Е.Ю. Горбунов

ЛЕКСИКОЛОГИЯ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

Электронное
учебно-методическое
пособие

Учебно-методическое пособие направлено на развитие у студентов необходимых профессиональных компетенций в области лексикологии английского языка. Содержание пособия соответствует требованиям ФГОС высшего образования (3++) в области подготовки учителя иностранных языков.

Предназначено для студентов третьего курса, обучающихся по направлению подготовки бакалавров 44.03.05 «Педагогическое образование», направленность (профиль) «Английский язык; французский язык»; «Английский язык; второй иностранный язык», очной формы обучения. Пособие может быть использовано в обучении бакалавров смежных направлений подготовки.

Текстовое электронное издание.

Рекомендовано к изданию научно-методическим советом Тольяттинского государственного университета.

Минимальные системные требования: IBM PC-совместимый компьютер: Windows XP/Vista/7/8; PIII 500 МГц или эквивалент; 128 Мб ОЗУ; SVGA; CD-ROM; Adobe Acrobat Reader.

Contents

ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Учебно-методическое пособие «Лексикология английского языка» предназначено для студентов третьего курса, обучающихся по направлению подготовки бакалавров 44.03.05 «Педагогическое образование», направленность (профиль) «Английский язык; французский язык»; «Английский язык; второй иностранный язык», очной формы обучения.

Цель освоения — развитие лингвистических, прагматических, стратегических, социокультурных и коммуникативных компетенций при помощи передачи теоретических знаний о лексических единицах и создание у студентов представления о словарном составе языка как о системе.

Задачи изучения дисциплины:
— сформировать знания о базовых понятиях лексикологии как науки о словарном составе языка, об основных точках зрения на компонентный состав лексики в языке, о роли и функциях морфем в структуре слова, роли и функциях сем в значении слова;
— сформировать умения производить морфологический анализ слова, вычленять семы в структуре значения слова, группировать слова по сходству значения и по сходству формы;
— сформировать представления об основных типах образования слов в английском языке, о принципах лингвистического анализа лексических единиц, о территориальных вариантах английского языка, о языковой норме и отклонениях от нее.

В процессе изучения дисциплины «Лексикология» студент должен
✓ *знать*:
— базовые понятия лексикологии английского языка;
— основные точки зрения на компонентный состав лексики в языковой системе;
— основные типы образования слов в английском языке;
— принципы лингвистического анализа лексических единиц;
— формальную, логическую и семантическую структуру слова-знака;
— роль и функции морфем в структуре слова; роль и функции сем в значении слова;

✓ *уметь*:

— анализировать и описывать морфологическую структуру и словообразовательные модели слов;

— вычленять семы в структуре значения слова;

— работать с различными типами словарей;

✓ *владеть навыками*:

— использования лексикологических понятий и терминов;

— проведения лингвистического анализа свободных и связанных лексических единиц;

— применения полученных теоретических знаний на практике в процессе межкультурной коммуникации;

— использования печатных и электронных справочных материалов (энциклопедии, корпусы текстов, словари, тезаурусы).

Данное учебно-методическое пособие призвано решить все поставленные выше задачи. Перечисленные знания, умения и навыки нужны для формирования необходимых профессиональных компетенций учителя иностранных языков.

Цель пособия — изложить и объяснить в доступной форме особенности лексического строя английского языка, закономерности его функционирования, познакомить с лингвистическими методами исследования лексических единиц.

Учебно-методическое пособие охватывает всю программу изучаемой дисциплины. Теоретический материал тесно связан с материалами для практической и самостоятельной работы. Пособие включает тезисы лекций (Short outline of the themes); вопросы для собеседования; практические задания и упражнения (Practical Tasks); тесты (Tests); перечень тем для подготовки эссе (прил. Б); список рекомендуемой учебной литературы на русском и английском языках; интернет-ресурсы; глоссарий лингвистических (лексикологических) терминов.

Методические указания по контактной работе

С учетом специфики изучаемой студентами теоретической (лингвистической) дисциплины «Лексикология» наиболее эффективной типовой формой проведения семинарского занятия является *собеседование*.

Методические указания для проведения собеседования

После прослушивания лекции необходимо самостоятельно проработать теоретическую часть методических материалов (Short outline of the themes) учебно-методического пособия по заданной теме, изучить рекомендуемую учебную литературу, начать подготовку к собеседованию в соответствии с указанным перечнем вопросов.

На семинарском занятии, после того, как преподаватель озвучит вопрос, необходимо выступить с заранее подготовленным связным, целостным и информативным устным сообщением (1—3 минуты). Следует сформулировать необходимые для ответа примеры — характерные и максимально разнообразные; категорически не рекомендуется повторение примеров из тезисов лекции. В случае необходимости нужно быть готовым ответить на дополнительные вопросы преподавателя и студентов, а также предоставить свои записи подготовки к семинару.

Целесообразно не ограничиваться заявленными вопросами по теме и попытаться предположить, какие вопросы могут возникнуть по ходу обсуждения темы, или сформулировать свои вопросы для обсуждения (в том числе оставшиеся неясными или непонятными при изучении темы).

Методические указания по выполнению самостоятельной работы

Самостоятельная работа студентов является неотъемлемой частью эффективного освоения курса «Лексикология». Эта работа может выполняться в научной библиотеке университета, учебных аудиториях, компьютерных классах, а также в домашних условиях. Содержание самостоятельной работы определяется рабочей программой дисциплины, а также учебно-методическими материалами пособия (*практические задания и упражнения* к семинарским занятиям, *тестовые задания*, подготовка *эссе*).

Методические указания для выполнения практических заданий и упражнений

После прослушивания лекции необходимо в течение недели самостоятельно проработать практическую часть методических материалов (Practical Tasks) пособия по заданной теме в письменном

виде, руководствуясь примерами (Examples) выполнения упражнений семинарских занятий. Проверка и оценивание выполненных заданий происходит на семинарском занятии в форме обсуждения с преподавателем.

Методические указания для подготовки к тестированию

Предлагаемые в пособии тестовые задания (темы 2.3, 3.1, 4.1, 5.1, 6.1, 7.1, 8.1) разработаны в соответствии с рабочей программой дисциплины «Лексикология», что позволяет оценить знания студентов по ключевым модулям изучаемого курса:
— Module 2. *English Word-Stock*.
— Module 3. *Lexical Morphology*.
— Module 4. *English word formation*.
— Module 5. *Word origins*.
— Module 6. *Lexical Stylistics*.
— Module 7. *English Idioms*.
— Module 8. *Variants of English*.

Тестовые задания могут использоваться:
— студентами при подготовке к экзамену в форме самопроверки знаний;
— преподавателем для проверки знаний в качестве формы промежуточного контроля на семинарских занятиях 9—15;
— для проверки остаточных знаний студентов, изучивших данный курс.

Для выполнения тестового задания прежде всего нужно внимательно прочитать поставленный вопрос. Затем следует ознакомиться с предлагаемыми вариантами ответов и выбрать один индекс (буквенное обозначение), соответствующий правильному ответу.

При подведении итогов по выполненной работе рекомендуется проанализировать допущенные ошибки, прокомментировать имеющиеся в тестах неправильные ответы.

Методические указания для подготовки эссе

Эссе представляет собой результат самостоятельного изучения и анализа студентом дополнительного материала по дисциплине «Лексикология». Для подготовки эссе прежде всего следует определиться с темой (прил. Б).

Рекомендации по структуре эссе

Эссе должно содержать ярко выраженные вводную часть, главную часть и заключение. Во вводной части указывается тема и проблема эссе. В нескольких параграфах главной части высказываются и обосновываются аргументы, подтверждающие или опровергающие проблемное заявление из введения. В заключении подводится общий итог.

Структура параграфа

Первое предложение должно содержать основную мысль (аргумент, утверждение), которое будет обосновываться последующими предложениями. Заключительное предложение либо повторяет основную мысль параграфа, либо просто завершает аргументацию. Предложения, составляющие параграф, должны подчиняться общей логике повествования и координироваться при помощи слов-связок.

Рекомендации по стилю и языку

Повествование должно вестись от третьего лица и быть максимально объективным. Следует избегать общеизвестных или неаргументированных утверждений. Недопустимы заимствования из Интернета и других источников без оформления цитирования и ссылок на источники. Любое цитирование должно быть уместным и снабженным личными комментариями. Следует придерживаться формального стиля изложения, избегать использования фразовых глаголов и других разговорных или сленговых слов и выражений.

Требования к оформлению
— объем — 3—4 страницы формата А4, набранные в редакторе MS Word системным шрифтом Times New Roman, размером 12 пунктов, с полуторным интервалом;
— поля со всех сторон должны быть по 20 мм.

Преподаватель проверяет эссе на предмет соответствия необходимым требованиям к оформлению и критериям оценки.

Виды текущего контроля

Видами текущего контроля являются: *собеседование*, *практические задания и упражнения*, *тест*, *эссе*.

Собеседование

Собеседование проходит в формате общения преподавателя со студентами по изученной теме и рассчитано на выявление объема знаний студента по теме.

Процедура оценивания

Форма проведения: устная. Контроль знаний.

Критерии и нормы оценки: соответствие вопросу; полнота информации; наличие примеров; отсутствие терминологических ошибок.

Максимальное количество баллов за задание — 10.

• 10 баллов получает студент, если ответ полностью соответствует вопросу, содержит полную информацию по вопросу, иллюстрируется примерами; терминологические ошибки в ответе отсутствуют;

• 8 баллов — если ответ соответствует вопросу, но содержит неточности, не является полным и исчерпывающим, иллюстрируется примерами; содержит не более двух негрубых терминологических ошибок;

• 6 баллов — если ответ соответствует вопросу, но содержит неточности, не является полным и исчерпывающим, иллюстрируется примерами; содержит не более четырех негрубых терминологических ошибок;

• 4 балла — если ответ студента в целом соответствует вопросу, иллюстрируется примерами; содержит не более шести негрубых терминологических ошибок;

• 2 балла — если ответ студента в целом соответствует вопросу, но отражает только необходимый минимум знаний по теме собеседования, примеры отсутствуют; содержит не более шести негрубых терминологических ошибок;

• 0 баллов — если ответ содержит неверную информацию по вопросу, не соответствует теме или студент отказывается отвечать на вопросы.

Практические задания и упражнения

Практическое задание — оценочное средство текущего контроля, состоящее в совместном групповом обсуждении или проверке выполненных упражнений по всем темам курса лексикологии английского языка. В ходе обсуждения студент получает обратную связь от преподавателя и может таким образом скорректировать процесс продвижения по курсу и понять, на что следует обратить внимание, как следует правильно проводить терминологический, этимологический, компонентный и лексикографический анализ.

Процедура оценивания

Форма проведения: устная. Контроль знаний.

Критерии и нормы оценки: правильность выполнения, полнота информации, отсутствие ошибок.

Максимальное количество баллов за задание — 3.

• 3 балла — задание выполнено полностью и правильно;
• 2 балла — задание выполнено полностью, но с ошибками;
• 1 балл — задание выполнено не полностью;
• 0 баллов — задание не выполнено.

Тест

Задание с вариантами ответов. Студенту необходимо выбрать в каждом задании один вариант ответа. Тестовое задание проверяется преподавателем в рамках внеаудиторной работы.

Процедура оценивания

Форма проведения: письменная. Контроль знаний.

Критерии и нормы оценки: правильность выбора ответа.

Максимальное количество баллов за задание — 10.

• 10 баллов — 95—100 % правильных ответов;
• 9 баллов — 85—94 % правильных ответов;
• 8 баллов — 75—84 % правильных ответов;
• 7 баллов — 65—74 % правильных ответов;
• 6 баллов — 55—64 % правильных ответов;
• 5 баллов — 45—54 % правильных ответов;
• 4 балла — 35—44 % правильных ответов;
• 3 балла — 25—34 % правильных ответов;

- 2 балла — 15—24 % правильных ответов;
- 1 балл — 5—14 % правильных ответов;
- 0 баллов — 0—4 % правильных ответов.

Эссе

Эссе представляет собой результат самостоятельного изучения и анализа студентом дополнительного материала по основным темам дисциплины. Работа проверяется преподавателем в рамках внеаудиторной работы.

Процедура оценивания

Форма проведения: письменная.

Критерии и нормы оценки: оформление, структура, грамотность, научный стиль, полнота информации.

Максимальное количество баллов за задание — 10.

- 10 баллов — работа полностью завершена. Эссе демонстрирует глубокое понимание описываемых процессов. Приведены интересные дискуссионные материалы. Грамотно используется научная лексика. Предлагается собственная интерпретация или развитие темы.

- 8 баллов — почти полностью выполнены важные компоненты работы. Эссе демонстрирует понимание основных моментов, хотя некоторые детали не уточняются. Научная лексика используется, но иногда некорректно. В большинстве случаев предлагается собственная интерпретация темы.

- 6 баллов — не все важнейшие компоненты работы выполнены. Неполное понимание темы. Научная терминология используется некорректно. Студент иногда предлагает свою интерпретацию. Содержит несколько грубых лексических и/или грамматических ошибок.

- 4 балла — работа демонстрирует минимальное понимание темы. Минимум терминов. Работа не структурирована. Содержит многочисленные лексические, грамматические ошибки.

- 2 балла — работа фрагментарна и демонстрирует минимальное понимание темы. Минимум терминов. Интерпретация ограничена или беспочвенна. Работа не структурирована. Содержит многочисленные лексические, грамматические и/или фактические ошибки.

- 0 баллов — работа не выполнена.

Формой итогового контроля является экзамен. Оценка ставится в соответствии с балльно-рейтинговой системой, представленной на образовательном портале Тольяттинского государственного университета.

Module 1. LEXICAL SEMANTICS

Theme 1.1. Lexicology as a Branch of Linguistics

Форма проведения занятия: собеседование.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. What does lexicology study?
2. What are the main problems of lexicology?
3. What are the main branches of lexicology?
4. What is the theoretical and practical value of English lexicology?
5. How is lexicology connected with other branches of linguistics?

Методические материалы к занятию
Тезисы лекции для подготовки к собеседованию
(Short outline of the theme)

1. What does lexicology study?

As a system, language is subdivided into three basic subsystems, each of which is a system in its own turn. They are the phonetical (phonological), lexical and grammatical systems. The lexical subsystem of language is studied by lexicology, which became a separate branch of linguistics in the 19th century.

The term *lexicology* is composed of two Greek morphemes: *lexis* meaning 'word, phrase' (hence *lexicos* 'having to do with words') and *logos* which denotes 'learning, a department of knowledge'. Thus, the literal meaning of the term 'lexicology' is 'the science of the word'. **Lexicology** is a branch of linguistics which studies words and the vocabulary of a language. The term *'word'* denotes the basic unit of a language resulting from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment. The word is a structural and semantic entity within the language system. The **vocabulary** of a language is the total sum of all the words and the word equivalents that the language possesses. Word equivalents are understood as set-expressions, which like words are not created in speech every time they are needed, but function as ready-made units. Thus, **the object of lexicology** is words and the vocabulary of a language.

2. What are the main problems of lexicology?

On the basis of detailed and exhaustive study of specific facts of lexis the investigator should:

— provide general characteristics of the modern English vocabulary;
— establish some peculiarities of the English vocabulary and structural models of the words making it;
— define productive and non-productive types and means of word-building in Modern English;
— give a systemic description of the modern English word stock and regularities which determine its national specificity.

3. What are the main branches of lexicology?

Distinction is naturally made between General lexicology and Special lexicology. *General lexicology* is a part of general linguistics; it is concerned with the study of vocabulary irrespective of the specific features of any particular language. *Special lexicology* is the lexicology of a particular language (e.g. English, Russian, etc.), i.e. the study and description of its vocabulary and vocabulary units, primarily words as the main units of language. Special lexicology is based on the principles worked out and laid down by General lexicology, a general theory of vocabulary. So, the first units deal with some general lexicological problems such as word theory, some fundamentals of semasiology, morphological structure of words, etc.

Lexical semantics studies meanings of words, in other words, the content, information rendered by lexical units.

Semasiology is a branch of semantics that is concerned with the meaning of words and phrases, used in nomination, studies the types of meaning, the change of meaning, the semantic structure of words, semantic groupings, synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, etc. For instance, the word *star* has two meanings 'celestial object' & 'celebrity'. Terminologically semasiology is opposed to onomasiology which studies *nomination*, or means and ways of naming the elements. The theory of nomination has to show how the objects receive their names and what features are chosen to represent them. *Onomasiology* is a branch of semantics which studies the process of naming and lexical objectification of notions. For example, some extralinguistic properties of the phenomenon led to the onomatopoeic nomination *to sizzle*. The difference between the two approaches is illustrated by fig. 1 below.
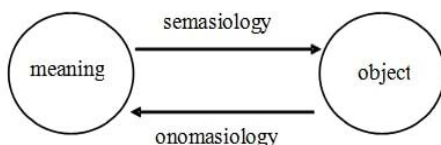
Fig. 1. The difference between the two approaches

Word formation studies all possible ways of the formation of new words and models according to which new words are built. For example, nowadays suffixation is a highly productive way of word formation: *singlehood*, *nationhood*, *leaflet*, *flatlet*, *stardom*, *fandom*, *oldster*, *bankster*.

Phraseology studies set-expressions with transferred meaning or phraseological units such as *a bull in a china shop*, *a lame duck*, *stick and carrot policy*, *a pipe dream*.

Etymology studies the origin of words. For example, the noun *beggar* was borrowed from Old French and the verb *to beg* appeared in the English language as a result of back derivation by analogy with *worker* and *work*.

Lexicography — an applied branch — deals with science of compiling dictionaries.

4. What is the theoretical and practical value of English lexicology?

There are two principal approaches to the study of language material in linguistic science, namely the synchronic (or descriptive) and the diachronic (or historical) approach. The study of a language at a certain period of its development is called a ***synchronic*** one. The study of historical development of language elements is called ***diachronic.*** According to the synchrony/diachrony criteria English lexicology correspondingly falls into ***historical lexicology*** which studies the origin and development of the English vocabulary, and ***descriptive lexicology*** of Modern English, which studies the vocabulary of a given language at a given stage of its development.

Contrastiv*e** and ***comparative lexicology study the correlation between the lexical units of two or more languages. The aim of such studies is to find out the correspondences between the vocabulary units of the languages under comparison. The difference between the comparative and contrastive studies is as follows:

— the comparative lexicology aims to find both similarity and difference in two or more languages, while the contrastive lexicology aims at finding differences in the native and foreign languages;

— the comparative lexicology compares the lexical subsystems of the languages under study, while the contrastive lexicology compares one language unit of the native language with all possible ways of its expression in the foreign language, or vice versa.

Contrastive lexicology establishes how many lingual units of language B are equivalent to the lingual unit of language A. For example, one lingual unit of language A corresponds to two lingual units of language B: *рука* — *hand*, *arm*; *girl* — *девочка*, *девушка*.

Let's compare the word *книга* and its English equivalent *book*. Only one collocation of the English word *book* is equivalent to Russian *книга*, which is *a book on/about birds* — *книга о жизни птиц*. The rest of the meanings of the word *book* correlate with words other than *книга*, cf. *a reference book* — *справочник*, *a ration book* — *карточки*, *to do the books* — *вести счета*, *our order books are full* — *мы больше не принимаем заказов*, *to be in smb's good/bad books* — *быть на хорошем/плохом счету*, *I can read her like a book* — *я вижу её насквозь*, *we must stick to/go by the book* — *надо действовать по правилам*, *I'll take a leaf out of your book* — *я последую твоему примеру*, *He was brought to book for that* — *за это его привлекли к ответу*. The same concerns Russian-English word pairs: *закрытый* — *closed*, *закрытое заседание* — *private meeting*, *закрытое голосование* — *secret ballot*, *закрытое помещение* — *indoors*.

Knowledge of lexicology promotes systemic and successive comprehension of the peculiarities of foreign language words as compared with the native words. One can indicate discrepancies in the semantic structure, take into consideration peculiarities of collocation, morphological structure, show specific features of synonymic usage, provide for the stylistic characteristics. All mentioned things help to avoid literal translation and employ the deliberate language acquisition.

The course of Modern English Lexicology is of great practical importance as the language learner will obtain much valuable information concerning the English word stock and the laws and regulations governing the formation and usage of English words and word groups which makes second language acquisition much easier.

5. How is lexicology connected with other branches of linguistics?

Lexicology has close ties with other branches of linguistics as they also take into account words in one way or another but approach them from different angles.

There is a relationship between lexicology and phonetics since phonetics is also concerned with the study of the word, i.e. with the sound form of the word. A close connection between lexicology and grammar is conditioned by the manifold ties between the objects of their study. Even isolated words as presented in a dictionary bear a definite relation to the grammatical system of the language because they belong to some part of speech and conform to some lexico-grammatical characteristics of the word class to which they belong. Lexicology is linked with the history of a language since the latter investigates the changes and the development of the vocabulary of a language. There is also a close relationship between lexicology and stylistics. Stylistics studies many problems treated in lexicology. These are the problems of meaning, synonymy, differentiation of vocabulary according to the sphere of communication and some other issues. Lexicology is bound up with sociolinguistics. Sociolinguistics investigates the extralinguistic or social causes of the changes in the vocabulary of a language. The word stock of a language directly and immediately reacts to changes in social life. The intense development of science and technology, which is a social, i.e. an extralinguistic factor, has lately given birth to a great number of new words.

Problem of connection of language and thinking is a multi-faceted one. There's an assumption that words of the language represent our knowledge of the world which is the result of cognitive process. It's a well-known fact that the issue of how a language helps to segment material world and its people social experience has been the main one. The process of giving a name to an object is called nomination. *Nomination* is forming lingual units for the purposes of segmenting and naming outward reality and corresponding concepts.

There are two main participants in the process of nomination: the one who gives a name to an object (the nominator) and the object which is given a name (the referent). The process of giving a name to an object consists of several stages:

— forming a concept of the object. The concept is a generalized idea of a class of objects, summing up the most essential features of the given class thus distinguishing it from other classes;

— designation of class of objects under nomination with the help of linguistic means. The features chosen as the basic characteristics of the object form **the denotatum**. For example, the denotatum of the word *freak* is "a person regarded as strange because of their unusual appearance or behaviour". The denotational part of meaning is relatively stable as it stands to represent all the basic characteristics of the object;

— addition to the denotatum the information concerning functional significance of a lingual unit (the positive or negative attitude of the nominator to the object or some other information). Thereby the word freak is of disapproving character and appertains to informal subset of lexis;

— correlation with certain sound form and graphic form.

Naming activity of a human being results in fixing human experience in the words he uses. In fact, the very existence of the word 'tree' means that a human mind can segment corresponding objects from reality and identify them as belonging to the class of trees.

Segmentation of reality is specific to every culture. It reflects the reality like a map of the world on this or that scale. Judging by the way the given piece of reality is segmented by language, a researcher can conclude which attributes of things are considered relevant, and which are disregarded. For example, Russian word-combinations *высокая трава*, *крепкий чай*, *сильный дождь*, *есть суп* correspond to the English *long grass*, *strong tea*, *heavy rain*, *drink soup*.

In this case linguists speak of the *linguistic map of the world*, or representation of the world which is covered by each separate language. Different languages conceptualize the knowledge of the world differently: northern peoples associate beauty and good things with the sun *красна девица*, *красно солнышко*, while southern peoples — with the moon *луноликая*, as torrid heat means death to all living beings in the desert. The issue of different linguistic maps of the world is often raised in case of language lacunas such as *душа*, *тоска*, *авось*, *privacy*, *self-reliance*, *challenge*, *efficiency*, *deadline*, *sorority*.

**Практические задания и упражнения к семинару 1, 2
(Practical Tasks)**

Assignment 1. What phonetical variants do the following words have?

Example

Lieutenant – [lefˈten.ənt], [luːˈtenənt]:

lieutenant, luxurious, hotel, secretary, and, research, direct, necessary, interesting, entrepreneur, Asian, Persia, Vietnam, fascism, dance, fast, often, forehead, schedule, zygote, Mercian, Celtic, car, marquis, issue, duke, tube, news, music, enthusiasm, negotiate, resume (v), social, sure, heart, year, usage, ceramic, elastic, hovel, current, expiration, adult, controversial, hegemony, either.

Assignment 2. How many words with root *fast* can you follow in the exercise? Group variants of the same word, discriminate between different words, prove their identity and separateness.

Example

*Please **fast**en your seat belts* – the meaning of *fast* is "to close or join together the two parts of something; to become closed or joined together":

1. At the end of their fast, the people have a big party to celebrate.
2. Muslims fast during Ramadan.
3. He's one of the fastest runners in the world.
4. That can't be the time – my watch must be fast.
5. Slow down – you're driving too fast.
6. The boat was stuck fast in the mud.
7. I lived on fast food, I smoked, I drank, I did drugs.
8. Please fasten your seat belts.
9. Many saw independence as the fast track to democracy.
10. Put it on fast forward.

Assignment 3. Match each animal to a noise from the list below.

Example

Sparrow – *twitters*.

Animal: 1) cat; 2) sheep; 3) lion; 4) cock; 5) frog; 6) cow; 7) horse; 8) duck; 9) sparrow; 10) dog.

Noise: mew, quack, twitter, baa, moo, roar, cock-a-doodle-do, whinny, croak, howl.

Assignment 4. Comment upon the following cases of variation.

Example

Tom − Tom's – grammatical variation

trough [trɔf], [trɔ:f]; yogurt ['jɔgət], ['jəugət], ['jɔgɜ:t]; defect ['dɪfekt, dɪ'fekt]; dilemma [dɪ'lemə], [daɪ'lemə], cyclical ['saɪklɪk((ə)l)], ['sɪklɪk((ə)l)]; Tom − Tom's; good − better − best, premise (n) − premises (n) − premise (v); refuse (n) − refuse (v); even − evening; wind [wind] − wind [waind]; clothed³ − clad³, pled²,³ − pleaded²,³.

Assignment 5. Speak on the lingual sign arbitrariness using the following examples.

Example

— *Receive (guests) − принимать (гостей), receive (letters) − получать (письма)*;
— *English variant has one signifier (receive), Russian − two different variants (принимать, получать)*;
— English *wife*, Russian *жена*, German *Frau*, French *femme*;
— *receive (guests) − принимать (гостей), receive (letters) − получать (письма)*;
— *кора (земная) − (earth) crust, кора (древесная) − bark, rind, кора (головного мозга) − cortex.*

Assignment 6. What problem (the sign nature of the word, the size-of-unit, the identity-of unit problems) do we deal with when we ask questions like.

Example

Question: What is the link between the sound form of the word gargle and its meaning?

Answer: We talk about the sign nature of the word.

1. Are *custom* and *customs* different words or grammatical forms of the same word?
2. Are the lexical units *high (e.g. high building)* and *high (= drunk)* different meanings of the same word or homonyms?
3. Are the words *opposite* and *reverse* synonyms?
4. Is *first night* one word or a word combination?
5. How can one distinguish words in the flow of speech?

6. How can one discriminate between a morpheme and a word?

7. What is the link between the sound form of the word *gargle* and its meaning?

Assignment 7. Read the sentences in which the polysemantic word *simple* is used. Give all the lexico-semantic variants constituting the semantic structure of this word. Check yourself by a dictionary.

Example

Simple: 1) easy to understand, deal with; 2) not elaborate or artificial; 3) not ornate or luxurious; 4) unaffected, modest:

1. The book tries to give *simple* explanations of some very complex scientific ideas. 2. Sally likes clothes that are *simple* but elegant. 3. The *simple* fact is that he wants a divorce. 4. Archaeologists found several *simple* tools at the site. A knife is a *simple* tool. 5. Her grandparents were *simple* people who never had much money. I'm just a *simple* farmer. 6. You may be joking but she's *simple* enough to believe you. 7. I'm afraid old Jack is a bit *simple*.

Assignment 8. Give the lexico-semantic variants constituting the semantic structure of the word *school* in the following sentences. Check yourself by a dictionary.

Example

School: 1) an institution where instruction is given, especially to persons under college age; 2) an institution for instruction in a particular skill or field; 3) a college or university; 4) a regular course of meetings of a teacher or teachers and students for instruction, program of instruction; 5) a session of such a course:

1. The kids will be at *school* until 3.00 today. 2. I didn't like *school* very much. 3. The *School* of Management in Cornwall is considered the best one in the country. 4. Harvard, which I graduated from 5 years ago, is a very good *school*. 5. What you think about this probably depends on which *school* of economics you belong to. 6. In the distance we could see a *school* of whales.

Assignment 9. Define all lexico-semantic variants of the verb *to think* in the following sentences. Look up in a dictionary.

Example

to think: 1) to have a conscious mind, to some extent of reasoning, remembering experiences, making rational decisions, etc.; 2) to employ one's mind rationally and objectively in evaluating or dealing with a

given situation; 3) to have a certain thing as the subject of one's thoughts; 4) to call something to one's conscious mind; 5) to consider something as a possible action, choice, etc.:

1. I don't *think* there's a bank in the village. 2. Nobody seriously *thought* of him as a candidate for the job. 3. Let's stop and *think* before we do anything else. 4. He could never *think* of the woman's name. 5. It was kind of you to *think* of our daughter. 6. I expect we were all *thinking* the same thing. 7. I never *thought* that I'd end up working here.

Assignment 10. State which of these words possesses wider polysemy: *man, fellow, change (n), federation, order.*

Assignment 11. Compare the semantic structure of the following words: a) *slender* **and** *skinny*; b) *to stop* **and** *to cease*.

Assignment 12. Look up in the dictionary for the verb *fire* and answer these questions:

1. How many meanings are explained?	
2. Write the number of the meaning that:	
a) refers to making smb. leave the job;	
b) refers to baking clay;	
c) explains *fire* used when it starts to work.	

Assignment 13. Identify lexico-semantic variants of the word *engaged* in the following contexts:

1. They've been *engaged* for 6 months.
2. I cannot get though — her line's *engaged*.
3. To be otherwise *engaged*.
4. His father *engaged* a private tutor to improve his maths.

Assignment 14. Sort out the following sentences with the verb *to see* according to the meanings:

Example

to see: 1) visual apprehension; 2) to visit somebody; 3) mental comprehension; 4) meeting somebody:

1. Don't you *see* my meaning? 2. Mr. Thomas is *seeing* a client at 2:30. 3. If you shut your eyes, you cannot *see*. 4. Can I *see* you on business?

5. Why not *see* your lawyer. 6. I can *see* that you are not very happy with the situation. 7. Let me *see* your pictures. 8. I wish you could *see* you again some time. 9. I had not *seen* him for a long time. 10. He just won't *see* the reason. 11. It is dark and I can hardly *see* to do my work. 12. Ian laughed politely even though he couldn't *see* the joke. 13. I have to *see* my teacher about my grades. 14. We'll *see* each other at my house tonight. 15. You ought *to see* a doctor about those symptoms.

Рекомендуемая литература

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. What Is a Word? What Is Lexicology? / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова // Лексикология английского языка = English Lexicology : учебник и практикум для вузов / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. — 8-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва, 2021. — Introduction — С. 6—12.
2. Арнольд, И. В. Введение // Лексикология современного английского языка : учеб. пособие / И. В. Арнольд. — 4-е изд., стер. — Москва, 2017. — Глава первая. — С. 7—27. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/108229 (дата обращения: 07.12.2021).
3. Бабич, Г. Н. Language and Lexicology // Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Г. Н. Бабич. — 8-е изд. — Москва, 2016. — Chapter 1. — С. 9—16. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/85849 (дата обращения: 07.12.2021).
4. Гвишиани, Н. Б. English Words: Sound and Structure // Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Н. Б. Гвишиани. — 3-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва, 2019. — Chapter 2. — С. 78—93.
5. Jackson, H. What is lexicology? / H. Jackson, E. Ze Amvela // Word, Meaning and Vocabulary : An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology / H. Jackson, E. Ze Amvela. — 2nd ed. — London, 2007. — P. 6—12.

Theme 1.2. Word as a Basic Lingual Unit

Форма проведения занятия: собеседование.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. What is meant by 'separability' and 'separateness' of a word?
2. What is meant by identity of a word?
3. What are the properties of a linguistic sign?
4. What are the main stages of the process of naming?
5. What is the phonetical motivation?
6. What is implied by the term 'morphological motivation'?
7. What does the semantic motivation mean?

Методические материалы к занятию

Тезисы лекции для подготовки к собеседованию
(Short outline of the theme)

1. What is meant by 'separability' and 'separateness' of a word?

Word occupies central place in the hierarchy of lingual units which comprises the following levels: phonemes, morphemes, lexemes (words), phrasemes (word-combinations), sentences and text. Word is a basic lingual unit consisting of morphemes, each of which consists of phonemes. Words differ from morphemes due to the quality of their meaning. Word is a nominative lingual unit, which expresses direct, nominative meaning: it names, or nominates various referents. The words consist of morphemes, and the shortest word can include only one morpheme, e.g. *cat*. The meaning of the morpheme is abstract and significative: it does not name the referent, but only signifies it. Separate words should be distinguished from word-combinations, which are the combinations of two or more notional words, representing complex nominations of various referents (things, actions, qualities, and even situations) in a sentence, e.g. *a sudden departure*. The meaning of a word-combination is complex nomination.

In connection with the hierarchy of lingual units there exists ***the size-of-unit problem***. It's the problem of discriminating between the word and the morpheme, on the one hand, and the word-combination, on the other hand, and the issue of how words can be singled out in the flow of speech as independent units.

Words differ from morphemes which cannot function beyond words. The word criterion is the positional mobility while morphemes are bound within a sequence: *shipwreck*(*s*) VS *the wreck*(*s*) *of the ship*(*s*); John Lyons illustrates the fact with the following sequences: *the boys walked slowly up the hill*; *slowly the boys walked up the hill*; *up the hill slowly walked the boys*.

