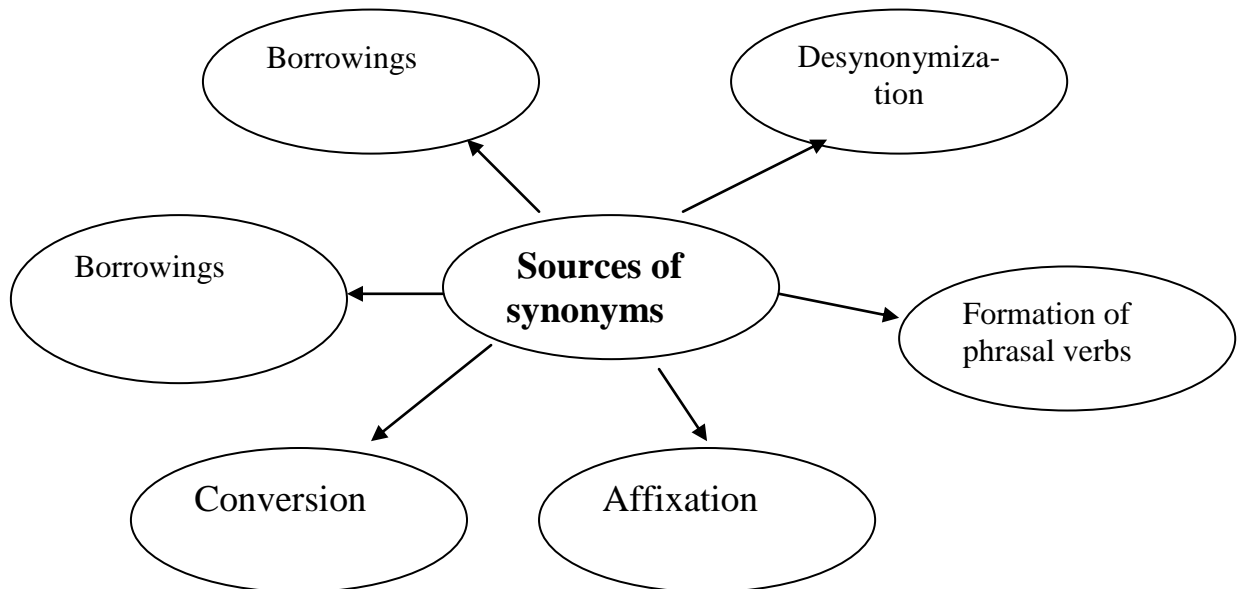
**Table 10**

a) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings, basic forms and paradigms and different in their lexical	b) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings and basic forms, different in their lexical meanings	c) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, paradigms, but coinciding in their	d) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, in their basic forms and paradigms, but co-
---	--	---	--

meanings	and paradigms	basic forms	inciding in one of the forms of their paradigms
e.g. «board» in the meanings «a council» and « a piece of wood sawn thin»;	e.g. to lie - lied - lied, and to lie - lay - lain	e.g. «light» / «lights»/, «light» / «lighter», «lightest»/	e.g. «a bit» and «bit» (from « to bite»).

In I. V. Arnold's classification there are also **patterned homonyms**. These homonyms are different in their grammar meanings, in their paradigms, identical in their basic forms, e.g. «warm» - «to warm». Here we can also have unchangeable patterned homonyms which have identical basic forms, different grammatical meanings, a common component in their lexical meanings, e.g. «before» an adverb, a conjunction, a preposition. There are also homonyms among unchangeable words which are different in their lexical and grammatical meanings, identical in their basic forms, e.g. «for» - «для» and «for» - «ибо».

### Synonyms



## CLASSIFICATION OF SYNONYMS

**Table 11**

<b>term</b>	<b>Absolute synonyms</b>	<b>Phraseological synonyms</b>	<b>Contextual synonyms</b>
<b>definition</b>	They are words which have exactly the same meaning and belong to the same style.	They are identical in meanings and styles but different in their combinability.	Words which are similar in meaning under distributional conditions. (different words mean the same in the context)
<b>example</b>	To moan - to groan Homeland - motherland	To be late for lecture- to miss a train To visit museums – to attend lectures	But and get I'll go to the shop and buy some bread. I'll go to the shop and get some bread. Bear and stand I can't stand you. I can't bear you.

**Table 12**

## CLASSIFICATION OF ABSOLUTE SYNONYMS

<b>term</b>	<b>Semantic synonyms</b>	<b>Stylistic synonyms</b>
<b>definition</b>	They are words which specialize in their meanings.	They are words which specialize in their usage.
<b>example</b>	Town (native) - city (borrowing) Stool (native) - chair (borrowing)	To begin (native)- to commence (borrowing) Welkin (native) (bookish)- sky (borrowing) (neutral)

**Table 13**

**CLASSIFICATION OF STYLISTICS SYNONYMS**

<b>term</b>	<b>Synonyms - abbreviations (colloquial style)</b>	<b>Synonyms - euphemisms</b>	<b>Slang synonyms</b>
<b>definition</b>	They appear by means of abbreviation.	They substitute unpleasant or offensive words.	Expressive, harsh, vulgar words
<b>example</b>	Examination (neutral)- exam (colloquial) Mathematics(neutral)- Math(s) (colloquial)	The late (euph.) – dead (neutral) To perspire (euph.) – to sweat (neutral)	Beans, brass, dibs, dough (sl.) – money (neutral) Attic, nut, upper storey (sl.) – head (neutral)

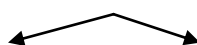
**Table 14**

<b>term</b>	<b>Synonymic dominants</b>
<b>definition</b>	Words which have the most general meaning and can substitute any word in the group.
<b>example</b>	Piece (slice, lump, morsel) Look (stare, glance, peep), Red (scarlet, purple, crimson)

**ANTONYMS**

ANTONYMS are words which belong to the same part of speech, identical in style, and express contrary (противоположный) or contradictory (несовместимый) notions.

**STRUCTURAL CLASSIFICATION OF ANTONYMS (morphological approach)**



ABSOLUTE (having different roots)      DERIVATIONAL (of the same root),

"right"- "wrong"  
 "to arrive"- "to leave"

“regular”- “irregular”  
 "to fit" - "to unfit"

**Table 15**

**SEMANTICAL CLASSIFICATION OF ANTONYMS**

CONTRADICTO- RIES (complimentary anto- nyms)	CONTRA- RIES (antonyms proper)	Non-binary contrast (many-member lex- ical sets) (INCOM- PATIBLES)	CONVER- SNESS (mirror- image relations)
Contradictory notions are mutually opposed and they deny each other.	Contrary no- tions are also mutually op- posed and but they are <i>grad- able</i> .	In this case there are no outmost mem- bers.	Conversive an- tonyms imply the same object or situation but from different point of view.
<b>alive vs. dead;</b> <b>patient vs. impatient</b> <b>to hate- to love</b>	<b>Old:</b> <i>middle- aged:</i> <b>young</b> <b>Hot:</b> <i>warm:</i> <i>cool:</i> <b>cold</b>	Colour words ( <b>black, grey, white</b> ) Military ranks ( <b>marshal, general, colonel</b> )	John <b>bought</b> the car from Bill. Bill <b>sold</b> the car to John. <b>Husband/ wife</b> <b>Pupil/teacher</b>

**Points for discussion**

**I. Consider your answers to the following.**

1. Which words do we usually classify as homonyms?
2. What sources of homonyms do you know?
3. Which words do we usually classify as synonyms?
4. Which word in a synonymic group is considered to be the dominant syno-  
nym?  
 What are its characteristic features?
5. Can the dominant synonym be substituted for certain other members of a  
group of synonyms?
6. Which words do we usually classify as antonyms?

## Practical assignments

I. Find antonyms in the following jokes and extracts and describe the results of stylistic effect.

1. Flying instructors say that pilot trainees are divided into optimists and pessimists when reporting the amount of fuel during flights. 2. Optimists report that their fuel tank is half full while pessimists say it's half empty. 3. The canvas homes, the caravans, the transportable timber frames — each had its light. Some moving, some still. 4. His words seemed to point out that sad, even, tragic things could never be gay. 5. It was warm in the sun but cool under the shady trees. 6. He is my best friend and he is my bitter enemy. 7. Every man has feminine qualities and every woman has masculine ones. 8. He hated to be exposed to strangers, to be accepted or rejected.

II. On what linguistic phenomenon are the following jokes based? What causes the misunderstanding?

“A tailor guarantees to give each of his customers a perfect fit.” (The joke is based on the homonyms: 1. fit, n. - perfectly fitting clothes; 2. a nervous spasm.)

“Waiter!”

“Yes, sir.”

“What’s this?”

“It’s bean soup, sir.”

“Never mind what it has been. I want to know what it is now.”

(The joke is based on the homophones: 1. bean, n. - the seed eaten as a vegetable; 2. been Past Participle of to be).

A woman was driving in her car on a narrow road. She was knitting at the same time, so she was driving very slowly.

A man came up from behind and he wanted to pass her. He opened the window and yelled, "Pull over! Pull over!"

The lady yelled back, "No, it's a sweater!"

I was arrested at the airport. Just because I was greeting my cousin Jack!  
All that I said was "Hi Jack", but very loud.

One day an English grammar teacher was looking ill.

A student asked, "What's the matter?"

"Tense," answered the teacher, describing how he felt.

The student paused, then continued, "What was the matter? What has been the matter? What might have been the matter... ?"

Boyfriend: What is your favorite music group?

Girlfriend: I love U2!

Boyfriend: I love you too, but what is your favorite music group?

### III.

Find a synonymic dominant for the following expressions:

A wealthy/ well-off woman

An amusing/ ridiculous story

A smart/ brilliant/intelligent person

Revolting/horrible food

### **Test 5: Semasiology**

1. Semasiology is ...

- 1) the branch of lexicology which deals with the meaning
- 2) the part of linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of a language
- 3) one of the main ways of enriching vocabulary
- 4) a transfer of the meaning when it become worse in the course of time
- 5) the main unit of the lexical system of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning

2. The lexical meaning of a word is ...

- 1) defined as an expression in speech of relationship between words based on contrastive features
- 2) expressed by the combination of morphemes
- 3) the meaning of an object
- 4) the realization of a notion by means of a definite language system
- 5) none of them

3. A notion denotes ...

- 1) the branch of lexicology which is characterized by stability of structure
- 2) relationships determining the vocabulary system
- 3) the reflection in the mind of real objects and phenomena in their relations
- 4) different structures of the word
- 5) none of them

4. Polysemantic is ...

- 1) the word means plurality of meanings
- 2) word different in their outer aspect but similar in their inner aspect
- 3) a word that has more than one meaning in the language
- 4) an association of a given meaning with a given sound pattern
- 5) the word means plurality of meanings

5. Homonyms are ...

- 1) words that has more than one meaning in the language
- 2) words means plurality of meaning
- 3) words different in their outer aspect but similar in their inner aspect
- 4) words which is identical in sound and spelling but different in their meaning
- 5) none of them

6. Choose the right classification of homonyms:

- 1) proper homonyms, hromosoms, homographs
- 2) perfect homonyms, homophones, homographs
- 3) homonyms, mophones, mographs
- 4) perfect homonyms, homones, homographs
- 5) all of them

7. Find homographs:

- 1) lead [ li:d ] – lead [ led ]
- 2) steel [ sti:l ] – steal [ sti:l ]
- 3) may [ mei ] – might [ mait ]
- 4) not [ not ] – knot [ not ]
- 5) none of them

8. Synonyms are ...

- 1) words different in meaning but identical in sound or spelling
- 2) words which have more than one meaning

