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UNIT I

THE LIST OF RECOMMENDED LITERATURE

Basic literature

1. Лексикологія англійської мови : навчально-методичний посібник ; уклад.: І. О. Білецька, Н. В. Ставчук. Умань : Візаві, 2018. 165 с.

2. Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. 528 с.

3. Modern English Lexicology : посібник для самостійної та індивідуальної роботи студентів / уклад. І. О. Білецька. Умань : СПД Жовтий, 2011. 103 с.

Supplementary literature

1. Гороть Є. І. Лексикологія сучасної англійської мови : збірник вправ. К. : Либідь, 1996. 128 с.

2. Квеселевич Д. І., Сасіна В. П. Практикум з лексикології сучасної англійської мови : навч. посібник. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2003. 128 с.

3. Мостовий М. І. Лексикологія англійської мови : підручник. Х. : Основа, 1993. 256 с.

4. Halliday M.A.K., Yallop C. Lexicology: A short introduction. Great Britain : Cromwell Press, 2007.

5. Lipka L. English lexicology: Lexical structure, word semantics and word-formation. Tübingen, Germany : Narr, 2002. 179 p.

UNIT II

LECTURE COURSE

THEME 1

LEXICOLOGY AS A SCIENCE

Problems for discussion

1. The object of Lexicology and its relationship to other branches of Linguistics.
2. The aim and significance of the Course of Lexicology.
3. Research methods used in Lexicology.

Recommended literature

1. Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. С. 10–12.
2. Halliday M.A.K., Yallop C. Lexicology: A short introduction. Great Britain : Cromwell Press, 2007.
3. Lipka L. English lexicology: Lexical structure, word semantics and word-formation. Tübingen, Germany : Narr, 2002. 179 p.

1. The object of Lexicology and its relationship to other branches of Linguistics

The term “lexicology” is of Greek origin (from “lexis” – “word” and “logos” – “science”). **Lexicology** is the part of linguistics which deals with the vocabulary and characteristic features of words and word-groups.

A branch of linguistics, lexicology has the goal of “systematisation revealing characteristic features of words”. It deals not only with lexemes and their aspects but also with compound words and phraseological units. S. Ullman places semantics and etymology within the scope of lexicology; however, he views lexicology as the study of words as individual units rather than the overall study of the structure of the vocabulary. L. Lipka defines lexicology “as the study of lexicon or lexis (specified as the vocabulary or total stock of words of a

language)". According to W. Doroszewski, lexicology is "the branch of linguistics investigating words as regards their meaning and use, the science of vocabulary, the theoretical and scientific basis of lexicography". Ullman's definition draws a connection between lexicology and semantics, while Doroszewski connects lexicology to lexicography. H. Jackson restricts lexicology to the study of words as individual items. C. Hall, P. Smith, and R. Wicaksono describe lexicology as "the academic study of words: their spoken and written forms, their syntactic and morphological properties, and their meanings; in a particular language or in human language in general; both at a fixed point in history and as they change through time". Analyzing all the aspects of lexicology, we define lexicology as the study of the lexicon, or word-stock, its meaning, the relations among lexemes, the structure of lexemes, their etymology and lexical units, and relations between lexicology and other areas of the language: phonology, morphology, phraseology, lexicography, and syntax.

As the eminent British linguist M. Halliday presents it, the goal of lexicology is to produce descriptions of the words of a language, and these descriptions are then published as dictionaries and thesauri. Thus, dictionary- or thesaurus- making starts as lexicology, the study and description of a body of words, and ends as lexicography, the compilation of these descriptions into a single reference work.

Several kinds of lexicology are identified such as general lexicology, special lexicology, contrastive lexicology, historical lexicology, or etymology, and descriptive lexicology. General lexicology, being a part of general linguistics, studies vocabulary irrespective of the specific features of any particular language and the meaning of words and word-combinations in isolation and in context. Special lexicology studies words and word-combinations, and describes the vocabulary and vocabulary units of a particular language. It is a part of general lexicology. Contrastive lexicology studies the relations between etymologically related words and word-combinations in different languages. It deals with the contrastive analysis of the lexicon, lexico-semantic relationships, thesauri of entire vocabularies, classification of lexical hierarchies, and taxonomic structure of specialized terminology. The origin of words and phrases, their change and development, and the linguistic and extra-linguistic influences on words' structure, meaning, and usage are the subject matter of historical lexicology, or etymology. Descriptive lexicology studies the lexicon and

lexico-semantic relationships of a certain language at a given stage of its development.

Comparatists and neogrammarians of the nineteenth century believed that linguistic science is just the study of the evolution and comparison of languages. F. de Saussure opposed this view, stating that scientific methods are applicable to the descriptive and the historical study of language, and since then, two main approaches have been applied to the study of language material: diachronic and synchronic. Synchronic (or static or descriptive) studies deal with the make-up of the language, its words, combinations, and lexico-semantic relationships at a given moment of time, while diachronic (or evaluative, or historical) studies deal with the transformations the lexicon undergoes in the course of time.

Lexicology is closely related to phonology, which studies what sounds a language has and how these sounds combine to form words; to syntax, which studies how words can be combined into sentences; and semantics, which is the study of the meanings of words and sentences. Mostly, lexicology studies words and word-combinations. An exception is made when we study phraseological units. O. Kunin includes proverbs into the phraseological stock of language, mostly because proverbs, like idiomatic phrases, have fully or partially figurative meanings. Lexicology is related to semiotics, which studies the types of relationship that may be held between a sign and the object it represents, or in de Saussure's terminology between a signifier and its signified.

Lexicology is connected with other branches of linguistics such as neurolinguistics, which deals with the biological and neural foundations of language; psycholinguistics, which is concerned "with linguistic performance – how we use our linguistic competence, our knowledge of language, in speech (or sign) production and comprehension". Lexicology is related to computational linguistics that deals with the analysis of written texts and spoken discourse, the translation of text and speech from one language into another, the use of human (not computer) languages for communication between people and computers, and computer modeling and testing of linguistic theories. There is a connection between lexicology and pragmatics, which studies the relationship between speaker, hearer, utterance, and context; and between lexicology and sociolinguistics, whose subject matter is the relationship between language and society.

Lexicology is connected to applied linguistics, which is "a discipline concerned with the role a language or languages play in perceived problems of communication, social identity, education, health, economics, politics and justice, and in the development of ways to remediate or resolve these problems". Corpus linguistics, which is the creation and analysis of (normally large, computerized) collections of language composed of actual texts (speech and writing), and their application to problems in descriptive and applied linguistics, has connections with lexicology.

2. The aim and significance of the Course of Lexicology

The **aim of Lexicology** is to give systemic description of the word-stock of Modern English. Words, morphemes and various types of word-groups and word-equivalents (known as phraseological units) are subjected to structural and semantic analysis primarily from the synchronic angle. In the other words Modern English Lexicology investigates the problems of word structure and word-formation in Modern English, the semantic structure of English words, the main principles of the classification of vocabulary units into various grouping, the laws governing the replenishment of the vocabulary.

It also studies the relations existing between lexical layers of the English vocabulary and the specific laws and regulations that govern its development at the present time. The source and grow of the English vocabulary, the changes it has undergone in its history are also dwelt upon.

Modern English Lexicology as a subject forms a part of the Theoretical Course of Modern English. Lexicology is inseparable from its component parts, i.e. Grammar, Phonetics, Stylistics on the one hand and the Course of History of the English Language on the other.

3. Research methods used in Lexicology

The research methods used in Lexicology have always been closely connected with the general trends in Linguistics.

The principles of comparative linguistics have played an important role in the development of the scientific approach to historical word study.

The comparative-historic method consisted in observing words and comparing them in time. Such scientists as H. Sweet, O. Jesperson contributed a lot to the comparative-historic method. The greatest contribution of the followers of the comparative-historic method was the Oxford English Dictionary. It reflects the development of the English vocabulary by recording the history of form and meaning, for every word registered.

Thus, at the beginning of the 20-th century vocabulary study was still mainly concentrated on historical problems. Several lexicological monographs concentrated their attention on the etymological ties of vocabulary units. Many linguists still pursue this historical interest.

Above we spoke of diachronous or historical approach to the study of the lexical system of a language.

A different direction, however, has become increasingly important and widespread. The traditional methods have been severely criticized for a confusion of linguistics and history, linguistics and psychology.

The center of interest has shifted to the synchronic level, the spoken utterance and structure. Lexicologists are now describing what the vocabulary of the language is like, rather than how it came to be that way.

The new trend has received the name of structural linguistics (or descriptive). Its methodological principles can be summarized as follows:

1) Language is to be analyzed by specifically linguistic methods, according to specific linguistic criteria, not as a combination of psychological, physiological, logical and physical phenomena.

2) Descriptive linguistics cannot be simply a list of the elements, it must show how these elements are combined.

3) Structural linguistics has many varieties and schools. The main schools are those of Prague, the USA, Copenhagen and more recently London.

The typical American development in linguistic theory resulted from practical tasks:

- to study the American Indian languages;
- teaching foreign languages and recently;
- machine translation.

Books by L. Bloomfield, B. Blokh, F. Frager, L. Harris and M. Chomskey mark stages in the development of structuralist theory in the USA. The main achievements of the American school are: the

analysis into immediate constituents, substitution, distributional and transformational analysis.

Immediate constituents are the two meaningful parts forming a large linguistic unity. The immediate constituents of *bluis* are *"blue"* and *"ish"*.

Substitution is testing of similarity by placing into identical environment.

e.g. *It is reddish. It is somewhat red.*

Substitution is also useful in determining classes of words. Thus the words *family, boy, house* belong to different classes of nouns because they are differently substituted.

e.g. *I like this family. – I like them.*
I like this boy. – I like him.
I like this house. – I like it.

The term **"distribution"** is used to denote the possible variants of the immediate lexical, grammatical and phonetical environment of a linguistic unit. In other words distribution is the sum of all possible surroundings.

e.g. to try + Infinitive – *I tried to get there in time.*
to try + Gerund – *I try reading it.*

Another modern method of investigation is called **transformation analysis**. We call transformation the changing of a sentence or formula according to a prescribed model and following certain rules. You deal with transformations. Changing Active into Passive, Singular into Plural, we deal with Grammar transformation.

Paraphrasing of a sentence in which some word is replaced by its semantic equivalent or definition is a lexical transformation. The lexical transformation keeps the meaning unchanged.

THEME 2

GENERAL PROBLEMS OF THE THEORY OF WORD

Problems for discussion

1. Theoretical principles of the vocabulary study.
2. The notion of lexical system.
3. Synchronic and diachronic study of the lexical system of a language.
4. Motivation.

Recommended literature

1. Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007.

1. Theoretical principles of the vocabulary study

As we know, the aim of Lexicology is the study of words. Words are not only the units of the vocabulary but also the main units of language. But we still don't have a definition of the word which could combine in itself all its main features. Being a fundamental unit of a language, word is a very complicated unity of grammatical and lexical meaning.

The important point to be remembered about definitions is that they should indicate the most essential characteristic features of the word and show its descriptions from other similar notions.

The definition of the word is a very hard task because even the simplest word has many different aspects. It has a sound form (as a certain arrangement of phonemes), it has a morphological structure (a certain arrangement of morphemes), when used in actual speech it may occur in different word-forms and signal various meanings.

e.g. *It was a dull winter evening.*

It was a dull knife which he couldn't use.

He is a dull boy.

All attempts to characterize a word are necessary specific for one brunch of science and are considered one-sided and criticized for incompleteness.

English philosopher T. Hobbes revealed realistic approach of this problem when he wrote: “The words are not mere sounds but names of matters”.

English linguist H. Sweet and American linguist L. Bloomfield gave a syntactical definition of the word. Sweet called it “the minimum sentence” and Bloomfield called it “the minimum free form”.

American linguist E. Sapir takes into consideration the syntactic and semantic aspects when he calls the word “one of the smallest, completely satisfying bits of isolated meaning, into which the sentence resolves itself”.

Sapir also points out one more very important characteristic of the word, its indivisibility. “It cannot be cut into without a disturbance of meaning”.

e.g. *a lion* and *alive*

a lion is a word-group because we can separate its elements and insert other words between them (*a dead lion*).

alive is a word. It is indivisible. i.e. structurally impermeable: nothing can be inserted between its elements.

The prominent linguist A. Meillet gave the following definition of the word: “A word is the association of a given meaning with a given group of sounds susceptible of a given grammatical employment”.

We can add that a word is the smallest significant unit of a given language capable of functioning alone.

The weak point of all these definitions is that they don’t establish the relationship between language and thought. We treat the word as a dialectical unity of a form and a content in which the form is spoken or written expression which calls up a specific meaning.

To reflect many-sided character of the word our scientists give not the definition but the description of a word.

The problem of creating a word theory has been one of the most discussed for many years.

2. The notions of lexical system

There has been much discussion of late, concerning different problems of the systematic nature of a language vocabulary.

The term **“system”** denotes coherent homogeneous whole constituted by interdependent elements of the same order related in certain specific ways.

Lexicology studies this system whole by determining the properties of its elements and the different relationship existing between them within a language, as well as in which they are influenced by extra-linguistic reality.

The extra-linguistic relationships refer to the connections of words with elements of objective reality they serve to denote. The existence of different words in different languages proves that in different languages the name of an object may be taken from different characteristic features.

Linguistic relationships between words are classified into:

- syntagmatic;
- paradigmatic.

I go to the cinema once a month.
paradigmatic *He went to school yesterday.*
She goes to the forest with her parents.
syntagmatic

The scheme presents the relationship between syntagmatic and paradigmatic.

Syntagmatic is something said in the language. It may be measured in time and has a linear character of speech. Context influences it greatly (horizontal).

Paradigmatic is understood as the vocabulary of something said in the language, which consists not only of words (morpheme) but other elements as well (vertical).

3. Synchronic and diachronic study of the lexical system of a language

The relationship between language and speech is that between the general and particular. Language exists in speech, through speech and knows no other forms of existence.

There are **two principal approaches** to the study of language material in linguistic science:

- synchronic;
- diachronic.

The synchronic approach is concerned with the vocabulary of a language as it exists at given time (or at present).

The diachronic approach deals with the changes and development of vocabulary in the course of time. But these two approaches should not

be contrasted. They are interconnected and interdependent. The synchronic state of the language system is the result of a long process of historical development.

e.g. Diachronically the words *country, bacon, fellow* are borrowed words. But synchronically they are regarded as English.

Such words as *childhood, freedom, friendship* diachronically are described as compounds that have turned into derivatives, synchronically they are classified as derived words.

If we take the words *bag – beggar,* so the words synchronically are related as a root words and derived (the same as a *sing – singer*). However diachronically we learn that *beggar* was borrowed from Old French and only later presumed to have derived from the verb *to beg*.

4. Motivation

This term is used to denote the relationship existing between the morphemic or phonemic compositions and structural pattern of the word on the one hand, and its meaning on the other. Every object of reality has many distinctions, but when we name this object, we choose one of them, usually most noticeable but not obligatory most essential which in future is the representative of the whole.

e.g. The bird *снігур* is called so because it connected with snow.

In English "снігур" is *bullfinch* (it follows the cattle).

There are 3 main **types of motivation:**

- Phonetical.
- Morphological.
- Semantic.

Phonetical – the motivation in which there is a certain similarity between the sounds that make up the word and those that make up the sense.

e.g. *hiss – шипіти*
buzz – дзвеніти
giggle – хіхікати

If we take the word *to re-think* we clearly see in it the idea of thinking again. Its constituents *"re"* and *"think"* are not motivated but the whole word is **morphologicaly** motivated.

Semantic motivation is based on coexistence of direct and figurative meaning. In direct meaning the word is not motivated, but in figurative meaning the word is motivated.

e.g. *mouth* continued to denote a part of the face and at the same time it can mean metaphorically any opening outlet: the mouth of the river. In its direct meaning the word *mouth* is not motivated.

Semantic motivation is relative. When the connection between the phonetical and morphological structure of the word and its meaning is conventional and synchronously perceptive reason for the word having the phonetic shape and morphological composition it has, the word is said to be non-motivated.

From the historical point of view motivation changes in the course of time. Words which are not motivated at present may have lost their motivation due to changes in the vocabulary.

It's rather interesting to note that for words with not distinct motivation the speaking community tries to find its own explanation trying to restore the system which disappeared.

THEME 3

ENGLISH ETYMOLOGY

Problems for discussion

1. Classification of borrowings according to the borrowed aspect.
2. Classification of borrowings according to the degree of assimilation.
3. Classification of borrowings according to the language from which they were borrowed.
4. Etymological doublets.

Recommended literature

1. Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. С. 13–25.

Borrowing words from other languages is characteristic of English throughout its history More than two thirds of the English vocabulary are borrowings. Mostly they are words of Romanic origin (Latin, French, Italian, Spanish). Borrowed words are different from native ones by their phonetic structure, by their morphological structure and also by

their grammatical forms. It is also characteristic of borrowings to be non-motivated semantically.

English history is very rich in different types of contacts with other countries, that is why it is very rich in borrowings. The Roman invasion, the adoption of Christianity, Scandinavian and Norman conquests of the British Isles, the development of British colonialism and trade and cultural relations served to increase immensely the English vocabulary. The majority of these borrowings are fully assimilated in English in their pronunciation, grammar, spelling and can be hardly distinguished from native words.

English continues to take in foreign words, but now the quantity of borrowings is not so abundant as it was before. All the more so, English now has become a "giving" language, it has become Lingva Franca of the twentieth century.

Borrowings can be classified according to different **criteria**:

a) according to the aspect which is borrowed;

b) according to the degree of assimilation;

c) according to the language from which the word was borrowed.

(In this classification only the main languages from which words were borrowed into English are described, such as Latin, French, Italian, Spanish, German).

1. Classification of borrowings according to the borrowed aspect

There are the following groups:

- phonetic borrowings;
- translation loans;
- semantic borrowings;
- morphemic borrowings.

Phonetic borrowings are most characteristic in all languages, they are called loan words proper. Words are borrowed with their spelling, pronunciation and meaning. Then they undergo assimilation, each sound in the borrowed word is substituted by the corresponding sound of the borrowing language. In some cases the spelling is changed. The structure of the word can also be changed. The position of the stress is very often influenced by the phonetic system of the borrowing language. The paradigm of the word, and sometimes the meaning of the borrowed word are also changed. Such words as: *labour, travel, table, chair,*

people are phonetic borrowings from French; *bank, soprano, duet* are phonetic borrowings from Italian etc.

Translation loans are word-for-word (or morpheme-for-morpheme) translations of some foreign words or expressions. In such cases the notion is borrowed from a foreign language but it is expressed by native lexical units, e.g. *to take the bull by the horns* (Latin), *fair sex* (French), *living space* (German) etc. Some translation loans appeared in English from Latin already in the Old English period, e.g. *Sunday* (solis dies). There are translation loans from the languages of Indians, such as: *pipe of peace, pale-faced*, from German *masterpiece, homesickness, superman*.

Semantic borrowings are such units when a new meaning of the unit existing in the language is borrowed. It can happen when we have two relative languages which have common words with different meanings, e.g. there are semantic borrowings between Scandinavian and English, such as the meaning "to live" for the word *to dwell* which in Old English had the meaning "to wander".

Semantic borrowing can appear when an English word was borrowed into some other language, developed there a new meaning and this new meaning was borrowed back into English.

Morphemic borrowings are borrowings of affixes which occur in the language when many words with identical affixes are borrowed from one language into another, so that the morphemic structure of borrowed words becomes familiar to the people speaking the borrowing language, e.g. we can find a lot of Romanic affixes in the English word-building system, that is why there are a lot of words – hybrids in English where different morphemes have different origin, e.g. *goddess, beautiful* etc.

2. Classification of borrowings according to the degree of assimilation

The degree of assimilation of borrowings depends on the following factors:

a) from what group of languages the word was borrowed, if the word belongs to the same group of languages to which the borrowing language belongs it is assimilated easier;

b) in what way the word is borrowed: orally or in the written form, words borrowed orally are assimilated quicker;

c) how often the borrowing is used in the language, the greater the frequency of its usage, the quicker it is assimilated;

d) how long the word lives in the language, the longer it lives, the more assimilated it is.

Accordingly borrowings are subdivided into:

- completely assimilated;
- partly assimilated;
- non-assimilated (barbarisms).

Completely assimilated borrowings are not felt as foreign words in the language, cf the French word *sport* and the native word *start*. Completely assimilated verbs belong to regular verbs, e.g. *correct – corrected*. Completely assimilated nouns form their plural by means of s-inflexion, e.g. *gate – gates*. In completely assimilated French words the stress has been shifted from the last syllable to the last but one.

Semantic assimilation of borrowed words depends on the words existing in the borrowing language, as a rule, a borrowed word does not bring all its meanings into the borrowing language, if it is polysemantic.

Partly assimilated borrowings are subdivided into the following groups:

a) borrowings non-assimilated semantically because they denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from the language of which they were borrowed, e.g. *sari, sombrero* etc.;

b) borrowings non-assimilated grammatically, e.g. nouns borrowed from Latin and Greek retain their plural forms (*bacillus – bacilli, phenomenon – phenomena, datum – data, genius – genii*) etc.;

c) borrowings non-assimilated phonetically. Here belong words with the initial sounds [v] and [z], e.g. *voice, zero*. In native words these voiced consonants are used only in the intervocal position as allophones of sounds [f] and [s] (*loss – lose, life – live*). Some Scandinavian borrowings have consonants and combinations of consonants which were not palatalized, e.g. [sk] in the words: *sky, skate, ski* etc (in native words we have the palatalized sounds denoted by the digraph «sh», e.g. *shirt*); sounds [k] and [g] before front vowels are not palatalized, e.g. *girl, get, give, kid, kill, kettle*. In native words we have palatalization, e.g. *German, child*.

Some French borrowings have retained their stress on the last syllable, e.g. *police, cartoon*. Some French borrowings retain special combinations of sounds, e.g. [a:3] in the words: *camouflage, bourgeois*

some of them retain the combination of sounds [wa:] in the words: *memoir, boulevard*;

d) borrowings can be partly assimilated graphically, e.g. in Greak borrowings “y” can be spelled in the middle of the word (*symbol, synonym*), “p” denotes the sound [f] (phoneme, morpheme), “ch” denotes the sound [k] (*chemistry, chaos*),”ps” denotes the sound [s] (*psychology*).

Latin borrowings retain their polysyllabic structure, have double consonants, as a rule, the final consonant of the prefix is assimilated with the initial consonant of the stem (*accompany, affirmative*).

French borrowings which came into English after 1650 retain their spelling, e.g. consonants “p”, “t”, “s’ are not pronounced at the end of the word (*buffet, coup, debris*). Specifically French combination of letters “eau” [ou] can be found in the borrowings: *beau, chateau, troussaeu*. Some of digraphs retain their French pronunciation: “c” is pronounced as [sh], e.g. *chic, parachute*, “qu” is pronounced as [k], e.g. *bouquet*, “ou” is pronounced as [u:], e.g. *roug*e; some letters retain their French pronunciation, e.g. “i” is pronounced as [i:], e.g. *chic, machine*; “g” is pronounced as [3], e.g. *rouge*.

Modern German borrowings also have some peculiarities in their spelling: common nouns are spelled with a capital letter, e.g. *Autobahn, Lebensraum*; some vowels and digraphs retain their German pronunciation, e.g. “a” is pronounced as [a:] (*Dictat*), “u” is pronounced as [u:] (*Kuchen*), “au” is pronounced as [au] (*Hausfrau*), “ei” is pronounced as [ai] (*Reich*); some consonants are also pronounced in the German way, e.g. “s” before a vowel is pronounced as [z] (*Sitskrieg*), “v” is pronounced as [f] (*Volkswagen*), “w” is pronounced as [v] , “ch” is pronounced as [h] (*Kuchen*).

Non-assimilated borrowings (barbarisms) are borrowings which are used by Englishmen rather seldom and are non-assimilated, e.g. *addio* (Italian), *tete-a-tete* (French), *dolce vita* (Italian), *duende* (Spanish), *an homme a femme* (French), *gonzo* (Italian) etc.

3. Classification of borrowings according to the language from which they were borrowed

Romenic borowings

Latin borrowings

Among words of Romanic origin borrowed from Latin during the period when the British Isles were a part of the Roman Empire, there are such words as: *street, port, wall* etc. Many Latin and Greek words came into English during the Adoption of Christianity in the 6-th century. At this time the Latin alphabet was borrowed which ousted the Runic alphabet. These borrowings are usually called classical borrowings. Here belong Latin words: *alter, cross, dean*, and Greek words: *church, angel, devil, anthem*.

Latin and Greek borrowings appeared in English during the Middle English period due to the Great Revival of Learning. These are mostly scientific words because Latin was the language of science at the time. These words were not used as frequently as the words of the Old English period, therefore some of them were partly assimilated grammatically, e.g. *formula – formulae*. Here also belong such words as: *memorandum, minimum, maximum, veto* etc.

Classical borrowings continue to appear in Modern English as well. Mostly they are words formed with the help of Latin and Greek morphemes. There are quite a lot of them in medicine (*appendicitis, aspirin*), in chemistry (*acid, valency, alkali*), in technique (*engine, antenna, biplane, airdrome*), in politics (*socialism, militarism*), names of sciences (*zoology, physics*). In philology most of terms are of Greek origin (*homonym, archaism, lexicography*).

French borrowings

The influence of French on the English spelling.

The largest group of borrowings are French borrowings. Most of them came into English during the Norman conquest. French influenced not only the vocabulary of English but also its spelling, because documents were written by French scribes as the local population was mainly illiterate, and the ruling class was French. Runic letters remaining in English after the Latin alphabet was borrowed were

substituted by Latin letters and combinations of letters, e.g. “v” was introduced for the voiced consonant [v] instead of “f” in the intervocal position (*lufian – love*), the digraph “ch” was introduced to denote the sound [ch] instead of the letter “c” (*chest*) before front vowels where it had been palatalized, the digraph “sh” was introduced instead of the combination “sc” to denote the sound [sh] (*ship*), the digraph “th” was introduced instead of the Runic letters “0”, the letter “y” was introduced instead of the Runic letter “3” to denote the sound [j] (*yet*), the digraph “qu” substituted the combination “cw” to denote the combination of sounds [kw] (*queen*), the digraph “ou” was introduced to denote the sound [u:] (*house*). (The sound [u:] was later on diphthongized and is pronounced [u] in native words and fully assimilated borrowings). As it was difficult for French scribes to copy English texts they substituted the letter “u” before “v”, “m”, “n” and the digraph “th” by the letter “o” to escape the combination of many vertical lines *(sunu – son, luvu – love*).

There are the following semantic groups of French borrowings:

a) words relating to government: *administer, empire, state, government*;

b) words relating to military affairs: *army, war, banner, soldier, battle*;

c) words relating to jury: *advocate, petition, inquest, sentence, barrister*;

d) words relating to fashion: *luxury, coat, collar, lace, pleat, embroidery*;

e) words relating to jewellery: *topaz, emerald, ruby, pearl*;

f) words relating to food and cooking: *lunch, dinner, appetite, to roast, to stew*.

Words were borrowed from French into English after 1650, mainly through French literature, but they were not as numerous and many of them are not completely assimilated. There are the following semantic groups of these borrowings:

a) words relating to literature and music: *belle-lettres, conservatorie, brochure, nuance, piruette, vaudeville*;

b) words relating to military affairs: *corps, echelon, fuselage, manouvre*;

c) words relating to buildings and furniture: *entresol, chateau, bureau*;

d) words relating to food and cooking: *ragout, cuisine*.

Italian borrowings

Cultural and trade relations between Italy and England brought many Italian words into English. The earliest Italian borrowing came into English in the 14-th century, it was the word *bank* (from the Italian banko – bench). Italian money-lenders and money-changers sat in the streets on benches. When they suffered losses they turned over their benches, it was called *banco rotta* from which the English word "bankrupt" originated. 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, operette, libretto, piano, violin*.

Among the 20-th century Italian borrowings we can mention: *gazette, incognitto, autostrada, fiasco, fascist, diletante, grotesque, graffito,* etc.

Spanish borrowings

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, tobbaco, cocoa, banana, ananas, apricot,* etc.

Germanic borrowings

English belongs to the Germanic group of languages and there are borrowings from Scandinavian, German and Holland languages, though their number is much less than borrowings from Romanic languages.

Scandinavian borrowings

By the end of the Old English period English underwent a strong influence of Scandinavian due to the Scandinavian conquest of the

British Isles. Scandinavians belonged to the same group of peoples as Englishmen and their languages had much in common. As the result of this conquest there are about 700 borrowings from Scandinavian into English.

Scandinavians and Englishmen had the same way of life, their cultural level was the same, they had much in common in their literature therefore there were many words in these languages which were almost identical, e.g.

ON	OE	Modern E
syster	*sweoster*	*sister*
fiscr	*fisc*	*fish*
felagi	*felawe*	*fellow*

However there were also many words in the two languages which were different, and some of them were borrowed into English, such nouns as: *bull, cake, egg, kid, knife, skirt, window,* etc, such adjectives as: *flat, ill, happy, low, odd, ugly, wrong*, such verbs as: *call, die, guess, get, give, scream* and many others.

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 (*take off, give in*, etc).

German borrowings

There are some 800 words borrowed from German into English. Some of them have classical roots, e.g. in some geological terms, such as: *cobalt, bismuth, zink, quarts, gneiss, wolfram*. There were also words denoting objects used in everyday life which were borrowed from German: *iceberg, lobby, rucksack, Kindergarten,* etc.

In the period of the Second World War the following words were borrowed: *Volkssturm, Luftwaffe, SS-man, Bundeswehr, gestapo, gas chamber* and many others. After the Second World War the following words were borrowed: *Berufsverbot, Volkswagen*, etc.

Holland borrowings

Holland and England have constant interrelations for many centuries and more than 2000 Holland borrowings were borrowed into English. Most of them are nautical terms and were mainly borrowed in the 14-th century, such as: *freight, skipper, pump, keel, dock, reef, deck, leak* and many others.

Besides two main groups of borrowings (Romanic and Germanic) there are also borrowings from a lot of other languages.

5. Etymological doublets

Sometimes a word is borrowed twice from the same language. As the result, we have two different words with different spellings and meanings but historically they come back to one and the same word. Such words are called etymological doublets. In English there are some groups of them:

Latino-French doublets

Latin	English from Latin	English from French
moneta	*mint*	*money*
camera	*camera*	*chamber*

Scandinavian-English doublets

Scandinavian	English
skirt	*shirt*
scabby	*shabby*

There are also etymological doublets which were borrowed from the same language during different historical periods, such as French doublets: *gentil* – люб'язний, благородний, etymological doublets are: *gentle* – м'який, ввічливий and *genteel* – благородний. From the French word gallant etymological doublets are: *gallant* – хоробрий and *ga'llant* – галантний, уважний.

Sometimes etymological doublets are the result of borrowing different grammatical forms of the same word, e.g. the Comparative degree of Latin "super" was "superior" which was borrowed into English with the meaning "high in some quality or rank".

THEME 4

ENGLISH MORPHOLOGY

Problems for discussion

1. Affixation:
a) Suffixation;
b) Prefixation.
2. Composition:
a) ways of forming compound words;
b) classification of English compounds.
3. Conversion.
4. Abbreviation:
a) graphical abbreviations;
b) initial abbreviations;
c) abbreviations of words.
5. Secondary ways of word-building:
a) sound interchange;
b) stress interchange;
c) sound imitation;
d) blends;
e) back formation.

Recommended Literature

1. Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. С. 45–83.

Word-building is one of the main ways of enriching vocabulary. There are four main ways of word-building in modern English:

- affixation;
- composition;
- conversion;
- abbreviation.

There are also secondary ways of word-building:

- sound interchange;
- stress interchange;
- sound imitation;

- blends;
- back formation.

1. Affixation

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

Suffixation

The main function of suffixes in Modern English is to form one part of speech from another, the secondary function is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech (e.g. *educate* is a verb, *educatee* is a noun, and *music* is a noun, *musicdom* is also a noun).