Words differ from word-combinations. One cannot insert another word between the elements of the given word without a disturbance of its meaning, unlike word combinations words are characterized by indivisibility or morphological uninterruptability: *a lion* (*a living lion*, *a dead lion*) VS *alive*.

Graphically words also tend to be indivisible though some borderline units occur where parts of compound words are graphically separable: *each other*, *one another*, but morphologically indivisible: *with each other*, *with one another*. Variation takes place in a*ltogether* which is one word according to its spelling, whereas *all right* which is rather a similar combination has a different spelling.

Phonologically the majority of English words tend to bear one stress: '*mother*, '*brand name*.

Grammatically words also tend to be whole-formed. A word has grammatical forms which are expressed by grammatical suffixes added to the word: *mother — mothers*, *at my mother's*, *two gin and tonics*. But how should one treat the following sequences: *Ilf and Petrov's book*; *the girl I danced with's father*; '*we were the good guys*, *they were the bad guys' kind of thing*?

In such cases one can apply to the criterion of semantic integrity, that is naming one thing, not many things: *Earl Grey*, *real estate, rack rate*. The semantic criterion can be also applied to functional words which function like morphemes: *to give up*.

As the above mentioned examples show, there is a size-of-unit problem. That's why Check linguists Josef Bachek and Vilem Mathesius stated that there is no borderline between a word and a word-combination, which correlates with the field theory.

Thus, words are relatively easy to be diagnosed in speech as separate units because they are featured by *positional mobility*, *semantic integrity* and *graphic*, *phonological* and *grammatical whole-formedness*.

2. What is meant by identity of a word?

The term 'identity' implies systemic speech usage and invariability of basic properties of the lingual unit.

Words are subject to some variations. Sometimes the 'law of the sign' (one-to-one correspondence of expression and content) is violated without impairing the word's globality as a separate lexical unit.

1. Phonetic variation: *bread and butter*, *now and then*, *normal and natural*, *Past Simple*; '*contrary — cont'rary*, '*territory — terri'tory*, '*aristocrat — a'ristocrat*, '*coffee bean — 'coffee bean*, *again*, *Iranian*, *privacy*, *mountain*, *expertise*, *nausea*.

2. Morphological variation:

a) grammatical: *to learn — learned*, *learnt*; *to broadcast — broadcasted*, *broadcast; to bide — bode*, *bidded — bided*, *bidden*; *bolsheviki — bolsheviks*;
b) word-building: *academic — academical*, *explicable — explainable*, *damp down — dampen down*.

The words of this group make the so-called **doublets**. They vary in pronunciation and morphemic arrangement, but function as full equivalents of each other. They do not signal some semantic or stylistic change of context. Their usage depends only on speech habit of a speaker.

3. Lexico-semantic variants (polysemy): *bed* (1. *furniture*; 2. *bottom*; 3. *area or ground*).

Variants of the words are their subkinds conditioned by position (context). Variants of the word cannot replace each other, they can only complement each other in different surroundings. Sometimes different lexico-semantic variants have peculiarities in word-changing paradigm, e.g. the verb *to cost* can function as a regular one in the meaning 'to estimate the price of': *We'll get the plan costed before presenting it to the board* or *Well, I've only had 3 courses and a bottle of wine and costed here*.

One should be able to discriminate between different meanings of the same word and its homonyms: *a baseball club*, *a golf club*, *a club of a gun — a wine club*. Polysemy doesn't violate the identity of the word as all the meanings of it are interconnected with each other, they have some common semantic element (a baseball club, a golf club, a club of a gun are kinds of a stick). The meanings of homonyms are by no means connected with each other (*a club of a gun* и *a wine club*).

3. What are the properties of a linguistic sign?

Ferdinand de Saussure was the first to define lingual units as specific *signs*: the elements of language are special lingual signs – meaningful, bilateral (two-sided) units that have both ***form and meaning***. Ferdinand de Saussure spoke about an indissoluble link between a phonetic '***signifier***' (French 'signifiant'), and concept ***signified*** ('signifie'). The other pair of terms to name these two sides of a lingual sign was suggested by Luis Elsmlev: ***the plane of content*** and ***the plane of expression***. There is regular semantic connection between the *signifier* and the *signified*, otherwise people wouldn't be able to understand each other in the process of human intercourse.

Arbitrariness is the fundamental property of the lingual sign. It is the absence of any natural connection between the signifier and the signified. For example, the form and the meaning of the word *eye* are arbitrarily linked, the connection between them being a matter of convention (this means that there is no reason beyond convention why the English word *eye* should refer to *глаз* and not to *ухо*, *нос* or something else). On the one hand, the graphic form were altered (cf. Old English *eage*, *ege*; Middle English *eie*, *ie*). On the other hand, in the course of time the meaning of the word developed along several lines, e.g.: "the power of seeing", "the hole in the needle through which the thread passes", "the calm centre of a storm, especially of a hurricane", etc. In other words, there is no necessary connection between the word and the object it denotes, and either may change over time.

The idea of arbitrariness can also be supported by the fact that in various languages one and the same object is given different names, cf. English *wife*, Russian *жена*, German *Frau*, French *femme*.

Asymmetric duality of the lingual sign is the ability of the plane of expression (signifier) to be associated with more than one signified (plane of content) – polysemy, homonymy: *table*, *bank of a river – central bank*, *seal*, *hand*; and the ability of the plane of content (the signified) to be associated with more than one plane of expression (the signifier) – synonymy: *nice – pleasing*, *agreeable*; *pretty – nice*, *beautiful*.

Sometimes a lingual sign (including words) is graphically presented in the form of a triangle (fig. 2), including material form, content and referent. Fulfilling the naming (expressive) function, a word represents a unity of the three components: the material (sound) form, the referent and

the concept of it. For example, the word 'dog' is a sign, consisting of a signifier, or form — the sequence of phonemes (or, in written presentation, of letters), and a signified, or concept — the image of the animal in our mind; the referent is the 'real' animal in the outside world, which may or may not be physically present.

concept (an idea of a class of objects)

'dog'

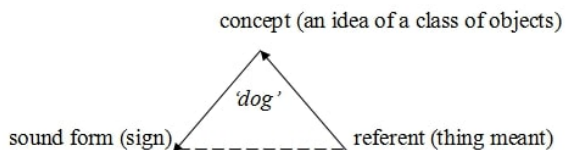sound form (sign) ────────── referent (thing meant)

Fig. 2. A lingual sign model (basic 'triangle')

The sign problem applied to a word is all about identifying the correlation between the word and the referent and the connection between the sound form and the concept it signifies.

4. What are the main stages of the process of naming?

Some lingual signs may be motivated. ***Motivation*** (inner word form, etymological structure) of the lingual sign is the direct connection between the signifier and the signified. Some examples, of motivation are *cuckoo*, *bluebell*, *woodpecker*, *volleyball* (*volley* — стрелять залпами), *alphabet*. The question of word motivation is examined by onomasiology.

Motivation doesn't imply an exact reflection of the world in a language. The basis for motivation is usually some outstanding, conspicuous but not necessarily significant feature(s) (e.g. Russian *медведь* — «медом ведает»; English *handkerchief* — *hand* (рука) + *kerchief (*платок). Thus, in case of motivation many language phenomena appear as a result of some interpretation of reality by speakers. If the word preserves semantic connection with the words it has been derived from, it is considered to be motivated or have a transparent inner word form: *time-table*, *foresee*, *speaker*, *to safeguard*, *chairman, springboard*. If the speaker isn't aware of the semantic connection between the meaning of the word and its form, the word is said to be *non-motivated* for the present stage of language development: *home*, *read*, *parachute*, etc. Borrowings are seldom motivated for native speakers.

It should be borne in mind that in different languages one and the same object gets its name on the basis of different features. That's why

motivation of the words expressing the same notion in different languages may differ: cf. Russian *стол* < *стлать*, English *table* < Latin *tabula* (доска).

Traditionally, three types of motivation are distinguished: phonetic, morphological, and semantic.

5. What is the phonetical motivation?

Phonetic motivation is a direct connection between the sound form of the word and its meaning. Phonetic motivation is observed in onomatopoeic words, e.g. *buzz*, *splash*, *gargle*, *purr*, etc. *Onomatopoeia* or sound imitation is the naming of the action or thing by a more or less exact reproduction of a sound associated with it.

6. What is implied by the term 'morphological motivation'?

Morphologic(*al*) *motivation* is a direct connection between the morphological structure of the word and its meaning. For example, in the pair *friend — unfriendly*, the morphologically motivated word is *unfriendly*. The morphological structure suggests the following: the prefix *un-* gives a negative meaning to the stem; the suffix *-ly* shows the part of speech — when the suffix *-ly* is attached to a noun stem, the resultant word is an adjective.

7. What does the semantic motivation mean?

Semantic motivation is a connection between the direct meaning and figurative meaning(s) of the word. The derived meaning is interpreted by means of referring to the primary one, the transfer being often based on metaphor or metonymy. For instance, the direct meaning of *mink* "a small fierce animal like a weasel" is not motivated, but its figurative metonymical meaning "the valuable brown fur of this animal (a *mink* coat)" is motivated by the direct meaning and based upon it.

Thus, the word is a basic lingual unit possessing a form to express concepts which reflect reality within the word meaning. Words reflect reality in this respect. The sound form of a word doesn't reflect outward reality, it only gives a name to some phenomenon. In this sense word is a sign. Word is an arbitrary sign regularly used in communication, though some words can be motivated. Words combine in sentences, in connected sense-bearing speech; this property distinguishes them from morphemes which can't function in speech beyond words. Words are relatively easy to be distinguished in speech as they are separate meaningful (characterized

by semantic integrity) whole-formed (phonologically, morphologically and grammatically) lingual units. Words are used in speech in one meaning.

Word is the most complex unit of language. It comprises synchronic and diachronic features. Word refers to the real world of things, thinking and other lingual units. It coarticulates the signifier and the signified while the signifier can correspond to several signified (homonymy, polysemy) and vice versa (synonymy). Word is a merger of sound, morphological and semantic structures. It belongs to both grammatical and lexical systems, and at the same time takes part in human communication. Word semantically interacts with meanings of other words. It always enters some lexical set, class, sub-class, group or row.

Практические задания и упражнения к семинару 3 (Practical Tasks)

Assignment 1. Define the status of the following lingual units in terms of the size-of-unit problem.

Example

A live concert performance, to stay alive:

Live performance means any play, show, skit, dance, or other exhibition performed or presented to or before an audience of one or more, with or without consideration;

To stay alive means to maintain or support oneself, especially at a minimal level:

a live concert performance, to stay alive; place-name, name of place, the place; to by-pass the law, by pass road, to pass by in silence; although, altogether, all right; each other, one another, others people money; I'm just a fill-in, to fill in a form; to have ups and downs in life, to go down the street, to have a nervous breakdown, you will break down if you work too hard; never mind, nevertheless; as far as I know, far and away, to be far away from smb.; to put off the light, to put off the goods; to ask for a handout, to hand out medicine, to put one's hand out trying to rise, to eat out of one's hand, to get out of hand; behind-the-scenes politics, on stage and behind the scenes.

Assignment 2. Link the variants below with the-identity-of-unit problem.

Example

Mathematic − mathematical − we talk about phonetic variation by means of suffixation:

Bandits − banditti, mathematic − mathematical, minimum − minimal, efficient − effectual − efficacious, damp down − dampen down, woken[3] − waked[3], bade[2] − bid[2], dived[2] − dove[2], spilt[2,3] − spilled[2,3], wove[2] − weaved[2], shown[3] − showed[3], shrove[2] − shrived[2], shrank[2] − shrunk[2], hewed[3] − hewn[3], born[3] − borne[3].

Assignment 3. Speak on the lingual sign asymmetry using the following examples.

Example

***Face** of a girl / **face** of a clock − it is the example of homonymy. We figure out one signifier and two different concepts:*

good / nice / great / perfect / marvelous / wonderful / fantastic / terrific;

face of a girl / face of a clock;

to have the means to do smth. / means of transport;

a vain man / vain hope;

volume / size / scope / amount;

a slim chance / to slim the budget;

base Latin / main base;

jazz band / a hat band.

Assignment 4. Break up the signs into full and reduced.

Example

Love − full sign; DVD-player − reduced sign:

wand, maple, Phoenix, shop-assistant, land, fox, congeniality, bruise, DVD-player, universe, love, god, Harry, limb, air, Kyushu, sum, maroon, gasoline, serendipity.

Assignment 5. Group the words according to their type of motivation:

Example

Whisper, cackle − phonetic motivation:

leaflet, murmur, start-up, trade-off, backer, bubble, talks, understudy, pullover, crash, board, curtain call, china, whisper, mink, bang, branch, lame duck, gypsy moth, cackle, impact.

Рекомендуемая литература

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. What Is a Word? What Is Lexicology? / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова // Лексикология английского языка = English Lexicology : учебник и практикум для вузов / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. — 8-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва, 2021. — Introduction. — С. 6—12.

2. Арнольд, И. В. Слово как единица языка // Лексикология современного английского языка : учеб. пособие / И. В. Арнольд. — 4-е изд., стер. — Москва, 2017. — Глава вторая. — С. 28—45. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/108229 (дата обращения: 07.12.2021).

3. Бабич, Г. Н. Language and Lexicology // Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Г. Н. Бабич. — 8-е изд. — Москва, 2016. — Chapter 1. — С. 9—16. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/85849 (дата обращения: 07.12.2021).

4. Гвишиани, Н. Б. English Words: Sound and Structure // Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Н. Б. Гвишиани. — 3-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва, 2019. — Chapter 2. — С. 78—93.

5. Jackson, H. What is lexicology? / H. Jackson, E. Ze Amvela // Word, Meaning and Vocabulary : An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology / H. Jackson, E. Ze Amvela. — 2nd ed. — London, 2007. — P. 6—12.

Theme 1.3. The Word Meaning

Форма проведения занятия: собеседование.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. What is the difference between semasiological and onomasiological approach to linguistic phenomena?
2. What is the essence of referential approach to meaning?
3. In what relation does meaning stand to the sound form and to the referent?
4. What is the difference between meaning and concept?
5. What aspects of lexical meaning can be singled out?

6. What is the denotational component of lexical meaning?

7. What is the connotational component of lexical meaning?

8. What are the main types of lexical meanings?

9. What is the componential analysis applied for?

10. What is an integral / differential seme?

Методические материалы к занятию

Тезисы лекции для подготовки к собеседованию
(Short outline of the theme)

1. What is the difference between semasiological and onomasiological approach to linguistic phenomena?

The brunch of lexicology, that is devoted to the study of meaning is known as semasiology. **Semasiology** (from Gr. *semasia* – "signification") doesn't deal with every kind of linguistic meaning. The main objects of semasiological study are as follows: semantic development of words, its causes and classification, relevant distinctive features and types of lexical meaning, polysemy and semantic structure of word, semantic groupings and connections in the vocabulary system, i.e. synonyms, antonyms, etc.

Meaning is one of the most controversial terms in the theory of language. An exact definition of lexical meaning becomes especially difficult due to complexity of the process, by which human consciousness and language serve to reflect outward reality. Since there is no universally accepted definition of meaning we shall give a brief survey of the problem as it is viewed in modern linguistics. There are 3 approaches to the problem: 1) *the referential approach*, which formulates the essence of meaning as the interdependence between words and things or concepts they denote; 2) *the functional approach*, which studies the functions of a word in speech. This approach is (sometimes described as contextual) based on the analysis of various contexts; and 3) *the operational approach*, which is centered on defining meaning through its role in the process of communication (this approach is also called *information-based*).

2. What is the essence of referential approach to meaning?

Within the framework of the referential approach *lexical meaning* is the content of the word, which is a correlation between the sound form and an object or phenonmenon of reality, denoted by this string of sounds, which is seen by the human mind.

The essential feature of the first approach is that in distinguishes between the three components, connected with meaning:

— the sound form of the lingual sign (sign or symbol);

— the concept underlying this sound form (meaning; thought or reference);

— the actual referent, i.e. the part or the aspect of reality to which the linguistic sign refers (thing meant).

The conclusion is that meaning is not to be identical with any of the three points of the triangle, but is closely connected with them.

The referential model of meaning is the so-called 'basic triangle' (fig. 2).

3. In what relation does meaning stand to the sound form and to the referent?

The sound form is understood as a sequence of sounds of the given language code (*май*, *mái*, *my*). *Referent* — the part (aspect) of reality to which the linguistic sign refers (objects, actions, qualities), etc. *Concept* — a generalized reverberation in the human consciousness of the properties of the objective reality learned in the process of the latter's cognition.

The linguistic expression of one and the same concept is different in languages as table 1 shows below:

Table 1

Concept is different in languages

Concept Language	A building for human habituation	Fixed residence of family or household
English	*house*	*home*
Russian	*дом*	*дом*

One and the same notion can be expressed by one or several words (quickly — in the nick of time; limb — arm, hand, wrist; etc.), some notions can be combined in one word (globalization, revolution).

4. What is the difference between meaning and concept?

Not all words have concepts as a basis underlying them. For example, proper names don't express general meaning, pronouns don't name but only indicate some object, interjections don't name but express feeling and volition of the speaker: *Hush! Hush!*

Concepts belong to the category of thinking, so they don't bear emotional charge. On the contrary, lexical meanings of many words show the speaker's attitude to the reality: *hack-writer*, *notorious*.

The word meaning is not identical with the referent. To begin with, meaning is linguistic, whereas the denoted object or the referent is beyond the scope of language. One referent (for example, *cat*) can be denoted by more than one word of a different meaning: *cat*, *animal*, *pussy*, *Tom*, *this*, *pet*. Besides, there are words that have distinct meaning but do not refer to any existing thing: *mermaid*, *goblin*. In its turn, the meanings of the word is not bound to the only referent, as the word can be used both in direct and figurative meaning: *дуб* − 1) дерево; 2) тупой человек; 3) человек, обладающий крепким здоровьем; *fork* − 1) implement used for lifting food to the mouth; 2) farm tool; 3) place where a road, tree-trunk, etc. divides or branches.

The referential definitions of meaning are usually criticized on the ground that: 1) they cannot be applied to sentences; 2) they cannot account for certain semantic additions emerging in the process of communication; 3) they fail to account for the fact that one word may denote different objects and phenomena (polysemy) while one and the same object may be denoted by different words (synonymy).

5. What aspects of lexical meaning can be singled out?

By the ***lexical meaning*** we designate the meaning proper to the given lingual unit in all its forms and distributions. This component is identical in all the forms of the word. Thus the word-forms *go*, *goes*, *went*, *was going* possess different grammatical meanings of tense, person and so on, but in each of these forms we find one and the same semantic component denoting the process of movement.

In most cases the lexical meaning is rendered by the root morpheme, that's why the lexical meaning has no regular expression unlike the grammatical meaning. The common lexical meaning is most vividly seen in word-building paradigms (all possible derivatives from the same root morphemes): *magic*, *magically*, *magician* − (connected with the use of) supernatural forces; *boy*, *boyhood*, *boyish*, *boyishness* − young man, time of man's youth, young man's behaviour; etc.

The degree of expression of the lexical meaning can be different. The lexical meaning reveals to the fullest in notional words, and least of all in functional words as their function is to connect words but not to render concepts. For example, the preposition *in* has the lexical meaning of its own in the expression *in the box* while its meaning is vague and dependent on the meaning of the verb in the expression *to give in*.

6. What is the denotational component of lexical meaning?

The ***denotational meaning*** (***denotation***) is the component of the lexical meaning signifying or identifying the notion or the object and reflecting some essential features of the notion named. The denotational meaning makes the communication possible, as it is essentially the same meaning for all speakers of the language.

7. What is the connotational component of lexical meaning?

The ***connotational meaning*** (***connotation***) is complementary meaning which is added to the word denotational meaning and which serves to express all sorts of evaluative, emotional, expressive, imagery and pragmatic overtones. Connotation includes:

1) ***the emotive charge***: *daddy — father*; *thick — stout* (полный, тучный) — *buxom* (упитанный, пухлый) — *fat — obese — plump*, *face — snout* (рыло), *muzzle* (морда);

2) ***evaluation*** (positive or negative): *clique* (a small group of people who seem unfriendly to other people) — *group* (a set of people), *new — modern — newfangled* (*disapproving* excessively modern).

However, evaluation can enter denotation. The word *friend* meaning 'ally' is featured by positive rational evaluation: *friend* — "a country that has a <u>good</u> relationship with another country". In this case evaluation makes the part of denotation, has the marker *good* in the dictionary definition, and bases on the integral features of the referent;

1) ***expressiveness*** (***intensity***): *to love — to adore*; *magnificent — gorgeous — splendid — superb*;

2) ***imagery*** — *I heard what she said*, *but it didn't <u>sink into</u> my mind until much later*; *a 15 % tariff on <u>bearing</u> import* (from *to bear* "to sell shares in expectation of a drop in price, in order to make a profit by buying them back again after a short time);

3) **stylistic value** − *to start* − *to begin* − *to commence*; *beholder* (archaic, literary) − *spectator*; colloquial vocabulary − *cut it out*, *to be kidding*, *hi*, *stuff*; special literary vocabulary (bookish words): *cordial*, *fraternal*, *anticipate*, *aid*, *sanguinary*, *celestial*;

4) **cultural information** − *black cat*, *green eyes* (cf. *green-eyed monster*).

The Russian word combination *черная кошка* denotes a black cat as well as the English one. However, a black cat is believed to bring bad luck and disaster according to some Russian superstition, that's why it has negative connotation. The English culture relates black cats to luck, unexpected happiness, so a Russian is often surprised to see a black cat wishing "Good Luck" on English postcards.

8. What are the main types of lexical meanings?

According to the way of nomination meanings are divided into **direct** (**primary**, **proper meaning**) and **indirect** (**figurative**, **transferred**, **secondary**, **derived**).

Direct meaning is the meaning which characterizes the referent without the help of a context, in isolation (*to query* = 'to ask a question').

Indirect meaning is the meaning formed from the direct meaning according to the models of semantic derivation (metaphor, metonymy). It is realized only in definite contexts: *to query the bill* = 'to express one's doubts about the charge'; a good *head* for figures / per *head* (metonymy).

In their turn direct meanings are divided into **extended** (**general**) and **narrow** (**special**).

General meaning is the meaning correlating to generic concept: *ship* = 'a vessel'.

Narrow meaning is the meaning correlating to specific concept: *ship* = 'nautical a large sailing vessel with three or more square-rigged masts'.

According to connection with referents direct meanings are divided into **concrete** and **abstract**.

Concrete meanings indicate at a referent: *tongue* (the body organ of taste).

Abstract meanings indicate at quality features in the abstract from referents: *tongue* (*speech*).

9. What is the componential analysis applied for?

Componential analysis is the investigation method which precedes from the assumption that word meaning can be decomposed into elementary semantic components, or semantic features/ semes.

Seme is the smallest unit of meaning. For instance, the meaning of the word *boy* can be represented with the help of the following semes: 'human', 'male', 'non-adult'. *Wife* can be analyzed into the following semes 'human', 'female', 'adult', 'married'.

Componential analysis bases itself on differential oppositions like the below ones.

man : *woman* = *boy* : *girl* = *bull* : *cow* − *sex*

man : *boy* = *woman* : *girl* = *cow* : *calf* − *age*

man : *bull* = *woman* : *cow* = *girl* : *calf* − *human / non-human beings*

There exist different models of componential analysis. One of them is showed in table 2. It consists in forcing all features into a binary pattern, when two opposing sides to a single feature are represented as 'plus' (if the feature is present in the meaning of the word) and 'minus' (if the feature in question is absent).

Table 2

Different models of componential analysis

Words \ Semantic features	With a back	Raised above ground	For one person	To sit on	With arms	Of solid material
chair	+	+	+	+	−	+
armchair	+	+	+	+	+	+
stool	−	+	+	+	−	+
sofa	+	+	−	+	+	+
pouffe	−	+	+	+	−	−

10. What is an integral / differential seme?

The next model of componential analysis suggests that meanings are analyzed in terms of semantic markers and distinguishers.

Semantic marker (*integral seme*) is a semantic feature which the word has in common with other lexical items. Semantic markers reflect *systemic* relations between the word and the rest of the vocabulary.

Semantic distinguisher (*differential seme*) is a semantic feature which differentiates the word from all other words or which differentiates individual meanings of a polysemantic word. Distinguishers reflect what is idiosyncratic about the word.

For example, the semantics of the word *bachelor* can be represented with the help of the following markers (they are enclosed in round brackets) and distinguishers (they are enclosed in square brackets):

1) (human) (male) [one who has never been married];
2) (human) (male) [young knight serving under the standard of another knight];
3) (human) [one who has the first or lowest academic degree];
4) (animal) (male) [young fur seal without a mate in the breeding season].

Acquiring this specific information about the word meanings is the main aim of the analysis under consideration. This information is of much value when the translator chooses the appropriate synonym. Compare all shades of meanings of the verbs of motion, showed in table 3.

Table 3

Shades of meanings of the verbs of motion

Synonyms	Common feature	Differential feature	Translation
stroll	"to walk"	"unhurriedly, leisurely"	прогуливаться (медленно и праздно)
stagger	"to walk"	"unsteadily"	идти шатаясь
pace	"to walk"	"with slow regular steps"	шагать
roam	"to walk"	"without a definite aim"	бродить
saunter	"to walk"	"in a leisurely way"	прогуливаться (медленно, неторопливо)

So, the semantic distinguisher differentiates between the meanings of different words. Besides, awareness of the integral seme promotes translation of the unknown meanings of the polysemantic word. In fact, derived meanings have common integral semes with the main meaning.

**Практические задания и упражнения к семинару 4
(Practical Tasks)**

Assignment 1. Prove that meaning is not identical with notion applying to the linguistic facts.

Example

High building, tall man — the notion is the same ('measurement'), but the meaning is different due to the context:

1) рука — arm, hand, wrist; нога — foot, leg; floor — пол, этаж; cry — кричать, плакать;
2) Kate, Smith, he, this, seven;
3) daddy — father; kid — child;
4) child, baby, babe, infant;
5) fall ill, catch cold, be sick, be unwell;
6) high building, tall man.

Assignment 2. Speak on the correlation of meaning and referent using the following linguistic facts.

Example

Elf, goblin — the referent is imaginary:

1) cat, animal, pussy, Tom, this, pet;
2) fine weather, fine threads;
3) elf, goblin;
4) love, hate;
5) ah, aha, ahem, alas, hey, hush, oh, ooh, oops, ow, ugh, uh-huh, well, wow.

Assignment 3. What unites the following words?

Example

Oxen, feet, media, radii, kine, dogs, octopuses, beeves — these words are united by common *grammatical meaning of plurality*:

a) lexical meaning;
b) grammatical meaning;
c) lexical meaning and grammatical meaning;
d) part-of-speech (integral) meaning?

1) overstressed, overworked, overbid, overcast;
2) cherish, value, love;
3) oxen, feet, media, radii, kine, dogs, octopuses, beeves;
4) buy, sell, money, price, expensive.

Assignment 4. Use an explanatory dictionary and look up the meanings of the given words and word combinations.

Example

Red – *a colour whose hue resembles that of blood or of the ruby or is that of the long-wave extreme of the visible spectrum;*

Red-tape – *official routine or procedure marked by excessive complexity which results in delay or inaction:*

move, moves, moved, moving; red, the red, to redden, reddish, redberry, red-tape, red-out, red-listed, red-letter, red wine; hard, hardship, harden, hardened, hardener, hard-hearted; book, bookable, booking, booking office.

Assignment 5. Discriminate between denotational and connotational meanings of the words.

Example

Japanese – people from Japan (*denotational meaning*); *Jap* – an offensive word for a Japanese person (*connotational meaning*):

cigarette – a thin tube of paper filled with tobacco, for smoking;

fag – (BrE, informal) = cigarette;

dog – an animal with four legs and a tail, often kept as a pet or trained for work, for example hunting or guarding buildings;

doggie – (informal) a child's word for a dog;

childish – (disapproving) (of an adult) behaving in a stupid or silly way;

childlike – (usually approving) having the qualities that children usually have, especially innocence.

Assignment 6. Establish the types of lexical meaning realised in the following sentences.

Example

There is a *maid* (*denotational meaning*) to do the housework. Joan of Arc is also known as the *Maid* (*connotational meaning*) of Orleans.

1. The sun glared down on us. She glared at him accusingly.
2. The cat laid a dead mouse at my feet. Select the printer icon and then click the left mouse button.
3. Sharks were circling around our boat. He failed to pay on time and loan sharks threatened him with arson.

4. He was too shocked to give an <u>account</u> of what had happened. I've opened an <u>account</u> with Barclay's Bank. Our sales manager has secured several big <u>accounts</u> recently. She was told to wear flat shoes, on <u>account</u> of her back problem.
5. It's <u>quicker</u> by train. She has a <u>quick</u> temper. His mood changed like <u>quick</u> silver. The Ojibwa, Gary told me, make no crude distinction between the <u>quick</u> and the dead.

Рекомендуемая литература

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. What Is «Meaning»? / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова // Лексикология английского языка = English Lexicology : учебник и практикум для вузов / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. — 8-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва, 2021. — Chapter 7. — С. 85—93.
2. Арнольд, И. В. Значение слова // Лексикология современного английского языка : учеб. пособие / И. В. Арнольд. — 4-е изд., стер. — Москва, 2017. — Глава третья. — С. 49—65. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/108229 (дата обращения: 07.12.2021).
3. Бабич, Г. Н. Semantics // Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Г. Н. Бабич. — 8-е изд. — Москва, 2016. — Chapter 4. — С. 57—65. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/85849 (дата обращения: 07.12.2021).
4. Гвишиани, Н. Б. Lexical Semantics. Types of Lexical // Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Н. Б. Гвишиани. — 3-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва, 2019. — Chapter 4. — С. 121—146.
5. Jackson, H. Word, Meaning and Vocabulary : An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology / H. Jackson, E. Ze Amvela. — 2nd ed. — London : Continuum, 2007. — X, 250 p. — From the content: Chapter 1—2. — P. 18—32.

Theme 1.4. Semantic Change

Форма проведения занятия: собеседование.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. What are the extra-linguistic causes of semantic change?
2. What are the linguistic causes of semantic change?
3. What are the basic types of association involved in various semantic changes?
4. What are the results of the change of the denotational aspect of lexical meaning?
5. What are the results of the change of the connotational aspect of lexical meaning?

Методические материалы к занятию

Тезисы лекции для подготовки к собеседованию
(Short outline of the theme)

1. What are the extra-linguistic causes of semantic change?

Semantic change is likely to take place due to ***historical causes*** with appearance of a new denotatum − a new object or concept. To make it clear, the word *core* which original meaning is 'horny capsule containing seeds of apple, pear, etc.' developed a new meaning − 'bar of soft iron forming center of electro-magnet or induction coil' due to technological innovation in electrical engineering. The *screen* of a fire-place developed a new function in the magic lantern, and then transferred its name onto new concepts like TV screen and telescreen.

In case of ***social causes*** a word acquires a new meaning due to its use by a particular social group, or a word used in a specific sense by some group comes into common currency with an extended meaning. If the narration is about the past centuries, *abolitionist* is a person seeking the abolition of Negro slavery, and if the situation concerns modern age, this word is applied to one who advocates the abolition of capital punishment. Thus, being used in youths' speech the following words got their new slang meanings: *bread* (money), *drag* (tedious, boring thing), *gas* (a delightful thing), *funky* (exciting, cool).

Psychological causes figure largely in taboo and euphemism. When a common word gathers social disapproval it becomes a taboo. ***Euphemism***

(from Greek *eo* — 'beautiful', *phemo* — 'speech') is a word or phrase used to replace an unpleasant word or expression by a conventionally more acceptable one. It's more psychologically acceptable to use *growth* instead of *cancer*, *inoperable* instead of *fatal* and the like. In the course of time new euphemisms are created to substitute the previous ones and such more appropriate words make strings: *AmE toilet > bathroom > cloakroom*.

Currently, euphemisms are largely inspired by ***political correctness***. Politically correct vocabulary reflects the social tendency to advocate the equality of all regardless of their race, gender, age, physical and mental condition. It's rather popular to substitute the word *invalid* with its euphemisms *handicapped / disabled / differently-abled / physically challenged*.

2. What are the linguistic causes of semantic change?

1. ***Differentiation*** (***discrimination***) ***of synonyms*** is a gradual change in the word meaning in the process of its historical development under the influence of other words, originally having the same meaning. Usually it results from the simultaneous coexistence of two words with the same meaning, one of which is native and the other is borrowed. Thus, the original meaning of the word *foe* was superseded by the French *enemi* (Modern English *enemy*) to the sphere of poetic words. Similar examples are synonymic pairs *valley/dale*, *country/land*, *people/folk* where the original English word has a restricted sphere of usage.

2. ***Ellipsis***, the omission of one of the two words habitually used together accompanied by the transfer of its meaning to a remaining partner, e.g. *a weekly / a daily* (*paper*); *a musical* (*show*); *at present (time)*; *durables (from durable goods)*; *presale* (*view, tasting*), *private* (*soldier*); *pilot* (*film*); *cinema* (*theatre*), *classified (ad)*, *to be sentenced to life (imprisonment)*. The same phenomenon takes place in Russian: *рабочий* (*человек*), *столовая* (*зала, комната*), *сотовый* (*телефон*), *выходной* (*день*).

3. ***Linguistic analogy*** is found out when synonymous words acquire the like meanings, e.g. verbs of getting hold with a hand (*catch, grasp, get*) develop the meaning 'to understand'.