- 3) words different in their outer aspect but similar in their inner aspect
- 4) words belonging to the same part of speech
- 5) none of them

9. Absolute synonyms are ...

- 1) subtraction, word-building, voiced (consonants)
- 2) compounding, word-building, breathed (consonants)
- 3) composition, sound-building, low
- 4) subtraction, word-formation
- 5) word-division, voice-formation, voiceless

10. Antonyms are ...

- 1) words which are identical in sound and spelling but different in their meaning
- 2) words mean plurality of meanings
- 3) words different in their outer aspect but similar in their inner aspect
- 4) words pronounced identically but have different spelling
- 5) words belonging to the same part of speech, identical in style, expressing contrary notions

## Progress Test 1

1. What is lexicology?
  - 1) study of phonetic system
  - 2) branch of linguistics, the study of words
  - 3) study of spelling
  - 4) study of terminology
  
2. About \_\_\_% of English words are native words:
  - 1) 50
  - 2) 30
  - 3) 100
  - 4) 40
  - 5) 70
  
3. From what term we should distinguish the term “source of borrowing”?:
  - 1) ”origin of borrowing”
  - 2) ”history of the language”
  - 3) ”origin of a word”
  - 4) ”origin of native words”
  
4. What borrowings are called “loan words proper”?:
  - 1) translation loans
  - 2) semantic borrowings
  - 3) phonetic borrowings
  - 4) morphemic borrowings
  
5. Borrowings can be assimilated:
  - 1) completely, partly, non-assimilated
  - 2) fully, partly, semi-assimilated
  - 3) completely, non-assimilated
  - 4) fully, semi-assimilated
  
6. This is a way of word-building when a word is formed by imitating different sounds:
  - 1) blends
  - 2) back formation
  - 3) sound imitation
  - 4) stress interchange

7. What are “blends”?

- 1) words, formed from a word-group or two synonyms
- 2) semantic groups of words formed by means of sound imitation
- 3) way of word-building, when a word is formed by dropping the final morpheme to form a new form

8. Semasiology is ...

- 1) the branch of lexicology which deals with the meaning
- 2) the part of linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of a language
- 3) one of the main ways of enriching vocabulary
- 4) a transfer of the meaning when it become worse in the course of time
- 5) the main unit of the lexical system of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning

9. Every word has two aspects:

- 1) the outside aspect, the inside aspect
- 2) the outer aspect, the inner aspect
- 3) the down aspect, the up aspect
- 4) the close aspect, the distant aspect

10. A notion denotes ...

- 1) the branch of lexicology which are characterized by stability of structure
- 2) relationships determining the vocabulary system
- 3) the reflection in the mind of real objects and phenomena in their relations
- 4) different structures of the word
- 5) none of them

11. Homonyms are ...

- 1) words that have more than one meaning in the language
- 2) words means plurality of meaning
- 3) words different in their outer aspect but similar in their inner aspect
- 4) words which is identical in sound and spelling but different in their meaning
- 5) none of them

12. Choose the right classification of homonyms:

- 1) proper homonyms, hromosoms, homographs

- 2) perfect homonyms, homophones, homographs
- 3) homonyms, mophones, mographs
- 4) perfect homonyms, homones, homographs
- 5) all of them

13. Find homographs:

- 1) lead [ li:d ] – lead [ led ]
- 2) steel [ sti:l ] – steal [ sti:l ]
- 3) may [ mei ] – might [ mait ]
- 4) not [ not ] – knot [ not ]
- 5) none of them

14. Synonyms are ...

- 1) words different in meaning but identical in sound or spelling
- 2) words which have more than one meaning
- 3) words different in their outer aspect but similar in their inner aspect
- 4) words belonging to the same part of speech
- 5) none of them

15. Choose the synonyms to the underlined word: ‘I was so astonished I could hardly speak for a while’.

- 1) disordered,
- 2) mocking, sarcastic
- 3) gay, merry, cheerful
- 4) evil, bad
- 5) to be surprised, to be amazed, hardly

16. Antonyms are ...

- 1) words which are identical in sound and spelling but different in their meaning
- 2) words mean plurality of meanings
- 3) words different in their outer aspect but similar in their inner aspect
- 4) words pronoun identically but have different spelling
- 5) words belonging to the same part of speech, identical in style, expressing contrary notions

17. Choose the antonyms to the underlined words: ‘In summer we play together and we fight to see who is the strongest and we run to see who is the fastest’

- 1) strongest-slimmest, fastest-famous
- 2) strongest-weakest, fastest-slowest

- 3) strongest-courageous, fastest-quickest
  - 4) strongest-slowest, fastest-weakest
  - 5) none of them
18. A prefix is ...
- 1) a derivational morpheme preceding the root
  - 2) a derivational morpheme following the stem and forming a new derivative
  - 3) a common element of words within a word-family
  - 4) an affix placed within the word
  - 5) a combining form

19. Sound imitation, reduplication, clipping, abbreviation are ...

- 1) productive ways of word-building
- 2) minor types of word - formation
- 3) principal ways of word-building
- 4) ways of making up phraseological units
- 5) ways of changing syntactic pattern and paradigm of words

20. What are compound words?

- 1) words consisting of at least two stems occur in the language as free forms
- 2) class of lexical elements possessing the same lexico-grammatical meaning
- 3) nouns denoting some feeling and state
- 4) derivational morphemes standing before the root
- 5) the smallest meaningful units

21. Which of the following words contain diminutive suffixes?

- 1) heroine, actress
- 2) booklet, hanky
- 3) poetic, picturesque
- 4) cloudy, girlish
- 5) funny, sunny

22. Which of the following suffixes are of Greek origin?

- 1) -dom, -hood, -ly
- 2) -able, -ible, -ant, -ous
- 3) -age, -ful, -ence
- 4) -ist, -ism, -ite
- 5) -anti, -dom, -ful

23. Check for the homographs in the following sets of words.

- 1) new – knew
- 2) brake – break
- 3) by – buy
- 4) piece – peace
- 5) bow – bow

24. Find translation-loans:

1. masterpiece, wonder child, first dancer, collective farm, five-year plan
2. hospital – hostel – hotel, to capture – to catch – to chase
3. coffee, cocoa, chocolate, coca-cola, banana, mango, avocado, grapefruit
4. foot-bell, volley-ball, baseball, hockey, cricket, rugby, tennis, golf
5. philosophy, mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, medicine, linguistics, lexicology

25. Find etymological triplets:

1. hospital – hostel – hotel, to capture – to catch – to chase
2. philosophy, mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, medicine, linguistics, lexicology
3. coffee, cocoa, chocolate, coca-cola, banana, mango, avocado, grapefruit
4. masterpiece, wonder child, first dancer, collective farm, five-year plan
5. foot-bell, volley-ball, baseball, hockey, cricket, rugby, tennis, golf

26. Find Latin borrowings of 7<sup>th</sup> century:

1. cheese, butter, pear, plum, beet, pepper, cherry
2. bald, down, glen, druid, bard, cradle
3. priest, bishop, monk, nun, candle
4. sky, skill, skin, ski, skirt
5. court, judge, justice, crime, prison

27. Find French affixes:

1. *-ion, -tion*
2. *-ate, -ute*
3. *-able, -ate*
4. *-or, -al, -ar*
5. *-ance, -enc.*

28. Find etymological doublets:

1. collective farm, wonder child, five-year plan, first dancer
2. hospital – hostel – hotel, to capture – to catch – to chase

3. senior – sir, canal – channel, captain – chieftan

4. coca-cola, volley-ball

5. cup, plum, street, wall

29. What does the Historical lexicology study?

1) The morphological structure of the language

2) The phonetic structure of the language

3) The development of the vocabulary, the origin of words and word-groups, their Symantec relation

30. This is the process of formation of words by means, of adding a prefix to the stem

1) Affixation

2) Prefixation

3) Composition

4) Conversion

5) Abbreviation

**Points – 7,5**

Complete the table below with your own examples

suffix	example
able	An eatable pie
conscious	
free	
rich	
led	
minded	
proof	
related	
ridden	
worthy	

**Points 1,25**

What words have been combined to make these blends? What do you think they mean?

Infomercial

Edutainment

Cybrary

Vegeburger

Swimathon

Fantastic

**Points 1, 25**

**Bcero 10**

## Seminar 6

### LEXICO-SEMANTIC WORD-BUILDING

#### Plan

1. Semantic changes
  - 1.1. Gradual semantic changes:
    - 1.1.1. Specialization
    - 1.1.2. Generalization
  - 1.2. Momentary conscious semantic changes:
    - 1.2.1. Metaphor
    - 1.2.2. Metonymy
2. Secondary ways of semantic changes:
  - 2.1. Gradual:
    - 2.1.1. Elevation
    - 2.1.2. Degradation
  - 2.2. Momentary:
    - 2.2.1. Hyperbole
    - 2.2.2. Litotes

#### References:

1. Дубенец Э. М. Лексикология современного английского языка: лекции и семинары. Пособие для студентов гуманитарных вузов/ Э. М. Дубенец. – М.: «Глосса-Пресс», 2002. – 192 с.

**Objectives:** The students will be able to

- Characterize lexical-semantic word-building.
- Classify secondary ways of semantic changes.
- Give definitions for main terms.
- Discuss points of the theme.
- Do practical assignments .

**Strategies for learning:**

- Focus your attention on the procedures of the plan.
- List the most complicated and controversial questions.
- Review the notes of the lecture, follow the concise guide.
- Give an explanation for main terms in your own words.
- Organize and complete the table for secondary ways of semantic changes.
- Answer the points for a discussion.
- Prepare questions for a lecturer and your group mates to be answered and discussed.

## **The causes of semantic changes**

The causes of semantic changes can be extra-linguistic and linguistic, e.g. the change of the lexical meaning of the noun «pen» was due to extra-linguistic causes. Primarily «pen» comes back to the Latin word «penna» (a feather of a bird). As people wrote with goose pens the name was transferred to steel pens which were later on used for writing. Still later any instrument for writing was called «a pen».

On the other hand causes can be linguistic.

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

Herman Paul's classification of semantic changes.

He distinguishes two main ways where the semantic change is gradual (specialization and generalization), two momentary conscious semantic changes (metaphor and metonymy) and also secondary ways: gradual (elevation and degradation), momentary (hyperbole and litotes).

### **SPECIALIZATION**

It is a gradual process when a word passes from a general sphere to some special sphere of communication.

e.g. «case» has a general meaning «circumstances in which a person or a thing is». It is specialized in its meaning when used in law (a law suit), in grammar (a form in the paradigm of a noun), in medicine (a patient, an illness). The difference between these meanings is revealed in the context.

Specialization of meaning

The meaning of a word can specialize when it remains in the general usage. It happens in the case of the conflict between two absolute synonyms when one of them must specialize in its meaning to remain in the language.

The English verb «starve» was specialized in its meaning after the Scandinavian verb «die» was borrowed into English. «Die» became the general verb with this meaning because in English there were the noun «death» and the adjective «dead». «Starve» got the meaning «to die of hunger».

### **GENERALIZATION**

It is a process contrary to specialization, in such cases the meaning of a word becomes more general in the course of time.

The transfer from a concrete meaning to an abstract one is most frequent, e.g. «ready» (a derivative from the verb «ridan» - «ride») meant «prepared for a ride», now its meaning is «prepared for anything».

«Journey» was borrowed from French with the meaning «one day trip», now it means «a trip of any duration».

