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ENGLISH LEXICOLOGY:

THEORY AND PRACTICE

Видання друге, доповнене і перероблене

Навчально-методичний посібник
з лексикології англійської мови

Друкується за рішенням науково-методичної ради факультету іноземної філології Кам'янець-Подільського національного університету імені Івана Огієнка (протокол № 8 від 28.10.2020 р.).

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Посібник є спробою конденсованого викладу теоретичної інформації та практичних завдань з курсу лексикології англійської мови. Матеріал подано у вигляді лекцій та семінарських занять. Глосарій містить найбільш уживані лексикологічні терміни й поняття.

Призначений для студентів філологічних спеціальностей денної та заочної форм навчання.

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PREFACE

The manual considers the fundamentals of the word theory and the main problems concerning the present-day English vocabulary.

It embraces both theoretical issues and seminars assignments. The authors tried to establish links between the theory of lexicology and the reality of living speech, to present the material in an easy and comprehensible style.

It will be of interest to those who would like to gain some information about the vocabulary resources of Modern English, stylistic peculiarities of the English vocabulary, complex nature of the word meaning, the changes the English vocabulary underwent in its historical development, and other issues English lexicology deals with.

The authors are convinced that one can hardly acquire the perfect command of English without having knowledge of all these things, without understanding of the "inner mechanism" and outward influences which make the language system work.

The book is intended for students majoring in English philology and everybody interested in the problems in question.

PART I. LECTURES

Lexicology as a Branch of Linguistics

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

The term "lexicology" is composed of two Greek morphemes – *lexic* – word, phrase & *logos* which denotes learning a department of knowledge. Thus the literal meaning of the term "lexicology" is "the science of the word". Lexicology as a branch of linguistics has its own aims and methods of scientific research. Its basic task is being a study and systematic description of vocabulary in respect to its origin, development and its current use. Lexicology is concerned with words, variable word-groups, phraseological units and morphemes which make up words.

The term "vocabulary" is used to denote a system of words and word-groups a language possesses. The term itself appeared in the 16th century (from Medieval Lat. *vocare* – to name, call) and was used to denote a list of words with definitions and translations (*vocābulārium*).

What we know about the *word* is that it is a unit of language consisting of one or more spoken sounds or their written representation that functions as a principal carrier of meaning. Besides, it is known as a unit of speech which serves the purposes of human communication. Thus, the word can be defined as a unit of communication. The word can be perceived as the total of the sounds which comprise it. The word, viewed structurally, possesses several characteristics.

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

By *external structure of the word* we mean its morphological structure. E.g., in the word *impressions* the following morphemes can be distinguished: the prefix *–im*, the root *press*, the noun-forming suffix *–ion*, and the grammatical suffix of plurality *–s*. All these morphemes constitute the external structure of the word *impressions*.

The *internal structure of the word*, or its meaning, is referred to as the word's semantic structure. Words can serve the purpose of human communication mainly due to their meanings. The area of lexicology specializing in the semantic studies of the word is called *semantics*.

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

The formal unity of the word can best be illustrated by comparing a word and a word-group comprising identical constituents. The difference between a *blackbird* and a *black bird* is best explained by their relationship with the grammatical system of the language. The word *blackbird*, which is characterized by unity, possesses a single grammatical framing: *blackbird/s*. The first constituent *black* is not subject to any grammatical changes. In the word-group a *black bird* each constituent can acquire grammatical forms of its own: *the blackest birds I've ever seen*. Other words can be

inserted between the components which is impossible so far as the word is concerned as it would violate its unity: *a black night bird*.

The same example may be used to illustrate what we mean by semantic unity.

In the word-group *a black bird* each of the meaningful words conveys a separate concept: *bird* – a kind of living creature; *black* – a colour.

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

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

We proceed from the assumption that the word is the basic unit of the language system, the largest on morphological and the smallest on syntactic plane of linguistic analysis. The word is a structural and semantic entity within the language system. The word as well as any linguistic sign is a two-faced unit possessing both form and content, or, to be more exact, sound-form and meaning.

All the above said can be summed up as follows. The **word** is a speech unit used for the purposes of human communication, materially representing a group of sounds, possessing a meaning, susceptible to grammatical employment and characterized by formal and semantic unity. Besides the grammatical forms of words there are lexical varieties which are called "variants" of words. Words seldom possess only one meaning, but used in speech each word reveals only that meaning which is required. These are lexico-semantic variants.

There are some other problems facing contemporary lexicology studies.

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

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

When used in actual speech the word undergoes certain modifications in one of its forms. The system showing a word in all its

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By syntagmatic is meant the relationship that a linguistic element has with other elements in the stretch of language in which it occurs, while by paradigmatic is meant the relationship it has with elements with which it may be replaced or substituted. Thus if we consider «The cat is on the mat» we could talk of a syntagmatic relation between cat and mat, but if we compare this with «The dog is on the mat» we have a paradigmatic relation between cat and dog.

word-forms is called a ***paradigm***. The lexical meaning of a word is the same throughout the paradigm. The grammatical meaning varies from one form to another. Therefore when we speak on any word as used in actual speech we use the term "word" conventionally because what is manifested in the utterances is not a word as a whole but one of its forms which is identified as belonging to the definite paradigm. Words as a whole are to be found in the dictionary.

There are two approaches to the paradigm: as a system of forms of one word revealing the differences and relationships between them, e.g. to *see – saw – seen – seeing*.

In abstraction from concrete words the paradigm is treated as a pattern on which every word of one part of speech models its forms thus serving to distinguish one part of speech from another. On the paradigmatic level, the word is studied in its relationships with other words in the vocabulary system. So, a word may be studied in comparison with other words of similar meaning (synonyms), opposite meaning (antonyms), of different stylistic characteristics (*man – chap – bloke – guy*).

One further important objective of lexicological studies is the study of the vocabulary of a language as a system. The vocabulary can be studied *synchronically*, i.e. at a given stage of its development, or *diachronically*, i.e. in the context of the processes through which it grew, developed and acquired its modern form. The two approaches shouldn't be set one against another. In fact, they are interconnected and interrelated because every linguistic structure and system exist in a state of constant development so that the synchronic state of a language system is a result of a long process of linguistic evaluation, of its historical development.

Distinction is made between General Lexicology and Special Lexicology. General Lexicology is a part of General Linguistics. It is concerned with the study of vocabulary irrespective of the specific features of any particular language. Special lexicology is the lexicology of a particular language.

Lexicology is closely connected with other branches of linguistics. Phonetics, for example, investigates the phonetic structure of language and is concerned with the study of the outer sound-form of the word. Grammar is the study of the grammatical structure of language. It is concerned with the various means of expressing grammatical relations between words as well as with patterns after which words are combined into word-groups and sentences. There is a close relationship between lexicology and stylistics which is concerned with a study of a nature, functions and styles of languages.

The Etymology of Modern English Vocabulary

Etymology *(Greek étymon – істина, truth; lógos – word, study; etymology = origin) – a branch of linguistics studying the origin of words.*

English vocabulary as the one of any other language is the result of its long historic development. The present-day English vocabulary is a complex system comprising native words and borrowings.

Native words belong to the original English word-stock and are known from the earliest Old English manuscripts. Native words are usually subdivided into those of Indo-European stock and those of the common Germanic origin.

By ***the Indo-European element*** are meant words of roots common to all or most languages of the Indo-European group. Words of this group denote elementary concepts without which no human communication would be possible. The following groups can be identified:

1) family relations (*father, mother, brother, son, daughter*);
2) parts of the human body (*foot, nose, lip, heart*);
3) animals (*cow, swine, goose*);
4) plants (*tree, birch, corn*);
5) time of day (*day, night*);
6) heavenly bodies (*sun, moon, star*);
7) adjectives (*red, new, sad*);
8) the numerals from 1 to 100;
9) personal and demonstrative pronouns;
10) verbs (*be, stand, sit, eat, know*).

The English proper element is specific. The roots of the English proper words cannot be found in any other language. E.g.: *bird, boy, girl, lord, lady, woman, daisy, always*.

Language also varies across time. Pronunciations evolve, new words are borrowed or invented, the meaning of old words drifts, and morphology develops or decays. That is why the composition of any language vocabulary is not constant. It is synchronically and culturally dependent. In one thousand years, 14% of a vocabulary is changed.

Up to 70% of the English vocabulary are borrowings from various foreign languages, mainly Latin, French and Scandinavian.

A person who does not know English but knows French, Italian, Latin, Spanish is certain to recognize a great number of familiar-looking words when skipping through an English book.

Borrowings usually take place under two circumstances: 1) when people have a direct contact with another people; 2) when there is a cultural need to borrow a word from other languages. The English vocabulary contains a great number of words of foreign origin. Explanations for this should be sought in the history of the language which is closely connected with the history of the nation speaking the language.

In the first century A.D. the British Isles were occupied by the Roman Empire. In 43 A.D., Emperor Claudius began a gradual process of invasion which was completed by the year of 87. Highly civilized Romans who spoke ***Latin*** sufficiently changed the life of the local population, the Celts ("barbarians") inhabiting the isles. They taught them new and useful things, e.g. how to make *butter* and *cheese* (Lat. *būtyrum, cāseus*); introduced new fruits and vegetables: *cherry* (Lat. *cerasum*), *pear* (Lat. *pirum*), *plum* (Lat. *prunus*), *pea* (Lat. *pisum*), *pepper* (Lat. *piper*), even the word *plant*

(Lat. *planta*); introduced new utensils and food-stuffs: *cup* (Lat. *cuppa*); *kitchen* (Lat. *coquina*), *mill* (Lat. *molina*), *port* (Lat. *portus*), *wine* (Lat. *vinum*). The Latin *castrum* (a fortified camp) can be traced in the geographic names *Chester, Lancaster, Leicester, Manchester, Rochester.*

In the 5th century A.D. several of the Germanic tribes (the Angles, the Saxons, and the Jutes) migrated across the English Channel to the British Isles. They were confronted by the Celts, the original inhabitants of the Isles (Today, the term Celtic generally refers to the languages and respective cultures of Ireland, Scotland, Wales, Cornwall, the Isle of Man, and Brittany, also known as the Celtic nations. These are the regions where four Celtic languages are still spoken to some extent as mother tongues. The four are Irish Gaelic, Scottish Gaelic, Welsh, and Breton). The Celts retreated to the North and South-West (Scotland, Wales and Cornwall)). But the conquerors used to have numerous contacts with the defeated Celts and due to this fact they got to know and assimilated a number of **Celtic words** (Modern English *bald, down, glen, druid, bard, cradle, bog, tall, penguin, king*). Especially numerous among the Celtic borrowings were geographic names: the rivers *Avon, Exe, Usk, Ux* originate from Celtic words meaning "*river*" and "*water*".

The Germanic element of the vocabulary became the bulk of the Old English vocabulary. These are words of roots common to all or most Germanic languages. Some of them are the same as in the Indo-European element:
1) parts of the human body (*head, hand, arm, finger, bone*);
2) animals (*bear, fox, calf, sheep*);
3) plants (*oak, fir, grass*);
4) natural phenomena (*rain, frost*);
5) seasons of the year (*winter, spring, summer*);
6) landscape features (*sea, land, sand, earth*);
7) human dwellings and furniture (*house, room, bench*);
8) sea vessels (*boat, ship*);
9) adjectives (*green, blue, grey, white, small, thick, high, old, good*);
10) verbs (*see, hear, speak, tell, say, answer, make, give, drink, sing, find*).

From the end of the 8th to the middle of the 11th centuries England underwent several **Scandinavian** invasions which left their trace on the English vocabulary. Some of the words of Scandinavian origin are recognizable by the initial *sk-* combination: *sky, skill, skin, ski, skirt.*

Among the Scandinavian borrowings the following parts of speech are most numerous:
– nouns (*anger, bag, cake, dirt, egg, fellow, flake, fog, gate, gun, husband, law, leg, lump, lunch, steak, window, wing*);
– verbs (*blend, call, cast, crash, cut, drag, drown, dwell, gasp, gaze, get, glitter, guess, happen, hit, hurry, jump, mistake, scream, smile, struggle, take, want, welcome*);
– adjectives (*big, cosy, flat, ill, nasty, odd, shy, tight, tipsy, ugly*);
– pronouns (*both, they, them, their*).

In 1066 the famous Battle of Hastings took place. The English were defeated by the Normans under William the Conqueror. This event started the epoch of the Norman Conquest. On Christmas Day, 1066, William of Normandy was crowned king of England. In some respects the Normans learned much from the English past. The Conquest resulted in the subordination of England to a Norman aristocracy. Yet William replaced his initial policy of trying to govern through Englishmen with an increasingly thoroughgoing Normanization.

England became a bi-lingual country. French words of the Norman dialect penetrated every aspect of social life. They are called ***Norman French borrowings*** (Normans belonged to the race of Scandinavian origin but during their residence in Normandy they had given up the native language and adopted the French dialect). Such borrowings are especially numerous in official communication, military, judicial, administrative, educational, scientific, religious spheres. The invaders oppressed the conquered people but they could not make them forget their own language and speak theirs. The Normans behaved like the masters of the land they had conquered. The English nobility and the clergy tried to satisfy the new lords and hurried to learn the Norman French. But they could not make their servants – common, poor English people – follow their example. They went on speaking English as well as the inhabitants of rural districts.

As for the Norman French vocabulary it was mainly of Latin origin. The borrowed words may be divided according to the spheres of use:

– administrative words (*state, government, parliament, council, power, administer, document, client, constable*);

– legal terms (*court, judge, justice, crime, prison, arrest, persecute, plea, punish, verdict*);

– military terms (*army, war, soldier, officer, battle, enemy, advance, adventure, camp, chief, command, conquer, convoy, defence, destroy, injure, invade, invalid, ransom, rescue, revenge, rival, route, save, serve, station, surrender, traitor, victory, voyage*);

– educational terms (*pupil, lesson, library, science, pen, pencil*);

– names of plants and trees (*cabbage, cauliflower, lettuce, onion, radish, violet, cucumber, lily, palm, pine*);

– names of kinship (*niece, nephew, uncle, aunt*);

– names of civil communication (*act, baron, chamber, commerce, culture, duke, duchess, estate, gentry, market, marry, matrimony, noble, palace, people, person, public, mayor, region, register, reign, royal, rural, sir (sire)*));

– everyday life (*table, plate, saucer, dinner, supper, river, autumn, beast, beef, cage, cane, cave, clear, coast, cry, date, dine, dress, face, fade, race, save, site, size, soil, sum, tribe, use, vague, vain*).

The Norman French ruling minority dominated the church, government, legal, and educational systems for three centuries. The Norman establishment used French and Latin, leaving English as the language of the illiterate and powerless majority. During this period English adopted thousands of words from Norman French (a variety of Old

Northern French) and from Latin, and its grammar changed rather radically. By the end of that time, however, the aristocracy had adopted English as their language and the use and importance of French gradually faded. The period from the Conquest to the reemergence of English as a full-fledged literary language is called Middle English. Geoffrey Chaucer wrote his masterpiece, "The Canterbury Tales", in Middle English in the late 1300s.

Heavy borrowing from French occurred in two phases:

1) 1066-1250. About 900 words were borrowed during this phase, with most of them showing the effects of Anglo-Norman phonology. The largest number of words was borrowed for use in religious services since the French-speaking Normans took control of the church in England.

2) 1250-1400. A great influx of French into general English use took place between these years, a rather long period during which Anglo-Norman bilingualism gradually turned into a resurrection of English as mother tongue of all inhabitants of England.

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:

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

– words relating to military affairs (*corps, echelon, fuselage, manouvre*);

– words relating to buildings and furniture (*entresol, chateau, bureau*);

– words relating to food and cooking (*ragout, cuisine*).

During **_the Renaissance Period_** a lot of **_Latin_** and **_Greek_** words appeared in English. As for the Latin (Italian) borrowings they were mostly abstract words tended to be more learned in character(*allegory, index, magnify, mechanical, private, zenith, conspiracy, contempt, gesture, immune, infinite, necessity, popular, script, secular, solar, subjugate, temperature, testimony, vulgar,minor, moderate, intelligent, permanent, to elect, to create*). There were naturally numerous scientific and artistic terms (*datum, status, phenomenon, philosophy, method, music*). The same is true of Greek Renaissance borrowings (*atom, cycle, ethics, esthete*). Since the English has never been in direct contact with the Greek, its influence upon the English language is generally characterized as indirect. Almost all Greek words were introduced into English by means of Latin at first and later through French. Some of the earliest Greek borrowings are: *devil, church, academy, harmony, theatre, ecstasy*. The main linguistic and literature terms are of Greek origin as well: *diphthong, grammar, metaphor, monophthong, seme*). Some of European proper names are Greek: *Alexander, Andrew, Basil, Gregory, Luke, Nicholas, Pater, Philip, Stephen, Timothy; Angela, Barbara, Christine, Cora, Delia, Doris, Lydia, Margaret, Melanie, Penelope, Sophia.*

Some of widely used Latin borrowings are used contracted: *a.d. (anno domini)* – *нашої ери; a.m. (ante meridiem)* – *до опівдня; cf. (confer)* – *порівняйте; i.e. (idest)* – *тобто; v., vs. (versus)* – *проти.*

Cultural and trade relations between Italy and England brought many *Italian* words into English. The earliest Italian borrowings came into English in the 14th 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 "*banko rotta*" from which the English word "*bankrupt*" originated. In the 17th 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 for 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 20th century Italian borrowings we can mention: *autostrada, diletante, graffitto* etc.

Spanish borrowings came into English mainly through its American variant. There are the following semantic groups of them:
– trade terms (*cargo, embargo*);
– names of dances and musical instruments (*tango, rumba, habanera, guitar*);
– names of vegetables and fruit (*tomato, potato, tobacco, cocoa, banana, apricot*).

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

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

The first words (Russianisms) were borrowed in the second half of the 16th century by English merchants and ambassadors to Russia: *kvass* (a fermented drink in general use in Russia, taking the place of the beer of other countries), *yurt* (one of the houses or huts, whether permanent or movable, of the natives ofnorthern and central Asia. Also yourta, yourte, jurt).

After the October Revolution many new words appeared in Russian connected with the new political system, new culture, and many of them were borrowed into English, such as *collectivization, udarnik, Komsomol,Gulag, Lubyanka* etc. and also translation loans, such as *collective farm, five-year plan* etc.

One more group of Russian borrowings is connected with perestroika, such as *glasnost, nomenclatura, apparatchik* etc.

Ukrainian borrowings used to penetrate the English language mainly through Russian state and language influence and were usually treated as those belonging to the scope of Russian borrowings: *grivna, kobza, britska,sotnia*. Present-day borrowings mainly refer to the latest political events or appear as a result of tourist experience: *hryvnia, Cossack, borsch, hetman, Maidan, Verkhovna Rada* etc.

When words migrate from one language into another, they tend to adjust themselves to their new environment and get adapted to the norms of the recipient language. The changes that they undergo often erase their foreign features, and, finally, they are assimilated.

Assimilation – the process of adaptation of phonetic, grammatical and semantic features of the language.

Borrowed words are adapted phonetically, grammatically and semantically.

International words. It is often the case when a word is borrowed by several languages and not just by one. Such words usually convey concepts which are significant in the field of communication. Many of them are of Latin and Greek origin. Most names of sciences are international, e.g. *philosophy, chemistry, biology*, sport terms: *football, baseball, tennis*; foodstuffs and fruits imported from exotic countries: *coffee, chocolate, banana, grapefruit, coca-cola*; clothing: *pullover, short, jeans*. The English language also contributed a considerable number of international words to world languages: *volley-ball, hockey, cricket, rugby, golf etc.*

Etymological doublets – pairs of words which have one and the same original form but which have acquired different forms and even different meanings during the course of linguistic development. E.g. the words *shirt* and *skirt* etymologically descend from the same root. *Shirt* is a native word, *skirt* is a Scandinavian borrowing. Their phonetic shape is different, and yet there is a certain resemblance which reflects their common origin. Their meanings are also different but easily associated: they both denote articles of clothing. Such words as these two originating from the same etymological source, but differing in phonetic shape and in meaning are called ***etymological doublets***.

Translation-loans. This term is equivalent to borrowing. Translation-loans are not taken into the vocabulary of another language more or less in the same phonetic shape in which they have been functioning in their own language, but undergo the process of translation. It is obvious that only compound words can be subjected to such an operation, each stem being translated separately. E.g. *collective farm (колгосп), wonder child (Wunderkind); five-year-plan (п'ятирічка)*.

Morphology. Word-Formation

In linguistics, **morphology** is the study of the forms of words, and the ways in which words are related to other words of the same language.

