

**Lesya Ukrainka Volyn
National University**

**Nataliia Yefremova
Svitlana Sheludchenko
Alla Pavliuk
Valentina Boichuk**

SEMINARS IN LEXICOLOGY

Teaching Aid for Students

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Рецензенти:

- Киселюк Н. П.** – кандидат філологічних наук, доцент кафедри української та іноземної лінгвістики Луцького національного технічного університету
- Рогач О. О.** – кандидат філологічних наук, доцент кафедри прикладної лінгвістики Волинського національного університету імені Лесі Українки

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Навчально-методичні матеріали з лексикології як складової освітнього компоненту «Теоретичний курс англійської мови» призначені для студентів факультету іноземної філології, які навчаються за першим (бакалаврським) рівнем вищої освіти (галузь знань 03 «Гуманітарні науки», спеціальність 035 «Філологія», освітньо-професійна програма «Мова і література (англійська). Переклад»; галузь знань 01 «Освіта/Педагогіка», спеціальність 014.02 «Середня Освіта. Мова і література (англійська)», освітньо-професійна програма «Середня Освіта. Англійська мова»). Навчально-методичні матеріали включають завдання до семінарських занять з лексикології англійської мови, які охоплюють питання для обговорення на практичних заняттях, глосарій до певної теми, питання для самоконтролю, різноманітні види вправ та завдань, рекомендовану літературу для самостійного опрацювання. Навчально-методичні матеріали також містять тестові завдання, перелік тем для індивідуальної роботи та список рекомендованої літератури. Видання спрямоване на оптимізацію засвоєння теоретичного матеріалу та вироблення умінь та навичок практичної роботи з мовним матеріалом.

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PREFACE

“Seminars in Lexicology: Teaching Aid for Students” is intended to assist the students who begin the study of Lexicology through observing, analyzing and interpreting language phenomena and to arouse curiosity about English words and about language in general.

The manual contains extended outlines used at ten seminars, all of them dedicated to these problems: Etymological Peculiarities of the English Word-Stock; the Morphological Structure of English Words; Word-Formation; Semasiology, Change of Meaning; Polysemy vs Homonymy; Semantic Groups of Words; Stylistic Peculiarities of the English Vocabulary; English Phraseology; Dialects and Variants of the English Language; English Lexicography.

Each section follows a regular pattern: Issues for Discussion; Glossary with definitions of essential linguistic terms; Suggested Questions covering various problems to revise the topic; Exercises, which reveal paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations between/among lexical units and help to promote students’ analytical abilities and linguistic insights; Reading & Summary, where students can choose some good references to use.

The teaching aid also comprises training tests which are designed to help students expand their abilities to reflect upon and analyze linguistic phenomena. There are also topics for individual work (presentations) which develop students’ linguistic competence. The Recommended Literature section comprises the resources useful for those engaged in the theory and practice of English Lexicology.

Current materials help students with comprehension of the English language, especially with the enrichment of vocabulary, and the development of communication skills, which in their turn, lead to a higher level of competence in English.

SEMINAR 1

ETYMOLOGICAL PECULIARITIES OF MODERN ENGLISH VOCABULARY

Issues for Discussion

1. General remarks concerning the etymology of the English vocabulary. Words of native origin, their specific features.
2. The foreign element in the English vocabulary.
 2. 1. Causes and ways of borrowing.
 2. 2. Criteria of borrowing.
3. Classification of borrowings according to the language they were borrowed from.
 3. 1. The Celtic element in the English vocabulary.
 3. 2. Romanic borrowings. The classical element in the English vocabulary.
 3. 3. Germanic borrowings.
 3. 4. Various other elements in the English vocabulary.
4. Assimilation of borrowings.
5. Etymological doublets. Etymological hybrids. International words.

Glossary

Etymology is a branch of Lexicology that studies the origin and history of words.

Borrowing is 1) the process of adopting foreign words; 2) the result of this process.

Assimilation is used to denote a particular or total conformation to the phonetic, graphical and morphological standards of the receiving language and its semantic structure.

Translation Loans are words or word combinations which are formed from the material of a given language but after the foreign pattern by means of literally morpheme-for-morpheme (word-for-word) translation.

Etymological Hybrids are words whose elements are derived from different languages.

Etymological Doublets are two or more words borrowed from the same source at different times and, therefore, having different forms and meaning.

International Words are words of identical origin, which occur in several languages as a result of simultaneous or successive borrowing from the same ultimate source.

Suggested Questions

1. Prove, that the vocabulary of Modern English is a product of many epochs.
2. Comment on the main characteristic features of the native words in ME vocabulary.
3. Comment on the term “borrowing”.
4. What are the main criteria of borrowings?
5. Comment on the phenomenon of assimilation of borrowings.

6. What can you say about the words of Celtic origin that are found in English? Give examples of such words.
7. Comment on the periods of Latin borrowings.
8. Review your knowledge of Greek borrowings in the English vocabulary.
9. Give comments on French borrowings in the English vocabulary.
10. Comment on the principal phonetic peculiarities of later adoptions from French.
11. Comment on the contribution of Scandinavian borrowings in the English vocabulary.
12. Comment on Slavonic borrowings.
13. Comment on minor borrowings in the English vocabulary.
14. What is meant by etymological hybrids?
15. What words are considered to be etymological doublets?
16. What is meant by the term “translation loans”?
17. What words belong to the stock of international words?

Exercises

Exercise 1. Arrange the following words into the following groups: a) native words, b) Latin borrowings, c) Greek borrowings.

Absolute, acacia, album, and, animal, apple, ask, atmosphere, autobiography, bake, barometer, be, bear, begin, berry, bird, biscuit, board, bread, brother, brown, but, by, calculate, can, character, child, church, cold, come, concrete, conscious, continuous, cow, create, crisis, cup, curriculum, daughter, day, delicate, devil, dog, door, duck, emotion, end, equal, expect, father, field, fish, four, fox, from, genius, girl, go, green, hand, hen, history, home, horse, knight, land, life, lord, manuscript, may, meat, mile, milk, noon, nun, of, old, organization, palm, panic, paper, pipe, plum, pound, propaganda, queen, rain, rector, red, reduce, room, say, shall, sheep, sing, six, spoon, spring, stimulus, system, tell, wall, water, we, wine, winter, wolf, work, you.

Exercise 2. Comment on the phonetic and graphic peculiarities of the following French borrowings.

1. Champagne, chic, chauffeur, machine.
2. Cadet, cigarette, coquette, etiquette, gazette, silhouette.
3. Beige, bourgeois, bourgeoisie, garage, genre, prestige, regime, sabotage.
4. Closure, exposure, leisure, measure, pleasure, seizure, treasure.
5. Conservatoire, memoirs, repertoire, reservoir.
6. Ballet, bouquet, corps, debris, debut, depot.
7. Attaché, café, cliché, fiancé, fiancée, résumé, foyer, communiqué.
8. Balloon, cartoon, platoon, saloon.
9. Antique, critique, physique, technique.
10. Employee, referee.

Exercise 3. Arrange the following French borrowings into three groups according to the degree of their assimilation: a) fully assimilated, b) partially assimilated, c) unassimilated.

Act, admiral, aim, arm, art, autumn, ball, bank, beauty, beef, beige, blindage, bon mot, branch, brilliant, butcher, camouflage, capital, captain, chandelier, chateau, chauffeur, city, close, colleague, command, commence, coup d'état, count, courage, crime, cry, debris, decide, degree, delight, emperor, employee, etiquette, exposure, face, fatigue, financé, foyer, fruit, garage, gazette, honour, hour, large, legal, leisure, machine, magazine, marine, measure, minister, mutton, naive, nation, nice, office, pass, pleasure, poet, prestige, restore, rouge, sergeant, soup, supreme, toast, troops, vessel.

Exercise 4. Mind the following Italian borrowings. Comment on the sphere of life they are used in.

Adagio, allegro, alt, aria, baritone, bass, bust, colonnade, conceit, corridor, fresco, granite, influenza, libretto, macaroni, miniature, opera, operetta, piano, primadonna, quartet, revolt, solo, sonata, soprano, studio, tempo, trio.

Exercise 5. Arrange the following borrowings of Scandinavian origin in groups according to the part of speech they belong to.

Anger, birth, both, call, cast, clip, die, doze, fellow, fir, fit, flat, gate, get, glitter, happen, happy, hasten, heaven, hit, husband, ill, knife, lift, loose, low, meek, odd, raise, root, saga, same, scatter, sister, skill, skin, sky, sly, smile, struggle, take, they, though, till, ugly, want, weak, window, wing, wrong.

Exercise 6. Comment on etymological doublets. Explain the origin and formation of the following doublets.

Abbreviate – abridge; artist – artiste; basis – base; camera – chamber; camp – campus; canal – channel; captain – chieftain; catch – chase; cavalry – chivalry; cross – crux; deacon – dean; draw – drag; eatable – edible; goal – jail; inch – ounce; legal – loyal; liquor – liqueur; major – mayor; masculine – male; naked – nude; name – noun; nay – no; of – off; papyrus – paper; pauper – poor; radius – ray; rout – route; salon – saloon; senior – sir; shade – shadow; skirt – shirt; street – stratum; suit – suite; wine – vine; word – verb.

Exercise 7. Comment on etymological hybrids.

Artless, blackmail, breakage, clearness, countless, disburden, dukedom, faithful, falsehood, goddess, joyful, merciful, salt-cellar, unbearable, unbutton, uncertain, usable.

Exercise 8. Identify international words and state to what sphere of human activity they belong.

The Greeks cultivated many of the sciences. Their most important contribution were made in the fields of astronomy, mathematics, botany, chemistry, physics and medicine.

Toscanini was granted the most flattering gift of all: an orchestra created specially

for him. He reached a national radio and television audience and became a visitor to millions of homes that had never heard classical music in such abundance. He was no longer merely a conductor, he had become an icon.

Exercise 9. Do etymological analysis of the poem SYMPHONY IN YELLOW by Oscar Wilde. Follow the scheme of etymological analysis given below. Identify native and foreign words (of Greek, Latin, French, Italian, Spanish, etc. origin). Determine the type of assimilation (phonetic, grammatical, lexical); the degree of assimilation (complete, partial, lack of assimilation).

Oscar Wilde

SYMPHONY IN YELLOW
An omnibus across the bridge
Crawls like a yellow butterfly.
And here and there a passer-by
Shows like a little restless midge.
Big barges full of yellow hay
Are moved against the shadowy wharf,
And like a yellow silken scarf,
The thick hangs along the quay.
The yellow leaves begin to fade
And flutter from the Temple elms
And at my feet the pale green Thames
Lies like a rod of rippled jade.

The scheme of etymological analysis of the text

From the point of view of their origin the words are predominantly native. They are the articles (...), the pronouns (...), the prepositions (...), the conjunctions (...), the adjectives (denoting colors – ; denoting qualities –, etc.), the nouns (denoting insects –, denoting things of everyday use – etc.), verbs (...). Although the text abounds in borrowings. E.g. Of Celtic origin (...); of Latin origin (...); of those, which were adopted from Latin through French (...), and through Spanish (...); of Scandinavian origin (...). We have come across the examples of etymological hybrids: . As to the degree of assimilation of borrowings, we define it as..., as they

Reading & Summary

1. Гороть Є. І., Белова С. В. Нариси з лексикології сучасної англійської мови. Луцьк : РВВ «Вежа» Волин. нац. ун-ту ім. Лесі Українки, 2008. С. 10–21.

2. Гороть Є. І., Малімон Л. К. Fundamentals of Modern English Lexicology. Луцьк : Вежа-Друк, 2017. С. 14–29.
3. Мостовий М. І. Лексикологія англійської мови. Х.: Основа, 1993. С. 151–174.
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SEMINAR 2

THE MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH WORDS

Items for Discussion

1. Morpheme, its Definition and Comparison with Word
2. Morphemic Analysis of Words
 - 2.1. Procedure of Morphemic Analysis
 - 2.2. Types of Word Segmentability
 - 2.3. Identification of Morphs
 - 2.4. Classification of Morphemes
3. Derivational Level of Analysis.

Glossary

Morphemes are defined as the smallest indivisible two-facet language units. They are defined as minimum language units because they can't be further divided into meaningful units.

Allomorphs are positional variants of a morpheme.