All auxiliary verbs are cases of generalization

They developed a grammatical meaning : «have», «be», «do», «shall»

e.g. cf. «I have several books by this writer» and «I have read some books by this author». In the first sentence the verb «have» has the meaning «possess», in the second sentence it has no lexical meaning, its grammatical meaning is to form Present Perfect.

## METAPHOR

It is a transfer of the meaning on the basis of comparison. Herman Paul points out that metaphor can be based on different types of similarity:

Metaphor is concerned with using words in abstract rather than literal ways.

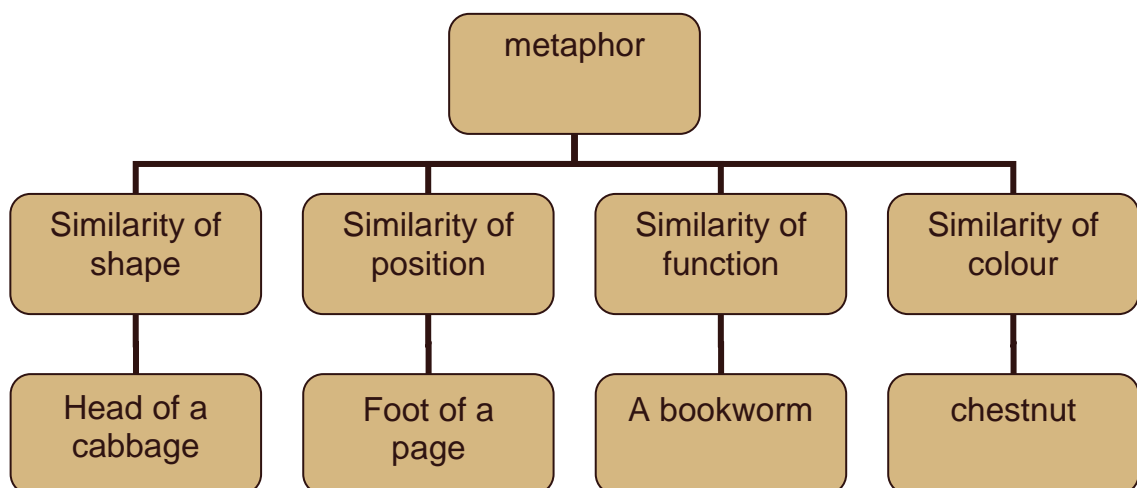
Metaphor is a way of expressing something by comparing it with something else that has similar characteristics.

If we call a city a jungle we are using a metaphor. We are suggesting that a city is like a jungle in that it is wild and full of dangers.

Many idioms are metaphorical expressions which are in common use.

For example: to be on the ball – to be very aware of things and ready to act – like to be on the ball.

If we say that someone lights up our life, we are using metaphor. We are suggesting that person is like a light in our life in that they bring us great happiness.



## METONYMY

It is a transfer of the meaning on the basis of contiguity. There are different types of metonymy:

- a) the material of which an object is made may become the name of the object, e.g. a glass, boards, iron etc;
- b) the name of the place may become the name of the people or of an object placed there, e.g. the House - members of Parliament, Fleet Street- bourgeois press, the White House - the Administration of the USA etc;
- c) names of musical instruments may become names of musicians, e.g. the violin, the saxophone;

Secondary ways of semantic changes

### ELEVATION

It is a transfer of the meaning when it becomes better in the course of time, e.g. «knight» originally meant «a boy», then «a young servant», then «a military servant», then «a noble man». Now it is a title of nobility given to outstanding people;

«marshal» originally meant «a horse man» now it is the highest military rank etc.

### DEGRADATION

It is a transfer of the meaning when it becomes worse in the course of time. It is usually connected with nouns denoting common people, e.g. «villain» originally meant «working on a villa» now it means «a scoundrel».

### HYPERBOLE

It is a transfer of the meaning when the speaker uses exaggeration, e.g. «to hate» (doing something), (not to see somebody) «for ages». You'll be the death of me. It's nightmare. A thousand pardons.

Hyperbole is often used to form phraseological units, e.g. «to make a mountain out of a molehill», «to split hairs» etc.

### LITOTES

It is a transfer of the meaning when the speaker expresses affirmative with the negative or vice versa, e.g. not bad, no coward, not half as important, etc.

*It is not bad* is used instead of *it is good*.

### Points for discussion

- 1) Semantic changes
- 2) Gradual semantic changes:

- 3) Specialization
- 4) Generalization
- 5) Momentary conscious semantic changes:
- 6) Metaphor
- 7) Metonymy
- 8) Secondary ways of semantic changes

### **Practical assignment**

Analyze the following lexical units:

Head of a cabbage, foot of a page, a bookworm, chestnut hair, an eye of a needle, The House, the violin, watt, om, holland, china, boards, an iron, to make a mountain out of the hill, not bad, no coward, a thousand pardons, not to see somebody for ages, to split hairs, not half as important.

## **Seminar 7**

### **PHRASEOLOGY**

#### Plan

1. Phraseology is a branch of linguistics
2. Ways of forming phraseological units (idioms)
3. Semantic classification of idioms
4. Structural classification of idioms
5. Syntactical classification of idioms

#### **References:**

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. Лексикология английского языка: [уч. пособие для пед.вузов] / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. – 8-е изд., стереотип. – М.: Дрофа, 2008. – 288 с.
2. Верба Л.Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов/Л.Г.Верба. Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. –160 с.
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**Objectives:** The students will be able to

- Characterize phraseology is a branch of linguistics.
- Classify ways of forming phraseological units.
- Give definitions for main terms.
- Discuss points of the theme.
- Do practical assignments on phraseology.
- Do test 7 on phraseology.

**Strategies for learning:**

- Focus your attention on the procedures of the plan.
- List the most complicated and controversial questions.
- Review the notes of the lecture, follow the concise guide.
- Give an explanation for main terms in your own words.
- Organize diagrammes and schemes on different classifications of phraseological units.
- Answer the points for a discussion.
- Prepare questions for a lecturer and your group mates to be answered and discussed.
- Develop your own test on Phraseology.

## Outline

**Phraseology** is a branch of linguistics that studies phraseological units.

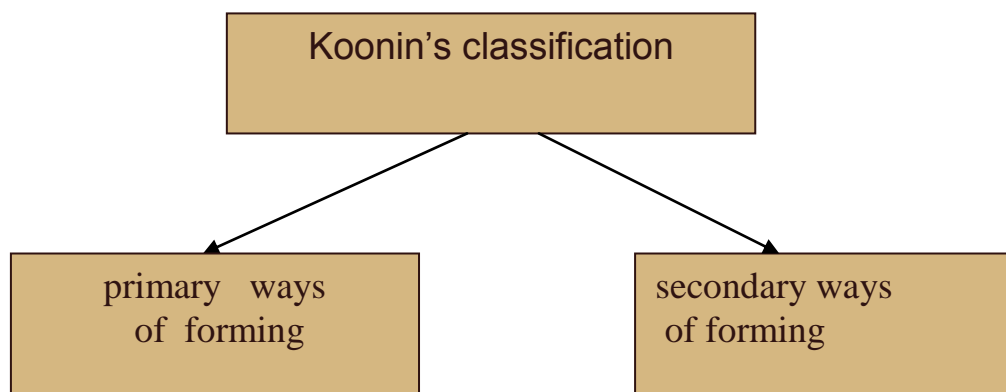
**Phraseological units (idioms)** are word-groups that cannot be made in the process of speech, they exist in the language as ready-made units.

American and British lexicographers call such units «idioms».

Classification of PUs

Phraseological units can be classified according to

- the ways they are formed,
- the degree of the motivation of their meaning,
- their structure
- their part-of-speech meaning .



### Primary ways of forming

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

1. Transferring the meaning of terminological word-groups  
e.g. in cosmic technique we have : «launching pad» in its terminological meaning is «стартовая площадка» , in its transferred meaning - «отправной пункт»,
2. From free word groups by transforming their meaning  
e.g. «Trojan horse»
3. By means of alliteration  
e.g. «a sad sack» - «несчастный случай»,
4. By means of expressiveness  
e.g. «My aunt!» etc .

## Secondary ways of forming phraseological units

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

Conversion e.g. «to vote with one's feet» («проголосовать ногами, выразить свое недовольство уходом») was converted into «vote with one's feet»; changing the grammar form, etc.

Phraseological units can be classified according to **the degree of motivation** of their meaning. This classification was suggested by acad. V.V. Vinogradov for Russian phraseological units. He pointed out three types of phraseological units:

- a) fusions
- b) unities
- c) collocations

### a) fusions

the degree of motivation is very low, we cannot guess the meaning of the whole from the meanings of its components, they are highly idiomatic and cannot be translated word for word into other languages,

e.g. on Shank's mare - (on foot) («идти пёхом», «добираться на своих двоих»), at sixes and sevens - (in a mess) etc;

### b) unities

where the meaning of the whole can be guessed from the meanings of its components, but it is transferred (metaphorical or metonymical), e.g. to play the first fiddle ( to be a leader in something), old salt (experienced sailor) etc;

### c) Collocations (словосочетания)

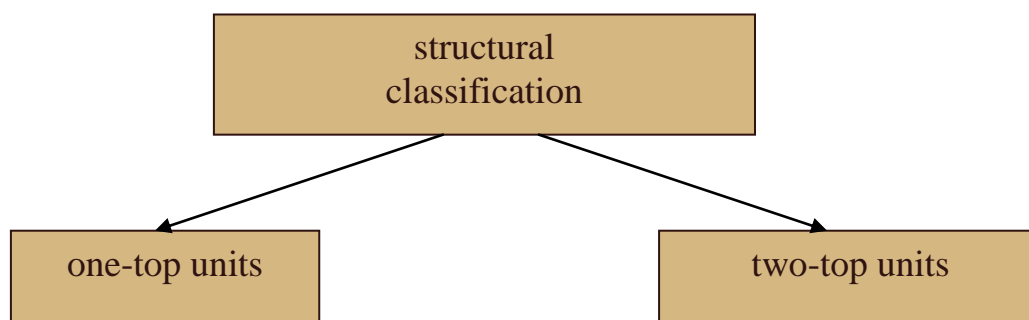
words are combined in their original meaning but their combinations are different in different languages, e.g. cash and carry - (self-service shop), in a big way (in great degree) etc.

## STRUCTURAL CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

Prof. A.I. Smirnitsky worked out structural classification of phraseological units, comparing them with words.

He points out one-top units and two-top units.

## Smirnitsky 's classification



Prof. A.I. Smirnitsky compares one-top units with derived words because derived words have only one root morpheme. He compares two-top units with compound words because in compound words we usually have two root morphemes.

Among one-top units he points out three structural types;

- a) units of the type «to give up» (verb + postposition type),
- b) units of the type «to be tired» .
- c) prepositional- nominal phraseological units.  
they have no grammar centre, their semantic centre is the nominal part, e.g. in the course of (during).

Among two-top units A.I. Smirnitsky points out the following structural types:

- a) attributive-nominal such as: *grey matter* (ум)
- b) verb-nominal phraseological units  
e.g. to fall in love
- c) phraseological repetitions part and parcel (неотъемлемая часть) etc.

## SYNTACTICAL CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

Phraseological units can be classified as parts of speech. This classification was suggested by I.V. Arnold.

Here we have the following groups:

- a) noun phraseologisms denoting an object, a person, a living being, e.g. bullet train;
- b) verb phraseologisms denoting an action, a state, a feeling, e.g. to be on the beam, to make headlines.
- c) adjective phraseologisms denoting a quality, e.g. loose as a goose;

- d) adverb phraseological units, such as : like a dream;
- e) preposition phraseological units, e.g. in the course of, in the point of.
- f) interjection phraseological units, e.g. «Catch me!», «Well, I never!».