3. *What are the basic types of association involved in various semantic changes?*

Meaning transfer is the basis for semantic change. Types of transfer depend on the nature of connection between the denotatum and its name.

Two types of such connections are usually distinguished — ***implication*** (it's based on logical connection between the whole and the part of an object) and ***qualification*** (it assumes that there is a common feature shared by two denotata). Meaning transfer based on implication embraces metonymy, synechdoche and conversion. Meaning transfer based on qualification embraces metaphor, synesthesia and functional transfer.

4. What are the results of the change of the denotational aspect of lexical meaning?

Metonymy implies existence of real connection between two denotata which are united by the relations of contiguity. It is the transfer of name based on the association of contiguity: *an English bobby*, *a redhead*, *a brain* (*a person with a very good mind*), *sultana*.

Synecdoche is a type of metonymy consisting in the substitution of the name of the whole by the name of some of its parts (*penny* = 'a good sum of money' (a pretty penny) or vice versa (*the Crown* = 'monarchy'), or the singular stands for the plural (*royal horse* = *'cavalry'*), etc. Usually two directions of synecdoche are discriminated — part for the whole (pars pro toto): *a big foot* — снежный человек, *a private eye* — частный сыщик); and whole for the part (totum pars parte), which seldom occurs: *lunch* — meal taken > *packet lunch*, *free lunch* — food for the meal.

Conversion is a type of meaning transfer based on implication featuring the denotatum from two different sides. Thus, the adjective *sad* can have contrary meanings in the sentences *He is sad* (feeling sorrow; unhappy) и *His story is sad* (causing, suggestive, or expressive of such feelings). Similar relations of meaning conversion are seen in the semantic structure of the verb *wear*: *The coat wears long* (the subject experiences an action) and *He wears a coat* (the subjects acts himself).

5. What are the results of the change of the connotational aspect of lexical meaning?

A ***metaphor*** is a shift of meaning caused by the likeness (similarity of some features of two objects) of denotata. Metaphor is an association based on the similarities of objects.

Synesthesia united denotata on the basis of sense perception. For example, synesthetic transfer takes place in the semantic structure of the adjective *soft* and results in its different collocability: *soft music*, *voice*,

whispers – quiet, *pleasant to hear*, *tender* (тихий); *soft surface*, *ground*, *velvet – smooth and delicate*, *pleasant to touch or walk on* (мягкий).

Functional transfer of meaning is based on similarity of two denotata when they perform the same or similar function. Thus, the method of movement of an insect and a tractor is reflected in their common name *caterpillar*. Green trees in the city perform the same function with the lungs of a man or an animal, which gives basis for nomination *lungs* (*of a town*). Functional similarity unites the meanings of the word *stool-pigeon*: a) pigeon used as a decoy (приманка); b) (fig) person acting as a decoy, e.g. one employed by the police to trap a criminal (осведомитель, доносчик, стукач).

Litotes (**understatement**) is a transfer of meaning when the speaker expresses affirmative with the negative or vice versa, e.g. *not bad*, *no coward*, etc.

Hyperbole is a transfer of meaning when the speaker uses exaggeration, e.g. *to hate* (*doing something*), (*not to see somebody*) *for ages*, *to roar* (*with laughter*). Hyperbole is often used to form phraseological units, e.g. *to make a mountain out of a molehill*, *to split hairs*, *etc.*

Irony is a transfer of meaning based on the contrast of two notions: the notion named and the notion meant, especially for the purpose of ridicule or disparagement (*What a fine friend you are!*). One of the meanings of the adjective *nice* is 'bad', 'unsatisfactory'; it is marked off as ironical, for example: *You've got us into a nice mess!* The same may be said about the adjective *pretty*: *A pretty mess you've made of it! That's a pretty kettle of fish!*

Практические задания и упражнения к семинару 5 (Practical Tasks)

Assignment 1. Determine the extralinguistic causes of semantic development of the words: historical, social, psychological.

Example

Negro > colored > black > African American/Afro-American (psychological causes):

a) *fee* 'payment for services' from O.E. *feoh* 'money, property, cattle';

b) *Negro > colored > black > African American /Afro-American*;

c) *car* 'automobile' from Lat. *carrus* 'four-wheeled vehicle';

d) telephone price rates: *cheap / standard / peak*; sizes: *jumbo / large / medium*;

e) *arrive* "to get to a place" from O.Fr. *ariver* 'to come to land', from V.L. *arripare* "to touch the shore', from L. *ad ripam* 'to come to the shore' (after a long voyage);

f) *bug* 'an error in computer logic' from 'an insect';

g) *icon* 'a pictorial representation of a facility available on a computer system' from 'a representation of Christ, the Virgin Mary, or a saint';

h) *cell* 'the basic structural and functional unit of living organisms' from 'a small simple room, as in a prison, convent, monastery, or asylum'.

Assignment 2. Establish the linguistic cause of semantic development of the words: ellipsis, differentiation of synonyms, linguistic analogy.

Example

To catch = 'to understand': Sorry, I didn't quite catch what you said. > Cf. *She didn't get the joke. They failed to grasp the importance of his words (linguistic analogy):*

a) *gay* 'a homosexual' from a *gay* 'full of joy or mirth' *in gay house* (= brothel);

b) *to propose* 'to ask sb to marry you' < *to propose marriage*;

c) *token* from O.E. *tacen* 'sign, symbol, evidence'. Syn. *sign*. Original sense of 'evidence' is retained in *by the same token, love token, token of respect*;

d) *to catch = 'to understand': Sorry, I didn't quite catch what you said. >* Cf. *She didn't get the joke. They failed to grasp the importance of his words*;

e) *harvest 'the time of year when the crops are gathered in on a farm' from German herbst 'autumn'; autumn 'the time of the year' from Latin autumnu through French;*

f) *taxi from taximeter cab;*

g) *chair from Old French chaiere, from Latin cathedra, from Greek kathedra, from kata- down + hedra seat; stool from Old English stōl; related to Old Norse stōll, Gothic stōls , Old High German stuol chair, Greek stulos pillar.*

Assignment 3. Define the type of semantic change.

Example

In a delicate condition ("pregnant") — euphemism:

1) pipe (from "a musical wind instrument")	a) metaphor
2) a jersey	b) metonymy

3) villain   c) specialization of meaning

4) half-seas-over ("drunk")   d) generalization of meaning

5) eye of a needle   e) hyperbole

6) I'm hanged if I'll do that   f) litotes

7) tide ("time")   g) degradation of meaning

8) tongues of flame   h) elevation of meaning

9) knight (from "manservant")   i) irony

10) mentally unstable ("mad")   j) euphemism

11) no ugly ("plain")

12) in a delicate condition ("pregnant")

13) floods of blood

14) a deer (from "any beast")

15) a nice matter ("terrible")

Assignment 4. Pick out *trite* and *live* metaphors from the word combinations below. Explain the logic of the meaning transfer.

Example

Wings of vultures (*trite metaphor*) / vultures from the media (*live metaphor*):

cabbage moth caterpillars / Caterpillar track;

wings of vultures / vultures from the media;

snail shell / at a snail's pace;

branch of a bank / branch of a tree;

tulip bulb / light bulb;

the ray of sun / the ray of hope;

flood waters / floods of refugees;

a summer storm / storm of protest.

Assignment 5. What semantic processes have taken place in the following words in the course of their development? Find for each word its original meaning.

Example

Spinster – "a woman who originally spins thread or yarn". Meaning became worse in the course of its development due to *pejoration*:

spinster, lord, earl, woman, wife, husband, king, queen, meat, hound, starve, sly, stake, revolution, challenge, citizen, clerk, fly, boor, baron, sale, season, marshal?

Assignment 6. Guess about reasons for the following euphemistic transfers.

Example

Chronologically gifted = 'old, elderly' (*psychological reasons*):

liquidation = 'murder'; military operations = 'war'; servicing the target = 'killing the enemy'; refuse collector = 'dustbin man'; vegetable executive = 'greengrocer'; mail carrier = 'postman'; lay off, workforce management, employee transaction, stuff reduction, optimizing, selecting out = 'discharge / dismissal from office / fire'; senior, mature, middlescence, third age, chronologically gifted = 'old, elderly'.

Рекомендуемая литература

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. How Words Develop New Meanings / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова // Лексикология английского языка = English Lexicology : учебник и практикум для вузов / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. — 8-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва, 2021. — Chapter 8. — С. 97—105.

2. Арнольд, И. В. Значение слова // Лексикология современного английского языка : учеб. пособие / И. В. Арнольд. — 4-е изд., стер. — Москва, 2017. — Глава третья. — С. 49—65. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/108229 (дата обращения: 07.12.2021).

3. Бабич, Г. Н. Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Г. Н. Бабич. — 8-е изд. — Москва : Флинта, 2016. — 195, [1] с. — Из содерж.: Chapter 4. — С. 65—70. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/85849 (дата обращения: 07.12.2021).

4. Гвишиани, Н. Б. The Metalanguage // Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Н. Б. Гвишиани. — 3-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва, 2019. — С. 161—163.

5. Jackson, H. Word, Meaning and Vocabulary : An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology / H. Jackson, E. Ze Amvela. — 2nd ed. —

London : Continuum, 2007. − X, 250 p. − From the content: Chapter 2. − P. 35−42.

Theme 1.5. Polysemy. Semantic Structure of the Word. Context

Форма проведения занятия: собеседование.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. What is the definition of a polysemantic word?
2. What causes polysemy?
3. What is a lexico-semantic variant?
4. What is meant by the historical changeability of semantic structure of the word?
5. What types of semantic structure are traditionally singled out?
6. How do you understand the term 'context'?
7. What types of linguistic context do you know?

Методические материалы к занятию
Тезисы лекции для подготовки к собеседованию
(Short outline of the theme)

1. What is the definition of a polysemantic word?

Words are able to have more than one meaning, the structure of such words is viewed in terms of polysemy. ***Polysemy*** (from Greek *polus* − 'many' and *sema* − 'meaning') means a plurality, diversity of meanings, the existence within one word of several connected meanings as the result of the development of its original meaning. The bulk of English words are polysemantic ones. For the first 1,000 of the most frequent words registered in the New English Dictionary, 25,000 meanings are numbered. Monosemantic words are few in number, they are mostly terms: *liquidity*, *adhocracy*, *benchmarking*. For example, the word *man* has more than 10 meanings (table 4):

Table 4

Polysemantic structure of the word *man*

1) a human being (*straight man*, *grown man*);	1) человек;
2) a member of a profession (*maintenance man*, *man of law*);	2) представитель профессии;
3) an adult male human being (*a man*);	3) мужчина;
4) an courageous or virile adult male human being (*be a man*, *a man of character*);	4) мужественный человек;
5) human beings collectively, mankind (*the development of man*);	5) человечество;
6) servant, or employee (*Hire a man to take care of the garden*);	6) слуга, рабочий;
7) a husband, boyfriend, etc. (*man and wife*);	7) муж;
8) a member of the armed forces (*officers and men*);	8) солдат, рядовой;
9) a vassal of a feudal lord (*the man of the Duke of Normans*);	9) вассал;
10) a movable piece in chess, draughts, etc.	10) пешка, шашка, кость

2. What causes polysemy?

The system of meanings of any polysemantic word develops gradually, mostly over the centuries. These complicated processes of polysemy development involve both the appearance of the new meanings and the loss of old ones. Yet, the general tendency with the English vocabulary at the modern stage of its history is to increase the total number of its meanings and to provide for a quantitative and qualitative growth of the expressive resources of the language.

3. What is a lexico-semantic variant?

Lexico-semantic variant is one of the individual meanings of a polysemantic word. They are registered in dictionaries as different meaning of one and the same word. The number of lexico-semantic variants makes a lexeme. Lexeme is a word in all its meanings and forms, i.e. a word as a structural element of language (invariant). LSVs are cases of content variation within a word deprived of formal expression. There's a contradiction: lexico-semantic variant is a unit of content in language, but it becomes a unit of expression in speech. For example, *saw — пила*, *пилить*; *видел*.

4. What is meant by the historical changeability of semantic structure of the word?

The semantic structure of a word is a structured set of interrelated lexico-semantic variants (the major (or basic) meaning of a word and the minor (derived) meanings). The semantic structure of a word is the system and hierarchical unity of all the types of meaning that a certain word possesses. In ordinary conversation we can draw a borderline between LSVs without difficulty considering valency, syntactic function, paradigmatic and morphologic (number, case, etc.) peculiarities: *I ran home* (intransitive verb) VS *I ran this office* (transitive verb). To define the semantic structure of a word means to establish the order of chaining and subordination of nonhomogeneous meanings and define the means of semantic discrimination between LSVs within one word. For example, the word GEAR (fig. 3):

1. The machinery in a vehicle such as a car, truck, or bicycle that you use to go comfortably at different speeds: *His mountain bike had 18 gears. Andy drove cautiously along in third gear.*

2. Used to talk about the amount of effort and energy that someone is using in a situation: *During this period, Japan's export industries were in top gear (=were as active as they could be).*

3. *American English* to start doing something in a different way, especially using more or less energy or effort: *The boss expects us to be able to change gear just like that.*

4. A set of equipment or tools you need for a particular activity: *He's crazy about photography − he's got all the gear. We'll need some camping gear.*

5. A set of clothes that you wear for a particular occasion or activity: *Bring your rain gear.*

6. A piece of machinery that performs a particular job: *the landing gear of a plane, heavy lifting gear.*

7. *British English* informal a word meaning illegal drugs, used by people who take drugs.
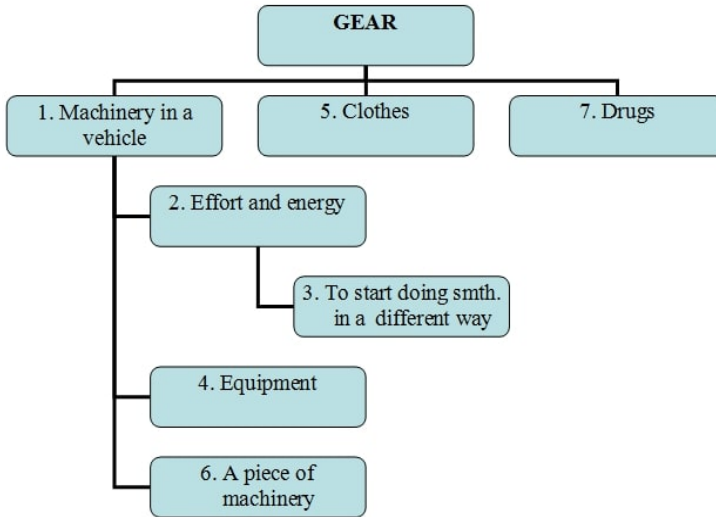
Fig. 3. Lexico-semantic variants of the word *gear*

5. What types of semantic structure are traditionally singled out?

Radial polysemy is the type of polysemy in which the primary meaning of a word stands in the centre and the secondary meanings proceed out of it like rays. Each secondary meaning can be traced to the primary meaning. Fig. 4 below shows this type of polysemy.
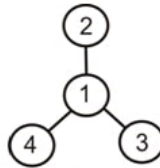
Fig. 4. Radial polysemy

In the word *tube* the primary meaning is

1) a long hollow and typically cylindrical object, used for the passage of fluids or as a container: *tubes of glue, toothpaste, mayonnaise'*. Each secondary meaning developed directly from the primary one;

2) any hollow cylindrical structure or organ in the body: *Eustachian tube*, *Fallopian tube*, *the bronchial tube*;

3) in electronics another name for valve: *electron tube*, *cathode-ray tube*, *television tube* (> *tube* (*TV*) − *ellipsis*, e.g. *YouTube*);

4) *slang* a bottle or can of beer: *a tube of lager*.

Chain polysemy is the type of polysemy in which the secondary meanings of a word develop like chain. In such cases it may be difficult to trace some meanings to the primary ones. This type of polysemy can be represented with the help of fig. 5.

Fig. 5. Chain polysemy

In the word *crust* the primary meaning is

1) 'the hard brown outer surface of bread: *sandwiches with the crusts cut off*'. Out of this meaning its secondary meanings are; 2) 'the baked outer part of foods such as pies or pizzas: *a thin crust pizza*'; 3) 'a thin hard dry layer on the surface of something: *A hard gray crust had formed on the bottom of the tea kettle*'; 4) 'the hard outer layer of the Earth: *deep within the Earth's crust*'.

**Radial-chain** (**mixed**) **polysemy** is a combination of radial polysemy and chain polysemy. Here the configuration of a diagram depends on the word semantic structure, hence there's a great variety of diagrams illustrating this type of polysemy. The meanings of the word *gear* make the polysemy of this type.

6. How do you understand the term 'context'?

Context − the semantically complete passage of speech sufficient to establish the meaning of a given word (phrase); the minimal stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word.

7. What types of linguistic context do you know?

Contexts can be of two types: *linguistic* and *extra-linguistic*.

Linguistic contexts may be subdivided into:

— phonetical context;

— morphological context;

— lexical (semantic) context;

— phrasal (phraseological) context;

— syntactic (grammatical) context.

There are cases when the meaning of a word is ultimately determined by the actual speech situation in which the word is used, i.e. by *extra-linguistic context*. Linguistic context is sometimes not enough to establish the word meaning, so some misunderstanding takes place, e.g. in the sentence *He is perfectly sound*, the meaning of the word *sound* is clearly ambiguous as it has two readings 'financially secure' and 'not damaged, injured, or diseased'.

Практические задания и упражнения к семинару 6 (Practical Tasks)

Assignment 1. Classify the given words according to the semantic principle into monosemantic and polysemantic ones:

Example

ozonoscope – monosemantic; *corona* – polysemantic.

corona, corolla, venom, ozonoscope, amplifier, paronomasia, value, VAT, log, mill.

Assignment 2. Consult a dictionary and name all lexico-semantic variants of the following polysemantic words. Which semes are invariant for all LSVs of the word?

Example

Club – recreation centre, waft, cudgel, truncheon, mace, bat (noun).
Definitions:

1) a heavy stick, usually thicker at one end than at the other, suitable for use as a weapon;

2) a group of persons organized for a social, literary, athletic, political, or other purpose;

3) the building or rooms occupied by such a group:

1. Chicken (noun). 2. Club (noun). 3. Mind (noun). 4. Round (adj.). 5. Way (noun). 6. Reach (verb). 7. Branch (n.). 8. Peel (verb). 9. Contest (noun). 10. Bright (adj.)

Assignment 3. Choose any polysemantic word and illustrate its meanings with examples of your own. Prove that meanings are related one to another.

Example

Branch – limb, arm, creek, curve, division (noun).

Definitions:

1) part of a tree which grows out from the trunk or from a bough;
2) a division or office of a large business or organization, operating locally or having a particular function;
3) a conceptual subdivision of a family, subject, group of languages, etc.

Assignment 4. Identify the meaning of the verb *have* in the semantic, grammatical and phrasal contexts.

Example

He had his head in his hands — phrasal context:

1. He's gone home, hasn't he?
2. I don't have that much money on me.
3. We have a duty to care for the refugees.
4. He had his head in his hands.
5. I'll have the salmon.
6. She's going to have a baby.
7. She had her bag stolen.
8. Can I have the bill, please?
9. I'm sick of your rudeness — won't have it any longer!
10. You paid 200? I'm afraid you've been had.
11. The engine's had it.
12. There's room in the cellar to store old furniture and what have you.

Assignment 5. Study the data of explanatory and translation dictionaries and comment upon the semantic structures of the words *flat* and *плоский*.

Example

Flat — level, even, or without unevenness of surface, as land or tabletops; lacking emotion; dull and lifeless.

Плоский — ровный, без выступов или углублений; неумный, неоригинальный, пошлый.

Assignment 6. Translate the sentences. Avoid looking up for the underlined words:

Example

Beat the morning <u>rush</u> by walking to work — В пробки лучше ходить на работу пешком.

He drank <u>socially</u> — Он не пил в одиночку.

1. He was under the patronage of the Washington Post, which started <u>boosting</u> him as a suitably conservative black candidate for mayor. 2. English and German are <u>sister</u> languages. 3. He drank <u>socially</u>. 4. The planet should be visible to the <u>naked</u> eye. 5. The Coke was warm and had gone <u>flat</u>. 6. They're getting married next year, and hope to <u>start</u> a family straight away. 7. The birthday of the Prophet Mohammad is a <u>public</u> holiday in Turkey. 8. He was determined to study far <u>reaches</u> of the universe. 9. He really is the <u>dullest</u> boy in the class. 10. Beat the morning <u>rush</u> by walking to work.

Рекомендуемая литература

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. What Is «Meaning»? / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова // Лексикология английского языка = English Lexicology : учебник и практикум для вузов / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. — 8-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва, 2021. — Chapter 7. — С. 86—93.

2. Арнольд, И. В. Значение слова // Лексикология современного английского языка : учеб. пособие / И. В. Арнольд. — 4-е изд., стер. — Москва, 2017. — Глава третья. — С. 58—68. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/108229 (дата обращения: 07.12.2021).

3. Бабич, Г. Н. Semantics // Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Г. Н. Бабич. — 8-е изд. — Москва, 2016. — Chapter 4. — С. 61—65. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/85849 (дата обращения: 07.12.2021).

4. Гвишиани, Н. Б. Polysemy, Homonymy, Enantiosemy // Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Н. Б. Гвишиани. — 3-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва, 2019. — С. 163—171.

5. Jackson, H. Word, Meaning and Vocabulary : An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology / H. Jackson, E. Ze Amvela. — 2nd ed. — London : Continuum, 2007. — X, 250 p. — From the content: Chapter 2. — P. 45—52.

Module 2. ENGLISH WORD-STOCK

Theme 2.1. The English Vocabulary as a System

Форма проведения занятия: собеседование.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. What are the basic types of relations of words?
2. What relations are called paradigmatic?
3. What do syntagmatic relations mean?
4. What semantic relations are synonyms, antonyms, homonyms characterised by?
5. Is there any difference between a sematic field and a thematic group?
6. Is there any difference between a sematic field and a lexico-semantic group?
7. What do the terms 'hyperonym' and 'hyponym' mean?
8. What is the relation between valency and collocability?
9. What types of linguistic context do you know?
10. How can lexical units be organized on the basis of associative relations?

Методические материалы к занятию
Тезисы лекции для подготовки к собеседованию
(Short outline of the theme)

1. What are the basic types of relations of words?

A *system* is a structured set of elements united by common relations. Vocabulary can be classified on etymological (native and borrowed words), stylistic (slang, argot, terms, vulgar and professional words, etc.), geographical (words of national language and dialectal ones) criteria.

Crucial for the systemic description of language are the two fundamental types of relations between lingual units: ***paradigmatic*** and ***syntagmatic relations***.

2. What relations are called paradigmatic?

The term is derived from the word *paradigm* and denotes the relations between elements in paradigms in the system of language. Ferdinand de Saussure called these relations 'associative relations', implying the way

different linguistic units are arranged and associated with each other in human minds. *Paradigm*, in most general terms, is a system of variants of the same unit, which is called 'the invariant'; **paradigmatic relations** are the relations between the variants of the lingual unit within a paradigm. In the lexical system paradigmatic relations exist between **synonyms and antonyms**, **hyponyms and hypernyms**, **elements of semantic fields**, **word-building patterns**, etc. Since these relations can't be observed in actual speech they are also described as relations "in absentia" ("in the absence"). Paradigmatic relations are vertical.

3. What do syntagmatic relations mean?

The term "syntagmatic relations" is derived from the word *syntagma*, i.e. a linear combination of units of the same level. Lingual units form various lingual strings, sequences, or constructions; in other words, lingual units co-occur in the same actual sequences. E.g.: *He started laughing*. In this sentence we can point out syntagmatic, or linear relations between the sounds *[h+i:] = [hi:]*; *[s+t+a:+t+i+d] = ['sta:tid]*; etc.; the morphemes are also connected syntagmatically within words: *start+ed = started*; *laugh+ing = laughing*; the combinations of words form syntagmas within phrases and sentences: *He + started*; *started + laughing*. Besides, the sentence can be connected with other sentences by syntagmatic relations in the process of communication, in speech, e.g.: *He started laughing. Everybody thought it was rather odd*. Since these relations can be observed in actual utterances, they are also defined by the Latin term *"in praesentia"* ("in the presence", present in the same sequence).

4. What semantic relations are synonyms, antonyms, homonyms characterized by?

Unlike paradigmatic relations the syntagmatic ones don't imply similarity or difference of signs. They only imply that the signs entering these relations can be used together in the process of human intercourse. Syntagmatic relations are horizontal since they are based on the linear character of speech.

The distinction between syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations is conventionally indicated by horizontal and vertical presentation as it is shown on fig. 6.

Fig. 6. Syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations

5. Is there any difference between a sematic field and a thematic group?

Within the frame of the logical approach lexical system was comprehended as a set of lexical units no matter what intralinguistic connections existed between the words. The lexical continuum used to be divided on the logical basis. This approach is to be found in ideographic dictionaries (from Greek *ideo* – 'concept, image'). For example, the word *form* enters systemic relations with other words, as fig. 7 shows.
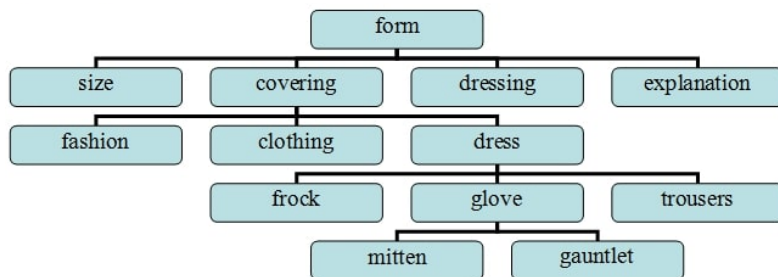
Fig. 7. Semantic field

The 20th century also sees lexical system as a set of conceptual fields corresponding to lexical fields, but provides the analysis for notion and meaning correlation. The term 'semantic field' was introduced to denote the correlation. The starting point of the theory of semantic fields was J. Trier's work (a German linguist; the beginning of the 20th century) on intellectual terms in Old and Middle High German. The disadvantage of his theory is that he equals notion and meaning which agrees with the logical approach. For the most part, however, there is no one-to-one

correlation between notions and words, and the classification of notions, even if it were feasible, is a very poor help for classification of meanings and their systematic presentation.

6. Is there any difference between a sematic field and a lexico-semantic group?

The term 'field' turned out to be highly productive in linguistics. ***Semantic field*** is the extensive organization of related words and expressions of different parts of speech into a system which shows their relations to one another. Here the significance of each unit is determined by its neighbours. The semantic areas of the units limit one another and cover up the whole sphere. For instance, the semantic field "Human mind" consists of the following groups, including the words of different parts of speech:

nouns — *mind*, *reason*, *cognition*, *idea*, *concept*, *judgement*, *analysis*, *conclusion*, *etc.*;

verbs — *think*, *conclude*, *consider*, *reflect*, *meditate*, *reminisce*, *contemplate*, *etc.*;

adjectives — *intelligent*, *wise*, *smart*, *knowledgeable*, *witless*, *dim-witted*, *etc.*

Semantic field has its hierarchical structure — the nucleus and periphery. The center is made up by the words the given semantic feature enters the main (primary, central) meaning, for example in the semantic field of emotions *fear* and *anger* have semantic feature 'feeling' in their primary meaning, but *fire* and *bile* have it in transferred meanings and, thus, make the periphery of the field. Think of the center and periphery for the semantic field of colours (*blue*, *red*, *yellow*, *black*, *purple*, etc.), the semantic field of kinship terms (*mother*, *father*, *brother*, *cousin*, *mother-in-law*, etc.).

There can be certain lexical gaps in semantic fields. Lexical gap is the absence of a word in a particular place in a semantic field of a language. Compare the following semantic sets of table 5.

Table 5

Lexical gaps

horse	sheep	dog	—
stallion	ram	dog (пёс)	bull
mare	ewe	bitch	cow
colt	lamb	puppy	calf

7. What do the terms 'hyperonym' and 'hyponym' mean?

Lexico-semantic groups are also structured hierarchically, that relations within such groups are paradigmatic. Study the hierachical structure of the lexico-sematic group "plant" (fig. 8).
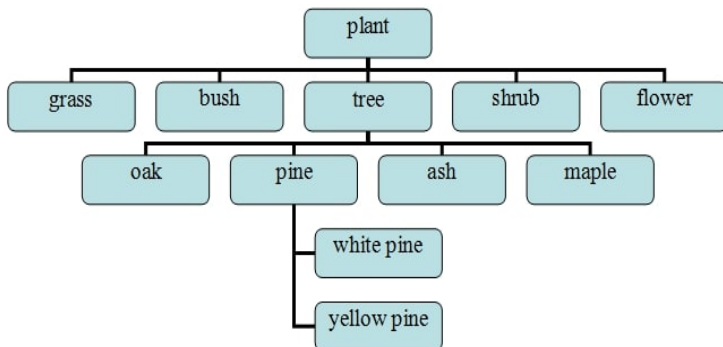
Fig. 8. Lexico-semantic group "plant"

Hypernym (*hyperonym*, *superordinate*) is a generic term, a member of the upper level with a more general meaning.

Hyponym is a specific term, a member of the lower level with a more specific meaning.

Co-hyponyms (*equonyms*) are several specific names which are at the same level in a classification system.

For example, the word *plant* is a hypernym for the word *tree*, since the meaning of 'tree' is "included" into the meaning of *plant*. In other words, *tree* with its more specific name is a hyponym of *plant*. At the same time *tree* is a hypernym for other words with more specific and narrow meanings: *pine*, *oak*, *ash*, *maple*. In respect to *tree* these words are hyponyms, but in respect to each other they are co-hyponyms.

8. What is the relation between valency and collocability?

Lexical grouping can be done on the basis of contextual (syntagmatic) relations. Classification of vocabulary items into ***thematic groups*** is based on the co-occurrence of words in certain repeatedly used contexts. For example, on the level of word-groups the word *question*, for instance, is often found in collocation with the verbs *raise*, *put forward*, *discuss*, etc., with the adjectives *urgent*, *vital*, *disputable* and so on. The verb *accept*

occurs in numerous contexts together with the nouns *proposal*, *invitation*, *plan* and others.

9. What types of linguistic context do you know?

As a rule, thematic groups deal with contexts on the level of the sentence. Words in thematic groups are joined together by common contextual associations within the framework of the sentence and reflect the interlinking of things or events. Common contextual association of the words, e.g. *tree − grow − green*; *journey − train − taxi − bags − ticket or sunshine − brightly − blue − sky*, is due to the regular co-occurrence of these words in a number of sentences. Words making up a thematic group belong to different parts of speech and do not possess any common denominator of meaning.

Thematic groups are distinguished by means of text analysis. Words entering a thematic group are united by some typical situation. The basis for uniting words into thematic groups is relations of the objects in the real world.

10. How can lexical units be organized on the basis of associative relations?

Words can be grouped on the basis of such extralinguistic factor as associations. The criterion of the grouping of this kind is a psycholinguistic one. Associative connections are revealed in psycholinguistic experiment. They can be paradigmatic and syntagmatic. One of the methods to arrange the socio-cultural and individual associations is a frame (it's a term of cognitive linguistics).

Frame (*mental frame*) is an arranged set of characteristics and relations of social reality, verbalized (worded) by language means. Frame is knowledge about typical situations. Social and individual experience can be viewed in the frame form. Frame in a certain way structures knowledge essential for comprehension by means of interrelated word groups. Frame is a minimal description which can distinguish an object from the surrounding world. Frame describes a typical succession of actions in a stereotype situation.

Another method to describe cognitive associations connected with a word is to study the concept. *Concept* is a discrete mental unit which reflects the object of real or imaginative world and is kept in the national memory of native speakers in the verbalized form.

Практические задания и упражнения к семинару 7
(Practical Tasks)

Assignment 1. Find the hypernyms in the given lexico-semantic groups.

Example

scarlet, vermilion, crimson, red, purple — *red* is the hypernym:

1) scarlet, vermilion, crimson, red, purple;
2) castle/rook, knight, bishop, chessmen, king, queen, pawn;
3) cod, hake, plaice, mackerel, herring, sardine, fish, trout, salmon, sturgeon;
4) prawn, shrimp, crab, lobster, crayfish, squid, seafood, cockle, mussel, oyster, scallop, plaice, shellfish;
5) felt-tip pen, stationery, folder, paperclips, stapler, highlighter;
6) tiepin, necklace, earring, brooch, pendant, bracelet, jewelry;
7) veal, mutton, beef, pork, turkey, meat, venison, poultry, game, lamb.

Assignment 2. Characterize each of the following sets in terms of systemic approach to vocabulary (semantic field, thematic group, lexico-thematic group).

Example

Secondary school, nursery, university — these words belong to thematic group '*education*':

1) airplane, beach wagon, bicycle, bicycle-built-for-two, bulldozer, bus, cab, cable railway, car, carriage, convertible, cruiser, express, handcart, hovercraft, limousine, locomotive, lorry, metro, minibike, monorail, moped, motor scooter, motorcycle, mountain bike, passenger car, pickup, roadster, scooter, sedan, snowmobile, sports car, streetcar, tractor, trailer, train, trawler, tricycle, truck, unicycle, van, wagon;
2) sixth form college, secondary school, nursery, university, junior high school, primary school, diploma, doctorate, semester, private, higher, term, medical, public, academic, master's, college, postgraduate;
3) patterns (on materials), pin-striped, spotted, plain, striped, checked, flowery, tartan.

Assignment 3. Match the words on the left with the kinds of teacher on the right.