Complete segmentability is characteristic of words the morphemic structure of which is transparent enough as their individual morphemes clearly stand out within the word lending themselves easily to isolation. Its constituent morphemes recur with the same meaning in a number of other words, e.g.: *agreement, development*.

Conditional segmentability characterizes words whose segmentation into constituent morphemes is doubtful for semantic reasons.

Pseudo-morphemes (quasi-morphemes) do not rise to the full status of morphemes for semantic reason.

Defective segmentability is the property of words whose component morphemes seldom or never recur in other words. One of the component morphemes is **a unique morpheme** in the sense that it doesn't, as a rule, recur in a different linguistic environment.

The root-morpheme is the lexical nucleus of a word, it has an individual meaning shared by no other morpheme of the language.

Non-root morphemes include inflectional morphemes or inflections and affixational morphemes or affixes.

A **free morpheme** is defined as one that coincides with the stem or a word-form. A great many root-morphemes are free morphemes, for example, the root-morpheme *friend* – of the noun *friendship* is qualified as a free morpheme because it coincides with one of the forms of the noun *friend*.

A **bound morpheme** occurs only as a constituent part of a word. Affixes are, naturally, bound morphemes, for they always make part of a word, e.g. the suffixes *-ness*, *-ship*, *-ize*, etc., prefixes *in-*, *un-*, *dis-*, etc. (e.g. *kindness*, *comradeship*, *to activize*, *incomplete*, *unnecessary*, *disappear*, etc.).

Semi-bound (semi-free) morphemes are morphemes that can function in a morphemic sequence both as an affix and as a free morpheme.

Stem is defined as that part of the word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm.

Simple stems are semantically non-motivated and do not constitute a pattern on analogy with which new stems may be modelled. Simple stems are generally monomorphic and phonetically identical with the root morpheme.

Derived stems are built on stems of various structures, they are motivated, i. e. derived stems are understood on the basis of the derivative relations between their IC's and the correlated stems. The derived stems are mostly polymorphic in which case the segmentation results only in one IC that is itself a stem, the other IC being necessarily a derivational affix.

Compound stems are made up of two IC's, both of which are themselves stems, e.g. *match-box*, *driving-suit*, *pen-holder*, etc. It is built by joining of two stems, one of which is simple, the other derived.

Combining forms. This group includes morphemes of Greek and Latin origin of the type *tele*, *graph*, *micro*, *phone*, etc. They are characterized by a definite lexical meaning and peculiar stylistic reference: *astron* means 'star', *autos* means 'self', *bios* means 'life', *ge* means 'earth', *graph* means 'writing', *hydor* means 'water', *logos* means 'speech, science', *micro* means 'smallness', *phone* means 'sound', *photos* means 'light'.

Suggested Questions

1. Comment on the aim of morphemic analysis.
2. What is the difference between *morphemic analysis* and *derivational analysis*?
3. What are the main stages of the procedure of morphemic analysis?
4. Describe the first stage of this procedure. What are the main types of word segmentability?
5. Comment on the criteria of identification of morphs.
6. What are the criteria of classification of morphemes?
7. Comment on the types of morphemes from the semantic point of view.
8. Comment on the types of morphemes from the structural point of view.

9. What is meant by *semi-affix*?
10. Comment on the status of *combining form*?
11. What are the main structural types of English words?

Exercises

Exercise 1. *Comment on the essence of the morphemic analysis of the word. Analyse the following words into their Ultimate Constituents (UCs).*

Friendship, freedom, lucky, luckily, agreement, frightful, merciless, suddenly, lifeless, uncomfortable, steadiness, bathroom, northern, actress, blue-eyed, visitor, ex-seaman, half-finished, supernaturally, uncomprehendingly, unemployment, reinforcement, uplifted, hopelessly, unworthiness, impassable, extravagant, unconsciousness.

Exercise 2. *Comment on the degrees of segmentability of stems. Analyse the words into their UCs and arrange them into three groups according to the degree of segmentability of their stems: a) complete, b) conditional, c) defective.*

Amoral, cloudless, contain, cranberry, culture, deceive, deformation, disappear, disappointment, distrust, ex-champion, exclaim, export, foresee, foretell, import, information, introduce, lioness, lionet, locket, misguided, misunderstand, obtain, perceive, picture, pocket, porter, proclaim, produce, raspberry, receive, reduce, retain, ringlet, speaker, strawberry, streamlet, townlet, transformation, transmit, transplant, undressed, unemployment, uniformity, universal.

Exercise 3. *Arrange the following words into three groups, those having: a) free stems; b) bound stems; c) semi-bound stems.*

Public, voyage, boyish, disrange, manly, freedom, vital, waiter, experience, businesslike, annual, speechless, careful, policeman, well-known, half-done, personal, difference, patience, untrue, longish, length, likely, terrorist, unselfish, tremendous, famous, weekly.

Exercise 4. *Give the definition of a root-morpheme. Define roots in the following sets of words.*

Bake, baker, bakery; civil, civilian, civilise, civilised, civilisation; collect, collection, collector, collective, collectivisation; differ, difference, different, differential, differentiate; gentle, gentleman, gentility, gentleness, genteel, gently; please, pleasant, pleasure; describe, prescribe, inscribe; success, successful, unsuccessful, successfully, succession, successor, successive; porter, transport, import, export.

Exercise 5. *Comment on structural types of words. Arrange the following words into: a) simple, b) derived, c) compounds, d) derivational compounds.*

Railway, child, childish, bald-headed, toy, mute, deaf, deaf-mute, act, actor, long-legged, dark, darkness, friend, friendship, everything, boyishness, open-hearted, daytime,

narrow-minded, whatever, big, biggish, space, spaceman, old, old-timer, teenager, ill, ill-mannered, double, fame, famous, norm, normal, sunrise, timesaving, sharp, sharpen, hand, handful, handy, moon, honey-mooner, week-end, bare, leg, bare-legged, three-coloured, film, film-star, mistress, breakdown, overgrow, light-blue.

Exercise 6. Make distinction between morphemic and derivational analyses. Define the morphemic and derivational structures of the following words.

Blackish, classical, disloyal, hammerlike, homeless, impossible, interoceanic, mislead, non-autobiographic, pseudo-democratic, sleepy, sunny, unemployment, disobey, untrue, unfinished, violinist, womanlike, colourful, industrial, silken, classification, re-examine, impossible.

Exercise 7. Do the morphemic analysis of the vocabulary in the poem SYMPHONY IN YELLOW by Oscar Wilde (see Seminar 1, Ex. 9.). Identify segmentable and non-segmentable words. Split the segmentable words into constituting morphemes. Define the type of word segmentability (complete, conditional, defective). State the morphemic structure of segmentable words: indicate types of morphemes from the point of view of their semantics (root-morphemes, affixational morphemes: prefixes and suffixes) and structure (free, bound, semi-free (semi-bound) morphemes, combining forms).

Reading & Summary

1. Гороть Є. І., Белова С. В. Нариси з лексикології сучасної англійської мови. Луцьк : РВВ «Вежа» Волин. нац. ун-ту ім. Лесі Українки, 2008. С. 21–28.
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SEMINAR 3 WORD-FORMATION

Issues for Discussion

1. Word derivation.
 1. 1. Affixation: prefixation, suffixation.
 1. 2. Hybrids.

1. 3. Affixoids
2. Conversion.
 2. 1. Typical semantic relations.
 2. 2. Substantivation of adjectives.
3. Word-composition (compounding).
4. Other ways of replenishing the vocabulary.
 4. 1. Reversion.
 4. 2. Shortening of spoken words.
 4. 3. Graphical abbreviations. Acronyms.
 4. 4. Blending.
5. Minor types of lexical oppositions.
 5. 1. Sound interchange.
 5. 2. Change of stress.
 5. 3. Sound imitation (onomatopoeia).

Glossary

Word-formation is the process of coining new words from the material available in the given language after certain semantic and structural pattern.

Affixation is the formation of new words by adding affixes to different stems.

Prefix is an affixational morpheme which precedes the root-morpheme

Suffix is an affixational morpheme which follows the root-morpheme.

Conversion is the process of coining new words without adding derivative elements, through changes in the paradigm

Substantivation is the process in which adjectives or participles acquire the paradigm and syntactic functions of nouns.

Compounding/composition is coining new words by combining two or more stems which occur in the language as free forms.

Abbreviations (or initial shortenings) are words produced by shortening the phrasal terms up to their initial letters.

Reversion (or back-formation) is inferring of a short word from a long one.

Shortening may be represented as significant subtraction, in which part of the original word is taken away.

Aphesis is initial clipping (*van* < *caravan*).

Apocope is final clipping (*gym* < *gymnasium*).

Syncope is medial clipping (*maths* < *mathematics*).

Acronym is shortening from the initial letters.

Blending is a special type of compounding by means of merging parts of words into one new word.

Sound imitation (or onomatopoeia) (from the Greek word ‘*onoma*’ – ‘name’ and ‘*poiein*’ – ‘to make’), is naming the action or object by more or less exact reproduction or a sound associated with it.

Suggested Questions

12. What are the principal productive ways of word-building?
13. What is the difference between *frequency* and *productivity* of affixes?
14. Say, please, what languages served as the main sources of borrowed affixes.
15. What are the main typical semantic relations between words related through conversion?
16. What meanings may denominal verbs possess?
17. What may deverbal nouns denote?
18. What groups are compounds subdivided into structurally?
19. What are the main patterns after which compound nouns can be coined?
20. What are the main patterns after which compound adjectives can be coined?
21. What are the interrelationships between the meaning of a compound word and the meanings of its constituent parts?
22. Comment on *reversion*.
23. Comment on *clipping*.
24. Comment on *graphical abbreviations*.
25. Comment on *blending*.
26. What minor processes of word-building do you know? Describe them and illustrate your answer with examples.

Exercises

Exercise 1. Comment on the origin and meaning of the prefixes in the following words.

1. Afloat, afoot, afresh, alight, along, anew, awaken.
2. Amoral, anomalous, aseptic.
3. Uncomfortable, unequal, unhappy, unreal, unsafe.
4. Unarm, unbelt, unbind, uncap, undress, unmask, untie.
5. Disagree, disapprove, discomfort, disobey.
6. Disappear, disarrange, disband, disconnect, disjoin.

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

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

Exercise 3. Arrange the following noun-forming suffixes into groups according to their origin and productivity into: **A:** a) native, b) foreign; **B:** a) productive, b) non-productive.

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

Exercise 4. Comment on the meaning of the suffix **-en**. Form verbs in **-en** from the following adjectives.

Black, broad, damp, dark, deep, fat, flat, glad, hard, light, ripe, rough, quiet, sad, sick, sharp, soft, stiff, straight, weak, white, wide.

Exercise 5. Comment on the meaning of the suffix **-(i)fy**. Form verbs in **-(i)fy** after the following models:

Model 1: *n* + **-(i)fy** → V: gas – gasify;

Model 2: *adj* + **-(i)fy** → V: simple – simplify.

Acid, beauty, class, dandy, dignity, electric, example, false, bit, glory, grateful, humid, horrific, intensive, just, mystic, pacific, pretty, pure, quality, satisfaction, terrific, type.

Exercise 6. Comment on the term “conversion”. Find examples of conversion in the sentences below. State to what part of speech these words belong.

1. Have you ever summered in the country? It’s a marvelous thing, isn’t it? 2. You are not down. Nothing will down you. 3. I picture myself taking courage to make a declaration to Miss Larkins. 4. She might come and room with her. 5. The room faced the street. 6. From the first Soames had nosed out Darties’s nature. 7. D’you think you are the man to head it? 8. She fingered the dollar. 9. That’s Gloucester Road. Plenty of time to get there if we tube. 10. In the long run, anyone is bound to think that the left is right, and the right is wrong. 11. Isabel wirelesslyed him from the ship.

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

Man-of-war, editor-in-chief, undertaker, looking-glass, get-at-able, stay-at-home, red-hot, butter-fingers, lady-bird, up-to-date, officer-in-charge, workday, Anglo-American, speedometer, midday, hide-and-see, frying-pan, sick-leave, handicraft, salesman, electroplate, queen-bee, fine-looking, washing-machine, high-heeled, cherry-orchard, servant-of-all-work, saleslady, Turco-Russian, note-book, give-and-take, well-to-live, mother-in-law, gas-mask, fountain-pen, sunburnt, inlet, black-eyed, bloodtest, night-flight, oil-rich, factory-packed, waste-paper-basket, once-a-year, difficult-to-learn, nearby, deep-cut, far-gone, hard-working, peace-loving.