A great many words can consist of smaller meaningful structural units which are called *morphemes (morphē – form)*. From the semantic point of view all morphemes are subdivided into 2 large classes: root morphemes (**roots**) and affixational morphemes (**affixes**). The **root** is the lexical nucleus of a word. It is common to a set of words that make up a lexical word-cluster, e.g. *act* in *act, actor, action, active, inactive*; *mean* in *mean, meaning, meaningful, meaningless*, etc. There exist many roots which coincide with root-words, e.g. *man, son, desk, tree, black, red, see, look*, etc.

The affixes, in their turn, fall into **prefixes** which precede the root (*unhappy, dissatisfied, rewrite, discover, impossible, mistreat, mistake*) and **suffixes** which follow the root (*friendship, peaceful, worker, slowly, selfish, dusty*).

Words which consist of a root and an affix (or several affixes) are called **derived words** or **derivatives** and are produced by the process of word-building known as **affixation** (or **derivation**).

The part of a word consisting of a root and an affix is called a **stem**. In English words stem and root often coincide. Stems that coincide with roots are known as **simple stems**, e.g. *boy*'s, *tree*s, *read*s etc. Stems that contain one or more affixes are **derived stems**, e.g. *teacher*'s, *government*s, *unremarkable* etc.

From the structural point of view morphemes fall into 3 types: free, bound and semi-bound morphemes.

A **free morpheme** can stand alone as a word, e.g. *friend*ly, *friend*ship, un*friend*ly (*friend*).

Bound morphemes occur only as constituent parts of words, e.g. free*dom*, great*ly*, poet*ic*, *de*part, *en*large, *dis*honest, *mis*print, con*ceive*, de*ceive*, re*ceive*, res*ist*, etc.

Semi-bound morphemes can function both as affixes and as free morphemes (i.e. words), e.g. *after, half, man, well, self* vs. *after-thought, half-baked, half-naked, chairman, footman, well-known, well-informed, himself, oneself.*

English words fall into 4 main structural types:

1) **simple words** (root words) which have only a root morpheme in their structure, e.g. *man, sky, pen, go, look, find, bright, ling, far, back*, etc.;

2) **derived words** (affixational derivatives) which consist of a root and one or more affixes, e.g. *joyful, retake, undo, childhood, disagreement, reproduce, indifferent* etc.;

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> Sometimes it is rather difficult to distinguish between simple and derived words especially in the cases of phonetic borrowings from other languages and of native words with blocked (unique) root morphemes, e.g. "perestroika", "absence" etc.

3) **compound words** (compounds) in which 2 or more stems are combined into a lexical unit, e.g. *classroom, whitewash, salesgirl, blackbird, forget-me-not, woman-doctor*;

4) **derivational compounds** in which phrase components are joined together by means of compounding and affixation, e.g. *long-legged, black-eyed, bald-headed, strong-willed.*

English vocabulary is not a stable, finite collection of words. New words and expressions are continuously coming into use, while older ones drop out of use. Additionally, old words often take on new meanings (e.g. *mouse, virus, window* in computing), and older meanings can simply die out (e.g. the original meaning of

computer was a person whose job was to make calculations or do accounts). Words are very rarely invented entirely from scratch. **Word-formation** is the process of creating new words from the material available in the word-stock according to certain structural and semantic patterns specific for the given language. Word formation can denote either a state or a process, and it can be viewed either diachronically (through different periods in history) or synchronically (at one particular period in time).

Various types of word-formation in Modern English possess different degrees of productivity. Some of them are **highly productive** (affixation, conversion, compounding, shortening); others are **semi-productive** (back-formation, sound-imitation); and **non-productive** (sound interchange, change of stress)

Affixation is the formation of new words by means of suffixes and prefixes.

An ***affix*** is a word element of English grammar used to alter the meaning or form of a word and comes in the form of either a prefix or a suffix. Prefixes include examples like "*un-*," "*self-*," and "*re-*," while suffixes come in the form of ending elements like "*-hood*," "*-ing*," or "*-ed*."

There are two categories of affixes: ***derivational*** and ***inflectional***. The main difference between the two is that derivational affixes are added to morphemes to form new words that may or may not be the same part of speech and inflectional affixes are added to the end of an existing word for purely grammatical reasons.

From the etymological point of view affixes are classified into ***native*** *(-er, -ing, un-, mis-)* and ***borrowed*** *(-tion, -ment, -ist, -ism, anti-, re-, sub-)*.

Suffixes derive a certain part of speech, hence we distinguish noun-forming *(-er, -ing, -hood, -dom, -ship)*, adjective-forming *(-ful, -less, -y, -ish, -ly, -en, -some)*, verb-forming *(-en, -ate)*, adverb-forming *(-ly)*.

Prefixes change the meaning of the root of the word, they do not change the category of a part of speech (e.g., *happy – unhappy*, adj, *understand – misunderstand*, v, *fortune – misfortun*e, n)

Compounding (***composition***). It is the type of word-building in which a new word is produced by combining 2 or more stems. The structural unity of a compound word depends upon: a) unity of stress; b) solid or hyphonated spelling; c) semantic unity; d) unity of morphological and syntactic 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, egg-plant*. 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 hyphonated spelling.

Compounding (composition) is one of the most productive types of word-building (alongside with affixation and conversion). There are 3 <u>structural types</u> of compounds:
1) ***neutral*** compounds – their elements are placed one after another without any linking elements: *blackbird, schoolboy, classmate, bedroom, sunflower*;

2) ***morphological*** – the elements are joined together by a linking vowel or a consonant: *Anglo-Saxon, spokesman, statesman, handicraft, handiwork*. Morphological compounds are very few in number. This type is non-productive;

3) ***syntactic*** compounds – are segments of speech, the result of combination of a free word-group into one unit: *lily-of-the-valley, Jack-of-all-trades, good-for-nothing, mother-in-law, up-to-date, go-between*. In this group of compounds we find a great number of neologisms.

The structure of most compounds is transparent and clearly shows the origin of these words from word-combinations. The compounds whose meanings do not correspond to the separate meanings of their constituent parts are called **idiomatic** compounds (*lady-bird, blue-bottle, mother-of-pearl*), in contrast to the **non-idiomatic** (*textbook, keyboard, desktop, staircase, door-bell*), whose meaning can be described as the sum of their constituent parts. The following joke rather vividly shows what happens if an idiomatic compound is misunderstood as non-idiomatic:

Patient: They tell me, doctor, you are a perfect <u>lady-killer</u>.

Doctor: Oh, no! I assure you, my dear madam, I make no distinction between the sexes.

In this joke, while the woman patient means to compliment the doctor on his being a handsome and irresistible man, he takes or pretends to take the word <u>lady-killer</u> literally, as a sum of the direct meanings of its constituents.

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.

Conversion.*Conversion* is the word formation process in which a word of one grammatical form becomes a word of another grammatical form withoutany changes to spelling or pronunciation. For example, the noun *email* appeared in English before the verb: a decade ago I would have sent you *an email* (noun) whereas now I can either *send you an email* (noun) or simply *email* (verb) you.

Conversion is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. The term "conversion" first appeared in the book by Henry Sweet "New English Grammar" in 1891. Conversion is sometimes referred to as an affixless way of word-building or even affixless derivation. It consists in making a new word from some existing word by changing the category of a part of speech, the morphemic shape of the original word remaining unchanged. The new word has a meaning which differs from that of the original one though it can more or less be easily associated with it.

Conversion may be regarded as a specific feature of the English categories of parts of speech. It is not only a highly productive but also a particularly English way of word-building. The analytical structure of Modern English greatly facilitates processes of making words of one category of parts of speech from words of another. It is a convenient and "easy" way of enriching the vocabulary with new words.

The 2 categories of parts of speech especially affected by conversion are nouns and verbs, e.g. verbs made from nouns: *tohand, to back, to face, to monkey, to blackmail, to can, to stage;* nouns made from verbs: *do (event, incident), go (energy), walk, worry, show, run, drink, whistle*;

verbs made from adjectives: *to pale, to yellow, to cool, to wet, to dry, to slow*.

Other parts of speech are not entirely unsusceptible to conversion as the following examples show: *to down, to out, the ups and downs, the ins and outs*.

Shortening. In the process of communication words and word-groups can be shortened. The causes of shortening can be linguistic and extralinguistic, by which changes in the life of people are meant. In Modern English many new abbreviations, acronyms, initials, blends are formed because the very life tempo 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 the form modification on the basis of analogy, so as the Latin borrowing *fanaticus* is shortened to *fan* on the analogy with native words: *man, pan, tan* etc.

There exist 2 main types of shortening: contraction and abbreviation.

Contraction (clipping). Shortenings (or contracted words) are produced by making a new word from a syllable or two of the original word. The latter may lose its beginning *(phone – telephone, story – history, plane – aeroplane)*, its ending *(ad – advertisement, lab – laboratory, doc – doctor, exam – examination, math – mathematics)* or both the beginning and the ending *(flu – influenza, fridge – refrigerator, Liz – Elizabeth)*.Sometimes the middle of the word is clipped: *mart (market), maths (mathematics), ads, adverts (advertisements)*.

Abbreviation (initial shortening) – making a new word from the initial letters of a word group. They are read 1) according to the rules of orthoepy as though they were ordinary words (*UNO, UNESCO, NATO*) or 2) letters get their full alphabetic pronunciation and a full stress (*USA, BBC, MP, FBI, PhD*).

As a rule, lexical abbreviations do not include functional words (prepositions, articles, etc.), although there are some exceptions*: R&D – research and development*.

Abbreviation does not change the part-of-speech meaning, it produces words belonging to the same part of speech as the primary word.

Back-formation is the derivation of new words (mostly verbs) by means of subtracting a suffix or other element resembling it, e.g. **to greed** from *greedy*, *tofingerprint* from *finger printings*, *to house-keep* from *a housekeeper, to locomote* from *locomotive, to televise* from *television, to vacuum-clean* from *vacuum-cleaner*. In these cases the verb was made from the noun by subtracting what was mistakenly associated with the English suffixes.

Sound-interchange is the formation of a new word due to an alteration in the phonemic composition of the root of a word. Sound-interchange can be of two types: 1) vowel-interchange, e.g. *full – fill*; in some cases vowel-interchange is combined with

suffixation, e.g. *long – length*; 2) consonant-interchange e.g. *believe – belief*. The combination of consonant-interchange and vowel-interchange may be found among English words either, e.g. *life – to live*.

Sound imitation (**onomatopoeia**). New words formed by this type of word-building denote an action or a thing by more or less exact reproduction of the sound which is associated with it: *cock-a-dodoodle-do*, *bang*.

Semantically, according to the source sound, many onomatopoeic words are divided into the following groups: 1) words denoting sounds produced by human beings in the process of communication or expressing their feelings, e.g. *chatter, boor*; 2) words denoting sounds produced by animals, birds, insects, e.g. *moo, buzz*; 3) words imitating the sounds of water, the noise of metallic things, movements, e.g. *splash, scratch, swing*.

Stress interchange. There is a large class of such words characterized by ambiguity in stress placements. When a word can be stressed on two different syllables, stress placement determines the part of speech of the word (e.g. whether it is a verb or a noun). As a rule of thumb, if the stress is on the second syllable, the word is usually a verb: *ac'cent, v – accent, n; ad'dict, v – 'addict, n*.

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 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.

Blending is a specific type of shortening. **Blends** are formed by means of merging parts of words (not morphemes) into a new word. In other words, blending is compounding by means of clipping. In blends two ways of word-building are combined: abbreviation and composition. One of the first blends in English was the word *smog (smoke +fog)*. As a rule, many blends are shortlived. In the language of advertising they are created for a specific aim only: to attract attention of the people with the help of interesting linguistic discoveries: *crocoraffe = crocodile + giraffe* (the mystical symbol of the company producing toys, clothes, etc. for children). Some of the blendings were so successful that they have already become part of the language: *motel = motor + hotel,botel = boat + hotel, airtel = airport + hotel*. Because of its influence thousands of blendings appear every year, especially in the language of advertising: *casomat = cash + automat, popcert = popular + concert, yarden = yard + garden*. Most of them would disappear in the whirlpool of the same blends, but some would survive and enlarge the vocabulary existing universally.

Semasiology. Lexical Meaning and Semantic Structure of English Words

The linguistic science at present is not able to put forward a definition of meaning which is conclusive. The very function of a word as a unit of communication is made possible by its possessing a meaning. Therefore, among the word's various characteristics, meaning is certainly the most important.

Generally speaking, *meaning* can be more or less described as a component of the word through which a concept is communicated. Thus a word is able to denote real objects, qualities, actions and abstract notions. *Lexical meaning* reflects the concept expressed by the given word.

The branch of linguistics which specializes in the study of meaning is called *semasiology (semantics)*.

The name comes from the Greek *semasia* 'signification' (from *sema* 'sign' and *semantikos* 'significant'). As semasiology deals not with every kind of linguistic meaning but with lexical meaning only, it may be regarded as a branch of lexicology.

The modern approach to semantics is based on the assumption that the inner form of a word (i.e. the meaning) presents a structure which is called *the semantic structure of the word.*

The semantic structure of a word does not present an indissoluble unity, nor does it necessarily stand for one concept. It is generally known that most words convey several concepts and thus possess a corresponding number of meanings.

The main semantic structures of a word are monosemy and polysemy.

Monosemy (from Greek *mono* – one, *sēma* – sign) is the existence within one word of only one meaning. Monosemantic words are comparatively few in number. They are mainly scientific terms (*biochemistry, cybernetics, bronchitis, molecule*), some pronouns (*this, my, both*), numerals.

Polysemy (from Greek *poly* – many, *sēma* – sign) is the existence within one word of several connected meanings. One of them is the *main (central) meaning*, whereas the rest are *associated (marginal) meanings*. Polysemantic words constitute the bulk of the English vocabulary. E.g.: *face (n.) 1) the front of the head (the main meaning); 2) the expression of the countenance; 3) the main or front surface; 4) the surface that is marked, as of a clock; 5) appearance; outward aspect; 6) dignity, self-respect (associated meanings).*

The word "polysemy" means "plurality of meanings", it exists only in the language, not in speech. A word having several meanings is called *polysemantic*. Most English words are polysemantic. The system of meanings of any polysemantic word develops gradually, mostly over the centuries, as more and more new meanings are either added to old ones, or oust some of them. So the complicated processes of polysemy development involve both the appearance of new meanings and the loss of old ones.

The leading semantic component in the semantic structure of a word is usually termed *denotative (= referential) component*. It expresses the conceptual content of a

word. Additional semantic components are **termed connotations or connotative components.** E.g.:

	Denotative components	Connotative components
Lonely, adj.	Alone, without company	Melancholy, sad (emotive connotation)
To glance, v.	To look	To look briefly, passingly (connotation of duration)
To glare, v.	To look	To look steadily, lastingly (connotation of duration; To look in anger, rage (emotive connotation)

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

Customer. I would like a book, please.

Bookseller.Something light?

Customer. That doesn't matter. I have my car with me.

All this leads us to conclusion that **context** is a good and reliable key to the meaning of the words, but not the only. Some other criteria should be used.

The usual pattern of a word's semantic development is from monosemy to polysemy, with two and more meanings developing into a complex semantic structure.

The process of development of a new meaning (or a change of meaning) is traditionally termed *transference*. (The word may transfer from one referent onto another thus acquiring a new meaning).

The type of transference based on resemblance (similarity) is called **linguisticmetaphor**. A new meaning appears as a result of associating 2 objects (phenomena, qualities, shape, function, position, colour, temperature, etc.) due to their outward similarity. E.g. *box* (a small separate enclosure forming a part of a theatre) developed on the basis of its former meaning (a rectangular container used for packing or storing things). Other examples of linguistic metaphor are: *the teeth of a saw, the neck of a bottle, a bar of chocolate, the heart of the country, the eye of a needle, the foot of the mountain, to catch an idea, to grasp a chance (opportunity), to make friends, to go hot and cold.*

Lexico-Semantic Classes of Words

The word *"**homonym"*** comes from the Greek word "*homonymos*" which means "having the same name. The word "*homo*" means the same and "*nym*" means name.

Homonyms are words which are identical in sound and spelling, or, at least, in one of these aspects, but different in their meaning. E.g.:

Bank – a shore; bank – an institution for receiving, lending, exchanging, and safeguarding money.

Ball – a sphere, a round object used in games; ball – a large dancing party.

English vocabulary is rich in such pairs and even groups of words. Their identical forms are mostly accidental; the majority of homonyms coincided due to phonetic changes which they suffered during their development.

Walter Skeat classified homonyms according to their spelling and sound forms. He pointed out three groups. Homonyms which are the same in sound and spelling are termed **perfect homonyms (homonyms proper)** (e.g. the given above *ball, bank*).

Homophones are the same in sound but different in spelling. Homophonesare also known assound-alike words**,**e.g.: *night – knight, or – ore – oar, piece – peace, scent – cent, sent; to steal – to steel; son – sun; rite, n – to write, – right; sea – to see*. In the sentence "The play-write on my right thinks that some conventional rite should symbolize the right of every man to write as he pleases" the sound complex [rait] is noun, adjective, adverb and verb, has 4 different spellings and 6 different meanings.

The difference may be confined to the use of a capital letter as in "*bill*" and "*Bill*": "*How much is my milk bill?*" – "*Excuse me, madam, but my name is John*". On the other hand, whole sentences may be homophonic: "*The sons raise meat*" – "*The sun's rays meet*". To understand this one needs a wide context.

Homographs – words which are the same in spelling but different in sound. E.g.: *to lead – lead; to tear – tear; to polish – Polish, bow – to bow.*

Homonyms may be classified by the type of their meaning. In this case one should distinguish between:

1. **Lexical homonyms** which belong to the same part of speech, e.g. *light (легкий, світлий); club (клуб, кийок, клюшка); bear (терпіти, нести)*;

2. **Grammatical homonyms** which belong to different parts of speech, e.g. *row (гребти, ряд); weather – whether, brothers – brother's*;

3. **Homoforms** which are identical only in some of their paradigm constituents, e.g. *bore, n. – bore (p.p. bear); scent – sent; to found – found (p.p. find).*

Sources of homonyms. One of the sources of homonyms is a phonetic change which a word undergoes in the course of its historical development. As a result of such changes, words which were formerly pronounced differently, may develop identical sound forms and thus become homonyms. "*Night*" and "*knight*", for instance, were not homonyms in Old English as the initial "k" in the second word was pronounced. The verb "*towrite*" in O.E. had the form "*writan*" and the adjective "*right*" had the form "*reht*" or "*riht*".

Another source of homonyms is borrowing. A borrowed word may, in the final stage of the phonetic adaptation conclude the form either with a native word or another borrowing. So in the group of homonyms "*rite*, n – *to write*, v – *right*, adj." the second and third words are of native origin, whereas "*rite*" is a Latin borrowing (Latin "*ritus*"); "*bank, n*" (a shore) is a native word, and "*bank, n*" (a financial institution) is an Italian borrowing.

Word building also contributes significantly to the growth of homonymy, the most important type of it being conversion. Such pairs of words as *comb, n – comb, v*; pale, *adj. – pale, v* etc. are numerous in vocabulary. Homonyms of this type refer to different categories of parts of speech and are called lexico-grammatical homonyms.

Shortening is a further type of word-building which increases the number of homonyms. For example, *fan* (an enthusiastic admirer of some sportsman, actor, singer etc.) is a shortening produced from *fanatic*. Its homonym is a Latin borrowing *fan* – an element for waving and producing of some cool wind.

The term **synonym** comes from a combination of the Ancient Greek *syn*, meaning with, and *onoma*, meaning "name." Synonyms are regular and essential parts of everyday language that we use almost without thinking. They come in all parts of speech: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and so on.

Synonyms are words belonging to the same part of speech, differing in sound form, and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical denotative meanings. There are such main types of synonyms:

– *ideographic* synonyms which differ in shades of meaning but convey the same concept, e.g. *to shake – to tremble – to shiver – to quiver; fast – rapid – swift – quick*;

– *stylistic* synonyms which differ in stylistic characteristics, e.g. *father – parent – dad (daddy) – papa – governor; to eat – to partake – to wolf – to lay in*.

In most cases the synonymic group includes both ideographic and stylistic synonyms, e.g. *to begin* (neutral) – *to commence* (bookish) – *to start* (neutral) – *to initiate* (bookish). 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*.

N o t e !

It has often been suggested that English is particularly rich in synonyms for the historical reason that its vocabulary has come from two different sources, from Anglo-Saxon on the one hand and from French, Latin and Greek on the other. Since English is considered to be a Germanic language from a historical point of view, with Anglo-Saxon as an earlier stage of its development, the 'Anglo-Saxon' words are often considered to be 'native' while those from French, Latin or Greek are 'foreign', 'borrowed' from these languages. But the terms 'native' and 'foreign' are misleading. For whatever their origins, most of the words are an essential and wholly natural part of the English language; moreover, even some of the 'native' words may well have been 'borrowed' from some other language at some time in the more remote past. Unfortunately, there are often moves to remove the 'foreign' element from languages. Frenchmen deplore 'Franglais' (the English words that are now common in colloquial French), while the Welsh spend time and scholarship to find substitutes for the 'English' words in the language, though they are quite happy to retain the 'Latin' words that entered an earlier form of the language at the time of the Roman Empire.