There are different classifications of suffixes:

1. Part-of-speech classification. Suffixes which can form different parts of speech are given here:

a) noun-forming suffixes, such as: -er (*criticizer*), -dom (*officialdom*), -ism (*ageism*);

b) adjective-forming suffixes, such as: -able (*breathable*), less- (*symptomless*), -ous (*prestigious*);

c) verb-forming suffixes, such as: -ize (*computerize*), -ify (*micrify*);

d) adverb-forming suffixes, such as: -ly (*singly*), -ward (*tableward*);

e) numeral-forming suffixes, such as: -teen (*sixteen*), -ty (*seventy*).

2. Semantic classification. Suffixes changing the lexical meaning of the stem can be subdivided into groups, e.g. noun-forming suffixes can denote:

a) the agent of the action, e.g. -er (*experimenter*), -ist (*taxist*), -ent (*student*);

b) nationality, e.g. -ian (*Ukrainian*), -ese (*Japanese*), -ish (*English*);

c) collectivity, e.g. -dom (*moviedom*), -ry (*peasantry*), -ship (*readership*), -ati (*literati*);

d) diminutiveness, e.g. -ie (*horsie*), -let (*booklet*), -ling (*gooseling*), -ette (*kitchenette*);

e) quality, e.g. -ness (*copelessness*), -ity (*answerability*).

3. Lexico-grammatical character of the stem. Suffixes which can be added to certain groups of stems are subdivided into:

a) suffixes added to verbal stems, such as: -er (*commuter*), -ing (*suffering*), -able (*flyable*), -ment (*involvement*), -ation (*computerization*);

b) suffixes added to noun stems, such as: -less (*smogless*), -ful (*roomful*), -ism (*adventurism*), -ster (*pollster*), -nik (*filmnik*), -ish (*childish*);

c) suffixes added to adjective stems, such as: -en (*weaken*), -ly (*pinkly*), -ish (*longish*), -ness (*clannishness*).

4. Origin of suffixes. Here we can point out the following groups:

a) native (Germanic), such as: -er, -ful, -less, -ly;

b) Romanic, such as: -tion, -ment, -able, -eer;

c) Greek, such as: -ist, -ism, -ize.

5. Productivity. Here we can point out the following groups:

a) productive, such as: -er, -ize, -ly, -ness;

b) semi-productive, such as: -eer, -ette, -ward;

c) non-productive , such as: -ard (drunkard), -th (length).

Suffixes can be polysemantic, such as -er can form nouns with the following meanings: agent, doer of the action expressed by the stem (*speaker*), profession, occupation (*teacher*), a device, a tool (*transmitter*). While speaking about suffixes we should also mention compound suffixes which are added to the stem at the same time, such as -ably, -ibly (*terribly, reasonably*), *-ation* (*adaptation* from adapt).

There are also disputable cases whether we have a suffix or a root morpheme in the structure of a word, in such cases we call such morphemes semi-suffixes, and words with such suffixes can be classified either as derived words or as compound words, e.g. -gate (Irangate), -burger (cheeseburger), -aholic (workaholic) etc.

Prefixation

Prefixation is the formation of words by means of adding a prefix to the stem. In English it is characteristic for forming verbs. Prefixes are more independent than suffixes. Prefixes can be classified according to the nature of words in which they are used: prefixes used in notional words and prefixes used in functional words. Prefixes used in notional words are proper prefixes which are bound morphemes, e.g. un- (*unhappy*). Prefixes used in functional words are semi-bound

morphemes because they are met in the language as words, e.g. over- (*overhead*) (cf over the table).

The main function of prefixes in English is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech. But the recent research showed that about twenty-five prefixes in Modern English form one part of speech from another (*bebutton, interfamily, postcollege*, etc).

Prefixes can be classified according to different principles:

1. Semantic classification:

a) prefixes of negative meaning, such as: in- (*invaluable*), non- (*nonformals*), un- (*unfree*), etc.;

b) prefixes denoting repetition or reversal actions, such as: de- (*decolonize*), re- (*revegetation*), dis- (*disconnect*);

c) prefixes denoting time, space, degree relations, such as: inter- (*interplanetary*), hyper- (*hypertension*), ex- (*ex-student*), pre- (*pre-election*), over- (*overdrugging*), etc.

2. Origin of prefixes:

a) native (Germanic), such as: un-, over-, under-, etc;

b) Romanic, such as: in-, de-, ex-, re-, etc;

c) Greek, such as: sym-, hyper-, etc;

When we analyze such words as: adverb, accompany where we can find the root of the word (verb, company) we may treat ad-, ac- as prefixes though they were never used as prefixes to form new words in English and were borrowed from Romanic languages together with words. In such cases we can treat them as derived words. But some scientists treat them as simple words. Another group of words with a disputable structure are such as: *contain, retain, detain* and *conceive*, receive, deceive where we can see that re-, de-, con- act as prefixes and -tain, -ceive can be understood as roots. But in English these combinations of sounds have no lexical meaning and are called pseudo-morphemes. Some scientists treat such words as simple words, others as derived ones.

There are some prefixes which can be treated as root morphemes by some scientists, e.g. after- in the word *afternoon*. American lexicographers working on Webster dictionaries treat such words as compound words. British lexicographers treat such words as derived ones.

2. Composition

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

a) the unity of stress;

b) solid or hyphenated spelling;

c) semantic unity;

d) unity of morphological and syntactical functioning.

These are characteristic features of compound words in all languages. For English compounds some of these factors are not very reliable. As a rule English compounds have one uniting stress (usually on the first component), e.g. *hard-cover, best-seller*. We can also have a double stress in an English compound, with the main stress on the first component and with a secondary stress on the second component, e.g. *blood-vessel*. The third pattern of stresses is two level stresses, e.g. *snow-white, sky-blue*. The third pattern is easily mixed up with word-groups unless they have solid or hyphenated spelling.

Spelling in English compounds is not very reliable as well because they can have different spelling even in the same text, e.g. *war-ship, blood-vessel* can be spelt through a hyphen and also with a break, insofar, underfoot can be spelt solidly and with a break. All the more so that there has appeared in Modern English a special type of compound words which are called block compounds, they have one uniting stress but are spelt with a break, e.g. air *piracy, cargo module, coin change, penguin suit,* etc.

The semantic unity of a compound word is often very strong. In such cases we have idiomatic compounds where the meaning of the whole is not a sum of meanings of its components, e.g. *to ghostwrite, skinhead, brain-drain* etc. In nonidiomatic compounds semantic unity is not strong, e. g., *airbus, to bloodtransfuse, astrodynamics*, etc.

English compounds have the unity of morphological and syntactical functioning. They are used in a sentence as one part of it and only one component changes grammatically, e.g. *These girls are chatter-boxes. Chatter-boxes* is a predicative in the sentence and only the second component changes grammatically.

There are two characteristic features of English compounds:

a) Both components in an English compound are free stems, that is they can be used as words with a distinctive meaning of their own. The

sound pattern will be the same except for the stresses, e.g. *a green-house* and *a green house*. Whereas for example in Russian compounds the stems are bound morphemes, as a rule.

b) English compounds have a two-stem pattern, with the exception of compound words which have form-word stems in their structure, e.g. *middle-of-the-road, off-the-record, up-and-doing,* etc. The two-stem pattern distinguishes English compounds from German ones.

Ways of forming compound words

Compound words in English can be formed not only by means of composition but also by means of:

a) reduplication, e.g. *too-too,* and also by means of reduplicatin combined with sound interchange, e.g. *rope-ripe*;

b) conversion from word-groups, e.g. *to micky-mouse, can-do, makeup,* etc.;

c) back formation from compound nouns or word-groups, e.g. *to bloodtransfuse, to fingerprint,* etc.;

d) analogy, e.g. *lie-in* (on the analogy with sit-in) and also *phone-in, brawn-drain* (on the analogy with brain-drain), etc.

Classification of English compounds

1. According to the parts of speech compounds are subdivided into:

a) nouns, such as: *baby-moon, globe-trotter*;

b) adjectives, such as: *free-for-all, power-happy*;

c) verbs, such as: *to honey-moon, to baby-sit, to henpeck*;

d) adverbs, such as: *downdeep, headfirst*;

e) prepositions, such as: *into, within*;

f) numerals, such as: *fifty-five*.

2. According to the way components are joined together compounds are divided into:

a) neutral, which are formed by joining together two stems without any joining morpheme, e.g. *ball-point, to windowshop*;

b) morphological where components are joined by a linking element: vowels “o” or “i” or the consonant “s”, e.g. *astrospace, handicraft, sportsman*;

c) syntactical where the components are joined by means of form-word stems, e.g. *here-and-now, free-for-all, do-or-die*.

3. According to their structure compounds are subdivided into:

a) compound words proper which consist of two stems, e.g. *to job-hunt, train-sick, go-go, tip-top*;

b) derivational compounds, where besides the stems we have affixes, e.g. *ear-minded, hydro-skimmer*;

c) compound words consisting of three or more stems, e.g. *cornflower-blue, eggshell-thin, singer-songwriter*;

d) compound-shortened words, e.g. *boatel, tourmobile, VJ-day, motocross, intervision, Eurodollar, Camford.*

4. According to the relations between the components compound words are subdivided into:

a) subordinative compounds where one of the components is the semantic and the structural centre and the second component is subordinate; these subordinative relations can be different: with comparative relations, e.g. *honey-sweet, eggshell-thin*, with limiting relations, e.g. *breast-high, knee-deep*, with emphatic relations, e.g. *dog-cheap*, with objective relations, e.g. *gold-rich*, with cause relations, e.g. *love-sick*, with space relations, e.g. *top-heavy*, with time relations, e.g. *spring-fresh*, with subjective relations, e.g. *foot-sore* etc.;

b) coordinative compounds where both components are semantically independent. Here belong such compounds when one person (object) has two functions, e.g. s*ecretary-stenographer, woman-doctor, Oxbridge* etc. Such compounds are called additive. This group includes also compounds formed by means of reduplication, e.g. *fifty-fifty, no-no*, and also compounds formed with the help of rhythmic stems (reduplication combined with sound interchange), e.g. *criss-cross, walkie-talkie*.

5. According to the order of the components compounds are divided into compounds with direct order, e.g. *kill-joy*, and compounds with indirect order, e.g. *nuclear-free, rope-ripe*.

3. Conversion

Conversion is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. It is also called affixless derivation or zero-suffixation. The term “conversion” first appeared in the book by H. Sweet “New English Grammar” in 1891. Conversion is treated differently by different

scientists, e.g. prof. O. Smyrnytskyi treats conversion as a morphological way of forming words when one part of speech is formed from another part of speech by changing its paradigm, e.g. to form the verb *to dial* from the noun *dial* we change the paradigm of the noun (*a dial, dials*) for the paradigm of a regular verb (*I dial, he dials, dialed, dialing*). A. Marchand in his book "The Categories and Types of Present-day English" treats conversion as a morphological-syntactical word-building because we have not only the change of the paradigm, but also the change of the syntactic function, e.g. *I need some good paper for my room.* (The noun *paper* is an object in the sentence). *I paper my room every year.* (The verb *paper* is the predicate in the sentence).

Conversion is the main way of forming verbs in Modern English. Verbs can be formed from nouns of different semantic groups and have different meanings because of that, e.g.:

a) verbs have instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting parts of a human body, e.g. *to eye, to finger, to elbow, to shoulder,* etc. They have instrumental meaning if they are formed from nouns denoting tools, machines, instruments, weapons, e.g. *to hammer, to machine-gun, to rifle, to nail*;

b) verbs can denote an action characteristic of the living being denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, **e.g.** *to crowd, to wolf, to ape*;

c) verbs can denote acquisition, addition or deprivation if they are formed from nouns denoting an object, e.g. *to fish, to dust, to peel, to paper*;

d) verbs can denote an action performed at the place denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, e.g. *to park, to garage, to bottle, to corner, to pocket*;

e) verbs can denote an action performed at the time denoted by the noun from which they have been converted, e.g. *to winter, to week-end.*

Verbs can be also converted from adjectives, in such cases they denote the change of the state, e.g. *to tame* (to become or make tame), *to clean, to slim,* etc.

Nouns can also be formed by means of conversion from verbs. Converted nouns can denote:

a) instant of an action, e.g. *a jump, a move*;

b) process or state, e.g. *sleep, walk*;

c) agent of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. *a help, a flirt, a scold*;

d) object or result of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. *a burn, a find, a purchase*;

e) place of the action expressed by the verb from which the noun has been converted, e.g. *a drive, a stop, a walk*.

Many nouns converted from verbs can be used only in the Singular form and denote momentaneous actions. In such cases we have partial conversion. Such deverbal nouns are often used with such verbs as: *to have, to get, to take* etc., e.g. *to have a try, to give a push, to take a swim*.

5. Abbreviation

In the process of communication words and word-groups can be shortened. The causes of shortening can be linguistic and extra-linguistic. By extra-linguistic causes changes in the life of people are meant. In Modern English many new abbreviations, acronyms, initials, blends are formed because the tempo of life is increasing and it becomes necessary to give more and more information in the shortest possible time.

There are also linguistic causes of abbreviating words and word-groups, such as the demand of rhythm, which is satisfied in English by monosyllabic words. When borrowings from other languages are assimilated in English they are shortened. Here we have modification of form on the basis of analogy, e.g. the Latin borrowing *fanaticus* is shortened to *fan* on the analogy with native words: *man, pan, tan*, etc.

There are two main **types of shortenings**:

- graphical;
- lexical.

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.

The oldest group of graphical abbreviations in English is of Latin origin. In Ukrainian this type of abbreviation is not typical. In these abbreviations in the spelling Latin words are shortened, while orally the corresponding English equivalents are pronounced in the full form: *e.g.* – for example (Latin exampli gratia), *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), etc.

Some graphical abbreviations of Latin origin have different English equivalents in different contexts, e.g. *p.m.* can be pronounced "in the afternoon" (post meridiem) and "after death" (post mortem).

There are also graphical abbreviations of native origin, where in the spelling we have abbreviations of words and word-groups of the corresponding English equivalents in the full form. We have several semantic groups of them:

a) days of the week, e.g. *Mon – Monday, Tue – Tuesday,* etc.;

b) names of months, e.g. *Apr – April, Aug – August,* etc.;

c) names of counties in UK, e.g. *Yorks – Yorkshire, Berks – Berkshire,* etc.;

d) names of states in USA, e.g. *Ala – Alabama, Alas – Alaska,* etc.;

e) names of address, e.g. *Mr., Mrs., Ms., Dr.,* etc.;

f) military ranks, e.g. *capt. – captain, col. – colonel, sgt – sergeant,* etc.;

g) scientific degrees, e.g. *B.A. – Bachelor of Arts, D.M. – Doctor of Medicine* (Sometimes in scientific degrees we have abbreviations of Latin origin, e.g., *M.B. – Medicinae Baccalaurus*);

h) units of time, length, weight, e.g. *f. / ft – foot / feet, sec. – second, in. – inch, mg. – milligram,* etc.

The reading of some graphical abbreviations depends on the context, e.g. *"m"* can be read as: *male, married, masculine, metre, mile, million, minute, "l.p."* can be read as *long-playing, low pressure.*

Initial abbreviations are the bordering case between graphical and lexical abbreviations. When they appear in the language, as a rule, to denote some new offices they are closer to graphical abbreviations because orally full forms are used, e.g. J.*V. – joint venture*. When they are used for some duration of time they acquire the shortened form of pronouncing and become closer to lexical abbreviations, e.g. *BBC* is as a rule pronounced in the shortened form.

In some cases the translation of initialisms is next to impossible without using special dictionaries. Initialisms are denoted in different ways. Very often they are expressed in the way they are pronounced in the language of their origin, e.g. *ANZUS* (Australia, New Zealand, United States) is given in Ukrainian as *АНЗУС.* This type of initialisms borrowed into other languages is preferable, e.g. *UFO – НЛО, СП – JV* etc.

There are three **types of initialisms** in English:

a) initialisms with alphabetical reading, such as: *UK*, *BUP*, *CND*, etc.;

b) initialisms which are read as if they are words, e.g. *UNESCO*, *UNO*, *NATO*, etc.;

c) initialisms which coincide with English words in their sound form, such initialisms are called acronyms, e.g. *CLASS* (Computor-based Laboratory for Automated School System).

Some scientists unite groups b) and c) into one group which they call acronyms.

Some initialisms can form new words in which they act as root morphemes by different ways of word-building:

a) affixation, e.g. *AWALism, ex-rafer, ex-POW, to waafize, AIDSophobia*, etc.;

b) conversion, e.g. *to raff, to fly IFR* (Instrument Flight Rules);

c) composition, e.g. *STOLport, USAFman*, etc.;

d) there are also compound-shortened words where the first component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical reading and the second one is a complete word, e.g. *A-bomb, U-pronunciation, V-day*, etc. In some cases the first component is a complete word and the second component is an initial abbreviation with the alphabetical pronunciation, e.g. *Three – Ds* (Three dimensions) – стереофільм.

Abbreviations of words

Abbreviation of words consists in clipping a part of a word. As a result we get a new lexical unit where either the lexical meaning or the style is different form the full form of the word. In such cases as *fantasy* and *fancy*, *fence* and *defence* we have different lexical meanings. In such cases as *laboratory* and *lab*, we have different styles.

Abbreviation does not change the part-of-speech meaning, as we have it in the case of conversion or affixation, it produces words belonging to the same part of speech as the primary word, e.g. *prof* is a noun and *professor* is also a noun. Mostly nouns undergo abbreviation, but we can also meet abbreviation of verbs, such as *to rev* from to revolve, *to tab* from to tabulate, etc. But mostly abbreviated forms of verbs are formed by means of conversion from abbreviated nouns, e.g. *to taxi, to va,c* etc. Adjectives can be abbreviated but they are mostly used in school slang and are combined with suffixation, e.g. *comfy*, *dilly*, *mizzy*, etc. As a rule pronouns, numerals, interjections. conjunctions are

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

Lexical abbreviations are classified according to the part of the word which is clipped. Mostly the end of the word is clipped, because the beginning of the word in most cases is the root and expresses the lexical meaning of the word. This type of abbreviation is called apocope. Here we can mention a group of words ending in "o", such as *disco* (dicotheque), *expo* (exposition), *intro* (introduction) and many others. On the analogy with these words there developed in Modern English a number of words where "o" is added as a kind of a suffix to the shortened form of the word, e.g. *combo* (combination) – невеликий естрадний ансамбль, *Afro* (African) – зачіска під африканця, etc. In other cases the beginning of the word is clipped. In such cases we have apheresis, e.g. *chute* (parachute), *varsity* (university), *copter* (helicopter), *thuse* (enthuse), etc. Sometimes the middle of the word is clipped, e.g. *mart* (market), *fanzine* (fan magazine), *maths* (mathematics). Such abbreviations are called syncope. Sometimes we have a combination of apocope with apheresis, when the beginning and the end of the word are clipped, e.g. *tec* (detective), *van* (avanguard), etc.

Sometimes shortening influences the spelling of the word, e.g. "c" can be substituted by "k" before "e" to preserve pronunciation, e.g. *mike* (microphone), *Coke* (coca-cola), etc. The same rule is observed in the following cases: *fax* (facsimile), *teck* (technical college), *trank* (tranquilizer), etc. The final consonants in the shortened forms are substituted by letters characteristic of native English words.

5. Secondary ways of word-building

Sound interchange

Sound interchange is the way of word-building when some sounds are changed to form a new word. It is non-productive in Modern English, it was productive in Old English and can be met in other Indo-European languages.

The causes of sound interchange can be different. It can be the result of Ancient Ablaut which cannot be explained by the phonetic laws during the period of the language development known to scientists, e.g. *to strike – stroke, to sing – song,* etc. It can be also the result of Ancient

Umlaut or vowel mutation which is the result of palatalizing the root vowel because of the front vowel in the syllable coming after the root (regressive assimilation), e.g. *hot – to heat (hotian), blood – to bleed (blodian),* etc.

In many cases we have vowel and consonant interchange. In nouns we have voiceless consonants and in verbs we have corresponding voiced consonants because in Old English these consonants in nouns were at the end of the word and in verbs in the intervocal position, e.g. *bath – to bathe, life – to live, breath – to breathe,* etc.

Stress interchange

Stress interchange can be mostly met in verbs and nouns of Romanic origin: nouns have the stress on the first syllable and verbs on the last syllable, e.g. *`accent – to ac`cent*. This phenomenon is explained in the following way: French verbs and nouns had different structure when they were borrowed into English, verbs had one syllable more than the corresponding nouns. When these borrowings were assimilated in English the stress in them was shifted to the previous syllable (the second from the end). Later on the last unstressed syllable in verbs borrowed from French was dropped (the same as in native verbs) and after that the stress in verbs was on the last syllable while in nouns it was on the first syllable. As a result of it we have such pairs in English as: *to af`fix –`affix, to con`flict – `conflict, to ex`port –`export, to ex`tract – `extract,* etc. As a result of stress interchange we have also vowel interchange in such words because vowels are pronounced differently in stressed and unstressed positions.

Sound imitation

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

a) sounds produced by human beings, such as: *to whisper, to giggle, to mumble, to sneeze, to whistle,* etc.;

b) sounds produced by animals, birds, insects, such as: *to hiss, to buzz, to bark, to moo, to twitter,* etc.;

c) sounds produced by nature and objects, such as: *to splash, to rustle, to clatter, to bubble, to ding-dong, to tinkle,* etc.

The corresponding nouns are formed by means of conversion, e.g. *clang (of a bell), chatter (of children),* etc.

Blends

Blends are words formed from a word-group or two synonyms. In blends two ways of word-building are combined: abbreviation and composition. To form a blend we clip the end of the first component (apocope) and the beginning of the second component (apheresis). As a result we have a compound-shortened word. One of the first blends in English was the word *smog* from two synonyms: *smoke* and *fog* which means smoke mixed with fog. From the first component the beginning is taken, from the second one the end, "o" is common for both of them.

Blends formed from two synonyms are: *slanguange, to hustle, gasohol*, etc. Mostly blends are formed from a word-group, such as: *acromania* (acronym mania), *cinemadict* (cinema adict), *chunnel* (channel, canal), *dramedy* (drama comedy), *detectifiction* (detective fiction), *faction* (fact fiction) (fiction based on real facts), *informecial* (information commercial), *Medicare* (medical care), *magalog* (magazine catalogue) *slimnastics* (slimming gymnastics), *sociolite* (social elite), *slanguist* (slang linguist), etc.

Back formation

It is the way of word-building when a word is formed by dropping the final morpheme to form a new word. It is opposite to suffixation, that is why it is called back formation. At first it appeared in the language as a result of misunderstanding the structure of a borrowed word. Prof. Yartseva explains this mistake by the influence of the whole system of the language on separate words. E.g. it is typical of English to form nouns denoting the agent of the action by adding the suffix *-er* to a verb stem (*speak – speaker*). So when the French word *beggar* was borrowed into English the final syllable "ar" was pronounced in the same way as the English -er and Englishmen formed the verb *to beg* by dropping the end of the noun. Other examples of back formation are: *to accreditate* (from accreditation), *to bach* (from bachelor), *to collocate* (from collocation), to enthuse (from enthusiasm), to compute (from computer), *to emote* (from emotion), *to reminisce* (from reminiscence), *to televise* (from television), etc.

THEME 5

SEMANTIC CHANGES

Problems for discussion

1. Gradual semantic changes:
    a) specialization;
    b) generalization.
2. Momentary conscious semantic changes:
    a) metaphor;
    b) metonymy.
3. Secondary ways of semantic changes:
    a) elevation;
    b) degradation;
    c) hyperbole;
    d) litote.

Recommended literature

1. Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. С. 147–154.

The meaning of a word can change in the course of time. Changes of lexical meanings can be proved by comparing contexts of different times. Transfer of the meaning is called lexico-semantic word-building. In such cases the outer aspect of a word does not change.

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

On the other hand causes can be linguistic, e.g. the conflict of synonyms when a perfect synonym of a native word is borrowed from some other language one of them may specialize in its meaning, e.g. the noun *tide* in Old English was polisemantic and denoted “time”, “season”, “hour”. When the French words *time, season, hour* were

borrowed into English they ousted the word *tide* in these meanings. It was specialized and now means "regular rise and fall of the sea caused by attraction of the moon". The meaning of a word can also change due to ellipsis, e.g. the word-group *a train of carriages* had the meaning of "a row of carriages", later on "of carriages" was dropped and the noun *train* changed its meaning, it is used now in the function and with the meaning of the whole word-group.

Semantic changes have been classified by different scientists. The most complete classification was suggested by a German scientist H. Paul in his work "Prinzipien des Sprachgeschichte". It is based on the logical principle. He distinguishes two main ways where the semantic change is gradual (specialization and generalization), two momentary conscious semantic changes (metaphor and metonymy) and also secondary ways: gradual (elevation and degradation), momentary (hyperbole and litote).

1. Gradual semantic changes

Specialization

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

The meaning of a word can specialize when it remains in the general usage. It happens in the case of the conflict between two absolute synonyms when one of them must specialize in its meaning to remain in the language, e.g. the native word *meat* had the meaning "food", this meaning is preserved in the compound *sweetmeats*. The meaning "edible flesh" was formed when the word *food*, its absolute synonym, won in the conflict of absolute synonyms (both words are native). The English verb *starve* was specialized in its meaning after the Scandinavian verb *die* was borrowed into English. *Die* became the general verb with this meaning because in English there were the noun *death* and the adjective *dead*. *Starve* got the meaning "to die of hunger".

The third way of specialization is the formation of Proper names from common nouns, it is often used in toponimics, e.g. *the City* – the

business part of London, *Oxford* – university town in England, *the Tower* – originally a fortress and palace, later – a prison, now – a museum.

The fourth way of specialization is ellipsis. In such cases primarily we have a word-group of the type "attribute + noun", which is used constantly in a definite situation. Due to it the attribute can be dropped and the noun can get the meaning of the whole word-group, e.g. *room* originally meant "space", this meaning is retained in the adjective *roomy* and word combinations: *no room for, to take room, to take no room*. The meaning of the word *room* was specialized because it was often used in the combinations: *dining room, sleeping room* which meant "space for dining", "space for sleeping".

Generalization

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

The transfer from a concrete meaning to an abstract one is most frequent, e.g. *ready* (a derivative from the verb *ridan – ride*) meant "prepared for a ride", now its meaning is "prepared for anything". *Journey* was borrowed from French with the meaning "one day trip", now it means "a trip of any duration".

All auxiliary verbs are cases of generalization of their lexical meaning because they developed a grammatical meaning: *have, be, do, shall, will* when used as auxiliary verbs are devoid of their lexical meaning which they have when used as notional verbs or modal verbs, e.g. *I have several books by this writer* and *I have read some books by this author*. In the first sentence the verb *have* has the meaning "possess", in the second sentence it has no lexical meaning, its grammatical meaning is to form Present Perfect.

2. Momentary conscious semantic changes

Metaphor

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

a) similarity of shape, e.g. *head* (of a cabbage), *bottleneck, teeth* (of a saw, a comb);

b) similarity of position, e.g. *foot* (of a page, of a mountain), *head* (of a procession);

c) similarity of function, behaviour, e.g. *a whip* (an official in the British Parliament whose duty is to see that members were present at the voting);

d) similarity of colour, e.g. *orange, hazel, chestnut* etc.

In some cases we have a complex similarity, e.g. *the leg of a table* has a similarity to a human leg in its shape, position and function.

Many metaphors are based on parts of a human body, e.g. *an eye of a needle, arms and mouth of a river, head of an army*.

A special type of metaphor is when Proper names become common nouns, e.g. *philistine* – a mercenary person, *vandals* – destructive people, *a Don Juan* – a lover of many women etc.

Metonymy

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

a) the material of which an object is made may become the name of the object, e.g. *a glass, boards, iron,* etc;

b) the name of the place may become the name of the people or of an object placed there, e.g. *the House* – members of Parliament, *Fleet Street* – bourgeois press, *the White House* – the Administration of the USA, etc;

c) names of musical instruments may become names of musicians, e.g. *the violin, the saxophone*;

d) the name of some person may become a common noun, e.g. *boycott* was originally the name of an Irish family who were so much disliked by their neighbours that they did not mix with them, *sandwich* was named after Lord Sandwich who was a gambler. He did not want to interrupt his game and had his food brought to him while he was playing cards between two slices of bread not to soil his fingers.

e) names of inventors very often become terms to denote things they invented, e.g. *watt, om, roentgen,* etc.

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

3. Secondary ways of semantic changes

Elevation

It is a transfer of the meaning when it becomes better in the course of time, e.g. *knight* originally meant "a boy", then "a young servant", then "a military servant", then "a noble man". Now it is a title of nobility given to outstanding people; *marshal* originally meant "a horse man" now it is the highest military rank, etc.

Degradation

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

Hyperboly

It is a transfer of the meaning when the speaker uses exaggeration, e.g. *to hate* (doing something), (not to see somebody) *for ages*.

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

Litote

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

THEME 6

SEMASIOLOGY

Problems for discussion

1. Word-meaning.
2. Lexical meaning-notion.
3. Polysemy.

4. Homonyms.
5. Synonyms.
6. Antonyms.

Recommended literature

1. Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. С. 131–135, 183–199.
2. Lipka L. English lexicology: Lexical structure, word semantics and word-formation. Tübingen, Germany : Narr, 2002. 179 p.

The branch of Lexicology which deals with the meaning is called **Semasiology**.

1. Word-meaning

Every word has two aspects: the outer aspect (its sound form) and the inner aspect (its meaning). Sound and meaning do not always constitute a constant unit even in the same language. E.g. the word *temple* may denote “a part of a human head” and “a large church”. In such cases we have homonyms. One and the same word in different syntactical relations can develop different meanings, e.g. the verb *treat* in sentences:

a) *He treated my words as a joke.*
b) *The book treats of poetry.*
c) *They treated me to sweets.*
d) *He treats his son cruelly.*

In all these sentences the verb *treat* has different meanings and we can speak about polysemy.

On the other hand, one and the same meaning can be expressed by different sound forms, e.g. *pilot* and *airman*, *horror* and *terror*. In such cases we have synonyms.

Both the meaning and the sound can develop in the course of time independently. E.g. the Old English [luvian] is pronounced [l^v] in Modern English. On the other hand, *board* primariliy means “a piece of wood sawn thin”. It has developed the meanings: “a table”, “a board of a ship”, “a stage”, “a council”, etc.

2. Lexical meaning-notion

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

The term "notion" was introduced into Lexicology from logics. A notion denotes the reflection in the mind of real objects and phenomena in their relations. Notions, as a rule, are international, especially with the nations of the same cultural level. While meanings can be nationally limited. Grouping of meanings in the semantic structure of a word is determined by the whole system of every language. E.g. the English verb *go* and its Ukrainian equivalent *ити* have some meanings which coincide: "to move from place to place", "to extend" (*the road goes to London*), "to work" (*Is your watch going?*). On the other hand, they have different meanings: in Ukrainian we say: *Ось він іде*, in English we use the verb *come* in this case. In English we use the verb *go* in the combinations: *to go by bus*, *to go by train*, etc. In Ukrainian in these cases we use the verb *їхати*.

The number of meanings does not correspond to the number of words, neither does the number of notions. Their distribution in relation to words is peculiar in every language. The Ukrainian has two words for the English *man*: "чоловік" and "людина". In English, however, *man* cannot be applied to a female person. We say in Ukrainian: *Вона хороша людина*. In English we use the word *person* (*She is a good person*).

Development of lexical meanings in any language is influenced by the whole network of ties and relations between words and other aspects of the language.

3. Polysemy

The word **polysemy** means “plurality of meanings” it exists only in the language, not in speech. A word which has more than one meaning is called polysemantic.

Different meanings of a polysemantic word may come together due to the proximity of notions which they express. E.g. the word *blanket* has the following meanings: “a woolen covering used on beds”, “a covering for keeping a horse warm”, “a covering of any kind (a blanket of snow)”, “covering all or most cases (used attributively)”, e.g. we can say *a blanket insurance policy*.