Example

University lecturer:

university	teacher
private	lecturer
football	coach
school	instructor
racehorse	tutor
driving	trainer

Assignment 4. Arrange the following units into three lexical sets, give them corresponding names.

Example

Robbery, burglary, shoplifting, fraud, carjacking belong to the lexical set "*Crime*":

robbery, burglary, loan blend, loanword, recycle, metonymy, monosyllable, back-formation, shoplifting, fraud, carjacking, ozone, criminal, thief, crook, charade, cognate, contraction, burglar, greenhouse effect, key word, mugger, robber, pickpocket, rapist, offender, anagram, lawbreaker, crime, quantifier, felony, throw away, misdemeanor, organized crime, war crime, innocent, arrested, acid rain, police station, prison, witness, eyewitness, antonym, bottle bank, sustainable energy, temperature, waste paper, homonym, litter, habitat, activist, ecologist, renewable energy, landscape, offence, polysyllable, petrol, oil spills, carbon dioxide, anaphor, deictic, derivative, assault, diminutive, dirty word, disyllable, four-letter word, frame, function word, good word, headword, hyponym, theft, hyponym, mugging, murder, rape, nonce word, palindrome, polysemant, reduplication, substantive, synonym, term, terminology.

Assignment 5. Think of one word only which can be used appropriately in all three sentences.

Example

Helen rubbed her carpet as hard as she could but the stain still wouldn't *come* out.

I'm afraid people don't *come* much meaner than my neighbour; she even re-uses her old tea bags!

Matt has gone out this evening to try and forget how badly his presentation went, but in the cold light of day it'll *come* back to haunt him.

1) At the end of the holiday _____ on to any unused foreign currency because it may come in handy on another occasion;

2) If your call is not answered within two minutes, you're advised to _____ up and dial again.

3) The company decided to _____ a portrait of the retiring managing director in the boardroom;

4) Helen rubbed her carpet as hard as she could but the stain still wouldn't _____ out.

5) I'm afraid people don't _____ much meaner than my neighbour; she even re-uses her old tea bags!

6) Matt has gone out this evening to try and forget how badly his presentation went, but in the cold light of day it'll _____ back to haunt him;

7) Everyone was surprised to discover that the young man was eligible to _____ for president.

8) The factory closure became such a contentious issue that even the national newspapers decided to _____ a series of articles on it.

9) The supervisor had to _____ through the safety guidelines several times before she was convinced that all the staff had understood.

Assignment 6. Using the data of various dictionaries compare the lexical valency of the words:

Example

To peel potatoes, to scrape gum off the desk, to scrub one's back:

peel, scrape, scrub; guilt, fault, blame; roam, wander, ramble, rove, stray, walk around; value, worth, utility; fear, alarm, dismay, panic; avert, avoid, evade.

Рекомендуемая литература

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. The Elymology of English Words. Are All English Words Really English / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова // Лексикология английского языка = English Lexicology : учебник и практикум для вузов / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. — 8-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва, 2021. — Chapter 3. — С. 32—39.

2. Арнольд, И. В. Типы слов в лексической системе современного английского языка // Лексикология современного английского языка : учеб. пособие / И. В. Арнольд. — 4-е изд., стер. — Москва, 2017. — Глава четвертая. — С. 83—100. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/108229 (дата обращения: 07.12.2021).

3. Бабич, Г. Н. The Vocabulary of a Language as a System // Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Г. Н. Бабич. — 8-е изд. — Москва, 2016. — Chapter 5. — С. 74—85. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/85849 (дата обращения: 07.12.2021).

4. Гвишиани, Н. Б. Terminology and Terminography: a Cognitive Approach // Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Н. Б. Гвишиани. — 3-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва, 2019. — С. 200—215.

5. Jackson, H. Word, Meaning and Vocabulary : An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology / H. Jackson, E. Ze Amvela. — 2nd ed. — London : Continuum, 2007. — X, 250 p. — From the content: Chapter 3. — P. 55—62.

Theme 2.2. Homonyms. Paronyms

Форма проведения занятия: собеседование.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. Give the definition of homonyms. Why is English so rich in homonyms?
2. What is the most widely accepted classification of homonyms?
3. What are the formal criteria which help to differentiate between polysemy and homonymy?
4. What words are defined as paronyms?

Методические материалы к занятию

Тезисы лекции для подготовки к собеседованию
(Short outline of the theme)

1. Give the definition of homonyms. Why is English so rich in homonyms?

Homonyms (from Greek *homos* — "the same" and *onoma* — "name") are the words, different in meaning and either identical both in sound and

spelling or identical only in spelling or sound, for example *ball* as a round object used in game, and *ball* as a gathering of people for dancing.

Proper homonyms (*perfect homonyms*) are words identical both in spelling and in sound-form but different in meaning, for example, *case* — 'something that has happened' and *case* — 'a box, a container'.

Homophones are words identical in sound-form but different both in spelling and in meaning: *scent*, *cent* — *sent*, *son* — *sun*, *father* — *farther*, *discreet* (благоразумный) — *discrete* (дискретный), *for* — *fore* (нос корабля).

Homographs are words identical in spelling but different both in their sound-form and meaning: *tear* [tiə] — 'a drop of water that comes from the eyes', *tear* [tɛə] — 'to pull apart by force'; *row* [rɛʊ] — 'an arrangement of persons or things in a line', *row* [raʊ] — 'a noisy quarrel or dispute'.

2. What is the most widely accepted classification of homonyms?

The traditional classification is far from being a perfect one as it doesn't take into consideration the part of speech words belong to Professor A.I. Smirnitsky classified homonyms into two large classes with respect to part of speech status of words: 1) full homonyms; 2) partial homonyms.

I. *Full homonyms* — words which represent the same part of speech category and have the same paradigm, e.g. *match* — 'a game, a contest' and 'a short piece of wood used for producing fire'; *pit* 'a large, usually deep opening in the ground' and chiefly US and Canadian 'the stone of a cherry, plum, etc', *key* 'a metal instrument to fit a lock' and 'a small low island or bank composed of sand and coral fragments'. The difference is confined to the lexical meaning only.

II. *Partial homonyms* — words which coincide in some of their forms, but have different paradigms. There are three groups of them.

1. *Partial lexical homonyms* are words which belong to the same part of speech, are identical in form but differ in lexical meaning and paradigms. E.g. *to lie* (*lay*, *lain*) : : *to lie* (*lied*, *lied*); *to hang* (*hung*, *hung*) : : *to hang* (*hanged*, *hanged*).

2. *Lexico-grammatical homonyms* are words which belong to different parts of speech and differ in lexical meaning and grammatical meanings.

A. *Simple lexico-grammatical homonyms* are words which belong to one and the same part of speech and differ in lexical meaning and grammatical

paradigm, e.g. *to found* : : *found* (past indefinite, past participle of "to find"); *to lay* : : *lay* (past indefinite of "to lie"), etc.

B. ***Complex lexico-grammatical homonyms*** are words which belong different parts of speech and differ in lexical meaning and grammatical paradigm, e.g., *rose* (n) : : *rose* (past indefinite of "to rise"); *left* (adj) : : *left* (past indefinite of "to leave"), *bit* (n) : : *bit* (past indefinite of "to bite").

3. ***Grammatical homonyms*** are homonymous word-forms of one and the same word which are different in grammatical meaning only: *asked* (Past Indefinite) − *asked* (Past Participle), *learned* (v) − *learned* (adj.) ['lɜːnɪd]; *brother's* (Possesive Case) − *brothers'* (Possesive Case) − *brothers* (Plural), *going* (Participle I) − *going* (Gerund) − *going* (Noun).

3. What are the formal criteria which help to differentiate between polysemy and homonymy?

Homonymy can be caused by <u>phonetic changes</u> (convergent sound development) which words undergo in the course of their historical development. As a result of such changes, two or more words which were formerly pronounced differently may develop identical sound forms and thus become homonyms. For example *night* and *knight* were not homonyms in Old English as the initial *k* in the second word was pronounced and not dropped as it is in its Modern sound form: OE *kniht*.

<u>Borrowing</u> is another source of homonyms. A borrowed word in its last stage of adaptation can become identical in pronunciation or spelling to a native one or another borrowing, e.g. *race* (*a group of people of common ancestry − French*) : : *race* (*a contest of speed − Scandinavian*); *match* (*a game*, *a contest of skill*, *strength − native*) : : *match* (*a slender short piece of wood used for producing fire − French*).

<u>Word-building</u> also can be one of sources of homonyms, e.g. *liner* I. 'a large luxurious passenger ship' is homonymous with *liner* II. 'a plastic bag used for lining a rubbish bin' though having different derivational history − *liner I* is derived from the noun line while *liner II* has a verbal derivational base *to line*. The most important type in this respect is <u>conversion</u> (the formation of a lexico-grammatical homonym by shifting a word from one part of speech to another), for instance, *pale* (adj) − *to pale* (v), *to make* (v) − *make* (n), *ice* (n) − *to ice* (v), *pride* (n) − *to pride* (v).

Shortening is a further type of word-building which increases the number of homonyms, e.g. *fan* (n) — as 'an enthusiastic admirer of some kind of sport or of an actor, singer, etc.' is a shortening produced from *fanatic*. Its homonym is a Latin borrowing *fan* which denotes 'an implement for waving lightly to produce a cool current of air.'

A further course of homonyms is called split polysemy (divergent meaning development). Two or more homonyms can originate from different meanings of the same word when for some reason, the semantic structure of the word breaks into several parts. For example, *flower* and *flour* originally were one word which had the meanings 'the flower', 'the finest part of wheat'.

This process also takes place in those cases when one of the intermediate meanings of a polysemantic word falls out, and the remaining meanings lose connections with each other and start separate existence, that is become homonyms.

4. What words are defined as paronyms?

Paronyms are words very identical in sound form and spelling but having some differences in them and different meanings, e.g. *loose* — *lose*; *farther* — *further*; *model* — *modal*; *quite* — *quiet*; *Polish* — *polish*; *decent* (*respectable*, *suitable*) — *descend* (*downward motion*); *to contend* (бороться) — *content* (довольный, удовлетворенный); *historic* — *historical* (имеющий историческое значение *a historic speech* — связанный с историей *a historical novel*); *classic* — *classical* (классический, образцовый *classic example*, *classic suit* — классический, традиционный *classical music*, *classical art*).

Translator's false friends — interlanguage paronyms, pseudo-international words, e.g. *accord* — *аккорд*, *apartment* — *апартаменты*, *herb* — *герб*, *scallop* — *эскалоп*, *lunatic* — *лунатик*, *Hispanic* — *испанский*, *pretence* — *претензия*.

Paronomasia is a stylistic device based on the contextual use of paronyms. For example: *It is not my principle to pay the interest, it's not my interest to pay the principal.*

**Практические задания и упражнения к семинару 8
(Practical Tasks)**

Assignment 1. Find the homonyms in the following extracts. Classify them into: a) homonyms proper; b) homographs; c) homophones.

Example

Homographs: My seat was in the middle of a *row*; "I say, you haven't had a *row* with Corky, have you?":

1) a) my seat was in the middle of a row;

   b) "I say, you haven't had a row with Corky, have you?";

2) a) it was nearly December but the California sun made a summer morning of the season;

   b) on the way home Crane no longer drove like a nervous old maid;

3) a) do you always forget to wind up your watch?

   b) crane had an old Ford without a top and it rattled so much and the wind made so much noise;

4) a) in Brittany there was once a knight called Eliduc;

   b) she looked up through the window at the night;

5) a) he had a funny round face;

   b) — how does your house face? — It faces the South.

Assignment 2. What kind of homonyms are the following words?

Example

ate — eight, bred — bread, bean — been, caught — court, him — hymn, bye — buy — by (*homophones*):

1) bill (n), bar (n), ear (n), mole (n), band (n), bark (n), mass (n), import (n);

2) flower — flour, birth — berth, new — knew, air — heir, arms — alms, steel — steal;

3) bow [ou] — bow [au], lead [i:] — lead [e], wind [i] — wind [ai], minute [i] — minute [ai], sewer [səʊə] — sewer [sjʊə]; ton [tʌn] — ton [to:ŋ];

4) bear (n) — bear (v), sound (n) — sound (adj.), flat (n) — flat (adj.), swallow (n) — swallow (v), light (adj.) — light (n), water (n) — water (v);

5) ate — eight, bred — bread, bean — been, caught — court, him — hymn, bye — buy — by.

Assignment 3. Apply the method of word-combination and word building to show that the following homonyms are different words: *draw*, *club*, *seal*, *mood*, *rest*.

Assignment 4. Identify the source of homonymy for the following lexical units.

Example

comb − to comb, watch − to watch, smell − to smell, floor − to floor (conversion):

1) OE cnēdan − nēodian; ME to knead − to need;

   OE wrītan − reht, riht; ME to write − right;

   OE sæ − sēon; ME sea − to see;

2) comb − to comb, watch − to watch, smell − to smell, floor − to floor;

3) fan (from fanatic) : : fan (веер, Latin); rep (sales representative) : : rep (reputation) : : rep (repertory);

4) I. Spring − n. the act of springing, a leap;

   II. Spring − n. a place where a stream of water comes up out of the earth;

   III. Spring − n. a season of the year;

5) rite (Latin) : : to write, right (native);

   piece (native) : : peace (French);

   bank (a shore − native) : : bank (financial institution − Italian);

   fair (just − native) : : fair (trade gathering − French).

Assignment 5. Find Russian equivalents for the following paronymic pairs.

Example

Luxuriant (пышный) − luxurious (роскошный):

literal − literary − literate   bear − beer − bare

observance − observation   canal − channel

luxuriant − luxurious   cause − course

lightning − lightening   collar − color

deduce − deduct   company − campaign

purposefully − purposely   courage − carriage

Assignment 6. Comment on the meanings of the following "false friends of the interpreter".

Example

Intelligent – умный, а не 'интеллигентный':

agony, artist, romance, medicine, absolutely, faculty, aspirant, stipend, conductor, Dutch, Caucasian, penal, shrift, paragraph, minister, role, pathetic, anecdote, mammoth, variant, velvet, intelligent, intelligence, decade, lunatic, stool, biscuit, replica, docent, caravan, cravat, partisan, camera, bullion, chef, pilot, podium, gallant.

Assignment 7. Suggest Russian translation of the underlined pseudo-international words.

Example

The house party retired to bed – Гости пошли спать:

1. Too much sun is bad for your complexion. 2. His routine consisted of work, dinner, then TV and bed. 3. He's one of the bar's regular customers. 4. Under the provisions of the Act, employers must supply safety equipment. 5. The President handed over the baton to his successor. 6. He goes to the cabinet and rummages in a folder. 7. The paint has a satin finish. 8. In homicide investigation the first twelve hours are most critical. 9. The suspect didn't fit the psychological profile of the perpetrator. 10. The house party retired to bed.

Рекомендуемая литература

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. Homonyms: Words of the Same Form / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова // Лексикология английского языка = English Lexicology : учебник и практикум для вузов / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. – 8-е изд., перераб. и доп. – Москва, 2021. – Chapter 9. – С. 109–115.

2. Арнольд, И. В. Омонимия // Лексикология современного английского языка : учеб. пособие / И. В. Арнольд. – 4-е изд., стер. – Москва, 2017. – Глава четырнадцатая. – С. 309–321. – URL: e.lanbook.com/book/108229 (дата обращения: 07.12.2021).

3. Бабич, Г. Н. Homonyms // Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Г. Н. Бабич. – 8-е изд. – Москва, 2016. – С. 74–77. – URL: e.lanbook.com/book/85849 (дата обращения: 07.12.2021).

4. Гвишиани, Н. Б. Synonymy, Synonymic Condensation, Paronymy // Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Н. Б. Гвишиани. − 3-е изд., перераб. и доп. − Москва, 2019. − С. 171−186.

5. Jackson, H. Word, Meaning and Vocabulary : An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology / H. Jackson, E. Ze Amvela. − 2nd ed. − London : Continuum, 2007. − X, 250 p. − From the content: Chapter 3. − P. 65−72.

Theme 2.3. Lexical Synonymy and Antonymy

Форма проведения занятия: собеседование.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. Give the definition of synonymy. Is complete synonymy possible?
2. What is a synonymic dominant?
3. What types of synonyms do you know?
4. What is the difference between stylistic and ideographic synonyms?
5. What is meant by contextual and total synonymy?
6. What are the sources of synonymy? What is the role of borrowings?
7. What structural types of antonyms do you know?
8. What semantic types of antonyms do you know?
9. What is the difference between contradictories and contraries?
10. What is the difference between conversives and contronyms?

Методические материалы к занятию
Тезисы лекции для подготовки к собеседованию
(Short outline of the theme)

1. Give the definition of synonymy. Is complete synonymy possible?

The problem of synonymy (from Greek *sinonymia* − 'of the same name') is one of the most complicated and disputable in linguistic theory. There are a great many definitions of the term, but there is no universally accepted one. Traditionally the synonyms are defined as words different in sound-form, but identical or similar in meaning. But this definition has been severely criticized on many points.

Synonyms are two or more words, belonging to the same part of speech, possessing more or less identical denotational meaning, interchangeable at

least in some contexts without any considerable alteration in the semantic structure, but differing in morphemic composition, phonemic shape, shades of meaning, connotation, style, valency and idiomatic use. For example, *strange − queer − odd − quaint*, *ugly − hideous − monstrous − plain − unattractive − unsightly*.

This definition gives some criteria of synonymy (identity of denotational meaning, part of speech meaning, interchangeability), but has the main drawbacks. There are no objective criteria of "identity" or "similarity" or sameness of denotational meaning. How can a scholar define identity? Should the denotational meanings be explained in the same words in a dictionary? For now the final decision is based on the linguistic intuition of the scholar.

2. What is a synonymic dominant?

The members of the set are identified in relation to the dominant of the set. **Synonymic dominant** is the central term of a synonymic set possessing the following characteristic features: high frequency of usage; broad combinability; broad general meaning; lack of connotations; it may substitute for other synonyms at least in some contexts; it's often used to define other synonyms in dictionary definitions.

In the synonymic set *strange − queer − odd − quaint*, the synonymic dominant is *strange*, being morphologically the simplest, stylistically neutral and syntagmatically most movable.

3. What types of synonyms do you know?

According to the degree of synonymity synonyms can be absolute (perfect, complete) and partial.

Absolute (**perfect, complete**) **synonyms** − words coinciding in all their shades of meaning and in all their stylistic characteristics and having equivalent distribution. Absolute synonyms are rare in a language, they are basically terms: *pilot − airman − flyer − flyingman*, *screenwriter − scriptwriter − scriptwriter*, *semasiology − semantics*, *word-formation − word-building*, *word − lexeme*.

Synonyms usually differ in some properties: connotation, shades of denotative meaning (peripheric seme), collocability and the like. Synonymy of this kind can be called partial or incomplete. Incomplete synonyms ban be called semantic and stylistic.

4. What is the difference between stylistic and ideographic synonyms?

Semantic (*ideographic*) *synonyms* — words conveying the same notion, having similar connotational meaning, but differing in denotational of meaning, and so in use and collocability. For example, *to understand — to realize — to follow*, *get*, *grasp*, *know*, *learn*, *make out*, *take in*; *to wait for* (I am waiting for him) — *to expect* (I am expecting him to come); *healthy — wholesome* (suggestive of health or wellbeing, esp in appearance) — *sound* (free from damage, injury, decay, etc).

Ideographic synonyms comprise unequal semantic features, e.g. *to laugh — to giggle — to guffaw*. In this case one can speak of relative synonyms, as they have semantic features of different degree of intensity, e.g. *liking — attachment — affection — fondness — love*. Their status is a controversial one.

Stylistic synonyms are words identical in denotative meaning but differing only in the connotational meaning e.g. *feed — nourish*, *deed — action*, *pal — associate*, *to reckon — to estimate*, *to walk — to promenade*, *intelligent — smart*.

5. What is meant by contextual and total synonymy?

Stylistic synonyms are also the relations that exist between a neologism or an archaic word and a word of common use *think — to deem*, as well as synonyms differing in evaluative component *лик — рожа*, *fat — plump*.

Ideographic-stylistic synonyms are synonyms which differ both in the denotational and connotational aspects of meaning, e.g. *to expect — to anticipate*, *to ask — to inquire*. Synonyms are syntagmatically (distributionally) different words, for example, *a lot of*, *plenty of / a good deal of / a great number of*. Compare the distribution of *also* and *too*, they always occur in different surroundings: *My son was also with us — My son was with us too*. The synonyms differ in their collocability, for example in the collocation *line of least resistance*, one can't substitute the last word with its synonym *opposition*.

6. What are the sources of synonymy? What is the role of borrowings?

1. *Borrowing from other languages*. Borrowing is the most powerful and significant source of synonymy in English words. English is rich in synonymic pairs and groups which consist of words that can be traced to different languages such as Latin, Greek, French and Scandinavian. Such synonymic rows make double-scaled or triple-scaled patterns: *work* (*native*) — *labour* (*French*).

2. *Borrowings from different dialects and variants of the English language*. Especially large is the group of American synonyms, e.g. *underground — subway*, *flat — apartment*, *money — buck*, *autumn — fall*.

3. *Set expressions* consisting of a verb with a postpositive are widely used in present day English: *to choose — pick out*, *abandon — give up*, *postpone — put off*, *return — come back*, *quarrel — fall out*.

4. *Euphemism*, e.g. the euphemistic expression *merry* coincides in denotation with the word *drunk* it substituted but the connotation of the word *merry* faded out and so the utterance on the whole is milder and less offensive. Very often a learned word which sounds less familiar and less offensive or derogative is used, for example, *drunkenness — intoxication*, *sweat — perspiration*.

7. What structural types of antonyms do you know?

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

Antonyms can be classified according to the part of speech they belong to into substantive *warmth — coldness*, adjectival *kind — wicked*, verbal *to rise — to fall* and adverbial ones *high — low*.

Another classification of antonyms is a morphological one:

1) **root (absolute) antonyms** — are antonyms having different roots: e.g. *good — bad*, *beautiful — ugly*, *kind — cruel*, *old — young*, *right : : wrong*, *day — night*, *rich — poor*, *failure — success*, *dwarf — gigantic*;

2) **derivational antonyms** — are antonyms having the same root but different affixes, e.g. *happy — unhappy*, *kind — unkind*, *to like — to dislike*, *possible — impossible*, *regular — irregular*, *to do — to undo*.

8. What semantic types of antonyms do you know?

Contrary (**gradable antonyms, antonyms proper**) antonyms represent contrary notions, they are regularly gradable (there are some intermediate units between the most distant members of a set) and they do not deny one another. *Gradual oppositions* are formed by groups of members which are distinguished, but by the degree of a differential feature. Such words refer not to independent absolute qualities but to some implicit norm, i.e. their

important feature is the presence of some reference point, e.g. *old* and *young* are the most distant elements of a series like: *old* : : *middle-aged* : : *young*, while *hot* and *cold* form a series with the intermediate *cool* and *warm*.

9. What is the difference between contradictories and contraries?

Contradictory (***complementary***, ***binary***) ***antonyms*** represent contradictory notions, they are mutually opposed and denying one another, and at the same time complete each other up to one whole (generic) concept, for example, *true − false*, *asleep − awake*, *leave − stay*, *yes − no*, *vacant − occupied*, *male − female*. *Binary opposition* means, that it consists of two members, which are distinguished by the presence or absence of a differential feature. For example, *alive* means 'not dead' and *impatient* means 'not patient', *evil* − 'not good'.

10. What is the difference between conversives and contronyms?

Conversive antonyms (***conversives***, ***converses***, ***relational opposites***) **−** are words which denote one and the same referent or situation as viewed from different points of view, with a reversal of the order of participants and their roles. Converseness is a mirror-image relation or function, e.g. *give* : : *receive*, *ancestor* : : *descendant*, *parent* : : *child*, *left* : : *right*, *cause* : : *consequence*, *saddening* : : *saddened*. Relations of semantic opposition can embrace even lexico-semantic variants of the same word. Such words are called contronyms. ***Contronym*** is a word which has two opposite meanings. For example, *quite* can mean 'moderately' as well as 'completely'; *sanction* can indicate allowing something as well as refusing to countenance it.

Практические задания и упражнения к семинару 9 (Practical Tasks)

Assignment 1. Classify the synonyms into stylistic, ideographic and semantico-stylistic ones.

Example

To eat − to partake − to peck − to wolf (semantico-stylistic synonyms):
1) to begin − to commence − to start;
2) to eat − to partake − to peck − to wolf;
3) to tell − to narrate;
4) father − daddy;
5) to gaze − to stare − to glance − to look − to glare − to peep − to peer.

Assignment 2. Use the following words to make up paradigms of synonyms.

Example

To say – to tell – to talk – to chat:

To obtain, to plunge, to speak, to increase, to get, to deal in, to drop, to say, to sell, to acquire, to gain, to chat, to export, to utter, to fall, to plummet, to tumble, to converse, to come down, to rise, to ascend, to flog, to climb, to shoot up, to peddle, to soar, to go up, to tell, to talk, to trade.

Assignment 3. Within the following synonymic sets single out words with:

a) emotive connotation:

Example

Angry – furious – enraged:

smile, grin, beam, smirk; last, take, continue, go on for, drag on, run; fashionable, cool, hot, trendy, stylish, chic, cult;

b) evaluative connotation:

Example

Well-known – famous – notorious – celebrated:

clique, elite, in-crowd, group; hope, expectation, anticipation; resolute, determined, obstinate; slender, skinny, thin, slim, lean;

c) expressive connotation:

Example

Splendid – superb – fantastic:

dislike, hate, can't stand, detest, loathe, despise, abhor; boring, dull, monotonous, tedious, banal, mundane, repetitive, uninspiring, humdrum; splendid, superb, fantastic, beastly, nice.

Assignment 4. Analyze the following antonyms into contraries and contradictories.

Example

Good – bad (contraries);

Single – married (contradictories):

1) happy – unhappy; 2) good – bad; 3) big – small; 4) asleep – awake; 5) light – heavy; 6) poetry – prose; 7) open – shut; 8) to live – to die; 9) tremendous – tiny; 10) arid – awash; 11) beginning – end; 12) to love – to hate; 13) single – married.

Assignment 5. Classify the antonymous pairs into conversives and vectorial antonyms.

Example

To buy − to sell (conversives).

To up − to down (vectorial):

1) to buy − to sell; 2) to up − to down; 3) clockwise − anticlockwise; 4) to lend − to borrow; 5) to marry − to divorce; 6) question − answer; 7) teacher − pupil; 8) slave − master; 9) to praise − to scold; 10) before − after; 11) victory − defeat.

Assignment 6. Find 10 pairs of antonyms:

Example

Admit − deny:

disrespectful, likely, deny, sink, spacious, lazy, improbable, ineptitude, subtle, deferential, cramped, victory, gloomy, bright, float, admit, ability, elaborate, simple, obvious, zealous, defeat.

Тест по теме 2.3 (Test 1)

1. Which is the most frequent meaning of the polysemantic word "hand"?

a) factory or dockyard worker

b) the pointer of a watch

c) side or direction

d) part of the human arm beyond the wrist

2. In which of the word-groups the lexical context is of primary importance to determine the meaning of a polysemantic word?

a) heavy storm

b) to make a good teacher

c) to make everybody laugh

d) to get to the place

3. In which of the word-groups the grammatical context is of primary importance to determine the meaning of a polysemantic word?

a) heavy artillery

b) to make somebody work

c) handsome reward

d) to take the tram

4. Find an example of full lexical homonyms

a) lead (*вести*) — lead (*свинец*)

b) ball (*мяч*) — ball (*бал*)

c) rose (*роза*) — rose (*past tense from* to rise)

d) flat (*плоский*) — flat (*квартира*)

5. Find an example of partial lexical homonyms

a) match (*матч*) — match (*спичка*)

b) seal (*тюлень*) — seal (*печать*)

c) to lie (*лежать*) — to lie (*лгать*)

d) coarse (*грубый*) — coarse (*курс*)

6. Find an example of full lexico-grammatical homonyms

a) club (*n*) — to club (*v*)

b) pail (*n*) — pale (*adj*)

c) since (prep) — since (conj)

d) to lie (*лежать*) — to lie (*лгать*)

7. Find an example of partial lexico-grammatical homonyms

a) for (*prep*) — for (*conj*)

b) sun (*n*) — son (*n*)

c) bow (*лук*) — bow (*поклон*)

d) seal (*тюлень*) — to seal (*запечатать*)

8. Find an example of partial grammatical homonyms

a) brothers (*pl*) — brother's (*poss. case*)

b) fast (*adj*) — fast (*adv*)

c) hammer (*n*) — hammer (*v*)

d) bear (*n*) — bear (*v*)

9. Find an example of homographs

a) bow (*поклон*) — bow (*лук)*

b) right (*правый*) — write (*писать*)

c) ring (*кольцо*) — ring (*телефонный вызов*)

d) to found (*основывать*) — found (*past tense from **to find***)

10. Find an example of homophones

a) lead (*свинец*) — lead (*вести*)

b) can (*мочь*) — can (*консервировать*)

c) long (*длинный*) — long (*ждать*)

d) meat (*мясо*) — meet (*встречать*)

11. Find an example of perfect homonyms

a) nose (*нос*) — knows (*3rd person sing. of to know*)

b) pair (*пара*) — pear (*груша*)

c) case (*дело, случай*) — case (*коробка*)

d) row (*ряд*) — row (*шум, гвалт*)

12. Find the homonyms which appeared due to the process of divergent meaning development (disintegration of polysemy)

a) see (*видеть*) — sea (*море*)

b) flower (*цветок*) — flour (*мука*)

c) ball (*мяч*) — ball (*бал*)

d) tear (*слеза*) — tear (*разрывать*)

13. Find the homonyms which appeared due to the process of convergent sound development

a) love (*n*) — love (*v*)

b) finger (*n*) — finger (*v*)

c) paper (*n*) — paper (*v*)

d) lead (*n*) (*свинец*) — lead (*v*) (*вести*)

14. Find an example of ideographic synonyms

a) to seem — to appear

b) to begin — to commence

c) to see — to behold

d) to die — to pass away

15. Find an example of absolute (total) synonyms

a) eye-doctor — oculist

b) large — vast

c) to get — to receive

d) word-building — word-formation

16. Find an example of ideographic-stylistic synonyms

a) to see — to view

b) to see — to behold

c) to see — to observe

d) to see — to watch

17. Find the dominant of the synonymic set

a) celebrated

b) famous

c) distinguished

d) eminent

18. Find an example of root antonyms

a) kind — cruel

b) important — unimportant

c) appear — disappear

d) known — unknown

19. Find an example of derivational antonyms

a) love — hatred

b) beautiful — ugly

c) possible — impossible

d) long — short

20. Find a set of words not belonging to the same thematic group

a) tree — grow — green

b) journey — train — ticket

c) sun — shine — brightly

d) apple — read — snow

Рекомендуемая литература

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. Лексикология английского языка = English Lexicology : учебник и практикум для вузов / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. — 8-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва : Юрайт, 2021. — 196 с. — Из содерж.: Chapter 10—11. — С. 121—142.

2. Арнольд, И. В. Синонимы и антонимы // Лексикология современного английского языка : учеб. пособие / И. В. Арнольд. — 4-е изд., стер. — Москва, 2017. — Глава тринадцатая. — С. 291—309. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/108229 (дата обращения: 07.12.2021).

3. Бабич, Г. Н. The Vocabulary of a Language as a System // Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Г. Н. Бабич. — 8-е изд. — Москва, 2016. —

Chapter 5. — С. 77—84. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/85849 (дата обращения: 07.12.2021).

4. Гвишиани, Н. Б. Synonymy, Synonymic Condensation, Paronymy // Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Н. Б. Гвишиани. — 3-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва, 2019. — С. 171—186.

5. Jackson, H. Word, Meaning and Vocabulary : An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology / H. Jackson, E. Ze Amvela. — 2nd ed. — London : Continuum, 2007. — X, 250 p. — From the content: Chapter 3—4. — P. 75—82.

Module 3. LEXICAL MORPHOLOGY

Theme: Morphological Structure of the Word

Форма проведения занятия: собеседование.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. What is a morpheme?
2. What is meant by the term 'allomorph'?
3. What are the semantic and structural types of morphemes? Characterize each type.
4. What is the difference between derivational and functional morphemes?
5. How is the meaning of roots different from the meaning of affixes?
6. What are the three types of morphemic segmentability? Characterize each type.
7. What two principles is the IC-analysis based on?
8. What is the difference between the derivational structure and the morphemic structure of the word?
9. What are the structural and semantic differences between derivational bases and morphological stems?
10. What are the main points of morphemic and derivational analysis?

Методические материалы к занятию
Тезисы лекции для подготовки к собеседованию
(Short outline of the theme)

1. What is a morpheme?

Morpheme is the elementary meaningful lingual unit built up from phonemes and used to make words. It has meaning, but its meaning is *abstract*, *significative*, not concrete, or nominative, as is that of the word. Morphemes constitute the words; they do not exist outside the words. Studying the morpheme we actually study the word: it's inner structure, its functions, and the ways it enters speech.

2. What is meant by the term 'allomorph'?

Morphemes may have different phonetic shapes. In the set *please*, *pleasure*, *pleasant* the root is represented by different phonetic shapes. All the representations of the given morpheme that manifest alteration are

called *allomorphs* of the morpheme or morpheme variants. For example, the prefix -*in* has several positional variants: *il*legal, *ir*regular, *im*balance.

