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«Modern English Lexicology in Terms»

з теоретичного курсу лексикології англійської мови

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Методичні рекомендації до освоєння термінологічного апарату з лексикології англійської мови мають комплексний навчально - науковий характер, містять оригінальні терміни та приклади відібрані із новітніх вітчизняних та зарубіжних видань.

У рекомендаціях в розгорнутій, вичерпній формі пропонується тлумачення всіх основних лексикологічних понять та явищ, які належать до певної теми.

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Вступ

Методичні рекомендації до освоєння термінологічного апарату з лексикології англійської мови призначені для студентів II курсу заочного та стаціонарного відділень, які вивчають англійську мову як першу іноземну, а також викладачів, аспірантів, пошукачів.

Необхідний мінімум термінів з предмету, що міститься у посібнику є поділеним на розділи, що відповідають основним складовим темам курсу, що викладені у чинній програмі з лексикології англійської мови для університетів з п'ятирічним курсом навчання.

- **Etymological Survey of the English Stock**
- **Word-formation in Modern English**
- **Semasiology**
- **English Vocabulary as a System**
- **Free Word-Groups**
- **Phraseology**
- **Fundamentals of English Lexicography**

Методичні рекомендації мають полегшити процес підготовки студентів до семінарських занять, поточних та підсумкових видів контролю знань, тим самим організувати аудиторну і самостійну роботу студентів з курсу.

Викладач має сам визначати обсяг матеріалу для семінарів, самостійних робіт та форму контролю знань студентів.

Etymological Survey of the English Stock

Borrowed words (or loan words or borrowings) are words taken over from another language and modified according to the patterns of the receiving language.

Source of borrowing and **Origin of borrowing**. The first term is applied to the language from which the word was immediately borrowed, the second - to the language to which the word may be ultimately traced e.g. table - source of borrowing - French, origin of borrowing - Latin elephant - source of borrowing - French, origin-Egypt convene - source of borrowing - French, origin-Latin. **Translation loans** are words or expressions formed from the elements existing in the English language according to the patterns of the source language (the moment of truth - sp. el momento de la verdad).

A semantic loan is the borrowing of a meaning for a word already existing in the English language (e.g. the compound word *shock brigade* which existed in the English language with the meaning "аварійна бригада" acquired a new meaning "ударная бригада" which it borrowed from the Russian language).

Early Latin Loans - the words, which came into English through the language of Anglo-Saxon tribes.

Later Latin Borrowings To this group belong the words which penetrated the English vocabulary in the sixth and seventh centuries, when the people of England were converted to Christianity (*priest, bishop, nun, candle*).

The third period of Latin includes words, which came into English due to two historical events: the Norman conquest in 1066 and the Renaissance or the Revival of Learning. Some words came into English through French but some were taken directly from Latin (*major, minor, intelligent, permanent*).

The Latest Stratum of Latin Words The words of this period are mainly abstract and scientific words (*nylon, molecular, vaccine, phenomenon, vacuum*).

The Early French borrowings are simple short words, naturalised in accordance with the English language system (*state, power, war, pen, river*).

Later French borrowings can be identified by their peculiarities of form and pronunciation (*regime, police, ballet, scene, bourgeois*).

Assimilation is the process of changing the adopted word. The process of assimilation of borrowings includes changes in soundform morphological structure, grammar characteristics, meaning and usage.

Phonetic assimilation comprises changes in sound form and stress. Sounds that were alien to the English language were fitted into its scheme of sounds, e.g. In the recent French borrowings *communiqué, café* the long [e] and [e] are rendered with the help of [ei]. The accent is usually transferred to the first syllable in the words from foreign sources.

Grammatical adaption is usually a less lasting process, because in order to function adequately in the recipient language a borrowing must completely change its paradigm. Though there are some well-known exceptions as plural forms of the English Renaissance borrowings - *datum* pl. *data*, *criterion* - pl. *criteria* and others.

The process of semantic assimilation has many forms: narrowing of meanings (usually polysemantic words are borrowed in one of the meanings); specialisation or generalisation of meanings, acquiring new meanings in the recipient language, shifting a primary meaning to the position of a secondary meaning.

Completely assimilated borrowings are the words, which have undergone all types of assimilation. Such words are frequently used and are stylistically neutral, they may occur as dominant words in a synonymic group. They take an active part in word-formation.

Partially assimilated borrowings are the words, which lack one of the types of assimilation. They are subdivided into the groups: 1) Borrowings not assimilated semantically (e.g. *shah, rajah*). Such words usually denote objects and notions peculiar to the country from which they came.

Barbarisms are words from other languages used by the English people in conversation or in writing but not assimilated in any way, and for which there are corresponding English equivalents e.g. *ciao* Italian - *good-bye* English,

International words – those words that were borrowed by several languages. Such words are mostly of Latin and Greek origin and convey notions which are significant in the field of communication in different countries. Here belong names of sciences

(*philosophy, physics, chemistry, linguistics*), terms of art (*music, theatre, drama, artist, comedy*), political terms (*politics, policy, progress*). The English language became a source for international sports terms (*football, hockey, cricket, rugby, tennis*)

Word-formation in Modern English

Morpheme may be defined as the smallest meaningful unit which has a sound form and meaning and which occurs in speech only as a part of a word.