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

There are two processes of the semantic development of a word: radiation and concatination. In cases of radiation the primary meaning stands in the centre and the secondary meanings proceed out of it like rays. Each secondary meaning can be traced to the primary meaning. E.g. in the word *face* the primary meaning denotes “the front part of the human head”. Connected with the *front position* the meanings “the front part of a watch”, “the front part of a building”, “the front part of a playing card” were formed. Connected with the word *face* itself the meanings “expression of the face”, “outward appearance” are formed.

In cases of concatination secondary meanings of a word develop like a chain. In such cases it is difficult to trace some meanings to the primary one. E.g. in the word *crust* the primary meaning “hard outer part of bread” developed a secondary meaning “hard part of anything (a pie, a cake)”, then the meaning “harder layer over soft snow” was developed, then “a sullen gloomy person”, then “impudence” were developed. Here the last meanings have nothing to do with the primary ones. In such cases homonyms appear in the language. It is called the **split of polysemy**.

In most cases in the semantic development of a word both ways of semantic development are combined.

4. Homonyms

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

Homonyms can appear in the language not only as the result of the split of polysemy, but also as the result of levelling of grammar inflexions, when different parts of speech become identical in their outer aspect, e.g. *care* from "caru" and *care* from "carian". They can be also formed by means of conversion, e.g. *to slim* from "slim", *to water* from "water". They can be formed with the help of the same suffix from the same stem, e.g. *reader* (a person who reads and a book for reading).

Homonyms can also appear in the language accidentally, when two words coincide in their development, e.g. two native words can coincide in their outer aspects: *to bear* from "beran" (to carry) and *bear* from "bera" (an animal). A native word and a borrowing can coincide in their outer aspects, e.g. *fair* from Latin "feria" and *fair* from native "fager" /blond/. Two borrowings can coincide e.g. *base* from the French "base" (Latin "basis") and *base* (low) from the Latin "bas" (Italian "basso").

Homonyms can develop through shortening of different words, e.g. from *cabriolet, cabbage, cabin*.

Classifications of homonyms

W. Skeat classified homonyms according to their spelling and sound forms and he pointed out three groups:

1) **perfect homonyms** that is words identical in sound and spelling, such as: *school* – косяк риби and школа;

2) **homographs**, that is words with the same spelling but pronounced differently, e.g. *bow* – [bau] – уклін and [bou] – лук;

3) **homophones** that is words pronounced identically but spelled differently, e.g. *night* – ніч and *knight* – лицар.

Another classification was suggested by O. Smyrnytskyi. He added to Skeat's classification one more criterion: grammatical meaning. He subdivided the group of perfect homonyms in Skeat's classification into two types of homonyms: 1) perfect which are identical in their spelling, pronunciation and their grammar form, such as: *spring* in the meanings: "the season of the year", "a leap", "a source"; 2) homoforms which coincide in their spelling and pronunciation but have different grammatical meaning, e.g. *reading* – Present Participle, Gerund, Verbal noun, *to lobby – lobby*.

A more detailed classification was given by I. Arnold. She classified only perfect homonyms and suggested four criteria of their

classification: lexical meaning, grammatical meaning, basic forms and paradigms.

According to these criteria I. Arnold pointed out the following groups:

1) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings, basic forms and paradigms and different in their lexical meanings, e.g. *board* in the meanings “a council” and “a piece of wood sawn thin”;

2) homonyms identical in their grammatical meanings and basic forms, different in their lexical meanings and paradigms, e.g. *to lie* – lied – lied, and *to lie* – lay – lain;

3) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, paradigms, but coinciding in their basic forms, e.g. *light* (lights), *light* (lighter, lightest);

4) homonyms different in their lexical meanings, grammatical meanings, in their basic forms and paradigms, but coinciding in one of the forms of their paradigms, e.g. *a bit* and *bit* (from “to bite”).

In I. Arnold’s classification there are also patterned homonyms, which, differing from other homonyms, have a common component in their lexical meanings. These are homonyms formed either by means of conversion, or by levelling of grammar inflexions. These homonyms are different in their grammar meanings, in their paradigms, identical in their basic forms, e.g. *warm – to warm*. Here we can also have unchangeable patterned homonyms which have identical basic forms, different grammatical meanings, a common component in their lexical meanings, e.g. *before* – an adverb, a conjunction, a preposition. There are also homonyms among unchangeable words which are different in their lexical and grammatical meanings, identical in their basic forms, e.g. *for* – для and *for* – але.

5. Synonyms

Synonyms are words different in their outer aspects, but identical or similar in their inner aspects. In English there are a lot of synonyms, because there are many borrowings, e.g. *hearty* (native) – *cordial* (borrowing). After a word is borrowed it undergoes desynonymization, because absolute synonyms are unnecessary for a language. However, there are some **absolute synonyms** in the language, which have exactly the same meaning and belong to the same style, e.g. *to moan, to groan*;

homeland, motherland, etc. In cases of desynonymization one of the absolute synonyms can specialize in its meaning and we get semantic synonyms, e.g. *city* (borrowed), *town* (native). The French borrowing *city* is specialized. In other cases native words can be specialized in their meanings, e.g. *stool* (native), *chair* (French).

Sometimes one of the absolute synonyms is specialized in its usage and we get **stylistic synonyms**, e.g. *to begin* (native), *to commence* (borrowing). Here the French word is specialized. In some cases the native word is specialized, e.g. *welkin* (bookish), *sky* (neutral).

Stylistic synonyms can also appear by means of abbreviation. In most cases the abbreviated form belongs to the colloquial style, and the full form to the neutral style, e.g. *examination, exam*.

Among stylistic synonyms we can point out a special group of words which are called **euphemisms**. These are words used to substitute some unpleasant or offensive words, e.g *the late* instead of *dead*, *to perspire* instead of *to sweat,* etc.

There are also **phraseological synonyms**, these words are identical in their meanings and styles but different in their combining with other words in the sentence, e.g. *to be late for a lecture* but *to miss the train*, *to visit museums* but *to attend lectures* etc.

In each group of synonyms there is a word with the most general meaning, which can substitute any word in the group, e.g. *piece* is the **synonymic dominant** in the group *slice, lump, morsel*. The verb *to look at* is the synonymic dominant in the group *to stare, to glance, to peep*. The adjective *red* is the synonymic dominant in the group *purple, scarlet, crimson.*

When speaking about the sources of synonyms, besides desynonymization and abbreviation, we can also mention the formation of phrasal verbs, e.g. *to give up – to abandon, to cut down – to diminish*.

6. Antonyms

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

V. Komisarov in his dictionary of antonyms classified them into two groups:

- absolute or root antonyms (*late – early*);
- derivational antonyms (*to please – to displease*).

Absolute antonyms have different roots and **derivational antonyms** have the same roots but different affixes. In most cases negative prefixes form antonyms (*un-*, *dis-*, *non-*). Sometimes they are formed by means of suffixes *-ful* and *-less*.

The number of antonyms with the suffixes *ful-* and *-less* is not very large, and sometimes even if we have a word with one of these suffixes its antonym is formed not by substituting *-ful* by *less-*, e.g. *successful – unsuccessful, selfless – selfish*. The same is true about antonyms with negative prefixes, e.g. *to man* is not an antonym of the word *to unman*, *to disappoint* is not an antonym of the word *to appoint*.

The difference between derivational and root antonyms is not only in their structure, but in semantics as well. Derivational antonyms express contradictory notions, one of them excludes the other, e.g. *active – inactive*. Absolute antonyms express contrary notions. If some notions can be arranged in a group of more than two members, the most distant members of the group will be absolute antonyms, e.g. *ugly, plain, good-looking, pretty, beautiful*, the antonyms are *ugly* and *beautiful*.

L. Lipka in the book "Outline of English Lexicology" describes different types of oppositeness, and subdivides them into three types:

a) complementary, e.g. *male – female, married – single*;

b) antonyms, e.g. *good – bad*;

c) converseness, e.g. *to buy – to sell*.

In his classification he describes complimentarity in the following way: the denial of the one implies the assertion of the other, and vice versa. *"John is not married"* implies that *"John is single"*. The type of oppositeness is based on yes / no decision. Incompatibility only concerns pairs of lexical units.

Antonymy is the second class of oppositeness. It is distinguished from complimentarity by being based on different logical relationships. For pairs of antonyms like *good / bad, big / small* only the second one of the above mentioned relations of implication holds. The assertion containing one member implies the negation of the other, but not vice versa. *"John is good"* implies that *"John is not bad"*, but *"John is not good"* does not imply that *"John is bad"*. The negation of one term does not necessarily implies the assertion of the other.

An important linguistic difference from complementaries is that antonyms are always fully gradable, e.g. *hot, warm, tepid, cold*.

L. Lipka also gives the type which he calls directional opposition *up / down*, consiquence opposition *learn / know*, antipodal opposition

North / South, East / West, (it is based on contrary motion, in opposite directions). The pairs *come / go, arrive / depart* involve motion in different directions. In the case *up / down* we have movement from a point P. In the case *come / go* we have movement from or to the speaker.

L. Lipka also points out non-binary contrast or many-member lexical sets. Here he points out serially ordered sets, such as scales (*hot, warm, tepid, cool, cold*); colour words (*black, grey, white*); ranks (*marshal, general, colonel, major, captain,* etc.). There are gradable examination marks (*excellent, good, average, fair, poor*). In such sets of words we can have outer and inner pairs of antonyms. He also points out cycles, such as units of time (*spring, summer, autumn, winter*). In this case there are no "outermost" members.

Not every word in a language can have antonyms. This type of opposition can be met in qualitative adjectives and their derivatives, e.g. *beautiful – ugly, to beautify – to uglify, beauty – ugliness*. It can be also met in words denoting feelings and states, e.g. *respect – scorn, to respect – to scorn, respectful – scornful, to live – to die, alive – dead, life – death*. It can be also met among words denoting direction in space and time, e.g. *here – there, up – down, now – never, before – after, day – night, early – late,* etc.

If a word is polysemantic it can have several antonyms, e.g. the word *bright* has the antonyms *dim, dull, sad*.

THEME 7

PHRASEOLOGY

Problems for discussion

1. Ways of forming phraseological units.
2. Semantic classification of phraseological units.
3. Structural classification of phraseological units.
4. Syntactical classification of phraseological units.

Recommended literature

1. Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. С. 271–286.

The vocabulary of a language is enriched not only by words but also by phraseological units. **Phraseological units** are word-groups that cannot be made in the process of speech, they exist in the language as ready-made units. They are compiled in special dictionaries. The same as words phraseological units express a single notion and are used in a sentence as one part of it. American and British lexicographers call such units "idioms". We can mention such dictionaries as: L. Smith "Words and Idioms", V. Collins "A Book of English Idioms", etc. In these dictionaries we can find words, peculiar in their semantics (idiomatic), side by side with word-groups and sentences. In these dictionaries they are arranged, as a rule, into different semantic groups.

Phraseological units can be classified according to the ways they are formed, according to the degree of the motivation of their meaning, according to their structure and according to their part-of-speech meaning.

1. Ways of forming phraseological units

O. Koonin classified phraseological units according to the way they are formed. He pointed out primary and secondary ways of forming phraseological units.

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

a) most productive in Modern English is the formation of phraseological units by means of transferring the meaning of terminological word-groups, e.g. in cosmic technique we can point out the following phrases: *launching pad* in its terminological meaning is "стартовий майданчик", in its transferred meaning – "пункт відправлення";

b) a large group of phraseological units was formed from free word groups by transforming their meaning, e.g. *granny farm* – пансіонат для престарілих;

c) phraseological units can be formed by means of alliteration, e.g. *a sad sack* – нещасливий випадок, *culture vulture* – людина, яка цікавиться мистецтвом;

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

e) they can be formed by means of distorting a word group, e.g. *odds and ends* was formed from *odd ends*;

f) they can be formed by using archaisms, e.g. *in brown study* means "in gloomy meditation" where both components preserve their archaic meanings;

g) they can be formed by using a sentence in a different sphere of life, e.g. *that cock won't fight* can be used as a free word-group when it is used in sports (cock fighting), it becomes a phraseological unit when it is used in everyday life, because it is used metaphorically;

h) they can be formed when we use some unreal image, e.g. *to have butterflies in the stomach* – хвилюватися;

i) they can be formed by using expressions of writers or polititions in everyday life, e.g. *corridors of power* (Snow), *American dream* (Alby), *locust years* (Churchil), *the winds of change* (Mc Millan).

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

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

b) changing the grammar form, e.g. *Make hay while the sun shines* is transferred into a verbal phrase – *to make hay while the sun shines*;

c) analogy, e.g. *Curiosity killed the cat* was transferred into *Care killed the cat*;

d) contrast, e.g. *cold surgery* – planned before operation – was formed by contrasting it with "acute surgery", *thin cat* – a poor person – was formed by contrasting it with "fat cat";

e) shortening of proverbs or sayings, e.g. from the proverb *"You can't make a silk purse out of a sow's ear"* by means of clipping the middle of it the phraseological unit *to make a sow's ear* was formed with the meaning «помилятись».

f) borrowing phraseological units from other languages, either as translation loans, e.g. *living space* (German), *to take the bull by the horns* (Latin) or by means of phonetic borrowings, e.g. *meche blanche* (French), *corpse d'elite* (French), *sotto voce* (Italian), etc.

Phonetic borrowings among phraseological units refer to the bookish style and are not used very often.

2. Semantic classification of phraseological units

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

a) **fusions** where the degree of motivation is very low, we cannot guess the meaning of the whole from the meanings of its components, they are highly idiomatic and cannot be translated word for word into other languages, e.g. *on Shank's mare* (on foot), *at sixes and sevens* (in a mess), etc;

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

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

3. Structural classification of phraseological units

Prof. O. Smyrnytskyi worked out structural classification of phraseological units, comparing them with words. He points out one-top units which he compares with derived words because derived words have only one root morpheme. He points out two-top units which he compares with compound words because in compound words we usually have two root morphemes.

Among **one-top units** he points out three structural types:

a) units of the type «to give up» (verb + postposition type), e.g. *to art up, to back up, to drop out, to nose out, to buy into, to sandwich in* etc.;

b) units of the type "to be tired". Some of these units remind the Passive Voice in their structure but they have different prepositions with them, while in the Passive Voice we can have only prepositions "by" or "with", e.g. *to be tired of, to be interested in, to be surprised at* etc. There are also units in this type which remind free word-groups of the type "to be young", e.g. *to be akin to, to be aware of* etc. The difference between them is that the adjective *young* can be used as an attribute and as a predicative in a sentence, while the nominal component in such

units can act only as a predicative. In these units the verb is the grammar centre and the second component is the semantic centre;

c) prepositional-nominal phraseological units. These units are equivalents of unchangeable words: prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, that is why they have no grammar centre, their semantic centre is the nominal part, e.g. *on the doorstep* (quite near), *on the nose* (exactly), *in the course of, on the stroke of, in time, on the point of* etc. In the course of time such units can become words, e.g. *tomorrow, instead*, etc.

Among **two-top units** O. Smyrnytskyi points out the following structural types:

a) attributive-nominal such as: *a month of Sundays, grey matter, a millstone round one's neck* and many others. Units of this type are noun equivalents and can be partly or perfectly idiomatic. In partly idiomatic units (phrasisms) sometimes the first component is idiomatic, e.g. *high road*, in other cases the second component is idiomatic, e.g. *first night*. In many cases both components are idiomatic, e.g. *red tape, blind alley, bed of nail, shot in the arm* and many others;

b) verb-nominal phraseological units, e.g. *to read between the lines, to speak BBC, to sweep under the carpet*, etc. The grammar centre of such units is the verb, the semantic centre in many cases is the nominal component, e.g. *to fall in love*. In some units the verb is both the grammar and the semantic centre, e.g. *not to know the ropes*. These units can be perfectly idiomatic as well, e.g. *to burn one's boats, to vote with one's feet, to take to the cleaners',* etc.

Very close to such units are word-groups of the type *to have a glance, to have a smoke*. These units are not idiomatic and are treated in grammar as a special syntactical combination, a kind of aspect;

c) phraseological repetitions, such as: *now or never, part and parcel, country and western,* etc. Such units can be built on antonyms, e.g. *ups and downs, back and forth*; often they are formed by means of alliteration, e.g. *cakes and ale, as busy as a bee*. Components in repetitions are joined by means of conjunctions. These units are equivalents of adverbs or adjectives and have no grammar centre. They can also be partly or perfectly idiomatic, e.g. *cool as a cucumber* (partly), *bread and butter* (perfectly).

Phraseological units the same as compound words can have more than two tops (stems in compound words), e.g. *to take a back seat, a peg to hang a thing on, lock, stock and barrel, to be a shadow of one's own self, at one's own sweet will*.

4. Syntactical classification of phraseological units

Phraseological units can be classified as parts of speech. This classification was suggested by I. Arnold. Here we have the following groups:

a) noun phraseologisms denoting an object, a person, a living being, e.g. *bullet train, latchkey child, redbrick university, Green Berets*;

b) verb phraseologisms denoting an action, a state, a feeling, e.g. *to break the log-jam, to get on somebody's coattails, to be on the beam, to nose out, to make headlines*;

c) adjective phraseologisms denoting a quality, e.g. *loose as a goose, dull as lead*;

d) adverb phraseological units, such as: *with a bump, in the soup, like a dream, like a dog with two tails*;

e) preposition phraseological units, e.g. *in the course of, on the stroke of*;

f) interjection phraseological units, e.g. *"Catch me!", "Well, I never!"*.

In I. Arnold's classification there are also sentence equivalents, proverbs, sayings and quotations, e.g. *"The sky is the limit", "What makes him tick", "I am easy"*. Proverbs are usually metaphorical, e.g. *"Too many cooks spoil the broth"*, while sayings are as a rule non-metaphorical, e.g. *"Where there is a will there is a way"*.

THEME 8

ARCHAISMS. NEOLOGISMS

Problems for discussion

1. Archaisms.
2. Neologisms.

Recommended literature

1. Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. С. 237.

1. Archaisms

Archaisms are words which are no longer used in everyday speech, which have been ousted by their synonyms. Archaisms remain in the language, but they are used as stylistic devices to express solemnity.

Most of these words are lexical archaisms and they are stylistic synonyms of words which ousted them from the neutral style. Some of them are: *steed* (horse), *slay* (kill), *behold* (see), *perchance* (perhaps), *woe* (sorrow), etc.

Sometimes a lexical archaism begins a new life, getting a new meaning, then the old meaning becomes a semantic archaism, e.g. *fair* in the meaning "beautiful" is a semantic archaism, but in the meaning "blond" it belongs to the neutral style.

Sometimes the root of the word remains and the affix is changed, then the old affix is considered to be a morphemic archaism, e.g. *beautious* ("ous" was substituted by "ful"), *bepaint* ("be" was dropped), *darksome* ("some" was dropped), *oft* ("en" was added), etc.

2. Neologisms

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

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

Neologisms can develop in three main ways: a lexical unit existing in the language can change its meaning to denote a new object or phenomenon. In such cases we have semantic neologisms, e.g. the word *umbrella* developed the meanings: "авіаційне прикриття", "політичне прикриття". A new lexical unit can develop in the language to denote an object or phenomenon which already has some lexical unit to denote it. In such cases we have transnomination, e.g. the word *slum* was first

substituted by the word “ghetto” then by the word-group “inner town”. A new lexical unit can be introduced to denote a new object or phenomenon. In this case we have “a proper neologism”, many of them are cases of new terminology.

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

a) to denote different types of computers, e.g. *PC, super-computer, multi-user, neurocomputer* (analogue of a human brain);

b) to denote parts of computers, e.g. *hardware, software, monitor, screen, data, vapourware* (experimental samples of computers for exhibition, not for production);

c) to denote computer languages, e.g. *BASIC, Algol FORTRAN* etc;

d) to denote notions connected with work on computers, e.g. *computerman, computerization, computerize, to troubleshoot, to blitz out* (to ruin data in a computer’s memory).

There are also different types of activities performed with the help of computers, many of them are formed with the help of the morpheme “tele”, e.g. *to telework, to telecommute* (to work at home having a computer which is connected with the enterprise for which one works). There are also such words as *telebanking, telemarketing, teleshopping* (when you can perform different operations with the help of your computer without leaving your home, all operations are registered by the computer at your bank), *videobank* (computerized telephone which registers all information which is received in your absence).

In the sphere of linguistics we have such neologisms as: *machine translation, interlingual* (an artificial language for machine translation into several languages) and many others.

In the sphere of biometrics we have computerized machines which can recognize characteristic features of people seeking entrance: *finger-print scanner* (finger prints), *biometric eye-scanner* (blood-vessel arrangements in eyes), *voice verification* (voice patterns). These are types of biometric locks. Here we can also mention computerized cards with the help of which we can open the door without a key.

In the sphere of medicine computers are also used and we have the following neologisms: *telemonitory unit* (a telemonitory system for treating patience at a distance).

With the development of social activities neologisms appeared as well, e.g. *Euromarket, Eurodollar, Europarliament, Europol,* etc.

In the modern English society there is a tendency to social stratification, as a result there are neologisms in this sphere as well, e.g. *belonger* – представник середнього класу, який притримується консервативних поглядів. To this group we can also refer abbreviations of the type yuppie (young urban professional people), such as: *muppie, gruppie, rumpie, bluppie,* etc. People belonging to the lowest layer of the society are called *survivers,* a little bit more prosperous are called *sustainers*, and those who try to prosper in life and imitate those, they want to belong to, are called *emulaters.* Those who have prospered but are not belongers are called *achievers.* All these layers of society are called *VAL* (Value and Lifestyles).

The rich belong also to jet set that is those who can afford to travel by jet planes all over the world enjoying their life. Sometimes they are called *jet plane travellers*.

During Margaret Thatcher's rule the abbreviation PLU appeared which means "People like us" by which snobbistic circles of society call themselves. Nowadays (since 1989) PLU was substituted by "one of us".

There are a lot of immigrants now in UK, in connection with which neologisms partial and non-partial were formed.

The word-group *welfare mother* was formed to denote a non-working single mother living on benefit.

In connection with criminalization of towns in UK volantary groups of assisting the police were formed where dwellers of the neighbourhood are joined. These groups are called *neighbourhood watch, home watch*. Criminals wear "stocking masks" not to be recognized.

The higher society has neologisms in their speech, such as: *dial-a-meal, dial-a-taxi*.

In the language of teen-agers there are such words as: *Drugs!* (OK), *sweat* (біг на довгі дистанції), *task* (home composition), *brunch,* etc.

With the development of professional jargons a lot of words ending in "speak" appeared in English, e.g. *artspeak, sportspeak, medspeak, education-speak, video-speak, cable-speak,* etc.

There are different semantic groups of neologisms belonging to everyday life:

a) food, e.g. *macrobiotics* (raw vegetables, crude rice), *longlife milk, clingfilm, microwave stove, consumer electronics, fridge-freezer, hamburgers* (beef-, cheese-, fish-, veg-);

b) clothing, e.g. *catsuit* (one-piece clinging suit), *slimster*, *string* (miniscule bikini), *hipster* (trousers or skirt with the belt on hips), *completenik* (a long sweater for trousers), *sweatnik* (a long jacket), *pants-skirt*, *bloomers* (lady's sports trousers);

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

d) bags, e.g. *bumbag* (a small bag worn on the waist), *sling bag* (a bag with a long belt), *maitre* (a small bag for cosmetics).

There are also such words as: *dangledolly* (a dolly-talisman dangling in the car before the windscreen), *boot-sale* (selling from the boot of the car), *touch-tone* (a telephone with press-button).

Neologisms can be also classified according to the ways they are formed. They are subdivided into:

- phonological neologisms;
- borrowings;
- semantic neologisms;
- syntactical neologisms. Syntactical neologisms are divided into morphological (word-building) and phraseological (forming word-groups).

Phonological neologisms are formed by combining unique combinations of sounds, they are called artificial, e.g. *rah-rah* (a short skirt which is worn by girls during parades). These are strong neologisms.

Strong neologisms include also phonetic borrowings, such as *solidarnosc* (Polish), *Berufsverbot* (German), *dolce vita* (Italian), etc.

Morphological and syntactical neologisms are usually built on patterns existing in the language, therefore they do not belong to the group of strong neologisms.

Among morphological neologisms there are a lot of compound words of different types, such as *free-fall* – різке падіння курсу акцій appeared in 1987 with the stock market crash in October 1987 (on the analogy with free-fall of parachutists, which is the period between jumping and opening the chute). Here also belong: *call-and-recall* – виклик на диспансеризацію, *bioastronomy* – search for life on other planets, *rat-out* – betrayal in danger, *zero-zero* (double zero) – ban of longer and shorter range weapon, *x-rated* (about films terribly vulgar and cruel), *Ameringlish* (American English), *tycoonography* – a biography of a business tycoon.

There are also abbreviations of different types, such as *resto, teen* (teenager), *dinky* (dual income no kids yet), *ARC* (AIDS-related condition, infection with AIDS), *HIV* (human immuno-deficiency virus).

Quite a number of neologisms appear on the analogy with lexical units existing in the language, e.g. *snowmobile* (automobile), *danceaholic* (alcoholic), *airtel* (hotel), *cheeseburger* (hamburger), *autocade* (cavalcade).

There are many neologisms formed by means of affixation, such as: *decompress, to disimprove, overhoused, educationalist, slimster, folknik,* etc. Phraseological neologisms can be subdivided into phraseological units with transferred meanings, e.g. *to buy into* (to become involved), *fudge and dudge* (avoidance of definite decisions), and set non-idiomatic expressions, e.g. *electronic virus, Rubic's cube, retail park, acid rain, boot trade,* etc.

THEME 9

LEXICOGRAPHY

Problems for discussion

1. Historical development of Lexicography.
2. Classifications of dictionaries.

Recommended literature

1. Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. С. 419–427.

1. Historical development of Lexicography

The theory and practice of compiling dictionaries is called **Lexicography**. The history of compiling dictionaries for English comes as far back as the Old English period, where we can find glosses of religious books (interlinear translations from Latin into English). Regular bilingual dictionaries began to appear in the 15-th century (Anglo-Latin, Anglo-French, Anglo-German).

The first unilingual dictionary explaining difficult words appeared in 1604, the author was R. Cawdry, a schoolmaster. He compiled his dictionary for schoolchildren. In 1721 an English scientist and writer N. Bailey published the first etymological dictionary which explained the origin of English words. It was the first scientific dictionary, it was compiled for philologists.

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

In 1858 one of the members of the English philological society Dr. Trench raised the question of compiling a dictionary including all the words existing in the language. The philological society adopted the decision to compile the dictionary and the work started. More than a thousand people took part in collecting examples, and 26 years later in 1884 the first volume was published. It contained words beginning with A and B. The last volume was published in 1928 that is 70 years after the decision to compile it was adopted. The dictionary was called NED and contained 12 volumes.

In 1933 the dictionary was republished under the title “The Oxford English Dictionary”, because the work on the dictionary was conducted in Oxford. This dictionary contained 13 volumes. As the dictionary was very large and terribly expensive scientists continued their work and compiled shorter editions of the dictionary “A Shorter Oxford Dictionary” consisting of two volumes. It had the same number of entries, but far less examples from literature. They also compiled “A Concise Oxford Dictionary” consisting of one volume and including only modern words and no examples from literature.

The American lexicography began to develop much later, at the end of the 18-th century. The most famous American English dictionary was compiled by N. Webster. He was an active stateman and public man and he published his first dictionary in 1806. He went on with his work on the dictionary and in 1828 he published a two-volume dictionary. He tried to simplify the English spelling and transcription. He introduced the alphabetical system of transcription where he used letters and

combinations of letters instead of transcription signs. He denoted vowels in closed syllables by the corresponding vowels, e.g. [a], [e], [i], [o], [u]. He denoted vowels in the open syllable by the same letters, but with a dash above them, e.g. [a], [e], [i], [o], [u]. He denoted vowels in the position before [r] as the same letters with two dots above them, e.g. [a], [o] and by the letter "e" with two dots above it for the combinations "er", "ir", "ur" because they are pronounced identically. The same tendency is preserved for other sounds: [u:] is denoted by [oo], [y] is used for the sound [j], etc.

2. Classifications of dictionaries

All dictionaries are divided into:

- linguistic;
- encyclopaedic.

Encyclopaedic dictionaries describe different objects, phenomena, people and give some data about them. **Linguistic dictionaries** describe vocabulary units, their semantic structure, their origin, their usage. Words are usually given in the alphabetical order. Linguistic dictionaries are divided into:

- general;
- specialized.

To **general dictionaries** two most widely used dictionaries belong:

- explanatory;
- translation.

Specialized dictionaries include:

- dictionaries of synonyms;
- dictionaries of antonyms;
- dictionaries of collocations;
- dictionaries of word-frequency;
- dictionaries of neologisms;
- dictionaries of slang;
- pronouncing dictionaries;
- etymological dictionaries;
- phraseological dictionaries and others.

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

There are a lot of **explanatory dictionaries** (NED, SOD, COD, NID, N.G., Wyld's "Universal Dictionary" and others). In explanatory dictionaries the entry consists of the spelling, transcription, grammatical forms, meanings, examples, phraseology. Pronunciation is given either by means of the International Transcription System or in British Phonetic Notation which is different in each large dictionary, e.g. [o:] can be indicated as [aw], [or], [oh], [o] etc.

Translation dictionaries give words and their equivalents in the other language.

Among general dictionaries we can also mention **Learner's dictionaries**. They began to appear in the second half of the 20-th century. The most famous is "The Advanced Learner's Dictionary" by A. Hornby. It is a unilingual dictionary based on COD, for advanced foreign learners and language teachers. It gives data about grammatical and lexical valency of words.

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

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

Phraseological dictionaries describe idioms and colloquial phrases, proverbs. Some of them have examples from literature. Some lexicographers include not only word-groups but also anomalies among words. In "The Oxford Dictionary of English Proverbs" each proverb is illustrated by a lot of examples, there are stylistic references as well. The dictionary by Vizetelli gives definitions and illustrations, but different meanings of polisemantic units are not given. The most famous bilingual dictionary of phraseology was compiled by O. Koonin. It is one of the best phraseological dictionaries.

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

Pronouncing dictionaries record only pronunciation. The most famous is D. Jones' s "Pronouncing Dictionary".

Dictionaries of neologisms are: a four-volume "Supplement to NED" by Burchfield, "The Longman Register of New Words" (1990), "Bloomsury Dictionary of New Words" (1996).

THEME 10

REGIONAL VARIETIES OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

Problems for discussion

1. Standard English variants and dialects.
2. American English.
3. Canadian, Australian and Indian variants.

Recommended literature

1. Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. С. 314–415.

1. Standard English variants and dialects

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 may be defined as that form of English which is current and literary, substantially uniform and recognised as acceptable wherever English is spoken or understood. Its vocabulary is contrasted to dialect words or dialecticisms.

Local dialects are varieties of the English language peculiar to some districts and having no normalised literary form. Regional varieties possessing a literary form are called **variants**. In Great Britain there are **two variants**, Scottish English and Irish English, and **five main groups of dialects**: Northern, Midland, Eastern, Western and Southern. Every group contains several (up to ten) dialects.

One of the best known Southern dialects is **Cockney**, the regional dialect of London. According to E. Partridge and H. Wylde, this dialect exists on two levels. As spoken by the educated lower middle classes it

is a regional dialect marked by some deviations in pronunciation but few in vocabulary and syntax. As spoken by the uneducated, Cockney differs from Standard English not only in pronunciation but also in vocabulary, morphology and syntax. G. Shaw's play "Pygmalion" clearly renders this level of Cockney as spoken at the time when the play was written and reveals the handicap Cockney obviously presents in competition with speakers of standard English. Professor Henry Higgins, the main character of the play, speaking about Eliza Doolittie, the flower girl, says: *You see this creature with her kerbstone English: the English that will keep her in the gutter to the end of her days. Well, sir, in three months I could pass this girl off as a duchess ... even get her a place as lady's maid or shop assistant which requires better English.*

"The Encyclopaedia Britannica" treats Cockney as an accent, not acknowledging it the status of dialect.