3. What are the semantic and structural types of morphemes? Characterize each type.

The study of the morphemic structure of the word is based on two criteria: the *positional criterion* − the location of the morphemes with regard to each other, and the *semantic criterion* − the contribution of the morphemes to the general meaning of the word. According to semantic criterion morphemes are divided into *root-morphemes* (*roots*) and *affixal morphemes* (*affixes*). According to the positional criterion affixes are divided into *prefixes*, situated before the root in the word, *suffixes*, situated after the root, *infixes*, situated within the root in the word, *foot − feet*, *interfixes*, situated between roots of a compound word (*handicraft*, *speedometer*, *statesman*, *паровоз*), *inflexions* (*inflections*, *inflectional endings*), grammatical suffixes situated after the stem. Suffixes and infixes in English may be either lexical (*food − feed*) or grammatical (*foot − feet*), and prefixes in English are only lexical.

4. What is the difference between derivational and functional morphemes?

Word-building affixes are primarily studied by lexicology with regard to the meaning which they contribute to the general meaning of the whole word. They form *word-building* (*derivational*) *paradigms* of words united by a common root, cf.: *to decide − decision − decisive − decisively*; *to incise − incision − incisive − incisively*. Word-changing, or functional affixes, change the word according to its grammatical categories and serve to insert the word into an utterance.

According to their structure, morphemes are divided into free and bound morphemes and semi-bound/ semi-free morphemes (semi-affixes).

A free morpheme is a morpheme which coincides with a word-form of an independently functioning word. Free morphemes can be found only among roots, e.g.: in the word *'hands' hand*- is a free morpheme.

A bound morpheme is a morpheme which can appear only as a part of a word, i.e. it cannot function independently, e.g.: in the word *'hands'* -*s* is a bound morpheme. Bound morphemes include all affixes and some bound roots, e.g. *terr*- in the word *terror*, *purp*- in the word *purple*.

A semi-bound/ semi-free morpheme (*semi-affix*) is a morpheme which stands midway between a root and an affix. A semi-bound morpheme can function as an independent full-meaning word and at the same time be very close to an affix, cf.: *ill*-fed, *ill*-dressed, *ill*-bred – to speak *ill* of somebody; water*proof*, kiss*proof*, fool*proof* – to be *proof* against water.

5. How is the meaning of roots different from the meaning of affixes?

Combining form (*completive*) is a bound form which should not be confused with an affix. A combining form can be distinguished from an affix historically; it is always borrowed from Latin or Greek in which it existed as a free form i.e. a separate word, or also as a combining form. Thus, *cyclo-* or its variant *cycl-* are derived from Greek word *kuklos* "circle" giving the English word *cyclic*. Combining forms differ from other borrowings in that they occur in compounds and derivatives which didn't exist in their original language but were formed only in modern times in English, Russian, etc., e.g. *polyclinic*, *stereophonic*, *television*. They are mostly international.

6. What are the three types of morphemic segmentability? Characterize each type.

There's a close connection between the type of meaning in morphemes and the type of morphemic segmentability. A great number of words are characterized by **complete segmentability**. In this case individual morphemes clearly stand out within the word and can be easily isolated, their meaning is transparent, e.g. *endless*, *useless*. **Conditional segmentability** is typical for words whose component morphemes are pseudo-morphemes. **Defective segmentability** is the property of words whose component morphemes are unique ones.

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

7. What two principles is the IC-analysis based on?

The morphemic structure of the word is being established by the method of **immediate constituents analysis**. This method is based on a binary principle which means that at each stage the word is broken into the components (**immediate constituents**) after that these components are broken further into two other components. When the components can't

be further divided and the analysis is completed we have arrived at the *ultimate constituents* – the morphemic structure of the word.

8. What is the difference between the derivational structure and the morphemic structure of the word?

Derivational analysis studies the structural patterns and rules on which words are built. Analyzing the word-formation structure of a word one tries to answer the question: What was formed from what? One studies the **last** word-formation act, the result of which is this or that unit. For example, in the word *Oxbridgian* the last word formation act was suffixation (*Oxbridge + -ian*), but in the previous word-formation act telescoping took place (*Oxford + Cambridge*). The verb *to dognap* is back formation from the word *dognapping* which was formed by analogy with *kidnapping*.

The nature, type and arrangement of the ICs (immediate constituent – непосредственная составляющая) of the word is known as its *derivative structure*. Though the derivative structure of the word is closely connected with its morphemic structure and often coincides with it, it differs from it in principle.

9. What are the structural and semantic differences between derivational bases and morphological stems?

According to the derivative structure all words fall into two big classes: simplexes or simple, non-derived words and complexes or derivatives. *Simplexes* are words which derivationally cannot be segmented into ICs. The morphological stem of simple words, i.e. the part of the word which takes on the system of grammatical inflections is semantically non-motivated and independent of other words, e.g. *hand*, *come*, *blue*. *Derivatives* are words which depend on some other simpler lexical items that motivate them structurally and semantically, i.e. the meaning and the structure of the derivative is understood through the comparison with the meaning and the structure of the source word. Hence derivatives are secondary, motivated units, made up as a rule of two ICs, i.e. binary units, e.g. words like *friendliness*, *unwifely*, *school-masterish*, etc. The ICs are brought together according to specific rules of order and arrangement preconditioned by the system of the language. It follows that all derivatives are marked by the fixed order of their ICs.

10. What are the main points of morphemic and derivational analysis?

The basic elementary units of the derivational structure of words are: derivational bases, derivational affixes and derivational patterns.

Derivational affixes are ICs of the derived word in all parts of speech. Derivational affixes are highly selective (the choice depends on etymological, phonological, semantic and structural properties of the base): *blacken*, *scribbler*, *novelist*, *befriend*, *enslave*, *brainless*.

The derivational pattern − is a regular meaningful arrangement, a structure that imposes rigid rules on the order and the nature of the derivational bases and affixes which may be brought together.

Практические задания и упражнения к семинару 10 (Practical Tasks)

Assignment 1. Find the allomorphs for the same morphs:
Example
[u] − duke, ducal, duchess:
inclusion, include, inclusive; illegible, irreplaceable, incorrect; duke, ducal, duchess; explode, explosion, explosive; enclose, enclosure; fuse, fusion.

Assignment 2. Classify the morphemes in the following words into roots, affixes and semi-affixes:
Example
Affixes − friendship, movable:
womanlike, to liken; movable, to disable; kinship, shipboard; waterproof, to proofread; playfully, full-fledged; fireman, man-made; motherland, landlady; passer-by, by-time; creditgap, gap-fill; friendship, shipwreck.

Assignment 3. Bring examples of words with the following semi-affixes:
Example
Scandalmonger, landlady:
half-, mini-, midi-, maxi-, self-, by-, -way, -friendly, -land, -like, -worthy, -man, -gap, -lady, -person, -safe, -monger, -wright, -type.

Assignment 4. How does distributional meaning of the morphemes below affect the lexical meaning of the whole word?
Example
Bypass ('a road passing round a town or its centre to provide an alternative route for through traffic'), pass by ('to happen without affecting somebody/ something'):

bypass, pass by; layout, outlay; fall-rise, rise-fall; outbreak, breakout; falldown, downfall; overrun, runover; stand-up, upstand; upturn, turnup; day off, off-day.

Assignment 5. Break up the italicized morphemes into free and bound ones:

Example

Free – be*head*

Bound – char*ity:*

*sharp*ly, *stup*id, de*scribe*, *un*true, aggrava*tion*, wolf*ling*, *board*ing, boy*hood*, be*head*, *arrog*ance, char*ity*, *cour*age, *cow*ard, *dist*ort, *in*volve; *no*tion, leg*ible*, *toler*able.

Assignment 6. Which unit does not belong to the set from the morphological point of view?

Example

<u>**Inedible** (prefix **-in** has a negative meaning)</u>, <u>inside</u>, <u>insert</u>, <u>income</u>:

1) collateral, collage, collaborate, collapse;

2) brotherhood, neighbourhood, manhood, priesthood;

3) tearful, spiteful, dreadful, handful;

4) inedible, inside, insert, income;

5) appointment, involvement, compliment, arrangement.

Assignment 7. Determine the number of Ultimate Constituents in each word.

Example

Unforgetfulness – there are *four* Ultimate Constituents in this unit:

unforgetfulness, reassuringly, inappropriate, recognizable, moonlighter, statesman, locket, antidisestablishmentarianism, bi-monthly.

Тест по темее (Test 2)

1. Find a word with an inflection

a) worker

b) darkness

c) books

d) rewrite

2. Find a word with a derivational affix

a) night
b) heartless
c) Ivanov's
d) papers

3. Find a word with two free morphemes

a) unbearable
b) childhood
c) merry-go-round
d) first-nighter

4. Find a word with a bound root-morpheme

a) suspicion
b) backward
c) brotherly
d) houses

5. Find a word with two bound affixational morphemes

a) kindness
b) snow-white
c) uneatable
d) book-keeper

6. Find a monomorphic word

a) mighty
b) reader
c) daughter
d) ashtray

7. Find a polymorphic (derived) word

a) unquestionable
b) lamp-shade
c) snowball
d) forget-me-not

8. Find a polymorphic (compound) word

a) uncomfortable
b) impossible

c) action

d) lady-killer

9. Which of the words is divided into Immediate Constituents?

a) in-significant

b) in-attent-ive

c) un-expect-ed

d) joy-ful-ly

10. Which of the words is divided into Ultimate Constituents?

a) un-moving

b) un-doubt-ed-ly

c) un-employment

d) ir-resistible

11. Find a word with a pseudo-morpheme

a) re-write

b) re-main

c) speak-er

d) lady-kill-er

12. Find a word with a semi-affix

a) red-hot

b) long-haired

c) self-possessed

d) undisputable

13. In which of the suffixated words a root-morpheme has transformed into an affixational morpheme?

a) actress

b) friendship

c) question

d) childish

14. Which of the words has a derived stem?

a) darkness

b) teacher

c) unbound

d) uncomfortable

15. Find a word with a compound stem

a) greenhouse

b) unemployment

c) insignificant

d) handful

16. Which of the words is built in accordance with the formula: a + suff?

a) irresistible

b) invariably

c) impossible

d) good-for-nothing

17. Which of the words is built in accordance with the pattern: in- + V + -able + -ly?

a) impossible

b) irresistible

c) invariably

d) good-for-nothing

Рекомендуемая литература

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. How English Words Are Made. Word-Building / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова // Лексикология английского языка = English Lexicology : учебник и практикум для вузов / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. — 8-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва, 2021. — Chapter 5. — С. 53—69.

2. Арнольд, И. В. Аффиксальное словопроизводство // Лексикология современного английского языка : учеб. пособие / И. В. Арнольд. — 4-е изд., стер. — Москва, 2017. — Глава пятая. — С. 104—136. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/108229 (дата обращения: 07.12.2021).

3. Бабич, Г. Н. Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Г. Н. Бабич. — 8-е изд. — Москва : ФЛИНТА, 2016. — 195, [1] с. — Из содерж.: Chapter 3. — С. 36—42. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/85849 (дата обращения: 07.12.2021).

4. Гвишиани, Н. Б. Lexical Morphology // Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Н. Б. Гвишиани. — 3-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва, 2019. — Chapter 3. — С. 93−121.
5. Jackson, H. Word, Meaning and Vocabulary : An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology / H. Jackson, E. Ze Amvela. — 2nd ed. — London : Continuum, 2007. — X, 250 p. — From the content: Chapter 4. — P. 85−102.

Module 4. ENGLISH WORD FORMATION

Theme: Word-building

Форма проведения занятия: собеседование.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. What are the principal productive ways of word-formation in English?
2. What are the basic ways of forming words in word-derivation?
3. What principles of the classification of the affixes can be singled out?
4. What is the difference between frequency and productivity of affixes?
5. What features of Modern English have produced the high productivity of conversion?
6. What is meant by word composition?
7. What types of English compounds do you know? What are their
8. What are the main types of shortening of English words?
9. What do we call back-formation?
10. What are the minor ways of modern word-formation?

Методические материалы к занятию

Тезисы лекции для подготовки к собеседованию
(Short outline of the theme)

1. What are the principal productive ways of word-formation in English?

Word-formation is the process of creating new words from the material available in the language according to its structural and semantic formulas and patterns. For instance, the noun *driver* is formed after the pattern *V + -er*, i.e. a verbal stem + the noun-forming suffix *-er*. The meaning of the derived noun *driver* is related to the meaning of the stem *drive-* 'to direct the course of a vehicle' and the suffix *-er* meaning 'an active agent': *a driver* is 'one who drives' (a carriage, motorcar, railway engine, etc.). Word-formation is a morphological naming because it uses morphemes existing in the language. There are two major types of word-formation: *word-derivation* and *word-composition*.

2. What are the basic ways of forming words in word-derivation?

Words created by ***word-derivation*** have only one derivative base. The basic ways of forming-words in word-derivation are affixation and

conversion. *Affixation* is the formation of a new word with the help of affixes, e.g. *cleanness* from *clean*, *to overdo* from *to do*, etc. *Conversion* is the formation of a new word by bringing a stem of this word into a different part-of-speech paradigm, e.g. *a fall* from *to fall*, *to slave* from *a slave*.

Word-composition is the formation of a new word by combining two or more stems which occur in the language as free forms, e.g. *door-handle*, *house-keeper*.

Apart from principal there are some *minor types* of modern word-formation, i.e. *shortening, blending*, *acronymy*, *sound interchange*, *sound imitation*, *distinctive stress* and *back-formation*.

3. What principles of the classification of the affixes can be singled out?

Affixation includes suffixation and prefixation. *Suffixation* is the formation of words with the help of suffixes. Suffixes usually modify the lexical meaning of the base and transfer words either to a different part of speech or transfer a word to a different lexico-semantic group: *employ — employee*, *director — directorship*. *Prefixation* is the formation of words with the help of prefixes. Prefixes modify the lexical meaning of the base. They don't shift words to a different part of speech: *to write — to rewrite*.

4. What is the difference between frequency and productivity of affixes?

Suffixes and prefixes may be classified along different lines.

Suffixes are classified according to:

— part-of-speech they form: noun-forming suffixes, adjective-forming suffixes, numeral-forming suffixes, verb-forming suffixes, adverb-forming suffixes;

— lexico-grammatical character of the base they are added: deverbal suffixes, denominal suffixes, deadjectival suffixes;

— number of meanings: monosemantic, polysemantic;

— denotational meaning: denoting the agent of an action, denoting nationality, denoting collectivity, denoting gender, with the meaning of diminutiveness;

— connotational meaning: stylistically neutral, stylistically marked;

— productivity: productive, semi-productive, non-productive;

— origin: the native affixes, the borrowed affixes.

Prefixes may be classified on the same principles as suffixes.

5. What features of Modern English have produced the high productivity of conversion?

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. For instance, *yellow* in "The leaves were turning yellow" – the adjective denotes colour. Among the main varieties of conversion are:

1) verbalization, e.g. *water – to water*, *ape – to ape*, *doctor – to doctor*;

2) substantivation, e.g. *to run – run*, *the rich and the poor*, *the* wounded;

3) adjectivization, e.g. a *kindly* gentleman, the *down* escalator;

4) adverbialization, e.g. to go *home*, to work *hard*.

6. What is meant by word composition?

Compounding or *word-composition* is the means of word-formation in which words are made up of two immediate constituents which are both derivative bases, e.g. *lamp-shade*, *ice-cold*, *looking-glass*, *daydream*, etc.

Derivative bases in compounds can have different degrees of complexity:

— both bases are simple (*weekend*, *girlfriend*);

— one base is simple, the other is derivative (*a shoemaker*);

— one base is compound and the other is either simple or derivative (*fancy-dress > fancydress-ball*, *fancydress-maker*).

7. What types of English compounds do you know? What are their peculiarities?

Classification of compounds:

— according to the type of word-formation: compounds proper, derivational compounds, pseudo-compounds;

— according to degree of semantic independence of components: subordinative, coordinative, reduplicated, rhyming, additive;

— according to linking element, the means of composition used to link the two ICs together: neutral, morphological, syntactical;

— according to way of naming the referent: endocentric, exocentric;

— according to correlative relations with the system of free word-combinations: idiomatic, non-idiomatic.

8. What are the main types of shortening of English words?

Shortening is the formation of a word by cutting off a part of the word without changing their lexico-grammatical meaning. There are three basic types of shortening *abbreviation*, *clipping* and *blending.*

Alphabetical abbreviation is a shortening which is read as a succession of the alphabetical readings of the constituent letters, e.g. *DVD*, *SMS*, *BBC*.

Acronymic abbreviation is a shortening which is read as a succession of the sounds denoted by constituent letters, i.e. as if it were an ordinary word, e.g. *NATO*, *UNESCO*, *VIP*, *NASA*.

Graphical abbreviations are the result of shortening of words and word-groups only in written speech while orally the corresponding full forms are used. They are used for the economy of space and effort in writing. In graphic abbreviations *of Latin origin* Latin words are shortened in the spelling, while orally the corresponding English equivalents are pronounced in the full form, e.g. *a.m.* − *in the morning* (*ante meridiem*), *No* − *number* (*numero*), *p.a.* − *a year* (*per annum*), *d* − *penny* (*dinarius*), *lb* − *pound* (*libra*), *i.e.* − *that is* (*id est*), *Cº* − *company*, etc.

Clipping is the process of cutting off one or several syllables of a word.

Apocope is a final clipping, e.g. *hols* (*holidays*), *ad*, *exam*, *cuss* (*customer*), *pub (public house)*.

Aphaerisis is an initial clipping, e.g. *plane* (*airplane*), *phone*, *fense* (*defense*), *gator* (*alligator*).

Syncope is a medial clipping, e.g. *maths*, *mart* (*market*), *circs* (*circumstances*).

Fore-and-aft clipping is an initial and final clipping, e.g. *flu*, *fridge*, *Liz.*

Blending is the formation of a new word by combining parts of two words. A ***blend*** is a word that combines parts of two words and includes the letters and sounds they may have in common as a connecting element, e.g. *sm[oke] + [fo]g = smog, tele[vision] + [broad]cast = telecast, bi[nary] + [digi]t = bit.*

9. What do we call back-formation?

Backformation is the formation of a new word by subtracting a real or supposed affix from the existing word. For example, the word *to butle* 'to act or serve as a butler' is derived by subtraction of *-er* from a supposedly verbal stem in the noun *butler*; *editor > to edit, baby-sitter > to baby-sit,*

finger-printing > *finger-prints*, *kidnapping* > *to kidnap*. The process is based on analogy. The noun *critic* was form from the verb *to criticize* by analogy with *drama − dramatize*.

10. What are the minor ways of modern word-formation?

Sound imitation is the naming of an action or a thing by a more or less exact reproduction of the sound associated with, e.g. *to babble*, *to hiss*, *to screech*, *to woof*.

Sound-interchange is the formation of a word due to an alteration in the phonemic composition of its root, e.g. *to sing − song*, *man − men*, *strong − strength*.

Distinctive stress is the formation of a word by means of the shift of the stress in the source word, e.g. '*present − to pre'sent*, '*concrete − to con'crete*.

**Практические задания и упражнения к семинару 11
(Practical Tasks)**

Assignment 1. Classify the given affixes into native and borrowed.
Example
Native: *-like,-dom*;
borrowed: *de-, ir-*:
-er, de-, ir-, co-, -ant, -like, -ive, -ous, -al, -ness, -ful, -able, -ize, super-, dis-, trans-, inter-, anti-, ultra-, infra-, under-, intro-, with-, over-, un-, be-, -dom, -en, ab-, a-, for-, -y, -ish.

Assignment 2. State the origin and explain the meaning of the suffixes in the following words.
Example
Ice*man*, plough*man*, hang*man*, pass*man; suffix -man ('profession')*:
changeling, fondling, overling, dictation, abomination, Londoner, knocker, hosteler, forty-niner, iceman, ploughman, Englishman, hangman, passman, Leninism, ageism, fattyism, alphabetism, heightyism, sensationalism, paternalism, haledom, earldom.

Assignment 3. Form adjectives from the given nouns.
Example
Bride − bridal:
bride, bush, corruption, modesty, monotony, mythology, pain, pride, reluctance, vanity, blood, brother, earth, father, friend, heaven, home,

milk, mother, night, water, woman, man, truth, time, cloud, hand, life, room, war.

Assignment 4. Find the cases of conversion in the sentences.

Example

She is an awful *tease* (noun converted from verb *'to tease'*):

1. She is an awful tease. 2. The boy happened to be a cheat. 3. She is the well-known gossip of the town. 4. The night watch rushed to his help. 5. Then followed an interminable wait. 6. His long hunt for the book resulted in a failure. 7. The station is a half-an-hour walk from our house. 8. Christine had the run of Mrs. Herbert's kitchen. 9. With his heavy bag and torn shoes he looked like a tramp. 10. He was certainly on the move.

Assignment 5. Classify the clippings into four groups: 1) final clipping; 2) initial clipping; 3) initial and final clipping; 4) medial clipping.

Example

gas < gasoline (final clipping):

Showbiz < show business, comfy < comfortable, 'cause< because, praps < perhaps, mike < microphone, nark < narcotics, soc < society, veg < vegetable, specs < spectacles, taxi < taximeter cab, cab < cabriolet, pram < perambulator, French fries < French fried potatoes, gas < gasoline, gents < gentlemen's room (lavatory).

Assignment 6. Determine the original components of the following blends.

Example

docusoap – documentary soap opera:

docusoap, alcopop, heliport, motel, boatel, breathalyzer, prosumer, Eurovision, multiversity, newscast, paratroops, telecast, travelogue, telex, smaze, positron, medicare, dawk, Eurailpass, Fritalux, identikit, petnapping, petrodollars, stagflation.

Assignment 7. Group the words formed by sound interchange into: 1) those formed by vowel-interchange; 2) those formed by consonant interchange; 3) those formed by combining both means, vowel and consonant interchange.

Example

Vowel-interchange – s_o_ng – to s_i_ng:

Stroke – to strike, sheath – to sheathe, song – to sing, hot – to heat,

advice − to advise, bath − to bathe, life − to live, shelf − to shelve, glass − to glaze, abuse − to abuse, relief − to relieve, half − to halve, house − to house, thief − to thieve.

Тест по теме (Test 3)

1. Find a word formed with the help of a productive prefix
a) amphitheatre   c) unknown
b) withdraw   d) forecast

2. Find a word formed with the help of a non-productive prefix
a) enlarge   c) dislike
b) international   d) rewrite

3. Find a word with a productive Germanic prefix
a) foresee   c) abnormal
b) misprint   d) cooperation

4. Find a word with a productive Romanic prefix
a) afternoon   c) prearrange
b) unable   d) undertake

5. Find a word with a Greek prefix
a) postwar   c) extraordinary
b) antifascist   d) overturn

6. Which of the word s is built with a prefix denoting negation?
a) unbutton   c) illegal
b) counter-attack   d) demobilize

7. Which of the words has a prefix denoting repetition?
a) enrich   c) return
b) befriend   d) reappear

8. Which of the prefixes denotes time relations?
a) pre-   c) in-
b) un-   d) dis-

9. Find a noun built with the help of a lexicalized grammatical suffix
a) darkness   c) teaching
b) translation   d) actress

10. Which of the suffixes is used for the formation of nouns?

a) -ness

c) -less

b) -ish

d) -ize

11. Which of the suffixes is a verb-suffix?

a) -an

c) -ing

b) -en

d) -tion

12. Which of the suffixes is an adjective-suffix?

a) -er

c) -ness

b) -ous

d) -fy

13. Find a noun built with the help of a suffix denoting a female being

a) teacher

c) Japanese

b) cyclist

d) farmerette

14. Find a noun built with the help of a suffix denoting diminutiveness

a) cutter

c) decorator

b) booklet

d) hostess

15. Find a noun built with the help of a suffix denoting collectivity

a) peasantry

c) socialism

b) greatness

d) teaching

16. Find a noun built with the help of a suffix denoting the agent of a verbal action

a) pianist

c) instructor

b) auntie

d) villager

17. Find a noun built with the help of a suffix denoting the process of an action

a) singer

c) darkness

b) development

d) freedom

18. Find a noun built with the help of a suffix denoting state

a) realism

c) happiness

b) trustee

d) translation

19. Which of the nouns is built with the help of a productive suffix?

a) victory

c) passage

b) violinist

d) freedom

20. Which of the nouns is built with the help of a non-productive suffix?

a) assistance

c) darvinism

b) tenderness

d) resolution

Рекомендуемая литература

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. How English Words Are Made. Word-Building (continued) / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова // Лексикология английского языка = English Lexicology : учебник и практикум для вузов / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. − 8-е изд., перераб. и доп. − Москва, 2021. − Chapter 6. − С. 69−78.

2. Арнольд, И. В. Лексикология современного английского языка : учеб. пособие / И. В. Арнольд. − 4-е изд., стер. − Москва : ФЛИНТА, 2017. − 374, [1] с. − Из содерж.: Глава 6−8. − С. 136−198. − URL: e.lanbook.com/book/108229 (дата обращения: 08.12.2021).

3. Бабич, Г. Н. Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Г. Н. Бабич. − 8-е изд. − Москва : ФЛИНТА, 2016. − 195, [1] с. − Из содерж.: Chapter 3. − С. 42−53. − URL: e.lanbook.com/book/85849 (дата обращения: 07.12.2021).

4. Гвишиани, Н. Б. Lexical Morphology // Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Н. Б. Гвишиани. − 3-е изд., перераб. и доп. − Москва, 2019. − Chapter 3. − С. 93−121.

5. Jackson, H. Word, Meaning and Vocabulary : An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology / H. Jackson, E. Ze Amvela. − 2nd ed. − London : Continuum, 2007. − X, 250 p. − From the content: Chapter 5. − P. 85−102.

Module 5. WORD ORIGINS

Theme: Etymology of the English Word-Stock

Форма проведения занятия: собеседование.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. What is meant by the native element of the English vocabulary?
2. What are native words characterized by?
3. What languages did the English language borrow words from?
4. What are the characteristic features of Scandinavian borrowings?
5. What semantic groups are words of French origin divided into?
6. What are the characteristic features of the Renaissance borrowings?
7. Why are words borrowed?
8. What are the ways of borrowing?
9. What stages of assimilation do borrowings go through?
10. What levels of language system were influenced by borrowings?

Методические материалы к занятию
Тезисы лекции для подготовки к собеседованию
(Short outline of the theme)

1. What is meant by the native element of the English vocabulary?

The English word-stock consists of several extensive strata, the origin of which corresponds to historical and cultural development of the English society. The British Isles used to be conquered by foreign invaders from time to time which resulted in the mixed character of the vocabulary and this makes most particular feature of the English language. Unlike lexical system, the grammar and phonetic system are very stable (unchangeable) and are not often influenced by other languages. A native word is a word which belongs to the original English stock, i.e. of Anglo-Saxon origin. Borrowed words are words taken over from other languages. The etymological linguistic analysis showed that the borrowed stock of words is larger than the native stock of words. In fact native words comprise only 30% of the total number of words in the English vocabulary. The number 30 characterizes the quantity of native words in the vocabulary, but doesn't give an idea of their frequency and semantic value.

2. What are native words characterized by?

1. Words from Indo-European stock make the basis of Germanic word-stock. Words of Indo-European origin belong to very important semantic groups. They play an important role in the English language as they have high frequency value, great word-forming power, wide collocability, many meanings and they are stylistically neutral. They include: pronouns, numerals, prepositions, conjunctions, most of the auxiliary and modal verbs, members of a family.

2. Words from Common Germanic language, that have cognates in other West Germanic languages, e.g. English *wife*, German *Weib*; English *bride*, German *Braut*, Gothic *bruÞs*, Old Norse *brúÞr*; English *house*, German *Haus*, Dutch *huis*, Norwegian *hus*, Swedish *hus*.

3. Some isolated words, which are found only in English: *girl*, *bad*, *keep*.

3. What languages did the English language borrow words from?

The English word-stock borrowed words from many languages such as Scandinavian, French, Latin, Greek and others.

4. What are the characteristic features of Scandinavian borrowings?

Scandinavians belonged to the same group of peoples as Anglo-Saxons and their languages had much in common. As the result of this conquest there are about 700 borrowings from Scandinavian into English such nouns as *sister*, *bull*, *cake*, *egg*, *kid*, *knife*, *skirt*, *dirt*, *window*, such adjectives as: *flat*, *ill*, *happy*, *low*, *odd*, *ugly*, *wrong*, such verbs as: *call*, *die*, *guess*, *get*, *give*, *scream* and many others. What is special about Scandinavian influence is that the way of borrowing was oral in form; the contact was long and stable and the Scandinavian borrowings don't denote new notions, e.g. Scandinavian *husbonda > husband*, *taka > takan > take* (earlier *niman*).

Even some pronouns and connective words were borrowed which happens very seldom, such as: *same*, *both*, *till*, *fro*, *though*, and pronominal forms with 'th': *they*, *them*, *their*. Scandinavian influenced the development of phrasal verbs, which did not exist in Old English, at the same time some prefixed verbs came out of usage, e.g. *ofniman*, *beniman*. Phrasal verbs are now highly productive in English, e.g. *take off*, *give in*.

5. What semantic groups are words of French origin divided into?

There are the following semantic groups of French borrowings:

— words relating to government: *administer*, *empire*, *state*, *government*;
— words relating to court: *court*, *servant*, *guard*, *royal*, *prince*;
— words relating to military affairs: *army*, *war*, *banner*, *victory*, *soldier*, *battle*;
— words relating to jury: *justice*, *judge*, *prison*, *lien*, *advocate*, *petition*, *inquest*;
— words relating to religion: *religion*, *sermon*, *saint*;
— words relating to fashion: *luxury*, *coat*, *collar*, *lace*, *pleat*, *embroidery*;
— town trades: *tailor*, *butcher*, *painter*, BUT country trades — *smith*, *shepherd*;
— words relating to jewelry: *topaz*, *emerald*, *ruby*, *pearl*;
— words relating to food and cooking: *lunch*, *dinner*, *appetite*, *to roast*, *to stew*.

6. What are the characteristic features of the Renaissance borrowings?

The earliest Italian borrowing came into English in the 14-th century, it was the word *bank* which originated from the Italian *banko* — 'bench'. Italian moneylenders and moneychangers sat in the streets on benches. When they suffered losses they turned over their benches, it was called *banco rotta* from which the English word *bankrupt* originated. In the 17-th century some geological terms were borrowed: *volcano*, *granite*, *bronze*, *lava*. At the same time some political terms were borrowed: *manifesto*, *bulletin*. But mostly Italian is famous by its influence in music and in all Indo-European languages musical terms were borrowed from Italian: *alto*, *baritone*, *basso*, *tenor*, *falsetto*, *solo*, *duet*, *trio*, *quartet*, *quintet*, *opera*, *operetta*, *libretto*, *piano*, *violin*. Among the 20-th century Italian borrowings we can mention: *gazette*, *incognito*, *altostratus*, *fiasco*, *fascist*, *dilettante*, *grotesque*, *graffito*, *cartoon*, etc.

7. Why are words borrowed?

Spanish borrowings came into English mainly through its American variant. There are the following semantic groups of them:

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*;
d) ethnic customs: *parade*, *matador*.

8. What are the ways of borrowing?

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*.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*.

9. What stages of assimilation do borrowings go through?

There were constant contacts between England and Russia and they borrowed words from one language into the other. Among early Russian borrowings there are mainly words connected with trade relations, such as: *rouble*, *copeck*, *pood*, *sterlet*, *vodka*, *sable*, and also words relating to nature, such as: *taiga*, *tundra*, *steppe*.

There is also a large group of Russian borrowings which came into English through Rushian literature of the 19-th century, such as *Narodnik*, *moujik*, *duma*, *zemstvo*, *volost*, *ukase*, and also words which were formed in Russian with Latin roots, such as *nihilist*, *intelligenzia*, *Decembrist*.

10. What levels of language system were influenced by borrowings?

Etymological doublets are two words which were derived from the same basic word but by different routs. They differ in sound-form and meaning. For example, the words shirt and skirt are of Germanic origin, but the latter was borrowed from Scandinavian, that's why the initial letter combination (sk) hadn't been palatalized. Some doublets developed within the English language itself, such as Old English *sceadu* developed into *shade*, but its indirect case *sceadwa* resulted in Modern English *shadow*. Many etymolofical doublets are pairs where one word was borrowed directly from Latin and the other – from French, e.g. *camera* – *chamber*.

Практические задания и упражнения к семинару 12 (Practical Tasks)

Assignment 1. Comment on the origin of the following native words. Distribute them into two groups: a) Indo-European; b) Common Germanic.

Example

Indo-European – *summer, tree, me*;

Common Germanic – *stone, under, coal*:

summer, shall, will, I, mother, bridge, stand, arm, moon, shoot, by, stone, tree, me, goose, car, drive, heart, under, hope, sun, life, one, eye, ice, skirt, foot, coal, bull, be, white.

Assignment 2. Analyze the following lexical groups. Which of the words do not belong to the native stock?

Example

Fowl, goose, hen, chicken, duck, <u>turkey</u>:

a) fowl, goose, hen, chicken, duck, turkey;

b) fruit, apricot, orange, water-melon, banana, grapes, cherry, pear, melonfig, lemon, mango, apple, plum;

c) cattle, sheep, lamb, boar, bull, mule, donkey, ox, ass, mare, goat, horse, cow, cat, rabbit, deer, hog, dog.

Assignment 3. Match the translation borrowings with the original phrases.

Example

That is – id est:

1. that is	a. diū liǎn
2. loan translation	b. marché aux puces
3. flea market	c. id est
4. lose face	d. Lehnübersetzung

Assignment 4. Find 9 Celtic words in the following list.

Example

Bin, cart, whisky:

nut, bin, rat, cart, strawberry, cradle, to go, to carry, budget, to reduce, to stop, career, crocodile, present, window, car, man, bard, sky, standard, fun, joke, flannel, whisky, tea, slogan, money, reel, needle, mackintosh, to take, to kick, summer, inch.