**Points for discussion**

1. What are the merits and disadvantages of the thematic principle of classification for phraseological units?
2. Explain the semantic principle of classification for phraseological units.
3. What is the basis of the structural principle of classification for phraseological units?
4. Analyse Professor A. I. Smirnitsky’s classification for phraseological units. What is it based on? Do you see any controversial points in the classification system?
5. Discuss the merits of Professor A.V. Koonin’s system for the classification of phraseological units. What is it based on? Do you find any points in the classification system which are open to question?

**Practical assignments**

I. Classify examples according to the degree of motivation. Complete the chart.

Examples: to play the first, old salt, to skate on thin ice etc;

cash and carry, in a big way, on Shank’s mare - (on foot), at sixes and sevens - (in a mess) to have a bee in one’s bonnet (to be eccentric)etc;

fusions	unities	collocations

II. Match the columns

1. Phraseology is	a. The assigning of a new meaning to a group of words which already have their own meaning
2. Phraseological units	b. according to the ways they are formed, according to the degree of the motivation of their meaning, according to their structure and according to their part-of-speech meaning.

3. Phraseological units can be classified	c. are word-groups that cannot be made in the process of speech, they exist in the language as ready-made units
4. Idioms	d. a branch of linguistics that studies phraseological units
5. Koonin classified phraseological units	e. where the degree of motivation is very low, we cannot guess the meaning of the whole from the meanings of its components
6. Primary ways of forming phraseological units are	f. those when a unit is formed on the basis of a free word-group
7. Secondary ways of forming phraseological units are	g. according to the degree of motivation of their meaning
8. In terms of semantics phraseological units can be classified	h. those when a phraseological unit is formed on the basis of another phraseological unit
9. Semantic classification	i. was suggested by acad. V.V. Vinogradov
10. fusions	j. according to the way they are formed. He pointed out primary and secondary ways of forming phraseological units.
11. fusions	k. on Shank's mare - (on foot), at sixes and sevens - (in a mess) etc;

III. Read the following text, paraphrase the idioms in bold.

One day, I was sitting at my desk in the office, 1) **minding my own business** and just 2) **twiddling my thumbs**, when my colleague Tom Jessop came walking towards me. 3) **I could feel it in my bones** that something was going to happen. Suddenly, 4) **out of the blue**, and 5) **without so much as a by-your-leave**, he pulled the power cable out of the back of my computer, switching it off instantly. 6) **Before I knew where I was**, he was switching it on again, and 7) **in next to no time**, it was working normally. He explained that he had noticed out of the corner of his eye that I was just about to open an e-mail which he knew contained a dangerous virus, and he reacted quickly to stop me doing it. He explained that he had just opened the infected e-mail himself and that now his computer had completely crashed.

To 8) **cap/crown it all**, he had lost a long, important report he had almost finished. But, 9) **would you believe it**, I had not saved my work for about an hour, and, 10) **to cut a long story short**, by pulling out my power cable he caused me to lose a report I was writing too, even though he saved me from the virus! However, 11) **as luck would have it**. I remembered later that I had a copy on my laptop, so everything 12) **turned out all right in the end**, and 13) **all's well that ends well**, at least for me. 14) **I lived to tell the tale**, but poor old Tom lost everything on his computer. I know 15) **it was just one of those things**, but still, 16) **it just goes to show** how you can never trust technology.

### Test 7: Phraseology

1. What is a phraseological unit?

- 1) a word group that cannot be made in the process of speech it exists in the language as ready-made units
- 2) a word group viewed as semantically and logically separable and is described as word equivalent
- 3) a word group viewed as structurally separable but inseparable functionally and it is described as word equivalent

2. How do English and American people call phraseological units?

- 1) proverbs
- 2) quotations
- 3) idioms

3. What can be named as motivated word groups by Vinogradov?

- 1) collocations
- 2) unities

3) fusions

4. What professor divided phraseological units into substantive, adjectival, adverbial, verbal and interjective?

1) Koonin

2) Amosova

3) Vinogradov

5. Who suggested structural classification of phraseological units?

1) Arnold

2) Vinogradov

3) Smirnitsky

6. Who suggested syntactical classification?

1) Arnold

2) Amosova

3) Vinogradov

7. What word groups should we refer to phraseological units?

1) completely non-motivated

2) partly non-motivated

3) motivated

8. Among 1-top units Smirnitsky pointed ... structural types.

1) 2

2) 3

3) 4

9. What is the most productive way of forming phraseological units by Koonin?

1) the formation by means of transferring the meaning of terminological word groups?

2) formation from free word groups by transferring their meaning

3) by alliteration

**Seminar 8**  
**NEOLOGISMS**  
Plan

1. Neology «blowup» and the work of R.Berchfield.
2. Semantic neologisms, transnomination and proper neologisms.
3. Semantic groups of neologisms connected with computerization.
4. Social stratification and neologisms.
5. Semantic groups of neologisms referring to everyday life.
6. Phonological neologisms and borrowings as strong neologisms.
7. Morphological and syntactical neologisms.
8. Changes in pronunciation

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**Objectives:** The students will be able to

- Characterize neology «blowup».
- Characterize different groups of neologisms.
- Give definitions for main terms.
- Discuss points of the theme.
- Do a practical assignment on Neologisms.

**Strategies for learning:**

- Focus your attention on the procedures of the plan.
- List the most complicated and controversial questions.

- Review the notes of the lecture, follow the concise guide.
- Give an explanation for main terms in your own words.
- Organize diagrammes and schemes on different groups of neologisms.
- Answer the points for a discussion.
- Prepare questions for a lecturer and your group mates to be answered and discussed.
- Use Dictionary of New Words and New Meanings by Trofimova Z.S. M., 1993.

### **Outline**

At the present moment English is developing very swiftly and there is so called «neology blowup». R. Burchfield who worked at compiling a four-volume supplement to NED says that averagely 800 neologisms appear every year in Modern English. It has also become a language-giver recently, especially with the development of computerization [5].

New words, as a rule, appear in speech of an individual person who wants to express his idea in some original way. This person is called «originator». New lexical units are primarily used by university teachers, newspaper reporters, by those who are connected with mass media.

Neologisms can develop in three main ways: a lexical unit existing in the language can change its meaning to denote a new object or phenomenon. In such cases we have semantic neologisms, e.g. the word «umbrella» developed the meanings: «авиационное прикрытие», »политическое прикрытие». A new lexical unit can develop in the language to denote an object or phenomenon which already has some lexical unit to denote it. In such cases we have trans-nomination, e.g. the word «slum» was first substituted by the word «ghetto» then by the word-group «inner town». A new lexical unit can be introduced to denote a new object or phenomenon. In this case we have «a proper neologism», many of them are cases of new terminology.

Here we can point out several semantic groups when we analyze the group of neologisms connected with computerization, and here we can mention words used:

- a) to denote different types of computers, e.g. PC, super-computer, multi-user, neurocomputer / analogue of a human brain/;
- b) to denote parts of computers, e.g. hardware, software, monitor, screen, data, vapourware / experimental samples of computers for exhibition, not for production/;
- c) to denote computer languages, e.g. BASIC, Algol FORTRAN etc;
- d) to denote notions connected with work on computers, e.g. computerman,

computerization, computerize, to troubleshoot, to blitz out / to ruin data in a computer's memory/.

There are also different types of activities performed with the help of computers, many of them are formed with the help of the morpheme «tele», e.g. to telework, to telecommute / to work at home having a computer which is connected with the enterprise for which one works/. There are also such words as telebanking, telemarketing, teleshopping / when you can perform different operations with the help of your computer without leaving your home, all operations are registered by the computer at your bank/, videobank /computerized telephone which registers all information which is received in your absence/. In the sphere of linguistics we have such neologisms as: machine translation, interlingual / an artificial language for machine translation into several languages / and many others. In the sphere of biometrics we have computerized machines which can recognize characteristic features of people seeking entrance: finger-print scanner / finger prints/, biometric eye-scanner / blood-vessel arrangements in eyes/, voice verification /voice patterns/. These are types of biometric locks. Here we can also mention computerized cards with the help of which we can open the door without a key. In the sphere of medicine computers are also used and we have the following neologisms: telemonitory unit / a telemonitory system for treating patients at a distance/.

With the development of social activities neologisms appeared as well, e.g. youthquake - волнения среди молодежи, pussy-footer - политик, идущий на компромиссы, Euromarket, Eurodollar, European Parliament, Europol etc.

In the modern English society there is a tendency to social stratification, as a result there are neologisms in this sphere as well, e.g. belonger - представитель среднего класса, приверженец консервативных взглядов. To this group we can also refer abbreviations of the type yuppie /young urban professional people/, such as: muppie, gruppie, rumpie, bluppie etc. People belonging to the lowest layer of the society are called survivors, a little bit more prosperous are called sustainers, and those who try to prosper in life and imitate those, they want to belong to, are called emulators. Those who have prospered but are not belongers are called achievers. There are different semantic groups of neologisms belonging to everyday life:

a) food e.g. «starter»/ instead of «hors d'oeuvres»/, macrobiotics / raw vegetables, crude rice/ , longlife milk, clingfilm, microwave stove, consumer electronics, fridge-freezer, hamburgers /beef-, cheese-, fish-, veg- /.

b) clothing, e.g. catsuit /one-piece clinging suit/, slimster , string /miniscule bikini/, hipster / trousers or skirt with the belt on hips/, completenik / a long

sweater for trousers/, sweatnik /a long jacket/, pants-skirt, bloomers / lady's sports trousers/.

c) footwear e.g. winklepickers /shoes with long pointed toes/, thongs/open sandals/, backsters /beech sandals with thick soles/.

d) bags, e.g. bumbag /a small bag worn on the waist/, sling bag /a bag with a long belt/, maitre / a small bag for cosmetics/. There are also such words as : dangledolly / a dolly-talisman dangling in the car before the windscreen/, boot-sale /selling from the boot of the car/, touch-tone /a telephone with press-button/. Neologisms can be also classified according to the ways they are formed. They are subdivided into: phonological neologisms, borrowings, semantic neologisms and syntactical neologisms. Syntactical neologisms are divided into morphological /word-building/ and phraseological /forming word- groups/.

Phonological neologisms are formed by combining unique combinations of sounds, they are called artificial, e.g. rah-rah /a short skirt which is worn by girls during parades/, «yeck» /»yuck» which are interjections to express repulsion produced the adjective yucky/ yecky. These are strong neologisms.

Strong neologisms include also phonetic borrowings, such as «perestroika» /Russian/, «solidarnosc» /Polish/, Berufsverbot / German /, dolce vita /Italian/ etc.

Morphological and syntactical neologisms are usually built on patterns existing in the language, therefore they do not belong to the group of strong neologisms. Among morphological neologisms there are a lot of compound words of different types, such as «free-fall»-»резкое падение курса акций» appeared.

There are also abbreviations of different types, such as resto, teen /teenager/, dinky /dual income no kids yet/, ARC /AIDS-related condition, infection with AIDS/, HIV / human immuno-deficiency virus/. Quite a number of neologisms appear on the analogy with lexical units existing in the language, e.g. snowmobile /automobile/, danceaholic /alcoholic/, airtel /hotel/, cheeseburger /hamburger/, autocade /cavalcade/. There are many neologisms formed by means of affixation, such as: decompress, to disimprove, overhoused, education- alist, slimster, folknik etc. Phraseological neologisms can be subdivided into phraseological units with transferred meanings, e.g. to buy into/ to become involved/, fudge and dodge /avoidance of definite decisions/, and set non-idiomatic expressions, e.g. electronic virus, Rubic's cube, retail park, acid rain ,boot trade etc .