Word formation is the creation of new words from elements already existing in the language. Morphemes are subdivided into root - morphemes and affixational morphemes.

The root morpheme is the lexical center of the word. It is the semantic nucleus of a word with which no grammatical properties of the word are connected,

Affixational morphemes include inflections and derivational affixes.

Inflection is an affixal morpheme, which carries only grammatical meaning thus relevant only for the formation of word-forms (*books, opened, strong-er*).

Derivational morpheme is an affixal morpheme, which modifies the lexical meaning of the root and forms a new word. In many cases it adds the part-of-speech meaning to the root (*manage-ment, en-courage, fruit-ful*).

Free morphemes - morphemes, which may occur in isolation and function as independent words (*pay, sum, form*).

Bound morphemes - morphemes, which are not found in isolation (*-er, un-, -less*)

Allomorphes are the phonemic variants of the given morpheme e.g. *il-, im-, ir-*, are the allomorphes of the prefix *in-* (*illiterate, important, irregular, inconstant*).

Monomorphic are root-words consisting of only one root-morpheme i.e. simple words (*dry, grow, boss, sell*).

Polymorphic are words consisting of at least one root-morpheme and a number of derivational affixes, i.e. derivatives, compounds (*customer, payee, body-building, shipping*).

Derived words are those composed of one root-morpheme and one or more derivational morphemes (*consignment, outgoing, publicity*).

Compound words contain at least two root-morphemes (*warehouse, camera-man*),

Productivity is the ability to form new words after existing patterns, which are readily understood by the speakers of a language.

Affixation is the formation of new words with the help of derivational affixes – (suffixation and prefixation).

Word-composition is highly productive type of word-building. New words are produced by combining two or more stems.

Stem is that part of a word, which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm and to which grammatical inflexions and affixes are added.

Derivational compound is a word, formed by a simultaneous process of composition and derivation. Derivational compound is formed by composing a new stem, that does not exist outside this pattern and to which suffix is added. Derivational compound is a word consisting of two Immediate Constituents, only one of which is a compound stem of notional words, the other being a derivational affix, e.g. *blue - eyed - (A+N) + ed* In **coordinative compounds** neither of the components dominates the other, both are structurally and semantically independent and constitute two structural and semantic centres, e.g. *breath-taking, self-discipline, word-formation*.

Conversion is a way of coining new words in Modern English, - a process of making a new word from some existing root word by changing the category of a part of speech without changing the morphemic shape of the original root-word. The transposition of word from one part of speech into another brings about changes of the paradigm.

The shortening of words involves the shortening of both words and word-groups. Distinction should be made between shortening of a word in written speech (**graphical abbreviation**) and in the sphere of oral intercourse (**lexical abbreviation**).

Lexical abbreviations may be used both in written and in oral speech. Lexical abbreviation is the process of forming a word out of the initial elements (letters, morphemes) of a word combination by a simultaneous operation of shortening and compounding.

Clipping consists in cutting off two or more syllables of a word. Words that have been shortened at the end are called **apocope** (*doc-doctor, mit-mitten, vet-veterinary*). Words that have been shortened at the beginning are called **aphaeresis** (*phone-telephone*).

Words in which some syllables or sounds have been omitted from the middle are called **syncope** (*ma'm - madam, specs - spectacles*). Sometimes a combination of these types is observed (*tec-detective, frig-refrigerator*).

Blendings (blends, fusions or portmanteau words) may be defined as formation that combine two words that include the letters or sounds they have in common as a connecting element (*slimnastics < slim+gymnastics; mimsy < miserable+flimsy; galumph < gallop+triumph; neotopia < new+utopia*). The process of formation is also called telescoping.

Back formation is a non-productive type of word-building. It is mostly active in compound verbs, and is combined with word-composition. The basis of this type of word-building are compound words and word-combinations having verbal nouns, gerunds, participles or other derivative nouns as their second component (*rush-development, finger-printing, well-wisher*). These compounds and word-combinations are wrongly considered to be formed from compound verbs, which are nonexistent in reality. This gives a rise to such verbs as: *to rush-develop, to finger-print, to well-wish*.

Onomatopoeia (sound-imitation, echoism) is the naming of an action or thing by a more or less exact reproduction of a natural sound associated with it (*babble, crow, twitter*). Semantically, according to the source of sound onomatopoeic words fall into a few very definite groups. Many verbs denote sounds produced by human beings in the process of communication or in expressing their feelings (*babble, chatter, giggle, grumble, murmur, mutter, titter, whisper*). There are sounds produced by animals, birds and insects (*buzz, cackle, croak, crow, hiss, howl, moo, mew, roar*). Besides the verbs imitating the sound of water (*bubble, splash*), there are others imitating the noise of metallic things (*clink, tinkle*) or forceful motion (*clash, crash, whack, whip, whisk*).