Exercise 8. Arrange the following compound adjectives into groups according to the

patterns after which they were formed.

Blue-eyed, fair-haired, rough-skinned, first-rate, second-class, iron-rich, frost-resistant, waterproof, war-damaged, far-gone, well-bred, ill-bred, ill-mannered, clean-shaven, deep-cut, metal-cutting, breath-taking, young-looking, wide-spreading, wide-spread, one-sided, all-embracing, old-fashioned, cruel-hearted, knee-deep, duty-bound, bare-headed, water-beaten, nice-looking, no-longer-young, five-year, peace-loving, snow-covered, light-grey, dark-blue, tired-looking, ill-fitting, fast-tiring, two-day, world-known, hard-working, hard-won, world-old, life-giving, life-long, freedom-loving, deaf-mute, go-slow, indoor, true-to-life, rough-and-ready, devil-may-care, never-ending.

Exercise 9. *Comment on the phenomenon of shortening (or clipping). Arrange the following shortenings into: a) those formed by apocope; b) those formed by aphaeresis; c) those formed by syncope.*

Pub, fridge, fancy, photo, comfy, chap, doc, bike, specs, pop, flu, bus, van, prep, peal, cause, exam, chute, ma'am, tween, ad, cycle, taxi, fan, cap, imposs, gym, lab, story, phone, mend, fend, mag, drome, ne'er, sis, zoo, gent.

Exercise 10. *Arrange the following acronyms into two groups according to their way of reading: a) those which have the alphabetic reading; b) those which are read as if they were ordinary words.*

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

Exercise 11. *Mind the following abbreviations of Latin origin. Give their English equivalents.*

AD, a.m., cf, e. g., i.e., lb, NB, op.cit., p.a., p.m., v, viz.

Exercise 12. *Translate the following sentences. Pick out telescoped words. Arrange them into three groups as to the type of contraction.*

1. It's neither breakfast nor lunch. It's a kind of brunch, I should say. 2. You might have sent them a cablegram. 3. He was electrocuted, as far as I remember. 4. He was glazing at her for some minutes as if he were trying to recall where he had seen her before. 5. Could you tell me where the nearest laundromat is? 6. Can you explain what a seadrome is? 7. The smaze is too thick, one can hardly see anything. 8. Smog is said to be a characteristic feature of Great Britain's weather. 9. At the door he was met by a swellegant girl.

Exercise 13. *Analyze the poem SYMPHONY IN YELLOW by Oscar Wilde (see Seminar 1, Ex. 9.) using the scheme of derivational analysis of the text supplemented:*

At derivational level of analysis the words in the text are represented by the following structural types:

1) **simple words** (root words) which have only a root morpheme in the structure.
E.g. ;

2) **derived words** (affixational derivatives) which consist of a root and one or more affixes. E.g. ;

3) **compound words** (compounds) in which two or more stems are combined into a lexical unit. E.g. ;

In conformity with structural types described above, the words in the analysed text are built up by means of :

1) derivation a) prefixation – e.g. (). Prefixes, found out in the text may be defined as native/borrowed (), productive/highly productive /non-productive ()/ as to their semantics, they denote; a) suffixation – e.g. (). Suffixes, found out in the text may be defined as native/borrowed (), productive/highly productive /non-productive ()/ as to their semantics, they denote

2) word composition. According to their structure compounds in the text are neutral (), morphological (), syntactic (). As to their semantics, the compounds in the text are a) those whose meanings can really be described as the sum of their constituent meanings; b) those the component (or both) of which has changed its meaning; c) those in which the process of deducing the meaning of the whole from those of the constituents is impossible. The compounds in the text are coined after such patterns: .

As to the other types of word-formation, the text under analysis comprises the examples of

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SEMINAR 4 THE SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH WORD. CHANGE OF MEANING

Issues for Discussion

1. Problems of word-meaning.

1. 1. Different approaches to meaning.
1. 2. Types of meaning.
2. Motivation of meaning.
3. Change of meaning.
 3. 1. The causes of semantic change.
 3. 2. Similarity of meaning or metaphor.
 3. 3. Contiguity of meaning or metonymy.
4. The results of semantic change.
 4. 1. Narrowing of meaning.
 4. 2. Extension of meaning.
 4. 3. Degradation of meaning.
 4. 4. Elevation of meaning.

Glossary

Meaning is a certain reflection in our mind of objects, phenomena or relations that makes part of the linguistic sign – its so-called inner facet, whereas the sound-form functions as its outer facet. .

Grammatical meaning may be defined as the component of meaning recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words.

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

Denotational meaning is that component of the lexical meaning which serves to identify and name the notion and makes communication possible.

Connotation is the pragmatic communicative value the word receives depending on *where, when, how, by whom, for what purpose, in what contexts it may be used*. There are four main types of connotations: *stylistic, emotional, evaluative, expressive/intensifying*.

Implicational meaning is the implied information associated with the word.

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

Metaphor is the transfer of meaning based on similarity.

Metonymy is the transfer of meaning based on contiguity.

Extension (broadening) of meaning is the semantic process of changing the denotational meaning of the word which results in the application of the word to a wider variety of referents (e.g.: the word *ready* originally meant “*prepared for ride*” and now the meaning is generalized).

Narrowing (specialisation) of meaning is the semantic process of changing the denotational meaning of the word which results in the restriction of the range of referents (e.g.: the word *wife* originally meant “*woman*” and now it means “*a married woman*”).

Degradation (pejorative development) of meaning is the semantic process of the pejorative development of the connotational aspect of the meaning of the word; the word acquires some derogatory emotive charge (e.g.: the word *boor* was originally used to denote

“a villager”, but then acquired a derogatory, contemptuous connotational meaning “a clumsy, ill-bred fellow, a rude person, a scoundrel”).

Elevation (amelioration) of meaning is the semantic process of the improvement of the connotational component of meaning (e.g.: the word *minister* originally meant ‘a servant, an attendant’ and now it means ‘a civil servant of high rank’).

Suggested Questions

1. Comment on the term “Semasiology”.
2. What are the main approaches to the problem of meaning?
3. What do we mean by the lexical meaning of a word?
4. What is meant by the denotative meaning of the word?
5. What is meant by the connotative meaning of the word?
6. Give examples to show that apart from the lexical meaning the word meaning is always combined with its grammatical meaning.
7. Comment on different types of motivation of words.
8. Comment on semantic transpositions as a universal development of language.
9. Discuss the main types of similarity.
10. What is metonymy? What are the main connections that can cause metonymic transfer of meaning?
11. What are the main tendencies in change of meaning?
12. Comment on the extension of meaning.
13. Comment on the narrowing of meaning.
14. Comment on the elevation of meaning.
15. Comment on the degradation of meaning.

Exercises

Exercise 1. Define denotative and connotative meanings of the words in bold.

1. I suppose **muggins** will have to do it. 2. Give **mummy** the **doggie** then. 3. My brother is terrible. Let’s get rid of this little **beastie**. 4. Let me get you the **aforementioned**. 5. We are away to the sunnier **climes**. 6. Anastasia had **to fork out** a lot for that present. 7. For us it’s been a real **catch-22**, because we had the time to take a vacation without having any money.

Exercise 2. Comment on the phenomenon of metaphor. State on what signs of resemblance the following cases of metaphor are based.

Arm (рукоятка), bridge (перенісся), boat (посудина для підливи), ear (вушко), egg (бомба), elephantine (величезний), face (фасад), finger (стрілка), foot (підніжжя), hand (стрілка), heart (центр), leg (ніжка), mouth (отвір), nose (носик), tube (метро).

Exercise 3. *Comment on the change of meaning of the words in the following sentences. What similarities are the association based on?*

1. Uncle Willoughby meandered back to the library, and there was a silence that you could have dug bits out of it with a spoon. 2. Far away in the misty distance a soft voice spoke: "If I might explain your ladyship". Jeeves had projected himself in from the dining-room and materialized on the rug. Lady Malvern tried to freeze him with a look, but you can't do that sort of thing to Jeeves. 3. In the slanting beams that streamed through the open window the dust danced and was golden. 4. Even the ray of hope was hidden from him. 5. After a relaxed afternoon savouring the warmth of the fireplace Mr. White spit away a storm of indignation. 6. Misunderstanding quickly melted away after a honeymoon journey to Jamaica. 7. Dombey's cup of satisfaction was so full at this moment, that he felt he could afford a drop or two of its contents even to sprinkle on the dust in the by-path of his little daughter. 8. Thunder struggles and howls. Nobody will escape the downpour.

Exercise 4. *Comment on the etymology and meaning of the following cases of metonymy.*

Bikini, boston, bordeaux, cardigan, champagne, cheviot, china, colt, Downing Street, Fleet Street, the White House, the Pentagon, mackintosh, madeira, malaga, sardines, cheviot, sandwich, silhouette, tweed, raglan, Mocco, hooligan.

Exercise 5. *In the following sentences, state what the metonymies stand for. Group the sentences according to the type of contiguity.*

1. We need a couple of strong bodies for our team. 2. There are a lot of good heads in the university. 3. I've got a new set of wheels. 4. We need some new blood in the organization. 5. He's got a Picasso in his living room. I hate to read Heidegger. 6. You'll never get the university to agree to that. I don't approve of the government's actions. 7. Washington is insensitive to the needs of the people. 8. The Kremlin threatened to boycott the next round of talks. 9. Paris is introducing longer skirts this season. 10. Hollywood isn't what it used to be. 11. Wall Street is in a panic.

Exercise 6. *In the following sentences, comment on the change of meaning based on associations of similarity and contiguity. Define the type of transference.*

1. When actors finished their performance on the stage, the stalls applauded and shouted "Bravo". 2. Mr. Pickwick bottled up his vengeance and corked it down. 3. She has just listened to Chaikovsky, which brought her relaxation. 4. The clouds were sleeping on the peak of the mountain. 5. I haven't managed to eat the whole plate I was served at the dinner. 6. What light through yonder window breaks? It is the east, and Juliet is the sun! Arise, fair sun, and kill the envious moon (W.Sh.). 7. The whole classroom was laughing and shouting in exaltation. 8. All shelves in the library were full of Byron. However, they seem to be covered in dust. 9. She looked out of her window one day and gave her heart to the grocer's young man.

Exercise 7. In the following sentences, comment on the results of semantic change of the words in bold: find the cases of narrowing and widening of meanings.

1. The singer made an outstanding impression in London at the 5th **season** of the theatre and had a tremendous success at the Edinburgh International Festival. 2. To **starve** is not a good way to lose weight, but supervised detoxes can be helpful in cleansing the body and losing a few pounds. 3. An **undertaker** must be energetic and be willing to work at odd hours as he has to be on call 24 hours a day. 4. Elie Wiesel, the most famous survivor of the children's **camp** at Buchenwald, was among the orphans who were sent to France. 5. Nestled in a quiet valley, shadowed by grand mountains, the **deer** wander through majestic pines. 6. The **hound** requires a good run every day and enjoys the games with the master. 7. The farmer used to keep **fowl** for his own needs but later he decided to make business from selling chicken meat to retailers.

Exercise 8. In the following sentences, comment on the results of semantic change of the words in bold: find the cases of elevation and degradation of meanings.

1. Soon he became a **villain** who liked to steal and kill and above all cause chaos. 2. The boy's **silly** behaviour is worse when he's tired, so we try to make sure he gets to bed early. 3. **Lord** Byron's notability rests not only on his writings but also on his life, which featured aristocratic excesses, huge debts, numerous love affairs, and self-imposed exile. 4. In terms of how Don Quixote views the world, he exemplifies everything a stereotypical **knight** should be. 5. "And yet," he added, with a **sly** smile, "I feel that I ought to give you as much knowledge of my character as I possess. 6. **Duke** of Kent managed to sneak a note to a daughter without the wife seeing.