Cockney has attracted much literary attention, and so we can judge of its past and present on the evidence of literature. As recorded by Ch. Dickens over a century ago, Cockney was phonetically characterised by the interchange of the labial and labio-dental consonants [w] and [v]: *wery* for *very* and *vell* for *well.* This trait was lost by the end of the 19th century. The voiceless and voiced dental spirants [θ] and [∂] are still replaced – though not very consistently – by [f] and [v] respectively: *fing* for *thing* and *farver* for *father* (inserting the letter *r* indicates vowel length). This variation is not exclusively characteristic of Cockney and may be found in several dialects. Another trait not limited to Cockney is the interchange of the aspirated and non-aspirated initial vowels: *hart* for *art* and '*eart* for *heart.* The most marked feature in vowel sounds is the substitution of the diphthong [ai] for standard [ei] in such words as *day, face, rain, way* pronounced: [dai], [fais], [rain], [wai].

There are some specifically Cockney words and set expressions such as *up the pole* "drunk", *you'll get yourself disliked* (a remonstrance to a person behaving very badly).

Cockney is lively and witty and its vocabulary imaginative and colourful. Its specific feature not occurring anywhere else is the so-called rhyming slang, in which some words are substituted by other words rhyming with them. *Boots,* for instance, are called *daisy roots, hat* is *tit for tat, head* is sarcastically called *loaf of bread,* and *wife – trouble and strife.* It has set expressions of its own. Here is an example of a rather crude euphemistic phrase for being dead: *"She may have*

pulled me through me operation," said Mrs Fisher, "but ‘*streuth I'm not sure I wouldn't be better off pushing up the daisies, after all"* (M. Dickens).

The study of dialects has been made on the basis of information obtained with the help of special techniques: interviews, questionnaires, recording by phonograph and tape-recorder, etc. Data collected in this way show the territorial distribution of certain key words and pronunciations which vary from region to region.

Dialects are now chiefly preserved in rural communities, in the speech of elderly people. Their boundaries have become less stable than they used to be; the distinctive features are tending to disappear with the shifting of population due to the migration of working-class families in search of employment and the growing influence of urban life over the countryside. Dialects are said to undergo rapid changes under the pressure of Standard English taught at schools and the speech habits cultivated by radio, television and cinema.

For the most part dialect in literature has been limited to speech characterisation of personages in books otherwise composed in Standard English. There are Yorkshire passages in "Wuthering Heights" by Emily Brontë, and Lancashire passages in "Mary Barton" by E. Gaskell. A Southern dialect (that of Dorset) is sometimes introduced by Th. Hardy, A. Tennyson used Lancashire dialect in two of his poems reproducing peasant speech ("Northern Farmer: Old Style" and "Northern Farmer: New Style").

"The Northern Farmer: Old Style" is the monologue of a dying old man. He knows that his death is near and is resigned to it: *"If I must die I must die"*. He wants his nurse to bring him ale, although doctor has forbidden it. The last stanza runs as follows: *"What atta stannin' theer for, an' doesn bring ma the yaäle? Doctor's a* ‘*tattier, lass, an a's hallus V the owd taäle; I weänt break rules for Doctor, a knows now moor nora floy, Git ma my yaäle I tell tha, an gin I mun doy I mun doy"* (Tennyson).

The dialect vocabulary is remarkable for its conservatism: many words that have become obsolete in standard English are still kept in dialects, e. g. *to and* "envy" < OE *andian; barge* "pig" < OE *berg; bysen* "blind" < OE *bisene* and others.

According to O. Jespersen, however, dialect study suffered from too much attention being concentrated on the "archaic" traits. "Every survival of an old form, every trace of old sounds that have been

dropped in standard speech, was greeted with enthusiasm, and the significance of these old characteristics greatly exaggerated, the general impression being that popular dialects were always much more conservative than the speech of educated people. It was reserved for a much later time to prove that this view is completely erroneous, and that popular dialects in spite of many archaic details are on the whole further developed than the various standard languages with their stronger tradition and literary reminiscences".

The standard work of reference in dialect study is Joseph Wright's "English Dialect Dictionary".

After this brief review of dialects we shall now proceed to the discussion of variants.

The Scottish Tongue and the Irish English have a special linguistic status as compared with dialects because of the literature composed in them. The name of Robert Burns, the great national poet of Scotland, is known all over the world. There is a whole group of modern poets including Hugh MacDiarmid writing in this variant of the English language.

A few lines from R. Burns's poem dedicated to his friend James Smith will illustrate the general character of Scottish:

To James Smith

1

Dear Smith, the *slee'st, pawkie* thief
That e'er attempted stealth or *rief!*
Ye surely hae some *warlock-brief*
Owre human hearts;
For ne'er a bosom yet was *prief*
Against your arts.

2

For me, I swear by sun and moon,
And every star that blinks *aboon,*
Ye've cost me twenty pair *o'shoon*
Just *gaun* to see you;
And *ev'ry ither* pair that's done
Mair taen I'm wi' you...

Here *slee'st* meant "slyest", *pawkie* "cunning", "sly", *rief*

"robbery", *warlock-brief* "wizard's contract" (with the devil), *prief* "proof", *aboon* "above", *shoon* "shoes". The other dialect words differing only in pronunciation from their English counterparts *(owre* : : *over; mair* : : *more)* are readily understood.

The poetic features of Anglo-Irish may be seen in the plays by J. M. Synge and Sean O'Casey. The latter's name is worth an explanation in this connection. *O*' is Gaelic and means "of the clan of". Cf. *Mac* – the Gaelic for "son" found in both Scottish and Irish names. *Sean,* also spelled *Shawn* and pronounced [So:n], is the Irish for *John.*

Some traits of Anglo-Irish may be observed in the following lines from "The Playboy of the Western World" by J. M. Synge: *I've told my story no place till this night, Pegeen Mike, and it's foolish I was here, maybe, to be talking free, but you're decent people, I'm thinking, and yourself a kindly woman, the way I was not fearing you at all.*

Pegeen exemplifies the diminutive suffix found in Standard English only in loan-words. The emphatic personal pronoun *yourself* appears in a non-appositional construction. Cf. also *It was yourself started it* (O'Casey). The main peculiarities concern syntax, and they are reflected in some form words. The concrete connective word *the way* substitutes the abstract conjunction so *that.* Cf. also *the time that, the while* for *when,* and *all times* for *always.* E.g.: *I'd hear himself snoring out – a loud, lonesome snore he'd be making all times, the while he was sleeping', and he a man'd be raging all times the while he was waking* (Synge). The Anglo-Irish of J. M. Synge, however, should not be taken as a faithful reproduction of real speech, as it is imbued with many romantic poetic archaisms.

Words from dialects and variants may penetrate into Standard English. The Irish English gave, for instance, *blarney* n "flattery", *bog* n "a spongy, usually peaty ground of marsh". This word in its turn gave rise to many derivatives and compounds, among them *bog-trotter,* the ironical nickname for Irishman. *Shamrock* (a trifoliate plant, the national emblem of Ireland) is a word used quite often, and so is the noun *whiskey.*

The contribution of the Scottish dialect is very considerable. Some of the most frequently used Scotticisms are: *bairn* "child", *billy* "chum", *bonny* "handsome", *brogue* "a stout shoe", *glamour* "charm", *laddie, lassie, kilt, raid, slogan, tartan, wee,* etc.

A great deal in this process is due to Robert Burns who wrote his poems in Scottish English, and to Walter Scott who introduced many

Scottish words into his novels.

2. American English

The variety of English spoken in the USA has received the name of **American English**. The term variant or variety appears most appropriate for several reasons. American English cannot be called a dialect although it is a regional variety, because it has a literary normalised form called Standard American (or American National Standard), whereas by definition given above a dialect has no literary form. Neither is it a separate language, as some American authors, like H. L. Mencken, claimed, because it has neither grammar nor vocabulary of its own. From the lexical point of view we shall have to deal only with a heterogeneous set of Americanisms.

An **Americanism** may be defined as a word or a set expression peculiar to the English language as spoken in the USA. E. g. *cookie* "a biscuit"; *frame-up* "a staged or preconcerted law case"; *guess* "think"; *mail* "post"; *store* "shop".

A general and comprehensive description of the American variant is given in Professor A. Schweitzer's monograph. An important aspect of his treatment is the distinction made between Americanisms belonging to the literary norm and those existing in low colloquial and slang. The difference between the American and British literary norm is not systematic.

The American variant of the English language differs from British English in pronunciation, some minor features of grammar, but chiefly in vocabulary, and this paragraph will deal with the latter. Our treatment will be mainly diachronic.

Speaking about the historic causes of these deviations it is necessary to mention that American English is based on the language imported to the new continent at the time of the first settlements, that is on the English of the 17th century. The first colonies were founded in 1607, so that the first colonisers were contemporaries of W. Shakespeare, E. Spenser and J. Milton. Words which have died out in Britain, or changed their meaning may survive in the USA. Thus, *I guess,* was used by G. Chaucer for *I think.* For more than three centuries the American vocabulary developed more or less independently of the British stock and was influenced by the new surroundings. The early Americans had to coin words for the unfamiliar fauna and flora. Hence

bullfrog “a large frog”, *moose* (the American elk), *opossum, raccoon* (an American animal related to the bears) for animals; and *corn, hickory,* etc. for plants.

The opposition of any two lexical systems among the variants described is of great linguistic and heuristic value, because it furnishes ample data for observing the influence of extra-linguistic factors upon vocabulary. American political vocabulary shows this point very definitely: *absentee voting* “voting by mail”, *dark horse* “a candidate nominated unexpectedly and not known to his voters”, *gerrymander* “to arrange and falsify the electoral process to produce a favourable result in the interests of a particular party or candidate”, *all-outer* “an adept of decisive measures”.

Both in the USA and Great Britain the meaning of *leftist* is “an adherent of the left wing of a party”. In the USA it also means a left-handed person and *lefty* in the USA is only “a left-handed person” while in Great Britain it is a colloquial variant of *leftist* and has a specific sense of a communist or socialist.

Many of the foreign elements borrowed into American English from the Indian languages or from Spanish penetrated very soon not only into British English but also into several other languages and so became international due to the popularity of J. F. Cooper and H. Longfellow. They are: *canoe, moccasin, squaw, tomahawk, wigwam,* etc. and translation loans: *pipe of peace, pale-face* and the like, taken from Indian languages. The Spanish borrowings like *cafeteria, mustang, ranch, sombrero,* etc. are very familiar to the speakers of many European languages. It is only by force of habit that linguists still include these words among the specific features of American English.

As to the toponyms, for instance *Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Missouri, Utah* (all names of Indian tribes), or other names of towns, rivers and states named by Indian words, it must be borne in mind that in all countries of the world towns, rivers and the like show in their names traces of the earlier inhabitants of the land in question.

Another big group of peculiarities as compared with the English of Great Britain is caused by some specific features of pronunciation, stress or spelling standards, such as [æ] for [a:] in *ask, dance, path,* etc., or [e] for [ei] in *made, day* and some other.

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

humour. *Altho* stands for *although* and *thru* for *through.* The table below illustrates some of the other differences but it is by no means exhaustive. For a more complete treatment the reader is referred to the monograph by A. Schweitzer.

British spelling	**American spelling**
cosy	*cozy*
offence	*offense*
practice	*practise*
jewellery	*jewelry*
travelling	*traveling*
thraldom	*thralldom*
encase	*incase*

In the course of time with the development of the modern means of communication the lexical differences between the two variants show a tendency to decrease. Americanisms penetrate into Standard English and Britishisms come to be widely used in American speech. Americanisms mentioned as specific in manuals issued a few decades ago are now used on both sides of the Atlantic or substituted by terms formerly considered as specifically British. It was, for instance, customary to contrast the English word *autumn* with the American *fall.* In reality both words are used in both countries, only *autumn* is somewhat more elevated, while in England the word *fall* is now rare in literary use, though found in some dialects and surviving in set expressions: *spring and fait, the fall of the year* are still in fairly common use.

Cinema and TV are probably the most important channels for the passage of Americanisms into the language of Britain and other languages as well: the Germans adopted the word *teenager* and the French speak of *l'automatisation.* The influence of American advertising is also a vehicle of Americanisms. This is how the British term *wireless* is replaced by the Americanism *radio.*

The personal visits of British writers and scholars to the USA and all forms of other personal contacts bring back Americanisms.

The existing cases of difference between the two variants are conveniently classified into:

1) Cases where there are no equivalents in British English: *drive-in* "a cinema where you can see the film without getting out of your car" or "a shop where motorists buy things staying in the car"; *dude ranch* "a sham ranch used as a summer residence for holiday-makers

from the cities".

2) Cases where different words are used for the same denotatum, such as *can, candy, mailbox, movies, suspenders, truck* in the USA and *tin, sweets, pillar-box* (or *letter-box), pictures* or *flicks, braces* and *lorry* in England.

3) Cases where the semantic structure of a partially equivalent word is different. The word *pavement,* for example, means in the first place "covering of the street or the floor and the like made of asphalt, stones or some other material". In England the derived meaning is "the footway at the side of the road". The Americans use the noun *sidewalk* for this, while *pavement* with them means "the roadway".

4) Cases where otherwise equivalent words are different in distribution. The verb *ride* in Standard English is mostly combined with such nouns as *a horse, a bicycle,* more seldom they say *ride on a bus.* In American English combinations like *a ride on the train, ride in a boat* are quite usual.

5) It sometimes happens that the same word is used in American English with some difference in emotional and stylistic colouring. *Nasty,* for example, is a much milder expression of disapproval in England than in the States, where it was even considered obscene in the 19th century. *Politician* in England means "someone in polities", and is derogatory in the USA. Professor A. Schweitzer pays special attention to phenomena differing in social norms of usage. For example, *balance* in its lexico-semantic variant "the remainder of anything" is substandard in British English and quite literary in America.

6) Last but not least, there may be a marked difference in frequency characteristics. Thus, *time-table* which occurs in American English very rarely, yielded its place to *schedule.*

This question of different frequency distribution is also of paramount importance if we wish to investigate the morphological peculiarities of the American variant. Practically speaking the same patterns and means of word-formation are used in coining neologisms in both variants. Only the frequency observed in both cases may be different. Some of the suffixes more frequently used in American English are: -ee *(draftee* n "a young man about to be enlisted"), -ette *(tambour-majorette* "one of the girl drummers in front of a procession"), -dom and -ster, as in *roadster* "motorcar for long journeys by road" or *gangsterdom.*

The trend to shorten words and to use initial abbreviations in

American English is even more pronounced than in the British variant. New coinages are incessantly introduced in advertisements, in the press, in everyday conversation; soon they fade out and are replaced by the newest creations. R. Lardner, very popular in the 30s, makes one of his characters, a hospital nurse, repeatedly use two enigmatic abbreviations: G.F. and B.F.; at last the patient asks her to clear the mystery.

"*What about Roy Stewart?" asked the man in bed.*

"*Oh, he's the fella I was telling you about," said Miss Lyons. "He's my G.F.'s B.F."*

"*Maybe I'm a D.F. not to know, but would you tell me what a B.F. and G.F. are?"*

"*Well, you are dumb, aren't you!" said Miss Lyons. "A G.F. that's a girl friend, and a B.F. is a boy friend. I thought everybody knew that".*

The phrases *boy friend* and *girl friend*, now widely used everywhere, originated in the USA. So it is an Americanism in the wider meaning of the term, i.e. an Americanism *by right of birth*, whereas in the above definition we have defined Americanisms synchronically as lexical units peculiar to the English language as spoken in the USA.

Particularly common in American English are verbs with the hanging postpositive. They say that in Hollywood you never *meet* a man: you *meet up* with him, you do not *study* a subject but *study up* on it. In British English similar constructions serve to add a new meaning.

With words possessing several structural variants it may happen that some are more frequent in one country and the others in another. Thus, *amid* and *toward*, for example, are more often used in the United States and *amidst* and *towards* in Great Britain.

The lexical peculiarities of American English are an easy target for ironical outbursts on the part of some writers. John Updike is mildly humorous. His short poem "Philological" runs as follows:

The British puss demurely mews;
His transatlantic kin meow,
The kine in Minnesota moo;
Not so the gentle Devon cows:
They low,

As every schoolchild ought to know.

A well-known humourist G. Mikes goes as far as to say: "It was decided almost two hundred years ago that English should be the language spoken in the United States. It is not known, however, why this decision has not been carried out". In his book "How to Scrape Skies" he gives numerous examples to illustrate this proposition: "You must be extremely careful concerning the names of certain articles. If you ask for suspenders in a man's shop, you receive a pair of braces, if you ask for a pair of pants, you receive a pair of trousers, and should you ask for a pair of braces, you receive a queer look.

I should like to mention that although a lift is called an elevator in the United States, when hitch-hiking, you do not ask for an elevator, you ask for a lift.

There is some confusion about the word *flat.* A flat in America is called an apartment; what t h e y call a flat is a puncture in your tyre (or as they spell it, tire). Consequently the notice: FLATS FIXED does not indicate an estate agent where they are going to fix you up with a flat, but a garage where they are equipped to mend a puncture".

Disputing the common statement that there is no such thing as the American nation, he says: "They do indeed exist. They have produced the American constitution, the American way of life, the comic strips in their newspapers: they have their national game, baseball – which is cricket played with a strong American accent – and they have a national language, entirely their own, unlike any other language".

This is of course an exaggeration, but a very significant one. It confirms the fact that there is a difference between the two variants to be reckoned with. Although not sufficiently great to warrant American English the status of an independent language, it is considerable enough to make a mixture of variants sound unnatural and be called Mid-Atlantic. Students of English should be warned against this danger.

3. Canadian, Australian and Indian variants

It should of course be noted that American English is not the only existing variant. There are several other variants where difference from the British standard is normalised. Besides the Irish and Scottish variants, there are Australian English, Canadian English, Indian English. Each of these has developed a literature of its own, and is characterised by peculiarities in phonetics, spelling, grammar and vocabulary.

Canadian English is influenced both by British and American English but it also has some specific features of its own. Specifically Canadian words are called **Canadianisms.** They are not very frequent outside Canada, except *shack* "a hut" and *fathom out* "to explain".

The vocabulary of all the variants is characterised by a high percentage of borrowings from the language of the people who inhabited the land before the English colonisers came. Many of them denote some specific realia of the new country: local animals, plants or weather conditions, new social relations, new trades and conditions of labour. The local words for new notions penetrate into the English language and later on may become international, if they are of sufficient interest and importance for people speaking other languages.

International words coming through the English of India are for instance: *bungalow* n, *jute* n, *khaki* a, *mango* n, *nabob* n, *pyjamas, sahib, sari.*

Similar examples, though perhaps fewer in number, such as *boomerang, dingo, kangaroo,* are all adopted into the English language through its **Australian variant** and became international. They denote the new phenomena found by English immigrants on the new continent. A high percentage of words borrowed from the native inhabitants of Australia will be noticed in the sonorous Australian place names.

It has been noticed by a number of linguists that the British attitude to this phenomenon is somewhat peculiar. When anyone other than an Englishman uses English, the natives of Great Britain, often half-consciously, perhaps, feel that they have a special right to criticise his usage because it is "their" language. It is, however, unreasonable with respect to people in the United States, Canada, Australia and some other areas for whom English is their mother tongue. At present there is no single "correct" English and the American, Canadian and Australian English have developed standards of their own. It would therefore have been impossible to attempt a lexicological description of all the variants simultaneously.

UNIT III

PLANS OF PRACTICAL LESSONS

MODULE I

Practical Lesson 1

General problems of Lexicology. Theory of the word

Problems for discussion

1. Speak of Lexicology as a brunch of Linguistics.
2. What is the aim and significance of the course of Lexicology?
3. Name the theoretical principles of the vocabulary study.
4. What are the linguistic relationships between words?
5. What research methods used in Lexicology do you know?
6. What is motivation? What types of motivation do you know?

Main terminology

Word, syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships, immediate constituents, substitution, paraphrasing, motivation.

Practical assignments

Exercise 1. *Study the following passages and explain A. Gardiner's approach to the problem of "word" and "thing".*

The relation of word to thing-meant may be defined in two ways: either the word expresses the class of the thing-meant, or else it qualifies the thing-meant in the manner that a predicative adjective might qualify it. Both descriptions amount to the same in reality, but it will be best to consider them separately. It belongs to the nature of s "word", as that term is universally understood, to be utilizable over and over again in many different contexts and situations. This being the case, it is obvious that every word is susceptible of referring to many different particular things, to each of which it applies as a sort of common label. Hence every word without exception is a class-name; in uttering it the speaker

is virtually saying, “Here is a class, and the thing I mean you to understand belongs to that class”. The class is known to the listener by his *previous* experiences, the word having been applied by others or by himself to many other things falling under the same class. The thing *now* meant may or may not have been among the previous experiences associated with the word. If it has been, the listener identifies it by sheer memory; if not, he recognized it by its resemblance to some of those previous experiences. For example: *My uncle has bought a new horse.* The thing-meant is the actual horse recently bought by my uncle; this I have not seen, but I catch my first glimpse of it, so to speak, by comparing my previous experiences of what is meant by the word *horse* with my knowledge of my uncle’s preferences in horseflesh. But the sentence might have been: *My uncle has sold his old horse.* Now I know that old horse, and have heard it often alluded to by my uncle as *my horse.* Here the thing-meant has for me been long included in the class horse, so that, aided by the context, I have no difficulty in identifying it once again…

The only real difficulty about viewing words as class-names is that we usually think of classes as assemblages of individual things which are all alike in some particular. But the meaning of words often covers applications between which it is impossible to discover any point of resemblance. Thus the word *file* if applied both to the stiff, pointed wires on which documents are run for keeping and also to front rank men followed by other men in a line straight behind them. The resemblance comes onto view only when it is realized that *file* is derived from Latin *filum* a thread … … the utterance of a word is equivalent to saying to the listener: Here is a name representing something like A, like B, like C, or like D, where A, B, C and D are the various types or subclasses of thing covered by the same comprehensive word or class-name.

(Alan H. Gardiner. The Theory of Speech and Language)

Exercise 2. *Read the passages below and answer questions which follow them.*

AMBIGUITY OF THE TERM “WORD”

The term “word” has been used in the preceding paragraphs in three quite different senses. The first two senses are readily distinguished in terms of the notion of “realization”. Just as we must

distinguish between the morph as the phonological (or orthographical) representation of the morpheme, so we must distinguished between phonological (or orthographical) words and the grammatical words which they represent. For example, the phonological word and the corresponding orthographic word *sang* represent a particular grammatical word, which is traditionally referred to as "the past tense of *sing*"; whereas the phonological word and the corresponding orthographic word *cut* represent three different grammatical words: "the present tense of *cut*", the past tense of *cut*" and the "past participle of *cut*". It has already been mentioned that phonological and orthographical words in English are generally in one-to-one correspondence with one another in the sense that they represent the same set of (one or more) grammatical words (cf. the examples just given). But there are some instances of (a) one-many or (b) many-one correspondence between phonological and grammatical words: cf. (a) ['poustm n]: *postmen, postman;* [mi:t]: *meat, meet,* etc.; (b) [ri:d], [red]: *read* (the present tense of *read,* the past tense of *read;* [red] is also in correspondence with the orthographic word *red,* and [ri:d] with the orthographic word *reed*). Many other languages besides English, whose spelling conventions are popularly said to be only partly "phonetic" (in a non-technical usage of the term "phonetic"), provide similar examples of one-many or many-one correspondence between phonological and orthographical words.

WORD AND "LEXEME"

There is third, more "abstract", usage of the term "word". It was this usage that we employed above when we said, for instance, that in traditional grammar whereas *singing* is but a form of the word *sing ... singer* is a different word, with its own set of forms, or "paradigm"; and the same, more "abstract" sense was implicit in our reference to *sang* as "the past tense of *sing*". Modern linguists have tended to neglect, or even to condemn, this more "abstract" usage. Bloomfield, for example, says that the school tradition is "inaccurate" in referring to units like *book, books,* or *do, does, did, done,* as "different forms of the same word". But it is Bloomfield himself who is here guilty of inaccuracy. It is up to us to decide which way we wish to define, the term "word". The important ting is to keep the three senses apart. Modern linguists have not always done this consistently and as a result they have frequently misinterpreted traditional grammatical theory. It is, of course, the more

abstract sense that the term "word" bears in classical grammar. However, since most linguists now employ the term "word" to refer to such phonological or orthographic units as [s] or *sang*, on the one hand, or to the grammatical units they represent, on the other (and indeed do not always distinguish even between these two senses), we shall introduce another term "lexeme" to denote the more "abstract" units which occur in different inflexional "forms" according to the syntactic rules involved in the generation of sentences.

(John Lyons. Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics)

Questions

1. How do you define the term "word"?
2. What does John Lyons mean by a "grammatical word" as distinct from a "phonological word"? What terms would you use in this case?
3. What is meant here by the more "abstract" usage of the term "word"?

Exercise 3. *Read the following passages. Discuss the difference in the approach to the definition of the word as exemplified by Charles F. Hockett and Ladislav Zgusta.*

The everyday use of the English word "word" is not very precise. In general, the layman looks to writing, and classes as a word whatever he finds written between successive spaces. So *matchbox* is one word, *match box* two, and *match-box* two or one depending on whether or not a hyphen is interpreted as a special sort of space. That three spellings reflect a single combination of morphemes with a single pronunciation is ignored.

When we look at language directly rather than via writing we must seek other criteria for the determination of words. There are several usable criteria, but they do not yield identical results. The criterion that is easier to apply yield units most like the "words" of the layman, and it is for these that we shall reserve the term…

Determining Words through Pause and Isolability.

At the first step in determining the words in an utterance, we ask speakers to repeat the utterance slowly and carefully. Suppose someone has just said *john treats his older sisters very nicely* in the normal rapid

way, as a single macrosegment. If we ask for a slow repetition, he may break the sentence up into as many as seven successive macrosegments, each with its own intonation and with intervening pauses: *John, treats, his, older, sisters, very, nicely.* Or he may not pause quite so often: *his, older,* or *very nicely,* might be kept as a single microsegment. Thus we may have to elicit more than one slow careful delivery before we can be sure we have obtained the maximum break-up. Only under very artificial conditions, however, would anyone pause at additional points, say between *old* and *-er.*

A word is thus any segment of a sentence bounded by successive points *at which pausing is possible* The example contains seven words. It contains this number whether actually delivered as one macrosegment or as several, since words are defined in terms of *potential* pauses not the actual pauses in any one delivery.

(Charles F. Hockett. A Course in Modern Linguistics)

Words can be conceived as interpersonal units of language, as signs of the system of a language which are used by the speakers of that language above all to construct sentences. In the sentences, words are used to refer to parts of the extralinguistic (not necessarily material or physically really existing) world, as understood by the respective speakers, to indicate the sentence's constructional patterns, and to perform other similar functions.

Exercise 4. *Read the following passage and give other examples to illustrate the point.*

An additional proof of our solution of the size-of-unit problem is that the content of words, in contrast to that of morphemes is not confined to meaning. Words regularly carry certain overtones, certain stylistic connotations which are a most important part of human communication. Thus, for instance, the content of a word like *rustic* is not confined to its meaning proper, i.e. "relating to the country; rural, the opposite of urban", etc. over and above this meaning the use of the word is connected with connotations of different kinds. When used in a meliorative sense it connotes "simple, unaffected, artless". Its pejorative connotations are "rough, boorish, unrefined, uncouth", etc.

Exercise 5. *There are many relevant terms in the Mouton advertisement which follows. Make a list of them and see how many you can define and illustrate.*

THE WORD AS A LINGUISTIC UNIT

by Jiri Kramsky

This is the first monograph devoted solely to the problem of the *word as a linguistic unit.*

Having discussed the placement of the *word* is the system of language, the author tries to verify the existing criteria of the *word*, that is to say: the semantic criterion, the criteria of separability, replaceability and displaceability, the criterion of isolatedness and the phonetic criterion. A very detailed discussion is devoted to the acoustic identity of the *word* which is regarded to be dependent on the functional relevance of particular phonemes of the *word* in their interrelations not only within the framework of the same word (but also within the framework of the semantic relations between the particular words of the utterance). The book provides a thorough analysis of the functional theory of meaning and form, of the problem of homonymy, of the question of the delimitation of *word units* in the written norm of various languages and of the relation between *word* and *sign.*

The author tries to give a definition of the *word* broad enough to be applied to the greatest possible number of languages of the world.

CONTENTS: The Place of the Word in the Language System. – Criteria of the Word; The Semantic Criterion. – The Criteria of Separability, Replaceability, and Displaceability. – The Criterion of Isolatedness. – The Phonetic Criterion. – The Problem of the Acoustic Identity of the Word. – The Cohesion of the Word. – Form and Meaning. – Homonymy. – The Word in the Written Language Norm. – The Word as a Linguistic Sign. – The Definition of the Word; The Definition. – The Psychological Criterion. – The Grammatical Form of the Word. – The Problem of the So-called Wordless Languages. – Conclusion. – Bibliography. – Indexes of Names.

Recommended literature

1. Лексикологія англійської мови : посібник / уклад. І. О. Білецька. Умань : СПД Жовтий, 2015. 130 с.

2. Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. С. 10–12.

Practical Lesson 2

Modern English Vocabulary

Problems for discussion

1. What are the ways of word-grouping?
2. What Lexical Strata of the English Vocabulary do you know? Describe each of them:
   a) stylistically neutral words;
   b) special terminology;
   c) barbarisms;
   d) poetical words;
   e) archaisms;
   f) neologisms;
   g) colloquial words;
   h) professional and jargon words;
   i) slang.
3. What is Standard English? What is the difference between Standard English and Cockney?
4. What is the basic word-stock of English?
5. Speak of the total volume of the English vocabulary.

Main terminology

Non-semantic grouping: alphabetical, rhyming; morphological grouping: root words, derivatives, compound words, compound derivatives; notional words, form words; lexico-grammatical groups: personal names, animal names, abstract nouns, material nouns, object nouns, toponymic proper names; stylistically neutral words; literary-bookish words: terms, barbarisms, poetic words, archaisms, literary

neologisms; colloquial words: literary, non-literary (slang, jargonism, professionalism, vulgarism); standard English.

Material to use

Strata of English vocabulary

Stylistically-neutral words	Stylistically-marked words	
	Informal	Formal
Basic vocabulary	I. Colloquial words: A. literary; B. familiar; C. low. II. Slang words. III. Dialect words.	I. Learned words: A. literary; B. words of scientific prose; C. officialese; D. modes of poetic diction. II. Archaic and obsolete words. III. Professional terminology.

Practical assignments

Exercise 1. *Comment on special terms. Pick out special terms from the extract below. State what branch of science or sphere of life they belong to.*

I. Acute leukemia is more indolent than has been thought. There is good precedence for it in other hematology disorders.

II. The word plays such a crucial part in the structure of language that we need a special branch of linguistics to examine it in all its aspects. This branch is called Lexicology and it forms, next to Phonology, the second basic division of linguistic science.

III. A fraction is a part of some thing which is treated as a whole or a unit. In arithmetic, a proper fraction is a number which represents a part, that is, a number which is less than 1. In writing a common fraction, two numbers are used, called the numerator and denominator.

Exercise 2. *Pick out learned words from the extract below. Translate it into Ukrainian.*

Like most sensitive people he was subject to moods, affected by the weather and the season of the year. He could pass very rapidly from a mood of exuberant gaiety almost to despair. A chance remark – as I myself found – was enough to effect that unfortunate change. He had a habit always of implying more or less than he said, of assuming that others would always jump with the implied, not with the expressed, thought. Similarly, he always expected the same sort of subtle obliquity of expression in others, and very seldom took remarks at their face value. He could never be convinced or convince himself that there were not implications under the most commonplace remark. I suppose he had very early developed this habit of irony as a protection and as a method of being scornful with seeing innocence. He never got rid of it.