Nevertheless, it is true that there are pairs of 'native' and 'foreign' words. Thus we have brotherly and fraternal, buy and purchase, world and universe, and many others. The 'native' words are often shorter and less learned, four-letter words (in the quite literal sense) are mostly from Anglo-Saxon. There are examples too of triples, one 'native', one from French, one directly from Latin – kingly, royal, regal (though with this set it is the word of French origin, royal, that is today in more common usage).

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.

– **absolute** synonyms are quite alike in their meanings and stylistic colouring. They are interchangeable in all contexts and are very rare, e.g. *to moan – to groan, fatherland – motherland – homeland; word-building – word-formation; compounding – composition.*

Each group of synonyms comprises a ***synonymic dominant*** – the unit possessing the most general meaning of the kind which can substitute any word in the group, e.g. ***to shine*** *– to flash, to gleam, to glisten, to sparkle, to glitter, to shimmer, to glimmer;* ***red*** *– purple, scarlet, crimson.*

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. 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 borrowing).

Antonyms. We use the term "antonyms" to indicate words of the same category of parts of speech which have contrasting meanings, e.g. *hot – cold, light – dark, happiness – sorrow, to accept – to reject, up – down*. Antonyms are identical in style, too.

Antonyms fall into 2 main groups:

1) ***root (absolute) antonyms*** (those which are of different roots), e.g. *long – short, quickly – slowly, up – down, love – hatred, to start – to finish;*

2) ***affixational (derivational) antonyms*** (in which special affixes or their absence express semantic opposition), e.g. *hopeful – hopeless, faulty – faultless, happy – unhappy, appear – disappear, regular – irregular.*

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*.

Polysemantic words usually have antonyms for each of their lexico-semantic variant (component of lexical

> ***N o t e !***
> English abounds in pairs of words such as wide/narrow, old/young, big/small, etc. These, all of them adjectives, have in common the fact that they may be seen in terms of degrees of the quality involved. Thus a road may be wide or very wide and one road may be wider than another. We have, that is to say, gradation of width, age, size, etc., all indicated by such adjectives as these.

meaning): *a dull knife – a sharp knife, a dull boy – a bright boy, a dull novel – a thrilling novel.*

Antonymy is not evenly distributed among the categories of parts of speech. Most antonyms are adjectives because qualitative characteristics are easily compared and contrasted: *high – low, wide – narrow, strong – weak, old – young.* Verbal pairs of antonyms are fewer in number: *to lose – to find, to live – to die, to open – to close.*

Nouns are not rich in antonyms: *friend – enemy, joy – grief, good – evil, frost – heat.*

Antonymic adverbs can be a) adverbs derived from adjectives: *warmly – coldly, merrily – sadly*; b) adverbs proper: *now – then, here – there, ever – never, in – out.*

Together with synonyms, antonyms represent the language's important expressive means. Authors use antonyms as a stylistic device of contrast.

Phraseology

The term "*Phraseology*" was coined in the 1550s from the Greek *phrasis*, "way of speaking," and it originally meant "a phrase book."

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. 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».

In modern linguistics, there is a considerable confusion about the terminology associated with these word-groups. Most Russian as well as Ukrainian scholars use the term "*phraseological unit*" which was first introduced by Academician V.V. Vinogradov. The term "*idiom*" widely used by western scholars has comparatively recently found its way into Ukrainian phraseology but is applied mostly to only a certain type of phraseological unit.

There are some other terms denoting more or less the same linguistic phenomenon: set-expressions, set-phrases, phrases, fixed word-groups, collocations.

Phraseological units are stable word-groups characterized by a completely or partially transferred meaning. Phraseological units cannot be made in the process of speech, they exist in the language as ready-made units. The same as words they express a single notion and are used in a sentence as one part of it.

There are 2 major criteria for distinguishing between phraseological units and word-groups: semantic and structural.

<u>*The semantic shift*</u> affecting phraseological units does not consist in a mere change of meanings of each separate constituent part of the unit. The meanings of the constituents merge to produce an entirely new meaning: e.g. *to have a bee in one's bonnet* means "to have an obsession about something; to be eccentric or even a little mad".

That is what is meant when phraseological units are said to be characterized by semantic unity. In the traditional approach, phraseological units have been defined as

word-groups conveying a single concept (whereas in free word-groups each meaningful component stands for a separate concept).

The structural criterion also brings forth distinctive features characterizing phraseological units and contrasting them to free word-groups.

Structural invariability is an essential feature of phraseological units, though, some of them possess it to a lesser degree than others, e.g. *a bee in smb's bonnet – a bee in his hat* (an error, a silly choice of words); *to build a castle in the air – to build castles in the air*; *the early birds – early birds*; *by Jove! – by ginger*!

There exist a number of different classification systems by different scholars based on different principles (thematic, etymological, structural). The classification system of phraseological units made by Academician V.V. Vinogradov, was the first classification system based on the semantic principle. According to the classification based on the semantic principle English phraseological units fall into the following classes:

1. ***Phraseological combinations*** – word-groups with a partially changed meaning. They are clearly motivated, the meaning of a unit can be easily deduced from the meanings of its constituents, e.g. *to break silence, to make friends, to take into account, now and then*. Phraseological combinations are not only motivated but contain one component used in its direct meaning, while the other is used metaphorically, e.g. *to meet the **requirements**, to attain **success***.

2. ***Phraseological unities*** – word-groups with a completely changed meaning; the meaning of the unit does not correspond to the meanings of its constituent parts. They are motivated units or, putting it another way, the meaning of the whole unit can be deduced from the meanings of the constituent parts. The metaphor, on which the shift of the meaning is based, is clear and transparent; they are metaphorically motivated idioms, e.g. *to wash smb's dirty linen in public* (to tell people about one's hidden sins and faults)*, a snake in the grass* (a person with harmful intentions)*, to lose one's heart to smb (*to fall in love)*, the last drop/straw* (the final culminating circumstance that makes a situation unbearable).

3. ***Phraseological fusions*** – word-groups with a completely changed meaning but, in contrast to the unities, they are demotivated, their meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of the constituent parts; they are completely non-motivated idiomatic word-groups, the metaphor, on which the shift of meaning was based, has lost its clarity and is obscure, e.g. *to pull smb's leg* (to deceive smb.), *to bell the cat* (to take a risk for the good of others), a *white elephant* (a present one can't get rid of).

Phraseological units may be classified in accordance with their structure and their ability to perform the same syntactical functions as parts of speech. The classification based on the structural and syntactic principles distinguishes phraseological units into the following classes:

1. ***Verbal,*** denoting an action, a state, a feeling, e.g. *to lose one's head, to take the bull by the horns, to look through one's fingers, to fish in troubled waters*.

2. **Substantive** *(noun, nominative),* denoting an object, a person, a living being, e.g. *an apple of discord, strong language, a hard nut to crack, birds of feather, a black sheep.*

3. **Adjectival**, denoting a quality, e.g. *as busy as a bee, safe and sound, as slow as a snail, cold as a fish, as poor as a church mouse, hot as pepper.*

4. **Adverbial**, set expressions functioning like adverbs, e.g. *from head to foot, like a shot, in cold blood, in the twinkling of an eye, within one's reach, above one's reach, by all means.*

5. **Interjectional,** set expressions functioning like interjections, e.g. *good heavens!, by George!, great guns!, a pretty kettle of fish!* These are often structured as imperative sentence: *Bless your heart!, my aunt!, Tell me another! Ask me another*!

Many phraseological units are polysemantic. Their polysemantic structure develops mostly due to further metaphoric transference of their meaning. It can be illustrated by the following examples:

a) *"You look right as rain, Mr. Carrnody; You'll <u>be on your feet</u> again in a week"* (F.O'Connor) – *I thought that you could stop any plan to prosecute me in this matter, and gave me time <u>to get on my feet again</u>"* (Th.Dreiser);

b) *He <u>let fly</u> at the cows with a handful of small stones* (Longman") – *"You're up against me. Sorry, but there it is! You can <u>let fly</u>"* (Galsworthy).

Like words phraseological units can be related as **synonyms**, e.g. *before the ink is dry – in a twinkle of an eye – before my eye can say Jack Robinson – like a shot; to close one's eyes to smth – to turn a blind eye to smth.; such master, such servant – such as a tree is, such is the fruit; to pin smb to the wall – to drive smb into a corner.*

Phraseological units should not be mixed up with **variants** of a phraseological unit, e.g. *to add fuel to the fire – to add fuel to fire – to add oil to fire – to add fuel to the flame; God knows – goodness knows – Heaven knows – the Lord knows; not worth a bean – not worth a button – not worth a pin – not worth a straw.*

Proverbs

A proverb is a brief, simple, and popular saying, or a phrase that gives advice and effectively embodies a commonplace truth based on practical experience or common sense. A proverb may have an allegorical message behind its odd appearance.Proverbs often use metaphors or creative imagery to express a broader truth. "Adage" is another word for "proverb."What we generally call proverbs are traditional, pithy, often formulaic and/or figurative, fairly stable and generally recognizable units. Proverbs are characteristi-cally used to form a complete utterance, make a complete conversational contribution and/or to perform a speech act in a speech event. This differentiates them from non-sentential items like proverbial phrases, idioms, binomials etc.

Proverbs are different from phraseological units. There is obvious structural dissimilarity. Phraseological units are a kind of ready-made blocks which fit into the structure of a sentence performing a certain syntactical function, more or less as words do. Proverbs are sentences and cannot be used in the way in which phraseological units

are used. Proverbs can be compared with small texts, fables, they sum up the collective experience of the community. They moralize, give advice, give warning, criticize etc.

The function of phraseological units in speech is nominative (they denote an object, an act, etc), but the function of proverbs is communicative (they render some information).

Professor A.V. Koonin includes proverbs in his classification of phraseological units and labels them *communicative phraseological units*. There is one more definition for them – *phraseological expressions*. Here may belong proverbs, sayings and aphoristic familiar quotations, e.g. *The dogs bark, but the caravan goes on; An apple a day keeps the doctor away; Don't cross the bridge till you come to it; Curiosity killed the cat, Something is rotten in the state of Denmark (Shakespeare), I came, I saw, I conquered (J.Caesar), Please all, and you will please none (Aesop), I wish he could explain his explanation (Byron).*

There does not seem to exist any rigid or permanent border-line between proverbs and phraseological units as the latter rather frequently originate from the former. So the phraseological unit *the last straw* originated from the proverb *The last straw breaks the camel's back*, the phraseological unit *birds of feather* from the proverb *Birds of feather flock together; to catch at a straw(s) – A drowning man catches at straws.*

What is more, some of the proverbs are easily transformed into phraseological units. E.g. *There is a black sheep in every family – black sheep; An early bird catches the worm – an early bird; Keep smth for a rainy day – a rainy day; No man can serve two masters – to serve 2 masters; You cannot teach an old dog new tricks – to teach an old dog new tricks; Forbidden fruit is sweetest – forbidden fruit.*

Proverbs are short intelligent sayings that convey the essence of human experience about life, society, and the world. Such expressions are orally handed down from one generation to another. In addition to the long experience of human beings, proverbs also hold the essence of everyday wisdom, talent, spirit, tradition, education and folk beliefs of a society or a nation. Although they grow out of things of the past, proverbs concern contemporary life as well.Hence, proverbs and sayings most clearly illustrate lifestyle, and geography, and history, and traditions of a community united by a single culture.

Proverbs unite features of the lexeme, sentence, set phrase, collocation, text and quote. Proverbs are epigrammatic: they may extend from a tiny sentence to a rhyming couplet, but convey a meaningful idea. These short statements are generally accepted observations of life based on experience. Proverbs change over time before taking a final shape. Sometimes a proverb may have regional variations.

The definition of a proverb which renders it as a "collection of words (i.e. a phrase or a sentence) that has been disseminated forth, and has become a common saying generally elucidating some truth" is not enough. A proverb is generally considered to be a sentence which shows the following attributes: didactic character, picturesqueness, and minimum variability. Proverbs are witty. No other form of folk literature can express so much in such few words.

Proverbs appear in a variety of different sentence types; from a syntactic perspective, these sentences may be classified into four distinct types according to the number of clauses and sub-clauses they contain. These sentence types are: simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex. The most basic sentence is the simple sentence,which contains one main clause (subject and predicate) and no subclauses. They are typically simple, declarative, non-oppositional, and stylistically unmarked i.e. theydo not contain many stylistic markers. They appear in both affirmative and negative form as can be seen in the examples (1-2) below:

Still waters run deep. It is never too late to learn.

Complex sentences contain one clause and one or more subclauses; the subclauses may be adjectival, nominal, or adverbial: *Never put off until tomorrow what you can do today; He laughs best who laughs last.*

Compound sentences possess multiple independant clauses which are separated by a coordinator: *There is one good wife in the country, and every man thinks he has her; Corn in good years is hay, in ill years straw is corn.*

Closely related to the aforementioned sentence types is the nominal sentence. This refers to a type of sentence with a predicate lacking a finite verb. Words and phrases are juxtaposed for the purposes of emphasis and intensity, but either there is no explicit grammatical connection between these phrases or the verbal construct has become redundant over time and is omitted: Cold of complexion, good of condition; No pains, no gains; Like father, like son.

Besides, there are imperative and interrogative sentences.

Proverbs in the form of imperative sentences express a kind of order: *Never be weary of well doing; Never say never; Don't trouble trouble till trouble troubles you.*

Among English proverbs there are very few interrogative sentences. These sentences, interrogative in form, are declarative in meaning, that is, they are rhetorical questions and need no answer: *Why should the devil have all the best tunes? All are good maids, but whence come the bad wives? Who knows who's a good maid? What's worse than ill luck? Who is worse shod than the shoemaker's wife? What good can it do an ass to be called a lion?*

The purpose of a proverb is to present wisdom in a compact, lasting format. Proverbs have provided a significant source of practical wisdom for people of all backgrounds and education levels.The language of proverbs is simple but picturesque. Proverbs will survive for many years to come.

Stylistic Differentiation of English Words

The social context in which the communication is taking place determines both the mode of dress and the modes of speech. When placed in different situations, people instinctively choose different kinds of words and structures to express their thought. The suitability or unsuitability of a word for each particular situation depends on its stylistic characteristics or, in other words, on the functional style it represents.

The term *functional style* (Lat. *stylus*, Gr. *stylos* – a wooden instrument used for writing on wax tablets) is generally accepted in modern linguistics. Professor I.V. Arnold defines it as 'a system of expressive means peculiar to a specific sphere of communication'.

By the sphere of communication we mean the circumstances attending the process of speech in each particular case: professional communication, a report, an informal talk, a formal letter, an intimate letter, a speech in court, etc. All these circumstances can be roughly classified into 3 types: stylistically neutral (basic vocabulary); formal (a lecture, a speech in court, professional communication) and informal (an informal talk, an intimate letter).

We use formal language in situations that are serious or that involve people we don't know well. Informal language is more commonly used in situations that are more relaxed and involve people we know well.

Formal language is more common when we write; informal language is more common when we speak. However, there are times where writing can be very informal, for example, when writing postcards or letters to friends, emails or text messages. There are also examples where spoken English can be very formal, for example, in a speech or a lecture. Most uses of English are neutral; that is, they are neither formal nor informal.

Formal language and informal language are associated with particular choices of grammar and vocabulary.

***Stylistically neutral layer (basic vocabulary*)** is the living core of the vocabulary. It consists of words mostly of native origin though it also comprises fully assimilated borrowings. These words are stylistically neutral, and, in this respect, opposed to formal and informal words. Their stylistic neutrality makes it possible to use them in all kinds of situations, both formal and informal, in verbal and written communication. These words are used every day, everywhere and by everybody, regardless of profession, occupation, educational level, age group or geographical location. These are words without which no human communication would be possible. They denote objects and phenomena of everyday importance (E.g *house, bread, man, woman, sky, table, street, go, move, speak, easy, long, often, never* etc.). Such words are devoid of any emotive colouring and are used in their denotative meaning, without any additional information (connotations). In groups of synonyms neutral words fulfill the function of the synonymic dominant. As to the morphological structure, they are often root-words. Since they are devoid of emotive colouring their frequency value is very high and they are often polysemantic, with a great combinative power.

> ### *N o t e !*
> 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.

Formal words are called ***literary-bookish words,*** or ***learned words***. But the term 'learned' is not precise and does not adequately describe the exact characteristics of these words. Learned words are used in descriptive passages of fiction, scientific texts, radio and TV announcements, official talks and documents, business correspondence, etc. As a rule, these words are mostly of foreign origin (borrowings) and have poly-morphemic structure, e.g. *solitude, fascination, cordial, paternal, maternal, commence, assist, comprise, endeavour, exclude, heterogeneous, hereby, thereby*, etc.

As to the morphological structure, they are often root-words. Since they are devoid of emotive colouring their frequency value is very high and they are often polysemantic, with a great combinative power.

This vocabulary layer is not homogeneous. The main groups of learned words are as follows: archaic words, historisms, poetic words, neologisms, terms.

Archaisms (obsolete words) are moribund words, already partly or fully out of circulation, and having their synonyms in the living language. They may be found in historical novels (to create a particular period atmosphere), poetry, elevated style. E.g.: *thou (you), thee (you – Objective), thine (your), nay (no), moon (month), glee (joy), eve (evening)* etc. As a rule, archaisms have synonyms belonging to the neutral layer of modern English vocabulary. Their main function is to achieve solemnity of expression.

Poetic words with elevated, "lofty" colouring are traditionally used only in poetry. Most of them are archaic and have stylistically neutral synonyms, e.g. *lone (lonely), brow (forehead), woe (sorrow), behold (see), oft (often), array (clothes)*.

Historisms (historical words) are words which denote objects or phenomena which no longer exist. Historical words have no neutral synonyms in Modern English. E.g. *yeoman, arbalest, archer, shire, knight, longbow, villain, burg, burgess*.

It is necessary to distinguish between '***historisms***' and '***archaisms***'. Historisms are words and phrases that have become obsolete because the things they denote are outdated and do not exist any longer. Historisms are numerous as names for social relations, institutions and objects of material culture of the past. The names of the ancient transport means, such as types of boats and carriages, ancient clothes, weapons, musical instruments, trades and professions can offer many examples. No modem synonym can be found for historical words.We find historical words in the names of trades and professions which do not exist today:

e.g. *fletcher* – one who made arrows

chandler – one who made candles

gleeman – one who played the harp

Many names of horse-drawn carriages have also become obsolete and can be found only in fiction.

e.g. *brougham* – a light closed carriage with the driver outside

the frontgig – a light two-wheeled one-horse carriage

phaeton – a light four-wheeled horse-drawn vehicle

We find historical words with the names of sailing ships (*caravel, galleon, corvette*), names of old musical instruments (*lyre, theorba, ciihara*), names of various

types of weapon used by knights in the Middle Ages (*sword, crossbar, halberd*)and different elements of knight armour (*shield, breastplate, vizor, gauntlet*). Many of them remain in the language in some figurative meaning as part of a phraseological unit.

e.g. *double-edged sword*–something that can have both favourable and unfavourable consequences

throw down the gauntlet –make an open challenge to a combat

Archaisms are obsolete names for existing objects. They always have a synonym, a word denoting the same concept but differing in its stylistical sphere of usage.

Lexical archaisms are bookish words which are not used in everyday speech. Their frequency value is very low. They may be found in historical novels where they are used to create the atmosphere of ancient times. Archaisms are also used in poetry in elevated speech. They are still used in some kinds of official documents, in books on religious subjects, sermons, prayers, etc.

e.g. *deem*–think, *damsel*–girl, *yonder*–there, *woe*–grief, ere–before, *forebears*–ancestors, *steed*–horse, *slay*–kill, *welkin*–sky

Archaisms may be classified into lexical and grammatical. Lexical archaisms arewords; grammatical archaisms are obsolete grammatical forms.

In Old English the personal pronoun *thou*(with the corresponding verb ending in '*est*') was always used in addressing a single person. Now it is used only in poetry; the poetical possessive pronouns *thy*and *thine* never occur in everyday speech.

'*Wilt*', second person singular of '*will*' is common in poetry.

e.g. *Do what thou wilt.*

Among other archaic grammatical forms we find the inflection *-est* for the second person singular, *-th*for the third person singular.

e.g. *Man goth.*

Thou knowest.

Archaic adverb and conjunctions are often used in legal documents.

e.g. *hereafter*–after this time, *thence*–from that time as a result, *wherein*–in which.The use of archaisms is often a stylisticdevice making lively and creating various images. It often helps the writer to reproduce a living picture of the time of which he writes.