Exercise 9. Do the semantic analysis of the vocabulary in the poem SYMPHONY IN YELLOW by Oscar Wilde (see Seminar 1, Ex. 9.). Pick out from the text the examples of change of meaning: metaphor, metonymy (state on what signs of resemblance the cases of metaphor are based; comment on the etymology and meaning of the identified cases of metonymy). Find the examples of the results of semantic change (narrowing of meaning; extension of meaning; degradation of meaning; elevation of meaning) and comment on them.

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SEMINAR 5 ENGLISH VOCABULARY AS A SYSTEM

Issues for Discussion

1. Meaning relations in paradigmatics.
 1. 1. The word and its associative field.
 1. 2. Lexical fields.
 1. 3. Word families.
2. Synonymy.
 2. 1. Classification of synonyms.
 2. 2. Sources of synonymy.
3. Antonyms.
4. Paradigmatic relations of inclusion: hyponyms, hyperonyms, equonyms.

Glossary

Associative field is a grouping of words where every word is involved in a network of associations which connect it with other terms in the language. Some of these associations are based on similarity of meaning, others are purely formal (i.e. based on forms), while others involve both form and meaning.

Lexical/Semantic fields are closely-knit units of vocabulary characterized by a common concept. Words making up semantic field may belong to different parts of speech. The members of the semantic field are not synonyms but all of them are joined together by some common semantic component. For example, the words *mother, father, sister, cousin, etc.* may be described as making up the semantic field of kinship terms; the words *white, blue, red, green, black, etc.* – as the semantic field of colours.

Word families are lexicological groupings in which the words are grouped on the basis of their morphology, both their inflections and their derivations. A family consists of a base form, its possible inflectional forms, and the words derived from it by prefixation and suffixation.

Lexico-grammatical group is a class of words, which have a common lexico-grammatical meaning, common paradigm, the same substituting elements and possible characteristic set of suffixes rendering the lexico-grammatical meaning. These groups are subsets of the part of speech (several lexico-grammatical groups constitute one part of speech). Thus, English nouns are subdivided into the following lexico-grammatical groups: personal names, animal names, abstract nouns, material nouns, proper names, toponymic names.

A **paradigmatic relation** is a relation that holds between elements of the same category, i.e. elements that can be substituted for each other. They are called relations “in absentia”, because the terms involved consist of a word present in the utterance and others that are not actually in the same utterance but that are substitutable for it in that context.

Synonyms are two or more words of the same language, belonging to the same part of speech and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical denotational meanings, interchangeable, at least in some contexts, without any considerable alteration in denotational meaning, but differing in morphemic composition, phonemic shape, shades of meaning, connotations, style, valency and idiomatic use.

Synonymic dominant is the most general term containing the specific features rendered by all the other members of the synonymic group.

Ideographic synonyms denote different shades of meaning or different degrees of a given quality.

Stylistic synonyms are synonyms which differ not so much in meaning but in emotive and stylistic sphere of application.

Phraseological synonyms are synonyms which differ in valency. The difference in distribution may be morphological (*many - much*), syntactical (*bare - naked*, *bare* in reference to persons is used only predicatively while *naked* occurs both predicatively and attributively) and lexical (*begin - commence*, *begin* is generalized in its lexical meaning and becomes a semi-auxiliary when used with an infinitive).

Antonyms are two or rarely more words belonging to the same part of speech, identical in style and nearly identical in distribution the denotative meaning of which render contrary or contradictory notions.

Absolute antonyms are root antonyms; they express contrary notions (*beautiful - ugly*).

Derivational antonyms are antonyms formed by negative affixes (*un-, in-, non-, dis-, pre-, post-, -ful, -less*). They express contradictory notions, one of them excludes the other (*active - inactive*).

Hyponym (from Greek *hupó*, “under” and *ónoma*, “name”) - a word of more specific meaning than a general or superordinate term applicable to it – its **hyperonym** (from Greek *hupér*, “over” and *ónoma*, “name”). For example, *animal* is a hypernym of *elephant*. *Elephant* is a hyponym of *animal*. *Elephant, wolf, fox* are **equonyms**.

Suggested Questions

1. Comment on meaning relations in paradigmatics.
2. What relations are referred to as paradigmatic?
3. What is meant by associative field?
4. Comment on lexical field theory. What is vocabulary according to it?
5. What is the basis for words grouping into word families?
6. What are the levels of family relationship?
7. Give the definition of synonyms.
8. Get ready to discuss the criteria of synonymy.
9. What is meant by a synonymic dominant?
10. Comment on classification of synonyms.
11. Illustrate ideographic synonyms.
12. Give examples of stylistic synonyms.
13. Comment on phraseological synonyms.
14. Give comments on the sources of synonyms in the English vocabulary.
15. What is meant by antonyms?
16. Define the difference between absolute and derivational antonyms.
17. To which parts of speech do most antonyms belong? How do you account for this?
18. Illustrate, please, that a polysemantic word can have several antonyms.
19. Discuss stylistic aspects of antonyms. Give examples of their effective use in pictorial language.
20. Comment on paradigmatic relations of inclusion: hyponyms, hyperonyms, equonyms.

Exercises

***Exercise 1.** Arrange the following words into three lexico-semantic fields. Give the names to these fields.*

Affection, back, backbone, chest, curriculum, calf, calmness, chin, colleague, contentment, delight, dictionary, drill, elbow, empathy, eyelash, exhilaration, faculty, fee, forehead, frustration, heel, ignorance, indignation, jealousy, journal, knee, knuckle, lecturer, limb, malice, master, notebook, palm, professor, passion, pedagogy, postgraduate, principle, rapture, relief, sadness, scholar, schooling, seminar, session, smattering, staff, sympathy, syllabus, syntax, temple, tenderness, thigh, thumb, toe, tutor, university, unrest, wrath, zeal.

***Exercise 2.** Classify the following words into semantic fields comprising the general and the particular. Add more words to these semantic fields.*

Abbey, animal, aubergine, broccoli, building, bull, buffalo, cathedral, cauliflower, cheetah, courgette, cucumber, donkey, ewe, hippopotamus, gazelle, lettuce, leopard, mansion, monastery, mule, onion, radish, skyscraper, vegetable, wigwam.

Exercise 3. Find a denotative meaning on which each of the synonymic groups are based. What shades of meaning make synonymic words idiosyncratic?

1. Attractive, beautiful, elegant, glamorous, pretty.
2. Blaze, blink, flash, flicker, glow, shine, sparkle, twinkle.
3. Ache, hurt, painful, sore, sting, throb.
4. Commandeer, confiscate, deprive, grab, impound, seize, strip.
5. Construct, fabricate, forge, invent, manufacture.

Exercise 4. Arrange the following ideographic synonyms according to the degree of intensity.

1. Ask, beg, implore.
2. Desire, long, wish.
3. Annoy, irritate, vex.
4. Alarmed, frightened, terrified.
5. Delight, happiness, pleasure.
6. Affliction, despair, sadness.
7. Astonishment, consternation, surprise.
8. Excuse, forgive, pardon.
9. Accident, disaster, misfortune.
10. Capability, genius, talent.

Exercise 5. Give synonyms

A) of Germanic origin to the following words.

Beverage, cease, educate, enemy, error, faith, inquire, reply.

B) of Romanic origin to the following words.

Book, corner, deem, end, freedom, friendship, happiness, holy.

C) of Scandinavian origin to the following words.

Elevate, heaven, mate, present, sick, shine, throw, weep.

Exercise 6. Give derivational and/or absolute antonyms to the following words.

Active, alive, amity, appearance, arrange, artless, attentive, aware, bad, big, begin, brave, busy, careful, comfortable, competent, consistent, continue, convenient, correct, courage, descend, discord, distinct, employed, enemy, expensive, faithful, faulty, final, free, frequent, hostile, kind, legal, low, misfortune, normal, painful, polite, post-war, preceding, progressive, rational, rough, safety, sane, slow, sufficient, temporary, timidity, underestimate, uniformity, wet, white, wrong

Exercise 7. Classify the following words into logical groups going from hyperonym to hyponym.

Animal, beetroot, birch, buffalo, building, bulldog, bungalow, bush, cabbage, carnation, collie, comedy, cottage, cow, dahlia, dandelion, dog, drama, fiction, file, flower, goat, grass, husky, in-tray, linden, maple, mansion, marker, novel, oak, onion, pin, plant, poodle, scotch, stationery, stapler, story, tulip, vegetable, vertebrate, villa.

Exercise 8. Draw tree-charts to illustrate the hyponymy relations. Give hyponyms to the following hyperonyms.

Container, crockery, vegetable, bird, tree, dog, flower, vehicle,

Reading & Summary

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SEMINAR 6 POLYSEMY. HOMONYMS. PARONYMS.

Issues for Discussion

1. Polysemy.
 1. 1. Definition of polysemy.
 1. 2. Diachronic approach vs synchronic approach to polysemy.
 1. 3. Semantic structure of polysemantic word.
2. Homonyms.
 2. 1. Classification of homonyms.
 2. 2. Sources of homonymy.
 2. 3. Polysemy vs homonymy.
3. Paronyms.

Glossary

Polysemy is plurality of meanings of a word.

Semantic structure (semantic paradigm) of a word is all the lexico-semantic variants of this word taken together.

Lexico-semantic variant of the word is one of the meanings of this word.

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

Perfect (full, absolute) homonyms are words identical both in pronunciation and in spelling but different in meaning.

Homographs (heteronyms) are words identical in spelling but different in sound and meaning.

Homophones are words identical in sound-form but different in spelling and meaning.

Partial homonyms are words in which some word-forms are homonymous, but the whole paradigm is not identical.

Lexical homonyms are words identical in sound-form or spelling (belong to the same part of speech; the difference is confined to the lexical meaning only).

Grammatical homonyms are homonymic word-forms differing in grammatical meaning only.

Lexico-grammatical homonyms (homofoms) are identical only in some of their paradigm constituents, both lexical and grammatical meanings differ.

Partial homonyms are words in which some word-forms are homonymous, but the whole paradigm is not identical.

Patterned homonyms are homonyms formed either by means of conversion or by leveling of grammar inflexion.

Paronyms are words that are kindred both in sound-form and meaning and therefore are often confused because of their phonetic and semantic proximity though in fact.

Suggested Questions

1. Comment on the phenomenon of polysemy.
2. Comment on polysemy viewed diachronically.
3. Comment on polysemy viewed synchronically.
4. Describe the semantic process of radiation.
5. Describe the semantic process of concatenation.
6. What words do we call homonyms?
7. Can homonyms be regarded as expressive means of the language?
8. Speak on the problem of classification of homonyms.
9. What are the sources of English homonyms?
10. Illustrate the statement that polysemy is relevant to homonymy.
11. What is meant by paronyms?
12. Give comments on paronymy as a linguistic development universal in character, not specifically English.
13. Comment on classification of paronyms.

Exercises

Exercise 1. *Comment on the meanings of the adjective loose in the following sentences.*

1. One can buy milk loose or in packets. 2. I'm afraid I'll have to have my loose tooth out. 3. I find this translation to be very loose. 4. Try to fix the loose end of the rope to the wall. 5. My shoe lace got loose. 6. I've got some loose change in my pocket, but nothing else. 7. I don't like his manners, they are rather loose. 8. The dog is too dangerous to be left loose. 9. The jacket is too loose in shoulders. 10. Does she always wear her hair loose? 11. He had been leading a loose life since he got married. 12. Calculations must be exact, not loose. 13. I can't make out anything, your handwriting is very loose. 14. This material is very loose, I don't like it. 15. Be careful with this book, some of its pages have become loose. 16. To say so would be loose grammar. 17. What are you busy with at loose hours? 18. His cheeks are so loose after his illness. 19. She often has a loose tongue. 20. I hate tight clothes, I prefer loose ones.

Exercise 2. *Comment on the polysemy of the verb to run.*

1. "What distance have you ran?" "I have ran a mile." 2. Every morning he ran his cattle to the pasture. 3. After that attack the enemy ran. 4. Life runs smoothly for her. 5. This route runs every three minutes. 6. The traffic does not run today. 7. Time runs fast. 8. Thoughts ran in his head. 9. This tune is constantly running in my ear. 10. The news ran like lightning. 11. The rumour ran through the town. 12. I felt the blood running to my head. 13. This law runs for five years. 14. The road ran up to the hill. 15. The scar runs across his left cheek. 16. The wine ran all over the table. 17. This agreement has two years to run. 18. Rivers run into the sea. 19. Most British rivers ran eastwards. 20. Tears were running across her cheeks. 21. His face was running with sweat. 22. My pen Won't write, the ink Won't run. 23. Our conversation was running on the latest events. 24. The proverb runs: To run one's head into the lion's mouth. 25. Who runs the house in your family? 26. Have you run the car into the garage? 27. The motor runs smoothly. 28. This film has been running since Monday. 29. Trams run on rails.