### **Changes in pronunciation.**

In Modern British English there is a tendency to change pronunciation of some sounds and combinations of sounds due to the influence of American English and some other factors.

There are the following changes in pronouncing vowels:

a) shortening of long vowels, especially at the end of the word and before voiceless consonants, e.g. see, keep;

b) lengthening of short vowels before voiced consonants, e.g. big, good, come, jam etc. In such adjectives which end in /d/ lengthening of the vowel is observed all over England, e.g. bad, sad, glad, mad etc.

c) drawling of stressed syllables and clipping of unstressed syllables.

d) In unstressed syllables /ɪ/ is pronounced instead of /i/, e.g. /b`ko:z/, /`evɪd ns/ etc.

e) In the words consisting of three or more syllables there is a tendency to have two main stresses, e.g. /`nes `s ri/, /`ɪnt `restɪn/.

f) The diphthong /ou/ is pronounced /u/, e.g. home /h um/, go /g u/.

g) the diphthong /u / is pronounced /o:/, e.g. sure /sho:/.

Vowels can also change under the influence of consonants:

a) after fricatives and consonants /n/ and /m/ /ju:/ is pronounced as /u:/, e.g. resume, music, news, enthusiasm.

b) before fricatives and combinations of fricatives with consonants «a» is pronounced as /æ /, e.g. dance, answer, class, fast.

The pronunciation of some consonants is also changed :

a) after a vowel /r/ is pronounced ,e.g. /ka:r/ , /ha:rt/.

b) There appears an intrusive /r/ in the combinations where after the final vowel / / there is a vowel at the beginning of the next word, e.g. the idea of, Asia and Europe/ on the analogy with word combinations there is, there are/, etc.

### **Points for discussion**

1. Neology «blowup» and the work of R. Burchfield.
2. Semantic neologisms, transnomination and proper neologisms.
3. Semantic groups of neologisms connected with computerization.
4. Social stratification and neologisms.
5. Semantic groups of neologisms referring to everyday life.
6. Phonological neologisms and borrowings as strong neologisms.
7. Morphological and syntactical neologisms.
8. Changes in pronunciation.

### Practical assignment

Analyze the following neologisms from the point of view of neology theory and also from the point of view of their morphemic structure and the way they were formed:

to clip-clip	AIDS	coup
sound barrier	to Vice-Preside	boutique
to re-familiarize	tourmobile	sevenish
to de-dramatize	non-formals	to baby-sit
to scrimp and save	fireside chat	hide-away
coin-in-the-slot	cashless society	memo
brain-drainer	movers and shakers	Euroyuppie

## Seminar 9

### BRITISH AND AMERICAN ENGLISH

#### Plan

1. Local varieties of English
2. British and American English
3. History of American English
4. Differences in pronunciation
5. Differences in the vocabulary units
6. Semantic groups in American English different from British English vocabulary units
7. Differences in the spelling

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**Objectives:** The students will be able to

- Characterize local varieties of English
- Differentiate varieties of English on different language levels.
- Give definitions for main terms.
- Discuss points of the theme.
- Do practical assignments on the theme.

**Strategies for learning:**

- Focus your attention on the procedures of the plan.
- List the most complicated and controversial questions.
- Review the notes of the lecture, follow the concise guide.

- Give an explanation for main terms in your own words.
- Answer the points for a discussion.
- Use geographical maps to match the countries and varieties of English.
- Prepare questions for a lecturer and your group mates to be answered and discussed.

### Concise guide

British and American English are two main variants of English

Some scientists /H.N. Mencken, for example/ tried to prove that there is a separate American language. In 1919 H.N. Mencken published a book called «The American Language». But most scientists, American ones including, criticized his point of view because differences between the two variants are not systematic.

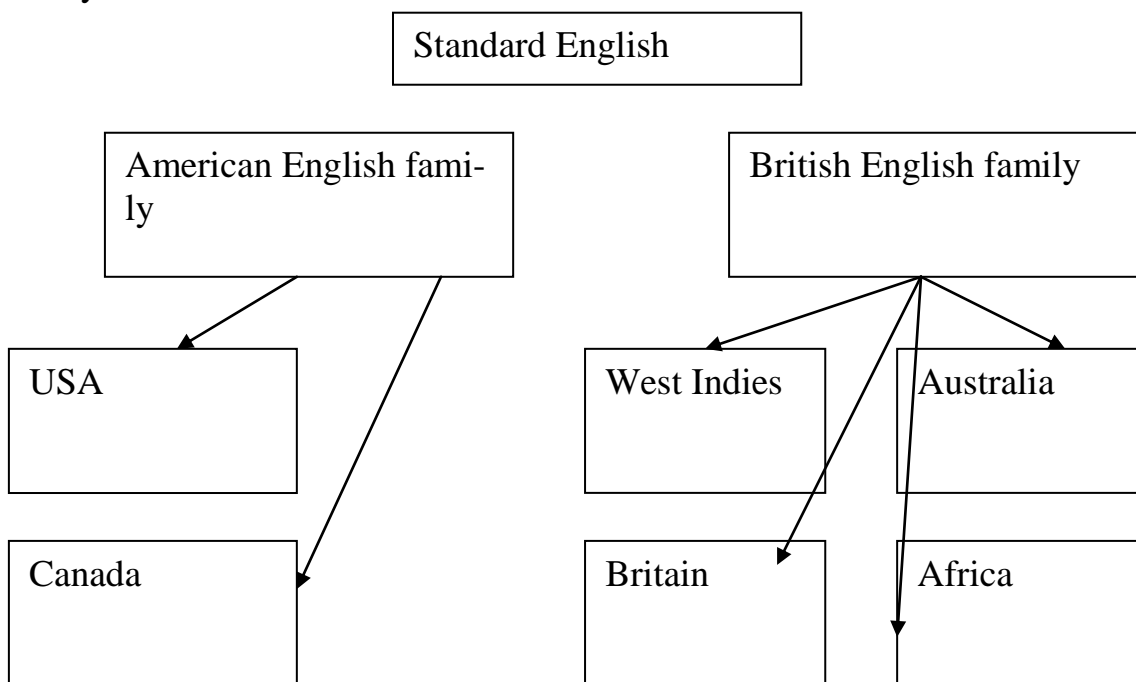


Table 16

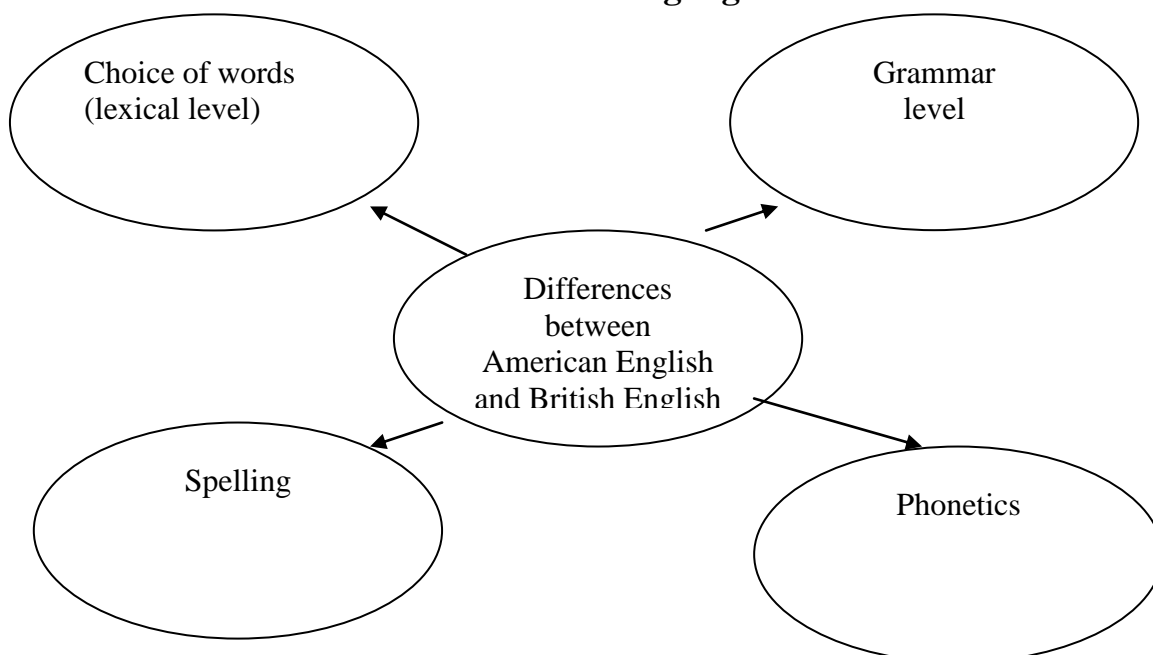
## History of American English

№	Pe-riod	Events	Peculiarities	Result
1	the 17-th c.	first English-speaking settlers began to settle on the Atlantic coast of America.	They brought the language spoken in England during the reign of Elizabeth the First.	Settlers borrowed from Indians new names for places, animals, plants, customs: «chipmunk», «igloo», «skunk», «squaw», «wigwam» English-speaking settlers mixed with settlers from other countries and borrowed some words from their languages, e.g. from French the words «bureau», «cache», «pumpkin», From Spanish such words as: «bonanza», «cockroach», «lasso», from Dutch «boss», «dope», «sleigh».
2	the 19-th century	Immigrants continued to come from Europe to America.	Large groups of immigrants came to America. Some of their words were borrowed into English.	From Italian words denoting style of cooking such as «pizza», «spaghetti», from German «delicatessen», «lager», «hamburger», «noodle», «schnitzel». There appeared quite a number of words formed due to the new political system, liberation of America from the British colonialism such as “assembly”, “congress”, “Senate”, “congressman”, “President”, “senator”, “Vice-President” and some more words denoting innovations in social spheres: “telegram”, “telephone”, “department-store” and many others.
3	Present days	American English has recently become a language-giver	The USA has made a great progress in different spheres of science and means of communication	Words are being borrowed from American English such as microcomputer, telecommute, telemarketing, finger-print scanner, voice verification

**Phonetic aspect**

Phonetic aspect	American English	British English
Pronunciation	<p>r-coloured fully articulated vowels, in the combinations: ar, er, ir, or, ur, our etc.</p> <p>In AM the sound /ʌ/, e.g. «not» corresponds to the BE / o /</p> <p>In AE before fricatives and combinations with fricatives «a» is pronounced as / æ / e.g. class, dance, answer, fast etc.</p>	<p>no such phenomenon</p> <p>Vice versa</p> <p>In BE before fricatives and combinations with fricatives «a» is pronounced as /a:/ e.g. class, dance, answer, fast etc.</p>