Historisms used in Modern English demonstrate denotative meaning whereas archaisms are always loaded with connotative associations.

New notions constantly come into being, requiring new words to name them. New words and expressions or neologisms are created for new things irrespective of their scale of importance. They may be all important and concern some social relationships such as a new form of state (*People's Republic*), or the thing may be quite insignificant and shortlived, like fashions in dancing, clothing, hairdo or footwear (rollneck). In every case either the old words are appropriately changed in meaning or new words are borrowed, or more often coined out of the existinglanguage material either according to the patterns and ways already productive in the language at a given stage of its development or creating new ones. Thus, a neologism is a newly coined word or

phrase or a new meaning for an existing word, or a word borrowed from another language. The intense development of science and industry has called forth the invention and introduction of an immense number of new words and changed the meaning of old ones, e.g. *aerobics, black hole, computer, hardware, software, isotope, feedback, penicillin, pulsar, super-marketand* so on.

Neologisms are words and word-groups that denote new concepts, e.g. *teledish* (a dish-shaped aerial for receiving satellite television transmission), *roam-a-phone* (a portable telephone), *magalog* (a large magazine-format catalogue advertising mailorder goods), etc.This term comes from Greek „néo", what is meant as a „new", and „logos", what is meant as a„speech, utterance". Neologisms are words that have appeared in the language in connection with new phenomena, new concepts, but which have not yet entered into the active vocabularies of a significant portion of the native speakers of the languag

Neologisms are mainly coined according to the productive models for word-building in the given languages. Most of the literary coinages are built by means of affixation and word compounding. Also it is said that affixation and compounding are the most productive and dominant ways of coining new words. Most of the literary-bookish coinages are built by means of affixation and word compounding that is still predominant in coining new words.For example, *cyberterrorism* – "навмисна, політично мотивована атака на інформаційні, комп'ютерні системи, програмиідані". Here, by adding prefix *cyber-* a word acquires new sense that is connected with computer technologies and cybernetics; *nanobot* – "робот мікроскопічних розмірів" (refix *nano-* means a microscopic subject, that's why all the words with such a prefix are relatively new as nanotechnologies themselves, and indicate that the subject they describe has a very small size).

The main feature of a neologism is novelty of a lexical unit in public consciousness within a certain time period. In linguistics, neologisms are classified according to the way of word formation, origin and purpose.

In any language vocabulary there are groups of words which belong to special scientific, professional or trade terminological systems which are not used or even understood by people outside the particular speciality (profession). Every field of modern activity has its specialized vocabulary, e.g. medical vocabulary, music, linguistic, psychological vocabularies. These vocabularies are comprised of special terminologies, the main unit of the latter being a term.

Term is a word or a word-group which is specifically employed by a particular branch of science, technology, trade or the arts to convey a concept peculiar to this particular activity. Examples of terms are as follows:

> **N o t e !**
> At the present moment English is developing more swiftly and there is so called "neology blowup". Averagely 800 neologisms appear every year in Modern English. It has also become a language-giver recently, especially with the development of computerization.

Medicine: *antiseptics, anaesthesia, analgesic, anaemia, sterile, stethoscope*.

Computing: *cybercafe, cybercitizen, cyberspace, to debug, microbooster, to deblock*.

Algebra: *equation, variable, constant, coefficient, square root*.

Terms are special words which express with utmost precision certain concepts of science, engineering, politics, diplomacy, philosophy, linguistics and etc. Here we find names of special objects, tools, different phenomena, processes, qualities peculiar to a certain branch of technology, science, art, etc.

Terms have some peculiarities which distinguish them from ordinary words: as a rule, terms have no emotional, expressive colouring but actualize their denotative meaning. They are never used in figurative, transferred meaning (though they themselves often owe their origin to a transferred usage of some common word).In the same branch of science, engineering, etc. a term must be monosemantic.

According to their semantics and spheres of application, we distinguish three groups of terms:

– terms which exist as terms only and function within the limits of one terminology only, e.g. *diphtong, palatalization, pronoun*;
– terms which may be used in several systems of terms with different specialized meaning, e.g. *progressive, regressive, assimilation*;
– words which may function as terms and ordinary words and have homonyms in different systems of terms, e.g. *nut, head, knee–joint; to dress a wound–to dress a salad–to dress iron.*

As a rule, **learned words** are mainly associated with the printed page. But this is not exclusively so. Any educated English-speaking individual is sure to use many learned words which shows not only his/her professional skills but also the riches of everyday speech and broad outlook. So, the sphere of use of learned words is not always restricted to fiction, official or professional communication, but they occur in common conversational speech as well. Yet, excessive use of learned elements may present conversational hazards. Utterances overloaded with such words sound absurd and ridiculous. Writers use this phenomenon for stylistic purposes to produce a comic effect.

Informal language is mainly used between people who know each other well, or in relaxed and unofficial contexts.Informal language is more casual and spontaneous. It is used when communicating with friends or family either in writing or in conversation. It is used when writing personal emails, text messages and in some business correspondence.

Informal words and word-groups are traditionally divided into 3 types: *colloquial, slang* and *dialect words and word-groups*.

The word "colloquialism" comes from the Latin *colloquium*, which means a "conference" or "conversation."A colloquialism is a word or expression that makes up the informal style of language that people use in casual conversation. One should distinguish between literary (standard) colloquial words as units of Standard English and non-literary colloquialisms that belong to sub-standard English vocabulary.

Literary colloquial words are used in everyday conversations both by cultivated and uneducated people and are also met in written literary texts. They are closer to neutral words than to literary-bookish units, but, as a rule, have stronger emotional colouring. They are formed on standard word-formative patterns (contraction, conversion), e.g.: *granny, birdie, baby-sit, daily* (n.), *pal, chum* (friend), *girl* (a woman of any age), *disco, do away, pram, flu, movie*.

Literary colloquial words are words with a tinge of familiarity or inofficiality about them. There is nothing ethically improper in their stylistic coloring, except that they cannot he used in official forms of speech. Colloquial words mark the message as informal, non-official, conversational.

_N o t e !_

According to the British lexicographer, Eric Partridge (1894-1979), people use slang for any of at least 15 reasons:

1. In sheer high spirits, by the young in heart as well as by the young in years; 'just for the fun of the thing', in playfulness and waggishness.

2. As an exercise either in wit and ingenuity or in humor. (The motive behind this is usually self-display or snobbishness, emulation or responsiveness, delight in virtuosity).

3. To be 'different', to be novel.

4. To be picturesque.

5. To be unmistakable arresting, even startling.

6. To escape from cliches, or to be brief or concise.

7. To enrich the language.

8. To land an air of solidity, concreteness, to the abstract; to the idealistic; of immediacy and appositeness to the remote.

9a. To reduce, perhaps also to disperse the solemnity, the pomposity, the excessive seriousness of conversation (or of a piece of writing).

9b. To lessen the string of, or on the other hand to give additional point to a refusal, a rejection, a recantation.

9c. To soften the tragedy, to lighten or to 'prettify' the inevitability of death or madness, or to mask the ugliness of the pity of profound turpitude.

10. To speak and write down to an inferior, or to amuse a superior public; or merely to be on a colloquial level with either one's audience or one's subject matter.

11. For ease social intercourse.

12. To induce either friendliness or intimacy of a deep or a durable kind.

13. To show that one bellows to certain school, trade or profession, artistic or intellectual set, or social class; in brief, to be 'in the swim' or to establish contact.

14. Hence, to show or prove that someone is not 'in the swim'.

15. To be secret – not understood by those around one.

Non-literary (sub-standard) colloquial words include slang, jargonisms, professionalisms, vulgarisms, dialect words and word-groups.

The term "slang" originated in the USA at the beginning of the 20th century and then penetrated to the other countries. ***Slang*** comprises highly informal words not accepted for dignified use. It seems to mean everything that is below the standard of usage of present-day English. The "New Oxford English Dictionary" defines slang as follows:

a) the special vocabulary used by any set of persons of a low or disreputable character; language of a low and vulgar type;

b) the cant or jargon of a certain class or period;
c) language of a highly colloquial type considered as below the level of standard educated speech, and consisting either of new words or of current words employed in some special sense.

As is seen from these definitions slang is represented both as special vocabulary and as a special language. Slang is much rather a spoken than a literary language. It originates, nearly always, in speech.

Slang words, used by most speakers in very informal communication, are highly emotive and expressive. Such words are expressive sub-standard substitutes for current words of standard vocabulary. As a rule, their meanings are based on metaphor and have a jocular or ironic colouring. But yet all their meanings are based on metaphor, they strike us as singularly unpoetical. E.g.: *attic, bean (head), means, bread, scratch (money), saucers, blinkers (eyes), soaked, stewed, plastered (drunk), rot (nonsense), to leg (to walk)*.

Slang expressions are created by the same processes that affect ordinary speech. Expressions may take form as metaphors, similes and other figures of speech (*dead as a doornail*). Words may acquire new meanings (*cool, cat*). A narrow meaning may become generalized (*fink*, originally a strikebreaker, later a betrayer or disappointer) or vice-versa (*heap,* a run-down car). Words may be clipped, or abbreviated (*mike*, microphone), and acronyms may gain currency (*imho*(in my humble opinion)*, awol* (absent without official leave), *VIP*). A foreign suffix may be added (the Yiddish and Russian-*nik* in *beatnik*) and foreign words adopted (*baloney*, from Bologna). A change in meaning may make a vulgar word acceptable (*jazz*) or an acceptable word vulgar (*angel dust*, drug; *bread busket*, stomach). Sometimes words are newly coined (*oomph*, energy or impact).

Slang is considered to be created to freshen the language, to vitalize it, to make the language more pungent and picturesque, to increase the store of terse and striking words. Slang is now socially acceptable, not just because it is slang but because, when used with skill and discrimina-tion, it adds a new and exciting dimension to language. At the same time, it is being seriously studied by linguists and other social scientists as a revealing index to the cul-ture that produces and uses it.

Informal words peculiar for a certain social or professional group should be considered as ***jargonisms***. Such words are usually motivated and, like slang words, have metaphoric character. Jargonisms stand close to slang, also being sub-standard, expressive and emotive, but unlike slang they are used by limited groups of people, united either professionally or socially. The aim of jargon is to preserve secrecy within one or another social or professional group. Jargonisms are generally neutral words with entirely new meanings imposed on them. Most of them are absolutely incomprehensible to those outside the social group which has invented them. E.g.:

Bird (rocket, spacecraft)*, garment* (pressure space suit) – astronauts' jargon;

Grass, tea, weed (narcotic) – drug addicts' jargon.

Script (prescription), *STAT* (immediately), *BP* (blood pressure), *FX* (bone fracture) – medical jargon.

Ear-to-ear (to discuss in detail over the phone), *boil the ocean* (try for the impossible) – business jargon.

People who are not a part of this industry or group may not be able to understand the jargon used, as the words are either obscure terms or have different definitions than the regular usage of the word. Jargon is used to provide more efficient communication between members of a certain group, though at times it can also be used to exclude others who are not part of the group or to show one's own belonging to the group.

Professionalisms (professional vocabulary) are sub-standard colloquial words used by people of a definite trade or profession, usually connected by common interest at work or even at home. They fulfill a socially useful function in communication, facilitating a quick and adequate grasp of the message. Such words are informal substitutes for corresponding terms. E.g.: *nuke* (nuclear), *Hi-Fi* (high fidelity), *anchors* (brakes)*, smash-up* (accident), *dine and dash* (eating and then running off without paying the bill), *K9* (a dog unit in the police), *bottletop* (a cheap, low-quality lens used by photographers) and the like.

This type of vocabulary is special words or turns of speech, expressions that are actively used in any field of human activity. These words are a bit isolated, since they are not used by a large mass of the country's population, only a small part of it, which has received a specific education. The words of professional vocabulary are used to describe or explain production processes and phenomena, tools of a particular profession, raw materials, the final result of work and the rest.Today, linguists and linguists agree that professional vocabulary is not a literary language, but it has its own structure and characteristics. Its main feature is that such vocabulary is formed during the natural communication of people.

Professionalisms should not be mixed up with jargonisms. Like slang words, they do not aim at secrecy. Here are some professionalisms used in different trades: *Tin-fish* (submarine)*, piper (*a specialist who decorates pastry with the use of a cream – pipe), *the basement* (the article located at the bottom of the newspaper), *baby catcher* (obstetritian), *top brass* (the highest military officials), *Olympic torch* (a police officer who never leaves the station), *to drill down* (to analyze or scrutinize).

Terminology and language of a specialty differ from each other. These two concepts are delimited on the basis of their historical development. Terminology appeared relatively recently, refers to this concept of the language of modern technology and science. Professional vocabulary has reached its peak in the days of handicraft production.Terminology is used in scientific journals, reports, conferences, specialized institutions. In other words, is the official language of a particular science. Professionalismsare lexical units that do not have a strictly scientific nature.The vocabulary of the professions is applied "semi-officially", that is, not only in special articles or scientific papers. Specialists of a certain profession can use it in the course of work and understand each other, whereas it will be difficult for an uninitiated person to learn what they say. Professional vocabulary has some opposition to terminology:

1. The presence of emotional coloring of speech and imagery – the lack of expression and emotionality, as well as figurative terms.

2. Special vocabulary is limited to conversational style – the terms do not depend on the usual style of communication.
3. A certain range of deviations from the norms of professional communication is a clear correspondence to the norms of professional language.

Vulgarisms are coarse words with a strong emotive meaning; words denoting the notions which are taboo in a given speech community, normally avoided in polite conversation. Vulgarity is often employed used to express emotion in language and can be used either to express negative sentiment or emotions or to intensify the sentiment present in the conversation. Generally, these are expressions that are crude, raw,and from off the streets.Vulgar language is used to debase or devalue the thing or individual referred to or described. Vulgarisms include: a) expletives and swear words of abusive character (e.g. *damn, goddamn, bloody, son of a bitch, bastard, to hell*); b) obscene (or taboo, four-letter) words which are highly indecent. The latter are not even fixed in common dictionaries. They are euphemistically called "four-letter" words. We should differentiate between 1) those which have lost their shocking power and are not meant to abuse anybody; they serve as mere signals of strong emotions (e.g. *I know damn well; It was a crazy dream; It's a devilish job*) and 2) those which are meant to offend, insult or abuse (e.g. *the son of a bitch; shut your bloody mouth*!).

Within the group of vulgarisms, ***expletives*** are singled out. These are interjections that are clearly emotionally charged (e.g. *Damn it!, Hell!*). Not addressing anyone specifically, speakers use expletives to release their frustrations and vent their emotions. Often they are reflexive reactions to something that has unexpectedly happened to the speaker. For instance, what would one say after having stubbed a toe?

Dialect words are characteristic of some local dialect. They have emotive colouring only when used out of their special sphere of application.

Some of them have entered the general vocabulary and lost their dialect status. To these words belong *lass* meaning *a girl*; *lad – a boy* or *a young man*.

Dialect is used commonly in literature. An author may elect to use dialect if he or she wants to represent the characters well. In order to do so, the author will write dialogue specific to the region of the character.

Dialects and Variants of the English Language

Dialectis a variety of a language, spoken in one part of a country, which is different from other forms of the same language, e.g. Yorkshire and Lancashire dialects.

Linguists distinguish local dialects and variants of English. In the British Isles there exist 5 main groups of local dialects which developed from Old English local dialects: Northern, Western, Midland, Eastern, and Southern. Besides, there is Lowland (Scottish) dialect. These dialects, used as means of oral communication, are peculiar to comparatively small localities. They are marked by some deviations mostly in pronunciation and vocabulary, but have no normalized literary form.

Both native speakers and those learning may notice he enormous variety to be found in the way English is spoken in different parts of the country. For example, across the UK, a bread roll might be referred to in different regions as a "*bun*", a "*bap*", or a "*barm cake*", among other things – all essentially the same thing, but referred to differently.

Each group of dialects contains local varieties (dialects/accents) characterized by peculiarities in the language use. For instance, the Birmingham accent – part of the 'Black Country' dialect, which refers to the name given to this part of the Midlands, formerly 'black' from coal mining. The saying "round the Wrekin" is common in and around the Black Country, including the counties of Herefordshire, Worcestershire, Shropshire, Staffordshire and others. It refers to a prominent hill in Shropshire called "the Wrekin" – pronounced "REE-kin" – which can be seen for miles around. The phrase "round the Wrekin" simply means "to take the long way around", which could refer to a long route taken when travelling somewhere, or to a long, rambling conversation that takes ages to get to the point.

The Scouse dialect is spoken in the English city of Liverpool and its surrounding counties. This distinctive dialect, characterised by its rising and falling tones and the use of "youse" instead of "you" as the second person pronoun, has an extensive vocabulary of slang, of which the following are some examples.

The Yorkshire accent is the archetypal Northern English one, and it's characterised particularly by the shortening of "the" to a single "t" sound, as in "middle of t'road", and by the dropping of consonants at the beginning of some words, such as "'appy" instead of "happy".

One of the best known Southern dialects is Cockney, the regional dialect of London. This dialect is traditionally spoken by London's working class. Some peculiarities of this dialect can be seen in the first act of "Pigmalion" by B.Shaw: interchange of [v] and [w], e.g. *wery vell*; interchange of [f] and [Ɵ], interchange of [v] and [ð], e.g. *fing* (*thing*), [fa:ve] (*father*); interchange of [h] and [-], e.g. "*eart*" for "*heart*", "*hart*" for "*art*"; substituting the diphthong [ai] by [ei], e.g. "day" is pronounced [dai]; substituting [au] by [a:], e.g. "*house*" is pronounced [ha:s], "*now*" [na:]; substituting [ou] by [o:], e.g. "*don't*" is pronounced [do:nt]. Another feature of Cockney is rhyming slang: "*hat*" is "*tit for tat*", "*wife*" is "*trouble and strife*", "*head*" is "*loaf of bread*" etc.

Regional varieties of English possessing literary form are called **variants**. In the British Isles there are two variants, Scottish English and Irish English.

A dialect is usually opposed to the literary variety of the language whereas variants possess literary varieties of their own. But variants can't be considered separate languages either as a language is supposed to possess a vocabulary and a grammar system of its own.

The varieties of English spoken in the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and India should be considered as variants of Modern English. Each of them is characterized by distinct peculiarities in pronunciation, spelling, vocabulary, and grammatical system.

AMERICAN ENGLISH

Do the English and the Americans speak the same language or two different languages? There is an old saying that America and Britain are "two nations divided by a common language".

There are scholars who regard American English as one of the dialects of the English language. This theory can hardly be accepted because a dialect is usually opposed to the literary variety whereas American English possesses a literary variety of its own. But it is not a different language either. A language is supposed to possess a vocabulary and a grammar system of its own.

So, the variety of English spoken in the USA has received the name of American English.

American English begins its history at the beginning of the 17th century when first English-speaking settlers began to settle on the Atlantic coast of the American continent. The language which they brought from England was the language spoken in England during the reign of Elizabeth the First.

Most of the differences between the English of the UK (BrE) and the English of North America (AmE) are vocabulary differences and differences in pronunciation and spelling.

The vocabulary used by American speakers has distinctive features of its own. Moreover, there are whole groups of words which belong to American vocabulary exclusively and constitute its specific feature. These words are called *Americanisms*. The first group of such words may be described as *historical Americanisms*. The first English migrants began arriving in America at the beginning of the 17th century. The language they spoke was in its 17th c. form. E.g. the noun *fall* was used by the first migrants in its meaning '*autumn*', the verb *to guess* in the meaning '*to think*', the adjective *sick* in the meaning '*ill, unwell*'. In the American usage these words still retain their old meanings whereas in British English their meanings have changed.

The second group of Americanisms includes words which are specifically American and are called *proper Americanisms*. They were formed by migrants from the Old Country (England) to name the new and strange things they came across in the New World. E.g. *backwoods* (wooded, uninhabited districts), *sweet potato* (a plant with edible fruit), *cat-bird* (a small North-American bird whose call resembles mewing of a cat) and others. These words are made of the 'building materials' which are familiarly English; word-building patterns of composition and the constituents of the compounds are essentially English as well.

Later proper Americanisms are represented by names of objects which are called differently in the USA and England. E.g. the British *chemist's* is called *drug store* in the USA, Br. *sweets* – Am. *candy*, Br. *underground* – Am. *subway*, Br. *lift* – Am. *elevator*.

There are some differences between British and American English in the usage of prepositions, such as prepositions with dates, days of the week, e.g. BE requires "on" (I start my holiday *on* Friday), in American English there is no preposition (I start my

vacation Friday). In BE we say "at home", in AE – "home" is used. In BE we say "different to something", in AE – "different from something".

Actually, there are not 2 vocabularies but one. The basic vocabulary is the same in American and British English.