Exercise 3. *Comment on the phenomenon of homonymy. Arrange the following homonyms into three groups: a) perfect homonyms, b) homographs, c) homophones.*

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

Exercise 4. Choose appropriate homophones.

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

Exercise 5. Give your reasoning why these sentences can cause misunderstanding and confusion in pronunciation or meaning.

1. The bandage was wound around the wound. 2. The farm was used to produce produce. 3. The dump was so full that it had to refuse more refuse. 4. We must polish the Polish furniture. 5. He could lead if he would get the lead out. 6. The soldier decided to desert his dessert in the desert. 7. Since there is no time like the present, he thought it was time to present the present. 8. A bass was painted on the head of the bass drum.

Exercise 6. Comment on the phenomenon of paronymy. Make distinctions between the following paronyms.

Bear – beer; bare – beer; canal – channel; career – carrier; cause – course; collar – colour; company – campaign; conscience – conscious; contents – context – contest; courage – carnage; cost – coast; crash – crush; draught – drought; hare – heir; hair – hear; human – humane; lay – lie; law – low; lawyer – lower; major – mayor; modal – model; Paul – poll; pair – pier; pear – pier; personal – personnel; petrol – patrol; pour – poor; price – prize; quiet – quite; raise – rise; seize – cease; sell – sail; skirt – shirt; sergeant – surgeon; soil – soul; suit – suite.

Exercise 7. Analyse the vocabulary of the poem *SYMPHONY IN YELLOW* by Oscar Wilde (see Seminar 1, Ex. 9.) as a system. Find all possible groupings of the vocabulary presented in the text: lexico-grammatical (nouns: personal names, animal names, collective names for people, collective names for animals, abstract nouns, material nouns, object nouns, etc.; verbs: denoting movement, process, state, mental activity, sense perception, having modal shade of meaning, etc.), thematic and ideographic groups, synonyms (ideographic, stylistic, absolute), antonyms (root or derived), homonyms (full or complete, homophones, homographs), paronyms. Find polysemantic words and comment on their semantic structure.

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SEMINAR 7

STYLISTIC PECULIARITIES OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

Items for Discussion

1. General considerations.
2. Standard English vocabulary.
 - 2.1. Stylistically neutral words.
 - 2.2. Common literary words.
 - 2.3. Common colloquial vocabulary.
3. Special literary vocabulary.
 - 3.1. Poetic and highly literary words.
 - 3.2. Terms.
 - 3.3. Archaic words.
 - 3.4. Barbarisms and foreign words.
 - 3.5. Literary coinages (including nonce-words).
4. Special colloquial vocabulary.
 - 4.1. Slang.
 - 4.2. Jargonisms.
 - 4.3. Professionalisms.
 - 4.4. Dialectal words.
 - 4.5. Vulgarisms.
 - 4.6. Colloquial coinages.

Glossary

Archaisms are obsolete words for existing objects. They are divided into lexical (*fair, slay*) and grammatical (*thou, thee, thy, hast, dost, shalt, wilt*)

Barbarisms are words of foreign origin which have not entirely been assimilated into English. Most of them have English synonyms but are preferred for certain stylistic purposes (*bon mot = a witty saying, de facto = in fact*).

Dialectal words are words which remain beyond its literary boundaries; their use is generally confined to a definite locality.

Historical words are names of some objects, special relations, institutions, customs, which are no longer in use (*yeoman*).

Jargonisms are generally old words with entirely new meanings imposed on them to preserve secrecy within one or another social group (*grease = money*).

Neologisms are new words or new meanings of the word, the novelty of which is still felt.

Poetic words are a set of words having poetic connotations. They have neutral synonyms but their denotative meaning is more lofty and abstract (*array – clothes, main – sea, steed – horse, woe – sorrow*).

Professionalisms are the words used in a definite trade by people connected by common interests both at home and at home (*tin-fish = submarine*).

Slang words are expressive, mostly ironical words serving to create fresh names for some things that are frequent topics of discourse (*cock-eyed = drunk*).

Terms are special words which express certain concepts of science, engineering, politics, diplomacy, philosophy, linguistics, etc. They are the names of different phenomena, processes, qualities peculiar to a certain branch of science, art, etc.

Vulgarisms are expletive and swear words of an abusive character (*damn, etc. and the so-called four-letter words*).

Suggested Questions

1. What are the major layers of the word-stock in terms of stylistics? Comment on the main aspects of these layers.
2. What groups of words does the literary vocabulary consist of? Comment on their peculiarities.
3. What groups of words does the colloquial vocabulary fall into? Comment on their peculiarities.
4. What determines the choice of stylistically marked words in each particular situation?
5. What is the difference between colloquialisms and slang? What are their common features?
6. What are the main features of dialectal words?
7. Are learned words used only in books? Which type of learned words is especially suitable for verbal communication? Which is least suitable and even undesirable?
8. What are the principal characteristics of archaic words?

Exercises

Exercise 1. *Comment on the opposition of stylistically marked and stylistically neutral words. Arrange the following words into stylistically marked and stylistically neutral.*

Accommodation, beautiful, chap, deem, domestic, eve, evening, fair, father, forenoon, get, girl, home, fellow, horse, kill, labial, lip, maiden, main, mental, mind, morning, naught, nothing, obtain, parent, room, sea, slay, solar, steed, sunny, think.

Exercise 2. *Comment on special terms. Pick out special terms from the extracts below. State what branch of science or sphere of life they belong to.*

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

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

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

Exercise 3. *Comment on archaisms. Arrange the following archaic words into lexical and grammatical archaisms.*

Aught, belike, didst, dost, eke, ere, hast, hath, maiden, naught, quoth, shalt, steed, thee, thou, wert, woe.

Exercise 4. *Comment on the difference between archaic words and obsolete words. Pick out archaic and obsolete words from the following extract.*

Come hither, hither, my stanch yeoman,
Why dost thou look so pale?
Or dost thou dread a French foeman?
Or shiver at the gale?
Deem'st thou I tremble for my life?
Sir Childe, I'm not so weak;
But thinking on an absent wife
Will blanch a faithful cheek.
(Childe Harold's Good Night by
George Gordon Byron)

Exercise 5. *Group the following neologisms as to the ways of their formation. Give their Ukrainian equivalents.*

Agro-industrial, audio-lingual, backpacker, beach wagon, biotelemetry, black bluster, black shirt, by-time, chauffeuse, ecocide, ecogeography, epoxy, ethnoscience,

facepack, hairstylist, halfday, listen-in, microcopy, microcomputer, vitaminize, wonder, boy, work-fellow.

Exercise 6. Make distinction between neologisms and nonce-words (occasional words). Pick out occasional words from the following sentences.

1. The theory is getting less and less defensible. 2. I can't speak on TV, I'm camera shy. 3. They accused the Administration spokesman of trying to sloganize the country out of the economic decline. 4. There are many men in London who have no wish for the company of others. It is for the convenience of such people that the Diogenes Club was started, and it now contains the most unsociable and unclubbable men in town. 5. He was wived in Texas, and mother-in-lawed, and uncled, and aunted.

*Exercise 7. In slang there are characteristic clusters of synonyms, many among them jocular or euphemistic, for the ideas of **stealing**, **drunkenness**, and **death**. Give English and Ukrainian synonyms of the notions mentioned above. Consult corresponding dictionaries.*

Exercise 8. Translate the following sentences. Comment on slang words and phrases in bold type.

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

Exercise 9. Classify the units in bold type into slang words, jargonisms, professionalisms, vulgarisms. Translate the sentences into Ukrainian.

1. Her heart beat wildly: "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). 2. I shook my **onion** again. The scheme sounded to me like **apple sauce**, and Grade A apple sauce at that (Id.). 3. But **damn** it, I wouldn't play you a dirty trick like that. ... After another wait he was given a part in a **costume play** where his good looks shone to such advantage that his indifferent acting was little noticed (W. S. Maugham). 4. "You know what a **pipe** it is to buy an unregistered weapon in this town under the counter" (E. Queen). 5. "What do you want?" "**Dough**," the derelict said. "**Do-re-mi**. Lots of it" (Id.). 6. "Has her stomach been **pumped**?" "That – oh, yes. But she took a big dose, and they are not certain yet" (S. Bellow). 7. "Married!" "Absolutely **hitched up**. I hope you aren't **ratty** about it, what?" (P. G. Wodehouse).

Exercise 10. Give stylistic classification of the words in the poem SYMPHONY IN YELLOW by Oscar Wilde (see Seminar 1, Ex. 9.): standard English vocabulary (neutral words, common literary words, common colloquial words); special literary vocabulary

(*poetic and highly literary words, terms, archaic words*); *special colloquial vocabulary* (*slang, jargonisms, professionalisms, dialectal words, vulgarisms, colloquial coinages*).

Reading & Summary

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SEMINAR 8 ENGLISH PHRASEOLOGY

Items for Discussion

1. Free word-groups. Structure of free word-groups
2. Free word-groups *vs* set-expressions
 - 2.1. Criteria of set-expressions
 - 2.2. Classification of set-expression.
 - 2.3. Ways of forming phraseological units
3. Proverbs, sayings, familiar quotations and clichés

Glossary

Free word-groups are word combinations the component members possess semantic and structural independence (e.g. *a week ago, to take lessons, man of wisdom*).

Phraseological units (set-phrases) are non-motivated ready-made units which cannot be freely made up in speech.

Phraseological combinations are clearly motivated word-groups with a partially changed meaning (to make a mistake).

Phraseological fusions are demotivated word-groups with a completely changed meaning (at sixes and sevens = in confusion).

Phraseological unities are partially motivated word-groups with a completely changed meaning (to lose one's head = to be at a loss).

Proverb is a short familiar epigrammatic saying expressing popular wisdom in a concise way.

Sayings are phrases which are devoid of generalised instructive or didactic meaning, they are often syntactically incomplete

Exercises

Exercise 1. Give two meanings to the given phrases: a) taken as a free word group; b) taken as a phraseological unit.

Be on firm ground, best man, blow one's own trumpet, break the ice, burn one's fingers, first night, keep one's head above water, show somebody the door, throw down the glove, forbidden fruit, to put all one's eggs in one basket, to cry over spilt milk, the last straw.

Exercise 2. Comment on the difference between phraseological fusions, phraseological unities and word combinations. Arrange the following phraseological units into three groups: 1) word combinations, 2) phraseological units, 3) phraseological fusions.

1. To see the world through rosy spectacles. 2. To show the white feather. 3. To kiss the hare's foot. 4. To call a spade a spade. 5. To make friends. 6. To take revenge. 7. A house of cards. 8. To make up one's mind. 9. To shed crocodile tears. 10. To commit suicide. 11. Judas kiss. 12. To play the first fiddle. 13. To find faults with somebody. 14. The apple of one's eye. 15. To get in touch with somebody. 16. True to fact. 17. To dot the I's and cross the T's. 18. I am fed up with it! 19. A pretty kettle of fish. 20. To give way. 21. To nip in the bud. 22. To wash one's hands. 23. To rest on one's oars. 24. Let sleeping dogs lie. 25. To have all the trumps in one hand. 26. Between wind and water. 27. To lose one's way (temper). 28. To go a long way. 29. A slip of the tongue (pen). 30. Blank verse. 31. To establish control. 32. A hard nut to crack.

Exercise 3. Explain the meaning of the following phraseological units. Arrange them into groups according to their origin: 1) expressions associated with some customs; 2) expressions associated with some historical events; 3) expressions borrowed from some literary sources; 4) expressions borrowed from the Bible.

1. The land of promise. 2. Baker's dozen. 3. New wine in old bottles. 4. Ask for bread and be given a stone. 5. To give the devil his due. 6. Vanity fair. 7. Daily bread. 8. Forbidden fruit is sweet. 9. It rains cats and dogs. 10. To rob Peter to pay Paul. 11. Thirty pieces of silver. 12. To wash one's hands of something. 13. A prodigal son. 14. Something is rotten in the state of Denmark. 15. A thorn in the flesh of somebody. 16. To catch somebody red-handed. 17. Marriage is a lottery. 18. To fight the windmills. 19. Judas kiss.