**Differences on language levels**

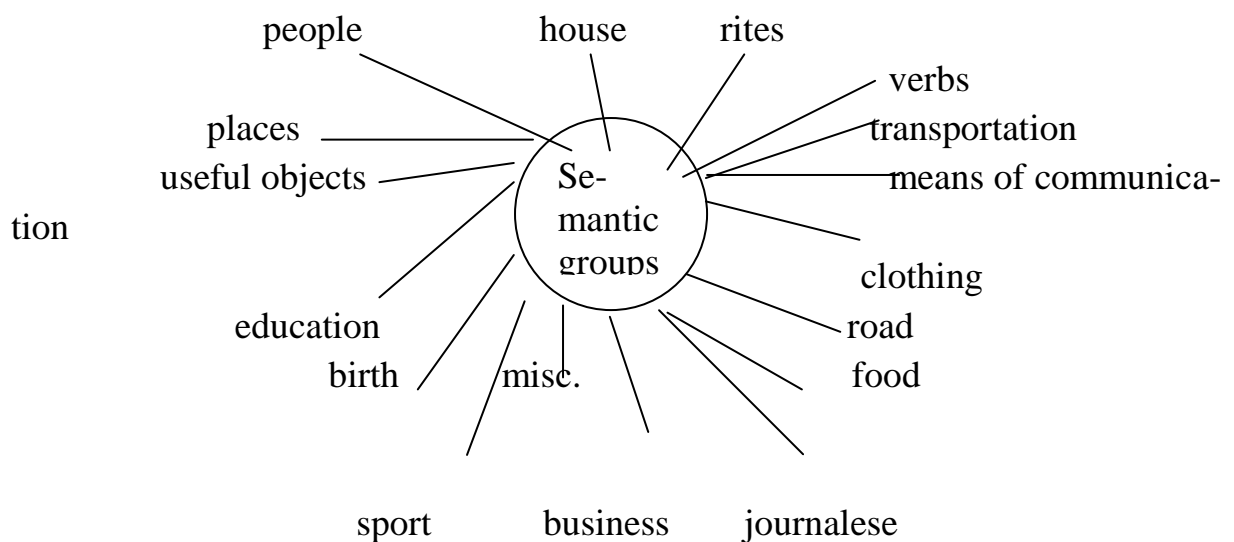


**Table 18**

**Grammar aspect**

Grammar aspect	American English	British English
Usage of prepositions	I start my vacation Friday «days» and «nights»  «a quarter of five». «on the street» «to chat with somebody»  «different than something»	I start my holiday on Friday «by day», «by night»/«at night» «a quarter to five» «in the street» «to chat to somebody»  «different from something».

**Semantic groups of the languages**



**Table 19****Differences in Names of Places**

<b>N</b>	<b>BrE</b>	<b>AmE</b>
1.	car park	Parking lot
2.	cinema	movies
3.	city centre	downtown
4.	country	nation
5.	district	neighborhood
6.	district	section
7.	filling station	gas station
8.	flat	apartment
9.	High street	Main street
10.	lift	elevator
11.	pub	bar
12.	queue	line
13.	reception	front desk
14.	seaside	beach
15.	shop	store
16.	stalls	orchestra
17.	station	depot
18.	stores	groceries
19.	studio	bed-sitter
20.	surgery	doctor's office
21.	telephone box	telephone booth
22.	toilet	restroom, washroom, bathroom
23.	twin-town	sister-city

**Table 20****Differences in Names of Road Places**

<b>N</b>	<b>BrE</b>	<b>AmE</b>
1	crossroads	intersection
2	diversion	detour
3	flyover	overpass
4	Lamp-post	street lamp/street light

5	motorway	highway
6	pavement	sidewalk
7	ring road	beltway
8	subway	pedestrian underpass
9	tube, underground	subway
10	zebra crossing	Pxing

**Table 21**

**Differences in Names of Transportation**

<b>N</b>	<b>BrE</b>	<b>AmE</b>
1	a car	an auto
2	accumulator	battery
3	barrow	pushcart
4	boot	trunk
5	bumpers	fenders
6	coach	bus
7	dynamo	generator
8	lorry	truck
9	paraffin	kerosene
10	petrol	gasoline
11	puncture	flat, blow out
12	railway	railroad
13	return ticket	round trip ticket
14	season ticket	commutation ticket
15	single ticket	one way ticket
16	to hire a car	to rent a car
17	time-table	schedule
18	tram	streetcar

**Table 22****Differences in S Names of ports**

<b>N</b>	<b>BrE</b>	<b>AmE</b>
1	football	soccer
2	American football	football
3	draughts	checkers

**Table 23****Differences in Names of House Objects**

<b>N</b>	<b>BrE</b>	<b>AmE</b>
1	bath	bathtub
2	chest-of-drawers	bureau
3	curtains	drapes
4	dust bin	garbage can
5	first floor	second floor
6	ground floor	first floor
7	living-room	drawing-room
8	passage	hall
9	sitting-room	living room
10	tap	faucet
11	wardrobe	closet

**Table 24****Differences in Names of People**

<b>N</b>	<b>BrE</b>	<b>AmE</b>
1	air hostess	flight attendant
2	barman	bartender
3	barrister	lawyer
4	bobby	cop
5	caretaker	janitor
6	cashier	teller

7	chap, fellow	guy
8	chemist	druggist
9	constable	patrolman
10	doctor	physician
11	dustman	garbage collector
12	lawyer	attorney

**Table 25**

**Differences in Names of Business Terms**

<b>N</b>	<b>BrE</b>	<b>AmE</b>
1	banknote	bill
2	bill fold	note-case
3	bribe	boodle
4	cash dispenser	ATM machine
5	company	corporation
6	hire-purchase system	installment plan
7	Limited	Incorporated
8	milliard	billion
9	rates	taxes

**Table 26**

**Differences in Names of Food**

<b>N</b>	<b>BrE</b>	<b>AmE</b>
1	aubergine	eggplant
2	beetroot	beet
3	chips	French fries
4	crisps	potato chips
5	dry biscuit	crackers
6	French turnip	rutabaga
7	grilled	broiled
8	gruel	mush
9	jelly doughnut	jam doughnut
10	maize	corn

11	minced beef	hamburger
12	minced meat	ground beef
13	porridge	oatmeal
14	spirits	liquor
15	sweet	dessert
16	sweet biscuit	cookie
17	sweets	candy
18	tin	can

**Table 27**

**Differences in Names of Clothing**

<b>N</b>	<b>BrE</b>	<b>AmE</b>
1	boot-lace	shoe-string
2	braces	suspenders
3	dinner jacket	tuxedo
4	dressing gown	bathrobe
5	fringe	bangs
6	galoshes	rubbers, overshoes
7	luggage	baggage
8	mackintosh	raincoat
9	pants	underwear
10	poloneck	turtleneck
11	tights	pantyhose
12	trainers	sneakers
13	trousers	pants
14	turn-ups	cuffs
15	vest	undershirt
16	waistcoat	vest
17	wellington boots	galoshes

**Table 28**

**Differences in Names of Useful Objects**

<b>N</b>	<b>BrE</b>	<b>AmE</b>
1	aerial (TV)	antenna
2	biro	ballpoint
3	carrier bag	shopping bag
4	cooker	stove
5	cotton-wool	absorbent cotton

6	elastic	rubber band
7	flash	thermos bottle
8	handbag	purse
9	jug	pitcher
10	liquidiser	blender
11	parcel	package
12	reel of cotton	spool of thread
13	rubber	eraser
14	serviette	napkin
15	(sticking) plaster	Band-Aid
16	torch	flashlight

**Table 29**

**Differences in Names of Education Terms**

<b>N</b>	<b>BrE</b>	<b>AmE</b>
1	elementary school	grade school
2	form	grade
3	homework	home assignment
4	to leave school	to graduate from school
5	post graduate	graduate
6	public school	private school
7	pupil	student
8	secondary school	high school
9	staff	faculty

**Table 30**

**Differences in Names of Terms of Birth**

<b>N</b>	<b>BrE</b>	<b>AmE</b>
1	a day nursery	daycare center
2	antenatal	prenatal
3	childminder	daycare provider
4	maternal wing	a hospital birthing center
5	perambulator	baby carriage

**Table 31****Differences in Names of Journalese Terms**

<b>N</b>	<b>BrE</b>	<b>AmE</b>
1	cutting	clipping
2	diary (record)	journal
3	kiosk	news-stand
4	notice	bulletin
5	news-boy	newsy

**Table 32****Differences in Names of Means of Communication**

<b>N</b>	<b>BrE</b>	<b>AmE</b>
1	express post	special delivery
2	inland post	domestic mail
3	letter-box	mailbox
4	parcel	package
5	post code	ZIP code
6	reverse charge	call collect
7	telegramme	wire
8	telegraph form	telegraph blank
9	trunk call	long distance

**Table 33****Differences in Names of Verbs**

<b>N</b>	<b>BrE</b>	<b>AmE</b>
1	to adopt	to nominate
2	to be taken/fall ill	to get sick
3	to conceal	to hold up
4	to cram	to bone up
5	to engage	to hire
6	to fill in	to fill out
7	to give way	to yield
8	to fail	to flunk
9	to lend	to loan
10	to put through	to connect
11	to relax	to let up

12	to ring up	to call up
13	to wash up	to do the dishes
14	to wash hands	to wash up
15	to work out	to figure out
16	to be tired	to be pooped

**Table 34**

**Miscellaneous.**

<b>N</b>	<b>BrE</b>	<b>AmE</b>
1	anti-clockwise	counterclockwise
2	autumn	fall
3	clever	smart
4	cock	rooster
5	engaged	busy
6	frontier	border
7	full stop	period
8	geyser	water-heater
9	government	administration
10	gramophone	phonograph
11	interval	intermission
12	sledge	sleigh
13	surname	last name
14	thrush	cat-bird
15	timber	lumber
16	wireless	radio set

**Table 35**

**Words Having Different Meanings in BrE and AmE**

<b>N</b>	<b>Word</b>	<b>Meaning</b>	
		<b>BrE</b>	<b>AmE</b>
1	apartment	комната	квартира
2	calculate	считать	предполагать, ожидать
3	calico	белая ткань	ситец
4	commute	обменивать	жить за городом и ездить на работу в город
5	corn	пшеница	кукуруза
6	crash	грохот, треск	авария, крушение
7	dessert	фрукты	десерт

8	lunch	завтрак	любое время еды
9	outfit	снаряжение	группа людей
10	pavement	тротуар	мостовая
11	pie	пирог с начинкой	пирог с верхом из начинки
12	tardy	медлительный	запоздалый

**Table 36**

**Proper Americanisms**

<b>N</b>	<b>Words</b>	<b>Translation</b>	
1	backwoods	любая малозаселенная местность	
2	blizzard	буран	
3	bluejay	канадская голубая сойка	
4	bobcat	американская рысь	
5	cold snap	кратковременное похолодание	
6	dumb	немой; глупый	
7	easy-street	богатство	
8	fat cat	тот, кто снабжает деньгами политиков	
9	frontiersman	первые поселенцы в Америке	
10	hooch	спиртной напиток	
11	Indian file	гуськом	
12	landslide	оползень; победа с большим отрывом	
13	mosquito	комар, мошка, москит	
14	muskrat	ондатра	
15	profiteering	погоня за прибылью	
16	raccoon	енот	
17	skunk	скунс, хорек	
18	squash	кабачок	
19	stampede	паническое бегство от скота	
20	third house	закулисные законодатели	
21	trail	тропа, проложенная через девственный лес	

**Table 37**

**Comparative Chart of Vowels in AmE and BrE**

<b>N</b>	<b>AmE</b>	<b>BrE</b>	<b>Examples</b>
1	i	i:	seat
2	e	e,	set
3	æ	æ	sat

4	i, i	i	sit,
5	ɜ <sup>r</sup>	ɜ:	bird
6	ə,	ə	centre, data
7	a	o	dot
8	æ, a	a:	dance
9	o	o:	sort, shawl
10	u <sup>ə</sup>	u:	boot
11	a, ɜ <sup>r</sup>		but, hurry
12	u	u	put
13	ei	ei	bake, die
14	ai	ai	bike, day
15	au, a:, o:	au	now
16	ou, oi	ou	go
17	oi	oi	boy
18	(ir)	iə	here
19	(r)	ə	there
20	(or)	oə	more
21	(ur)	uə	sure

**Table 38**

**Aspects of spelling**

American English	British English	conclusion
color , honor, favor, flavor, neighbor traveler, traveling theater, center catalog, monolog, dialog, program defense, offense, license , thro, tho	colour, honour, favour, flavour, neighbour traveller, travelling theatre, centre,catalogue, monologue, dialogue, programme, defence, offence, licence through, though.	The deletion of the letter «u» in words ending in «our». The deletion of the second consonant in words with double consonants. The replacement of «re» by «er» in words of French origin. The deletion of unpronounced endings in words of Romanic origin. The replacement of «ce» by «se» in words of Roman-

		ic origin. Deletion of unpronounced endings in native words.
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### Points for discussion

1. Speak on history of American English.
2. What are the peculiarities of the vocabulary of American English?
3. What are the grammatical peculiarities of the American English?
4. Describe some of the phonetic divergences in both varieties of English.
5. What other regional varieties of English do you know?