Assignment 5. Are these words synonyms?

Example

Bridegroom – fiancé (yes, they are synonyms):

donkey – burro (Spanish), beginning – début, bridegroom – fiancé, family – mafia (Italian)?

Assignment 6. Build up pairs of etymological doublets.

Example

Jail – gaol:

scabby, nay, ward, off, route, salon, no, chivalry, papyrus, guard, thorough, shirt, shell, disc, rout, of, mayor, screw, saloon, chart, cavalry, shadow, artiste, major, pauper, cart, hotel, skirt, poor, hospital, channel, jail, legal, artist, gaol, sir, loyal.

Тест по теме (Test 4)

1. Find an example of aliens

a) fellow   c) forest

b) café   d) meeting

2. Find an example of denizens

a) hotel   c) husband

b) restaurant   d) machine

3. Find a loan-word not completely assimilated with the English language phonetically

a) police   c) flower

b) river   d) wall

4. Find a loan-word not completely assimilated with the English language grammatically

a) figure   c) datum

b) army   d) cage

5. Find a Celtic loan-word

a) dream   c) cradle

b) grass   d) road

6. Find a Latin loan-word

a) a cup   c) a window

b) a wife   d) a glass

7. Find a Greek loan-word

a) fruit   c) capital

b) scheme   d) table

8. Find a Scandinavian loan-word

a) to read
c) to speak

b) to write
d) to take

9. Find a French loan-word

a) ox
c) pig

b) meat
d) sausage

10. Find a German loan-word

a) rain
c) game

b) prize
d) nickel

11. *Find an Italian loan-word*

a) article
c) question

b) balcony
d) fish

12. *Find a Spanish loan-word*

a) institute
c) moment

b) telephone
d) cigar

13. Find a Russian loan-word

a) sister
c) minute

b) Kremlin
d) club

14. Find an Arabian loan-word

a) mathematics
c) botany

b) algebra
d) physics

15. Find a Turkish loan-word

a) café
c) chess

b) coffee
d) tomato

16. Find a Chinese loan-word

a) lemon
c) tea

b) glass
d) spoon

17. Find a Japanese loan-word

a) judge
c) chairman

b) geisha
d) student

18. Find an Australian loan-word

a) chocolate

c) boomerang

b) maize

d) wigwam

19. Find a word borrowed from the language of American Indians

a) maid

c) madam

b) girl

d) squaw

20. Find a word borrowed from India

a) oak

c) timber

b) sandal

d) pine

Рекомендуемая литература

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. The Etymology of English Words (continued) / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова // Лексикология английского языка = English Lexicology : учебник и практикум для вузов / Г. Б.Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. — 8-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва, 2021. — Chapter 4. — С. 43—53.

2. Арнольд, И. В. Обогащение словарного состава английского языка за счет иноязычных заимствований // Лексикология современного английского языка : учеб. пособие / И. В. Арнольд. — 4-е изд., стер. — Москва, 2017. — Глава десятая. — С. 221—256. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/108229 (дата обращения: 08.12.2021).

3. Бабич, Г. Н. The Origins of English Words // Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Г. Н. Бабич. — 8-е изд. — Москва, 2016. — Chapter 2. — С. 20—32. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/85849 (дата обращения: 07.12.2021).

4. Гвишиани, Н. Б. The Scope of the Word's Meaning // Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Н. Б. Гвишиани. — 3-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва, 2019. — С. 125—134.

5. Jackson, H. Word, Meaning and Vocabulary : An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology / H. Jackson, E. Ze Amvela. — 2nd ed. — London : Continuum, 2007. — X, 250 p. — From the content: Chapter 5. — P. 115—122.

Module 6. LEXICAL STYLISTICS

Theme: Stylistic Differentiation of the English Word-Stock

Форма проведения занятия: собеседование.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. What classes is the English vocabulary subdivided into with respect to functional styles?
2. What are the properties of stylistically neutral words?
3. Where are formal words used?
4. In what situations are informal words used?
5. What is a term? How are terms coined? What are their essential properties?
6. What are the main features of poetic words?
7. What is the difference between common colloquial words and slang?
8. What is the difference between a term and professionalism?

Методические материалы к занятию
Тезисы лекции для подготовки к собеседованию
(Short outline of the theme)

1. What classes is the English vocabulary subdivided into with respect to functional styles?

The word-stock of any language may be presented as a system, the elements of which are interconnected, interrelated and yet independent. Then the word-stock of the English language may be divided into three main layers (strata): *the literary layer* (stratum), *the neutral layer*, and *the colloquial layer*. The literary and the colloquial layers contain a number of subgroups. Each subgroup has a property it shares with all the subgroups within the layer. This common property which unites the different groups within the layer is called its aspect.

The aspect of *the literary layer* is its bookish character, which makes the layer more or less stable.

The aspect of *the colloquial layer* is its lively spoken character, which makes it unstable, fleeting.

The aspect of *the neutral layer* is its universal character. It can be employed in all styles of language and in all spheres of human activity. This makes the layer the most stable of all.

2. What are the properties of stylistically neutral words?

Neutral words form the bulk of the English Vocabulary and are used in both literary and colloquial language. Neutral words are the main source of synonymy and polysemy. Unlike all other groups, neutral words don't have a special stylistic colouring and are devoid of emotional meaning.

3. Where are formal words used?

Common standard literary words are chiefly used in writing and in polished speech. They are used in formal communication. One can always tell a literary word from a colloquial word, because literary words are used to satisfy communicative demands of official, scientific, poetic messages, while colloquial words are employed in non-official everyday communication.

4. In what situations are informal words used?

Literary words stand in opposition to colloquial words forming pairs of synonyms which are based on contrasting relations.

Colloquial	Neutral	Literary
kid	*child*	*infant*
daddy	*father*	*parent*
get out	*go away*	*retire*
go on	continue	proceed
start	begin	commence

5. What is a term? How are terms coined? What are their essential properties?

Terms are words denoting objects, processes, phenomena of science, humanities, technique. Terms are coined to nominate new concepts that appear in the process of and as a result of technical progress and the development of science. Another of the most characteristic features of a term is its direct <u>relevance to</u> the system or set of terms used in a particular science, discipline or art, i.e. to its <u>nomenclature</u>. Terms are characterized by a tendency to be <u>monosemantic</u> and therefore easily call forth the required concept. The terms of linguistics are: *onomastics*, *argot*, *toponym*, *phonology*, etc.

6. What are the main features of poetic words?

Poetic and highly literary words belong to special literary vocabulary. They are mostly archaic and aim at producing an elevated effect or giving the work of art a lofty poetic coloring.

7. What is the difference between common colloquial words and slang?

The vocabulary of colloquial style is usually lower than that of the formal or neutral styles, nevertheless it makes the literary norm. Colloquial words are often emotionally colored and characterized by connotations (consider the endearing connotations in the words *daddy*, *kid* or the evaluating components in *trash*).

Slang are popular words used by most speakers in very informal communication, which are highly emotive and expressive and as such, e.g. *scamp* (a small child), *hooker* (prostitute), *gross* (crude, vulgar, disgusting), *scum* (a worthless person or group of people). Slang occupies an intermediary position among all kinds of informal words (including vulgarisms) and vocabulary of closed social groups such (teenagers, drug-users, sportsmen, thieves' jargons and the like).

Slang words lose their originality rather fast and are replaced by newer formations. This tendency to synonymic expansion results in long chains of synonyms of various degrees of expressiveness, denoting one and the same concept. So, the idea of a "pretty girl" is worded by more than one hundred ways in slang, e.g. *chic*, *cookie*, *tomato*, *Jane*, *sugar*, *bird*, *cutie*, etc.

8. What is the difference between a term and professionalism?

Professionalisms are words, connected with the technical side of some profession. So, in oil industry, e.g. for the terminological 'driller' (буро-вик) there exist *borer*, *digger*, *wrencher*, *hogger*, *brake weight*; for 'pipeliner' (трубопроводчик) — *bender*, *cat*, *old cat*, *collar-pecker*, *hammerman*; for 'geologist-smeller' — *pebble pup*, *rock hound*, *witcher*, etc. Such words as *docudrama*, *kidvid*, *prime-time* are restricted by professional TV jargon in their functioning. From all the examples at least two points are evident: professionalisms are formed according to the existing word-building patterns or present existing words in new meanings, and, covering the field of special professional knowledge, which is semantically limited, offer a variety of synonymic choices for naming one and the same professional item.

**Практические задания и упражнения к семинару 13
(Practical Tasks)**

Assignment 1. State the difference in the pragmatic aspect of meaning of the given synonyms. Consult a dictionary.

Example

Face (neutral) – visage (borrowing) – mug (colloquial):

face – visage – mug – deadpan;

nose – snout – beak – nasal cavity;

I think – I gather – I presume – I take it – I guess it – me thinks;

boy – youth – lad – young male person – youngster – teenager;

lass – girl – maiden – wench – young female person.

Assignment 2. Break up the following words into formal, informal and neutral:

Example

Formal: *plausible*

Informal: *plank*

Neutral: *to tell*:

plausible, plank, possible, to inform, fella, to tell, thine, to assist, to help, to cooperate, baccy, to work, to promote, to secure, smeller, to make, skunk, hoody, to determine, mollycoddle, do-less, to resolve, to wish, gaffer, to endeavour, to try, to proceed, to go, to inquire, to ask, aforesaid, herewith, radge, hereby, albeit, drifter, teahead, poppycock, crap.

Assignment 3. Discriminate between terms and professionalisms:

Example

Terms: *venture capitalist, capital gains*

Professionalisms: *rainmaker, yellow dog*:

venture capitalist, business angel, a loan shark, seed capital, to generate money, to assess risks, to raise money, dead parrot, equity, capital gains, blue chips, to go in the red, to float a loan, to bull the market, bear market, godfather offer, rainmaker, yellow dog.

Assignment 4. Replace the colloquial expressions by more neutral ones.

Example

<u>*Uptight*</u> *– nervous:*

1) Why are you so <u>uptight</u> about getting this position?

2) I <u>dunno</u> if Crag's <u>gonna</u> join our team. He looks actually strong and good for defence line but I think he's a pretty <u>yellow bellied</u> guy.

3) Why are you, Sara, so <u>yakky</u>!

4) Paul was pretty sad when they told him that his old bass guitar <u>went under the hammer</u>.

5) She is so beautiful! I am <u>stuck on</u> her!

Assignment 5. Find proper Russian equivalents and stylistically neutral counterparts of the following jargon expressions.

Example

She had pot on her when she was busted − Когда её сцапали, при ней были наркотики.

1. She slipped into the backroom to dope up. 2. There are a lot of dopers in this neighborhood now. 3. The trip was great but once was enough. 4. Like it? I was blown away. 5. He couldn't wait to get home and shoot up. 6. Just one shot of that stuff and you're hooked for life. 7. He thought he would get away with chipping, but now he's hooked. 8. He came off drugs cold turkey. 9. The man I was to find was both a junkie and a pusher. 10. She had pot on her when she was busted.

Assignment 6. Classify the given words into neologisms, archaisms and historisms:

Example

Cybersickness − neologism:

bill, Yogalates, gorget, yeoman, hauberk, genetically modified, goblet, mace, phaeton, prairie, schooner, dame, rue, (to their greatest) height, wrought, wight, hallow, celebutante, anon, natheless, eke, shoulder-surfing, sooth, troth, cybersickness, keypad, animatronics, mentee, agroterrorism, crunk, rendition.

Тест по теме (Test 5)

1. Find the word with the grammatical meaning of singularity (*noun*)

a) He *works* well

b) His *work* is done well

c) His *works* are known everywhere

d) They *work* at a big plant

2. Find the word with the grammatical meaning of plurality (noun)

a) All his *answers* were correct

b) He *answers* well

c) If you are not sure, don't *answer* this question

d) Your *answer* is wrong

3. Find the word in which the emotive charge is heavier

a) large

b) big

c) tremendous

d) vast

4. Find the word which is colloquial in style

a) parent

b) father

c) dad

d) ancestor

5. Find the word which is bookish in style

a) darkness

b) harmony

c) foolish

d) glad

6. Find a non-literary word (*slang*)

a) wife

b) sister

c) missus

d) mother

7. Find a non-literary word (*professionalism*)

a) a shop

b) a lab

c) a store

d) a barn

8. Find a non-literary word or expression (*vulgarism*)

a) bad

b) negative

c) awful

d) bloody

9. Find the word which is motivated morphologically

a) farther

b) singer

c) aunt

d) niece

10. Find the word which is completely motivated morphologically

a) long

b) endless

c) big

d) large

11. Find the word which is partially motivated morphologically

a) cherry

b) apple

c) plum

d) cranberry

12. Find the word which is motivated phonetically

a) hiss

b) book

c) table

d) chair

13. Find an example of a dead metaphor

a) cold reason

b) cruel heat

c) the flower of his life

d) the hand of the watch

14. Find an example of personal metaphor:

a) She is like a snake in the grass

b) He bought a head of cabbage

c) The moon is riding in the sky

d) The moon is like a silver coin

15. Find an example of zoosemy

a) Don't you be a dog in the manger

b) She is always as busy as a bee

c) He is as strong as an elephant

d) "Rise like lions after slumber"

16. Find an example of metonymy

a) He had only a few coppers in his pocket

b) We got to the mouth of the river

c) He was a lion in the fight

d) The valley was silent

17. Find the case of synecdoche

a) Everything smiled at him

b) All hands aboard!

c) The childhood of the earth

d) The leg of the table was broken

18. What result of the change of meaning can be found in the examples below: 1) extension (generalization) of meaning; 2) narrowing (specialization) of meaning; 3) pejorative development (degradation of meaning); 4) ameliorative development (elevation of meaning).

a) She has always been a good *wife* to him

b) Have you looked through the *journals* which were got yesterday?

c) We must write to the *minister* about it

d) I don't like her. Her manners are *vulgar*

e) The office was in the busiest part of London, in the *City*

f) The hunter walked along the path, the *hound* running after him

g) Our *target* is building civil society

h) "Do you hear the *villain*?" – groaned the tall young man

19. Find a monosemantic word

a) table

b) hydrogen

c) head

d) country

20. Find the case where diachronically we have not polysemantic words but homonyms

a) table (*стол*) – table (*таблица*)

b) pipe (*труба*) – pipe (*курительная трубка*)

c) tube (*труба*) − tube (*метро*)
d) ear (*колос*) − ear (*ухо*)

Рекомендуемая литература

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. Лексикология английского языка = English Lexicology : учебник и практикум для вузов / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. − 8-е изд., перераб. и доп. − Москва : Юрайт, 2021. − 196 с. − Из содерж.: Chapter 1−2. − С. 12−32.

2. Арнольд, И. В. Стилистическая дифференциация лексики // Лексикология современного английского языка : учеб. пособие / И. В. Арнольд. − 4-е изд., стер. − Москва, 2017. − Глава двенадцатая. − С. 264−291. − URL: e.lanbook.com/book/108229 (дата обращения: 08.12.2021).

3. Бабич, Г. Н. Levels of Usage // Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Г. Н. Бабич. − 8-е изд. − Москва, 2016. − Chapter 8. − С. 111−128. − URL: e.lanbook.com/book/85849 (дата обращения: 07.12.2021).

4. Гвишиани, Н. Б. Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Н. Б. Гвишиани. − 3-е изд., перераб. и доп. − Москва : Юрайт, 2019. − 273 с. − Из содерж.: Chapter 1. − С. 52−78.

5. Jackson, H. Word, Meaning and Vocabulary : An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology / H. Jackson, E. Ze Amvela. − 2nd ed. − London : Continuum, 2007. − X, 250 p. − From the content: Chapter 5. − P. 125−132.

Module 7. ENGLISH IDIOMS

Theme: Phraseology of Modern English

Форма проведения занятия: собеседование.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. What is lexical valency?
2. What is the difference between free word-combinations, collocations and phraseological units?
3. What is 'grammatical invariability' of phraseological units?
4. What is the basis of the traditional and oldest principle for classifying phraseological units?
5. What other principles can be used for the classification of phraseological units?
6. Do you see any controversial points in the classification system for phraseological units by prof. A.I. Smirnitsky?
7. What is the basis of prof. I.V. Arnold's classification of phraseological units?
8. What are the merits of prof. A.V. Koonin's classification of phraseological units?

Методические материалы к занятию

Тезисы лекции для подготовки к собеседованию
(Short outline of the theme)

1. What is lexical valency?

Lexical valency is the aptness of lingual units to appear in different combinations when forming lingual units of the upper level. Lexical collocability is the realization of syntagmatic relations.

2. What is the difference between free word-combinations, collocations and phraseological units?

Word-combination is the combination of two or more words, organized according to the laws of a given language, which represent complex nominations of various referents. All word-combinations are divided into free and bound ones.

Free word-combinations preserve the lexical meaning of their notional components: *to read a book*, *a piece of bread*, *a piece of chalk*.

Set expression – the lexical meanings of its components are weak or lost: *as hard as nails*, *железная дорога*, *бить баклуши*.

3. What is 'grammatical invariability' of phraseological units?

Phraseological units are set word-groups with idiomatic or partially idiomatic meaning. *Structural invariability* or means the permanence of lexical composition, no (or few) substitutions of components are possible. The are strict restrictions on the componential extension and grammatical changes of components of phraseological units.

4. What is the basis of the traditional and oldest principle for classifying phraseological units?

Phraseological units are characterized by *semantic unity*, that means that the meaning in phraseological unit is created by mutual interaction of elements, i.e. its meaning cannot be deduced from the meaning of its components, e.g. *to kick the bucket* 'to die', *to be in deep water* 'in trouble or difficulty'. Phraseological meaning conveys a single concept and this makes phraseological units similar to words, e.g. *in a brown study* 'gloomy'.

5. What other principles can be used for the classification of phraseological units?

Phraseological units are characterized by *syntactic fixity*, that means that phraseological units are functionally inseparable and like words they perform one common syntactic function in the sentence, for example, the phraseological unit *off the record* 'not yet official' functions as an adverb. Phraseological units are characterized by ready made reproduction. They cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready made units, e.g. *red tape* 'bureaucratic methods', *to get rid of*, *to take place*, *to lead the dance*, *to take care*.

Phraseology – is a branch of linguistics studying set-expressions and collocability of words of the language.

6. Do you see any controversial points in the classification system for phraseological units by prof. A.I. Smirnitsky?

Prof. A.I. Smirnitsky states that a phraseological unit may be defined as specific word groups functioning as word-equivalents, and characterized

by semantic and grammatical unity. He suggested two semantic classes of phraseological units: **idioms** (*to wash one's dirty linen in public*), which are metaphoric and stylistically marked, and **phraseological combinations** (*to fall in love*, *to get up*), which are trite metaphors who have lost their figurativeness, that's why they are stylistically neutral. Only the second group of the set expressions is given a detailed analysis.

A.I. Smirnitsky worked out structural classification of phraseological combinations according the number and semantic significance of their constituent parts. He points out **one-top** (**one-summit**) **units** which have one semantically significant element in their structure. They are called phrasal verbs now. He compares one-top units with derived words because derived words have only one root morpheme. He points out **two-top** (**two-summit**) **units** which have two semantically significant elements in their structure. He compares them with compound words because in compound words we usually have two root morphemes. He also distinguishes **multi-top** (**multi-summit**) **units**. The number of tops (summits) is defined by the number of notional words.

7. What is the basis of prof. I.V. Arnold's classification of phraseological units?

The functional classification of phraseological units, suggested by prof. I.V. Arnold, is based on their ability to perform the same syntactical function as words. According to this approach the following principal groups of phraseological units are distinguishable:

— **substantive** phraseological units or noun equivalents, e.g. *a thorn in the flesh* 'a source of irritation', *butterflies in your stomach* 'tremors in the stomach region due to nervousness', *a nest-egg* 'savings', *the movers and shakers* 'the people with power and influence', *bullet train* 'super high-speed train in Japan', *a latchkey child* 'a child who has to let himself in at home on returning from school, as his parents are out at work';

— **verbal** phraseological units or verb equivalents, e.g. *to catch red-handed* 'in the act of committing a crime or doing something wrong or shameful', *to sink through the floor* 'feel ashamed', *to knock one's head against a brick wall* 'to be persistent in doing smth.', *to be on the beam* 'be correct, relevant, or appropriate', *to make headlines* 'to become prominent in the news';

— *adjectival* phraseological units or adjective equivalents, e.g. *penny wise and pound foolish* 'petty in small affairs and wasteful in big business', *wise after the event* 'having good ideas after the mishap', *too close to the knuckle* 'realist', *of the same kidney* 'of the same class, type, or disposition';

— *adverbial* phraseological units or adverb equivalents, e.g. *by fair means or foul* 'tooth-and-nail', *up to the elbows in* 'busily occupied with; deeply immersed in', *hand over fist* 'steadily and quickly; with rapid progress', *with a bump* 'immediately, abruptly', *in the soup* 'in trouble or difficulties', *like a dream* 'without an effort', *like a dog with two tails* 'very pleased and enthusiastic'.

8. What are the merits of prof. A.V. Koonin's classification of phraseological units?

The classification system of phraseological units suggested by professor A.V. Koonin is based on the combined structural-semantic principle and it also considers the quotient of stability of phraseological units. Prof. A.V. Koonin defines a phraseological unit as a stable word group with wholly or partially transferred meaning. In his classification phraseological units are subdivided into classes, subclasses and types. Classes are distinguished according to their function in communication determined by their structural-semantic characteristics.

Class 1. Nominative phraseological units are represented by word-groups, including the ones with one meaningful word, e.g. *a bull in a china shop* 'a person who is careless, or who moves or acts in a rough or awkward way', and coordinative phrases of the type *wear and tear* 'the damage to objects, furniture, property, etc. that is the result of normal use', *well and good* 'quite good but not exactly what is wanted'. All units of this kind class denote objects, states, qualities and the like.

Class 2. Nominative-communicative phraseological units include verbal word-groups which are transformed into a sentence when the verb is used in the Passive Voice, e.g. *to break the ice* 'to make people feel more friendly and willing to talk to each other' — *the ice is broken*.

Class 3. Interjectional phraseological units include interjectional word-groups and some interjections with predicative structure. They are neither nominative nor communicative but stable lingual units by nature, e.g. *by George!* — 'really, indeed', *a fine* (*nice*, *pretty*) *kettle of fish* — 'used to say that a situation is very different from one that you have just mentioned'.

Class 4. Communicative phraseological units are represented by proverbs and sayings. Phraseological units of this class are sentences in form, e.g. *Queen Ann in dead!* – 'to say well-known truths', *What will Mrs. Grundy say!* – 'what will people say?'

Thus, classification by A.V. Koonin is of a comprehensive character. There are phraseological units, expressing statement, that have the form of a complete sentence. A.V. Koonin calls them communicative. Among communicative phraseological units two groups of expressions are distinguished: *proverbs* and *sayings*.

Практические задания и упражнения к семинару 14 (Practical Tasks)

Assignment 1. State phraseological units and free word combinations.
Example
Phraseological unit: The new factory will give the local economy *a real shot in the arm*.

Free word combination: The mother *took* the fur coat *to the cleaner's*.
1. Simon presents his story in a typically heroic manner, so I have *to read between the lines*. 2. The prisoners *read* the hidden messages made in milk ink *between the lines* of the books. 3. She was acutely aware that she had *burnt her bridges*. 4. When the French sieged the castle, its people *burnt their bridges*. 5. The new factory will give the local economy *a* real *shot in the arm*. 6. You might say that I really needed *this shot in the arm*. 7. We knew that it wouldn't just go away if we *swept it under the carpet*. 8. He *swept* all the dirt *under the carpet*. 9. The CEO *took* the dealership *to the cleaners* at the meeting. 10. The mother *took* the fur coat *to the cleaner's*.

Assignment 2. Classify the phraseological units on the semantic principle into: 1) phraseological fusions; 2) phraseological unities; 3) phraseological combinations.
Example
Phraseological fusion: *once in a blue moon* – very seldom.
Phraseological unity: *to come to one's sense* – to change one's mind.
Phraseological combination: *to make haste* – to hurry:
to get on someone's nerves; cash and carry; to put a good word in for someone; to secure an agreement; to make money out of someone; maiden

name; to commit suicide; to pull a face; to make a mountain out of a mole hill; to reach a compromise; to get one's own back on someone; winds of change; to sort something out; to attain a target; to feel under the weather; as dead as a dodo; to realize a dream; to achieve an ambition; to tell tales out of school; an acute problem; to fulfil an obligation; to make a fool out of someone.

Assignment 3. Complete each idiomatic phrase with a word from the box.

Example

Philip's such a gentle man, he wouldn't hurt a *fly*.

bee   bull   cat   chicken   dog   fish   fly   lamb   pig   snake

1. it's time to be brave and take the _____ by the horns.
2. Terry went meekly into the exam room, like a _____ to the slaughter.
3. Misfortune was to _____ Charles for the rest of his life.
4. From this point the road begins to _____ down hill to the coast.
5. I've eaten too much, I've made a real _____ of myself.
6. Philip's such a gentle man, he wouldn't hurt a _____.
7. Grandfather looked like a _____ out of water at the disco.
8. John's got the big match tomorrow, but I'm sure he's going to _____ out at the last minute and stay at home.
9. Carol arrived at the party and made a _____ line for the sandwiches as she hadn't eaten for hours.
10. Lisa walked in tentatively, like a _____ on a hot tin roof.

Assignment 4. Translate the following binominals into Russian.
Example

Tears are *part and parcel* of growing up (слёзы — *неотъемлемая часть* взросления):

1. Tears are *part and parcel* of growing up. 2. The boss was *ranting and raving* at us. 3. The old cottage has gone to *rack and ruin*. 4. He's so *prim and proper* at work. 5. The hotel was a bit of *rough and ready*. 6. She has to *wine and dine* important clients. 7. Let's have the main things packed; we can do the *odds and ends* later. 8. Every relationship needs a bit of *give and take*. 9. You can *pick and choose*, it's up to you. 10. My English is progressing in *leaps and bounds*.

Assignment 5. Decide which word or phrase completes the sentence.

Example

His new car is amazing, but it must have cost him *a packet*.

1. He didn't know anything about business, so starting his own was _____.
   a) a leap into the clouds b) a leap in the dark c) a leap into the whole

2. His new car is amazing, but it must have cost him _____.
   a) a packet   b) the sea   c) the Sun

3. I hate the way he criticizes everybody. It really rattles _____.
   a) my back   b) my bones   c) my cage

4. When her business crashed, she had to pick up _____ and start again.
   a) the fragments   b) the pieces   c) the stones

5. She felt really bad when she realized that she had lost her watch. It wasn't expensive but it had sentimental _____.
   a) expense   b) price   c) value

Assignment 6. Try to decide which proverb could help you express yourself in the following situations.

Example

Better late than never

1. You make an appointment with your doctor for 6 pm. You arrive at 6.15. He complains that he has been waiting for 15 minutes. What would you say?

2. Your boss calls you into his office to ask you why you haven't finished the task that he asked you to do earlier and he complains that you are slow. What would you say to him?

3. Your best friend gets married to a very ugly fat person who has a very kind, pleasant personality. Your spouse asks you how he could have possibly married her. What would you say?

Тест по теме (Test 6)

1. Find an endocentric word-group

a) white snow   c) side by side

b) to turn pale   d) day and night

2. Find an exocentric word-group

a) heavy rain

b) to grow smaller

c) keen sight

d) great bravery

3. Find a predicative word-group

a) dark night

b) men and women

c) to unleash war

d) the girl smiled

4. Find a non-predicative word-group

a) the snow is melting

b) a man of wisdom

c) the children play

d) the water runs

5. Find a subordinative non-predicative word-group

a) girls and boys

b) neck or nothing

c) cold weather

d) to be or not to be

6. Find a coordinative non-predicative word-group

a) ladies and gentlemen

b) green leaf

c) fighter for peace

d) to book a ticket

7. Find a word-group the structure formula of which is V + N + V

a) to read books

b) to speak on the problem

c) to send letters to somebody

d) to let somebody go

8. Find a word-group the structure formula of which is V + prep + N

a) to get to know

b) to put forward a question

c) to depend on something

d) to deliver a speech

9. Find a pattern of a word-group

a) V + N + V (*inf*)

b) get + N + V (*inf*)

c) V + prep + N

d) A + N

10. Find a monosemantic pattern

a) cold + N

b) take + N

c) to make + N + V (*inf*)

d) heavy + N

11. Find an example of a free word-group

a) to read books

b) to cry for the moon

c) to fall in love

d) to fly into a rage

12. Find an example of a phraseological fusion

a) to show one's teeth

b) sunny smile

c) cold winter

d) heavy weather

13. Find an example of a phraseological collocation

a) to go to the cinema

b) to declare war

c) to get the sack

d) to beat about the bush

14. Find an example of a phraseological unity

a) to know where the shoe pinches

b) to join the army

c) to speak well

d) to know everything

15. Find an adverbial phraseological unit

a) ill at ease

b) red tape

c) by heart

d) to keep house

16. Find a verb phraseological unit

a) for the sake of

b) Jack of all trades

c) golden opportunity

d) to cut short

17. Find a phraseme

a) red tape

b) small hours

c) heavy father

d) to get the sack

18. Find an idiom

a) a mare's nest

b) heavy rain

c) cold reason

d) to fall ill

Рекомендуемая литература

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. Лексикология английского языка = English Lexicology : учебник и практикум для вузов / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. — 8-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва : Юрайт, 2021. — 196 с. — Из содерж.: Chapter 12–13. — С. 147–164.

2. Арнольд, И. В. Обогащение словарного состава английского языка за счет образования устойчивых словосочетаний // Лексикология современного английского языка : учеб. пособие / И. В. Арнольд. — 4-е изд., стер. — Москва, 2017. — Глава девятая. — С. 198–221. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/108229 (дата обращения: 08.12.2021).

3. Бабич, Г. Н. Phraseology // Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лекси-кология английского языка : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Г. Н. Бабич. — 8-е изд. — Москва, 2016. — Chapter 7. — С. 98–107. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/85849 (дата обращения: 08.12.2021).

4. Гвишиани, Н. Б. Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Н. Б. Гвишиани. — 3-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва : Юрайт, 2019. — 273 с. — Из содерж.: Chapter 7. — С. 226–248.

5. Jackson, H. Word, Meaning and Vocabulary : An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology / H. Jackson, E. Ze Amvela. — 2nd ed. — London : Continuum, 2007. — X, 250 p. — From the content: Chapter 6. — P. 135–142.

Module 8. VARIANTS OF ENGLISH

Theme: Territorial Differentiation of the English Word-Stock

Форма проведения занятия: собеседование.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. Where is English spoken nowadays?
2. What is the status of American English?
3. What is the historical background of the formation of the lexical system of American English?
4. What relations exist between the lexical units of American English and British English?
5. What are the peculiarities of American English word-building system?
6. What are the grammatical peculiarities of American English?
7. What are the relations between the different varieties of English nowadays?
8. What groups of local dialects in Great Britain and the USA can be singled out?
9. Why do Scottish English and Irish English have a special linguistic status and cannot be referred to as dialects?
10. What do you know about African-American Vernacular English?

Методические материалы к занятию
Тезисы лекции для подготовки к собеседованию
(Short outline of the theme)

1. Where is English spoken nowadays?

In Modern linguistics the distinction is made between *Standard English* and *territorial variants* and *local dialects* of the English language.

Standard English may be defined as that form of English which is current and literary, substantially uniform and recognized as acceptable wherever English is spoken or understood either within an English-speaking country or throughout the entire English-speaking world.

Variants of English are regional varieties possessing a literary norm. There are distinguished variants existing on the territory of the United Kingdom (British English, Scottish English and Irish English), and

variants existing outside the British Isles (American English, Australian English, Canadian English, New Zealand English, South African English and Indian English). Each of these developed a literature of its own, and is characterized by peculiarities in phonetics, spelling, grammar and vocabulary. British English is often referred to the written Standard English and pronunciation known as Received Pronunciation (RP).

Local dialects are varieties of English peculiar to some districts, used as means of oral communication in small localities; they possess no normalized literary form.

2. What is the status of American English?

American English is the variety of the English language spoken in the USA. The first wave of English-speaking immigrants was settled in North America in the 17th century. In this century, there were also speakers in North America of the Dutch, French, German, Native American, Spanish, and Finnish languages. That's why the vocabulary used by American speakers has distinctive features of its own. There are whole groups of words which belong to American vocabulary exclusively and constitute its specific features. These words are called Americanisms, e.g. *sorority*, *dry goods*.

3. What is the historical background of the formation of the lexical system of American English?

The first group of such words may be described as ***historical Americanisms***, e.g. *fall* 'autumn', *to guess* 'to think', *sick* 'ill, unwell'. In American usage these words still retain their old meanings whereas in British English their meanings have changed or fell out of use. The second group of Americanisms includes words which are not likely to be discovered in British vocabulary. These words may be called ***proper Americanisms***. They were coined by the early Americans which had to find names for the new environment (flora and fauna) and new conditions of life, e.g. *redbud* 'an American tree that has heart-shaped leaves and small budlike pink flowers, the state tree of Oklahoma'; *bluegrass* 'any of several North American bluish-green grasses grown for forage'. Another group of Americanisms consist of words which may be described as specifically ***American borrowings***. These borrowings reflect the historical contacts of the Americans with other nations on the American continent, e.g. *ranch*, *sombrero* (Spanish borrowings), *toboggan*, *caribou* (Indian borrowing).

4. What relations exist between the lexical units of American English and British English?

The American variant of the English language differs from British English in pronunciation, some minor features in grammar, spelling and punctuation standards and vocabulary.