Exercise 4. State from what languages the following phraseological units were borrowed.

1. The horn of plenty. 2. Blue blood. 3. Through thick and thin. 4. Achilles' heel. 5. The apple of discord. 6. It goes without saying. 7. A storm in a tea-cup. 8. The fifth column. 9. A marriage of convenience. 10. Snake in the grass. 11. To lead somebody by

the nose. 12. One's place in the sun. 13. To burn the candle at both ends. 14. The bed of Procrustes. 15. The game is not worth the candle. 16. To pull the devil by the tail.

Exercise 5. *Classify the following phraseological units into: a) nominative, b) verbal, c) adjectival, d) adverbial.*

To try one's hand at something; a great deal; a stony heart; to the last drop of blood; not to lift a finger; as brave as a lion; at long last; a bull in a china shop; a fish out of water; out of a clear sky; Indian summer; a dog in the manger; to hang in the balance; to live from hand to mouth; to the bitter end; the evil spirit; with all one's heart; a bed of roses; the king of beasts; by fits and starts; next door; to show one's true colours; flesh and blood; far and wide; to die a dog's death; in the long run; jack of all trades; to stir up a nest of hornets; odd fish; shed crocodile tears; to cause pain; blank wall; Dutch courage; like a shot; to know on which side one's; bread is buttered; at sixes and sevens; at one's feet; from top to toe; to milk the ram; double dealing; German silver; by all means; in fact; inch by inch; at hand; sit like statue; soft as wax; melt as wax; hot as fire; live like a king.

Exercise 6. *Match the following definitions with corresponding phraseological units. There are more phraseological units than definitions.*

1. Direct one's attack, criticism or efforts to the wrong quarter. 2. Bear the main stress or burden (of a task, contest, etc.). 3. Talk around the point instead of coming direct to the subject. 4. Importunately thrust one's presence upon somebody. 5. Fail to gain any information, or achieve any result. 6. Be docile; give no trouble, do whatever somebody wishes. 7. Pay all the expenses incurred. Do something completely. 8. Remain mentally calm, and keep control of oneself in a difficult situation. 9. Know from experience the best way or method of doing something. 10. Draw an inference from given facts. 11. Be in agreement, hold similar views. 12. Ignore something, pretend not to see. 13. Disclaim further responsibility or concern.

The list: jump the queue, bark up the wrong tree, foot the bill, let off steam, see eye to eye, air one's views, lend a hand, haul down one's flag, beat about the bush, take to one's heels, eat out of somebody's hand, mark time, hit the nail on the head, keep one's head, change hands, turn a blind eye to something, put two and two together, bear the brunt, know the ropes, have a good mind to do something, break one's word, draw a blank, go the whole hog, dog somebody's footsteps, wash one's hands of something.

Exercise 7. *Complete the following binary phraseological units so that the whole unit should alliterate.*

1. Bag and 2. Deaf and 3. House and 4. Kith and 5. Safe and 6. Spick and 7. Stocks and 8. Neck or 9. No sweat no 10. Neither rhyme nor 11. Through thick and 12. With might and

Exercise 8. Complete the following phrases so that they make English proverbs and phraseological units.

1. A bird in the hand. 2. The last straw. 3. An old bird. 4. The early bird. 5. Half the battle. 6. A new broom. 7. The cap fits. 8. Spilt milk. 9. A stitch in time. 10. Birds of feather. 11. A silver lining. 12. Break no bones.

Exercise 9. Fill in the gaps, choosing the appropriate form of the idiom to make the following sentences complete: to hit the nail on the head, to keep one's fingers crossed, all fingers and thumbs, to keep one's chin up, to pull one's leg, head and shoulders above somebody, a sight for sore eyes, to bite one's head off.

1. Don't get offended, Jimmy! That was just a joke. I was ... , that's all! 2. Your suspicions have been confirmed. You've ... ! 3. This student is very intelligent. His speech was ... in his group. 4. Don't be so disappointed, Tom! ... , everything will get better soon. 5. Oh, I haven't seen you for ages, You are ... ! 6. Don't ask Margaret to do this. She is 7. Don't be so angry with me! I only ask you a question! There is no need ... ! 8. I hope you'll pass the exam, I will ... for you!

Exercise 10. Pick out synonymous proverbs.

1. There is no place like home. 2. Accidents will happen in the best regulated families. 3. After death the doctor. 4. Appearances are deceptive. 5. The apples on the other side of the wall are the sweetest. 6. As a man lives, so shall he die. 7. East or West, but home is best. 8. As a man sows, shall he reap. 9. Good health is above wealth. 10. Well begun is half done. 11. A good beginning makes a good ending. 12. As you brew, so must you drink. 13. Beggars cannot be choosers. 14. Four eyes see more than two. 15. Two heads are better than one. 16. Better an egg today than a hen tomorrow. 17. Wealth is nothing without health. 18. Better a small fish than an empty dish. 19. As you make your bed, so you must lie on it. 20. A bird in the hand is better than two in the bush. 21. Catch the bear before you sell his skin. 22. Death ends all things. 23. Every dog has his day. 24. Death is the great leveller. 25. Deeds, not words. 26. Everything is good in its season. 27. Doing is better than saying. 28. Don't boast until you see the enemy dead. 29. Let sleeping dogs lie. 30. Don't trouble trouble till trouble troubles you. 31. Dry bread at home is better than roast meat abroad. 32. Don't look a gift horse in the mouth. 33. No cross, no crown. 34. He that would eat the fruit must climb the tree. 35. Every family has a black sheep. 36. A fair face may hide a foul heart (soul). 37. First catch your hare, then cook him. 38. Forbidden fruit is sweet. 39. Half a loaf is better than no bread. 40. In the evening one may praise the day. 41. It is no use crying over spilt milk.

Reading & Summary

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3. Мостовий М. І. *Лексикологія англійської мови*. Х.: Основа, 1993. С. 130–151.
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SEMINAR 9

DIALECTS AND VARIANTS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Items for Discussion

1. Standard English.
2. Variants of English in the United Kingdom
3. Local dialects in the British Isles.
4. Variants of English outside the British Isles
 - 4.1. American English.
 - 4.2. Local dialects in the USA
 - 4.3. Canadian English
 - 4.4. Australian English
 - 4.5. New Zealand English.
 - 4.6. South African English.
 - 4.7. Indian English.

Glossary

Standard English - the official language of Great Britain. That form of English, which is current and literary, substantially uniformed and recognized as acceptable whenever English is spoken or understood.

Variants of English are regional varieties possessing a literary norm.

Local dialects are the varieties spoken in small areas.

A **regional dialect** refers to features of grammar and vocabulary against a geographical background. It includes a distinctive regional accent but the reverse does not necessarily follow.

A **regional accent** refers to features of pronunciation against a geographical background; may also convey social implications and be prestigious, neutral or low class.

Received Pronunciation (RP) is an accent of Standard English in the United Kingdom and is defined in the *Concise Oxford English Dictionary* as “the standard accent

of English as spoken in the south of England", although it can be heard from native speakers throughout England and Wales".

Cockney English is the accent or dialect of English traditionally spoken by working-class Londoners.

Estuary English is a type of accent identified as spreading outwards from London, mainly into the south-east of England (esp. Kent and Essex), and containing features of both Received Pronunciation and such regional accents as Cockney.

Suggested Questions

1. What does the term "Standard English" mean?
2. Explain the difference between a local dialect and regional variety.
3. Be ready to describe the main dialects in the United Kingdom and the USA.
4. Give comments on the peculiarities of Cockney.
5. Discuss the differences in pronunciation, spelling, vocabulary and grammar in the British and American variants of the English language.
6. Comment on the peculiarities of Canadian and Australian English.
7. Give some examples of peculiarities of the English language in New Zealand, South Africa and India.

Exercises

*Exercise 1. Read and analyse the extract taken from Robert Burns' poem **The Vision (1786)** using the glossary given below the extract. Speak on the uniqueness and bright expressiveness of Scottish English. Translate this extract into British English & Ukrainian.*

The sun had clos'd the winter-day,
The Curlers quat their roaring play,
And hunger'd Maukin taen her way
 To kail-yards green,
While faithless snaws ilk step betray
 Whare she has been.
The Thresher's weary flingin-tree,
The lee-lang day had tir'd me;
And when the Day had clos'd his e'e,
 Far I' the West,
Ben I' the Spence, right pensivelie,
 I gaed to rest.

There, lanely, by the ingle-cheek,
I sat and ey'd the spewing reek,

That fill'd, wi' hoast-provoking smeeck,
 The auld, clay biggin;
 And heard the restless rattons squeak
 About the riggin.
 All in this mottie, misty clime,
 I backward mus'd on wasted time,
 How I had spent my youthfu' prime,
 An' done nae-thing,
 But stringing blethers up in rhyme
 For fools to sing.
 Had I to guid advice but harket,
 I might, by this, hae led a market,
 Or strutted in a Bank and clarket,
 My Cash-Account;
 While here, half-mad, half-fed, half-farket,
 Is a' the' amount.

Glossary:

- 1) quat – (quit) quitted; maukin – a hare; taen – taken; kail-yard – a kitchen-garden, snaws – snow; ilk, ilka – each, every; whar, whare – where.
- 2) Flingin-tree – a piece of timber hung by way of partition; lee-lang – life-long, i' – in, ben – a parlor; spence – the parlor, gaed – went.
- 3) Lane – lone; ingle-cheek – fireside; reek – smoke, wi' – with, hoast – cough; smeeck – smoke, auld – old; bigging – building; an' – and; rattan, rattoo – a rat; riggin – the roof-tree, the roof.
- 4) Mottie – dusty, blethers – nonsense.
- 5) Guid – good; harkit – hearkened, hae – have; clarkit – wrote; a' – all.

Exercise 2. Match the italicized Irish words from the sentences with the corresponding Standard English words given below.

Noise, basket, choice, thorn, distress (hardship), sofa, rag, while, friend, wall, steam.

1. I'll have to stop for a minute – I must have a *dealg* in my foot. 2. Wait till you see the *gal* off the kettle and then wet the tea. 3. There is always some *cruatan* or other in the family – what is it with them? 4. There was a *trup* outside the door. 5. I haven't seen him for a *tamall*. 6. He drove straight through the *falla* with the new car last night. 7. Where did you find that old *balcais*? 8. Get me a *scib* of turf for the fire. 9. Helga is a close *cara* of mine. 10. These people have the *togha* of whether to buy a house or rent one. 11. Will you sit on the *tolg*, please, and wait for Peter coming.

Exercise 3. Read the following excerpts and comment on their dialectal peculiarities.

North-Western

“Well, thou shall have to do summat, my son. This pigsty’s no place for a man. Thee wife’s next thing ‘til a beggar. Thee dowter looks like an orphan. Thou looks like workhouse fodder. Thou shall have to do summat. Yer mother’s sick wid’ worry.” “Don’t bring her intil it. Thou means thou’s shamed. That’s all”. “All! Ay lad, Aa’s shamed, but thou’s bluddy near ruined. Now – theer’s a job, he’ll give thee fourteen bob a week. Tek it. Git out of this muckheap. That’s what Aa kem to say.” (M. Bragg. The Hired Man)

Midland

“What sort o’wok do you do?”

“I wok for my feyther , “polsterin”.

/.../ “What’s “polsterin?”

“Repairin’ sofys and chairs. The old man teks wok in from pubs and ‘ouses. /.../ It’s good work, but you’ve got to be as strong as a hoss, climbing up three flights o’ stairs wi’ a sofya on your back and getting nowt but threepence for your trouble when you get there.”

“Don’t your old man pay you wages?”

“Ay,” he said, “but it ain’t a sight.” (A Sillitoe. Key to the Door)

South-Eastern

“Gearge! You gart whad a wand?” At that he turned and hurried down to her. “Janny,” he said, over the rail of the cellar steps, “ ‘tas the truth what Henfrey sez. “E’s not in uz room, ‘eent. And the front door’s unbolted. /.../ “If’ en’ there,” ne said, “is close are. And what’ ‘ doin’ ‘itout ‘is close, than?” (H. G. Wells. Collection)

Exercise 4. Read the following excerpt and point out typical features of Cockney.