### Practical assignments

1. Complete the missing parts of the table.

No	Period	Events	Peculiarities	Result
1	the 17th c.	first English-speaking settlers began to settle on the Atlantic coast of America.		Settlers borrowed from Indians new names for places, animals, plants, customs: «chipmunk», «igloo», «skunk», «squaw», «wigwam» English-speaking settlers mixed with settlers from other countries and borrowed some words from their languages, e.g. from French the words «bureau», «cache», «pumpkin», From Spanish such words as: «bonanza», «cockroach», «lasso», from Dutch «boss», «dope», «sleigh».
2	the 19th century		Large groups of immigrants came to America. Some of their words were borrowed into English.	

3		American English has recently become a language-giver		Words are being borrowed from American English such as microcomputer, telecommute, telemarketing, finger-print scanner, voice verification
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2. Find British equivalents for the following American words.

Pants, sidewalk, streetcar, subway, apartment, elevator, ballpoint, faucet, eraser, can, cookie, ground beef, French fries, pantyhose, vest, suspenders, raincoat, lawyer, faculty, guy, fall, to rent a car.

## Seminar 10

### LEXICOGRAPHY

#### Plan

1. Historical development of British lexicography.
2. Historical development of American lexicography.
3. Classification of dictionaries.

#### References:

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. Лексикология английского языка: [уч. пособие для пед.вузов] / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. – 8-е изд., стереотип. – М.: Дрофа, 2008. – 288 с.
2. Апресян Ю.Д. Лексическая семантика. Синонимические средства языка/ Ю.Д. Апресян. – М.: Наука, 1974. –165 с.
3. Арнольд И. В. The English Word. Лексикология современного английского языка : [учеб. для ин-тов и фак. иностр. яз.] / И. В. Арнольд. – 3-е изд., перераб. и доп. – М. : Высш. шк., 1986. – 295 с.
4. Верба Л.Г. Порівняльна лексикологія англійської та української мов/  
Л.Г.Верба. Вінниця: Нова книга, 2003. –160 с.
5. Дубенец Э. М. Лексикология современного английского языка: лекции и семинары. Пособие для студентов гуманитарных вузов/ Э. М. Дубенец. – М.: «Глосса-Пресс», 2002. – 192 с.

**Objectives:** The students will be able to

- Speak on historical development of British and American lexicography.
- Classify dictionaries.
- Give definitions for main terms.
- Discuss points of the theme.

**Strategies for learning:**

- Focus your attention on the procedures of the plan.
- List the most complicated and controversial questions.
- Review the notes of the lecture, follow the concise guide.
- Give an explanation for main terms in your own words.
- Answer the points for a discussion.
- Prepare questions for a lecturer and your group mates to be answered and discussed.

## Outline

The theory and practice of compiling dictionaries is called lexicography. The history of compiling dictionaries for English dates back to the Old English period, where we can find glosses of religious books / interlinear translations from Latin into English/.

In 1721 an English scientist and writer Nathan Bailey published the first etymological dictionary which explained the origin of English words. It was the first scientific dictionary, it was compiled for philologists.

In 1775 an English scientist compiled a famous explanatory dictionary. Its author was Samuel Johnson. Every word in his dictionary was illustrated by examples from English literature, the meanings of words were clear from the contexts in which they were used.. The dictionary was a great success and it influenced the development of lexicography in all countries. The dictionary influenced normalization of the English vocabulary. But at the same time it helped to preserve the English spelling in its conservative form.

In 1858 one of the members of the English philological society Dr. Trench raised the question of compiling a dictionary including all the words existing in the language.

More than a thousand people took part in collecting examples, and 26 years later in 1884 the first volume was published.

It contained words beginning with «A» and «B». The last volume was published in 1928 that is 70 years after the decision to compile it was adopted. The dictionary was called NED and contained 12 volumes.

In 1933 the dictionary was republished under the title «The Oxford English Dictionary», because the work on the dictionary was conducted in Oxford. This dictionary contained 13 volumes. As the dictionary was very large and terribly expensive scientists continued their work.

They compiled shorter editions of the dictionary: «A Shorter Oxford Dictionary» consisting of two volumes. It had the same number of entries, but far less examples from literature. They also compiled «A Concise Oxford Dictionary» consisting of one volume and including only modern words and no examples from literature.

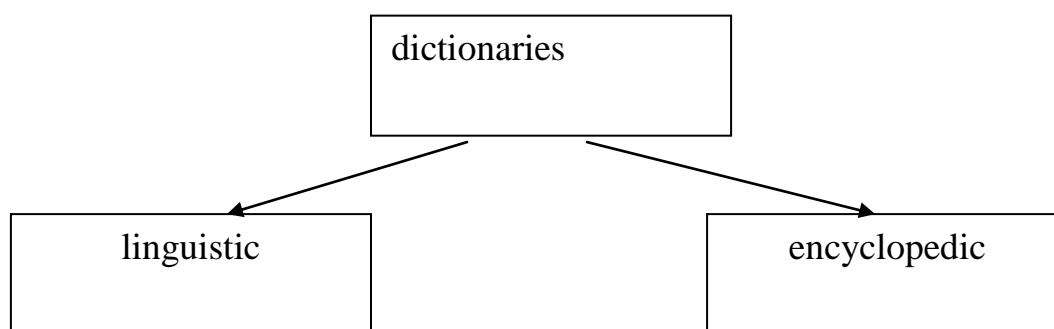
### American lexicography

The American lexicography began to develop at the end of the 18-th century. The most famous American English dictionary was compiled by Noah Webster. He was an active state man and public man and he published his first dictionary in 1806.

He went on with his work on the dictionary and in 1828 he published a two-volume dictionary. He tried to simplify the English spelling and transcription. He introduced the alphabetical system of transcription where he used letters and combinations of letters instead of transcription signs. He denoted vowels in closed syllables by the corresponding vowels, e.g. / a/, /e/, / i/, / o/, /u/. He denoted vowels in the open syllable by the same letters, but with a dash above them, e.g. / a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/. He denoted vowels in the position before /r/ as the same letters with two dots above them, e.g. / a/, /o/ and by the letter «e» with two dots above it for the combinations «er», «ir», «ur» because they are pronounced identically. The same tendency is preserved for other sounds : /u:/ is denoted by /oo/, /y/ is used for the sound /j/ etc.

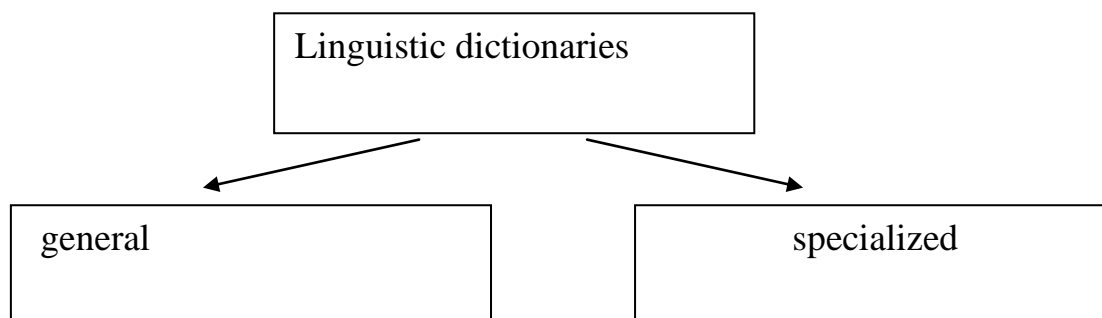
### Classification of dictionaries

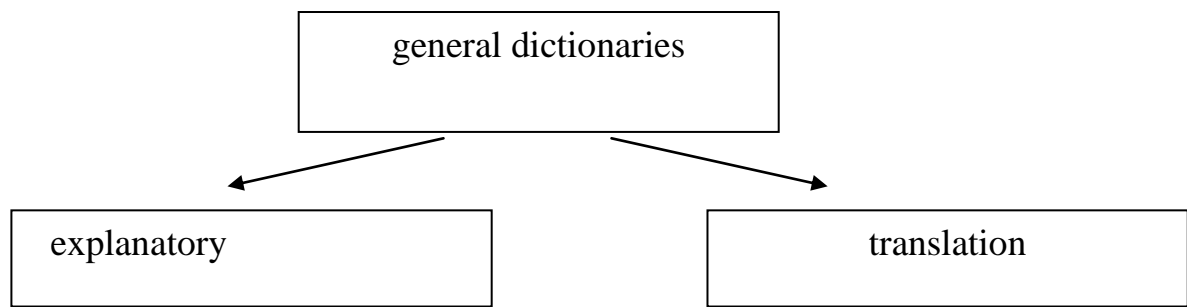
All dictionaries are divided into linguistic and encyclopedic



Encyclopedic dictionaries describe different objects, phenomena, people and give some data about them.

Linguistic dictionaries describe vocabulary units, their semantic structure, their origin, their usage. Words are usually given in the alphabetical order.





Specialized dictionaries include dictionaries :  
 of synonyms,  
 antonyms,  
 collocations,  
 word-frequency,  
 neologisms,  
 slang,  
 pronouncing,  
 etymological,  
 phraseological and others.

All types of dictionaries can be unilingual (excepting translation ones if the explanation is given in the same language, bilingual if the explanation is given in another language and also they can be polylingual.

There are a lot of explanatory dictionaries (NED (New English Dictionary), SOD (Shorter Oxford Dictionary), COD (Concise Oxford Dictionary), NID (New international dictionary), N. G. Wyld's «Universal Dictionary» and others.

There are a lot of explanatory dictionaries (NED (New English Dictionary), SOD (Shorter Oxford Dictionary), COD (Concise Oxford Dictionary), NID (New international dictionary), N. G. Wyld's «Universal Dictionary» and others.

In explanatory dictionaries the entry consists of the spelling, transcription, grammatical forms, meanings, examples, phraseology.

Pronunciation is given either by means of the International Transcription System or in British Phonetic Notation which is different in each large dictionary, e.g. /o:/ can be indicated as / aw/, /or/, /oh/, /o/. etc.

Translation dictionaries give words and their equivalents in the other language. There are English-Russian dictionaries by I.R. Galperin, by Y. Apresyan and others. Among general dictionaries we can also mention Learner's dictionaries. They began to appear in the second half of the 20-th century.

The most famous is «The Advanced Learner's Dictionary» by A. S. Hornby. It is a unilingual dictionary based on COD, for advanced foreign learners and language teachers. It gives data about grammatical and lexical valency of words.

Specialized dictionaries of synonyms are also widely used, one of them is «A Dictionary of English Synonyms and Synonymous Expressions» by R. Soule. Another famous one is «Webster's Dictionary of Synonyms». These are unilingual dictionaries.