There are some differences in the position of the stress: *add'ress* — *'address*, *la'boratory* — *'laboratory*, *re'cess* — *'recess*, *re'search* — *'research*, *in'quiry* — *'inquiry*, *ex'cess* — *'excess*. Some words in BE and AE have different pronunciation, e.g. clerk [kla:k] — [klə:rk], neither ['naiðə] — ['ni:ðə], schedule ['shedju:l] — ['skedju:l].

5. What are the peculiarities of American English word-building system?

Speaking about the lexical differences between the two variants of the English language, the following cases are of importance:

1. Cases where there are no equivalent word in one of the variants. For example, British English has no equivalent to the American word *drive-in*.

2. Cases where some words are used in both variants but are much commoner in one of them. For example, *shop* and *store* are used in both variants, but the former is frequent in British English and the latter — in American English.

3. Cases where one (or more) lexico-semantic variant(s) is (are) specific to either British English or American English. For example, both British and American English have the word *faculty*, but denoting 'all the teachers and other professional workers of a university or college' this word is used only in American English.

4. Cases where one and the same word in one of its lexico-semantic variants is used oftener in British English than in American English. For example, the most common British meaning of the word *brew* is 'a cup of tea' while in American English this word is mostly used in the meaning 'a beer or coffee drink'.

6. What are the grammatical peculiarities of American English?

There are some differences between British and American English in the usage of ***prepositions***, such as prepositions with dates, days of the week British English requires *on*: *I start my holiday on Friday*; in American English there is no preposition: *I start my vacation Friday*. In British English they use *by day*, *by night/ at night*, in American English the corresponding forms

are *days* and *nights*. In British English they say *at home*, *a quarter to five*, *in the street*, *to chat to somebody*, *different to something*, in American English − *home*, *a quarter of five*, *on the street*, *to chat with somebody*, *different from something* are used correspondingly.

7. What are the relations between the different varieties of English nowadays?

On the British Isles there are some local varieties of English which developed from Old English local dialects. There are six groups of them: Lowland (Scottish), Northern, Western, Midland, Eastern, Southern. These varieties are used in oral speech by the local population. Only the Scottish dialect has its own literature.

One of the best known dialects of British English is the dialect of London − ***Cockney***. Some peculiarities of this dialect can be seen in the first act of "Pigmalion" by B. Shaw, such as: interchange of [v] and [w], e.g. [wery vell] for *very well*; interchange of [f] and [θ], [v] and [ð], e.g. [fing] for *thing* and [fa:ve] for *father*; interchange of [h] and [-], e.g. ['eart] for *heart* and [hart] for *art*; substituting the diphthong [ai] by [ei] e.g. *day* is pronounced [dai]; substituting [au] by [a:], e.g. *house* is pronounced [ha:s], *now* [na:]; substituting [ou] by [ɔ:], e.g. *don't* is pronounced [dɔ:nt] or substituting it by [ə] in unstressed positions, e.g. *window* is pronounced ['wində].

8. What groups of local dialects in Great Britain and the USA can be singled out?

The American English is practically uniform all over the country, because of the constant transfer of people from one part of the country to the other. However, three major dialectal varieties are distinguished in the USA: New England, Southern and Midwestern (Central, Midland). Dialects markedly differ on the phonemic level: one and the same phoneme is differently pronounced in each of them.

9. Why do Scottish English and Irish English have a special linguistic status and cannot be referred to as dialects?

For example, some peculiarities in New York dialect can be pointed out, such as: there is no distinction between [æ] and [a:] in such words as *ask*, *dance*, *sand*, *bad*, both phonemes are possible. The combination *ir* in the words: *bird*, *girl*, *ear* in the word *learn* is pronounced as [ɔi], e.g. [bɔid], [gɔil], [lɔin]. In the words *duty*, *tune* [j] is not pronounced [du:ti], [tu:n].

10. What do you know about African-American Vernacular English?

There is also one ethnic variety in the United States, ***African-American Vernacular English*** (AAVE, also called ***Ebonics***), that has gained national prominence and influenced usage from coast to coast. This dialect is used in many African-American communities in the USA, especially in urban areas. It has been widely used in popular entertainment and has spread in informal settings, especially among the young and with the emphasis on trendy slang, verbal games, and such music related activities as jazz and rap. It has its origin in the culture of enslaved Americans and also has roots in England. AAVE is largely based on the Southern American English variety.

Some of the characteristics of AAVE, particularly where phonology is concerned, are shared with other dialects of American English, and it is difficult to point features as characteristic of AAVE only. However, some of the phonological features of AAVE are: consonant-cluster reduction word-finally, e.g. *test* [tes], *desk* [des]; deletion of postvocalic liquids (frictionless continuants), e.g. *help* [hep]; *change of* [ð], *the man* [ða mæn].

Практические задания и упражнения к семинару 15 (Practical Tasks)

Assignment 1. Give the British spelling of the following words:
Example
Aluminum — aluminium (British):
aluminum, analog, annex, artifact, connexion, check, dialog, disk, donut, draft, encyclopedia, gray, Hallowe'en, harbor, hospitalized, jewelry, judgment, labor, lite, maneuver, mold, mustache, omelet, pajamas, plow, practice, pretense, program, quarreled, specialty, story, sulfur, theater, thru, tire, woolen, afterward, drug.

Assignment 2. Point out words: 1) the meaning of which in American English is entirely different from that in British English, 2) the general meaning of which is the same in both variants, but which have acquired an additional specific meaning in one of the variants:
Example
1 — *Bun*, *flip-flop*;
2 — *Tube*, *cocktail*:

tardy, guess, homely, sick, billion, corn, dessert, buzzard, fag end, bun, flip-flop, bathroom, vacation, pavement, smart, bureau, express, tube, cocktail.

Assignment 3. Which of the statements belong to British English and to American English?

Example

British English: I'm sorry your number is engaged. Shall I try and put you through later?

American English: After you have filled out the form, take the elevator to the second floor and there you may exchange your money:

1. I want to make a call to California. Could you connect me within 10 minutes?

2. I'm sorry your number is engaged. Shall I try and put you through later?

3. After you have filled out the form, take the elevator to the second floor and there you may exchange your money.

4. Where can I find a phone box? I want to ring my mother up. Oh, I need to change my pound note. Where can I do it?

5. The toilet's on the ground floor. Go past the chemist's, the Lost Property, and there you'll see it.

Assignment 4. Find historical Americanisms, proper Americanisms and American borrowings:

Example

drug store, *candy*, *baggage*, *subway*, *elevator*, *etc*.

corn, jazz, sick, fall, mosquito, adjunct professor, mad, electoral college, guess, campus, bluejay, skunk, bobcat, raccoon, casket, moose, poker-faced, canyon, coyote, patrol wagon, wheels, wheat, dude, tepee, wickiup, wigwam, buffalo.

Assignment 5. Convert the following sentences into British English.

Example

Pass me the *cookies* – Pass me the *biscuits* (British English):

1. I had a blow-out. 2. Pass me the cookies. 3. It's in the closet. 4. Open the drapes. 5. We've run out of gas. 6. Our bags are in the trunk. 7. One-way or round trip? 8. Buy a one-way ticket. 9. We're leaving in the fall. 10. I hate waiting in line.

Assignment 6. What do you think these examples of Australian colloquialisms mean?

Example

What are you doing this *arvo*? (What are you doing this *afternoon*?):

1. I'm exhausted − let's have a smoko!
2. She wants to be journo when she leaves uni.
3. We got terribly bitten by mozzies at yeasterday's barbie.
4. He's planning to do a bit of farming bizzo while he's in the States.
5. What are you doing this arvo?

Тест по теме (Test 7)

1. Find an example of a full Briticism

a) fortnight   c) ship

b) country   d) window

2. Find an example of a full Americanism

a) drug-store   c) childhood

b) friendship   d) cinema

3. Find the word the spelling of which is the USA differs from that in Britain

a) standard   c) national

b) labor   d) language

4. Find the American form of Participle II

a) written   c) proven

b) spoken   d) taken

5. Find the word which is obsolete in Britain but modern in the USA

a) building (= house)   c) to ask (= to question)

b) to pronounce (= to speak)   d) fall (one of the seasons)

6. Find a dialect word

a) village   c) town

b) city   d) burgh

7. Find the word formed with the help of a dialectal suffix

a) doggy   c) Charley

b) dogeen   d) antie

8. Which of the dialects became the national language of Britain?

a) Lowland

b) Northern

c) Western

d) Midland

9. Which of the words is more frequently used in the USA than in Britain?

a) underground

b) subway

c) tube

d) metro

10. What is the American meaning of the word "sick"?

a) ill

b) feeling nausea

c) being in decay

d) strange

Рекомендуемая литература

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. Do Americans Speak English or American? / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова // Лексикология английского языка = English Lexicology : учебник и практикум для вузов / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. — 8-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва, 2021. — Chapter 14. — С. 169—173.

2. Арнольд, И. В. Английский язык в Америке // Лексикология современного английского языка : учеб. пособие / И. В. Арнольд. — 4-е изд., стер. — Москва, 2017. — Глава одиннадцатая. — С. 256—264. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/108229 (дата обращения: 08.12.2021).

3. Бабич, Г. Н. Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Г. Н. Бабич. — 8-е изд. — Москва : Флинта, 2016. — 195, [1] с. — Из содерж.: Chapter 10—11. — С. 145—172. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/85849 (дата обращения: 08.12.2021).

4. Гвишиани, Н. Б. «A Vast Number of Englishes» // Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Н. Б. Гвишиани. — 3-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва, 2019. — С. 29—40.

5. Jackson, H. Word, Meaning and Vocabulary : An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology / H. Jackson, E. Ze Amvela. — 2nd ed. — London : Continuum, 2007. — X, 250 p. — From the content: Chapter 6—7. — P. 160—178.

Module 9. ENGLISH DICTIONARIES

Theme: English Lexicography

Форма проведения занятия: собеседование.

Вопросы для собеседования

1. What are the various alternative names used for a dictionary?
2. What types of linguistic dictionaries do you know?
3. How do the subject (restricted) dictionaries differ from general dictionaries?
4. What information is covered by the special dictionaries?
5. What are the main problems of lexicography?
6. What is the history of English lexicography?
7. How would you differentiate between prescriptive and descriptive dictionaries?
8. What are the essential features of a new generation of 'computer-corpus based' dictionaries?

Методические материалы к занятию

Тезисы лекции для подготовки к собеседованию
(Short outline of the theme)

1. What are the various alternative names used for a dictionary?

Lexicography (from Greek roots *lexicos* − 'referring to words' and *grapho* − 'to write') is the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries. It has a common object of study with lexicology as both describe the vocabulary of a language. The difference is in the degree of systematization and comprehension of description. Lexicology studies the vocabulary of a language in general, it distinguishes characteristic features of words, and lexicography studies a separate word, it describes its semantic, formal and functional properties.

Dictionaries are reference book consisting of a collection of words arranged in alphabetical, thematic or some other definite order, covering the vocabulary of a language or its part with explanation. Dictionaries may be classified under different heads. According to the choice of items

included and the sort of information given about these items dictionaries may be divided into two big groups – *encyclopedic* and *linguistic*.

2. What types of linguistic dictionaries do you know?

Linguistic dictionaries are word books the subject-matter of which is lexical units and their linguistic properties such as pronunciation, meaning, origin, their usage and other linguistic information.

In the English language dictionaries, which deal with words, are known by alternate names. They are known as *dictionary*, *lexicon*, *activator*, *vocabulary*, *glossary*, *concordance* and *thesaurus*.

3. How do the subject (restricted) dictionaries differ from general dictionaries?

According to the scope of their word-list dictionaries are divided into *general* and *restricted*. **General dictionaries** represent the vocabulary as a whole with a degree of completeness depending upon the scope and the bulk of the book in question. Some general dictionaries may have very specific aims and still be considered general due to their coverage. They include: explanatory dictionaries, bilingual dictionaries, pronouncing dictionaries, frequency dictionaries and thesauri.

Restricted dictionaries cover only a certain specific part of the vocabulary. Restricted dictionaries can be subdivided depending on whether the words are chosen according to the sphere of human activity in which they are used, the type of units themselves or the relations existing between them.

4. What information is covered by the special dictionaries?

Specialized (*special*) *dictionaries* provide the information limited to one particular linguistic aspect of the word, i.e. etymology, frequency, pronunciation, usage. According to the language of explanations all dictionaries are divided into monolingual, bilingual and multilingual.

5. What are the main problems of lexicography?

The most important problems the lexicographer comes across in compiling dictionaries are the selection of words, the selection, arrangement and definition of meanings, differentiation of meanings, discriminating between homonyms and lexico-semantic variants, and the illustrative examples to be supplied.

Different types of dictionaries differ in their aim, in the information they provide and in their size. They differ in the structure and content of the entry. The most complicated type of entry is found in explanatory dictionaries. The entry of an explanatory dictionary of the synchronic type usually presents the following data: accepted spelling, pronunciation, grammatical characteristics, the indication of the part of speech, definitions of meanings, modern currency, illustrative examples, derivatives, phraseological units, etymology, synonyms, antonyms, etc.

6. What is the history of English lexicography?

The history of dictionary making conventionally falls into several periods.

The first period (7−16 c.) got the name "glossarization", that is a period of primitive hand-written bilingual glossaries. Glossaries are lists of incomprehensible foreign (often Latin or Greek) words accompanied with the English translation.

The second period in the English language lexicography can be defined as the period of "dictionaries of difficult words" (17-early 18 c.). Dictionaries of this period are distinguished by their compilers' tendency to embrace only those lexical units which they considered to be difficult for comprehension while everyday words were either ignored or too shortly defined, hardly differing from each other.

7. How would you differentiate between prescriptive and descriptive dictionaries?

The third period in the English dictionary making can be called as "pre-scientific or prescriptive" (18-early 19 c.). The lexicographer established the language norm, set authoritative standards for spelling, pronunciation and usage and "corrected", following the word etymology, analogy and rationalism. Lexicographers tried to give exhaustive information about the word, aimed at recommending the reader how to use, pronounce and write this or that word, that's why nearly all dictionaries of this period can be characterized as normative.

Word definitions were of a more comprehensive structure that the definitions in earlier dictionaries. Usages were illustrated with quotations from literature. Etymologies were also indicated. This period dictionaries are *A Dictionary of English Language* by Samuel Johnson (1755), *An American Dictionary of English Language* by Noah Webster (1828) and others.

8. What are the essential features of a new generation of 'computer-corpus based' dictionaries?

Corpus (or *corpus-based*) *linguistics* deals with compiling dictionaries on the basis of electronic text corpora which register word usages as a result of continuous investigation of texts. For example, the *COBUILD English Dictionary* – the dictionary made on the basis of computer processing of information, uses the *British National Corpus*, which is of more than 100 mln. words of modern English. 90% of the corpus are written works since 1975 (60 % of written texts are books, 25% – periodicals): regional and national newspapers, specialist periodicals, academic books, journals, popular fiction, letters, memoranda, school and university essays. 75 % of texts are from informative writings (from the field of applied sciences or art), 25 % are from imaginative writings. 10 % of the corpus includes spoken language – records of all kinds of conversation and TV and radio broadcasts.

Практические задания и упражнения к семинару 16, 17 (Practical Tasks)

Assignment 1. Define the types of the following dictionaries:
Example
The Encyclopaedia Britannica (encyclopaedia):
1. The Wordsworth Dictionary of Idioms.
2. The Encyclopaedia Britannica.
3. Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English.
4. Roget's Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases.
5. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary.
6. Кунин А.В. Англо-русский фразеологический словарь.
7. Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary.
8. Малаховский Л.В. Словарь английских омонимов и омоформ.
9. Фоломкина, С.К. Англо-русский словарь сочетаемости.
10. www.multitran.ru

Assignment 2. Compare two or three general-use dictionaries and comment on the similarities and differences.
Example
Words are organized in alphabetical order, etc.

Assignment 3. Which unit does not belong to the set?

Model: lexicographer, dictionary-maker, <u>publisher</u>, editor, compiler

1) lexicographer, dictionary-maker, publisher, editor, compiler;
2) diachronic dictionary, historical (linguistic) dictionary, etymological dictionary, dictionary of historicisms;
3) diacritical marks; frequency index (indices); entry; head-word, illustrative quotations;
4) vocabulary, dictionary, glossary, concordance, thesaurus, lexis, word-book;
5) unilingual dictionary, bilingual dictionary, translation dictionary, multilingial dictionary, polyglot dictionary.

Assignment 4. Study two or three word entries taken from 4 explanatory dictionaries of the English language. Comment on types of definitions, paying attention to explanation of meanings and the causes.

Assignment 5. Look up the answers to the following questions.

Example

Which is the more usual spelling *night* or *nite*?

1. Which is the more usual spelling *night* or *nite*?
2. What is the pronunciation for *Niké*, *escort* and *dénouement*?
3. What is the origin of the words *discourse*, *mesmerize*?
4. Write the comparative and superlative forms of *forlorn* and *good-looking*.
5. Write the plural of *corpus*, *addendum*, *appendix* and *bonanza*.
6. Write the past and past participle forms of the verbs *sow*, *saw*, *hew*, *gild*, *strew*, *cleave*, *thrive*, *thrust*, *dare*, *prove*, *heave*, *reave*, *spin*, *slay*, *slide*, *glide*?
7. Try to guess the meanings of the words: *spouse*, *sibling*, *community*, *foster home*?

Assignment 6. Give the full form of the following labels:

Example

BrE − British English:

sl, BrE, infml, euph, tdmk, old-fash, fml, humor, tech, AmE, derog, dial, AustrE, ScotE, apprec, pomp, fig, joc, rhet, approv, iron, obs, arch, adj, myth, Bibl, conj, naut, poet, cj, cf.

Assignment 7. Find words (Oxford English Dictionary) labeled as: dialect, approving, disapproving, figurative, formal, humorous, informal, ironic, literary, non-standard, offensive, old-fashioned, saying, slang, taboo.

Assignment 8. Use the electronic Longman dictionary and break up the given words into frequently and infrequently used:

Example

jump (frequently used):

run, use, devoid, subtlety, marry, jump, particular, origin, carol, caviar, analysis, sample, age, light, mark, sign.

Assignment 9. Some English words have the same spelling but two different pronunciations. Read the following pairs of sentences aloud. Then write a phonetic transcription for each of the words in italics. Use the dictionary to check.

1. a) The children stood in a *row* against the wall.

   b) We had a blazing *row* a couple of days ago.

2. a) He smiled, then gave a *bow*.

   b) She had a yellow ribbon in her hair, tied in a *bow*.

3. a) I forgot to *wind* my watch.

   b) A cold *wind* blew and the rain fell in torrents.

4. a) What type of soap do you *use*?

   b) This is not the best *use* of your talents.

5. a) They *lead* the world in oil production.

   b) The tax proposals went down like a *lead* balloon at the party conference.

Assignment 10. In the sentences below there are some rhymed pairs. Find the word missing in the second sentence of each pair. Check your dictionary for pronunciation and spelling.

1. Crime can pay, even if you are *caught*. The hotel has a tennis _____.

2. Add two tablespoons of *flour*. I think daffodils are a beautiful _____.

3. We shouted ourselves *hoarse* at the football match. Never look a gift _____ in the mouth.

4. I need a *pair* of earrings to go with this outfit. There were lots of apple trees and _____ trees in their garden.

5. I *guessed* from the look on her face that he had died. I felt I was a _____ in this country.

Assignment 11. Write the plural forms of the following nouns. Then check your answers in the dictionary.

1) crisis	9) deer
2) tomato	10) hand-out
3) chairman	11) goose
4) analysis	12) half
5) phenomenon	13) appendix
6) hoof	14) louse
7) basis	15) passer-by
8) species	16) spacecraft

Assignment 12. Which of the following words are used a) only in plural; b) only in singular?

Goods, economics, pyjamas, mumps, trousers, surroundings, thanks, news, scissors, furniture.

Assignment 13. Complete the sentences with the correct prepositions. Check your answers in the dictionary.

1. He succeeded _____ passing his exams, to my great surprise.
2. We used to argue _____ who should drive.
3. He objected _____ people smoking in his house.
4. Billy was very generous _____ people who had less than he did.
5. He was suddenly seized by an overwhelming passion _____ her.
6. Alexander Fleming is famous _____ discovering penicillin.
7. He is recognized _____ the new champion.
8. I would like to introduce you _____ my friend.
9. This hotel is very popular _____ tourists.
10. He showered her _____ flowers and jewellery.

Assignment 14. Fill in the gaps with correct forms of the verbs *do, make, have, take*.

1. She is probably upstairs _____ a bath.
2. Don't worry, Tim. Just _____ your best.
3. Why do we have to _____ so many tests?
4. Where did you _____ your training?
5. I had to _____ a big effort not to laugh.

6. You can't stop people from _____ fun.

7. Before I _____ the operation I could hardly walk.

8. A scandal would _____ his reputation a lot of harm.

9. It was the first journey he'd _____ all on his own.

10. We need to _____ a lot more research.

Рекомендуемая литература

1. Арнольд, И. В. Английская лексикография // Лексикология современного английского языка : учеб. пособие / И. В. Арнольд. — 4-е изд., стер. — Москва, 2017. — Глава шестнадцатая. — С. 345−370. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/108229 (дата обращения: 08.12.2021).

2. Бабич, Г. Н. Lexicography // Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Г. Н. Бабич. — 8-е изд. — Москва, 2016. — Chapter 9. — С. 133−140. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/85849 (дата обращения: 08.12.2021).

3. Влавацкая, М. В. Основы лексикологии для студентов-филологов (на материале английского и русского языков) : учеб. пособие / М. В. Влавацкая ; Новосибирский государственный технический университет. — Новосибирск : Изд-во НГТУ, 2019. — 310, [1] с. — Из содерж.: Lecture 7−8. — С. 165−187. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/152385 (дата обращения: 08.12.2021).

4. Гвишиани, Н. Б. Applied Lexicology // Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Н. Б. Гвишиани. — 3-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва, 2019. — Chapter 6. — С. 186−200.

5. Jackson, H. Word, Meaning and Vocabulary : An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology / H. Jackson, E. Ze Amvela. — 2nd ed. — London : Continuum, 2007. — X, 250 p. — From the content: Chapter 7−8. — P. 180−202.

БИБЛИОГРАФИЧЕСКИЙ СПИСОК

Основная литература

1. Антрушина, Г. Б. Лексикология английского языка = English Lexicology : учебник и практикум для вузов / Г. Б. Антрушина, О. В. Афанасьева, Н. Н. Морозова. — 8-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва : Юрайт, 2021. — 196 с. — (Высшее образование). — ISBN 978-5-534-07119-1.

2. Арнольд, И. В. Лексикология современного английского языка : учеб. пособие / И. В. Арнольд. — 4-е изд., стер. — Москва : ФЛИНТА, 2017. — 374, [1] с. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/108229 (дата обращения: 03.12.2021). — ISBN 978-5-9765-1041-8.

3. Бабич, Г. Н. Lexicology: A Current Guide = Лексикология английского языка : учеб. пособие / Г. Н. Бабич. — 8-е изд. — Москва : ФЛИНТА, 2016. — 195, [1] с. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/85849 (дата обращения: 03.12.2021). — ISBN 978-5-9765-0249-9.

4. Влавацкая, М. В. Основы лексикологии для студентов-филологов (на материале английского и русского языков) : учеб. пособие / М. В. Влавацкая ; Новосибирский государственный технический университет. — Новосибирск : Изд-во НГТУ, 2019. — 310, [1] с. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/152385 (дата обращения: 03.12.2021). — ISBN 978-5-7782-3987-6.

5. Гвишиани, Н. Б. Современный английский язык. Лексикология = Modern English Studies. Lexicology : учеб. пособие для студентов вузов / Н. Б. Гвишиани. — 3-е изд., перераб. и доп. — Москва : Юрайт, 2019. — 273 с. — (Бакалавр. Углубленный курс). — ISBN 978-5-9916-2497-8.

6. Лаврова, Н. А. A Coursebook on English Lexicology = Английская лексикология : учеб. пособие / Н. А. Лаврова. — 2-е изд., стер. — Москва : ФЛИНТА, 2018. — 165, [1] с. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/106867 (дата обращения: 03.12.2021). — ISBN 978-5-9765-1090-6.

7. Мурдускина, О. В. Лексикология и терминоведение : электрон. учеб.-метод. пособие / О. В. Мурдускина ; Тольяттинский государственный университет. — Тольятти : Изд-во ТГУ, 2016. — 130 с. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/139906 (дата обращения: 03.12.2021). — ISBN 978-5-8259-1020-8.

8. Никитина, Т. Г. Stylistics and the Basics of Editing = Стилистика и основы редактирования : электрон. учеб.-метод. пособие / Т. Г. Никитина ; Тольяттинский государственный университет. — Тольятти : Изд-во ТГУ, 2017. — 181 с. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/140105 (дата обращения: 03.12.2021). — ISBN 978-5-8259-1189-2.

Дополнительная литература

9. Бузуева, Ю. С. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. Часть 1. Этимология. Словообразование : учеб.-метод. пособие / Ю. С. Бузуева, Н. А. Глазунова ; Национальный исследовательский Нижегородский государственный университет им. Н.И. Лобачевского. — Нижний Новгород : Изд-во ННГУ, 2019. — 31 с. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/144632 (дата обращения: 06.12.2021).

10. Бузуева, Ю. С. Практикум по лексикологии английского языка. Часть. 2. Семасиология. Фразеология: учеб.-метод. пособие / Ю. С. Бузуева ; Национальный исследовательский Нижегородский университет имени Н. И. Лобачевского. — Нижний Новгород : ННГУ , 2019. — 26 с. (Специалитет). — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/144633 (дата обращения: 06.12.2021).

11. Голованова, Е. И. Введение в когнитивное терминоведение : учеб. пособие / Е. И. Голованова. — 3-е изд., стер. — Москва : ФЛИНТА, 2017. — 221, [1] с. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/100006 (дата обращения: 08.12.2021). — ISBN 978-5-9765-1046-3.

12. Зинина, О. А. Лексикология английского языка = English Lexicology : учеб. пособие / О. А. Зинина, А. Б. Окаева. — Минск : РИПО, 2017. — 139 с. — URL: www.iprbookshop.ru/84908.html (дата обращения: 08.12.2021). — ISBN 978-985-503-734-8.

13. Катермина, В. В. Лексикология английского языка : практикум / В. В. Катермина. — 2-е изд., стер. — Москва : ФЛИНТА, 2016. — 115, [1] с. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/84300 (дата обращения: 06.12.2021). — ISBN 978-5-9765-0844-6.

14. Кругликова, Е. А. Лексикология английского языка : учеб. пособие / Е. А. Кругликова ; Сибирский федеральный университет. — Красноярск : СФУ, 2016. — 161 с. — URL: www.iprbookshop.ru/epd-reader?publicationId=84368 (дата обращения: 06.12.2021). — ISBN 978-5-7638-3479-6.

15. Плетнева, Н. В. Лексикология современного английского языка : практикум : учеб.-метод. пособие / Н. В. Плетнева, Е. А. Брылина ; Уральский федеральный университет имени первого президента России Б. Н. Ельцина. — Екатеринбург : Изд-во Уральского ун-та, 2015. — 54, [1] с. — URL: www.iprbookshop.ru/68343.html (дата обращения: 06.12.2021). — ISBN 978-5-7996-1570-3.

16. Швыдкая, Л. И. Практический курс английской лексикологии = English Lexicology. Test Book. 1 : учебник / Л. И. Швыдкая. — 4-е изд., стер. — Москва : ФЛИНТА, 2019. — 371 с. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/122715 (дата обращения: 06.12.2021). — ISBN 978-5-9765-2027-1.

17. Швыдкая, Л. И. Практический курс английской лексикологии = English Lexicology. Test Book. 2 : учебник / Л. И. Швыдкая. — 4-е изд., стер. — Москва : ФЛИНТА, 2019. — 243 с. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/122716 (дата обращения: 06.12.2021). — ISBN 978-5-9765-2028-8.

18. Modern English Lexicology = Лексикология современного английского языка : учеб.-метод. пособие / Кировский государственный медицинский университет ; авт.-сост.: Т. Б. Агалакова, Т. Л. Мошанова. — Киров : Изд-во Кировского ГМУ, 2017. — 95 с. — URL: e.lanbook.com/book/136044 (дата обращения: 06.12.2021).

19. Crystal, D. A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics / D. Crystal. — 6th ed. — [Oxford] : Blackwell Publishing, 2008. — XXV, 529 p. — ISBN 9781405152969.

20. Lexicology and Corpus Linguistics : An Introduction / M. A. K. Halliday, W. Teubert, C. Yallop, A. Cermakova. — London [et al.] : Continuum, 2004. — 256 p. — ISBN 9780826444929.

21. Jackson, H. Word, Meaning and Vocabulary : An Introduction to Modern English Lexicology / H. Jackson, E. Ze Amvela. — 2nd ed. — London : Continuum, 2007. — X, 250 p. — ISBN 9781847146250.

22. Kvetko, P. English Lexicology : In Theory and Practice / P. Kvetko. — 2nd Revised ed. — Trnava : Univerzita sv. Cyrila a Metoda v Trnave, 2009. — 203 p. — ISBN 978-80-8105-110-4.

23. Matthews, P. H The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics / P. H. Matthews. — 2nd ed. — Oxford [et al.] : Oxford University Press, 2005. — X, 410 p. — ISBN 9780198610502.

Интернет-ресурсы

1. Cambridge Dictionary : [сайт] / Cambridge University Press. — Cambridge, 2021. — URL: dictionary.cambridge.org (дата обращения: 06.12.2021).
2. CAL. Center for Applied Linguistics : [сайт]. — Washington, 2021. — URL: www.cal.org (дата обращения: 06.12.2021).
3. Glossary of Linguistic Terms : [сайт] / SIL International. — Dallas, 2021. — URL: glossary.sil.org/term (дата обращения: 06.12.2021).
4. Glossary of English Grammar Terms // UsingEnglish.com : [сайт]. — URL: www.usingenglish.com/glossary/ (дата обращения: 06.12.2021).
5. IdiomsOnline : [сайт]. — 2021. — URL: www.idioms.online (дата обращения: 06.12.2021).
6. LexSite : [online dictionary] // Russian — English as a foreign language : [сайт] / Language Interface Inc. — URL: www.lexsite-dictionary.com/ru (дата обращения: 06.12.2021).
7. Small Glossary of Linguistics // Universität Duisburg-Essen : [сайт]. — URL: www.uni-due.de/ELE/LinguisticGlossary.html#GlossD (дата обращения: 06.12.2021).
8. Urban Dictionary : [сайт]. — 1999 — 2021 — URL: www.urbandictionary.com (дата обращения: 06.12.2021)
9. WordNet : A Lexical Database for English : [сайт] / Princeton University. — Princeton, 2021. — URL: wordnet.princeton.edu (дата обращения: 06.12.2021).

ГЛОССАРИЙ

Abbreviation (syn. clipping, curtailment, shortening) — a shortened form of a word or phrase, e.g. *prof.* — professor, *okay* — all correct, *pike* — turnpike, etc.

Abbreviation, graphical — a sign representing a word or word-group of high frequency of occurrence, e.g. *Mr.* — Mister, *Mrs.* — Mistress, *i.e.* (Latin "id est") — that is, *cf* (Latin "cofferre") — compare.

Abbreviation, lexical (syn. acronym) — a word formed from the first (or first few) letters of several words which constitute a compound word or word-group, e.g. *UNESCO* — United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, *BBC* — the British Broadcasting Corporation, *SOS* — Save Our Souls, *BA* — Bachelor of Arts.

Ablaut (syn. vowel gradation or interchange) — a change from one to another vowel, characteristic of Indo-European languages, e.g. to bear — *burden*, to abide — *abode*, to bite — *bit*, to ride — *rode*, to strike — *stroke*.

Absolute (total, complete) **synonyms** — synonyms so identical in their meaning that one can always be substituted for by the other in any given context, e.g. *fricative — spirant*, *almost — nearly*, *mirror — looking-glass*, *flexion — inflection*, *noun — substantive*.

Acronym (see lexical abbreviation) — a word formed from the initial letters of a fixed phrase or title, e.g. *TV* — Television, *VIP* — Very Important Person, *hi-fi* — High Fidelity.

Adjectivalization — the use of nouns and participles as adjectives, e.g. *a stone wall*, *home affairs*, *swimming-pool*.

Adverbialization — the use of adjectives as adverbs, e.g. he spoke *loud* (loudly), it tastes *good*.

Affix (affixational morpheme) — a derivational morpheme which is always bound to a stem or to a combination containing a stem, e.g. *un*mistak*able*, *un*pardon*able*, *ir*regular*ity*, affixes are subdivided into prefixes, suffixes and infixes according to their position (see prefix, suffix, infix), e.g., *un-*, *dis-*, *-ful*, *-less*, *-able*.

Affixation — is the formation of new words by adding derivative affixes to derivational bases or stems, e.g. *kind + ness*, *grate + ful*, *un + happy*, *im + moral*.

Alien — a borrowed word not assimilated with the English language and easily recognizable as a foreign word, e.g. *caf* , *geisha*, *Kremlin*, *criterion*, *soprano*.

Allomorphs – positional variants of a morpheme characterized by complementary distribution (they are used in mutually exclusive environment and stand in alteration with each other), e.g. allomorphs of the prefix *in-* are: *il-* (*illegal*), *ir-* (*irregular*), *im-* (*impossible*).