THE MOTHER. How do you know that my son’s name is Freddy, pray?

THE FLOWER GIRL. Ow, eez ye-ooa son, is e? Wal, fewd dan y’ de-ooty bawmz a mather should, eed now bettern to spawl a pore gel’s flahrzn than ran awy athaht pyin. Will ye-oo py me f’them?

THE DAUGHTER. Do nothing of the sort, mother. The idea!

THE MOTHER. Please allow me, Clara. Have you any pennies?

THE DAUGHTER. No. I’ve nothing smaller than sixpence.

THE FLOWER GIRL. I can give you change for a tanner, kind lady.

THE MOTHER. (to Clara). Give it to me. (Clara parts reluctantly.) Now. (To the girl) This is for your flowers.

THE FLOWER GIRL. Thank you kindly, lady. (George Bernard Shaw. Pygmalion. Act 1)

Exercise 5. Match the words given below with the examples of Cockney rhyming slang.

1. believe; 2. cousin; 3. phone; 4. thief; 5. sick; 6. sister; 7. trousers; 8. talk; 9. feet; 10. nose; 11. drunk; 12. mouth; 13. shoes; 14. jewelry; 15. state.

Cockney rhyming slang: dog and bone; round the houses; Tom and Dick; Tomfoolery; elephant's trunk; baker's dozen; plates of meat; skin and blister; north and south; ones and twos; Adam and Eve; I suppose, two-and-eight; tea leaf; rabbit and pork.

Exercise 6. *Transcribe the following words according to British and American norms of pronunciation.*

Fast, new, laugh, clerk, aunt, mobile, half, collar, minor, plant, liter, person, path, bird, fur, home, go, neither, boat, ear, deer, tour, poor, jury, bath.

Exercise 7. *Write the words below according to American spelling norms.*

Modernise, catalogue, defence, travelling, metre, skilful, colour, analogue, behaviour, archaeology, colonise, honour, omelette, theatre, neighbour, spectre, woollen.

Exercise 8. *Give the British equivalents for the following Americanisms.*

Battery, antenna, fall, check, cookie, apartment, drugstore, rooster, stove, movie, to broil, grade, corn, mail, garbage, rest room, elevator.

Exercise 9. *Distribute the words from the given series into three groups: a) words used in American English; b) words used in British English; c) words used in Australian English.*

1) lollies, candy, sweets; 2) form, grade, year; 3) subway/metro, railway station, underground; 4) the cinema, the movies, the pictures; 5) letterbox, postbox, mailbox; 6) sneakers, trainers, runners; 7) sidewalk, footpath, pavement.

Exercise 10. *State which of the given words are used in Canadian English, Australian English, New Zealand English, South African English, Indian English – five words for each group. In case of difficulty consult the New Oxford Dictionary of English (online: <https://www.oed.com/>)*

1. schoolie; 2. draegerman; 3. bahadur; 4. waka; 5. backveld; 6. drongo; 7. yatra; 8. bobsy-die; 9. voorskot; 10. bobskate; 11. aroha; 12. achcha; 13. bodgie; 14. izzat; 15. parkade; 16. ambo; 17. indaba; 18. haka; 19. riding; 20. karanga; 21. chaprasi; 22. fundi; 23. firie, 24. reeve; 25. wors.

Reading & Summary

1. Гороть Є. І., Белова С. В. Нариси з лексикології сучасної англійської мови. Луцьк: РВВ «Вежа» Волин. нац. ун-ту ім. Лесі Українки, 2008. С. 107–119.
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SEMINAR 10 FUNDAMENTALS OF ENGLISH LEXICOGRAPHY

Items for Discussion

1. The linguistic basis of lexicography
2. Aims and functions of lexicography.
3. Main types of English dictionaries
 - 3.1. Criteria for classification
 - 3.2. Linguistic dictionaries vs encyclopedic dictionaries
 - 3.3. Specialized dictionaries
4. Basic problems of dictionary compiling
 - 4.1. The structure of a dictionary
 - 4.2. The procedure of compiling a dictionary

Glossary

Lexicography – the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries; an important branch of applied linguistics, the main purpose of which is the production of dictionaries.

Lexicographer – an author or editor of a dictionary.

E-lexicography – the processes involved in the compilation and implementation of digital dictionaries (such as Merriam-Webster Online).

Practical lexicography involves several activities, and the compilation of well crafted dictionaries require careful consideration of some of the following aspect: shaping the intended users; selecting and organizing the components of the dictionary; selecting words and affixes for systematization as entries; selecting collocations, phrases and examples; defining words; organizing definitions; specifying pronunciations of words; labeling definitions and pronunciations for register and dialect, where appropriate; designing the best way in which users can access the data in printed and electronic dictionaries.

Theoretical lexicology is meant to lead to the development of principles that can improve the quality of future dictionaries.

General lexicography focuses on the design, compilation, use and evaluation of general dictionaries, i.e. dictionaries that provide a description of the language in general use. Such dictionary is usually called *a general dictionary or LGP (Language for general purposes) dictionary*.

Specialized lexicography focuses on the design, compilation, use and evaluation of specialized dictionaries, i.e. dictionaries that are devoted to a (relatively restricted) set of linguistic and factual elements of one or more specialist subject fields, e.g. legal lexicography. (*a specialized dictionary or LSP (Language for special purposes) dictionary.*

Dictionary is a reference book that lists words in order – usually, for Western languages, alphabetical – and gives their meanings. In addition to its basic function of defining words, a dictionary may provide information about their pronunciation, grammatical forms and functions, etymologies, syntactic peculiarities, variant spellings, and antonyms. A dictionary may also provide quotations illustrating a word's use, and these may be dated to show the earliest known uses of the word in specified senses.

Encyclopedic dictionaries are thing-books, that give information about the extra-linguistic world. They deal with concepts (objects and phenomena), their relations to other objects and phenomena, etc. In the manner of compilation they are cooperative dictionaries, the joint product of a large number of scholars.

Linguistic Dictionaries are word-books, their subject-matter is lexical units and their linguistic properties such as pronunciation, meaning, peculiarities of use, etc.

General dictionaries contain lexical units in ordinary use with this or that proportion of items from various spheres of life, that dictionary is concerned, mainly with the general language, i. e. with the standard national language, such is *The Oxford English Dictionary* in its 13 volumes.

Restricted (special) dictionaries are intended to cover only a certain specific part of the vocabulary, they make their choice only from a certain part of the word-stock, the restriction being based on any principle determined by the compiler a priori. The restriction can be based on any variation of language, on any classification of its texts, or on any principle or combination of principles determined by the author of the dictionary.

The lemma – the first part of the dictionary entry, which consists of the entry word (or head word), which is the indication of each respective lexical unit in its canonical form. The other indications of the lemma inform the user about the class of which the entry word is a member. This can be indicated by generally accepted abbreviations or signs (e.g. *n* for *noun*) or by any other similar means. Other similar information given in the lemma concerns primarily the form of the lexical unit. The most frequent indications of this type are about pronunciation.

Suggested Questions

1. What is Lexicography?
2. What is meant by “dictionary”?
3. Is dictionary-making a theoretical or practical activity?
4. What sciences is Lexicography connected with?
5. What is the subject-matter of Lexicography?
6. What is the basic-unit in dictionary making?
7. What is meant by metalanguage?

8. What is dictionary compiling motivated by?
9. What are the factors which should be taken into account while compiling a dictionary?
10. What is the first division of dictionaries? What do they differ in?
11. What is the subject-matter of encyclopedia?
12. What is the subject-matter of a linguistic dictionary?
13. What well-known encyclopedias do you know?
14. According to what criteria are linguistic dictionaries further divided?
15. Comment on the principles of compiling etymological dictionaries.
16. Comment on the distinction between general and specialized dictionaries.
17. What do we call a thesaurus?
18. What types of dictionaries pertain to the numbers of languages represented?
19. What is the difference between historical and etymological dictionaries?
20. What is the structure of a dictionary?
21. Comment on the procedure of compiling a dictionary.

Exercises

Exercise 1. Classify the given dictionaries into two groups: a) encyclopedic; b) linguistic.

The World Book Encyclopedia; The Britannica Junior; The Chambers Book of Facts; The Collins Dictionary of Allusions; The Longman Dictionary of the English Language; The Oxford Companion to English Literature; The Dictionary of Literary Terms; The Concise Oxford Dictionary; The Collins Cobuild Roget's International Thesaurus; The Merriam-Webster's Geographical Dictionary; The Cambridge Guide to Fiction in English; The Oxford Companion to Theatre; Dictionary of Idioms and Their Origins; Random House Webster's College Dictionary; Webster's New World Dictionary of American English; Webster's Encyclopedic Unabridged Dictionary of English Language; Cambridge International Dictionary of Idioms; Encyclopedia of Antiquities.

Exercise 2. State which type the given linguistic dictionaries refer to: general – restricted, explanatory – specialized, monolingual – bilingual, diachronic – synchronic.

Model: The Longman dictionary of Phrasal Verbs – restricted, explanatory, monolingual, synchronic.

1. The Concise Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology; 2. The Penguin Dictionary of English Idioms; 3. The new Oxford Dictionary of English; 4. Collins English-Ukrainian Dictionary; 5. The Longman Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs; 6. The Longman language Activator; 7. A Living English-Ukrainian Dictionary of Phrasal Synonyms; 8. The English Pronouncing Dictionary; 9. The Longman Business English Dictionary; 10. The New Oxford Thesaurus of English; 11. A Dictionary of Neologisms; 12. The BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English.

Exercise 3. Analyse the structure of any dictionary (1) given in Exercise 2. Point out and describe its parts.

Exercise 4. Study the way the information is presented in **Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary** and **Online Etymology Dictionary**. Analyse these dictionaries paying special attention to: 1) their structure and content; 2) access and search system; 3) information given for each entry; 4) their reference systems.

Exercise 5. Analyse the entry of the word **buzz** (v) taken from *The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*. Describe 1) the lemma; 2) the way in which the meanings of the word are arranged; 4) the way in which the meanings of the word are defined; 5) the presentation of the illustrative material.

buzz /bʌz/ v

1. MAKE A SOUND [I] to make a continuous sound, like the sound of a bee: *a loud buzzing noise*

2. MOVING AROUND [I always + adverb/preposition] a) to move around in the air making a continuous sound like a bee: *Bees were buzzing around the picnic tables.* b) to move quickly around a place: *Pamela buzzed around checking that everything was ready. There were all sorts of rumours buzzing through the office.*

3. EXCITEMENT [I] if a group of people or a place is buzzing, there is a lot of activity or excitement: **buzz with** *a classroom* **buzzing with activity**

4. CALL [I, T] a) to call someone by pressing a buzzer: *Kramer buzzed at the security door, and I let him in.* **buzz for** *Tina buzzed for her secretary.* b) to make something happen, for example make a door or gate open or close, by pressing a buzzer: **buzz somebody in/out** *She buzzed them in and greeted them warmly.* **buzz sb through sth** *The guard buzzed me through the gate.*

5. thoughts [I] if your head or mind is buzzing with thoughts, ideas etc, you cannot stop thinking about them: **buzz with** *My mind was buzzing with new ideas. Questions started buzzing round in my head.*

6. EARS [I] if your ears or head are buzzing, you can hear a continuous low unpleasant sound

7. AIRCRAFT [T] *informal* to fly an aircraft low and fast over buildings, people etc: *Military jets buzzed the city.*

buzz off *phr v spoken*

1. buzz off! used to tell someone in a rude way to go away

2. *BrE* to go away: *I've finished everything, so I'll buzz off now.*

Reading & Summary

1. Гороть Є. І., Белова С. В. Нариси з лексикології сучасної англійської мови. Луцьк: РВВ «Вежа» Волин. нац. ун-ту ім. Лесі Українки, 2008. С. 84–109.

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TRAINING TESTS

Variant 1

Level 1

1. The word “sausage” belongs to . . .
 - a) the words of Native origin;
 - b) the words of Scandinavian origin;
 - c) Latin borrowings;
 - d) French borrowings.