Exercise 3. *Comment on the barbarisms in bold type. State what language they came from and give their stylistically neutral synonyms.*

1. The first months, Clara watched her **new au pair** girl closely. 2. **Khozraschot** means the end of huge subsidies to inefficient enterprises, which will result in closures and lay-offs. 3. "Well, I've thought over this **demarche** of Getliffs". 4. We never can say what is in us. I most certainly should not be despondent. **Per aspera ad astra.** 5. Do you intend that now, the squat student said, as **ipso facto** or, let us say, as so to speak?

Exercise 4. *Comment on the concept "Slang". The following are some slang words and phrases. Mind their vulgar, cynical and harsh sounding.*

Face: mug, phiz.
Head: attic, brain-pan, hat peg, upper storey.
Girl, woman: baby, baggage, chick(en), doll, mouse, witch.
Money: beans, brass, buttons, dibs, dough, chink.
Drunk: boozy, cock-eyed, high.
To have a drink: to crack a bottle, to wet one's whistle, to be on the booze.

Exercise 5. *Translate the following sentences. Comment on slang words and phrases in bold type.*

1. Tell the **old bag** to mind her own business. 2. I need some **dough** to buy some groceries. 3. I need to get some **bread** to live on. 4. Who's the **doll** I saw you with last night? 5. Let's go out and **booze up**! 6. I am too **muggy** to drive. 7. Wipe that smile off your **mug**! 8. He's been drinking since noon and is pretty **wet**. 9. Hard liquor makes people **soft**.

Recommended literature

1. Лексикологія англійської мови : посібник для студентів спеціальності «англійська мова і література» / уклад. І. О. Білецька. Умань : СПД Жовтий, 2015. 130 с.
2. Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. С. 10–12.

Practical Lessons 3-4

Etymology of English words

Problems for discussion

1. What are native words in English? What their characteristic features do you know?
2. Speak of classification of borrowings according to the borrowed aspects.
3. Classification of borrowings according to the degree of assimilation.
4. What Latin borrowings are there in English? Which words were introduced into English vocabulary during the period of Christianization? What are the characteristic features of words borrowed into English during Renaissance?
5. Two periods of Norman-French borrowings.
6. Italian borrowings. Spanish borrowings. Scandinavian borrowings. German borrowings. Holland borrowings.
7. What do you understand by etymological doublets?
8. What do you know about International words?

Main terminology

A borrowed word, a native word, source of borrowing, origin of borrowing, semantic loan, Latin borrowings, Norman-French borrowings, etymological doublets, international words.

Material to use

The Etymological Structure of English Vocabulary

The native element	The borrowed element
I. Indo-European element II. Germanic element III. English Proper element (no earlier than 5th c. A.D.)	I. Celtic (5th-6th c. A.D.). II. Latin: - 1st group: 1st c. B.C.; - 2nd group: 7th c. A.D.; - 3rd group: the Renaissance period. III. Scandinavian (8th-11th c. A.D.). IV. French: - Norman borrowings (11th-13th c. A.D.); - Parisian borrowings (Renaissance). V. Greek (Renaissance). VI. Italian (Renaissance and later). VII. Spanish (Renaissance and later). VIII. German. IX. Indian. X. Some other groups.

French Affixes

Nouns	the suffix *-ance*	*arrogance, endurance, hindrance*
	the suffix *-ence*	*concequence, intelligence, patience*
	the suffix *-ment*	*appointment, development*
	the suffix *-age*	*courage, marriage, passage*
	the suffix *-ess*	*tigress, lioness, actress*
Adjectives	the suffix *-ous*	*curious, dangerous, serious*
Verbs	the prefix *en-*	*enable, endear, enact, enfold*

Some Native Suffixes

Noun-forming	-er	*worker, miner, teacher, painter*
	-ness	*coldness, loneliness, loveliness*
	-ing	*feeling, meaning, singing, reading*
	-dom	*freedom, wisdom, kingdom*
	-hood	*cildhood, manhood, motherhood*
	-ship	*friendship, companionship, mastership*
	-th	*length, breadth, health, truth*
Adjective-forming	-ful	*careful, joyful, wonderful, sinful, skilful*
	-less	*careless, sleepless, couldless, senseless*
	-y	*cozy, tidy, merry, snowy, showy*
	-ish	*english, spanish, reddish, childish*
	-ly	*lonely, lovely, ugly, lordly*
	-en	*wooden, woollen, silken, golden*
	-some	*handsome, quarrelsome, tiresome*
Verb-forming	-en	*widen, redden, darken, sadden*
Adverb-forming	-ly	*warmly, hardly, simply, carefully, coldly*

Latin Affixes

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

Practical assignments

Exercise 1. *Arrange the following Latin borrowings in groups according to the period of their borrowing.*

Altar, angel, animal, ass, beet, bishop, butter, camp, candle, cap, chalk, cross, cup, devil, dish, fork, genius, inch, index, item, junior, kettle, kitchen, linen, marble, maximum, mile, mill, minimum, monk, mule, oil, palm, pea, peach, pear, pearl, pepper, pine, plant, plum, port, pound, priest, Psalter, school, senior, series, spade, stratum, street, tiger, veto, wall, wine.

Exercise 2. *Pick out the Ukrainian borrowings from the following sentences. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian.*

1. They tried to reveal the mystery of the legendary Hetman Pavlo Polubotok's treasures. 2. Ukraine is the biggest supplier of horilka. 3. Now the "Pysanka" duet has in its repertoire spring songs: gaivki, vesnianki; …Christmas songs – shchedrivki, koliadki. 4. The tune to the concert was set by kobzar Pavlo Suprun…

Exercise 3. *State from what languages the following words are borrowed. Comment on their meaning.*

Alarm, algebra, anchor, banana, bandura, canoe, caravan, chocolate, colonel, czar, devil, dollar, gorilla, hopak, kindergarten, law, lilac, machine, mazurka, opera, piano, school, tobacco, umbrella, waltz.

Exercise 4. *Arrange the following French borrowings into: a) law terms; b) military terms; c) religious terms; d) cookery terms; e) art terms; f) medical terms.*

Accuse, admiral, army, arrest, art, bacon, banner, battle, bible, boil, cadet, clergy, color, conquest, court, defense, dinner, fatigue, fortress, fruit, genre, gout, image, jelly, judge, juice, malady, music, mutton, ornament, pain, paradise, pastry, pray, pulse, remedy, saint, sausage, siege, soldier, song, soup, surgeon, talent, taste, toast, tragedy, veal, vinegar, war.

Exercise 5. *Translate the following sentences. Pick out borrowings. Comment on their origin and assimilation.*

1. I liked the way the light shone on the roofs and the rivers and the rococo buildings of the university. 2. They took a cab and sauntered up the crowded boulevard till they came to a cafe they liked the look of. 3. He played Chopen. He played two waltzes that were familiar to me, a polonaise and an etude. He played with a great deal of brio. 4. It was she who gave Sir Stafford Ny's address to the chauffeur. 5. He sent a note to his sister via his man Joseph to ask her to come to the library so that could have a talk. 6. I bundled my things into a rucksack. 7. We had a drink, walked along to a restaurant where we could lunch in the open air. 8. They stopped at a small hotel with a pretentious facade. 9. We arranged to meet at the Dome next day to have an aperitif and eat at some place on the boulevard. 10. That's one good thing about Mike the philosopher: he's consistent and he does not develop his theories so quickly that you lose track of them. 11. Not on the telephone. 12. I doubt if any English historian or archaeologist could turn technique into art in that way.

Exercise 6. *Classify the borrowings given in bold type according to the degree of their assimilation.*

1. Her book had been **accepted** by a publisher. Even then she had used a **nom de plume**, not wanting to trade on her father's name. 2. I **arranged** with the **concierge** to make my **coffee** in the morning and to keep the **place** clean. 3. And now the roof had fallen in on him. The first **shock** was over, the dust had settled and he could see that his whole life was **"kaput"**. 4. The **modest**, well-bred, **etcetera**, English gentleman. 5. George **managed** to be so **different** from his **parents** and the **family milieu**. 6. Elizabeth and George worked pot their **scheme**. 7. An American in **caftan** of green leather peered through the **wicket**. 8. He put on his round **pince-nez**.

Task 1. *Study the map of Great Britain and write out the names of the cities and towns ending in: a) caster (chester); b) wick, thorpe, by.*

Caster (chester) < Lat. "military camp".
Wick, thorpe, by < Sc. "place".

Task 2. *Think of 10 examples of Ukrainian borrowings in English and English borrowings in Ukrainian.*

Task 3. *Read the following jokes. Identify examples of international words.*

1. Genius is one percent inspiration and ninety-nine percent perspiration. 2. A psychologist is a man who watches everybody rise when a beautiful girl enters the room. 3. An expert is a man who knows a great deal about every little; and who goes on knowing more and more about less and less unit finally he knows practically everything about nothing; whereas a reviewer is a man who knows very little about a great deal and keeps on knowing less and less about more and more unit finally he knows practically nothing about everything.

Recommended literature

1. Лексикологія англійської мови : посібник для студентів спеціальності «англійська мова і література» / уклад. І. О. Білецька. Умань : ВПЦ «Візаві», 2015. С. 24–41.
2. Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. С. 13–25.

Practical Lessons 5-6

Morphology

Problems for discussion

1. What do we mean by affixation?
2. Describe prefixation as a way of word-building?
3. What is suffix? What groups of suffixes do you know?
4. What is understood by composition? What do we call words made by this type of word-building? Into what groups can compounds be subdivided structurally? Illustrate your answer with examples.
5. Speak of conversion as a type of word-building.
6. What are the two process of making shortening?

7. What minor processes of word-building do you know? Describe them and illustrate your answer with examples.

Main terminology

Morpheme, root morpheme, prefix, suffix, allomorphs, derived words, compound words, affixation, suffixation, prefixation, composition, sound interchange, shortening, reduplication, stress-shifting, blanding, back-formation, sound imitation, morphologo-syntactic conversion.

Material to use

Some Non-Productive Affixes

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

Some Productive Affixes

Noun-forming suffixes	-er, -ing, -ness, -ism, -ist, -ance
Adjective-forming suffixes	-y, -ish, -ed, -able, -less
Adverb-dorming suffixes	-ly
Verb-forming suffixes	-ize/-ise, -ate
Prefixes	un-, re-, dis-

Practical assignments

Exercise 1. *Classify the following prefixes into: A: a) native, b) foreign; B: a) productive, b) semi-productive, c) non-productive.*

A- (of, on), a- (not), ab- (from, away), ad- (addition), after-, amphi, ante-, anti-, arch-, be-, bis-/bi-, by-, circum-, com-/co-, contra-/contro-,

counter-, de- (down, separation, reversion), di-/dis- (twice), dis- (separation, negation), ex- (former, out of), en-, extra-, fore-, forth-, in- (in, into), in- (negation), inter-, intro-, mis-, non-, ob-, off-, on-, out-, over-, per-, poly-, post-, pre-, pro-, re-, retro-, sub-, super-, trans-, ultra-, un-, under-, up-, vice-, with-.

Exercise 2. *Form adjectives by adding the negative prefix in- or its allomorphs il-, im-, ir-.*

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

Exercise 3. *Translate the following sentences into Ukrainian. Pick out prefixed words and comment on the meaning of these prefixes.*

1. He was disinclined to trouble himself with a young man. 2. There would be a time for rearrangements and readjustments. 3. Your co-believers are remarkably unscrupulous and insensitive about those of us who have come to the opposite conclusion. 4. As she talked to Mamma, relating the events of her journey, she displayed strong, discoloured teeth which, however, were somewhat unmanageable and made little clicking noises. 5. I am afraid, I misjudged you in the past, I beg your pardon. 6. In all big cities there are self-contained groups that exist without intercommunication. 7. Uncle Elliot said it was most improper and Mamma said she thought it unnecessary. 8. He was a non-representative artist and he painted portraits of her in squares and oblongs. 9. Until the events of the last few days he had been almost supernaturally steady all this year. 10. He was an ex-fisher. 11. Young Jolyon sat down far off, and began nervously to reconsider his position. 12. Soames desired to alter his condition from that of the unmarried man to that of the married man remarried. 13. There’s an unfortunate devil, who has got a friend on the poor side, that to do anything of that sort.

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

-ade, -age, -an/-ian, -ance/-ence, -ancy/--ency, -ant/-ent, -ar, -ard/-art, -asm, -ast, -ate/-at, -cy, -dom, -ee, -eer, -er, -ess, -ful, -hood, -ier/-yer, -ing, -ie/-y, -ic, -ice, -ics, -ine, -ion, -ism, -ist, -ite, -let, -ling, -ment, -mony, -ness, -oid, -or, -ory, -our/-eur, -ry/-ery, -ship, -ster, -th, -tion, -tude, -ty, -ure, -y.

Exercise 5. *Translate the following sentences. Pick out nouns with suffixes. Comment on the meaning of suffixes.*

1. I have to say that you have a traitress in your camp. 2. Mummy, is daddy in your room? 3. There is no happiness like that of being loved by your fellow-creatures, and feeling that your presence is an addition to their comfort. 4. By displaying towards Irene a dignified coldness, some impressions might be made upon her; but she was seldom now to be seen, and there seemed a slight difficulty in seeking her out on purpose to show her coldness. 5. His cunning, his personal skills, his behavior, his mixture of good-nature and unbendingness were all of a piece. 6. I recalled his high spirits, his vitality, his confidence in the future, and his disinterestedness. 7. A dramatization of the work was made, which ran for a season in New York. 8. He is the idealist, he is the dreamer. 9. From the top lefthand drawer of her chest she brought out a handful of sweets. 10. The roar of the pneumatic cutter in that narrow space was deafening. 11. He took a cigarette and sucked in a lungful of smoke. 12. I have every confidence in my informant. 13. A polite refusal is better that a rude grant. 14. Unionist ultras here have been distributing thousands of leaflets this week-end calling on extremists to arm themselves to destroy the forces. 15. I said good-bye to the devotees. 16. He got up and went into the kitchenette. 17. She is in a sense my protectress. 18. A pet plan, carried at last in the teeth of great difficulties. 19. You have succeeded in damping my enthusiasm. 20. To Forsyte imagination that house was now a sort of Chinese pill-box, a series of layers, in the last of which was Timothy.

Exercise 6. *Translate the following sentences. Pick out adjectives with suffixes. Comment on their meaning.*

1. Superb, handsome, high-minded, priggish, high-principled, extravagant – that was how others saw him, but not she. 2. He had agreeable manners, but they were not at first sight the manners one could expect to make for social triumphs. 3. The weeks, the months passed with unimaginable rapidity. 4. I had not used to his excessive apologies and his overcordial greetings. 5. The house was in fact well furnished. 6. He treated Isabel with the same comradely affectionateness. 7. He realized that it was profitless to scold Skeffinton. 8. His manner was boyish. 9. His face looks fattish. 10. He was as pleasant and attentive as usual.

Exercise 7. *Arrange the following compounds according to the type of composition and the linking elements to: a) those formed by juxtaposition; b) those with a vowel or a consonant as a linking element; c) those with linking elements represented by conjunctions and prepositions.*

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

Exercise 8. *Comment on the term "conversion". Find examples of conversion in the sentences below. State to what part of speech these words belong.*

1. Have you ever summered in the country? It's a marvelous thing, isn't it? 2. You are not down. Nothing will down you. 3. I picture myself taking courage to make a declaration to Miss Larkins. 4. She might come and room with her. 5. The room faced the street. 6. From the first

Soames had nosed out Darties's nature. 7. D'you think you are the man to head it? 8. She fingered the dollar. 9. That's Gloucester Road. Plenty of time to get there if we tube. 10. You had to have a strong head and a fine constitution to drink, drink for drink. 11. In the long run, anyone is bound to think that the left is right, and the right is wrong. 12. At last they came into the open. 13. Fact is, I can't quite believe it's all true till I see it in black and white. 14. Isabel wirelessed him from the ship. 15. I've told you forty times not to touch that jam or I would whip you.

Exercise 9. *Arrange the following acronyms into two groups according to their way of reading: a) those which have the alphabetic reading; b) those which are read as if they were ordinary words.*

ABC, BBC, CAT, CBC, CID, EEC, FA, FBI, laser, NATO, PEN, POW, PM, RAF, TB, TU, TV, UNESCO, UNO.

Exercise 10. *Translate the following sentences into Ukrainian. Pick out shortenings and comment on them.*

1. He went out by underground to Portland Road station whence he took a cab and drove to the Zoo. 2. There's scarcely a pub of any attractions within ten miles of London that she does not seem to have looked in at. 3. Old doc takes the book and looks at it by means of his specs and a fireman's lantern. 4. "What is trig?" "Trigonometry,"- Norman said. "A higher form of math." "And what is math?"- was the next question, which somehow brought the laugh on Norman. 5. He hopped to the gym door: but I couldn't move. 6. He looked at the gray plaster walls of this outer waiting-chamber – at the lettering on the inner door which read: The Griffiths Collar and Shirt Company, Inc. Samuel Griffiths, Pres. Gilbert Friffiths, Sec'y. 7. "Oh, Lord! If you're tired we could cut that." "My dear! Impos! She's got all sorts o people coming." 8. It'll be ever so much comfy. 9. I suppose I'll find the address in the phone book. 10. Wishing you congrats and all the best from my wife and I. Yours faithfully, Mr and Mrs Harper. 11. I'll leave those mags. 12. I learnt nothing at my prep school anyway.

Exercise 11. *Translate the following sentences. Pick out words formed by back-formation and comment on them.*

1. They have come to the decision, you must accept their decision and shouldn't pettifog any more. 2. I think it's high time we spring-cleaned our flat. 3. This rout is usually over crowded and I often have to strap-hang. 4. Who sight-read your excursion? 5. It's impossible that he should burgle. 6. I can't make out what is darkling there.

Exercise 12. *Arrange the following blends into three groups as to the type of contraction: 1) the initial element + the final element; 2) one notional word + the final element; 3) the initial element + notional word.*

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

Recommended literature

1. Лексикологія англійської мови : посібник для студентів спеціальності «англійська мова і література» / уклад. І. О. Білецька. Умань : ВПЦ «Візаві», 2015. С. 41–65.

2. Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. С. 45–83.

MODULE II

Practical Lessons 7-8

Semasiology. Homonymy. Synonymy. Antonymy

Problems for discussion

1. What is the difference between the grammatical and the lexical meanings of words?
2. Define polysemy as a linguistic phenomenon. Illustrate your answer with your examples.
3. Speak of different types of change of meaning.
4. Which words do we call homonyms? What is traditional classification of homonyms? What are the main sources of homonyms?
5. How are synonyms traditionally defined? What is the modern approach to classifying synonyms?
6. What words are called euphemisms? What are their two main types? What function do they perform in speech?
7. Which words do we usually classify as antonyms? To which parts of speech do most antonyms belong?

Main terminology

Semasiology, grammatical meaning, lexical meaning, denotational meaning, connotational component, literary and non-literary layers, standard colloquial words, literary words, metaphor, metonymy, polysemy, homonyms, synonyms, euphemisms, antonyms.

Practical assignments

Exercise 1. *Analyze the meaning of the italicized words.*

1. He thought of the times coming, when he would be a man and sit in the public-house with a quart of beer and a long *pipe* and play cards for silvery money. 2. As many of the Jury as can crowd together at the table and sit there. The rest get among the spittoons and *pipes*, or lean against the piano. 3. Taggart sat down too, lit his own *pipe*, took a sheet of *paper* and scrawled the words: “Georgie Grebe Article” across

the top. 4. One evening Mr. Venus passed a scrap of *paper* into Mr. Boffin's hand, and laid his finger on his lips. 5. Mr. Boffin lighted his *pipe* and looked with beaming eyes into the opening world before him. 6. Despite the fact that the ship had passed through a virtual hurricane, all the passengers *arrived* at port safe and sound. 7. Mr. Pickwick found that his three companions had risen, and were waiting for his *arrival* to commence breakfast. 8. Bridals? To be sure, they should be celebrated with all the manner of good cheer, and meeting of friends and musical instruments, harp, sackbut, and psaltery, or good fiddle and *pipe*. 9. Several gentlemen were drinking and smoking in the different *boxes.* 10. The travelers' room is divided into *boxes*, for the solitary confinement of travelers. 11. The little *box* in the third tier of the Opera was crowded with heads constantly changing. 12. I gave him a lift to the next telephone *box.* 13. A boy with a waterbottle and bandage *box* stood every half-mile waiting for those that dropped out if fainted. 14. Such was the morning, when an open carriage, in which were three Pickwickians on the *box* beside the driver, pulled up by a gate at the road-side.

Exercise 2. *Comment on the following cases of metonymy.*

1. The hall was listening with attention. 2. The street was singing and rejoicing. 3. Our group will go on excursion. 4. The whole town was afoot. 5. The larger part of the auditorium stood up. 6. Don't play with the silver while sitting at the table. 7. Have you ever read Shakespeare in the original? 8. I've never read Dickens. 9. The pit loudly applauded. 10. Have you had your cup? 11. He kept the table amused. 12. The kettle has boiled over. 13. This restaurant keeps a good table. 14. They have been together from the very cradle to the very grave. 15. The pen is stronger than the sword. 16. My daughter has a perfect ear for music. 17. Take it easy, don't lose your head. 18. Their elder son was the hope of the family. 19. She has a lot of old china.

Exercise 3. *Comment on the meaning of the noun* ***thing*** *as used in the following sentences.*

1. He likes to make things with his hands. 2. Have you finished packing your things? 3. He composed popular things for jazz-bands. 4. There is one more thing I'd like to ask you. 5. It's the best thing I

have ever read. 6. Tell me how things go. 7. Things have changed greatly since that time. 8. I have several things to attend to. 9. Not a thing escaped him. 10. Sir Barnet was proud of making people acquainted with people. He liked the thing for its own sake, and it advanced him. 11. This is very bad, for fog is the only thing that can spoil my plan. 12. When he wanted a thing, a fresh obstacle only rendered him the more resolute. 13. "Don't cry, Miss Dombey," said Sir Walter, in a transport of enthusiasm. "What a wonderful thing for me that I am here…" 14. He was satisfied with most things, and, above all other things, with himself. 15. Delia Caruthers did things in six octaves so promisingly. 16. "What is the use of making things worse?"

Exercise 4. *Remember the meaning of the verb* ***to go****: 1) to move from one place to another; 2) to be placed; 3) to reach, extend, last; 4) to become; 5) to work, operate; 6) to die; 7) to intend.*

1. This machine goes by electricity. 2. Where do you want this picture to go? 3. Differents go deep. 4. Children went wild with hunger. 5. Sitting here, watching him, I thought he was pretty far gone. 6. I've just told you things have been going rather ill with me. 7. He went hot and cold but he said nothing. 8. After Clark had said that he was going to play us some Berlios, I left. 9. He was earning, so my old legal friends told me, about 9.000 a year at the Common Law bar, and they thought he'd gone as far as he was likely to. 10. The people that read books and go to the theatre could not tell genuine slang from stuttered Sanscrit. 11. "A man to see you," she said. "Hurry up, or he'll be gone". 12. That young friend of yours will go a long way.

Exercise 5. *Remember the meaning of the adjective* ***hard****: 1) not soft, firm, solid; 2) not easy, difficult; 3) causing pain, discomfort; 4) severe, harsh; 5) strenuous, needing much effort or force.*

1. Press the central part of your tongue to the hard palate. 2. The bread has got hard. 3. This material is rather hard to the touch. 4. It's hard to make up my mind. 5. Stop using hard words. 6. Such things are hard to imagine. 7. Hard times have passed. 8. He is a hard-hearted person. 9. She is hard to please. 10. Last winter was rather hard. 11. How can you stand this hard drinker? 12. He has had hard luck of late. 13. Frost happens to be rather hard in this region. 14. Prices are not

hard lately. 15. Have you got any hard money? 16. He is a hard student. 17. This disease is hard to cure. 18. I can't return home so late, my mother is very hard, you know. 19. Tennis is played on hard-covered courts. 20. He is hard to deal with.

Exercise 6. *Comment on the phenomenon of homonymy. Arrange the following homonyms into three groups: 1) perfect homonyms; 2) homographs; 3) homophones*

Air (n), heir (n); ball (n), ball (n); be (v), bee (n); bear (n), bear (v); bow (n), bow (v); can (v), can (n); capital (n), capital (adj); dear (adj), deer (n); ear (n), ear (n); Fir (n), fur (n); flat (n), flat (adj); hare (n), hair (n); heel (n), heal (v); here (adv), hear (v); I (pr), eye (n); lead (v), lead (V0; lie (v), lie (v); minute (n), minute (adj); night (n), knight (n); pale (adj), pail (n); peace (n), piece (n); plant (n), plant (v); rain (n), reign (n); right (adj), write (v); row (n), row (v); sale (n), sail (n); sea (n), see (v); seal (n0, seal (n); so (adv), sew (v); some (pr), sum (n); son (n), sun (n); tear (n), tear (v); week (n), weak (adj); well (n), well (adv); wind (n), wind (v); won (v), one (num); work (n), work (v).

Exercise 7. *Choose appropriate homophones.*

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

Exercise 8. *Translate the following sentences into Ukrainian. Point out homonyms and comment on them.*

1. a) They were camping on a sand bank. b) He held a senior post in a bank. 2. a) The girl's white bare feet were on a rag. b) She complained that she could bear it no longer. 3. a) Beside the iron bridge, three poplars stood up like frozen brooms. b) He played golf, tennis and

bridge. 4. a) Go right ahead, but leave me my fair share or all is over between us. b) The tips of Anna's long fair hair brushed on the page. 5. a) He caught a chill. b) As we picked up our gowns and went downstairs into the court, Francis was saying: "But there's no mystery why Howard did it." 6. a) She had a room for about five pupils like this. b) In his eyes the pupils were large. 7. a) I can't bear this roar. b) The breath of row air perished on the warmth of the hall. 8. a) Charles March is the heir to one of these families. b) The air is so fresh after the thunderstorm. 9. a) Soon the play started, and his face was alive with attention; but for a second I thought that he, whom I had so much envied a few hours before, looked careworn and sad. b) To punish himself by not seeing us became second nature with him. 10. a) And then came the great idea. He would write. b) As a matter of fact you are right. 11. a) I felt some blood on my neck, and a great pain. b) Against the pane was a face, the forehead pressed against the glass. 12. a) In the reign of the emperor Claudius, that is to say, in the middle of the first century of our era the Romans invaded and occupied a part of Britain. b) There is too much rain and too little sunshine all over Ireland for wheat to grow well.

Exercise 10. *Translate the following sentences. Pick out synonyms and comment on them.*

1. Coldly the man stared at him, looked him up and down. 2. We soon came to a very pretty little cottage, with a small garden full of flowers in front of it. 3. It seemed to wave and fluctuate before me as though I saw it reflected in an unsteady looking-glass. 4. Nothing was concealed or hidden from my view, and every piece of information that I sought was openly and frankly given. 5. She was a bit quieter, and more womanly-like; more gentle, and more blushing, and not so riotous noisy. 6. These Australs do not understand, they don't realize it. 7. He was not sure of anything more. He was not certain about what he was to do. 8. The calm, cool water seems to me to murmur an invitation to repose and rest. 9. It was too terrible and awful to be true. 10. They might comfort and console each other. 11. He is so foolish and stupid. 12. His voice grew steadier and firmer as he repeated these words. 13. People down the village heard shouts and shrieks. 14. About the time of twilight Mr. Dombey, grievously afflicted with aches and pains, was helped into his carriage. 15. Without listening to excuse and apology … though unconscious of anything save the support which it gave, she was urging,

and almost dragging him forward. 16. Her cleanliness and purity had reacted upon him, and he felt in his being a crying need to be clean. 17. He has nothing but roughness and coarseness to offer you in exchange for all that is refined and delicate in you. 18. Now you see she is high and mighty an empress couldn't be grander.

Exercise 11. *Translate the following sentences into Ukrainian. Pick out antonyms. Comment on the relations between these antonyms.*

1. Fortune, good or ill, as take it, does not change men and women. It but develops their character. 2. The wide room seemed narrow for his rolling gait. 3. His forehead was broad, not high. 4. For years she had kissed him only when he returned from voyages or departed on voyages. 5. There were two figures walking in a side path, one was rather short and stout; the other tall and slim. 6. They were very different – one tall and blond, the other small and dark. 7. He took his seat in a far corner of the dining-room whence he could see all entrances and exits. 8. Between him and the other four brothers there was much difference, much similarity. 9. And June stood before him, her resolute small face raised from her little height to his great height. 10. Am I so thin, Tony? I do so want to get fat. 11. I'd nothing to gain and everything to lose. 12. Who should sit on her right, and who on her left? 13. She avoided unnecessary greetings and farewells. 14. Every day is a day of adventure with its cold and heat, its light and darkness. 15. He's come and vanished. 16. The two so very much alike, and yet so monstrously contrasted. 17. She was not with him in his despair and his delight. 18. This state of things is not uncommon between two sisters, where one is plain and the other is pretty. 19. She was on his knees and had examined all the points of his homely face. 20. You cannot have power for good without having power for evil too. 21. I cannot proceed without some investigation into what has been asserted, an evidence of its truth and falsehood. 22. He was always eager to welcome and unwilling to lose his friends. 23. He struggled in the dark, without advice, without encouragement; and in the teeth of discouragement.

Task 1. *Choose any polysemantic word that is well-known to you and illustrate its meaning with examples of your own. Prove that the meanings are related one to another.*

Task 2. *Try your hand at being a lexicographer. Write simple definitions to illustrate as many meanings as possible for the following words. After you have done it, check your results using a dictionary.*

Face, heart, nose, smart, to lose.

Recommended literature

1. Лексикологія англійської мови : посібник для студентів спеціальності «англійська мова і література» / уклад. І. О. Білецька. Умань : ВПЦ «Візаві», 2015. С. 66–74.

2. Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. С. 147–154.

Practical Lesson 9

English Phraseology

Problems for discussion

1. What is phraseology as the brunch of Lexicology?
2. What is the difference between phraseological units and free word-group?
3. What ways of classifying phraseological units do you know?
4. Proverb as a specific type of phraseological units.
5. Ways of translating phraseological units.

Main terminology

Phraseology, phraseological unit, free phrase, standardize word combination, fusion, proverb, saying.

Practical assignments

Exercise 1. *Give Ukrainian equivalents to the following phraseological units. Mind their association with human activities.*

1. To fish in troubled waters. 2. To rise to the fly. 3. To swallow the bait. 4. To join the colors. 5. To mask one’s batteries. 6. To hunt the

wrong hare. 7. To hunt with the hounds and run with the hare. 8. To kill two birds with one stone. 9. To feel one's pulse. 10. To take the law into one's own hands. 11. To play first fiddle. 12. In tune. 13. Out of tune. 14. To touch the right cord. 15. To go through the mill. 16. Spade work. 17. To be in the limelight. 18. To be out of limelight.

Exercise 2. *Arrange the following phraseological units functioning like verbs into groups in accordance with the most typical patterns of their formation: 1) V + N; 2) V + prep + N; 3) V + (one's) + N + (prep): 4) V + and + V; 5) V + or + V; 6) V + subordinate clause; 7) V + postpositive.*

To cross the Rubicon; to catch cold; to lose the game; to render a service; to come to one's sense; to come into fashion; to fall into disrepute; to make a mistake; to grasp the shadow; to have a finger in the pie; to be at a loss; to hit below the belt; to fall into a rage; to break ground; to lose one's heart; to play the fool with; to beat the air; to play a trick; to sink or swim; to run into debt; to pick and choose; to take a walk; to see how the land lies; to make one's way; to make friends with; to make a fool of somebody; to play a wrong card; to take revenge; to know what is what; to see which way the wind blows; to go through fire and water; to turn one's coat; to open the ball.