Differences in spelling

The reform in the English spelling for American English was introduced by the famous American lexicographer Noah Webster who published his first dictionary in 1806. Those of his proposals which were adopted in the English spelling are as follows:

a) the deletion of the letter "u" in words ending in "our", e.g. *honor, favor*;
b) the deletion of the second consonant in words with double consonants, e.g. *traveler*;
c) the replacement of "re" by "er" in words of French origin, e.g. *theater, center*;
d) the deletion of unpronounced endings in words of Romanic origin, e.g. *catalog, program*;
e) the replacement of "ce" by "se" in words of Romanic origin, e.g. *defense, offense*.

Differences in pronunciation

In American English we have *r*-coloured fully articulated vowels, in the combinations *ar, er, ir, or, or, our* etc. In BE the sound [o] corresponds to the AE [^], e.g. "not". In BE before fricatives and combinations with fricatives "a" is pronounced as [a:], in AE it is pronounced [æ], e.g. class, dance, answer, fast etc. There are some differences in the position of the stress:

BE	AE
re`cess	`recess
in`quiry	`inquiry
la`boratory	`laboratory
re`search	`research
ex`cess	`excess

Some words in BE and AE have different pronunciation, e.g.

BE	AE
[`fiɡə]	[`fiɡjer]
[lef`tenənt]	[lu:`tenənt]
[`ζedju:l]	[`skedju:l]

But these differences do not prevent Englishmen and Americans from communicating easily and cannot serve as a proof that British and American are different languages.

Differences in grammar

Aside from spelling and vocabulary, there are certain grammar differences between British and American English. For instance, in American English, collective

nouns are considered singular (e.g. *The band is playing*). In contrast, collective nouns can be either singular or plural in British English, although the plural form is most often used (e.g. *The band are playing*).

The use of the auxiliary verb *will* in the 1st person singular and plural of the Future Indefinite Tense does not imply modality. The distinctive feature is to substitute the Past Indefinite Tense for the Present Perfect: *I saw this movie* (Br. *I've seen this film*).

Americans, however, continue to use '*gotten*' as the past participle of '*get*', which the British have long since dropped in favour of '*got*'.

AmE speakers often use *be going to* (and the informal short form *gonna*) when giving street directions, which is not a typical use in BrE. BrE speakers normally use imperatives (with and without *you*), and present simple or future forms with *will*.

'*Needn't*', which is commonly used in British English, is rarely, if at all used in American English. In its place is '*don't need to*'.

American English is practically uniform all over the country because of the constant transfer of people from one part of the country to the other.

But the inevitable conclusion is that the language spoken in the USA is, in all essential features, identical with that spoken in Great Britain.

AUSTRALIAN ENGLISH

The Anglophone Australia and New Zealand are two of the youngest nations in the world. Australian English began to diverge from British English soon after the foundation of the Colony of New South Wales in 1788.

The first Europeans who took their residence in Australia came about 200 years ago. They did not come because they wanted to. Australia was founded as a penal colony. The British convicts sent to Australia were mostly people from large English cities, such as Cockneys from London. In addition to these many of the original immigrants were free settlers, military personnel and administrators and their families.A much larger wave of immigration, as a result of the first Australian gold rushes, in the 1850s, also had a significant influence on Australian English, including large numbers of people who spoke English as a second language.

Until now, the Australians with British ancestors are the predominant part of the population. Among them, the area where nowadays Australians most probably can find their ancestors is the region around London. The second important group of immigrants were Irish, mainly responsible for the huge number of Catholics in Australia compared with Britain (30,4 % in 1851).

Australian pronunciation is more or less the Cockney one of the last 18th century, having developed independently ever since it missed the RP-contact arising in Britain in the 19th century but conservatively like most exported languages are. Indeed, Australian English is different from any accent existing in England.

Australianisms. Most of the Australian specialties in vocabulary derive from English local dialects. Few aboriginal words were borrowed, though a third of the

place names is taken from their languages, with an increasing number in our days. Here are some examples of the Australian vocabulary:

Australian English	British English
this arvo	*this afternoon*
footpath	*pavement*
weekender	*holiday cottage*
sheila	*girl*
Aussie	*Australian*
fed with	*tired of*

Lots of everyday words are different in different English-speaking countries, like *candy* (USA), *sweets* (UK) and *lollies* (AU).

Australian English incorporates many terms that Australians consider to be unique to their country. One of the best-known of these is *outback* which means a remote, sparsely-populated area. The similar *bush* can mean either native forests, or country areas in general. However, both terms are historically widely used in many English-speaking countries. Many such words, phrases or usages originated with the British convicts transported to Australia.

Some elements of Aboriginal languages have been incorporated into Australian English, mainly as names for places, flora and fauna (for example *dingo, kangaroo*). Beyond that, few terms have been adopted into the wider language, except for some localised terms, or slang. Some examples are *cooee* and *Hard yakka*. The former is a high-pitched call (pronounced /kʉ:.iː/) which travels long distances and is used to attract attention. *Cooee* has also become a notional distance: *if he's within cooee, we'll spot him*. *Hard yakka* means *hard work* and is derived from *yakka*, from the Yagara/ Jagara language once spoken in the Brisbane region.

Regional variation is practically absent in Australia. However, in opposition to the situation in America, Australian English knows a great social range of different speeches. Through this influence you can distinguish Educated Australian from Broad Australian.

Spelling is the next major difference between these different varieties of English. The UK and Australia share the same spelling, while the United States decided to create their own spelling system Here are some examples:

USA	Australia/UK
-er (center)	*-re (centre)*
-or (color)	*-our (colour)*
-ize (organize)	*-ise (organise)*
-og (analog)	*-ogue (analogue)*
-led/ling (traveled)	*-lled/lling (travelled/travelling)*

Pronunciation. The most obvious difference between Australian English, American English, and British English is in the accents or pronunciation. This difference is especially noticeable in vowel sounds.

The vowel system of Broad Australian is very similar to Cockney. Educated Australian is close to RP. The main specialties of the former is [ə] in unstressed position within a word where the English use [ɪ], and the ending –y, which is pronounced [ɪ]. Like in the American South [æu] occurs in words like *pound*.

As for the consonants, there are no glottal stops (in spite of all the similarities of BA to Cockney). Some Australians, maybe due to Irish influx, produce rhotic words.

American English is famous for its clear /r/ sounds, whereas British or Australian English lose the /r/ sound if it's at the end of a word or syllable. For example, the word "smarter" is pronounced /smɑrtər/ in American English, but /smɑːtə/ in British and Australian English.

The main peculiarity that makes an Australian recognized as such is the particular intonation pattern. As a whole, the accent is marked by a pronunciation reminding of southern English, but with a "nasal twang" ("Australian twang", described as being slightly different from New England twang) and a "drawl" as in America. In fact, the broadest dialect is defined by the longest vowels.

Grammar.Probably the least noticeable difference between American English, Australian English and British English is grammar. There are only a few small examples, like collective nouns or past tenses. The other examples may be seen from the table:

USA	AUSTRALIA	UK
*The class **is** happy*	*The class **is** happy*	*The class **are** happy*
*I **learned** it*	*I **learnt** it*	*I l**earnt** it*

One other difference is the use of the Present Perfect (for example, *I have eaten dinner already*). This is much more common in Australian English and British English. In the United States, people will use the past simple more often — they would say, "*I ate dinner already.*"

Many Australians believe themselves to be direct in manner and/or admire frank and open communication. Such sentiments can lead to misunderstandings and offence being caused to people from other cultures.

For instance, spoken Australian English is generally more tolerant of offensive and/or abusive language than other variants.Australian English makes frequent use of diminutives. They can be formed in a number of ways and can be used to indicate familiarity. Some examples include *arvo* (afternoon), *servo* (service station), *bottle-o* (bottle-shop), *barbie* (barbecue), *cozzie* (swimming costume) and *mozzie* (mosquito).

Sometimes the differences between Australian English, American English and British English can be frustrating and difficult. But it should be remembered that overall, these three varieties of English are more similar than different, and the little differences are what give a language its unique "flavor"!

CANADIAN ENGLISH

Canadian English seems neither here nor there in the grand scheme of English varieties. On the one hand, Canadians prefer the "British" spelling of words like *colour*

or *centre*. On the other hand, everyone who has heard an anglophone Canadian speak will notice that the pronunciation is very close to American English. In fact, most people will have a hard time differentiating Canadian English vs. American English speakers.

Canadian English is a product of several waves of immigration and settlement over more than two centuries.

Spelling. The "rules" for Canadian spelling are not as cut and dried as someone might think. There are some regional variations, and differences of opinion exist among editors. E.g., if a word ends in a single vowel followed by a single consonant, that consonant is usually doubled for most suffixes. "*I am biased since I helped myself to local cuisine while travelling in Greec*e." This rule is a little different from the American rule, which forbids the consonant doubling unless the word has one syllable, or stresses the last syllable.

The great *-our* debate lies in the fact that only about 40 common words take *-our*, while many common words do not. Worse still, many words that take *-our* lose the extra letter when the words are elongated. *Glamour* becomes *glamorous*, *honour* becomes *honorary* and *colour* becomes *coloration*. However, the most recent version of the Gage Canadian Dictionary finally gave the *-our* spelling precedence.

Words derived from Greek**,**like *realize* and *recognize*, are spelled with an *-ize* ending in Canadian and American English, whereas the British counterparts end in *-ise*. Canadian English also uses the American spelling for nouns like *curb*, *tire* and *aluminum*, rather than the British spellings *kerb*, *tyre* and *aluminium*.

Vocabulary. Canadian English differs from American or British English in some of the ways. E.g.:

Anglophone: Someone who speaks English as a first language.

Bill vs. *check*: Canadians ask for the *bil*l.

Can vs. *tin*: Younger Canadians tend to eat out of *cans*, while older Canadians often eat out of *tins*.

Chemist vs. *drugstore* vs. *pharmacy*: Canadians don't go to *chemists*, at least not when they need aspirin.

Click: Canadian slang for kilometre. "I drove 50 *clicks* last week".

Corn vs. *maize:* In Canada, *corn* is a specific cereal plant with yellow kernels. In England, *corn* refers to a broader range of cereals, including wheat, rye, oats and barley. What Canadians call *corn*, the English call *maize*.

Elevator vs. *lift*: Canadians take *elevators*.

Floor vs. *storey*: *Floor* is preferred in Canada. Note that *the first floorof buildings* in Quebec is actually *the second floor* in the rest of the country.

Francophone: Someone who speaks French as a first language, opposed to an anglophone.

Gas vs. *petrol*: Canadians fill the tanks of their cars with *gas*.

Holiday vs. *vacation*: Canadians generally go on *vacations*.

Honour guard: The Canadian equivalent is *guard of honour*.

Railroads vs. *railways*: Canadians prefer *railways*.

Washroom: Canadians head for the *washroom* when they need to use the toilet. *Bathrooms* are places with bathtubs in them.

A two-way ticket can be either a *round-trip* (American term) or a *return* (British term).

What most Americans call a *candy bar* is usually known as a *chocolate bar* (as in the UK).

Most Canadian students receive *marks* rather than *grades* in school. ("What mark did you get on that exam?") Students *write* exams, they do not *take* or *sit* them.

Canada's automobile industry has been heavily influenced by the U.S. from its inception, which is why Canadians use American terminology for the parts of automobiles. For example, Canadians use *hood* over *bonnet*, *freeway/highway* instead of *motorway,* and *truck* in place of *lorry*.

In contrast, most of Canada's institutional terminology and professional designations follow British conventions.

Pronunciation.Canadian and American English are very similar in pronunciation. So similar, in fact, that they are often classified together as **North American English**. Generally, Canadian pronunciation is almost identical to American pronunciation, especially in Ontario, which was first settled by Americans who supported George during the Revolution.

There are some small differences, however. Canadians tend to pronounce *cot* the same as *caught* and *collar* the same as *caller*. Many Canadians also will turn *[t]* into *[d]*, so Iron Maiden will seem to be a "heavy-*meddle*" band and the capital appears to be "*Oddawa*".

There are pronunciation and vocabulary differences in three Canadian regions.

In Quebec, the accent is an interesting combination of Jewish and French influences. Quebec anglophones have freely adopted French words, such as *autoroute* for *highway*, as well as French constructions, such as *take a decision* and *shut a light*. In Quebec, people take the *Metro* instead of the *subway*, belong to *syndicates* instead of *unions* and attend *reunions* instead of *meetings*.

In Atlantic Canada, accents are more influenced by Scottish and Irish sounds, especially in CapeBreton and in Newfoundland. Newfoundland has hundreds of distinctive words, many of them derived from its fishing industry.

In the Ottawa valley, the accent is heavily influenced by the Irish who settled the area. The accent here is even more close-mouthed than it is elsewhere in Canada.

As time goes on and Canadians watch more American TV, Canadians everywhere are beginning to sound more like Americans.

British English, American English, Canadian English, and Australian English are variants of the same language, because they serve all spheres of verbal communication. Their structural peculiarities, especially morphology, syntax and word-formation, as well as their word-stock and phonetic system are essentially the same. American and

Australian standards are slight modifications of the norms accepted in the British Isles. The status of Canadian English has not yet been established.

The main lexical differences between the variants are caused by the lack of equivalent lexical units in one of them, divergences in the semantic structures of polysemantic words and peculiarities of usage of some words on different territories.

English Lexicography

Dictionaries of the national language of a country are an essential and quite frequently controversial part of social life and learning.

The art and craft of writing dictionaries is called *lexicography.*

In its etymology, the modem term '*dictionary*' comes from Latin "dictionarium" through French "dictionaries" which properly means "a book of sayings". However, in its modem usage, the word "dictionary" has become synonymous with that book containing lists of words with information about them.A *dictionary* is a list of words with their definitions or a list of words with corresponding words in other languages. In some languages, words can appear in many different forms, but only the lemma form appears as the main word or headword in most dictionaries. Many dictionaries also provide pronunciation information; grammatical information; word derivations, histories, or etymologies; illustrations, usage guidance; with examples in phrases or sentences. Dictionaries are most commonly found in the form of a book.

The history of dictionaries certainly goes back to the 8th century, when the custom of making collections of glosses grew up. These collections, called glossarium or glossary, were a great help to students, as they were also a sort of dictionary. In the 10th century, Abbot Ælfric produced a Latin grammar book, including a short Latin-English dictionary – the first of its kind.

> **N o t e !**
> In 1440 Galfridus Grammaticus produced the first English-Latin dictionary which was printed in 1499 by Pynson and bore the title Promptorium parvulorum sive clericorum.

One of the earliest dictionaries known, and which is still extant today in an abridged form, was written in Latin during the reign of the emperor Augustus. It is known by the title *"De Significatu Verborum" ("On the meaning of words")* and was originally compiled by *Verrius Flaccus* during the 1st century BC. It was twice abridged in succeeding centuries, first by Festus, and then by Paul the Deacon. Verrius Flaccus' dictionary was an abridged list of difficult or antiquated words, whose usage was illustrated by quotations from early Roman authors.

Early English lexicography began in the Middle Ages, when scribes added glosses to Latin or French texts. Over time, these glosses developed into supplemental glossaries which were copied in addition to the original foreign language text. The need for an English-Latin dictionary grew slowly over time and it wasn't until *1440*,

when **"Promptorium Parvulorum Sive Clericorum"** appeared, that one was written. It occupies about 300 printed book pages. Its authorship is attributed to Geoffrey the Grammarian (Galfridus Grammaticus), a Dominican friar who lived in Lynn, Norfolk, England. A number of other popular bilingual dictionaries followed over the next century.

The advent of the printing press had the most major impact on lexicography when William Caxton first began printing popular editions of Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales" **(1476)** and other English authors. Books were no longer primarily in Latin. Where previously Latin was the typical language used in print, it grew more common to see English in books.

Until the 16th century, the emphasis of dictionaries lay on translating foreign words into English. Apparently, there was no need for an English-English dictionary, i.e. a dictionary which described English words to English people. In that time a lot of foreign words, mostly Latin ones, made their way into ′standard′ English, which at first caused no debate but then was criticised by language purists. According to them English was in danger of being taken over by foreign languages and needed special support. This idea was the beginning of English-English dictionaries.

In the late 16th centuries, three schoolteachers (William Bullokar, Richard Mulcaster, and Edmund Coote) each wrote very influential (and plagiarized) schoolbooks on English grammar. Mulcaster and Bullokar's books were in reference to Latin, but Coote's book was entirely on English. Each author stressed the need for a purely English dictionary, and Coote even went so far as to include a list of words that needed defining.

In **1604, Robert Cawdrey** stepped up to the task and wrote **"A Table Alphabetical".** Whereas before, lexicography was thought of as a tool for teachers to educate their pupils; Cawdrey started the "hard" word tradition, which would last throughout the 17th century. In Cawdrey's "Table" one should not expect an explanation of a word, but mostly a synonym of Germanic or Latin origin or a short phrase. The title page of Cawdrey's book summed up the new attitude: "*A Table Alphabetical, conteyning and teaching the true writing, and understanding of hard usuall English wordes, borrowed from the Hebrew, Greeke, Latine, or French. &c.With the interpretation thereof by plaine English words, gathered for the benefit & helpe of Ladies, Gentlewomen, or any other unskilfull persons. Whereby they may the more easily and better understand many hard English wordes, which they shall heare or read in Scriptures, Sermons, or elsewhere, and so be made able to use the same aptly themselves*". It was the first true English dictionary, although it only included 2,500-3000 words and the definitions it contained were little more than synonyms. Cawdrey also started a lexicographical tradition that would go on for many centuries: plagiarism. Lexicographers work as a team and have a vast resource of past dictionaries to draw from.

The first dictionary to be at all comprehensive was **Thomas Blount's dictionary "Glossographia" ("Glossographia Anglicana Nova") of 1656**. It lists over

11,000 words. Blount defined words derived from Hebrew, Greek, Latin, Saxon, Turkish, French and Spanish. He also explained specialist words – those used in fields such as mathematics, anatomy, war, music and architecture. In the preface to the dictionary, Blount explains how he had often stumbled over these words in books, without completely understanding them. He believed the "Glossographia" would be "very useful for all such as desire to understand what they read". Blount recognized that many of the new words entering the English language were those spoken in the street. He saw that tradesmen and merchants were collecting words as well as wares on their journeys overseas. And therefore many of these new words, such as *coffee, chocolate, drapery, boot, omelette* or *balcony*, were those used in shops or other public places – drinking houses, tailor's, shoemaker's or barber's. Unlike earlier texts written by Mulcaster and Cawdrey, the "Glossographia" provided a substantial, and often complex, definition for each word – sometimes Blount seems more like a storyteller than a dictionary-maker. In addition, he often refers to the words' origins (or etymologies). In fact, the "Glossographia" was the first monolingual English dictionary to explore the origins of words – an approach that paved the way for future lexicographers.

Henry Cockeram produced the first work with the title *"The English Dictionary"* in *1623*. Like other dictionaries of that time, it primarily dealt with ′difficult′ English words. In *1674 John Ray* produced a dictionary which dealt with dialect words. It was an unexpected success and people all over the country began looking for additional local terms and sent them to Ray, who brought out a second and enlarged edition of this dictionary in 1691.

At the turn of the 18th century it became the job of the lexicographer to try to document all words of the language and not just the most difficult ones. This presented a huge shift in lexicographical tradition and one that is still employed today.

An important work of the Early Middle English period is John Kersey's *"Dictionarium Anglo-Britannicum"* (1708), which the author proposes for a wider public such as young students, shopkeepers and private gentlemen.

"A Dictionary of the English Language", one of the most influential dictionaries in the history of the English language, was prepared by *Samuel Johnson* and published on *April 15, 1755*. The dictionary responded to a widely felt need for stability in the language. Calls and proposals for a new dictionary had been made for decades before a group of London booksellers (including Robert Dodsley and Thomas Longman) contracted Johnson in *June, 1746* to prepare the work for the sum of *£1575*. Though he expected to be finished in 3 years, it took Johnson nearly 9 years to complete. Remarkably, he did so singlehandedly, with only clerical assistance to copy out the illustrative quotations that he had marked in books. Johnson prepared several revised editions during his life.

The dictionary has a word list of *42,773 words* and consisted of *2 volumes*. An important innovation of Johnson's was to illustrate the meaning of his words by literary quotation. The authors most frequently cited by Johnson include Shakespeare,

Milton and Dryden. Furthermore, Johnson added notes on a word's usage, rather than being merely descriptive.

Unlike most modern lexicographers, Johnson introduced humour or prejudice into a quite number of his definitions. Among the best known are "*Lexicographer: a writer of dictionaries, a harmless drudge…*"; and "*Oats: a grain which in England is generally given to horses, but in Scotland supports the people*". His dictionary was linguistically conservative, advocating traditional spellings, e.g. *olde*, rather than the simplifications that would be favoured 73 years later by Noah Webster.