2. The word “belles letters” is a(n) . . .
 - a) completely assimilated borrowing;
 - b) partially assimilated borrowing (not assimilated grammatically);
 - c) partially assimilated borrowing (not assimilated phonetically);
 - d) unassimilated borrowing (barbarism).

3. The prefix “dis-” in the word “dishonesty” implies . . .
 - a) negation;
 - b) locality;
 - c) priority;
 - d) incompleteness.

4. The suffix “-ward(s)” found in the word “downwards” is a . . .
 - a) noun-forming suffix;
 - b) adjective-forming suffix;
 - c) verb-forming suffix;
 - d) adverb-forming suffix.

5. The word “salesgirl” is a . . .
 - a) derivational compound;
 - b) contracted compound;
 - c) morphological compound;
 - d) syntactic compound.

6. The word “van” is a(n). . .
 - a) shortening;
 - b) acronym;
 - c) blend;
 - d) onomatopoeic word.

7. Metaphor “the teeth of a saw” is based on . . .
- a) similarity of shape and form;
 - b) similarity of function;
 - c) similarity of color;
 - d) similarity of temperature.
8. The result of semantic change in the word “nice: foolish → fine, good” is . . .
- a) the narrowing of meaning;
 - b) the extension of meaning;
 - c) the degradation of meaning;
 - d) the elevation of meaning.
9. The semantic change of the word “Handel” in the sentence “Londoners were welcome to come to Trafalgar Square to enjoy Handel” involves the association: . . .
- a) the part is used for the whole;
 - b) the place is used for the institution;
 - c) the producer is used for a product;
 - d) the place is used for the people occupying it.
10. The words “ball (n) – ball (n)” refer to . . .
- a) absolute homonyms;
 - b) homographs;
 - c) homophones;
 - d) paronyms.

Level 2

11. Pick out the stylistic synonyms from the pairs below:
- a) answer – reply;
 - b) child – kid;
 - c) few – little;
 - d) engine – motor.
12. Pick out the paronyms from the pairs below:
- a) company – campaign;
 - b) deaf – hard of hearing;
 - c) to please – to displease;
 - d) idle – lazy.
13. Pick out the neologisms from the groups below:
- a) assimilation, fraction, molecule;
 - b) biopiracy, cybercrook, transgenic;
 - c) de facto, mon cher, de jure;

d) naught, eve, woe.

14. Pick out the historisms from the groups below:

- a) cuddy, loch, kirk;
- b) bloody, bonehead, bastard;
- c) brain-pan, cock-eyed, beans;
- d) yeoman, vassal, baron.

15. Pick out the pair of synonyms distinguished by origin:

- a) beautiful - fair;
- b) dark - murk;
- c) help - assist;
- d) to ask – to question.

16. Point out a phraseological fusion:

- a) the last drop;
- b) at sixes and sevens;
- c) a pleasant company;
- d) bosom friends.

17. Point out an adverbial phrase:

- a) to make a song about smth.;
- b) white lie;
- c) as good as gold;
- d) to the bitter end.

18. Point out a phraseological unit associated with some historical events:

- a) a crooked sixpence;
- b) vanity fair;
- c) forbidden fruit is sweet;
- d) to rob Peter to pay Paul.

19. Pick out Australian English words from the groups below:

- a) knapsack, snowbird, double-double;
- b) digger, Kangarooland, gum-tree;
- c) lorry, mark, flat;
- d) truck, grade, apartment.

20. Pick out Cockney words from the groups below:

- a) auld, glen, aye;
- b) langered, quare, youse;
- c) fish hook, lards, pony;

d) dwtty, grampu, mitching.

Level 3

21. The Lexicology that deals with the development of the vocabulary and the changes it has undergone is called . . .

- a) Historical Lexicology;
- b) Descriptive Lexicology;
- c) Special Lexicology;
- d) General Lexicology.

22. Morphemes of Greek and Latin origin which have a definite lexical meaning though are not used as autonomous words are called . . .

- a) pseudo-morphemes;
- b) allomorphs;
- c) combining forms;
- d) unique morphemes.

23. Omission of the fore and the final parts of the word is called . . .

- a) mixed clipping;
- b) syncope;
- c) apheresis;
- d) apocope.

24. Connotation that conveys the degree of intensity is called . . .

- a) evaluative connotation;
- b) expressive connotation;
- c) stylistic connotation;
- d) emotional connotation.

25. Synonyms that differ both semantically and in valency are called . . .

- a) phraseological synonyms;
- b) stylistic synonyms;
- c) ideographic synonyms;
- d) absolute synonyms.

26. The names of some objects, special relations, institutions, customs, which are no longer in use are called . . .

- a) barbarisms;
- b) terms;
- c) historical words ;
- d) archaic words.

27. Expletive and swear words which are of an abusive character are called . . .
- a) vulgarisms;
 - b) nonce-word;
 - c) professionalisms;
 - d) dialectal words.
28. Wise statements made by famous people are called . . .
- a) proverbs;
 - b) sayings;
 - c) cliches;
 - d) familiar quotations.
29. The way in which people in a particular area, country, or social group pronounce words is called a(n) . . .
- a) dialect;
 - b) variant;
 - c) standard;
 - d) accent.
30. Dictionaries which pass judgement on usage problems of all kinds are called . . .
- a) dictionaries of word-frequency;
 - b) usage dictionaries;
 - c) etymological dictionaries;
 - d) historical dictionaries.

Variant 2

Level 1

1. The word “sky” belongs to . . .
- a) the words of Native origin;
 - b) the words of Scandinavian origin;
 - c) Latin borrowings;
 - d) French borrowings.
2. The word “street” is a(n) . . .
- a) completely assimilated borrowing;
 - b) partially assimilated borrowing (not assimilated grammatically);
 - c) partially assimilated borrowing (not assimilated phonetically);
 - d) unassimilated borrowing (barbarism).
3. The prefix “demi-” in the word *demiofficial* implies . . .
- a) negation;

- b) locality;
 - c) priority;
 - d) incompleteness.
4. The suffix “-able” found in the word “eatable” is a . . .
- a) noun-forming suffix;
 - b) adjective-forming suffix;
 - c) verb-forming suffix;
 - d) adverb-forming suffix.
5. The word “absent-mindedness” is a . . .
- a) derivational compound;
 - b) contracted compound;
 - c) morphological compound;
 - d) syntactic compound.
6. The word “giggle” is a(n). . .
- a) shortening;
 - b) acronym;
 - c) blend;
 - d) onomatopoeic word.
7. Metaphor “head of a cabbage” is based on . . .
- a) similarity of shape and form;
 - b) similarity of function;
 - c) similarity of color;
 - d) similarity of temperature.
8. The result of semantic change in the word “adore_v: to greet → to love very much” is . . .
- a) the narrowing of meaning;
 - b) the extension of meaning;
 - c) the degradation of meaning;
 - d) the elevation of meaning.
9. The semantic change of the word “longhairs” in the sentence “We don’t hire longhairs” involves the association: . . .
- a) the part is used for the whole;
 - b) the place is used for the institution;
 - c) the producer is used for a product;
 - d) the place is used for the people occupying it.
10. The words “air (n) – heir (n)” refer to . . .

- a) absolute homonyms;
- b) homographs;
- c) homophones;
- d) paronyms.

Level 2

11. Pick out the absolute synonyms from the pairs below:
- a) plane – aircraft;
 - b) child – infant;
 - c) many – much;
 - d) horrible – terrible.
12. Pick out the synonyms from the pairs below:
- a) preposition – proposition;
 - b) to die – to meet one’s end;
 - c) hope – despair;
 - d) to begin – to commence.
13. Pick out the terms from the groups below:
- a) cybercrook, virtual money, transgenic;
 - b) diphthong, operation, molecule;
 - c) eve, fair, woe;
 - d) mon cher, de jure, au revoir.
14. Pick out the slang words from the groups below:
- a) bonny, cuddy, loch;
 - b) damn, bloody, to hell;
 - c) boozy, brain-pan, dough;
 - d) yeoman, musketeer, vassal.
15. Pick out the pair of synonyms distinguished by archaic coloring:
- a) heaven - sky;
 - b) give- donate;
 - c) mother - minny;
 - d) clothes - array.
16. Point out a free word-group:
- a) a pleasant company;
 - b) bosom friends;
 - c) the last drop;
 - d) at sixes and sevens.

17. Point out a verbal phrase:
- a) in cold blood;
 - b) safe and sound;
 - c) dog's life;
 - d) to win hands down.
18. Point out a phraseological unit borrowed from the Bible:
- a) a Dutch bargain;
 - b) the land of promise;
 - c) something is rotten in the state of Denmark;
 - d) a black sheep.
19. Pick out British English words from the groups below:
- a) toonie, humidex, double-double;
 - b) dingo, gum-tree, kiwi;
 - c) autumn, bill, flat;
 - d) fall, check, apartment.
20. Pick out Irish English words from the groups below:
- a) garda, flagon, hoor;
 - b) bonnie, frein, gonny;
 - c) cwtch, lush, tamping;
 - d) Billy Goat, blood red, Brad Pitt.

Level 3

21. The branch of linguistics which studies the vocabulary of a language and the properties of words as the main units of language is called . . .
- a) Lexicology;
 - b) Etymology;
 - c) Semasiology;
 - d) Onomasiology.
22. Borrowings which do not retain their original form to a certain extent, but undergo the process of translating one part after another are called . . .
- a) international words;
 - b) etymological hybrids;
 - c) etymological doublets;
 - d) translation-loans.
23. A word-formative process in which words are created by adding word-building affixes to stems is called . . .
- a) affixation;

- b) conversion;
- c) word-composition;
- d) substantivation.

24. Meaning that reflects the concept expressed by the given word is called . . .

- a) the connotational meaning;
- b) the lexical meaning;
- c) the implicational meaning;
- d) the denotational meaning.

25. Words identical both in pronunciation and in spelling but different in meaning are called . .

- a) full homonyms;
- b) homographs;
- c) homophones;
- d) paronyms.

26. Disfavourable, plain-spoken or socially taboo expressions that are used instead of more socially acceptable ones are called . .

- a) dyspheimisms;
- b) synonyms ;
- c) antonyms;
- d) euphemisms.

27. New words or new meanings for established words, the novelty of which is still felt are called . .

- a) poetic words;
- b) neologisms;
- c) slang words;
- d) jargonisms.

28. Word-groups with a completely changed meaning, demotivated, their meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of the constituent parts, are called . .

- a) free word-groups;
- b) phraseological combinations;
- c) phraseological unities;
- d) phraseological fusions.

29. The local inner east London accent/dialect notable for its argot, or coded language, which was born out of ingenious rhyming slang, is called . .

- a) Standard English;
- b) Cockney;

- c) Estuary English ;
- d) Received Pronunciation.

30. Dictionaries which contain words grouped by the concepts expressed are called . .
- a) phraseological dictionaries;
 - b) dictionaries of slang;
 - c) dictionaries of dialects;
 - d) ideographic dictionaries.

TOPICS FOR INDIVIDUAL WORK (PRESENTATIONS)

1. Category of semantic field in the system of the English language.
2. Structural and semantic peculiarities of the idioms with gender structural component.
3. Main lexical divergences of the British and American variants.
4. Role of borrowings in the English language.
5. Word-forming patterns of neologisms in modern English.
6. Homonymy of affixes in Modern English.
7. Structural and semantic characteristics of English neologisms
8. Antipodean English: AusE and NZE.
9. The notion of sociolect.
10. Peculiarities of the use of Canadian English.
11. African American Vernacular English.
12. Estuary English as a contemporary variety of British English.
13. Slang and jargon in the English language.
14. The role of crowdsourcing in Lexicography.
15. Irish English as a variety of the English Language
16. Types of dictionaries.
17. Dictionaries of a new type. Online dictionaries and encyclopedias.
18. Onomatopoeic and sound-symbolic words.
19. Lexicography in Ukraine.
20. Combining forms in modern English.
21. Cockney: general characteristics.
22. Corpus-based Lexicography.
23. Folk etymology.
24. English euphemisms.
25. Vocabulary and gender.

RECOMMENDED LITERATURE

Essential

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Навчально-методичне видання

**Nataliia Yefremova
Svitlana Sheludchenko
Alla Pavliuk
Valentyna Boichuk**

**SEMINARS IN
LEXICOLOGY**

Teaching Aid for Students