Exercise 3. *Translate the following sentences. Pick out synonymous phraseological units.*

1. a) She had decided to learn something at all costs. b) That is what you always contrive to do, by hook or by crook. 2. a) I have no reason to feel everything you have just said to the very marrow of my bones. b) I dislike him to the very roots of me. 3. a) The road wound back and forth. b) She began swiftly walking to and fro. 4. a) After surveying Mr. Winkle from head to foot he said… b) Our organization will be closely looked at from top to bottom and efforts made to improve it. 5. a) Tom was at his wit's end what to say. b) Mr. Dombey was so surprised and so perfectly at a loss how to continue the conversation that he could only sit looking at his son by the light of the fire. c) Many things he had said which I had been at a loss to understand. d) At the twelfth round the latter champion was all abroad, as the saying is, and had lost all presence of mind and power of attack and defense. 6. a) He

did not care a pin about his master. b) We don't care a fig for her. 7. a) But don't forget, Dinny, that Snubby's a deuced clever fellow, and knows his world to a T. b) "He knows a thing or two!" said he. 8. a) Derek tightened his belt and took a bee-line down over the slippery grass. b) It's about six miles from here, as the crow flies. 9. a) Now, do, Lawson, just finish up this job, and I'll pay you down, right on the spot; and you need the money. b) "Well," he said, trying to invent an excuse on the spur of the moment.

Exercise 4. *Of the following pairs of sentences pick out the phraseological units opposite in meaning.*

1. a) … in Soames there was some common pride, not sufficient to make him do a really generous action, but enough to prevent his indulging in an extremely mean one, except, perhaps, in very hot blood. b) "You've succeeded in rather damping my enthusiasm for that subject," he said. "I'd find it difficult to begin now, in cold blood". 2. a) I grew by degrees cold as a stone and then my courage sank. b) My cheeks were as hot as fire. 3. a) But to those remonstrances Mr. Quilp turned a deaf ear. b) … hoping that Molly would not be such as goose as to lend a willing ear to a youth. 4. a) Mind your own business. b) I don't see what Soames wants with a young man like that. I shouldn't be surprised if Irene had put her oar in. 5. a) Off with you, Molly. Make haste, or Lady Harriet may come and ask for you. b) "Sit down!" said Jolly. "Take your time! Think it over well". 6. a) I've got no home, your worship. I'm living from hand to mouth. I've got no work. b) He hated this place. People at home would think him lucky to be living safely on the fat of the land with the army of occupation, … 7. a) The girl made light of hardships. b) They talk together constantly, and sit long at meals, making much of their meat and drink. 8. a) He saw her at close quarters for the first time. b) It is difficult sometimes to keep people at arm's length when one is travelling.

Exercise 5. *Pick out synonymous proverbs.*

1. There is no place like home. 2. Accidents will happen in the best regulated families. 3. After death the doctor. 4. Appearances are deceptive. 5. The apples on the other side of the wall are the sweetest. 6. As a man lives, so shall he die. 7. East or West, but home is best.

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

Exercise 6. *Give English equivalents of the following proverbs and phraseological units.*

1. В чуже просо не пхай носа. 2. На смак товариш не всяк. 3. У кожної медалі є зворотний бік. 4. Не кажи "гоп", поки не перескочиш. 5. Чия відвага, того й перевага. 6. Скупий два рази платить. 7. Голод не твій брат. 8. Погані вісті не лежать на місці. 9. Чи пан, чи пропав – двічі не вмирати. 10. Слово – срібло, мовчання – золото. 11. Багато знатимеш, скоро постарієш. 12. Не по словах судять, а по ділах. 13. Наскочила коса на камінь. 14. Хто рано встає, тому Бог дає. 15. Легко прийде, прахом піде. 16. Мій дім – моя фортеця. 17. Терпи козаче, отаманом будеш. 18. Любиш поганяти, люби й коня годувати. 19. Щоб рибу їсти, треба в воду лізти. 20. Не чіпай лиха, коли воно спить. 21. Хто рідніший, той і цінніший. 22. Котрий собака багато бреше, той мало кусає. 23. Напад – найкраща оборона. 24. Краще щось, ніж нічого. 25. З двох лих вибирай менше. 26. Краще пізно, ніж ніколи.

Task 1. *Show that you understand the meaning of the following phraseological units by using each of them in a sentence.*

1) Between the devil and the deep sea; 2) to have one's heart in one's boots; 3) to have one's heart in the right place; 4) in the blues; 5) once in a blur moon; 6) to swear black is white; 7) out of the blue; 8) to talk till all is blue; 9) to talk oneself blue in the face.

Recommended literature

1. Лексикологія англійської мови : посібник для студентів спеціальності «англійська мова і література» / уклад. І. О. Білецька. Умань : ВПЦ «Візаві», 2015. С. 87–96.
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Practical Lesson 10

English Lexicography

Problems for discussion

1. What is Lexicography as a brunch of Lexicology?
2. Give the definition of a dictionary.
3. What classifications of dictionaries do you know?
4. What do you know about the historical development of English Lexicography?
5. Speak of the development of American Lexicography.
6. What is the structure of dictionary article?

Main terminology

Lexicography, dictionary, linguistic and encyclopedic dictionaries, explanatory, translation, phraseological, etymological, pronouncing dictionaries, dictionary article.

Recommended literature

1. Ніколенко А. Г. Лексикологія англійської мови – теорія і практика. Вінниця : Нова Книга, 2007. С. 419.

UNIT IV

THE LIST OF QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION

1. Course of Modern English Lexicology: its aims and significance.
2. Two approaches to the study of language: synchronic and diachronic.
3. Motivation. Definition. Types.
4. Research methods used in Lexicology.
5. Fundamental issues of general Linguistics. Definition of language, word, paradigm.
6. Theoretical principles to the vocabulary study.
7. The volume of the vocabulary and its use.
8. Various lexical strata of the English vocabulary.
9. Variants and dialects. Social dialects (slang). Geographical dialects (Cockney).
10. The basic word stork. The total volume of English vocabulary.
11. Stylistically neutral words.
12. Special terminology.
13. Specific literary layer of the English vocabulary. Poetic words, archaic words.
14. Slang words.
15. Professionalisms. Jargonisms.
16. Neologisms. Their place in the vocabulary system of the English vocabulary.
17. Etymological characteristic of the Modern English vocabulary. Native and borrowed words.
18. Words of native origin. Semantic characteristic of native words.
19. Classification of borrowings according to the borrowed aspect.
20. Classification of borrowings according to the degree of assimilation.
21. Latin borrowings. Periods of borrowing from Latin.
22. The Norman-French elements in the English vocabulary system. Periods of borrowings.
23. Italian and Spanish borrowings.
24. German and Holland borrowings.

25. The structure of English words. Definition of morpheme, root, affix.
26. Productive ways of word-formation.
27. Affixation. Suffixation. Prefixation.
28. Composition. Classification of compound words.
29. Conversion.
30. Shortening of words. Abbreviations.
31. Non-productive ways of word-formation. Sound-interchange.
32. Non-productive ways of word-formation. Stress shifting.
33. Non-productive ways of word-formation. Sound imitation.
34. Non-productive ways of word-formation. Blending.
35. Lexical and grammatical meaning.
36. Change of word meaning. Specialization and generalization.
37. Change of word meaning. Metaphor and metonymy.
38. Change of word meaning. Degradation and elevation.
39. Change of word meaning. Hyperbole and litotes.
40. Meaning and polysemy. Semantic structure of polysemantic words.
41. Synonymy.
42. Euphemisms.
43. Antonymy.
44. Homonymy. Sources of homonymy. Classification of homonyms.
45. Different approaches to the classification of phraseological units.
46. Proverbs and sayings as specific types of phraseological units.
47. Lexicography as a science of compiling dictionaries.
48. Types of dictionaries.
49. History of British lexicography.
50. History of American lexicography.

UNIT V

INDIVIDUAL RESEARCH TASKS

1. Choose any topic and prepare a report (10 points).

1. Neologisms in Modern English.
2. Terminology in Modern English.
3. The opposition of stylistically marked and stylistically neutral words.
4. Semasiological peculiarities of non-standard lexical units in Modern English.
5. The development of English vocabulary at the end of XX – the beginning of XX centuries.
6. Etymological analysis of Modern English vocabulary.
7. Semantic and communicative characteristics of French / Latin / Italian / Spanish / German / Scandinavian borrowings.
8. Compound words in Modern English.
9. Morphological structure of English words.
10. Conversion and similar phenomena.
11. Synonymic prefixes in the English language.
12. The role of suffix -er in the lexical and grammatical meanings of a word in Modern English.
13. Morphological characteristics of English adjectives (nouns, verbs).
14. Lexical meaning and semantic structure of English words.
15. Polysemy of English verbs.
16. Structural and cognitive aspects of English metaphor.
17. Homonymy in Modern English.
18. Semantic characteristics of synonyms in Modern English.
19. Verbal phraseological units in Modern English.
20. Systemic and functional characteristics of English proverbs.
21. Semantic peculiarities of English and Ukrainian proverbs.
22. Semantic relations in Phraseology.
23. Historical development of English Lexicography.
24. The development of American Lexicography.
25. Classification of dictionaries.
26. The main problems of Lexicography.

2. Study the following works of English and American linguists and answer the questions in written form (1 work – 5 points).

A. William de Groot

CLASSIFICATION OF WORD-GROUPS

Introduction

The classification of word-groups is a much neglected subject. Most syntactic descriptions of a language distinguish different types of word-group without making a systematic attempt to classify them. They usually distinguish the so-called subject-predicate group, the coordinative group, and a variety of others, such as verb-object, prepositional phrase, et cetera. [...]

In his book *Language* Leonard Bloomfield presents the following classification, illustrated by means of examples taken from English:

A. Endocentric constructions, 1. coordinative (or: serial), and 2. subordinative (or: attributive); B. exocentric constructions. [...]

Bloomfield's classification is made by means of criteria of distribution, i. e. syntactic use, in about the following way.

A group is called coordinative, if it has the same distribution as two or more of its members: *boys and girls; bread and butter; coffee, tea, and milk.*

A group is called subordinative, if it has the same distribution as one of its members: *fresh milk, very fresh.* In *fresh milk* the member *milk* is called the 'head', and *fresh* the 'adjunct'.

Coordinative and subordinative groups are called 'endocentric'.

A group is called exocentric, if it has a distribution different from either of the members, e. g. *John ran; with John; if – John ran away, (greater) than – Johh.* [...]

Distinguishing between types of word-group

In dealing with classifications of word-groups, one has to bear in mind constantly, first, that each language has a system of its own, and, second, that – whatever criterion of classification we apply – the number of distinguishable types varies considerably from one language to anoth-

er. I shall illustrate this by giving what I consider a fairly complete list of the main types existing in Chinese, Latin, and English.

ENGLISH. The number of main types is about 14, and some of them can be sub-divided according to part of speech of the members.

A. COORDINATIVE GROUP. *Men, women, (and) children; laughed, cried, shouted; red, white, and blue (flowers); and/or; before or after (the war).*

B. NON-COORDINATIVE, NON-PREDICATIVE GROUPS.

1) Descriptive groups, so-called modified with modifier. This category falls into several sub-types, first, according to the part of speech of the modified, and, second, according to the part of speech, or the part of speech and a certain morphological category of the modifier, e.g. the possessive of a noun *(John's house).*

The head is:

A noun: *John the Baptist; red flowers; barking dogs; two flowers; these flowers; a flower; John's house; the above remark; flowers from Paris; the children who were ready; also I; even John.*

(Most of these groups can be made predicative by putting the adjunct after the noun, and setting it off by breaks: *John, the Baptist, died; the dogs, barking furiously, (ran into the garden); the children, who were ready, (left).* Such predicative groups are classified below under C 2) b) "head with appositive").

An adjective: *very happy*.

A numeral: *nearly seven.*

An adverb: *very happily*.

A verb; the adjunct may be an adverb, *walk carefully;* a prepositional phrase, *walk in the garden;* a subordinate clause, *walk, if you like*.

2) Transitive verb with "resultative" adjective (or equivalent noun), *(he) painted (the door) green; take off (your coat); (they) made (him) president.* (This group is usually a "split group", the object being put between verb and adjective).

3) Intransitive verb with "descriptive" adjective, *(he) left – angry; having left – angry, (he became ill); (he) came home – wet.*

4) Connective groups:

a) Coordinating conjunction with a word of any part of speech, *(Mary) and– John; (Mary) or – John; neither – Mary* (nor John);

b) Subordinating "conjunctive":

1. Preposition with personal pronoun in the objective case (or equivalent noun, etc.), *with him, with John.*

2. Subordinating conjunction with clause, *if – John went away.*

5) Copulative verb (or equivalent) with complement: *(he) was – ill; (she) was elected – president.*

6) Verb with object (i. e. personal pronoun in the objective case, or equivalent), *(I) saw – him.*

(The equivalent of the verb may be "verb with object". If so, its object is called "indirect object", *(I) gave him the book. Him* is object of *gave the book*, and called "indirect" object.

The equivalent of the object may be a group of a special type, "objective with verbal", which is classified next, under 7), *(I) saw him come down the stairs.)*

7) Objective with verbal, *(I saw) him – come down the stairs; (I saw) him – coming down the stairs.* So-called "accusative with infinitive".

8) Auxiliary verb with verbal (i. e. with infinitive, ed-form, or ing-form), (7) *have – seen; (I) am – seeing; (I) shall – see, (I) will – see; (I) do – see, (I) didn't – see.* So-called "compound verbs".

9) Clause with attitudinal adjunct; the adjunct is:

a) An adverb, *he will probably come; fortunately, they were away at the time.*

b) A so-called conjunction, *this, however, is a debatable point; the books were, of course, left in the library.*

c) A "final", *lie will come, eh? you aren't ready, are you?*

C. PREDICATIVE GROUPS

1) Independent, i. e. frequently used as the whole word-content of a sentence. We call it "the clause". One member is a personal pronoun in the subjective case (or equivalent: noun, etc.), the other member is a so-called "finite verb", *he – left, dogs – bark.*

2) Dependent, i. e. normally not used as the whole word-content of a sentence:

a) Subjective with verbal, so-called "absolute construction" *he– being a bachelor, (his sister stayed with him); human nature – being what it is, (you couldn't have expected anything else);*

b) Head with appositive. The appositive is set off by breaks. It usually follows the head: *the boy, angry, (left); John, the Baptist, (died); the children, who were ready, (left).* (Cf. *the angry boy; John the Baptist; the children who were ready (left).*

The preceding lists were intended to show, first, how, at a first and preliminary stage of investigation and description, distinctions can be made between types of word-group within the same language, and, second, that the result is not the same for different languages. There is a noticeable difference in the types of groups, and in the number of groups. As to the last point, we stated that Chinese has four types, none of which present clearly distinguishable sub-types, whereas Latin has about sixteen, and English about fourteen main groups, some of which fall into a number of clearly distinguishable sub-types.

Consequently, the procedure applied so far was only a matter of preliminary distinction. The next question, i. e. the problem of the criteria applied, and the problem of classification, will be dealt with in the following chapter.

The problem of classification

Man hat die Telle in der Hand,

Fehlt, leider, nur das geistige Band.

In dealing with classification of word-groups, or of units of any other kind in a given language, it is not unfrequently overlooked, first, that units of any kind can be classified in different ways, second, that a classification is intended to serve a certain purpose, and, third, that the merits of a given classification depend (a) upon the importance of the purpose, and (b) upon whether it serves the purpose, or not.

What I have in mind, with regard to word-groups, is illustrated – at least in some respects – by the preceding.

It is obvious that Ries, Bloomfield, and Trubetzkoy classify word-groups in different ways; apparently, different criteria are used for distinction. In none of the three cases is the purpose for which the classification is made clearly stated. [...]

Distribution

It is one of the merits of Bloomfield to have shown the importance of distribution as a criterion for classifying word-groups. Before discussing distribution as a feature of types of groups, I should like to formulate two objections to Bloomfield’s procedure.

From Bloomfield's own point of view, it would, in my opinion, have been more logical and fruitful to start with a distinction between different distribution of the groups themselves, instead of starting with different distribution of members. The result of the latter procedure is that his category of "exocentric constructions" is a catch-all, comprising, for instance, the predicative group *John ran* and the connective group *with John.* If the distribution, of the groups themselves had been taken into account first, especially by noticing that *John ran* is a "favorite sentence-form", the predicative group would have received its unique position in English syntax. [...]

A minor objection concerns the terms "endocentric" and "exocentric", which I consider unnecessary neologisms, but this question depends, perhaps, on the other question whether a special name is desirable for what I have called the catch-all, or not.

Other objections, concerning the value of his procedure from the point of view of structural linguistics, will be discussed below.

In dealing with distribution as a feature of groups, I distinguish between the distribution of the group, and the distribution of its members.

1) Distribution of the group.

For this purpose we have to distinguish the various types of distribution of *syntactic units* in general. A syntactic unit is either a *word* or a *word-group.*

There are only two main types of syntactic distribution. The unit is used either as an independent, or as a member of a word-group.

An *independent* is used either as the whole word-content of a sentence, *Alas Mary! John died,* or as a part of it, *Alas, Mary, John died.* The last sentence has three independents. They are not members of a word-group. They are not, for instance, members of a coordinative group. The criterion, in this case, is that the use of coordinating conjunctions would be impossible: *Alas and Mary and John died;* this distinguishes the combination from the coordinative group *Eat, drink, be merry,* into which coordinative conjunctions may be inserted: *Eat, drink, and be merry. Eat, or drink, or be merry.*

A *member of a word-group* is either a head, or an adjunct, or a conjunct, or a coordinate. The difference is defined in terms of syntactic omissibility of members of the group. As syntactic omissibility is a matter of degree, no rigid lines of demarcation can be drawn between

the three categories, but the distinction itself is of fundamental importance. The test to be applied is the omission test.

A *head* is defined as a member that cannot be omitted without affecting the structure of the rest of the sentence, whereas the other member can be omitted in the same sense. In the sentence *I have fresh milk,* the word *milk* is head of the group *fresh milk. I have milk* is possible, *I have fresh* is impossible.

An *adjunct* is defined as the omissible member of a group of which the other member is not omissible, e.g. *fresh* in *fresh milk.*

A *conjunct* is defined as a non-omissible member of a group of which the other member is equally non-omissible, e.g. both *John* and *ran* in *John ran,* or both *with* and *John* in *with John.*

A *coordinate* is defined as a member of a word-group of which each member is omissible. Examples are *men, women,* and *children* in the group *men, women, children (cried).*

It is obvious that each of these five types of distribution, and several combinations of them, is a typical feature of some type of group in some language. [...]

2) Distribution of members of the group.

This is Bloomfield's basic criterion in classifying word-groups.

It is obvious that it is a typical feature of many types of groups. For examples I may refer to the discussion of Bloomfield’s classification in the *Introduction.*

In the following I shall use the terms coordinative group (consisting of coordinates, as defined above), adjunctive group (consisting of a head and an adjunct), and conjunctive group (consisting of two conjuncts). I believe that this terminology is preferable to the use of endocentric and exocentric constructions. Its disadvantage is that 'coordinative' is used both in a structural and in a purely distributional sense. As, however, the two concepts in practice apply to exactly the same groups, I do not believe that there will be any ambiguity.

Classification according to meanings

It can, in my opinion, hardly be doubted that the word-groups of a given language can be classified according to their meanings no less satisfactorily than – according to any other kind of feature. There are, of course, as everywhere in a language, borderline cases. I have already remarked that the degree-character of omissibility creates many borderline cases in the application, of criteria of distribution. There are equally

borderline cases between parts of speech, between syntactically free and fixed order, and so on.

For establishing meanings as features of types of groups, we have to start from the fundamental distinction between *attitudinal* and *referential meanings.*

The distinction is fundamental, among other things, because it pervades the whole structure of a language system on all its main levels. An *attitudinal meaning* is defined as the expression of an attitude of the speaker to something, e. g. *alas.* A *referential meaning* is defined as merely denoting, or referring to, something, either by naming it *(John, boy, red, arrive, with, if),* or by pointing it out *(he, this, so).*

The attitude expressed is either "intellectual", i. e. a belief in the existence or non-existence of something *(Vivit. He lives.),* or "non-intellectual", e.g. an emotion *(alas),* a wish to draw somebody's attention (the vocative, *Brule),* a wish that the hearer do something (the imperative, *vent*), et cetera.

The same distinction largely parallels the difference between the two constituents or "levels" of the sentence, i. e. words and intonation (or, better, sentence-form), in that intonation is never referential, but always attitudinal, and words are referential and/or attitudinal. Merely referential are *John, boy, red,* etc. Merely attitudinal are *yes* and *no* (intellectual, expressing a belief in truth or falsity of a statement), and *alas* (expressing an emotional attitude). Both referential and attitudinal are vocatives *(Brute),* imperatives *(veni),* and, in languages such as Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin, the finite verb, *venio, venit* (expressing a belief; *venit,* I believe that he is coming).

On the level of the parts of speech, the distinction parallels the difference between interjections on the one hand, and, with a few exceptions, all other parts of speech on the other.

On the level of morphology, it distinguishes, in the system of the cases of the noun in Latin, the vocative from all other cases; in the morphological system of the verb, the imperative and the finite verb from, the infinitive and participles.

Even on the level of the vocabulary it plays a certain role, e.g. in the difference between *children* and *brats,* and between *poor* in the sense of without money, *a poor man,* and for the expression of an attitude of the speaker, *poor man!*

The distinction is of no less importance with regard to features of word-groups. It may well be that all languages have an opposition

between predicative, i.e. attitudinal, and non-predicative groups. The group *dogs bark* is clearly attitudinal, predicative, and the group *barking dogs* is clearly referential. It may be added that a similar distinction must be made between different uses of the same type of group, for instance between referential use of *me miseram* in *vocat me miseram,* and attitudinal use of the same group in *Me miseram!* (accusative of exclamation). [...]

On the basis of this fundamental distinction, we may distinguish different kinds of attitudinal, and different kinds of referential meanings as features of groups. I need merely recall the "enumeration", presented by coordinative groups, "description" by the group modified-modifier, "relation to something" by connective groups, and so on.

I shall give one example of a type of group that has features on several levels, as distinguished above, in order to illustrate my points, first, that in a complete description of a language all these features should be described, and, second, that, in a given language, the group can satisfactorily be defined in terms of one, or a limited number of different features.

My example is the coordinative group in English.

A typical auditory feature of the group, which it has in common with only very few other groups, is the segmentation by means of breaks, in English script indicated by commas. It may be noticed that the break is less marked, or optional, before a coordinative conjunction, e.g. before *and* in *men, women and children (cried),* but this is of secondary importance. The group has a unique auditory feature in what may be described as "even stress" on all members.

The members of the group are not separable (unless by "insertion", defined as a separate attitudinal expression: *Men, I think, women, and children, cried*).

It is typical of the group that the order of its members is syntactically irrelevant: *children, women, men cried.*

It is a unique feature of the group that it may have more than two members.

It is typical of the group also that, with very few exceptions which can easily be formulated *(Mother and I went away),* the part of speech of the members is the same. Even some morphological categories are the same, e.g. the case of the personal pronoun *(I saw him and her),* the case of the noun *(John's and Mary's books),* and the general category of the verb *(singing and swinging).* There are very few groups in English of

which both members may be the same part of speech: *(a) bird's nest, (I) shall see (him), very happily*, but in all of them there is some difference, so that I believe that, in English, the coordinative group can satisfactorily and completely be defined in terms of the part of speech and the morphological category of the members.

Distribution is a unique feature of the group also in that each member is omissible. A difficulty, however, arises here by the fact that "omissibility" or, in Bloomfield's terminology, "the same" or "not the same distribution as that of the whole group" is a matter of degree. This is one of the weak points in the use of the criterion of distribution, which I shall not discuss in detail. To give one example: in *milk and scones were on the table,* strictly speaking neither *milk* nor *and scones* nor even *scones* is omissible, and neither *milk* nor *and scones* has exactly the same distribution as the group *milk and scones.*

Last, but not least, meaning-is a unique feature of the group, which may be formulated by saying that it presents an enumeration of similar things. However we wish to formulate this feature of meaning, there can hardly be any doubt about the fact that it is typical of this type of group, and of no other.

Meaning, form, and distribution

In order to avoid misunderstandings, and to warn against overestimating the importance of distribution as a criterion for structural classification, I wish to say here a few words on a subject to which I intend to return in more detail, namely the relations between meaning, auditory form, and syntactic distribution.

I have called both form and distribution "correlates of meaning". Generally speaking, we may say that form is a *means* to convey meaning and that distribution is mainly the *result* of two factors: the meaning of the given word or group, and the semantic structure of the sentence, the "sentence-pattern", in the given language. The word or word-group is useable, or not useable, or useable under certain conditions only, as a certain member of a certain sentence pattern, if its meaning agrees with the semantic function of that member. The key fits, or does not fit, into the lock.

Consequently, both form and distribution are indicative of meaning, both to the hearer, and to the linguist. This is why I have called form and distribution "identificational features" of word-groups.

Neither form nor distribution are completely reliable indicators of meanings, or of similarities and dissimilarities between meanings.

Two words, for instance, may have the same form, but a different meaning, if they are homonyms, e.g. *hair* and *hare*. They may have a different form, but the same meaning, if they are "exact synonyms", e.g. *gorse* and *furze.*

Distribution is not a reliable indicator either, because it is not only the result of meaning and sentence-pattern, but also of "disturbing factors", such as arbitrary idiom, and what may be called "personal idiom", as poetical licenses.

Moreover, not all words that have the same syntactic distribution have the same meaning, e.g. on the lexical level, words belonging to the same part of speech: *Peter* and *John; red, blue,* and *yellow; boy* and *girl,* and, conversely, not all words with different distribution have a different meaning, e.g. *grosse,* and *grosser* in German *der grosse Mann* and *ein grosser Mann.* [...]

AIDS TO THE STUDY OF THE TEXT

1. What is the criterion of Bloomfield's classification of word-groups?

2. What is the difference between coordinative and subordinative groups in Bloomfield's classification?

3. What are the distinguishing features of endocentric and exocentric word-groups?

4. Enumerate the main types of word-groups in English.

5. Are the types of groups and the number of groups the same in different languages?

6. What is understood by the term 'head' of the word-group?

7. What are the author's objections to Bloomfield's classification?

8. Review the definition of the terms adjunct, conjunct, coordinate in the author's classification.

9. What criterion of classification of word-groups does the author suggest?

10. How does the author understand the criterion of classification according to meaning?

Arthur G. Kennedy

CURRENT ENGLISH

CONVERSION AND CONFUSION OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH

One of the chief results of the foregoing attempt at a systematic classification of the eight parts of speech and their various subdivisions should be a realization that all words do not lend themselves at all times to clear-cut distinctions. Words shift from one part of speech to another by the process of conversion; at times a word becomes a sort of hybrid, functioning as two different parts of speech at the same time and fusing them together; and sometimes a word is so utilized that this fusion or confusion produces uncertainty in the mind of the speaker or writer. [...] When Sweet used the word *conversion* in his New English Grammar in 1892, he was one of the first grammarians to employ the term in its more restricted grammatical sense and perhaps one of the first to revolt against a tendency to put every word into a hard-and-fast classification as a part of speech. Since that time there has been a more general recognition of the shifting character of the Modern English parts of speech and of the almost puzzling flexibility that this one characteristic of Current English gives to the language. [...]

A. Conversion

Conversion has already been defined as "a shift from one part of speech to another". But this functional change has also been observed in a shift from one kind of noun to another, or one kind of verb to another, or one kind of adverb to another; and it seems logical to regard conversion as functional change not only between the parts of speech but also within each part of speech. It should be insisted also that conversion and derivational change are two distinct processes; derivational change by the use of prefixes and suffixes shifts words between the parts of speech, and also within each, by producing different forms, as, for example, the adjective *wide,* the noun *width,* and the verb *widen,* whereas conversion makes no change in the form of a word but only in its general functions. And, finally, it is necessary to recognize various stages of conversion; in "The *poor* are with us always" the adjective is

not completely converted into a noun, but in "He sold his *goods* finally" the adjectival value of *good* has disappeared so completely that the word can take the plural ending -s like any other noun. When a word has changed its function to such an extent that it is capable of taking on new inflectional endings, then the process of conversion may be considered complete. Moreover, conversion may be regarded as complete when a word has been substantivized to the point where it can be modified by adjectives, as in *the others, a lunatic, good reading;* or verbalized to the point where it can be modified by adverbs, as in *telephone soon, motor often.*

a) Interchange of nouns and verbs in Current English is so common a form of conversion, as in *a run* and *to run, a try* and *to try,* "to make *a go* of it" and *to go,* that further discussion should be unnecessary.

b) The substantivation of adjectives has always been an important process in English and is active today. Some of the earlier substantivations have been so long established as nouns that English-speakers no longer realize that they ever were adjectives; in many instances, however, the substantival use of the adjective is only temporary, and as soon as the need is past, the word reverts to its usual adjectival function. [...]

There are two stages in the substantivation of adjectives: the more complete, when the word can be declined like any other noun; and the less complete, when declension is not yet possible. The most advanced stage has been reached by the old native or borrowed adjectives in *aliens, the ancients, belles, the commons, elders, goods, innocents, negro spirituals, nobles, pagans, privates, a quarterly, the ritual, sides* (early meaning as adjective "wide"), and *thoughs.* All the collective names like *American, Asiatic, Bostonian,* and *Chinese* are substantivized proper adjectives. Many older participles are today nouns, such as *a compact, the deceased, a drunk, dug-out, fact, fiend, friend, a grownup, The Illustrated, her intended, left-overs, Occident, Orient,* and *primate.* Sometimes even the compound adjectives are so completely substantivized as to be capable of declension, as, for instance, *Black and Tans, hand-mades, two-year-olds.*

Adjectives are usually still in the indeclinable stage when they become collective nouns like *the aged, the dead, the halt and the blind, the infirm, rich and poor, the wealthy, young and old.*

c) The interchange of concrete, abstract, and collective nouns, such as *battery, circle,* and *shaving,* has already been commented upon. The

verbal nouns in *-ing* often take the plural -s endings when they become concrete, as in *earnings, filings, findings, shavings, sweepings.*

d) The verbal noun in *-ing*, often known as the gerund, is sometimes confused with the verbal adjective, known as the participle. Ordinarily there is no reason for confusion when the gerund is used in nominative constructions, as in *"Seeing* is *believing";* but in objective constructions, after a verb or a preposition, there is often a fusion of adjectival (participial) and nominal (gerundial) functions which causes uncertainty regarding both the proper classification of these *-ing* words and the correct syntactical uses of them. [...]

e) Commonization is merely the process of making a common noun (or a verb or a common adjective) out of a proper noun (name). Since it has added largely to the English vocabulary, it will be considered in detail later. But it is too important a phase of conversion to be entirely passed over in this present survey. At first some familiar name of history or literature is used figuratively, and a man is called a gay *Lothario,* a *Shylock* of greed, or a *Solomon* of wisdom. If the idea needs frequent expression, the term becomes more and more common, until we find embedded in the English vocabulary such words as *a guy* (from *Guy Fawkes), to hector* or *maudlin* (from *Magdalen).* So place-names likewise yield common nouns, giving, for example, *buncombe,* spelled also *bunkum* (from *Buncombe County,* North Carolina), *currants* (from *Corinth), wienies* (from German *Wien,* English *Vienna).*

f) When the relative and interrogative pronouns *which* and *what,* the demonstratives *this, that, yon,* and *yonder,* and various indefinites like *many, some,* and *each* are used as modifiers of nouns, the conversion may be regarded as complete and the term *prenominal adjective* an appropriate one. They are pronouns when they stand in place of norms, and adjectives when they modify nouns, and it is always possible to distinguish clearly between the two functions.

g) The varying use of *who, which,* and *what* as relatives introducing subordinate clauses, as in "I saw the man *who* brought it", and as interrogatives introducing questions, as in *"Who* brought it?*"*, may well be considered in a discussion of conversion, since their functional shift changes their pronominal classification.

h) The same thing may be said of those compound pronouns like *myself* and *themselves* which function as intensives when they follow in

apposition, as in "I *myself* will go" or "I will go *myself*", but as reflexives when they become the objects of verbs, as in "They have hurt *themselves*". [...]

i) When the same form is used for both adjective and adverb as in the case of *better, high, low, right, well,* and *wrong,* only the function of the word determines which part of speech it is. So the adjective of "He looks *well*" is converted into an adverb of manner in "He sings *well*".

j) The auxiliary verbs *be, have, do,* and *will* can be converted into notional verbs by a simple change of construction. As long as they are used with verbal forms, as in *be going, have finished, do wish, will come,* they are auxiliary, or helping, verbs; but when they are used with nouns, pronouns, adjectives, or adverbs, as in *be sick, be away, have need, do well,* and *will a thing,* they become notional verbs.

k) Active verbs are converted into passives when they are used in such a manner as to indicate that the subject is really acted upon, as in "How *did* it *clean?*" and "It *dyes* beautifully".

l) When a preposition such as *about, by, down, in, on,* or *over* has an object, as in "*in* the box", its prepositional status is unquestioned; but when it has no object, as in "Come *in*", it is certainly an adverb. [...]

m) The gradual conversion of adverbs of manner like *awfully, likewise, simply,* and *surely* into adverbs of degree or of assertion is a fairly common process in English. From the careful use of the word *simply* as an adverb of manner in "He spoke *simply,* and clearly" it is but a step to the colloquial use of it to show degree of intensity in "He was *simply* wild". [...]

n) Several conjunctions become prepositions when they are followed by objects instead of clauses or other coordinate constructions. Some grammarians call the coordinating conjunction *but* a preposition in "I saw no one *but* his father", although others consider it still a conjunction; certainly *for* is a preposition in "tea *for* seven". Likewise the subordinating conjunctions *after, as far as, before, ere, since,* and *until* become prepositions in such constructions as *after dark, before night,* and *until noon.* It is this interchangeable character of these words, no doubt, that is responsible for the objectionable use of the prepositions *except, like,* and *without* as conjunctions in such sentences as "Don't take it *except (unless)* I give you permission", "He plays *like (as)* I do", and "He couldn't come *without (unless)* I brought him".