Johnson′s dictionary became very successful and was edited and revised several times. It was the basis for all following dictionaries, whereof none could reach Johnson′s quality. Johnson's dictionary inaugurates a new era in the history of lexicography and becomes a source of imitation for later lexicographers. In *1773 William Kenrick* published *"A New Dictionary of the English Language" ("New Dictionary")* which was an improvement to Johnson′s dictionary regarding pronunciation.

In *1806, Noah Webster's* dictionary was published by the G&C Merriam Company of Springfield, Massachusetts which still publishes *Merriam-Webster* dictionaries, but the term *Webster's* is considered generic and can be used by any dictionary. "*The Compendious Dictionary of the English Language*" by Noah Webster possessed a large amount of encyclopedic material which has no connection with lexicography, like tables of the moneys, tables of weights and measures, an official list of the post-offices in the United States or the number of inhabitants in the States. This shows a clear emphasis on American issues and it is therefore not surprising that Webster laid much weight on the distinction between American and English usage. He introduced important spelling changes that are still observable in our days (e.g. *center, honor, public* instead of *centre, honour, publick* etc.) and separated Americanisms from general English words. Just like many lexicographers of the time, Webster attempts, too, to revise, reform and, in a way, to correct Johnson. In *1828 Webster's* second dictionary *"An American Dictionary of the English Language"* came out.

In England, the beginning of the 19th century was characterised by revisions and various supplements to earlier dictionaries. However, one new and important contribution to lexicography was the idea of basing dictionaries on historical principles. Charles Richardson felt that all dictionaries, including Johnson′s "Dictionary of the English Language", had failed in etymology. In his opinion, the etymology of a dictionary entry should show clearly the earliest meaning of a word and illustrative quotations should help to show the changes in meaning. In *1836-1837Richardson's "New Dictionary of the English Language"* was published in two volumes.

In *1846 Joseph Worcester's "Universal and Critical Dictionary of the English Language*" was published.

The most complete dictionary of the English language is the *Oxford English Dictionary*. The first edition was properly begun in *1860* and was completed in *1928*,

by which time a supplement that took an additional five years to complete was already necessary (*1933*).

Lexicography has evolved through time and will continue to evolve.

The dictionaries are divided into a set of types which includes glossaries, vocabularies,spellers, monolingual dictionaries, bilingual diccionaries, and multilingual dictionaries etc. Today, dictionaries of languages with *alphabetic and syllabic writing systems* list words in *alphabetical or some analogous phonetic order*. The first English alphabetical dictionary came out in 1604 and alphabetical ordering was a rarity until the 18th century. Before alphabetical listings, dictionaries were organized *by topic*, e.g. a list of animals all together in one topic.

According to the way of presenting language facts, dictionaries are divided into **descriptive** and **prescriptive**. They are considered to be 2 basic philosophies to the defining of words.In lexicography, the concepts of prescription and description have been employed for a long time without there ever being a clear definition of the terms prescription/prescriptive and description/descriptive. In short, a descriptive dictionary tells how language is used, and a prescriptive dictionary tells how language should be used.A descriptive dictionary deals with current usage of the language. Most English-language monolingual dictionaries today are descriptive.

The *Oxford English Dictionary (1928)* is **descriptive**, and **attempts to describe the actual use of words**. Noah Webster, on the other hand, intent on forging a distinct

> **_N o t e !_**
> The Dictionary Society of North America was formed in 1975 to bring together people interested in dictionary making, study, collection, and use. More than 500 members who live in 42 countries around the world include people working on dictionaries, academics who engage in research and writing about dictionaries, dictionary collectors, librarians, booksellers, translators, linguists, publishers, writers, collectors, journalists, and people with an avocational interest in dictionaries. Members receive a semi-annual newsletter that gives information about the Society and its members, dictionaries or lexicographic research in progress or recently published, lexicography courses and workshops, and recent or forthcoming conferences of lexicographic interest. Once a year they also receive the journal Dictionaries, containing forums on issues in lexicography; articles or notes and queries on the making, critique, use, collection, and history of dictionaries, including sketches of lexicographers; descriptions of significant dictionary collections; reviews of dictionaries and books on lexicography or closely related topics; and bibliographies on various aspects of lexicography. The Dictionary Society of North America was founded by participants in a colloquium entitled "Research on the History of English Dictionaries" held at Indiana State University, in Terre Haute, Indiana, on May 20-21, 1975. As stated in its handbook, "The purpose of the Society is to foster scholarly and professional activities relating to dictionaries" (defined as lists of words or other vocabulary items, with information about their meaning or other linguistic properties).

identity for the American language, altered spellings and accentuated differences in meaning and pronunciation of numerous words, i.e. ***prescribed the usage of words***. Thus Webster's "***The American Spelling Book" (1783)*** is considered a completely *prescriptive* dictionary.

The other differentiation is between monolingual and interlingual/bilingual dictionaries. ***Monolingual*** English dictionaries began as a listing of "hard words", i.e. wordlists that explained in plain English the poorly Anglicized Greek and Latin vocabulary. Yet, gradually common words were also included and a goal was set to provide a comprehensive coverage of the English language.For most practical purposes and for most languages, the monolingual dictionary (also called 'general', 'explanatory' or 'usage' dictionary) is the prototypical work of reference for native speakers.

In ***bilingual dictionaries***, each entry has translations of words in another language. For example, in a Ukrainian-English dictionary, the entry *стіл* has the corresponding English word, *table*. Bilingual dictionaries are typically practical tools for interlingual communication and learning, rather than scholarly studies. In a bilingual dictionary, the situation is different from a monolingual dictionary. The user is looking for equivalents rather than analysis. Bilingual dictionary comes with the features to translate the word from the source language to the target language.

Specialized dictionaries focus on linguistic and factual matters relating to specific subject fields, e.g. *dictionary of idioms, dictionary of antonyms, Russian-English dictionary of medical terms, English-Russian phraseological dictionary etc*.

Another variant is the ***glossary,*** an alphabetical list of defined terms in a specialized field, such as medicine or science. The simplest dictionary, a defining dictionary, provides a core glossary of the simplest meanings of the simplest concepts. E.g., the commercial defining dictionaries typically include 1 or 2 meanings of under 2000 words.

Dictionaries may either list meanings in the *historical order* in which they appeared, or may list meanings in order of *popularity and most common use*.

Dictionaries also differ in the degree to which they are *encyclopedic*, providing considerable background information, illustrations, and the like, or *linguistic*, concentrating on etymology, nuances of meaning, and quotations demonstrating usage.

PART II. SEMINARS

Seminar 1. Lexicology as a Branch of Linguistics

Consider your answers to the following.
1. Lexicology as a science. The object of Lexicology. Main lexicological problems.
2. Links of Lexicology with other branches of knowledge.
3. The definition of the word/lexeme. Internal and external structure of a word.
4. Formal and semantic unity of a word.
5. Syntagmatic and paradigmatic levels of studying a word.
6. Studying words synchronically and diachronically.

Exercise 1. *Analyze the external structure of the following words:*
successful, rehearsal, educational, unconsciously, disrespect, overdo, cowboy, inhaled, unjust, frank-mannered, absent-minded, guilty, myself, strawberry, misunderstood, remarkable, greyish, sixteen, grandfather, jeans, disappeared, thirty, valuable, kingdoms, forehead, journalist.

Exercise 2. *Read the following examples. Note the differences in the internal structure of the words in bold type.*
1. The **hearing** of the case was fixed for 5 p.m.
   His **hearing** became worse every day.
2. Every cloud has a silver **lining**.
   The process of **lining** coats was divided into five operations.
3. She didn't like **spring**; it reminded her mother's death.
   Icy water from the **spring** refreshed them.
4. It was his free **will**.
   I **will** do this. Promise!
5. In his youth he **had** many friends.
   He **had** burnt all the papers before her coming.

Exercise 3. *Read the following. Analyze the formal and semantic unity of the words.*
   The kitchen was a **whitewashed** room with rafters, to which were attached smoked **hams**; there were **flower-pots** on the **window-sill**, and guns **hanging** on nails, queer mugs, **china** and **pewter.** A long, narrow table of plain wood was set with **bowls** and spoons under a string of **high-hung** onions; two **sheep-dogs** and three cats lay here and there. On one side of the recessed **fireplace** sat two small boys, idle, and good as gold; on the other sat a stout, **light-eyed**, **red-faced** youth; between them Mrs. Narracomb **dreamlystirred** some **savoury-scented** stew in a large pot. Two other youths, **oblique-eyed**, **dark-haired**, rather **sly-faced**, like the two little boys, were **talking** together and lolling against the walls and a short, **elderly**, **clean-shaven** man in **corduroys**, **seated** in the window, was conning a **battered** journal. (J.Galsworthy).
Exercise 4. Discuss the meaning of the words in bold type in connection with the problem 'concept-meaning'.
   1. A **house** in the country. A full **house**. Every word was heard in all parts of the **house**. White **House**. An ancient trading **house** in the city. A noisy cheerful **house**.To keep **house**.To bring down the **house**. To leave one's father's **house**. On the **house**.

2. **White** clouds. **White** hair. A **white** elephant. The **white** race. **White** magic.**White** meat.As **white** as snow.**White** wine. It's **white** of you. **White** lie.

Seminar 2-3. **The Etymology of Modern English Vocabulary**

Consider your answers to the following.
1. The origin of English. Native Vocabulary.
2. Roman invasion. The classical element in the English vocabulary.
3. Germanic invasion. The Celtic element in the English vocabulary.
4. The Scandinavian element in the English vocabulary.
5. The Norman French element in the English vocabulary.
6. The Middle Ages borrowings. The Renaissance borrowings.
7. Assimilation. International words. Etymological doublets.

Exercise 1. *Classify the following words of native origin into: a) Indo-European; b) Germanic; c) English proper.*

Daughter, woman, room, birch, land, child, girl, cow, moon, sea, red, spring, three, lady, answer, heart, goose, always, night, old, lord, nose, daisy, make, see, hand, hundred, good, water.

Exercise 2. *In the following sentences find examples of Latin borrowings. Identify the period of borrowings.*

1. The garden here consisted of a long smooth lawn with two rows of cherry trees planted in the grass. 2.They set to pork-pies, cold potatoes, hard-boiled eggs, cold bacon, ham, crabs, cheese, butter, gooseberry-tarts, cherry-tarts, bread, more sausages and yet again pork-pies. 3. Instead of commendation, all we got was a tirade about the condition of the mackintosh sheets which Matron had said were a disgrace both to the hospital and the nursing profession. 4. A cold wind knifing through downtown streets penetrated the thin coat she had on. 5. The substance of my life is a private conversation with myself which to turn into a dialogue would be equivalent to self-destruction.6.On the morning of burial – taking no chances – an archibishop, a bishop, and a monsignor concelebrated a Mass of the Resurrection. A full choir intoned responses to prayers with reassuring volume. Within the cathedral which was filled, a section near the altar had been reserved for Rosselli relatives and friends. 7. The room was full of young men, all talking at once and drinking cups of tea. 8. I made way to the kitchen and tried the kitchen door which gave on to the fire-escape.

Exercise 3. *Study the map of Great Britain and find the geographical names of Celtic origin.*

Exercise 4. *In the sentences given below find the examples of Scandinavian borrowings.*

1. She had wanted a great many things in her life; she had them all now. Wealth and position, a kind husband, two dear little girls, beauty, youth. 2. She was wearing a long blue skirt and a white blouse. 3. It's not such a bad thing to be unsure sometimes. It takes us away from rigid thinking. 4. There isn't a single cloud in the sky. 5. Avery was down at Catalina at the moment, fishing for big game fish. 6. And as he slept he dreamed a dream. 7. At last he knew he was going to die. 8. The kid's skin was very thin and pale.

Exercise 5. *Pick out the French borrowings from the sentences given below.*

1. It was while they were having coffee that a waitress brought a message to their table. 2. The place smelled warmly of eau de Cologne and bath powder. 3. A limousine and chauffeur, available at any time from the bank's pool of cars, were perquisites of the executive vice-president's job, and Alex enjoyed them. 4. Her face, above a spotted dress of dark blue crep-de chine, contained no facet or gleam of beauty. 5. A rendezvous would have to be arranged immediately. 6. It had occured to ask his mother whether he might bring his fiancee to the ball, but on reflexion, enchanted as he was, he had realized that it would not do. 7. Apart from being an unforgivable break of etiquette, you only make yourself extremely ridiculous. 8. The affair seemed to grow more complicated, and the Colonel, with his expletives and his indignation, confused rather than informed me.

Exercise 6. *Analyze the words of Greek and Latin origin in the following sentences.*

1. Benn specialized in the anatomy and morphology of plants. 2. She seemed on the edge of hysteria. 3. His wrinkled face oozed humanity and sympathy. 4. My researches over the past few years have led me to certain theories regarding psychic phenomena which I have now, for the first time, an opportunity of testing. 5. It was utter chaos. Sirens were going off all around him. 6. His father played second violin in the orchestra there. 7. The best sort of book to start with is biography. 8. Until now, doctors have had to wait hours to get results from a series of simple but vital blood tests that play a critical role in a patient's diagnosis and his treatment. 9. Through the window she could see Dr. Cotton Tuffs working between two tall candles, looking like a fourteenth-century alchemist. 10. Certain conventions of form and method in the novel have been erected into immutable laws.

Exercise 7. *Read the following text. Identify the etymology of as many words as you can.*

The Creation of Woman

There are many interesting legends about the creation of the mysterious and inexplicable creature that we call Woman. These legends come to us from all nations and from all civilizations. The Christians believe that Woman was created from Adam's rib, but there are other religions which are not in accord with this explanation. Philosophers also have a great deal to say about this subject. Aristotle says that Woman is "un homme manque" (a near-miss). Another tells us that God created Woman after a week of tremendous labor and that he was too exhausted to create the masterpiece he wished. Another accepts the story of the Bible but says that an angel interrupted God during the creation, and the poor rib, left in the hot sun, became dry – and that is the reason women rattle so much. Still another says that God couldn't create angels to be everywhere, so he created Woman.

One of the most beautiful legends about Woman comes to us from a distant land. In this legend it is said that God created the world from chaos. He then created the mountains and the valleys, the oceans, the rivers and the lakes, and then all the animals – the lion, the tiger, the elephant, the birds, and the rest of the animal kingdom. And finally, he created his masterpiece – Man.

Then Adam (let us call him that) wanders about here and there. He looks at the animals and the birds, and he is lonesome. He comes to a pool of clear water and he

sees a shadow - his own image - and he plunges into the water to possess it but the image escapes him. He sits down in the shadow of a tree and soon he calls upon God to help him. God answers his prayer and returns to the earth. Adam tells God that he is lonesome and feels the need of something – he knows not what. The Heavenly Father smiles, a little ironically perhaps. "Come", He says, "take me to the pools where you saw the images". And God takes each image in His hands, blows upon them His breath of life, and a beautiful woman, Eve, suddenly stands in their presence.

Adam is happy, but it is said that when God disappeared there was a sardonic smile on His face.

Exercise 8. *Read the following. 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 very little. 4. The most important contributions were made by Greeks in the fields of astronomy, mathematics, botany, chemistry, physics, and medicine. 5. The political system which developed under the Normans was a much more centralized form of feudalism, which became a real contrast to the continent, where there were strong local lords fighting intermittent wars among themselves. 6. In 1956 the English Stage Company began productions with the object of bringing new writers into the theatre and providing training facilities for young actors, directors and designers. 7. In the history of world civilizations Britain was a very late starter. 8. After two days the administration summoned state police, later unwisely supplemented by National Guard.

Exercise 9. *In the following sentences find one of a pair of etymological doublets and name the missing member of the pair.*

1. The lunch was late because Steven had had an extra big clinic at his London hospital. 2. I led Mars (a dog) into the shadow of the building and looked around me. 3. The children hung on their skirts and asked to play with them. 4. Nurse Lawson was sent to the hostel to clean aprons for all of us. 5. When the four o'clock race at Nottingham was won by Hal Adair, cool channels of sweat ran down my back and sides.

Seminar 4-5. The Structure of English Words. Word-Formation

Consider your answers to the following.
1. Morphemes, their types and specific features.
2. Word-formation. Degree of productivity.
3. Affixation. Etymology and semantics of affixes.
4. Conversion.
5. Compounding. Classification of compounds.
6. Shortening. Types of shortening.
7. Blending. Types of blends.
8. Sound interchange. Stress interchange.
9. Sound imitation. Back-formation.

Exercise 1. *Analyze the structure of the derived words.*

1. Puzzled by that sudden inaccessibility, Nick ran back to the stream. 2. It was almost a misfortune to get into her clutches. 3. The man's face reddened, his whole

body tightened. 4. The very thought of her ennobled and purified him. 5. In a thoughtless moment he put his hand in his pocket. 6. His words were playful but his look became grave. 7. The song seemed to be in the old Irish tonality and the singer seemed uncertain both of his words and his voice. 8. She was so different from anyone he had ever known, with her quietness, her fragility, her dark intelligent eyes. 9. No fear of under-work, no fear of over-work, no fear of wage reduction in a land where none are unemployed. 10. He was ex-seaman, ex-boxer, ex-fisher, ex-porter - indeed to everyone's knowledge, ex-everything. 11. I need not say a breach of confidence is unthinkable. 12. In a few moments the company reassembled.

Exercise 2. *Form words with the following productive affixes. State to what part of speech they belong to. Give their Ukrainian equivalents.*

a) -er(-or), -ist, -eer(-ier), -ian(-an,-n), -ant(-ent), -ness, -ism, -dom, -hood, -ship, -(i)ty, -ment, -ance(-ence), -ion(-tion), -age, -ing, -al, -ie(-y), -ful, -less, -able (-ible), -y, -ish, -ly, -ary(-ory), -ic(-ical), -ive, -ous(-eous), -ious), -ward, -ed, -ize, -ate, -(i)fy, -en;

b) un-, de-, anti-, non-, in-(il-,im-,ir-), dis-, out-, over-, under-, re-, co-, ex-, pre-, post-, sub-, super-, extra-, ultra-, inter-, trans-, mis-, be-, en-(em-).

Exercise 3. *Fill in the blank with the negative prefixes (im-, in-, il-, un-, dis-) which correspond to the words given in brackets*.
1. The children's room is usually very………………… (*tidy*).
2. I don't think so: I……………….. with you (*agree*).
3. I usually ………………the suitcases as soon as we arrive home from the airport (*pack*).
4. We couldn't go on holidays last year because I was ………………… for ten months (*employed*).
5. He never says anything when he comes into the room. He is very …... (*polite*).
6. I never watch plays because I…………………….. going to the theatre (*like*).
7. Their dog …………………. while they were walking in the park (*appeared*).
8. Making several copies of a CD and selling them is …………………. (*legal*).
9. He said it is…………………. to solve the problem and I agree with him: I can't find a solution (*possible*).

Exercise 4. *Define the structural types of the following compound words.*
Wall-eye, bridesmaid, tragicomic, keyhole, Franco-American, can-opener, mainland, backbone, one-eyed, bluebell, doorbell trustworthy, operating-room, hydro-electric, gentleman, time-tested, watchtower, eggplant, dish-washer, see-saw, home-made, townsfolk, handicraft, homesick, two-year old.

Exercise 5. *Translate the following into English using the stems given*.
hole, key; ring, wedding; book, keep; sun, burn; back, break; loud, speaker; suit, bathing; bare, head; ship, build; half, ruin; music, love; fresh, salt; basket, waste-paper; thick, skin; goal, keep; ship, war; short, sight; share, hold.

Exercise 6. *Translate the following pairs of sentences. Comment on their difference.*
1. We had a break-down. – Our car broke down. 2. They had a switch-over from a defensive to an offensive policy. – They switched over from a defensive to an offensive policy. 3. She wore castaways. – She wore things that had been cast away.

4. Spelling is his most serious hold-back. – Spelling holds him back. 5. The story was a take-in. – The story took us all in.

Exercise 7. *Read the following sentences. Define what part of speech the words in bold type are and what parts of speech they are derived from.*

1. "Everybody has **colds**," said aunt Kate readily. 2. A butterfly **winged** its way into the air. 3. Her heart **hungered** for action. 4. The place was **crowded** with doctors and their wives. 5. The pages had **yellowed** with age. 6. And Mrs. Bendall, **threading** her needle, pursed her lips. 6. His face **cleared**. 7. A tall man **elbowed** into the crowd. 8. It is a matter of daily wrapping ourselves up more and more in ideas and feelings, **likes** and **dislikes** that gradually draw us apart. 9. The **hows** and **whys** escaped me, but the psychological pattern was clear. 10. In spite of all your talk about facts you **blind** yourself to the greatest facts of all. 11. She is an awful **tease**. 12. He was certainly on the **move**. 13. Soldiers in red coats passed in **twos** and **threes**. 14. We are all **equals**. 15. She **busied** herself with the papers. 16. Mr. Watkins was a **nobody**.