Specialized dictionaries of synonyms are also widely used, one of them is «A Dictionary of English Synonyms and Synonymous Expressions» by R. Soule. Another famous one is «Webster's Dictionary of Synonyms». These are unilingual dictionaries. The best known bilingual dictionary of synonyms is «English Synonyms» compiled by Y. Apresyan.

In 1981 «The Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English» was compiled, where words are given in 14 semantic groups of everyday nature. Each word is defined in detail, its usage is explained and illustrated, synonyms, antonyms are presented also. It describes 15000 items, and can be referred to dictionaries of synonyms and to explanatory dictionaries.

Phraseological dictionaries describe idioms and colloquial phrases, proverbs. Some of them have examples from literature.

Some lexicographers include not only word-groups but also anomalies among words. In «The Oxford Dictionary of English Proverbs» each proverb is illustrated by a lot of examples, there are stylistic references as well.

Etymological dictionaries trace present-day words to the oldest forms of these words and forms of these words in other languages. One of the best etymological dictionaries was compiled by W. Skeat.

Pronouncing dictionaries record only pronunciation. The most famous is D. Jones' s «Pronouncing Dictionary». Dictionaries of neologisms are : a four-volume «Supplement to NED» by Burchfield, «The Longman Register of New Words»/1990/, «Bloomsbury Dictionary of New Words» /1996/.

### **Points for discussion**

- Historical development of British lexicography.
- Historical development of American lexicography.
- Classification of dictionaries.

## Progress Test 2

1. Phraseology studies ...
  - 1) free word-combinations and phraseological units
  - 2) graphic abbreviations
  - 3) synonyms and homonymy
  - 4) lexical homonymy
  - 5) phrasal verbs
2. Which of the following phraseological units are phraseological combinations?
  - 1) to come into fashion
  - 2) to kick the bucket
  - 3) to show one's teeth
  - 4) red tape
  - 5) to bear malice
3. Complete the following idiom as sly as ...
  - 1) a cat
  - 2) a fox
  - 3) a rock
  - 4) an owl
  - 5) a rose
4. Who was the 1st to introduce the term "phraseological unit"?
  - 1) V. H. Collins
  - 2) V.V. Vinogradov
  - 3) G.B. Antrushina
  - 4) V. Koonin
  - 5) M. Dubenets
5. Who classified phraseological units according to the way they are formed?
  - 1) I.V. Arnold
  - 2) V. H. Collins
  - 3) N. Amosova
  - 4) A.V. Koonin
  - 5) A.I. Smirnitsky
6. How many groups of phraseological units did I.V Arnold suggest in her classification?
  - 1) 5
  - 2) 6
  - 3) 4
  - 4) 7
  - 5) 8

7. What criterion of distinguishing phraseological units from free word-groups is accepted by most Russian scholars as the major one?

- 1) Semantic
- 2) Structural
- 3) Grammatical
- 4) Phonetic
- 5) Lexical

8. "To have your tongue in your cheek"

- 1) to keep a secret
- 2) to say smth. and mean smth. else
- 3) to be silent, not to speak much
- 4) to pull faces
- 5) to be deep in thought

9. Find an Americanism

- 1) luggage
- 2) flat
- 3) railway
- 4) subway
- 5) sweets

10. What word belongs to British English?

- 1) Elevator
- 2) Automobile
- 3) truck
- 4) Chemist
- 5) mail

## II.

Find the dominant synonym in the following groups of synonyms. Explain your choice.

To astonish- to surprise- to amaze- to astound

To flash- to shine- to blaze- to gleam

To shiver— to shudder- to tremble- to shake

To produce- to make- to create- to fabricate

To yell- to bellow- to roar- to shout

## III.

Write the following words according to the American norms of spelling.

Honour, labour, centre, metre, defence, offence, catalogue, abridgement, gramm, enfold, marvellous.

## IV.

Write the following words according to the British norms of spelling.

Judgment, practise, instill, color, flavor, check, program, woolen, humor, theater.

## CONCLUSION

**Dear students,** at the end of the course of English Lexicology **you learned:**

- Contemporary scientific –theoretical ideas in the field of linguistics.
- Terminological system of lexicology as a science.
- Main steps of historical development of lexicology.
- Main factors and laws of development of lexical units, lexical and phraseological systems of English.
- Peculiarities of structure and semantics of lexical units.
- Main techniques of linguistic analysis and description.
- Modern views on varieties of English.
- Tendencies in Modern lexicography.

**You can** solve the following professional-adaptive objectives:

- Analyze linguistic theories in a critical and creative way.
- Analyze specific language units and generalize language facts of modern state of English in terms of socio-cultural, ethno-linguistic conditions of its formation.
- Explain specific features of Modern English from the point of view its history, etymology and others factors.
- Interpret structural and semantic changes of lexical and phraseological units in the course of time.
- Fulfill independent research of language phenomena in a native and a foreign language.
- Use functions of languages in an adequate way.
- Explain and present language material in a professional sphere.
- Use scientific, encyclopedic resources in English, Ukrainian and other languages, dictionaries of different types.
- Master methodology of linguistic researches and professional competence.

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**Latin affixes**

Nouns	The suffix -ion	communion, legion, opinion, session, union, etc.
	The suffix -tion	relation, revolution, starvation, temptation, unification, etc.
Verbs	The suffix -ate [eit]	appreciate, create, congratulate, etc.
	The suffix -ute [ju:t]	attribute, contribute, constitute, distribute, etc.
	The remnant suffix -ct	act, conduct, collect, connect, etc.
	The remnant suffix -d(e)	applaud, divide, exclude, include, etc.
	The prefix dis-	disable, distract, disown, disagree, etc.
Adjectives	The suffix -able	detestable, curable, etc.
	The suffix -ate [it]	accurate, desperate, graduate, etc.
	The suffix -ant	arrogant, constant, important, etc.
	The suffix -ent	absent, convenient, decent, evident, etc.
	The suffix -or	major, minor, junior, senior, etc.
	The suffix -al	cordial, final, fraternal, maternal, etc.
	The suffix -ar	lunar, solar, familiar, etc.

## Some Native Suffixes

Noun-forming	-er	worker, <i>miner</i> , teacher, painter, etc.
	-ness	<i>coldness, loneliness, loveliness</i> , etc.
	-ing	<i>feeling, meaning, singing, reading</i> , etc.
	-dom	<i>freedom, wisdom, kingdom</i> , etc.
	-hood	<i>childhood, manhood, motherhood</i> , etc.
	-ship	<i>friendship, companionship, master-ship</i> , etc.
	-th	<i>length, breadth, health, truth</i> , etc.
Adjective-forming	-ful	<i>careful, joyful, wonderful, sinful, skilful</i> , etc.
	-less	<i>careless, sleepless, cloudless, sense-less</i> , etc.
	-y	<i>cozy, tidy, merry, snowy, showy</i> , etc.
	-ish	<i>English, Spanish, reddish, childish</i> , etc.
	-ly	<i>lonely, lovely, ugly, likely, lordly</i> , etc.
	-en	<i>wooden, woollen, silken, golden</i> , etc.
	-some	<i>handsome, quarrelsome, tiresome</i> , etc.
Verb-forming	-en	<i>widen, redden, darken, sadden</i> , etc.
Adverb-forming	-ly	<i>warmly, hardly, simply, carefully, coldly</i> , etc.

### Appendix 3

#### Some Productive Affixes

Noun-forming suffixes	-er, -ing, -ness, -ism <sup>1</sup> ( <i>materialism</i> ), -ist ( <i>impressionist</i> ), -ance
Adjective-forming suffixes	-y, -ish, -ed ( <i>learned</i> ), -able, -less
Adverb-forming suffix	-ly
Verb-forming suffix	-ize/-ise ( <i>realise</i> ), -ate
Prefixes	un- ( <i>unhappy</i> ), re- ( <i>reconstruct</i> ), dis- ( <i>disappoint</i> )

### Appendix 4

#### Some Non-Productive Affixes

Noun-forming suffixes	-th, -hood
Adjective-forming suffixes	-ly, -some, -en, -ous
Verb-forming suffix	-en

### Appendix 5

#### The Etymological Structure of English Vocabulary

The native element	The borrowed element
I. Indo-European element	I. Celtic (5th — 6th c. A. D.)
II. Germanic element	II. Latin 1st group: 1st c. B. C. 2nd group: 7th c. A. D. 3rd group: the Renaissance period

<p>III. English Proper element (no earlier than 5th c. A. D.)</p>	<p>III. Scandinavian (8th — 11th c. A. D.)  IV. French 1. Norman borrowings: 11th — 13th c. A. D. 2. Parisian borrowings (Renaissance)  V. Greek (Renaissance)  VI. Italian (Renaissance and later) VII. Spanish (Renaissance and later)  VIII. German  IX. Indian  X. Russian And some other groups</p>
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## Appendix 6

### CLASSIFICATION OF SYNONYMS

term	definition	examples
synonyms	They are words different in their outer aspects, but identical or similar in their inner aspects.	Hearty (native)- cordial (borrowing)
Absolute synonyms	They are words which have exactly the same meaning and belong to the same style.	To moan - to groan Homeland - motherland
Semantic synonyms	They are words which specialize in their meanings.	Town (native) - city (borrowing) Stool (native) - chair (borrowing)

Stylistic synonyms	They are words which specialize in their usage.	To begin (native)- to commence (borrowing) Welkin(native)- sky (borrowing)
Synonyms - abbreviations (colloquial style)	They appear by means of abbreviation.	Examination (neutral)- exam (colloquial) Mathematics(neutral)- Math(s) (colloquial)
Synonyms - euphemisms	They substitute unpleasant or offensive words.	The late (euph.) – dead (neutral) To perspire (euph.) – to sweat (neutral)
Slang synonyms	Expressive, harsh, vulgar words.	Beans, brass, dibs, dough (sl.) – money (neutral) Attic, nut, upper storey (sl.) – head (neutral)
Phraseological synonyms	They are identical in meanings and styles but different in their combinability.	To be late for lecture- to miss a train To visit museums – to attend lectures
Contextual synonyms	Words which are similar in meaning under distributional conditions. (different words means the same in the context)	But and get I'll go to the shop and buy some bread. I'll go to the shop and get some bread. Bear and stand I can't stand you. I can't bear you.

**Sample themes for course papers**

- 1) Black English Vernacular as a Socio-ethnic dialect of English language.
- 2) Suffixation as a way of word-formation.
- 3) Suffixation of nouns.
- 4) Americanisms in English.
- 5) Idioms and Expressions about Motherhood.
- 6) Splinters in Modern English
- 7) Comparative features of Ukrainian and Russian proverbs
- 8) Foreign borrowings in Modern English
- 9) Meanings of prefixes in Modern English.
- 10) Newspaper headline language
- 11) Borrowings in English.
- 12) Morphology in English (suffixes, prefixes)
- 13) Types of dictionaries.
- 14) Idioms as a way of enriching the English vocabulary
- 15) The peculiarities of newspaper headline language in Mass Media.
- 16) Idioms: Relationships & Love.
- 17) The current thinking on the role of vocabulary.
- 18) Lexical development; vocabulary changes.
- 19) Aspects of Modern Professional terminology.
- 20) Professional terminology. Semantic field describing educational sphere.
- 21) Morphological affixes of foreign origin in English borrowings.
- 22) Pragmatic aspects of a text of advertisement.
- 23) A businessman's notebook as a genre of official speech production.
- 24) Foreign borrowings in Modern English.
- 25) Idioms and phrasal verbs.
- 26) Historical roots of Modern English Dialects in Britain.

For notes