Amelioration or **elevation** (a semantic shift of meaning) – the improvement of the connotational component of meaning, e.g. *nice* originally meant *foolish*, *knight* originally meant *boy*, *fame* originally meant *report*, *common talk*, *rumor*, *minister* originally meant *servant*.

Americanism – a word or a set expression peculiar to the British language as spoken in the USA, e.g. *cookie* – biscuit (BE), *fall* – autumn (BE), *truck* – lorry (BE), *movies* – pictures (BE), *side-walk* – pavement (BE).

Antonyms – words of the same parts of speech different in sound-form, opposite in their denotational meaning or meanings and interchangeable in some contexts, e.g. *short* – *long*, *to begin* – *to end*, *regular* – *irregular*, *day* – *night*, *thick* – *thin*, *early* – *late*.

Aphaeresis – initial clipping, i.e. the formation of a word by the omission of the initial part of the word, e.g. *phone* from *telephone*, *mend* from *amend*, *story* from *history*.

Apocope – final clipping, i.e. the omission of the final part of the word, e.g. *exam* from *examination*, *gym* from *gymnasium* or *gymnastics*, *lab* from *laboratory*, *ref* from *referee*.

Assimilation (of a loan word) – a partial or total conformation to the phonetical, graphical and morphological standards of the English language and its semantic system.

Back-formation – derivation of a new word by subtracting a real or supposed affix from an existing word, e.g. to sculpt – *sculptor*, to beg – *beggar,* to burgle – *burglar*.

Blending – formation of a word by merging parts of words (not morphemes) into one new word; the result is a blend, fusion (or a portmanteau word), e.g. *smog* (smoke + fog), *transceiver* (transmitter + receiver), *motel* (motor + hotel), *brunch* (breakfast + lunch).

Borrowings – words taken over from another language and (partially or totally) modified in phonetic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language, e.g. *rickshaw* (Chinese), *sherbet* (Arabian), *ballet*, *caf* , *machine*, *cartoon*, *police* (French).

Bound form (stem or **morpheme**) – a form (morpheme) which must always be combined with another morpheme (i.e. always bound to some

other morpheme) and cannot stand in isolation, e.g. *nat* − in *native*, *nature*, *nation*; all affixes are bound forms.

Briticism − a lexical unit peculiar to the British variant of the English language, e.g. *petrol* is a Briticism for gasoline; opposite Americanism.

Clipping − formation of a word by cutting off one or several syllables of a word, e.g. *doc* (from *doctor*), *phone* (from *telephone*), etc. (see abbreviation, apocope, aphaeresis, syncope).

Cockney − the regional dialect of London marked by some deviations in pronunciation and few in vocabulary and syntax, e.g. *fing* stands for *thing*, *farver* for *farther*, *garn* for *go on*, *toff* for a person of the upper class.

Collocation − habitual lexico-phraseological association of a word in a language with other particular words in a sentence, e.g. *to pay attention to*, *to meet the demands*, *cold war*.

Colloquial (of words, phrases, style) − belonging to, suitable for, or related to ordinary; not formal or literary conversation, e.g. *there you are*, *you see*, *here's to us*, *to have a drink*.

Combinability (occurrence-range, collocability, valency) − the ability of linguistic elements to combine in speech.

Complementary distribution − is said to take place when two linguistic variants cannot appear in the same environment (i.e. they appear in mutually exclusive environment and stand in alternation with each other, e.g. variants of the prefix *in-* (*im-*, *il-*, *ir-*) are characterized by complementary distribution as in *imperfect*, *illegal*, *irregular*.

Composition − see word-composition.

Compound words or **compounds** − words consisting of at least two stems or root morphemes which occur in the language as free forms, e.g. *tradesman*, *Anglo-Saxon*, *sister-in-law*, *honeymoon*, *passer-by*.

Concatenation − the semantic process in which the meaning of a word moves gradually away from its first signification by successive shifts of meanings, e.g. *board*.

Concept (syn. notion) − an idea or thought, especially a generalized idea of a class of objects, the reflection in the mind of real objects and phenomena in their essential features and relations.

Connotation − complementary meaning or complementary semantic and (or) stylistic shade which is added to the word's main meaning and which serves to express all sorts of emotional, expressive, evaluative overtones.

Content – the main substance or meaning, e.g. the content of a poem is distinguished from its form.

Context – the minimum stretch of discourse necessary and sufficient to determine which of the possible meanings of a polysemantic word is used.

Contrastive distribution – characterizes different morphemes, i.e. if they occur in the same environment they signal different meanings (see complementary distribution), e.g. the suffixes -*able* and -*ed* are different morphemes, because adjectives in -*able* mean capable of being, e.g. *measurable*, whereas -*ed* has a resultant force, e.g. *measured*.

Conversion – the formation of a new word solely by changing its paradigm or the method of forming a new word by changing an existing one into another part of speech without any derivational affixes (or other external changes), so that the resulting word is homonymous with the original one, e.g. *water* (n) – *to water* (v); *dry* (adj) – *to dry* (v); *must* (v) – *a must* (n), *go* (v) – *a go* (n).

Coordinative compounds – compounds whose components are structurally and semantically independent and constitute two structural and semantic centers, e.g. *actor-manager*, *fifty-fifty*, *secretary-stenographer*.

Degradation of meaning – the appearance of a derogatory and scornful emotive charge in the meaning of the word, e.g. *knave* (OE – *boy*), *silly* (OE – *happy*), *boor* (OE – *farmer*).

Demotivation – loss of motivation, when the word loses its ties with another word or words with which it was formerly connected and associated, ceases to be understood as belonging to its original word-family, e.g. *lady*, *breakfast*, *boatswain*, *to kidnap*.

Derivation – the process of forming new words by affixes, sound and stress interchange, e.g. *work* – *worker*, *kind* – *unkind*, *food* – *feed*, *blood* – *bleed*, *life* – *live*, *present* – *present*, *import* – *import*. Some scholars include conversion into derivation too.

Derivational affix – an affix which serves to form new words, e.g. -*less* in *helpless* or *dis*- in *dislike*.

Derivational suffix – a suffix serving to form new words, e.g. read*able*, help*less*, use*ful*.

Derived stem – a stem (usually a polymorphemic one) built by means of derivation; a stem comprising one root-morpheme and one or more derivational affixes, e.g. *courageously*, *singer*, *tigress*.

Deverbal noun — a noun formed from a verb by conversion, e.g. *to buy — a buy*, *must — a must*, *to cut — a cut*.

Dialect (local) — a variety of the English language peculiar to some district and having no normalized literary form, e.g. *Cockney*, *Northern*, *Midland*, *Eastern* dialects of England.

Dictionary — a book of words in a language usually listed alphabetically with definitions, translations, pronunciations, etymologies and other linguistic information. Kinds of dictionaries: *bilingual*, *encyclopedic*, *etymological*, *explanatory*, *general*, *ideographic*, *linguistic*, *multilingual*, *phraseological*, *pronouncing*, *special*, *unilingual*.

Distribution — possible variants (the total, sum) of the immediate lexical, grammatical and phonetic environment of a linguistic unit (i.e. the position of a linguistic sign in relation to other linguistic signs). For a morpheme it is the preceding and following morpheme (s), for a word it is the preceding and the following word (s), for a phoneme it is the preceding and the following phoneme (s); see the complementary and contrastive distribution.

Ellipsis — the omission of a word or words considered essential for grammatical completeness but easily understood in the context, e.g. *daily* (*paper*), (*cut-price*) *sale*, *private* (*soldier*).

Etymological doublet — either of two words of the same language which were derived by different routes from the same basic word, e.g. *chase — catch*, *chieftain — captain*, *chattels — cattle*, *disc — dish*, *shirt — skirt*, *scar — share*, *one — an*, *raid — road*.

Etymology — a branch of lexicology dealing with the origin and history of words, especially with the history of form.

Euphemism — a word or phrase used to replace an unpleasant word or expression by a conventionally more acceptable one, e.g. *to be no more* for *to die*; *to tell stories*, *to distort the facts* for *to lie*; *remains* for *corpse*; *paying guest* for *lodger*.

Extension of meaning — changes of meaning resulting in the application of a word to a wider variety of referents. It includes the change both from concrete to abstract and from specific to general, e.g. *journal* originally meant *daily*, *a thing* originally meant *meeting*, *decision*; *salary* originally meant *salt money*, *pioneer* originally meant *soldier*.

Familiar quotations come from literature but by and by they become part and parcel of the language, e.g. *to be or not to be*, *tabula rasa — a blank tablet*, *ad hoc — for this special purpose*.

Free forms — forms which may stand alone without changing their meaning, i.e. forms homonymous with words, e.g. the root-morpheme *teach-* in *teacher*.

Free morphemes coincide with word-forms of independently functioning words, e.g. *first-nighter*.

Functional affixes — affixes serving to build different (grammatical) forms of one and the same word, e.g. *-(e)s* in *boys*, *classes*, *-ed* in *worked*.

Functional approach to meaning — an approach showing that the meaning of a linguistic unit (word) may be studied only through its relation to other linguistic units (words) and not through its relation to either concept or referent, i.e. it views the meaning as the function of distribution.

Functional meaning (of a morpheme) — the part-of-speech meaning of the morpheme, e.g. the part-of-speech meaning of the suffixes *-ize* in verbs and *-ice* — in nouns as in the words *realize* and *justice*.

Generalization — see extension of meaning, e.g. *ready* from OE *rade* that meant *prepared for a ride*, *animal* from Latin *anima soul*.

Glossary — a list of special or difficult terms with explanations or translations, often included in the alphabetical order at the end of a book.

Grammatical homonyms — homonyms that differ in grammatical meaning only (i.e. homonymous word-forms of one and the same word), e.g. *cut* (infinitive) — *cut* (past participle); *boys* — *boy's*.

Grammatical meaning — the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of grammatical forms of different words as, e.g. the meaning of the plural number in the word-forms of nouns: *books*, *tables*, etc., grammatical meaning expresses in speech the relationship between words.

Grammatical valency — the aptness of a word to appear in specific grammatical (or rather syntactic) structures.

Homonyms — words identical in sound or spelling (or in both) but different in meaning (in semantic structure), e.g. *sound* (adj) — *sound* (n).

Homonyms proper (syn. absolute, perfect) — words identical in pronunciation and spelling, e.g. *temple — висок*, *temple — храм*, *seal — печать*, *seal — тюлень*.

Homonyms, etymological — homonyms that are etymologically different words, e.g. *sea — море*, *to see — видеть*, *bear — медведь*, *to bear — рождать*.

Homonyms, full — words that are homonymous in all their forms, e.g. *seal* — *тюлень*, *seal* — *печать*.

Homonyms, grammatical — words that have homonymous forms of the same word, e.g. *he asked* — *he was asked*, *boys'* — *boys*.

Homonyms, lexical — words that differ in lexical meaning, e.g. *knight* (рыцарь) — *night* (ночь), *ball* (мяч) — *ball* (бал).

Homonyms, lexico-grammatical — words that differ both in lexical and grammatical meaning, e.g. *swallow* — *ласточка*, *to swallow* — *глотать*, *well* — *источник*, *well* — *хорошо*.

Homonyms, partial — words that are homonymous in some of their forms, e.g. *brothers* (pl) — *brother's* (poss. case).

Homophones — words identical in sound-form but different both in spelling and in meaning, e.g. *to know* — *no*, *not* — *knot*, *to meet* — *meat*.

Hyperbole — an exaggerated statement not meant to be understood literally but expressing an emotional attitude of the speaker to what he is speaking about, e.g. *Lovely*! *Awfu*l! *Splendid*! *For ages*, *heaps of time*, *floods of tears*, *a world of good*.

Hyponymy — type of paradigmatic relationship when a specific term is included in a generic one, e.g. *pup* is the hyponym of *dog*, and *dog* is the hyponym of *animal*.

Idiom — an accepted phrase, word-group, or expression the meaning of which cannot be deduced from the meanings of its components and the way they are put together, e.g. *to talk through one's hat*, *to smell a rat*, *a white elephant*, *red tape*.

Idiomatic — lacking motivation from the point of view of one's mother tongue.

Immediate Constituents analysis — cutting of a word into IC's. It is based on a binary principle.

Immediate Constituents (IC's) — the two immediate (maximum) meaningful parts forming a larger linguistic unity, e.g. the IC's of *teacher* are *teach* and *-er*, *red-haired* — *red* and *hair* and *-ed*.

Indirect borrowings — semantic borrowings and translation-loans.

Infix — an affix placed within the stem (base), e.g. *stand* and *stood*. Infixes are not productive in English.

International words – words borrowed from one language into several others simultaneously or at short intervals one after another, e.g. *biology*, *student*, *Communism*.

Juxtaposition – the way of forming compounds by placing the stems side by side without any linking elements. It is very productive in English, e.g. *airline*, *postman*, *blue-bell*, *waterfall*, *house-keeper*.

Juxtapositional compound – a compound whose components are joined together without any linking elements, i.e. by placing one component after another in a definite order, e.g. *door-handle*, *snow-white*.

Lexical meaning – the component of meaning proper to the word as a linguistic unit, i.e. recurrent in all the forms of this word and in all the possible distributions of these forms.

Lexical valency – the aptness of a word to appear in various combinations with other words.

Lexicography – a branch of applied lexicology concerned with the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries.

Litotes – a word or word-group which expresses the affirmative by the negation of its contrary, e.g. *not bad* for *good*, *not small* for *great*, *no coward* for *brave*.

Meaning – an essential aspect of any linguistic sign (word) reflecting objective reality in our consciousness. The relation between the object or notion named and the name itself. Kinds of meaning: *abstract*, *archaic*, *basic*, *central*, *concrete*, *connotational*, *denotative*, *derived*, *differential*, *direct*, *distributional*, *etymological*, *extended*, *figurative*, *functional*, *grammatical*, *lexical*, *lexico-grammatical*, *literal*, *main*, *major*, *marginal*, *metaphoric*, *metonymic*, *minor*, *obsolete*, *original*, *secondary*, *transferred*.

Metaphor – transfer of meaning on the basis of a similarity of some sort (in shape, in size, in function, in color, etc.) between the established referent of a word and some new referent, e.g. *a stony heart*, *the head of cabbage*, *star* – a leading actress.

Metonymy – transfer of meaning based on contiguity, i.e. by naming a closely related object or idea, e.g. *chair* meaning *the presiding officer*, *town* meaning *the inhabitants of the town*.

Morpheme – the smallest linguistic unit possessing meaning (or the minimum meaningful unit of language), e.g. *un-luck-i-ly* has four morphemes.

Morphemic analysis — splitting the word into its constituent morphemes and determining their number and types.

Morphological composition — the way of forming compounds by joining together two stems with the help of special liking elements: *-o-*, *-i-*, *-s-*, e.g. *handicraft*, *gasometer*, *sportsman*.

Morphological compound — a compound whose components are joined together with a linking element, e.g. *speedometer*, *handiwork*, *spokesman*.

Morphological motivation — a different connection between the structural (morphological) pattern of the word (or phraseological unit) and its meaning, e.g. *fatherless*, *greatly*, *thankful*.

Motivated word-groups are word-groups whose combined lexical meaning can be deduced from the meaning of their component-members, e.g. *to declare war*, *head of an army*, *to make a bargain*, *to cut short*, *to play chess*.

Motivation — the relationship between the morphemic or phonemic composition of the word and its meaning, e.g. *schoolchild*, *moo*, *tick*.

Narrowing of meaning — the restriction of the semantic capacity of a word in the course of its historical development, e.g. *meat* originally meant *food*, *dear* originally meant *beast*.

Neologism — a new word or word equivalent formed according to the productive structural patterns or borrowed from another language; a new meaning of an established word, e.g. *dictaphone*, *travelogue*, *monoplane*, *multi-user*, *pocketphone*, *sunblock*.

Occasionalism — a word or a word-combination created in each case anew, e.g. living metaphors whose predictability is not apparent, e.g. the *ex-umbrella* man, a *horse-faced* woman, a *gazelle-eyed* youth, *cobra-headed* anger.

Onomatopoeia — the formation of a word by imitating the natural sound associated with the object or action involved, e.g. *buzz*, *cuckoo*, *tinkle*.

Paradigm — the system of grammatical forms characteristic of a word, e.g. *to write*, *wrote*, *written*, *writing*, *writes*; *girl*, *girl's*, *girl's*, *girls*, *girls'*.

Paradigmatic relationships are based on the interdependence of words within the vocabulary.

Paronyms are words kindred in sound form and meaning and therefore liable to be mixed but in fact different in meaning and usage and therefore

only mistakenly interchanged, e.g. *to affect — to effect*, *allusion — illusion*, *ingenious — ingenuous*.

Phrase — a lexical unit comprising more than one word, e.g. *to go to school*, *a red apple*, etc. Kinds of phrases: adjectival, e.g. *rich in gold*, etc.; free, e.g. *green leaves — yellow leaves — dry leaves*, etc; nominal, e.g. *a blue sky*, *Jack of all trades*, etc; verbal, e.g. *to go to school*, *to cry over split milk*, etc; motivated, e.g. *fine weather*, *to play the piano*, etc,; non-motivated, e.g. *red tape*, *by hook or by crook*.

Phraseological collocations — motivated phraseological units made up of words possessing specific lexical valency which accounts for a certain degree of stability and strictly limited variability of member-words, e.g. *to bear a grudge* or *to bear a malice*, *to win the race*, *to gain access*.

Phraseological fusions (idioms) — completely non-motivated invariable phraseological units whose meaning has no connection whatsoever (at least synchronically) with the meaning of the components (i.e. it cannot be deduced from the knowledge of components), e.g. *to pay through the nose* (to pay a high price); *red tape* (bureaucratic methods).

Phraseological units — partially motivated or non-motivated word-groups that cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready-made units.

Phraseology — a branch of linguistics studying set-phrases — phraseological units of all kinds.

Polymorphic — having two or more morphemes, e.g. *inseparable*, *boyishness*, *impossibility*.

Polysemantic words — having more than one meaning, e.g. *board*, *power*, *case*.

Polysemy — plurality of meanings, i.e. co-existence of the various meanings of the same word and the arrangement of these meanings in the semantic structure of the word, e.g. *maid* 1) a girl, 2) a woman servant.

Prefix — a derivational affix (morpheme) placed before the stem, e.g. *un-* (*unkind*), *mis-* (*misuse*), etc. Kinds of prefixes: borrowed, e.g. *re-*, *ex-*, *sub-*, *ultra-*, *non-*, etc; native, e.g. *un-*, *under-*, *after-*, etc.; non-productive (unproductive), e.g. *in-* (*il-*, *im-*, *ir-*), etc.; productive, e.g. *un-*, *de-*, *non-*.

Prefixation — the formation of words with the help of prefixes. It is productive in Modern English, especially so in verbs and adjective word-formation.

Productive affixes — affixes which participate in the formation of new words, in neologisms in particular, i.e. which are often used to form new words; opposite non-productive (unproductive).

Productivity — the ability of a given affix to form new words.

Proverb — a sentence expressing popular wisdom, a truth or a moral lesson in a concise and imaginative way, e.g. *a friend in need is a friend indeed*, *while there is life there is hope*, *make hay while the sun shines*.

Radiation — a semantic process in which the primary meaning stands at the centre and the secondary meanings proceed out of it in every direction like rays, e.g. *face*, *power*, *piece*.

Reduplication — a method of forming compounds by the repetition of the same root, e.g. *to pooh-pooh*, *goody-goody*.

Reduplicative compound — a compound formed with the help of reduplication, e.g. *tick-tick*, *hush-hush*.

Referent (denotatum) — the part (aspect) of reality to which the linguistic sign refers (objects, actions, qualities), etc.

Referential approach to meaning — the school of thought which seeks to formulate the essence of meaning by establishing the interdependence between the word (sound-form), the concept (reference) underlying this form and the actual referent.

Referential (denotational) meaning — denoting, or referring to something, either by naming it *John*, *boy*, *red*, *arrive*, *with*, *if*, or by pointing it out *be this so*.

Root (morpheme) — the primary elements of the word conveying the fundamental lexical meaning (e.g. the lexical nucleus of the word) common to a set of semantically related words constituting one word family, e.g. *speak*, *speaker*, *speech*, *spoken*.

Semantic — relating to meaning, dealing with meaning in language.

Semantic field — a grouping of words based on the connection of the notions underlying their meaning, e.g. *face*, *head*, *hand*, *arm*, *foot*, etc.

Semantic fields — ideographic groups of words and expressions grouped together according to the fields of human interest and activity which they represent, e.g. *the semantic field of time*.

Semantic level of analysis — aimed at establishing the word's semantic structure or the type of meaning in which the word under analysis is used

in a given context, e.g. *sense* is a polysemantic word, *contemptuous* is a monosemantic word.

Semantic loan (borrowing) – the development in an English word of a new meaning due to the influence of a related word in another language, e.g. *pioneer* – 1) (old meaning) explorer, 2) (new meaning) a member of the Young Pioneer Organization (appeared under the influence of Russian).

Semantic motivation – based on the co-existence of direct and figurative meanings. When a word is used in a transferred meaning, metaphorical or otherwise, the result will be semantically motivated: it will be transparent thanks to the connection between the two senses, e.g. *head of an army*, *household and head of cabbage*, *the root of an evil*, *the branches of science*.

Semasiology – the branch of lexicology that is devoted to the study of meaning.

Seme(me) – the meaning of a morpheme.

Semi-affixes – elements which stand midway between root-morphemes and affixes, i.e. root-morphemes functioning as derivational affixes, e.g. *-man* (in sea*man*, air*man*, work*man*, chair*man*, etc.), *-like* (child*like*, gentleman*like*, business*like*, etc.; *-proof* (fire-*proof*, water-*proof*), etc.

Semiotics (semiology) – the science dealing with various systems of signs (including all sorts of codes, military and traffic signals, languages in general, etc.).

Simile – a comparison, but an indirect one, using words, such as *seem*, *like*, or *as* to link two objects of the comparison, e.g. *My love is like a melody. I wandered lonely as a cloud*, etc.

Slang – a vocabulary layer below the level of standard educated speech.

Sound interchange – a diachronically relevant unproductive way of word-formation due to an alteration in the phonetic composition of the root, i.e. consonant interchange and vowel interchange (umlaut, or vowel mutation, and ablaut, or vowel gradation), e.g. *to speak – speech*, *to prove – proof*, *blood – to bleed*, *food – to feed*.

Sound symbolism – associating a certain type or class of meaning with a certain sound or cluster of sounds, e.g. there seems to be in English an association between the initial consonant cluster (*sn*) and the nose, e.g. *snarl*, *sneer*, *sneeze*, *sniff*, *snore*, *snuffle*.

Standard English – the official language of Great Britain taught at schools and universities, used by the press, the radio and the television and

spoken by educated people, it may be defined as that form of English which is current and literary, substantially uniform and recognized as acceptable wherever English is spoken or understood.

Stem — 1) the part of the word that remains unchanged throughout its paradigm (secondary stem), e.g. *worker*, *lucky* — the secondary stems are: *worker-* (cf. workers, worker's) and *lucky-* (cf. luckier, luckiest); 2) the part of the word that remains when the immediate derivational affix is stripped off, e.g. the part on which the word is built (primary or derivational stem), e.g. the primary stems of *worker*, *lucky* are *work* and *luck*. Kinds of stems: simple, e.g. *place*, *green*, derived, e.g. *useful*, *uselessness*, bound, e.g. *arrogance*, *arrogant*, compound, e.g. *trade-union*, etc.

Style of language — a system of expressive means of language peculiar to a specific sphere of communication, e.g. *the newspaper style*, *the belles-lettres style*.

Stylistic level of analysis is aimed at establishing the stylistic coloring of the word, e.g. *nourishment* is a word of literary style, *threat* is a word of neutral style, *baccy* (curtailment of *tobacco*) is a word of colloquial style.

Stylistics — a branch of general linguistics dealing with the study of language styles and stylistic devices.

Stylistic synonyms — words that are similar in their denotational meaning(s) but different in their connotational meaning(s), e.g. *motherly* — *maternal*, *to put off* — *to postpone*.

Subordinative compound — a compound whose components are not equal in importance. The relation between them is based on the domination of one component over the other. The second component in these compounds is the structural and semantic centre (head) which imparts the part-of-speech meaning to the whole word, e.g. *banknote*, *teaspoon*, *duty-free*, *grandson*.

Substantivation — turning into nouns, e.g. *female* (*n*) from *female* (*adj*), *relative* (*n*) from *relative* (*adj*), *criminal* (*n*) from *criminal* (*adj*), etc.

Substitution — the method of testing similarity (or difference) by placing into identical environment (within identical or similar contexts), e.g. *I know this book* — *I know it*.

Suffix — a derivational morpheme (an affix) placed after the stem, e.g. *-ness* (good*ness*), *-less* (friend*less*), *-er* (work*er*), etc.

Suffixal derivative — a word formed with the help of a suffix.

Suffixation — the formation of words with the help of suffixes. It is very productive in Modern English, especially so in noun and adjective word-formation, e.g. *actor*, *thirsty*, etc.

Synchronic approach (in lexicology) — the approach concerned with the vocabulary of a language as it exists at a given time, for instance at the present time, the previous stages of development considered irrelevant.

Syncope — medial clopping, i.e. the formation of the word by the omission of the middle part of the word, e.g. *fancy* from *fantasy*, *specs* from *spectacles*, etc.

Synecdoche — a type of metonymy consisting in the substitution of the name of a whole by the name of some of its parts or vice versa, e.g. *a hand* — *a worker*, *employee*, etc.

Synonymic dominant — the most general word in a given group of synonyms, e.g. *red*, *purple*, *crimson*; *doctor*, *physician*, *surgeon*; *to leave*, *abandon*, *depart*.

Synonymic set — a group of synonyms, e.g. *big*, *large*, *great*, *huge*, *tremendous*.

Synonyms — words of the same part of speech different in their sound-form but similar in their denotational meaning and interchangeable at least in some contexts, e.g. *to look*, *to seem*, *to appear*; *high* — *tall*, etc.

Syntactic compounds — compounds whose components are placed in the order that conforms to the rules of Modern English syntax, e.g. a know-nothing, *a blackboard*, *daytime*, etc. (cf. *to know nothing*, *a black color*, *spring time*).

Term — a word or word-group used to name a notion characteristic of some special field of knowledge, industry or culture, e.g. linguistic term: *suffix*, *borrowing*, *polysemy*; scientific term: *radius*, *bacillus*; technical term: *ohm*, *quantum*, etc.

Thematic group — a group of words belonging to different parts of speech and joined together by common contextual associations, e.g. *sea*, *beach*, *sand*, *wave*, *to swim*, *to bathe*, etc., they form a thematic group because they denote sea-objects.

Transformational analysis in lexicology — the method in which the semantic similarity or difference of words (phrases) is revealed by the possibility of transforming them according to a prescribed model and following certain rules into a different form, called their transform. The conditions of the sameness of meanings between the original form and the

transform are prefixed (as a rule the sameness of the kernel morpheme is also prefixed in the transformational analysis of words), e.g. *daily — occurring every day*, *weekly — occurring every week*, *monthly — occurring every month*, *blue-eyed — with blue eyes*.

Translation loans — words and expressions formed from the material available in English by way of literal word-for-word or morpheme-for-morpheme translation of a foreign word or expression (i.e. formed according to patterns taken from another language), e.g. *masterpiece* (cf. German *Meisterwerk*); *collective farm* (cf. Russian *колхоз*); *self-criticism* (cf. Russian *самокритика*); *what goes without saying* (cf. French *cela va sans dire*).

Umlaut — a partial assimilation to a succeeding sound, one of the causes of sound interchange, e.g. *food — feed*, *blood — bleed*.

Ultimate constituents (UC's) — all the morphemes of a word (i.e. constituents incapable of further division into any smaller elements possessing sound-form and meaning). The term is usually used in morphemic and IC's analysis of word-structure.

Valency — the combining power or typical co-occurrence of a linguistic element, i.e. the types of other elements of the same level with which it can occur. Kinds of valency: lexical valency — the aptness of a word to occur with other words, grammatical valency — the aptness of a word to appear in specific syntactic structures.

Valency of affixes — the types of stems with which they occur.

Variants (of some language) — regional varieties of a language possessing literary form, e.g. *Scottish English*, *British English*, *American English*, see dialect.

Vocabulary — the system formed by the sum total of all the words and word equivalents of a language.

Word — a fundamental autonomous unit of language consisting of a series of phonemes and conveying a certain concept, idea or meaning, which has gained general acceptance in a social group of people speaking the same language and historically connected (one of general definitions); another definition — a basic autonomous unit of language resulting from association of a given meaning with a given group of sounds which is susceptible of a given grammatical employment and able to form a sentence by itself. Kinds of words: *archaic*, *borrowed*, *cognate*, *compound*, *derived*, *form*, *homonymous*, *international*, *monomorphic*, *monosemantic*, *motivated*,

native, *non-motivated* (*unmotivated*), *notional*, *obsolete*, *onomatopoeic*, *polymorphic*, *polysemantic*, *portmanteau*, *root*, *synonymous*.

Word-composition — the way of forming new words by putting two or more stems together to build a new word. Composition is very productive in Modern English. It is mainly characteristic of noun and adjective formation, e.g. headache, typewriter, killjoy, somebody, mother-in-law, wastepaper basket, Anglo-Saxon; pitch-dark, home-made, etc.

Zoosemy — nicknaming from animals, i.e. when names of animals are used metaphorically to denote human qualities, e.g. *a tiger* stands for *a cruel person*, *a fox* stands for *a crafty person*, *a chicken* stands for *a lively child*, *an ass* or *a goose* stands for *a stupid person*, *a bear* stands for *a clumsy person*, etc.

Ключи к тестовым заданиям

Test 1

1d part of the human arm beyond the wrist; **2a** heavy storm; **3b** to make somebody work; **4b** ball — ball; **5c** to lie — to lie; **6c** since (*prep*) — since (*conj*); **7d** seal — to seal; **8a** brothers (*pl*) — brother's; **9a** bow — bow; **10d** meat — meet; **11c** case — case; **12b** flower — flour; **13a** love (*n*) — love (*v*); **14a** to seem — to appear; **15d** word-building — word-formation; **16c** to see — to observe; **17b** famous; **18a** kind — cruel; **19c** possible — impossible; **20d** apple — read — snow.

Test 2

1c books; **2b** heartless; **3d** first-nighter; **4a** suspicion; **5c** uneatable; **6c** daughter; **7a** unquestionable; **8d** lady-killer; **9a** in-significant; **10b** un-doubt-ed-ly; **11b** re-main; **12c** self-possessed; **13b** friendship; **14d** uncomfortable; **15a** greenhouse; **16b** invariably; **17c** invariably.

Test 3

1c unknown; **2a** enlarge; **3b** misprint; **4c** prearrange; **5b** anti-fascist; **6c** illegal; **7d** reappear; **8a** pre-; **9c** teaching; **10a** -ness; **11b** -en; **12b** -ous; **13d** farmerette; **14b** booklet; **15a** peasantry; **16c** instructor; **17b** development; **18c** happiness; **19b** violinist; **20a** assistance.

Test 4

1b café; **2c** husband; **3a** police; **4c** datum; **5c** cradle; **6a** cup; **7b** scheme; **8d** to take; **9d** sausage; **10d** nickel; **11b** balcony; **12d** cigar; **13b** Kremlin; **14b** algebra; **15b** coffee; **16a** tea; **17b** geisha; **18d** boomerang; **19d** squaw; **20b** sandal.

Test 5

1b His work is done well; **2a** All his answers were correct; **3c** tremendous; **4c** dad; **5b** harmony; **6c** missus; **7b** a lab; **8d** bloody; **9b** singer; **10b** endless; **11d** cranberry; **12a** hiss; **13d** the hand of the watch; **14c** The moon is riding in the sky; **15a** Don't you be a dog in the manger; **16a** He had only a few coppers in his pocket; **17b** All hands aboard!; **18a** narrowing of meaning; **18b** extension of meaning; **18c** ameliorative development; **18d** pejorative development; **18e** narrowing of meaning; **18f** narrowing of meaning;

18g extension of meaning; **18h** pejorative development; **19b** hydrogen; **20d** ear — ear.

Test 6

1a white snow; **2b** to grow smaller; **3d** the girl smiled; **4b** a man of wisdom; **5c** cold weather; **6a** ladies and gentlemen; **7d** to let somebody go; **8c** to depend on something; **9b** get + N + V (*inf*); **10c** to make + N + V (*inf*); **11a** to read books; **12d** heavy father; **13b** to declare war; **14a** to know where the shoe pinches; **15c** by heart; **16d** to cut short; **17b** small hours; **18a** mare's nest.

Test 7

1a fortnight; **2a** drug-store; **3b** labor; **4c** proven; **5d** fall; **6d** burgh; **7b** dogeen; **8d** Midland; **9b** subway; **10a** ill.

Перечень тем для подготовки эссе

1. Характерные особенности английской лексики.

2. Проблема классификации словарного состава английского языка как определенной системы лексических единиц.

3. Взаимосвязь между значением слова и его сочетаемостью. Значение и употребление.

4. Лингвистические и экстралингвистические факторы, лежащие в основе семантических процессов.

5. Смысловая структура многозначности слова.

6. Историческая изменчивость смысловой структуры слова.

7. Многозначность слов и омонимия.

8. Эвфемизмы как особый тип стилистических синонимов.

9. Различные типы сокращенных слов, аббревиатуры и их функциональное использование.

10. Конверсия как один из наиболее продуктивных способов образования новых слов в современном английском языке.

11. Интернациональные слова в составе словарного состава английского языка.

12. Неологизмы в современном английском языке.

13. Источники возникновения фразеологических единиц.

14. Особенности нью-йоркского диалекта.

15. Наиболее известные серии британских и американских словарей.