Exercise 8. *Arrange the following words according to the type of contracting*:
exam, disco, bus, plane, fridge, Tony, ad, phone, maths, teeny, Nick, mag, pram, retro, flu, doc, cab, chute, mayo, Fred, gas, Liz, van.

Exercise 9. *Pick out all the abbreviations from the sentences given below. Comment on their formation.*

1. Matilda spent weeks taking notes for a Ph.D. thesis. 2. The doctors examine X-rays on high-quality teleradiology monitors and conduct video consultations with patients. 3. He heard several shells fall in and around Company H.Q. just as he came along the trench. 4. The National Comission on AIDS reported that up to half of all Americans with AIDS are either homeless or are about to lose their homes. 5. She's nice enough, but she's got the IQ of an artichoke. 6. It was only mid-March, but already winter coats had been shed. 6. "Fetch me an ABC, will you?" 7. The man wore khakis, a T-shirt, and basketball sneakers. 8. The UV rays from the sun attack the nucleus of the skin cell. 9. He had a nice UNESCO pension, plus stock in the Pittsburgh firm. 10. "I'm going to be a candidate," said Mor. "Whether I'll be M.P. depends on the electorate."

Exercise 10. *Give English words or phrases corresponding to the following Latin abbreviations.*
A.D., a.m., e.g., B.C., P.S., cf., id., ibid., etc., i.e., NB.

Exercise 11. *Determine the source words of the following verbs formed through back-formation.*
typewrite, catalyse, edit, baby-sit, audit, stage-manage, ush, emplace, house-keep, househunt, televise, donate, legislate, tape-record, free-wheel, swindle, wallpaper, locomote.

Exercise 12. *Comment on the formation of the following blends and translate them into Ukrainian.*
Beefish, brunch, cinegoer, heliport, fruice, cashomat, shacket, glasphalt, Oxbridge, slanguage, slimnastics, travelogue, boatel, spam, bascart, laundromat, smog, sitcom, frenemy, emoticon, staycation, Globish, fanzine, workaholic, Chunnel.

Exercise 13. *Give English equivalents to the following onomatopoeic words.*
Бурмотіти, гавкати, каркати, нявкати, іржати, шипіти, щебетати, мукати, тріщати, рипіти, тупотіти, шльопати, дзенькати, шарудіти, вити, цвірінькати, тікати, скреготати, гарчати, гуркотіти.

Exercise 14. *Give verbs corresponding to the following adjectives and nouns, transcribe and translate them.*
Present, conduct, forecast, concrete, compound, conflict, record, progress, exit, contrast, import, transport, perfect, contest, survey.

Exercise 15. *Give nouns corresponding to the following verbs and adjectives and translate them into Ukrainian.*
Bathe, wide, knit, live, strong, feed, practise, speak, broad, breathe, choose, bleed.

Seminar 6-7. Lexical Meaning and Semantic Structure of the Word

Consider your answers to the following.
1. Semantics. Semasiology. Lexical meaning.
2. Semantic structure of the word. Monosemy. Polysemy.
3. Types of semantic components within a semantic structure of a word. Linguistic metaphor.
4. Homonyms. Classifications.
5. Synonyms. Classification.
6. Antonyms. Classification.

Exercise 1. *Comment on the lexical meaning of the words in bold type.*
1. She **blew** him a kiss, she was gone. 2. He tried **to thaw** her with a smile. 3. He was happy to see her **fishing** for compliments, and happy to give them to her. 4. Sophie was **apologetic**. "I will try, but I am afraid I.." 5. "Hello," she said, turning her head so Brody could **plant** a kiss on her cheek. 6. He **pottered** about the room a bit, babbling at intervals. The boy seemed **cuckoo**. 7. He'll **work** himself up till he gets that pain in the tummy, and then he won't be able to eat his supper. 8. "Well, so **long**. Thanks very much. It's awfully good of you." 9. He put her coat across her shoulders. "I'll **walk** you back to the hotel," he said. 10. His face **broke** into a guilty smile.

Exercise 2. *Write the definitions to illustrate as many meanings as possible for the following polysemantic words.*
face, heart, nose, smart, to lose.

Exercise 3. *Identify the denotative and connotative elements of meaning in the following pairs of words.*
to conceal – to disguise, to choose – to select, to draw – to paint, money – cash, odd – queer, photograph – picture, big – large, clever – wise, sky – heavens.

Exercise 4. *Explain the logic of metaphoric transference in the following collocations:*
A branch of linguistics, a dull fellow, a film star, a fruitless effort, a green youth, a ray of hope, bitter thoughts, naked truth, hot rage, seeds of evil, the eye of a needle, a

thin excuse, the neck of a bottle, to stumble through the text, to burn with impatience, to shower smb. with questions, on wings of joy.

Exercise 5. *Find homonyms in the following extracts. Classify them into homonyms proper, homographs and homophones.*

1) "Mine is a long and a sad tale!" said the Mouse, turning to Alice, and sighing. "It is a long tail, certainly," said Alice, looking down with wonder at the Mouse's tail; "but why do you call it sad?".

2) Our Institute football team got a challenge to a match from the University team and we accepted it. – Somebody struck a match so that we could see each other.

3) It was nearly December but the California sun made a summer morning of the season. – On the way home Crane no longer drove like a nervous old maid.

4) On their left a few feathery coconut palms stretched their necks above the clumped vegetation. – Johny puffed at his cigarette in his closed palm.

5) She wished she could run a million miles away. Away from her husband who had cried and wailed constantly for a week. – "He's still too weak. Don't stay long."

Exercise 6. *Provide the following words with absolute homonyms. Give their Ukrainian equivalents:*
fair, mood, school, pupil, seal, may, like, firm, club, scale, spring, long, mess, can, bear, band.

Exercise 7. *Find homographs to the following words and transcribe them:*
wind, tear, polish, row, bow, object, desert, bass.

Exercise 8. *Find homophones to the following words. Translate them into Ukrainian:*
piece, right, sail, see, knight, cite, son, meat, fare, heal, sole, whole, weather, suit, buy, plate.

Exercise 9. *Pick out synonyms from the sentences below. Comment on their shades of meaning and stylistic reference.*

1. a) The doctor glanced quickly at Eleanor and then away.
   b) He looked at her now, peering through the bars.
   c) Mrs. Dudley stood below and watched them in silence.
   d) Our professor would stop, glare and drum the edge of the table.
   e) "Like it?" he says, and eyes you expectantly...
   f) Haines surveyed the tower and said at last: "Rather bleak in wintertime, I should say."
   g) I stared at him, and I suppose something in my face stopped him.

2. a) They held hands across the table and talked about parents and childhood as if they had just met.
   b) It wasn't like Wolf to babble when business was on hand.
   c) I had to ride back to New York in a bus with a delegation of schoolteachers coming back from a weekend in the mountains – chatter-chatter, blah-blah...

3. a) She crossed to the window and looked down to where the pool sparkled in the early sunshine.

    b) A sarcastic smile played upon Machiavelli's thin lips and his eyes gleamed.

    c) New York was not the great glittering unfriendly place it might have been.

    d) The drawing-room shone and glistened with the spotlessness of a house without children.

    e) Haines stopped to take out a smooth silver case in which twinkled a green stone.

4. a) "You are a very clever woman, Mrs. Merrowdene. I think you understand me."

    b) He was intelligent, learned quickly, and everyone adored him.

    c) I thought you were smart enough to figure it out.

    d) He was inexperienced, of course, but quick-witted.

5. a) Ten minutes go by and the first man gives a yell and goes mad.

    b) He shouted like an insane thing.

    c) Behind Miss Marple's back Charmian made a sign to Edward. It said, "She's ga-ga."

    d) "For the Lord's sake, have you gone completely balmy?"

    e) "I'm a crazy, jealous fool!"

Exercise 10. *Give synonyms to the words in bold type.*
1. Isabel sat **still** at her dressing table. 2. There was **complete** silence. 3. It was an ordinary bus **trip** with crying babies and hot sun. 4. That idea **stirred** Caroline. 5. When she **laughed** it came out loose and young. 6. She **longed** for him with all her heart for him to take her in his arms so that she could lay her head on his breast. 7. I was **astonished** at seeing him so changed. 8. There was **a scent** of honey from the lime-trees in flowers. 9. He merely **blushed** and said that he was jolly well going to go, because this girl was in Cannes. 10. Her voice was **trembling** with excitement.

Exercise 11. *Find synonymic dominants in the following groups of synonyms:*
ask, inquire, demand, interrogate, question;
choose, elect, pick out, select;
odd, strange, queer, quaint;
affair, business, case, matter, thing;
gratify, please, exalt, content, satisfy, delight;
cry, weep, sob;
alone, single, solitary, lonely;
man, chat, fellow, lad;
fabricate, manufacture, produce, create, make;
reflect, think, meditate, brood.

Exercise 12. *Find antonyms to the words given below:*
narrow, poor, to die, clean, light, young, enemy, quick, to rise, slowly, employed, to start, unknown, selfish, order, active, to close, impossible, to descend, down, to lose, dull.

Exercise 13. *Find antonyms in the following sentences. Classify them into root and affixational.*

1. To see both sides of a question vigorously was at once John's strength and weakness. 2. Once people are dead, you can't make them undead. 3. His vitality was absolute, not relative. 4. And behind his tangible dread there was always that intangible trouble, lurking in the background. 5. If the stakes over became higher enough – if the evil were evil enough, if the good were good enough – I would simply tap a secret reservoir of courage that had been accumulating inside me over the years. 6. Certain blood was shed for uncertain reasons. 6. What sticks to memory, often, are those odd little fragments that have no beginning and no end. 8. He never got it right, but they ate those undercooked, overcooked, dried-out or raw potatoes anyway, laughing, spitting and giving him advice.

Exercise 14. *Find antonyms and describe the resultant stylistic effect.*

1. Flying instructors say that pilot trainees are divided into optimists and pessimists when reporting the amount of fuel during flights. Optimists report that their tank is half full while pessimists say it's half empty. 2. It was warm in the sun but cool under the shady trees. 3. He hated to be exposed to strangers, to be accepted or rejected. 4. Every man has feminine qualities and every woman has masculine ones. 5. He is my best friend and he is my bitter enemy.

Seminar 8. **Phraseology**

Consider your answers to the following.
1. Phraseological units, idioms, free word-groups.
2. V.Vinogradov's system of phraseological units classification.
3. The structural principle of phraseological units classification.
4. Proverbs, sayings, aphoristic familiar expressions (definitions, functions).
5. Systems for proverbs classifications.

Exercise 1. *Group the phraseological units in the following sentences according to the semantic principle.*

1. He went to the bed and sat on the edge but didn't lie down. It was not in the cards for him to sleep that night. 2. Junior was the apple of her eye, and she had big marital plans for him when that time came. 3. Kay was a very different cup of tea from Brenda and the Grenville sisters. 4. He gave a little start and then suddenly burst into a shout of laughter. 5. Speaking with great affection, you're really on the wrong track there. 6. He took no notice of me. 7. He didn't work, and he spent a great deal of money, and he painted the town red. 8. From the age of twelve she knew, that she could wrap men around her little finger, an expression her mother was fond of using. 9. If she couldn't have her way and get John for good and all, she felt like dying of privation. By hook or by crook she must and would get him! 10. In the small hours he slipped out of bed, and passing into his dressing-room, leaned by the open window.

Exercise 2. *Group the phraseological units in the following sentences according to the structural principle.*

1. There was a man I cared about, and this afternoon he told me out of a clear sky that he was poor as a churchmouse. 2. Then I got a shock that stiffened me from head

to toe. 3. What it symbolized was a fact of banking-corporate life: You scratch my back and I'll scratch yours. 4. I know a man who would love meeting you. The perfect nut for you to crack your teeth on. 5. There was a list of diets up in the kitchen, but Auntie had it all at her finger-tips. 6. He started getting serious as hell, like my Dad. 7. "There you are! Dartie's gone to Buenos Aires!" – Soames nodded. 8. The question caught John, as it were, between wind and water. 9. "Good heavens," Sarah exclaimed. "I'd forgotten about that." 10. She and Dennis could talk without restraint; they knew each other through and through.

Exercise 3. *Pick out the synonymous pairs of phraseological units. Give their Ukrainian equivalents:*

To smooth the ice; the day pigs fly; safe and sound; every day is not Sunday; by a short cut; to catch it hot; to ride Shank's mare; an old salt; that's where the shoe pinches; to turn a blind eye to smth; to pin smb to the wall; after a Christmas comes a Lent; to kick up a dust; to come to the wrong shop; such master, such servant; to spoil one's game; in a bee line; to take the wind out of one's sails; on tomorrow come never; to leg it; to drive smb into a corner; to have one's heart in one's mouth; to paint the lily; after dinner comes the reckoning; a sea dog; to close one's eyes to smth; alive and hearty; to raise a big smoke; such as a tree is, such is the fruit; to get it in the neck; there's the rub; one's heart sinks into one's boots; if you dance you must play the fiddle; to bark up a wrong tree.

Exercise 4. *Choose antonyms to the following phraseological units:*

a) milk for babes; Tom Thumb; to know smth from A to Z; to keep one's chin up; under a bushel; a green hand at smth; within one's reach; big wigs; as slow as a snail; to keep one's tongue between one's teeth; cold as a fish; not to care a rap for smth; to be worse than one's word; not to have a penny; to bless oneself with; to be in one's good books; as rich as Croesus; to open a door to smth:

b) as quick as a Hash; long drink of water; to be in one's bad books; to roll in money; to close the door to smth; small potatoes; not to know A from B; above one's reach; as poor as a church mouse; to make much of smth; to keep one's word; an old hand at smth; a hard nut to crack; to hang down one's head; hot as pepper; to wag one's tongue; above board.

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

A velvet paw; a bee in one's bonnet; to take care of the pence; a bird in the bush; to cast pearls before swine; to make hay; a silver lining; a black sheep; the early bird; the last straw; to cry over split milk; to put all one's eggs in one basket.

Exercise 6. *Describe the meaning of one of the idioms in a short passage with your own illustration*:

To work for peanuts, to crunch the numbers, to test the waters, from rags to riches, a pretty penny, cup of tea, to egg someone on, one smart cookie, to spice things up.

Exercise 7. *Find the Ukrainian equivalents to the following proverbs:*

1. Two heads are better than one. 2. Like cures like. 3. Second thoughts are best. 4. Don't cross your bridges before you come to them. 5. As you sow, you shall mow.

6. East or West, home is best. 7. First catch your hare, then cook him. 8. Don't teach your grandmother to suck eggs. 9. A fault confessed is half redressed. 10. Enough is as good as a feast.

Seminar 9-10. **Stylistic Differentiation of the English Vocabulary**

Consider your answers to the following:
1. Reasons for stylistic differentiation of the English vocabulary. Functional style.
2. Basic vocabulary. Neutral words.
3. Formal layer of the English vocabulary. Learned words. Poetic words.
4. Archaisms, historical words.
5. Terms. Neologisms.
6. Informal layer of the vocabulary. Colloquialisms.
7. Slang. Vulgarisms.
8. Jargon. Professionalisms.

Exercise 1. *a) Pick out learned words from the extracts below; b) Translate the extracts into Ukrainian.*

A. 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 seeming innocence. He never got rid of it (R. Aldington).

B. "Eccentricity... It's the justification of all aristocracies, it justifies leisured classes and inherited wealth and privilege and endowments and all the other injustices of that sort. /.../ That's the important thing about an aristocracy. Not only is it eccentric itself – often grandiosely so; it also tolerates and even encourages eccentricity in others" (A. Huxley).

C. Seventy years after his death, Vincent van Gogh is acknowledged as the greatest exponent of art of his time, a period prolific with great painters. It is not the tragic, tortured and sensational character of thirty-seven years, or the heroic baffling life which justifies the enormous interest shown in his art today, but the essence of that art in its startling power of expression and compelling inner compassion, its versatility, its purity which tolerates no deviation from his coercive views and his own standards. In an absolutely personal and often entirely new method, he strives for the realization of his intentions and meaning, which from the start are aimed at the expression of what is essential to him behind the actual form (G. Knüttel).

Exercise 2. *Read the following samples of poetry and pick out poetic words. Distinguish between poetic words proper and grammatical archaisms. Give their stylistically-neutral synonyms.*

1) **Sonnet 90**

Then hate me when thou wilt! if ever, now;
Now, while the world is bent by deeds to cross,
Join with the spite of fortune, make me bow,
And do not drop in for an after-loss:
Ah! do not, when my heart hath 'scap'd this sorrow,
Come in the rearward of a conquer'd woe;
Give not a windy night a rainy morrow,
To linger out a purpos'd overthrow.
If thou wilt leave me, do not leave me last,
When other petty griefs have done their spite,
But in the onset come: so shall I taste
At first the very worst of fortune's might;
And other strains of woe, which now seem woe,
Compar'd with loss of thee will not seem so. (W. Shakespeare).

2) Good-bye, proud world! I'm going home:
Thou art not my friend, and I'm not thine.
Long through thy weary crowds I roam;
A river-ark on the ocean brine,
Long I've been tossed like the driven foam;
But now, proud world! I'm going home. (R.W. Emerson).

3) "Thou goest to the war, o Sigurd, far the Niblung brethren's sake; And so women send their kindred on many a doubtful tide, And dead full oft on the death-field shall the hope of their life abide; Nor must they fear beforehand, nor weep when all is o'er; But thou, our guest and our stranger, thou goest to the war, And who knows but thy hand may carry the hope of all the earth; Now therefore if thou deemest that my prayer be aught of worth, Nor wilt scorn the child of a Niblung that prays for things to come, Pledge me for thy glad returning, and the sheaves of fame borne home" (W. Morris).

Exercise 3. *Arrange the following archaic words into lexical and grammatical archaisms. Substitute modern forms and neutral synonyms for the following archaic words:*

aught, agrestic, belike, didst, dost, eke, ere, hast, hath, maiden, naught, quoth, rin, shall, steed, thee, thou, wert, woe, ye.

Exercise 4. *a) Comment on the historical words in bold type; b) Translate the sentences into Ukrainian.*

1. The **thane** was the first title given to feudal lords and the **ceorl,** a free peasant in the Germanic tribes, was becoming more and more like the feudal serf (D. Morgan). 2. The English kings in the south obeyed demands for payments to the Danes, called **"Danegeld"** (Id.). 3. Alfred's successors became in practice kings of England, while

the former kingdoms were now **shires** (later called counties) with local lords called **earls** (Id.**).** 4. An economic and social survey of the country was made by about 1086 in **the Domesday Book.** This showed that the population of England was about two million, most of them being unfree **villains** or serfs (Id.). 5. With armed force well in evidence the **barons** made the king agree to their demands set out in **Magna Carta** (Id.). 6. The first Parliament was a new kind of assembly, including not only the lords but two **knights** to represent each county and two **burgesses** or citizens from each town (Id.). 7. The **archers,** whether hired professionals or temporary soldiers from English villages, used the **longbow,** a simple, popular weapon (Id.). 8. The gentry was increased in a very important way by the rise of richer peasants or **yeomen** (Id.). 9. The **Levellers** wanted to make a reality of the name **Commonwealth,** which Cromwell gave to the new state (Id.).

Exercise 5.*Comment on the ways of formation of the following neologisms.*
acidhead, bad-mouth, bedspace, bioplasma, box-bed, calendar-clock, videotelephone, war-game, low-life, micro computer, pare-book, half-stuff, Z-car, V-agent, mouth-to-mouth, two-by-four, battlesome, airy-fairy, holidayer, biathlete, blusher, biro, accessorize, aeroneurosis, astrogation, built-in, de-orbit, gadgeteer, laseronic, robotics, sanforize, urbanologism, vitaminize.

Exercise 6.*Comment on the meaning of the following neologisms:*
adultify (v.), alffluenza (n.), Amerenglish (n.), arm-twist (v.), arrestee (n.), awfulize (v.), babynap (v.), bezzle (n.), can-do (a.), must-have (n.), eyeprint (n.), illiterature (n.), kissy (a.), quietize (v.), reschedule (v.), picturesome (a.), white-knuckle (a.)

Exercise 7. *Pick out terms from the extracts below. State what branch of science or sphere of life they belong to.*
1. Acute leukaemia is more indolent than has been thought. There is good precedence for it in other haematology disorders.
2. The word plays such a crucial part in the structure of language that we need a special branch of linguistics to examine it in all its aspects. This branch is called *Lexicology* and it forms, next to *Phonology,* the second basic division of linguistic science.
3. A fraction is a part of something which is treated as a whole or a unit. In arithmetic, a proper fraction is a number which represents a part, that is, a number which is less than 1. In writing a common fraction, two numbers are used, called the numerator and denominator.
4. The most important combinations of sulphur and oxygen are sulphur dioxide SO, and sulphur trioxide SO_3, which form with water sulphurous acid HSO_3 and sulphuric acid H_2SO_4.