AIDS TO THE STUDY OF THE TEXT

1. What does Kennedy understand by the term 'conversion'?

2. What difference does Kennedy see between conversion and derivational change?

3. What is understood by complete and partial conversion?

4. What types of functional change does Kennedy distinguish?

5. What does Kennedy understand by commonization?

6. Does Kennedy make any distinction between a word as a unity of all its forms and the dictionary form of the word (e.g. try v., tries, tried, trying, etc.; try n, a try)?

J. A. Sheard

THE WORDS WE USE
INTRODUCTION

[...] A chronological investigation most obviously begins with the native tongue, that was brought to these islands in the fifth century by the Germanic tribes who eventually overran the native Britons. The importance of this purely Germanic basis is often overlooked, largely because of the great number of foreign words incorporated in our present-day vocabulary. But an examination of actual usage, as opposed to mere presence in a dictionary, shows how important the native words are. The next step will be to discuss the foreign words which have found a way into our language from those early days, and see not only which words they have displaced, when the object or idea was already known, but also what effect they have had on the native element.

Our method, then, will be to take the old Germanic element as the basis, and regard everything else as foreign. But it is not easy at first to grasp what this means. Many of the words we shall have to class as "foreigners" will seem at first sight "true-born Englishmen", for they have been part of our vocabulary for centuries, but they have only a "certificate of naturalization", not a right by birth. When, under this heading, such familiar words as *candle, lace, inch, mile, ounce, rose, school, street* and *wine* are mentioned, it will be realized that we shall need to classify under foreign borrowings, or loan-words, to use the technical term, many more words than the ordinary reader has been

accustomed to consider under that heading, and some, at least, which are usually looked upon as native words. [...]

The influence of a foreign language may be exerted in two ways, through the spoken word, by personal contact between the two peoples, or through the written word, by indirect contact, not between the peoples themselves but through their literatures. The former way was more productive in the earlier stages, but the latter has become increasingly important in more recent times. Direct contact may take place naturally in border regions, or by the transference of considerable numbers of people from one area to another, either by peaceful immigration, settlement, or colonization, or through invasion and conquest. It may also take place, though to a more limited extent, through travel in foreign countries and through residence abroad, for trade or other purposes, of relatively small numbers of people.

The type of word borrowed by personal contact would undoubtedly at first be names of objects unfamiliar to the borrowers, or products and commodities exchanged by way of trade. If the contacts were maintained over a long period, then ideas concerned with government, law, religion, and customs might be absorbed, and perhaps the names of these would be adopted. Only in the case of nations in relatively advanced stages of civilization would there be much influence exerted through the written word; concrete objects would come first, then abstract ideas learnt from what might actually be seen from their effects in everyday life and abstract ideas through the indirect contact achieved by books would come much later. [...]

THE NORMANS

[...] It is impossible to understand the effect of the influence of French in the Middle English period without knowing the historical and social conditions operative at the time, the relations between conquerors and conquered, the language used by the two races, their respective standards of culture. Moreover, the question of dominant and submerged races, of superior and inferior cultures, is an important factor in the way one language may influence another, and so this factor must of necessity be considered in this particular case, where the effect is so obvious.

In spite of Latin, Celtic, and Scandinavian influence, the general character and vocabulary of Old English in the middle of the eleventh

century was essentially what it had been five centuries before, but in 1066 came the Norman Conquest, an event which had more influence on the English language than any other from outside. [...]

There is an important difference between the influence now to be examined and the earlier foreign influences. The native language was not completely driven out, leaving little impression on the language of the conquerors, as had happened when the Angles and Saxons conquered the Britons, nor modified by a related language, as in the case of the Scandinavian invasion, but instead a second language was established in the country, in use side by side with the native language. The comparison may be carried further; Scandinavian first came into, and influenced chiefly, the north and north-east, whereas French was most influential in the south and south-east, a fact which became of increasing importance as a standard English language gradually developed in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Scandinavian modified the existing language through related words and constructions, but French introduced entirely new words. Scandinavian made its way into the everyday speech of the people, whereas, although many French words eventually became part of our everyday speech, and can hardly be recognized today as foreign loan-words, the French element was in the main composed of words reflecting a high state of culture, and influenced at first chiefly the language of the upper classes. Or we may look at the question from another angle: English had held its ground easily against the competition of the native Celtic of the subject race; it had had little competition from Latin, as a spoken language; it had been but little affected by the closely-related Scandinavian, the language of a conquering people, probably because the conquest did not last long and was closely followed by another conquest, and also because the peoples and languages were closely related. But now we find English facing the competition of an entirely different language, that of a conquering people who were able to maintain their position as distinctly foreign rulers for a comparatively long period. [...]

... English, which before the Conquest had been the official language of the country, used by all classes of people, and in which an important literature had been written, became merely the language of a subject lower class. In addition, the knowledge of French gave access to a rich literature. For nearly three centuries much of the literature written in England was written in French, translated from French, or strongly influenced by French models, and so it is not strange that the

literary language was enriched by many French words, and these gradually made their way into familiar speech, so that today a large part of our vocabulary consists of words introduced from French in the four centuries following the Conquest. The influence which French exerted on our language is seen in all aspects of life, social, political, and religious, and hardly any walk of life was unaffected by it. Had the Conquest not taken place it may be that English would have developed along entirely different lines, keeping in the main its Germanic characteristics, particularly as regards vocabulary, much as the German and Scandinavian languages have done, and therefore lacking the tremendous number of Romance words which are now an accepted part of our language. [...]

... It may be interesting to consider the general implication of such a large adoption of French loan-words into English. The first point to be emphasized is that here we are not dealing with completely new ideas introduced from a different type of civilization and culture, but rather the imposing by a dominant race of their own terms for ideas which were already familiar to the subject race. Such a state of affairs obviously means that/there will arise pairs of words, the native and the foreign term, for the same idea, and a struggle for survival between the two, so that one of the words was eventually lost from the language, or else survived only with some differentiation of meaning.

Let us first take examples of native words replaced by French words; it is possible to compile a very long list, so here we must confine ourselves to a few, merely by way of illustration. ...*cynelic* was replaced by *royal, cynestol* by *throne, cynehelm* by *crown.* [...] *Dema* was replaced by *judge, firen* by *crime, sacu* by (law) *suit*. [...] Much of the loss of Old English vocabulary can be accounted for by the influx of French words for the same or a similar idea in the Middle English period.

Sometimes both the words have survived side by side, but in that case there has usually been some differentiation of meaning. [...] Although *dema* had given way to *judge* we still use the, verb *deem* [...], the unmutated form related to *dema* – judge, and *deman* – to judge. [...] There are many examples of these pairs of words, one a native word, the other a Romance loan, originally of either identical or similar meaning, with some distinction made today, such as [...] *freedom* and *liberty, happiness* and *felicity, help* and *aid, hide* and *conceal,* [...] *love* and *charity, meal* and *repast, wedding* and *marriage, wish* and *desire* [...],

and we should find that the native word has a more emotional sense, is homely and unassuming, whereas the loanword is colder, aloof, more dignified, more formal. Sometimes, though very rarely, the native word may have the higher tone, as in *deed* and *act* or *action.* An obvious example to illustrate this point is the native *stink* and *stench* alongside *perfume* and *scent.* [...]

Sometimes the word may have disappeared from the standard language and yet have survived in regional dialect. OE *earn* was replaced by *uncle*, yet *erne* still survives in Scots dialect; *flitan* disappeared from the standard language, but some dialects retain *ftite* – to struggle, contend, especially with words.

This large-scale adoption had two other effects on our vocabulary. We saw that in the Old English period many ideas new to the English were expressed by a native form derived from a combination of native material, such as *bocere*, *sundor-halza*, *prowung*, and many others. Another characteristic of Old English had been its ability to form many derivatives from a single root, thus extending the vocabulary at will by forming noun, verb, adjective or adverb, once the basic root was available. The adoption of these numerous French words in the Middle English period marks the beginning of the decline of these two native characteristics. In spite of the wholesale change in the character of the vocabulary, this change in the nature of the language is perhaps the greatest effect of French, and later Latin, influence. We have an entirely new approach to language, which is now expanded chiefly by borrowing, not creating [...]

PROFIT AND LOSS

[...] It was emphasized that all words of foreign origin were to be regarded as loans, no matter how well they might be established in the language, but now that we are considering the question from the point of view of improvement of the language, and as the question of the type of word will arise, and the difference between native and foreign words, we should bear in mind that the earliest Latin, Scandinavian, and French words have been so well assimilated that they seem to be almost as English as the native words – for the ordinary man there is a great deal of difference between such words as *mile, ounce, law, face,* and *beef* on the one hand, and *hypochondriac, orthodontics,* and *schizophrenia* on the other – and often the early loans are as short, expressive, and convenient as the native words. There is, then, a difference between the

two types of loan-words, and the position of the former group lies perhaps midway between that of the original native word and the easily-recognized loan-word of later times, so that there is perhaps not the wide gulf between native word and loan-word, the hard and fast division into two sharply-differentiated types, that might be expected. We have indeed, in the ultimate analysis, native words and borrowed words, but it would seem that, apart from actual origin, there is a good deal in common between some of the loan-words and our native words. This has been recognized from the very beginning of the purist reaction against loan-words, for very rarely has there been objection raised to these earlier, well-assimilated loan-words, especially from Scandinavian and French, but only to the later, longer, usually learned borrowings.

Another point must also be borne in mind in discussing the effect of all this borrowing on our language. If we are to base our reasoning on a study of the forms recorded in the dictionary it is very easy to overestimate the effect of the foreign words. The actual number of native words in any of our large standard dictionaries is extremely small compared with the number of foreign borrowings recorded, and even if we were to confine our examination to those words in common use we should still find the native material outnumbered by about four to one. On the other hand, if we were to take a piece of English written on the popular level, or, better still, a passage of familiar conversation, we should find the proportions about reversed. It has been estimated that less than fifty words, all of them native words, suffice for more than half our needs, if we count every word used, including repetitions. The proportion of native words to foreign will naturally vary with the subject-matter, and a present-day article on some aspect of scientific knowledge would naturally contain a higher proportion of loan-words than, say, a simple essay on a walk through the countryside, yet even in the scientific article the native words would probably outnumber the borrowings, if each word is counted every time it is used. [...]

Since the general opinion is that English has, in the main, benefited from the adoption of so many foreign loanwords, the advantages which have accrued from the use of these borrowings may be taken first, and the obvious one is the wealth of synonyms which have been created by the adoption of a foreign word – in some cases, words, from more than one foreign language – to express an idea for which English already had a word. Some of these are what we may call perfect synonyms, those in which it is very difficult to detect any

difference at all in the meaning; others are not quite so exact, and there is some differentiation, though perhaps only in usage; a third group shows marked differences within the same basic idea, differences which arise from desynonymization, a process which we might expect to take place in any language which possesses several words for the same idea. [...] There is a tendency for the words to diverge somewhat in meaning, while still retaining the original basic idea, and the result of this is extremely advantageous, for the language is thereby enabled to express subtle differences in the same thought. Sometimes the differentiation may go no further than the use of a particular word in one context and its approximate synonym in another. [...]

AIDS TO THE STUDY OF THE TEXT

1. What does the author understand by the term 'native words'?

2. In what meaning does he use the term 'foreign words'?

3. In what ways may the influence of a foreign language be exerted?

4. What type of word is in the author's opinion usually borrowed by personal contact and by indirect contact?

5. What was the general character of Old English in 1066?

6. What were the historical and social conditions operative at the time of the French influence?

7. In what way did the French influence differ from the earlier influences?

8. How does the author characterize the general effect of the Norman Conquest upon the English language?

9. What was the outcome of the struggle between native and French synonyms'?

10. What is the author's opinion as to the effect of the large-scale adoption from French on the means of vocabulary extension in English?

11. What groups of borrowed words docs the author distinguish?

12. What is the proportion of native words to foreign in the dictionary and in speech?

13. How does the author regard the abundance of synonyms created by borrowing in English?

Harold Whitehall

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH DICTIONARY

The evolution of the English dictionary is rooted in the general evolution of the English language. In this development the chief pressures were exerted by the steady increase in the word stock of English. Such an overall increase as this made the dictionary necessary. The pressure of vocabulary, however, has always been influenced and reinforced by the intellectual climate of each successive period of the language.

The beginnings of dictionary history are neither national nor concerned with any of the national languages. They are concerned with the international language of medieval European civilization: Latin. Our first word books are lists of relatively difficult Latin terms, usually those of a Scriptural nature, accompanied by glosses in easier or more familiar Latin. Very early in the Anglo-Saxon period, however, we find glosses containing native English (i. e. Anglo-Saxon) equivalents for the hard Latin terms, and it may be that two of these – the "Leiden" and "Erfurt Glosses" – represent the earliest written English we possess. Such glosses, whether Latin-Latin or Latin-English, continued to be compiled during the entire Anglo-Saxon and most of the Middle-English period.

The next stage of development, attained in England around 1400, was the collection of the isolated glosses into what is called a glossarium, a kind of very early Latin-English dictionary. As it chances, our first example of the glossarium, the so-called "Medulla Grammatica" written in East Anglia around 1400, has never been printed; but two later redactions were among our earliest printed books. [...]

The first onset of the Renaissance worked against rather than in favor of the native English dictionary. The breakdown of Latin as an international language and the rapid development of international trade led to an immediate demand for foreign-language dictionaries. The first of such works [...] was rapidly followed [...] by the best known of all such works, Florio's Italian-English dictionary (1599). Meanwhile, the first great classical dictionary, Cooper's "Thesaurus" (1565), had already appeared. [...] It should be noted, in passing, that none of these various word books of the 16th century actually used the title *dictionary* or *dictionarium.* They were called by various kinds of fanciful or half-

fanciful names, of which *hortus* "garden" and *thesaurus* "hoard" were particularly popular.

During the late 16th century, the full tide of the Renaissance had been sweeping a curious flotsam and jetsam into English literary harbors. Constant reading of Greek and Latin bred a race of Holofernes pedants who preferred the Latin or Greek term to the English term. Their principle in writing was to use Latino-Greek polysyllables in a Latino-English syntax. Their strange vocabulary – studded with what some critics call "inkhorn" terms – eventually affected English so powerfully that no non-Latinate Englishman could ever hope to read many works in his own language unless he was provided with explanations of elements unfamiliar to him. The "Dictionary of Hard Words" the real predecessor of the modern dictionary, was developed to provide precisely such explanations. It is significant that the first English word book to use the name *dictionary,* Cokeram's "The English Dictionary" (1623), is subtitled "An Interpreter of Hard Words". [...] If the 16th was the century of the foreign-language dictionary, the 17th was the century of the dictionary of hard words.

Between 1708 and 1721, hard-word dictionaries began to be replaced by word books giving ever-increasing attention to literary usage. [...]

The first word book to embody the ideals of the age was Nathaniel Bailey's "Universal Etymological Dictionary of the English Language", originally published in 1721. [...] This, one of the most revolutionary dictionaries ever to appear, was the first to pay proper attention to current usage, the first to feature etymology, the first to give aid in syllabification, the first to give illustrative quotations (chiefly from proverbs), the first to include illustrations, and the first to indicate pronunciation. An interleaved copy of the 1731 folio edition was the basis of Samuel Johnson's "Dictionary" of 1755; through Johnson, it influenced all subsequent lexicographical practice. The position of dictionary pioneer, commonly granted to Johnson or to Noah Webster, belongs in reality to one of the few geniuses lexicography ever produced: Nathaniel Bailey.

Johnson's "Dictionary" (1755) enormously extends the techniques developed by Bailey. Johnson was able to revise Bailey's crude etymologies [...], to make a systematic use of illustrative quotations, to fix the spelling of many disputed words, to develop a really discriminating system of definition, and to exhibit the vocabulary of

English much more fully than had ever been attempted before. [...] It (his two-volume work – *Ed.*) dominated English letters for a full century after its appearance and, after various revisions, continued in common use until 1900. As late as 90s, most Englishmen used the word *dictionary* as a mere synonym for Johnson's "Dictionary"; in 1880 a Bill was actually thrown out of Parliament because a word in it was not in "the Dictionary".

One of the tasks taken upon himself by Johnson was to remove "improprieties and absurdities" from the language. [...] The dictionaries of the second half of the 18th century extended this notion particularly to the field of pronunciation. [...] Various pronunciation experts edited a series of pronunciation dictionaries. Of these, the most important are [...] Thomas Sheridan's "General Dictionary of the English Language" (1780), and John Walker's "Critical Pronouncing Dictionary and Expositor of the English Language" (1791). [...]

If the chief contributions of the 18th century to dictionary making were (1) authoritative recording of literary vocabulary and (2) accurate recording of pronunciation, those of the 19th were unmistakably (1) the recording of word history through dated quotations and (2) the development of encyclopedic word books. Already in 1755, Samuel Johnson had hinted in his preface that the sense of a word "may easily be collected entire from the examples". During the first twenty-five years of the century, the researches of R. K. Rask, J. L. C. Grimm, and F. Bopp clearly defined the historical principle in linguistic. It was only a question of time, therefore, before someone combined Johnson's perception with the findings of the new science of historical linguistics. That person was Charles Richardson, who, in his "New Dictionary of the English Language" (1836), produced a dictionary completely lacking definitions but one in which both the senses and the historical evolution of the senses were accurately indicated by dated defining quotations. Richardson's work leads directly to the great "New English Dictionary on Historical Principles", first organized in 1858, begun under Sir James Murray in 1888, and completed under Sir William Craigie in 1928. With its supplement (1933), the "New English Dictionary" or "Oxford English Dictionary" (N. E. D. or O. E. D.) covers the vocabulary of English with a completeness of historical evidence and a discrimination of senses unparalleled in linguistic history. [...]

Since the publication of the O. E. D., the only important British dictionary has been Henry Cecil Wyld's "Universal Dictionary of the

English Language" (1932), a work of somewhat restricted vocabulary coverage but one which may well point the way to the dictionary of the future. Wyld has discarded the older logical definitions for definitions of a more functional nature; his examples delve deeply into idiom; his etymologies are of a completeness and modernity unparalleled in any medium-sized word book. [...]

The modern American dictionary is typically a sing, compact volume published at a relatively modest pricontaining: (1) definitive American spellings, (2) pronunciation indicated by diacritical markings, (3) strictly limited etymologies, (4) numbered senses, (5) some illustrations, (6) selective treatment of synonyms and antonyms, (7) encyclopedic inclusion of scientific, technological, geographical, and biographical items. [...]

The first American dictionaries were unpretentious little schoolbooks based chiefly on Johnson's "Dictionary" of 1755 by way of various English abridgments of that work. [...] The most famous work of this class, Noah Webster's "Compendious Dictionary of the English Language" (1806) was an enlargement of Entick's "Spelling Dictionary" (London, 1764), distinguished from its predecessors chiefly by a few encyclopedic supplements and emphasis upon its (supposed) Americanism. The book was never popular and contributed little either to Webster's own reputation or to the development of the American dictionary in general.

The first important date in American lexicography is 1828. The work that makes it important is Noah Webster's "An American Dictionary of the English Language" in two volumes. Webster's book has many deficiencies – etymologies quite untouched by the linguistic science of the time, a rudimentary pronunciation system actually inferior to that used by Walker in 1791, etc. – but in its insistence upon American spellings, in definitions keyed to the American scene, and in its illustrative quotations from the Founding Fathers of the Republic, it provided the country with the first *native* dictionary comparable in scope with that of Dr. Johnson. [...] Probably its greatest contribution to succeeding American dictionaries was the style of definition writing – writing of a clarity and pithiness never approached before its day.

The first American lexicographer to hit upon the particular pattern that distinguishes the American dictionary was Webster's lifelong rival, Joseph E. Worcester. His "Comprehensive Pronouncing, and Explanation Dictionary of the English Language" (1830), actually a thoroughly

revised abridgment of Webster's two-volume work of 1828, was characterized by the additions of new words, a more conservative spelling, brief, well-phrased definitions, full indication of pronunciation by means of diacritics, use of press marks to divide syllables, and lists of synonyms, a cause it was compact and low priced, it immediately came popular – far more popular, in fact, than any of Webster's own dictionaries in his own lifetime. [...]

In the field of unabridged dictionaries, the most important accretion is the "Century Dictionary" (1889), edited by the great American linguist, William Dwight Whitney, and issued in six volumes. […] At the moment, the most important advances in lexicography are taking place in the field of the abridged collegiate-type dictionaries.

Meanwhile the scholarly dictionary has not been neglected. Once the "New English Dictionary" was published, scholarly opinion realized the need to supplement it in the various periods of English and particularly in American English. The first of the proposed supplements, edited by Sir William Craigie and Professor J. R. Hulbert, is the "Dictionary of American English on Historical Principles", completed in 1944. This was followed by a "Dictionary of Americanisms", edited by Mitford M. Mathews and published in 1951. A "Middle English Dictionary, a Dictionary of the Older Scottish Tongue", and a "Dictionary of Later Scottish" are in preparation, and work on the "American Dialect Dictionary" of the American Dialect Society is now finally under way.

AIDS TO THE STUDY OF THE TEXT

1. What is the beginning of dictionary history connected with?

2. Note the names by which earlier word-books were called.

3. What is meant by a glossarium? When did the first works of this kind appear?

4. What historical conditions produced foreign language dictionaries and hard word dictionaries?

5. What are the chief contributions of the 18th and 19th centuries to dictionary-making?

6. To whom does the author attach the position of dictionary pioneer?

7. What other outstanding names does the history of English dictionary-making know?

8. When and how did the concept of the legislative function of dictionaries originate?

9. What information does the author give about the history and merits of the New English Dictionary!

10. What makes Wyld's dictionary the only important British dictionary since the publication of the NED?

11. What features distinguish the typical modern American dictionary?

12. What does the article tell us about the contribution of Noah Webster and J. Worcester to American lexicography?

13. What supplements to the NED have been published and are now in preparation?

Bergen Evans

BUT WHAT'S A DICTIONARY FOR?

The storm of abuse in the popular press that greeted the appearance of "Webster's Third New International Dictionary" is a curious phenomenon. Never has a scholarly work of this structure been attacked with such unbridled fury and contempt. [...] What underlies all this sound and fury? [...]

So monstrous a discrepancy in evaluation requires us to examine basic principles. Just what's a dictionary for? What does it propose to do? What does the common reader go to a dictionary to find? [...]

Before we look at basic principles, it is necessary to interpose two brief statements. The first of these is that a dictionary is concerned with words. Some dictionaries give various kinds of other useful information. Some have tables of weights and measures on the flyleaves. Some list historical events, and some, home remedies. And there's nothing wrong with their so doing. But the great increase in our vocabulary in the past three decades compels all dictionaries to make more efficient use of their space. And if something must be eliminated, it is sensible to throw out these extraneous things and stick to words. [...]

And so back to our questions: what's a dictionary for, and how, in 1962, can it best do what it ought to do? The demands are simple. The common reader turns to a – dictionary for information about the spelling, pronunciation, meaning, and proper use of words. He wants to

know what is current and respectable. But he wants – and has a right to – the truth, the full truth. And the full truth about any language, and especially about American English today, is that there are many areas in which certainty is impossible and simplification is misleading.

Even in so settled a matter as spelling, a dictionary cannot always be absolute. *Theater* is correct, but so is *theatre.* And so are *traveled* and *travelled*, *plow* and *plough*, *catalog* and *catalogue*, and scores of other variants. [...] The fact here is that there are many words in our language which may be spelled, with equal correctness, in either of two ways.

So with pronunciation. A citizen listening to his radio might notice that James B. Conant, Bernard Baruch, and Dwight D. Eisenhower pronounce *economics* as ECKuhnomiks, while A. Whitney Griswold, Adlai Stevenson, and Herbert Hoover pronounce it EEKuhnomiks. He turns to the dictionary to see which of the two pronunciations is "right" and finds that they are both acceptable.

Has he been betrayed? Has the dictionary abdicated its responsibility? Should it say that one *must* speak like the president of Harvard or like the president of Yale, like the thirty-first President of the United States or like the thirty-fourth? Surely it's none of its business to make a choice. Because so widespread and conspicuous a use of two pronunciations among people of this elevation shows that there *are* two pronunciations. Their speaking establishes the fact which the dictionary must record. [...]

The average purchaser of a dictionary uses it most often, probably, to find out what a word "means". As a reader, he wants to know what an author intended to convey. As a speaker or writer, he wants to know what a word will convey to his auditors. And this, too, is complex, subtle, and forever changing.

An illustration is furnished by an editorial in the Washington *Post* (January 17, 1962). ... The editorial charges the Third International with "pretentious and obscure verbosity" and specifically instances its definition of "so simple an object as a door".

The definition reads: A movable piece of firm material or a structure supported usu. along one side and swinging on pivots or hinges, sliding along a groove, rolling up and down, revolving as one of four leaves, or folding like an accordion by means of which an opening may be closed or kept open for passage into or out of a building, room, or other covered enclosure or a car, airplane, elevator, or other vehicle.

[...] The writer takes the plain, downright, man-in-the-street attitude that a door is a door and any damn fool knows that.

But if so, he has walked into one of lexicography's biggest booby traps: the belief that the obvious is easy to define. Whereas the opposite is true. Anyone can give a fair description of the strange, the new, or the unique. It's the commonplace, the habitual, that challenges definition. [...]

Anyone who attempts sincerely to state what the word *door* means in the United States of America today can't take refuge in a log cabin. There has been an enormous proliferation of closing and demarking devices and structures in the past twenty years [...].

Is the entrance to a tent a door, for instance? And what of the thing that seals the exit of an airplane? Is this a door? Or what of those sheets and jets of air that are now being used, in place of old-fashioned oak and hinges, to screen entrances and exits? Are they doors? And what of those accordion-like things that set off various sections of many modern apartments? [...]

[...] I go to the Second International, which the editor of the *Post* urges me to use in preference to the Third International. Here I find that a door is.

The movable frame or barrier of boards, or other material, usually turning on hinges or pivots or sliding, by which an entranceway into a house or apartment is closed and opened; also, a similar part of a piece of furniture, as in a cabinet or bookcase.

This is only forty-six words, but though it includes the cellar door, it excludes the barn door and the accordion-like thing.

So I go on to the Third International. I see at once that the new definition is longer. But I'm looking for accuracy, and if I must sacrifice brevity to get it, then I must. And, sure enough, in the definition which raised the Post's blood pressure, I find the words "folding like an accordion". The thing is a door [...].

AIDS TO THE STUDY OF THE TEXT

1. What encyclopedic material do American dictionaries often contain?

2. Which of the two opposing lexicographical principles, the descriptive or the prescriptive, is accepted by Webster's Third New International Dictionary?

UNIT VI

THEMES FOR SELF-DEVELOPMENT

№ з/п	Назва теми	Кількість годин
1	Linguistic relationships between words.	2
2	Research methods used in Lexicology.	2
3	Standard English. The difference between Standard English and Cockney.	2
4	Italian borrowings. Spanish borrowings. German borrowings. Scandinavian borrowings.	4
5	Minor processes of word-building.	2
6	Euphemisms, their two main types, function in speech.	2
7	Proverbs and sayings as specific types of phraseological units.	2
8	Ways of translating phraseological units.	3
9	The development of American Lexicography. The structure of dictionary article.	2
	Total	21

UNIT VII

TEST FOR SELF-CONTROLE

1. Lexicology as a brunch of linguistics investigates:

A. sentences;
B. words;
C. grammar structures.

2. The system showing a word in all it's word-forms is called its:

A. language;
B. word-form;
C. paradigm.

3. Linguistic relationship between words are classified into:

A. paradigmatic and synchronic;
B. syntagmatic and paradigmatic;
C. syntagmatic and diachronic.

4. A minimum meaningful language unit is:

A. root;
B. word;
C. morpheme.

5. The primary element of the word, its basic part which conveys its fundamental lexical meaning is:

A. suffix;
B. root;
C. morpheme

6. The principal and basic unit of the language system is:

A. word;

B. root;
C. sentence.

7. The variants of one and the same morpheme are:

A. affixes;
B. allomorphs;
C. prefixes.

8. Affixes can be divided into:

A. roots and morphemes;
B. stems and suffixes;
C. suffixes and prefixes.

9. The relationship existing between the morphemic or phonemic compositions and structural pattern of the word and its meaning is called:

A. motivation;
B. paraphrasing;
C. substitution.

10. Root morphemes may be:

A. productive and non-productive;
B. free and bound;
C. productive and dead.

11. The motivation in which there is a certain similarity between the sounds that make up the word and those that make up the sense is:

A. phonetical;
B. semantic;
C. morphological.

12. Affixes are subdivided into:

A. free and bound;
B. productive and non-productive;
C. productive, non-productive and dead.

13. Affixation is:

A. a complete or partial repeating of a word;
B. the creation of new words by means of affixes;
C. adding the suffixes after the root.

14. A minimum meaningful language unit is:

A. root;
B. morpheme;
C. word.

15. Words which can name different objects of reality, the qualities of these objects and actions or the process in which they take part are called:

A. form words;
B. term;
C. notional words.

16. Motivation which is on coexistence of direct and figurative meaning is:

A. morphological;
B. semantic;
C. phonetical.

17. Auxiliary verbs, prepositions, conjunctions and relative adverbs are:

A. terms;
B. form words;
C. notional words.

18. When grammatical meaning is not taken into consideration we obtain the so called:

A. ideographic groups;
B. semantic groups;
C. lexico-grammatical groups.

19. The most vital part of the vocabulary includes:

A. literary-bookish words;
B. stylistically neutral words;
C. terms.

20. Any word of word-group used to name the notion characteristic of some special field of knowledge, industry or culture is:

A. term;
B. archaism;
C. neologism.

21. Words or word-combinations borrowed from another language almost without any change in form are:

A. poetical words;
B. neologisms;
C. barbarism.

22. Composition is:

A. adding derivational morphemes before the root;
B. the way of forming new words by joining no less then two stems together;
C. the creation of new words by means of affixes.