Exercise 8. *a) Pick out colloquialisms from the sentences below and comment on their meaning and word-formative structure; b) Translate the sentences into Ukrainian*
1. The backcountry look never left her. She came from the sticks; there could be no mistake about that (S. Bellow). 2. Could anybody have been tailing him? Guys with zoom lenses or telescopic sights on the Chelsea rooftops? - Ithielsmiled, and pooh-poohed this. He wasn't that important. (Id.). 3. "I don't say that I'm better than other

women. I'm not superior. I'm nutty, also" (Id.). 4. "He said hewas walking around the apartment..." Imagine, a man like that, lewd and klepto, at large in her home (Id.). 5. "What's your opinion of Frederic — an occasional stealer or a pro?" (Id.). 6. Involuntarily Clara fell into Dr. Gladstone's way of talking... As thesessions were short, she adopted his lingo to save time, not with standing the danger of false statements (Id). 7. "Did I hurt your feelings?" "If that means bossy, no. My feelings weren't hurt when I knew you better" (Id.). 9. "What could she do?" "Heaps of things," saidFrankie vigorously (A. Christie). 10. For three weeks two days he had a breather and slow hauled himself out of the abyss (J. P. Donleavy). 11. Daddy had looked tired sometimes, heworked so fantastically hard; but he was a super daddy (J. Fowles). 12. Rickey always hadthree or four dollars in his pocket and was happy-go-lucky about things (J. Kerouac). 13. Deaehad arrived the night before, the first time in New York, with his beautiful little sharp chick Marylou (Id.). 14. "And the play was well received?" "In Saratoga, we were a smash. Every night we felt blessed" (B. Lowry). 15. "Crunch's real name is O'Malley... He's a good egg and his guys are top-notch" (M. Maloney). 16. Many of the cinema lovers would stop here for a drink and a hamburger and the hopes of seeing some pussy (M. Puzo). 17. "Forgive me Besides, you've already been looked up. The police department has found you and your firm lily-pure and clean-o" (E. Queen). 18. "Oh, come, Armando," said Harry Burke. "You're not playing ticky-tack-toe with a lot of gullible females" (Id.). 19. "Skirt-chasing blighter," Ham Burke said, making a face. "Doesn't waste time, does he?"(Id.). 20. "So," Inspector Queen ultimately muttered, "we're all the way back to where we were. Further back. The one we had is a dud" (Id.).

Exercise 9. *a) Classify the units in bold type into slang words, jargonisms, professionalisms, and vulgarisms; b) Translate the sentences into Ukrainian.*

1. "You know what a **pipe** it is to buy an unregistered weapon in this town under the counter" (E. Queen). 2. "What do you want?" **"Dough,"** the derelict said. **"Do-re-mi.** Lots of it" (Id.). 3. Ed Tollman annoyed him. He was obviously not Barney's kind of case, but a hardworking **schmo** in deep trouble who probably thought a hundred dollars was a big fee (Id.). 4. "Why didn't you wake up?" she implored. "Because the **bastard** alarm clock didn't go off," he shouted. "Or you forgot to set the **bleeding** thing, one of the two" (A. Sillitoe). 5. They could be called on to trek and search for the survivors of any **kite** that **belly-dived** in the north Malayan jungle (Id.). 6. He got his stiff fingers into a pocket, came out with some **chicken feed,** picked a nickel and pushed it at me (R. Stout). 7. "A thousand **dicks** and fifteen thousand cops have been looking for Hibbard for eight days" (Id.). 8. "But you need the money!... What is it now? **Yellows?Reds?**Acid?Speed? What the hell is it now? **Grass** isn't that expensive!" (R. Ludlum). 9. I had finished the wine while Terry slept, and I was proper **stoned** (J. Kerouac). 10. "Then what is it?" Buck Mulligan asked impatiently. **Cough it up"** (J. Joyce). 11. "Has her stomach been **pumped?"** "That- oh, yes. But she took a big dose, and they're not certain yet" (S. Bellow), 12. She was sending her husband up to make sure the door hadn't been **jimmied** open (Id.). 13. He /.../ bought her an emerald ring — the real thing... He dismissed the cheaper items. "Take away all this other **shit,"** he muttered. (Id.). 14. **"I** think a physicist is too **damned** important a person in any society to be kicked around by a bunch **of jerks"** (Id.). 15. **"Damn it,** I'm a United

States Senator. Remember that. And don't give me that cheap melodramatic **crap** about who's keeping me a senator" (Id.).

Exercise 10. *Define stylistic reference of the words in bold type. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian.*

1. Even the famous Renaissance goldsmith Benvenuto Cellini **proclaimed** the ruby andemerald more **glorious** than diamonds (Cussler) 2. Have you read about the unemployment in this country? Where do you think you're going to get another job if you're **fired!** (Binchy). 3. You can't go in all this rain. And I haven't got a**bike** to lend you (Murdoch). 4. You should meet my boss, Admiral James Sandecker. He and Shylock were bosom **buddies** (Cussler). 5. She smiled the bright bird-like smile that she felt must look so **phoney.** She always thought she must look like a model in an advertisement on **telly**who has suddenly been told she must act (Binchy). 6. Did the invaders **exterminate** the native population, or did they **superimpose** themselves upon them and became to some extent blended with them? (Churchill). 7. If Mr. Edgar Allan Poe were alive, he could make up a **swei**story about Miss Hester and her house (Metalious). 8. Oh, I don't know, it's a job the same as any other. Worse paid than a lot, but then you can always read the paper when the **kids** are doing a test, and our Head is a bit soft about things like doctors' **certs**. If I want to earn a few **quid**, real money I mean, in some other job, I just don't turn up for a few days. I get paid just the same. (Binchy). 9. The directors of the company have asked me **to express**our deepest thanks and **congratulations** for your efforts in saving our passengers and ship (Cussler). 10. For years fashionable **educators** have been arguing that the worst thing you can do to young people is to damage their sensitive **egos** with criticism (from The Economist). 11. "That there's a software **glitch** of some kind. A glitch like we've never seen before." "A glitch!" Herbert roared. "In twenty million dollars worth of computer **widgetry** that you designed?"(Clancy). 12. Richman bent over, and lifted the **DFDR** (digital flight data recorder) by one stainless-steel handle. "Heavy." That's the crash-resistae housing," Ron said. "The actual **doohickey** weighs maybe six ounces." (Clancy).

Seminar 11. **Dialects and Variants of the English Language**

Consider your answers to the following:
1. Groups of dialects in the British Isles.
2. American English vocabulary.
3. American English spelling, grammar, and pronunciation.
4. Canadian English.
5. Australian English.

Exercise 1. *Use American English words in the following sentences*:
1. The African Chieftain was pleased with the ……(biscuits).
2. Many …….. (flats) are coming up now in village.
3. As the …….(lift) did not work I had to climb three floors.
4. ……..(petrol) is cheap in USA.

5. ……. (public) schools give quality education.
6. I am fund of ……………… (sweets).
7. He drank three ………. (tins) of beer.
8. People in town prefer to live in the ……………. (ground floor) for the sake of convenience.

Exercise 2. *Identify AE/BrE sentences in the following pairs*:
1. Jenny feels ill. She ate too much. – Jenny feels ill. She's eaten too much.
2. I'd like to have a bath. – I'd like to take a bath.
3. They don't need to come to school today. – They needn't come to school today.
4. She studied chemistry at university. – She studied French in high school.
5. Will they still be there at the weekend? – She'll be coming home on the weekends.
6. He promised to write her every day. – He promised to write to her every day.
7. The football team are rather weak this year. – The football team is rather weak this year.
8. Have you eaten yet? – Did you eat yet?
9. The American traveller told about the cheque exchange programme. – The British traveler told about the check exchange program.
10. He hasn't returned from the centre yet. – He didn't return from the center yet.

Exercise 3. *Comment on the meaning of the following Canadianisms and give their British/American equivalents*:
tuque, runners, parkade, eavestroughs, garburator, gasbar, whitener, stagette, hydro, pogey, serviette, lineup, housecoat, chesterfield, loonie, toonie.

Exercise 4.*Comment on the meaning of the following Australianisms:*
Cuppa, arvo, selfie, Aussie, devo, servo, garbo, dinkum, sheila, lollies.

Seminar 12. **English Lexicography**

Consider your answers to the following:
1. The earliest dictionaries.
2. The Middle Ages dictionaries.
3. Dictionaries of the Renaissance period.
4. Dictionaries of the 19th century. American dictionaries.
5. Types of dictionaries.

TEST

1. Lexicology studies….
   a) the grammar of a language
   b) the vocabulary of a language
   c) different stylistic devices

2. Relationships based on the linear character of speech, on the influence of the context are called:
   a) syntagmatic
   b) paradigmatic
   c) semantic

3. What kind of relations is based on the interdependence of words within the vocabulary?
   a) syntagmatic
   b) paradigmatic
   c) semantic

4. Neutral words usually are NOT:
   a) frequent
   b) archaic
   c) native

5. Words denoting notions that have disappeared out of modern life are called:
   a) historisms
   b) neologisms
   c) archaisms

6. Words that have different forms but meanings similar to a certain degree are called:
   a) synonyms
   b) homonyms
   c) polysemantic words

7. Homonyms having the same pronunciation are called:
   a) homographes
   b) homophones
   c) homoforms

8. Words which meanings differ only by stylistic connotations are called:
   a) stylisticsynonyms
   b) stylisticantonyms
   c) polysemanticwords

9. Homonyms having the same spelling are called:
   a) homographes
   b) homophones
   c) homoforms

10. Lexicography studies…
    a) theory and practice of dictionary compiling
    b) dialect forms of words
    c) word-building

11. Find a synonymic dominant:
    a) brisk
    b) quick
    c) alert

12. Which group of homonyms do the words "pupil (учень) – pupil (зіниця)" belong to?
    a) homoforms
    d) homographs
    c) perfecthomonyms

13. To which group of homonyms do the words "left (лівий) – left (залишений)" belong?
    a) homoforms
    d) homographs
    c) perfect homonyms

14. The lexical nucleus of any word is:
    a) a root morpheme
    b) a stem
    c) a prefix

15. The way of wordbuilding when a word is formed by joining two or more stems to form one word is called:
    a) affixation
    b) derivation
    c) composition

16. Prefixes un-, over-, under- belong to:
    a) native
    b) etymological
    c) borrowed

17. Suffixes -dom, -ry, -ship denote:
    a) diminutiveness
    b) the agent of the action
    c) collectivity

18. Compounds where the components are joined without any linking element are called:
    a) syntactical
    b) neutral
    c) morphological

19. What is the largest group of borrowings inEnglish?
    a) Greek
    b) French
    c) Spanish

20. What origin has the word"lexicology"?
    a) Greek
    b) Latin
    c) Italian

21. Such pronouns as *same, both* are borrowed from....
    a) Latin
    b) Scandinavian
    c) Celtic

22. Which pair is NOT etymological doublets:
    a) canal – channel
    b) skirt – shirt
    c) knight – night

23. What do we call connotations of words?
    a) the notional content of a word
    b) the mental content of a word
    c) the emotional or expressive counterpart of meaning

24. A word that has more than one meaning is called:
    a) homonym
    b) polysemantic word
    c) synonym

25. What do we call a transfer of name based upon the association of similarity, a hidden comparison?
    a) metaphor
    b) metonymy
    c) epithet

26. The most general term in a synonymic group iscalled:
    a) the synonymic dominant
    b) the synonymic head
    c) the synonymic invariant

27. The pair "known-unknown" refers to:
    a) absolute antonyms
    b) root antonyms
    c) affixational antonyms

28. The morpheme that forms parts of speech is…
    a) stem
    b) suffix
    c) prefix

29. Root words are…
    a) simple words
    b) derived words
    c) compound words

30. Completely non-motivated word-groups are called:
    a) phraseological collocations
    b) phraseological fusions
    c) phraseological unities

32. The youngest variant of English is …
    a) American
    b) Canadian
    c) Australian

31. The variant of English which combines British and American spelling is ….
    a) Australian
    b) Canadian
    c) New Zealand

32. A morpheme is ….
    a) the smallest phonetic unit
    b) the smallest grammatical unit
    c) the smallest meaningful language unit

33. According to the semantic principle phraseological units are classified into ….
    a) nominative, nominative-communicative, interjectional,communicative
    b) combinations, unities, fusions
    c) verbal, substantive, adjectival, adverbial,interjectional

34. Euphemisms are …
    a) antonyms
    b) synonyms
    c) homonyms

35. What morpheme can function both as an affix and as a free morpheme:
     a) free
     b) bound
     c) semi-bound

GLOSSARY

1. **Abbreviation (initial shortening)** – making a new word from the initial letters of a word group

2. **Affixation** – formation of new words by means of suffixes and prefixes

3. **Alliteration** – the repetition of consonant sounds at the beginning of words or stressed syllables

4. **Antonyms** – words of the same category of part of speech which have contrastive meanings

5. **Archaism** – such special literary words as a) historical words – denoting historical phenomena which are no more in use; b) poetic words and highly literary words used in poetry in the 17-19 cc.; c) archaic words proper – in the course of language history ousted by newer synonymous words or forms

6. **Assimilation** – process of adaptation phonetic, grammatical and semantic features of language

7. **Back-formation** – derivation of new words (mostly verbs) by means of subtracting a suffix or other element resembling it

8. **Barbarisms** – words of foreign origin which have not entirely been assimilated into a language

9. **Belles-lettres style** – style of literature that is an end in itself and is not practical or purely informative. The term can refer generally to poetry, fiction, drama, etc., or more specifically to light, entertaining, sophisticated literature

10. **Blend** – a word formed from a word-group or two synonyms

11. **Bookish words** – words used in cultivated spheres of speech: in books or in such types of oral communication as public speech, official negotiations and so on

12. **Borrowing** – a word, phrase copied from another language, book

13. **Bound morpheme** – a morpheme that cannot stand alone as an independent word

14. **Colloquial word** – words employed in non-official everyday communication

15. **Composition** – way of word-building when a word is formed by joining two or more stems to form one word

16. **Compound word** – word which consists of two or more root morphemes and a flexion

17. **Connotation** – part of meaning of linguistic unit, expressing its stylistic value

18. **Contraction (clipping)** – making a new word from a syllable or two of the original word

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

20. **Derivational compound** (**compound-derived word**) – word consisting of two or more root morphemes, one or more affixes and an inflexion

21. **Derived word** – word consisting of one root morpheme, one or several affixes and an inflexion

22. **Diachrony –** the study of change over time, especially changes to language

23. **Diachronical (historical) linguistics** investigates the way a language changes over time

24. **Dialectal words** – words used by people of a certain community living in a certain territory

25. **Dictionary** – list of words with their definitions; list of words with corresponding words in other languages

26. **Etymological doublets** – pairs of words which have one and the same original form but which have acquired different forms and even different meanings during the course of linguistic development

27. **Etymology** – a branch of linguistics studying the origin of words

28. **Free morpheme** – a morpheme which coincides with a word-form of an independently functioning word

29. **Functional style** – a system of interrelated language means which serves a definite aim of communication, includes: **Official style, Scientific style, Publicist style, Newspaper style, Belles-lettres style**

30. **Generalization** – process contrary to specialization, the meaning of a word becomes more general in the course of time

31. **Homoforms** – words which coincide in their spelling and pronunciation but have different grammatical meaning

32. **Homographs –** words which are the same in spelling but different in sound

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

34. **Homonyms proper** – homonyms which are the same in sound and spelling

35. **Homophones** – words which are the same in sound and different in spelling

36. **Idiom** – a group of words that has a special meaning different from the ordinary meaning of each separate word

37. **Idiomatic compounds** – words where the meaning of the whole is not a sum of meanings of its components, the meaning is changed or transferred

38. **International word** – word borrowed by several languages, not just by one. Such words usually convey concepts which are significant in the field of communication. Many of them are of Latin and Greek origin

39. **Jargonisms** – non-standard words used by people of a certain asocial group or in a particular profession to keep their intercourse secret

40. **Learned words** – *See* **Bookish words**

41. **Lexicography –** art and craft of writing dictionaries

42. **Lexicology** – part of linguistics which deals with the vocabulary and characteristic features of words and word-groups

43. **Literary words** – serve to satisfy communicative demands of official, scientific, high poetry and poetic messages, authorial speech of creative prose; mainly observed in the written form

44. **Meaning** – component of the word through which a concept is communicated

45. **Metaphor** – figure of speech which consists in transference of names based on the associated likeness between two objects or their common qualities

46. **Metonymy** – figure of speech in which the name of an object or concept is replaced with a word closely related to or suggested by the original, as "crown" for "king"

47. **Monosemy** – existence within one word of only one meaning

48. **Morphemic borrowings** – 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.

49. **Morphology** – 1) the branch of linguistics that deals with word structure and with functional changes in the forms of words, such as inflection and compounding; 2) the study of the structure, classification, and relationships of morphemes

50. **Neologism** – a new word or expression, or a word used with a new meaning

51. **Neutral words –** the overwhelming majority of lexis

52. **Newspaper style** – 1) observed in the majority of information materials printed in newspapers; 2) a system of interrelated lexical, phraseological and grammatical means which is perceived by the community speaking the language as a separate unity that basically serves the purpose of informing and instructing the reader

53. **Non-idiomatic compounds** – words in which the meaning of the whole is the sum of the meanings of components

54. **Paradigmatic** relations exist between elements of the system outside the strings where they co-occur. These intra-systemic relations and dependencies are expressed in the fact that each lingual unit is included in a set of connections based on different formal and functional properties

55. **Paronyms** – words similar (but not identical) in their phonetic forms

56. **Phraseological combinations** – word-groups with a partially changed meaning

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

58. **Phraseological unit** – a stable word-group characterized by a completely or partially transferred meaning

59. **Phraseological unities** – word-groups with a completely changed meaning; the meaning of the unit does not correspond to the meanings of its constituent parts. They are motivated units or, putting it another way, the meaning of the whole unit can be deduced from the meanings of the constituent parts. The metaphor, on which the shift of the meaning is based, is clear and transparent; they are metaphorically motivated idioms

60. **Polysemy** – existence within one word of several connected meanings

61. **Prefix** – affix preceding the root

62. **Professionalism** – words used in a definite trade, profession by people connected by common interests

63. **Proverb** – a short well-known statement that gives advice or expresses something that is generally true

64. **Publicist style** – covering such genres as essay, feature article, most writing of "new journalism", public speeches, etc.

65. **Scientific style** – found in articles, brochures, monographs and other scientific and academic publications

66. **Semantic borrowings** – such units when a new meaning of the unit existing in the language is borrowed

67. **Semantics** – the philosophical and scientific study of meaning

68. **Semasiology** – branch of linguistics concerned with the meaning of words and word equivalents

69. **Set expressions** – include: cliches, proverbs and sayings, epigrams, quotations, allusions

70. **Simple word** – a word consisting of one root morpheme and an inflexion (in many cases the inflexion is zero)

71. **Slang** – special colloquial words which are used by most speakers in very and highly informal, substandard communication, are highly emotive and expressive and as such lose their originality rather fast and are replaced by newer formations, unstable, fluctuating, tending to expanded synonymity within certain lexico-semantic groups

72. **Sound imitation** – way of word-building when a word is formed by imitating different sounds

73. **Sound interchange** – way of word-building when some sounds are changed to form a new word

74. **Specialization** – gradual process when a word passes from a general sphere to some special sphere of communication

75. **Stylistics** – study of the devices in languages (such as rhetorical figures and syntactical patterns) that are considered to produce expressive or literary style; a system of coordinated, interrelated and inter-conditioned language means intended to fulfill a specific function of communication and aiming at a definite effect

76. **Suffix** – an affix following the root

77. **Synchronic linguistics** studies a language's form at a fixed time in history, past or present

78. **Synchrony** – simultaneous occurrence or motion, occurrence at the same tine or movement at the same rate, or an example of this phenomenon

79. **Synonymic dominant** – unit possessing the most general meaning of the kind

80. **Synonyms** – words belonging to one part of speech with the same or close meaning

81. **Syntagma** – unit formed by a combination of two words or word-groups one of which is modified by the other

82. **Syntagmatic** relations are immediate linear relations between units in a segmental sequence

83. **Terms** – special literary words, denoting objects, processes, phenomena of science, humanities, technique

84. **Translation-loans** are word-for-word (or morpheme-for-morpheme) translation of some foreign words or expressions

85. **Vocabulary** – a system of words and word-groups the language possesses

86. **Vulgarisms** – coarse special colloquial words with a strong emotive meaning, mostly derogatory, normally avoided in polite conversation

87. **Word** – a speech unit used for the purposes of human communication, materially representing a group of sounds, possessing a meaning, susceptible to grammatical employment and characterized by formal and semantic unity.

88. **Word-group** – a group of words which exists in the language as a ready-made unit, has the unity of meaning, the unity of syntactical function

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