23. The term "etymology" means:

A. the science of the word;
B. the meaning of the word;

C. the origin of words.

24. A word taken from another language and modified in phonetic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language is:

A. etymological doublet;
B. native word;
C. borrowed word.

25. Words which dropped out of the language altogether are called:

A. archaisms;
B. obsolete words;
C. barbarisms.

26. Any word formed according to the productive structural patterns, or borrowed from another language and felt by the something new is called:

A. borrowed word;
B. neologism;
C. colloquial word.

27. A word that belongs to the original English stock as known from the earliest available manuscripts of the Old English period is:

A. international word;
B. borrowed word;
C. native word.

28. Blending is:

A. a complete or partial repeating a word;
B. the way of forming new words by blending separate parts of two words into one, while the primary meaning served;
C. the way of word-building in which the word loses one or more sounds.

29. Words connected with the productive activities of people united by a common occupation or profession are:

A. terms;
B. neologisms;
C. professionalisms.

30. The theory and practice of compiling dictionaries is called:

A. lexicography;
B. lexicology;
C. phraseology.

31. Words and expressions created by various social groups and classes are:

A. slang words;
B. jargon words;
C. dialect words.

32. The native words are subdivided into words of the:

A. Indo-European stock and Latin origin;
B. Latin and French origin;
C. Indo-European stock and common Germanic origin.

33. A book which contains the collection of words arranged alphabetically is called:

A. dictionary;
B. text-book;
C. vocabulary.

34. In Great Britain there are:

A. three variants and four main dialects;
B. two variants and five main dialects;
C. five variants and four main dialects.

35. Cockney is one of the best known:

A. Northern dialects;
B. Eastern dialects;
C. Southern dialects.

36. The most stable part of the vocabulary is called:

A. standard English;
B. basic word-stock;
C. total volume of the English vocabulary.

37. The language from which the words were taken into English is called:

A. source of borrowing;
B. origin of borrowing;
C. semantic loan.

38. Derived words are composed of:

A. two root morphemes;
B. one root morpheme and one suffix;
C. one root morpheme and one or more derivational morpheme.

39. The brunch of lexicology that is denoted to study of meaning is known as:

A. Lexicology;
B. Semasiology;
C. Phraseology.

40. The second great stratum of Latin words came into English:

A. through French after the Norman Conquest;
B. during and after the Revival of Learning, the Renaissance;
C. at the end of the VI-th century.

41. The greatest stream of Latin words poured into English:

A. at the end of the VI-th century;
B. during and after the Renaissance;
C. after the Norman Conquest.

42. French borrowings penetrated into English:

A. in 2 ways;
B. in 3 ways;
C. in 4 ways.

43. The morpheme is:

A. the ultimate constituent element which remains after the removal of all affixes;
B. common element of the word family;
C. minimum meaningful language unit.

44. Two main types of meaning are:

A. the grammatical and the lexical meanings;
B. the stylistical and the lexical meanings;
C. the grammatical and semantic meaning.

45. Two words of the same language which were derived from different roots the same basic words which go back to one and the same source are called:

A. international words;
B. etymological doublet;
C. loan words.

46. Words of identical origin that occur in several languages as a result of simultaneous borrowings from one source called:

A. etymological doublet;
B. international words;
C. loan words.

47. Compound words contain at least:

A. one root morpheme and one derivational morpheme;
B. one root morpheme;
C. two root morpheme.

48. Word-building is:

A. the process of creating new words;
B. the process of borrowing new words;
C. the process of dropping out words from the language.

49. Morphological type of word-building is subdivided into:

A. 4 ways;
B. 5 ways;
C. 3 ways.

50. A way of word-building when we form a new word by adding suffixes or prefixes is called:

A. affixation;
B. suffixation;
C. prefixation.

UNIT VIII

APPENDIX 1

THE SUGGESTED SCHEME OF LEXICOLOGICAL ANALYSIS

1. Etymology of the words. Identify native and foreign words in the text (of Greek, Latin, French, Italian, Spanish etc., origin). Determine the type of assimilation (phonetic, grammatical, lexical), the degree of assimilation (complete, partial, lack of assimilation).

2. Word-formation. Find productive and non-productive ways of word-formation in the text. Find derived and compound words in the text. Determine the type of word-derivation (affixation or conversion). State morphemic structure of the derived words, types of morphemes. Determine the type of compound words (compound proper, derivational compounds, words of secondary derivation). Find other cases of word formation in the text.

3. Free word-groups. Pick out from the text some free word-groups, determine their type according to the syntactic connection between the components. Classify the selected free word-groups according to the part of speech the head-word belongs to. Define the context (grammatical, lexical) for the headword in the selected word-groups.

4. Phraseological units. Find the phraseological units in the text. Making use of semantic, contextual und functional classification of phraseological units. Define their types.

5. Semantics. Find the meanings of words in free word-groups which you've selected for the analysis. Using the dictionary state whether the words are used in their main or derived meanings. Determine the context (lexical of grammatical) which helps to actualize the meaning of the polysemantic words.

APPENDIX 2

GLOSSARY

Abbreviation, the process and the result of forming a word out of the initial elements (letters, morphemes) of a word combination.

Antonyms, a) words which have in their meaning a qualitative feature and can therefore be regarded as semantically opposite; b) words contrasted as correlated pairs.

Antonymy, semantic opposition, contrast.

Back-formation (regression), forming the allegedly original stem from a supposed derivative on the analogy of the existing pairs, i. e. the singling-out of a stem from a word which is wrongly regarded as a derivative.

Blend (blended, or portmanteau, word), the result of blending.

Blending, combining parts of two words to form one word.

Borrowing, resorting to the word-stock of other languages for words to express new concepts and to name new objects, phenomena, etc.

Cliché, a stereotyped expression mechanically reproduced in speech.

Clipping, the process and the result of curtailing (the cutting off of a part) off a word to one or two, usually initial, syllables.

Collocation, such a combination of words which conditions the realization of a certain meaning.

Colligation, morphosyntactically conditioned combinability of words as means of realizing their polysemy.

Combinability (occurrence-range), the ability of linguistic elements to combine in speech.

Composition, such word-formation where the target word is formed by combining two or more stems.

Compound derivative (derivational compound), the result of parasynthetic word-formation, i. e. a word which is formed by a simultaneous process of derivation and composition.

Connotation, supplementary 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.

Consubstantionalism, the phenomenon of a word of the general language and a term having the same material form.

Context, a) the linguistic environment of a unit of language which reveals the conditions and the characteristic features of its usage in speech; b) the semantically complete passage of written speech sufficient to establish the meaning of a given word (phrase).

Conversion (internal derivation, derivation without affixation), a special type of derivation where the word-forming means is the paradigm of the word itself, i. e. derivation which is achieved by bringing a stem into a different formal paradigm.

Deformation of idiom, the violation of semantic integrity of a phraseological unit or idiom proper by actualizing the potential meanings of its elements.

Denotation, the expression of the main meaning, meaning proper of a linguistic unit in contrast to its connotation.

Derivation, such word-formation where the target word is formed by combining a stem and affixes.

Derivational morpheme, an affixal morpheme which, when added to the stem modifies the lexical meaning of the root and forms a new word.

Diachrony, the historical development of the system of language as the object of linguistic investigation.

Etymological doublet, one of a pair of (or several) words more or less similar in meaning and phonation, appearing in language as the result of borrowing from the same source at different times.

Homographs, different words coinciding in their orthographic expression.

Homonyms, two (or more) different linguistic units within one sound-and orthographic complex, i.e. displaying diversity on the content plane and identity on the expression plane.

Homonymy, the coincidence in the same sound form (phonetic coincidence) and orthographic complex of two (or more) different linguistic units.

Homophones, words with different morphological structure which coincide in their sound expression.

Hybrid, a word different elements of which are of etymologically different origin.

Idiom proper, a phraseological unit with pronounced stylistic characteristics owing to which an element of play is introduced into speech.

Idiomatic, having the qualities of a phraseological unit, i.e. when the meaning of the whole is not deducible from the sum of the meanings of the parts.

Language, a semiological system serving as the main and basic means of human communication.

Level, a stage in scientific investigation of language which is determined by the properties of the units singled out in a consistent segmentation of the flow of speech (from the lowest, to the highest).

Lexical morpheme, generalized term for root and derivational morphemes, as expressing lexical meanings in contrast to flexional (morphemes) that express grammatical meanings.

Lexical set, 1) a group of words more or less corresponding in their main semantic component, i.e. belonging to the same semantic field; 2) a group of words having the same generic meaning.

Lexeme, a word in all its meaning and forms, i.e. a variant of a lexeme in a given speech-event.

Loan translations (calques), borroving by means of literally translating words (usually one part after another) or word combinations, by modelling words after foreign patterns.

Main meaning of a word, meaning which to the greatest degree is dependent upon or conditioned by its paradigmatic links, while such meanings as display a greater degree of syntagmatic ties are secondary.

Main nominative meaning, the main, direct meaning of a word, immediately referring to objects, phenomena, actions and qualities in extralinguistic reality (referent) and reflecting their general understanding by the speaker.

Meaning, the reverberation in the human consciousness of an object of extralinguistic reality (a phenomenon, a relationship, a quality, a process) which becomes a fact of language because of its constant indissoluble association with a definite linguistic expression.

Metalanguage, a language of the second order, a specific semiological system which is used to speak about language, i.e. a language the subject of which is the content and the expression of a human language.

Monosemy, the existence within one word of only one meaning.

Morpheme, the smallest (ultimate) recurrent unit of the system of expression directly related to a corresponding unit of the system of content.

Morphological segmentation, the ability of a word to be divided into such elements as root, stem and affix.

Narrowing of meaning, the restriction of the semantic capacity of a word in the course of its historical development.

Neologism, a word or a word combination that appears or is specially coined to name a new object or express a new concept.

Nominative-derivative meanings, other meanings in a polysemantic word which are characterized by free combinability and are connected with the main nominative meaning.

Occasional word, a word which cannot be considered a permanent member of the word-stock: although it is, as a rule, formed after existing patterns, it is not characterized by general currency but is an individual innovation introduced for a special occasion.

Onomatopoeia, formation of words from sounds that resemble those associated with the object or action to be named, or that seem suggestive of its qualities.

Opposition, a difference between two (or more) homogeneous units which is capable of fulfilling a semiological function, i.e. a semiologically relevant difference.

Paradigmatics, 1) associative (non-simultaneous) relationship of words in language as distinct from linear (simultaneous) relationship of words in speech (syntagmatics); 2) an approach to language when the elements of its system are regarded as associated units joined by oppositional relationship.

Parts of speech, classes into which words of a language are divided by virtue of their having a) a certain general (abstract, categorical) meaning underlying their concrete lexical meaning; b) a system of grammatical categories characteristic of this class; c) specific syneactic functions; d) special types of form-building and word formation.

Phraseological unit, a word combination in which semantic unity (non-separability) prevails over structural separability, or in which global nomination is expressed in a combination of different units.

Polysemy, diversity of meanings; the existence within one word of several connected meanings as the result of the development and changes of its original meaning.

Potential word, a derivative or a compound word which does not actually exist (i. e. has not appeared in any text), but which can be produced at any moment in accordance with the productive word-forming patterns of the language.

Productive, able to form new words which are understood by the speakers of a language.

Productivity, the ability of being used to form (after specific patterns) new, occasional or potential words which are readily understood by the speakers of a language.

Referent, the object of thought correlated with a certain linguistic expression. Also: the element of objective reality as reflected in our minds and viewed as the content regularly correlated with certain expression.

Reproductivity, regular use in speech as the principal form of existence of a linguistic unit.

Semantic extension (widening of meaning), the extension of semantic capacity of a word, i.e. the expansion of polysemy, in the course of its historical development.

Semantic field, par of reality singled out in human experience and, theoretically, covered in language by a more or less autonomous lexical microsystem.

Semantic isolation, the loss by a word, or word combination, of productivity and the acquisition of idiomatic qualities.

Semantic level of analysis, that level of analysis on which linguistic units are studied bi-aspectually: both as units of expression and units of content, i.e. – in lexicology – the direct relationship of a word and its referent is investigated.

Semantics, the meaning of words, expressions or grammatical forms.

Semasiology, the branch of linguistics which studies the semantics of linguistic units.

Sociolinguistics, branch of linguistics studying causation between language and the life of the speaking community.

Synchrony, a conventional isolation of a certain stage in the development of language as the object of linguistic investigation.

Synchronic, representing one conventional historical stage in the development of language.

Synonyms, two or more words belonging to the same part of speech and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical denotational meanings, interchangeable in some contexts.

Synonymy, the coincidence in the essential meanings of linguistic elements which (at the same time) usually preserve their differences in connotations and stylistic characteristics.

Syntactic formula, a non-idiomatic sequence of words which structurally resembles a set expression.

Syntagmatics, linear (simultaneous) relationship of words in speech as distinct from associative (non-simultaneous) relationship of words in language (paradigmatics).

Term, a word or a word combination of a special (scietific, technical,etc.) language.

Terminology, the sum total of terms for a specific branch of science, technology, industry, etc., forming a special layer in the word-stock of a language which most readily yields to systematization, standardization.

Text (corpus), an actually existing (in oral or written form) sentence, conglomeration of sentences, etc. (up to a complete work of literature, etc.).

Vocabulary, the totality of words in a language.

Word combination, a non-predicative unit (or elements) of speech which is, semantically, both global and articulated, or a combination of two or more notional words (with accompanying sincategorematic words or without them) serving to express one global concept.

Word-formation, the process of forming words by combining root and affixal morphemes according to certain patterns specific for the language.

Word-forming pattern, a structural and semantic formula, displaying a sequence of elements which is regularly reproduced in speech.

APPENDIX 3

AFFIXATION

Prefixation

a-1	Germanic, semi-productive. It comes from the Old English preposition *on.* It occurs in adjectives and the words of the category of state. It means "of", "on": *asleep, ashore, anew*.
a-2	Greek, non-productive. It has the negative meaning: *amoral, anomalous*.
ab-	Romanic, non-productive. It means "from", "away": absent. Before *m, p, v* it's shortened to *a-*; before *c, t* - *ahs-*, e.g.: *abstract.*
ad-	Romanic, non-productive. It has positional variants *ac-*, *af-, ag-, al-, an-, ap-, ar-, as-, at-, a-*. It means "motion forward", "addition to": *admit, adjoin.*
after-	Germanic, productive. It means "after": afternoon.
amphi-	Greek, non-productive. It means "on both ends", "of both kinds": *amphitheatre.*
ante-	Latin, non-productive. It means "prior to": *antediluvian*.
and-	Greek, productive. It means "against", "opposed": *anti-aircraft, anti-war*.
arch-	Greek, semi-productive. It means "chief", "extreme": *archbishop, arch-father.*
be-	Old English, semi-productive. It means "around", "completely", "away", "making", "furnish with": *beset, bedeck, betake, b pretty, befriend, becloud, bedew*.
bi-	Latin, productive. It means "two": *bilabial*.
by-	Old English, semi-productive. It means "near", "close", "secondar": *by-stander, by-product*.
circum-	Latin, non-productive. It means "around", "about": *circumfluent, circumscribe*.
com-	Latin, semi-productive. It means "with", "together": combine. It has positional variants: col- (before I), cor- (before r), con- (before c, d, g,j, n, q, s, t, v), co- (before

	vowels and h, w): *collaborate, correct, cooperate*.
contra-	Latin, productive. It means "against", "contrary", "opposite": *contradict*.
de-	Latin, productive. It means: 1) "away", "off": *detrain*; 2) "to do the reverse": *decode, demobilize*.
di-/dis-	Greek, non-productive. It means "twice", "double": *dissyllabic*.
dia-	Greek, non-productive. It means "through", "across": *diagram, diameter*.
dis-₂	French or Latin, productive. It may denote: 1) negation: *dissimilar*; 2) opposition: *disroot*; 3) to deprive of: *discrown*.
en-	French from Latin – Greek, non-productive. It means: 1) "to put into or on": *enthrone*; 2) "to make, to cause to be": *endanger*. It has a positional variant em-: *embody*.
ex-₁	Latin – Greek, productive. It means: 1) "from", "out of": *expel*; 2) "beyond": *excess*; 3) "thoroughly": *exterminate*. It has positional variants ef-, e-: *efferent, emerge*.
ex-₂	It means "former": *ex-president, ex-champion*.
extra-	Latin, productive. It means "outside", "beyond": *extraordinary*.
fore-	Old English, semi-productive. It means "before": *forefather, foretell*.
forth-	Old English, non-productive. It means "forth": *forthcoming*.
hyper-	Greek, non-productive. It means "over", "above": *hypersensitive*.
hypo-	Greek, non-productive. It means: 1) "under", "beneath": *hypodermic*; 2) "less than": *hypothyroid*.
in-₁	Old English, non-productive. It means "in": *insight*.
in-₂	Latin, productive. It means "not": *inactive*. It has positional variants: im- (before p, b, w, e.g.: *impossible*), il- (before l, e.g.: *illegal*), *ir-* (before r, e.g.: *irregular*).
inter-	French or Latin, productive. It means "mutual", "between": *international*.
intra-	Latin, semi-productive. It means "on the inside", "within": *intraspesiac*.

intro-	Latin, dead. It means “in”, “into”, “inwards”: *introduce*.
mid-	Old English, semi-productive. It means “middle”: *midday*.
mis-	Old English, productive. It means “wrong(ly)”, “bad”(ly): *misunderstand, mishear*.
on-	French from Latin, productive. It means “not”: *non-effective, non-aggressive*.
ob-	Latin, non-productive. It means “to”, “toward”, “before”: *object*; “opposed to”, “against”: *obnoxious*; “upon”, “over”: *obfuscate*; “completely”, “totally”: *obsolete*. It has positional variants o-, oc-, of-, op-, e.g.: *occur, offer, oppress*.
on-	Old English, non-productive. It means “on”: *onset*.
out-	Old English, productive. It means “out”, “exceeding”: *outside, outsleep*.
over-	Old English, productive. It means “more than necessary”: *overwork*.
per-	Latin, non-productive. It means ”throughout”, “away”, “over”: *perceive, persuade*.
poly-	Greek, non-productive. It means “many”: *polyglot*.
post-	Latin, semi-productive. It means “after”, “behind”: *post-war*.
pre-	Latin, semi-productive. It means “preceding”: *pre-school, pre-war*.
pro$_1$-	Greek, non-productive. It means “before”: *prostrate*.
pro$_2$-	Latin, semi-productive. It means “moving toward”: *progress*; “substituting”: *pronoun*; “acting in behalf of”: *pro-fascist*.
re-	Latin, productive. It means: 1) “back”: *repay*; 2) “again”, “anew”: *re-count*.
retro-	Latin, productive. It means “back”, “backward”: *retrospective*.
semi-	French or Latin, semi-productive. It means: 1) “half”: *semi-final*; 2) “partly”, “not fully”: *semiskilled*.
sub-	Latin, productive. It means: 1) “under”: *subsoil*; 2) “lower in rank or position”, “of a lesser degree”: *subordinate*; 3) “forming a decision into smaller parts”: *subtitle, subgroup*. It has positional variants: sue-(before

	c), suf- (before *f*), sug- (before *g*), sum- (before *m*), sup- (before *p*), sur- (before *r*), sus- (before c, p, t): *suspect*.
super-	Latin, productive. It means “above”, “over”: *supernatural*; “higher in rank”: *supervisor*.
trans-	Latin, semi-productive. It means “across”, “over”, “on the other side”, “beyond”: *transatlantic*.
ultra-	Latin, productive. It means “beyond”, “exceeding”: *ultra-modern*.
un-	Old English, productive. It means: 1) “not”: *unhappy*; 2) “back”: *unfasten*.
under-	Old English, semi-productive. It means: 1) “below”: *undershirt*; 2) “in a subordinate position”: *undergraduate*; 3) “below standard”: *underdeveloped*.
up-	Old English, semi-productive. It means “upward”: *uplift*.
vice-	Latin, semi-productive. It means “second in rank”: *vice-president.*
with-	Old English, non-productive. It means “away”, “against”: *withdraw, withstand*.

Suffixation

Noun suffixes

-ade	Latin, non-productive. It means: 1) ”the act of”: *blockade*; 2) ”the result or product of”: *lemonade*.
-age	Old French → Latin, non-productive. Nouns in -age denote process, action, the result of the action or have a collective meaning: *assuage, pilotege, postage, leakade, leafage*.
-al	Middle English → Old French, semi-productive. Nouns in -ad denote “the act of doing”: *arrival, refusal*.
-an₁	Latin, non-productive. It means “belonging to”, “following a system or doctrine”: *republican*.
-an₂	Latin, productive. It means “born in”, “living in”: *American*.
-ance, -ence	Middle English from French → Latin, non-productive. They form nouns of action and nouns

	indicating state or quality: *guidance, assistance, obedience*.
-ancy, -ency	Latin, non-productive. They form nouns of action and nouns denoting state or quality: *brilliancy, vacancy, emergency*.
-ant, -ent	French from Latin, non-productive. They are used to form agent-nouns: *servant, merchant, student*.
-ar	Latin, non-productive, forms agent-nouns: *beggar*.
-ard	Old French from German, non-productive, forms nouns. Meaning "one who does something not admirable": *drunkard, coward*.
-asm	Greek, non-productive, forms abstract nouns: *enthusiasm*.
-ast	Greek, non-productive, forms agent-nouns: *gymnast, enthusiast*.
-ate, -at	Latin, non-productive, forms nouns denoting function or person: *mandate, advocate, diplomat*.
-cy	Romanic, non-productive, forms nouns denoting state, condition, office: *diplomacy, bankruptcy, curacy*.
-dom	Old English, productive, forms nouns denoting state, condition, rank, dominion of: *freedom, wisdom, kingdom, dukedom, Christendom*.
-ee	French from Latin, productive, forms nouns designating the recipient of the action: *payee, employee*.
-eer	French from Latin, non-productive, forms agent-nouns: *engineer*.
-er	Old English, productive, forms nouns denoting: 1) persons following some trade or occupation: *baker, driver*; 2) persons doing some action: *bather, believer*; 3) persons living in some locality: *Londoner, foreigner*; 4) things which do what the stem denotes: *cutter*.
-ery, -ry	Middle English from Old French, productive, forms nouns denoting state, condition, a general collective sense: *slavery, husbandry, poetry, pottery, jewelry, surgery*.
-ess	French from Latin → Greek, productive, forms feminine nouns: *actress, poetess, lioness, Jewess*.

-ette, -et	French, semi-productive, forms diminutive nouns: *kitchenette, cigarette*.
-hood	Germanic, semi-productive, forms nouns denoting state, quality, condition: *childhood falsehood*.
-ic	Greek or Latin, non-productive, forms nouns having the meaning "of the nature of": *cynic, skeptics*.
-ice	Old French from Latin, non-productive, forms nouns denoting act, quality, condition: *service, justice*.
-ics	Latin, non-productive, forms nouns denoting art, science or a specified activities or practice: *phonetics, statistics*.
-ie, -y	Germanic, productive, form diminutives: *birdie, girlie, auntie, granny, Billy.*
-ier, -yer	French from Latin, non-productive, equivalent to -eer: *cashier, grenadier, lawyer*.
-ine$_1$, -ina	Greek, non-productive, is used to form feminine nouns: *heroine, zarina*.
-ine$_2$, -in	Romanic, non-productive, forms abstract nouns and nouns indicating derivative products: *medicine, doctrine, bulletin.*
-ing$_1$	Old English, non-productive. It means "belonging to", "of the kind of", "'descended from": *shilling*.
-ing$_2$	Old English, productive. It is used to form verbal nouns denoting: 1) process, actions: *bleeding, breathing*; 2) the result of the action: *building*; 3) the place where some action happens: *dwelling, lodging*.
-ion	Latin, non-productive, forms abstract nouns: *union, opinion, session.*
-ism	Greek, productive. Nouns in -ism denote: 1) theories, teachings, dogmas: *Darwinism, fatalism*; 2) social trends and formations: *capitalism, nationalism*; 3) trends in arts and literature: *modernism, futurism*; 4) policies: *radicalism*; 5) human qualities: *egoism, dandyism*.
-ist	Greek, productive. It forms nouns denoting a person who practices some method or art or who adheres to some doctrine, system, cause: *artist, dramatist, economist, communist, fascist, reformist, modernist*.
-ite	Greek, semi-productive. It forms nouns denoting:

	1) followers of different persons, inherent of different parties, trends, religions: *laborite, Islamite*; 2) inhabitants of some locality or persons occupying certain seats: *kainite, pittite*.
-kin	Middle English, non-productive. It forms diminutive nouns: *lambkin, catkin.*
-let	Latin, productive, forms diminutive nouns: *booklet*.
-ling	Old English, productive, forms diminutive nouns: *duckling, firstling, princeling.*
-ment	French from Latin, non-productive. It forms nouns denoting state, quality, condition, action, process or the result of the action: *development, pavement, judgment, agreement*.
-ness	Germanic, productive. Nouns in -ness denote some abstract quality, state or condition: *kindness, darkness, oneness, sameness, forgiveness*.
-oid	Greek, productive. It means "like", "in the form of": *metalloid, spheroid*.
-or	Latin, non-productive. It forms nouns denoting: 1) profession, occupations: *actor, doctor*; 2) persons performing some actions: *narrator*; 3) things connected with the actions expressed by the stem: *elevator, ventilator*.
-ory	Latin, non-productive. Nouns in -ory denote "a place or thing for": *dormitory, directory*.
-o(u)r, -eur	French from Latin, non-productive. It forms nouns denoting state: *amateur, favour, behavior*.
-ship	Middle English from Germanic, semi-productive. It forms nouns denoting state, condition, quality, one's social position or dignity: *friendship, authorship, professorship*.
-ster	Middle Low German, non-productive. Nouns in -ster denote "a person who is, does or creates": *songster, spinster, roadster, gangster, youngster*.
-stress	Old French from Latin, non-productive, forms feminine nouns: *songstress, seamstress*.
-th	Old English, non-productive, forms nouns of state or quality from adjectives: *length, width, strength*.

-tion	Latin, productive. Also, -ation, -cion, -ion, -sion, -xion. It forms nouns from verbs and denotes action, state or result: *dictation, resolution, revolution, organization, conversion*.
-(i)tude	Old French from Latin, non-productive. It forms nouns denoting state, quality, condition: *safety, activity, liberty, poverty, cruelty.*
-ure	French and Latin, non-productive. Nouns in -ure denote: act, process, state, result of an action or rank: *culture, picture, seizure, figure*.
-y	Latin, Greek, French, Germanic; non-productive. It forms nouns denoting the result of an action: *augury, perjury*.

Adjective suffixes

-able, -(i)ble	Latin, productive. Adjectives in *able* mean: "capable", able to be…-ed: *eatable*; "characterized by", "fit for", "causing": *comfortable.*
-acious	Latin, non-productive. Adjectives in *-actious* mean "full of": *audacious*.
-ian, -ane	Old French from Latin, non-productive. Adjectives in these suffixes denote "belonging or pertaining to", "typical of", "following some teaching": *Roman, European, Shakespearian, humane*.
-ant, ent	French from Latin, non-productive. Adjectives m-ant/-ent mean "busy with", "characterized by": *radiant*.
-ary, ory	Latin, non-productive. They form adjectives meaning "belonging to", "connected with": *reactionary, legendary, contradictory*.
-ate, -ete -ite, -ute, -t	Latin, non-productive. They form adjectives having the meaning "of or characteristic of", "having or filled with": *accurate, complete, exquisite, absolute, abject*.
-ed	Old English, very productive. Adjectives in -ed mean "having", "characterized by": *gifted, bearded long-legged*.
-en	Old English, non productive. It form relative adjectives

	meaning “made of”: *silken, wooden*.
-ern	Middle and old English, non-productive. It is met only in four words: *eastern, western, northern, southern*.
-ese	Old French from Latin, non-productive. Adjectives in -ese signify “of”, “pertaining to”, “originating in”: *Chinese, Japanese*.
-esgue	French and Italian of Germanic origin, non-productive. It forms adjectives denoting “in the manner or style of”, “like”: *picturesque, grotesque*.
-fold	Middle English from Germanic, non-productive. It is used with numerals to form adjectives, denoting multiplication: *twofold, manifold*.
-ful	Middle and Old English, productive. Adjectives in -ful mean “full of”, “abounding in”: *hopeful, powerful*.
-ic, -ic, -al	Greek, Latin and French; non-productive. Adjectives in -ic denote “of”, “of the nature of”, “pertaining to”, “belonging to”: *Celtic, gigantic, titanic*. The suffix -ic is often coupled with the suffix -al, thus forming one semantic unit (the form in -ical sounds more conversational): *classic – classical, poetic – poetical*.
-ine	Latin from Greek, non-productive. It forms adjectives denoting “of”, “like”, “pertaining to”, “characterized by”: *infantine*.
-ish	Middle English from Greek, productive. Being added to adjectives it means “somewhat”, that is it denotes a weaker degree of the quality expressed by the stem: *whitish, fattish*. When added to nouns it means “having the nature of”, “looking like”: *boyish, womanish*.
-ive, -ative	Latin, non-productive. Adjectives in -ive denote “having a tendency to”, “having the nature, character or quality of”: *native, declarative, restrictive, talkative*.
-less	Middle English from Old English, productive. It means “without”, “not having”, “free from”: *hopeless, senseless*.
-like	Middle and old English from Gothic, productive. Adjectives in -like mean “looking like”, “inherent to”, “characteristic of”: *businesslike, womanlike*.

-ly	Germanic, productive. Adjectives in -ty denote: 1) "like", "characteristic of", "suitable to": *manly*; 2) "rather": *cleanly, sickly, poorly*; 3) "happening every...": *weekly, monthly*.
-ose	Latin, non-productive. It means "full of": *bellicose, morose*.
-ous	Middle English from old French → Latin → Greek, non-productive. It means "full of", "possessing the quality of", "like": *joyous, envious, religious*.
-some	Middle English from Germanic, non-productive. It means "like", "possessing the quality of": *bothersome*.
-ward	Old English, semi-productive. It denotes direction: *eastward, inward*.
-y	Old English, highly productive. It has two meanings. When added to nouns and, rarely, to verbs, it means "looking like", "characterized by", "having the color of": *windy, chatty, bloody*. When added to adjectives it means "lacking some quality": *pinky, baldy, greeny*.

Verb suffixes

-ate	Latin, non-productive. Its meaning is ill-defined. It forms causative verbs: *agitate, graduate, vaccinate, navigate, advocate*.
-en	Old English, productive. It forms verbs from nouns and adjectives. It means "to make", "to make like": *brighten, broaden, darken, moisten, strengthen*.
-er	Germanic, non-productive: *glimmer, twitter*.
-(i)fy	French from Latin, non-productive. It has the following senses: "to make", "to produce", "to bring to a certain state": *electrify, specify, terrify, simplify, intensify*.
-ish	Old English from Germanic and Greek, non-productive: *establish, finish*.
-ize, -ise	Greek, as well as French and Germanic; productive. Verbs in -ize/-ise mean "to make", "to conform to", "to provide with", "to cover with": *organize, materialize, generalize, symmetrize, jargonize*.

-ute, -ite	Latin, non-productive: *attribute, execute, contribute, unite, expedite*.

Adverb suffixes

-fold	Old English, semi-productive. It means “times”: *tenfold*.
-long	Germanic, non-productive. It is added to the stems of nouns: *headlong, sidelong*.
-ly	Germanic, productive. It forms adverbs of manner and time, and adverbs denoting repetition: *idly, carefully, daily, weekly*.
-s, -ce	Middle and Old English, non-productive: *once, twice, besides*.
-ward(s)	Old English, semi productive. It denotes the direction: *forward(s), backward(s), upward, inward*.
-wise, -ways	Germanic, non-productive. It’s added to noun and adjective stems: *crosswise, clockwise, crabways*.

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