Sentence - condensation is the formation of new words by substantivising the whole locutions (*forget-me-not, merry-go-round*).

Sound and stress interchange (distinctive stress, the shift of stress). The essence of it is that to form a new word the stress of the word is shifted to a new syllable. It mostly occurs in nouns and verbs. Some phonetic changes may accompany the shift of the stress (*export - to export, increase - to increase, break - breach, long - length*).

Semasiology

Semasiology is a branch of linguistics concerned with the meaning of words and word equivalents. The main objects of semasiological study are as follows: types of lexical meaning, polysemy and semantic structure of words, semantic development of words, the main tendencies of the change of word-meanings, semantic grouping in the vocabulary system, i.e. synonyms, antonyms, semantic fields, thematic groups, etc.

Referential approach to meaning. The common feature of any referential approach is that meaning is in some form or other connected with the referent (object of reality denoted by the word). The meaning is formulated by establishing the interdependence between words and objects of reality they denote. So, meaning is often understood as an object or phenomenon in the outside world that is referred to by a word.

Functional approach to meaning. In most present-day methods of lexicological analysis words are studied in context; a word is defined by its functioning within a phrase or a sentence. This functional approach is attempted in contextual analysis, semantic syntax and some other branches of linguistics. The meaning of linguistic unit is studied only through its relation to other linguistic units. So meaning is viewed as the function of a word in speech.

Meaning and concept (notion). When examining a word one can see that its meaning though closely connected with the underlying concept is not identical with it.

To begin with, concept is a category of human cognition. Concept is the thought of the object that singles out the most typical, the most essential features of the object.

So all concepts are almost the same for the whole of humanity in one and the same period of its historical development. The meanings of words, however, are different in different languages. That is to say, words expressing identical concept may have different semantic structures in different languages. E.g. the concept of "a building for human habitation" is expressed in English by the word "house", in Ukrainian - "дім", but their meanings are not identical as *house* does not possess the meaning of "fixed residence of family or household" (домівка), which is part of the meaning of the Ukrainian word *дім*; it is expressed by another English word *home*.

The difference between **meaning** and **concept** can also be observed by comparing

synonymous words and word-groups expressing the same concept but possessing linguistic meaning which is felt as different in each of the units, e.g. *big, large; to die to pass away, to join the majority, to kick the bucket; child, baby, babe, infant*.

Concepts are always emotionally neutral as they are a category of thought. Language, however, expresses all possible aspects of human consciousness. Therefore the meaning of many words not only conveys some reflection of objective reality but also the speaker's attitude to what he is speaking about, his state of mind. Thus, though the synonyms *big, large, tremendous* denote the same concept of size, the emotive charge of the word *tremendous* is much heavier than that of the other word.

Meaning. 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 is defined as the expression in Speech of relationships between words. The grammatical meaning is more abstract and more generalised than the lexical meaning. It is recurrent in identical sets of individual forms of different words as the meaning of plurality in the following words *students, boob, windows, compositions*.

Lexical meaning. The definitions of lexical meaning given by various authors, though different in detail, agree in the basic principle: they all point out that lexical meaning is the realisation of concept or emotion by means of a definite language system.

Denotation. The conceptual content of a word is expressed in its denotative meaning. To denote is to serve as a linguistic expression for a concept or as a name for an individual object. It is the denotational meaning that makes communication possible.

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

Stylistic connotations is what the word conveys about the speaker's attitude to the social circumstances and the appropriate functional style (*slay vs kill*), **evaluative connotation** may show his approval or disapproval of the object spoken of (*clique vs group*), **emotional connotation** conveys the speaker's emotions (*mummy vs mother*), the degree of intensity (*adore vs love*) is conveyed by expressive or intensifying connotation.

The expressive function of the language (the speaker's feelings) and the **pragmatic function** (the effect of words upon listeners) are rendered in connotations. Unlike the denotative meaning, connotations are optional.

Connotation differs from **the implicational meaning** of the word. Implicational meaning is the implied information associated with the word, with what the speakers know about the referent. A wolf is known to be greedy and cruel (implicational meaning) but the denotative meaning of this word does not include these features.

The **denotative or the intentional meaning** of the word *wolf* is "a wild animal resembling a dog that kills sheep and sometimes even attacks men". Its figurative meaning is derived from implied information, from what we know about wolves - "a cruel greedy person", also the adjective *wolfish* means "greedy".

Polysemy is very characteristic of the English vocabulary due to the monosyllabic character of English words and the predominance of root words. The greater the frequency of the word, the greater the number of meanings that constitute its semantic structure. Frequency - combinability - polysemy are closely connected.

The word in one of its meanings is termed a **lexico-semantic variant** of this word. For example the word *table* has at least 9 lexico-semantic variants: 1. *A piece of furniture*; 2. *The persons seated at table*; 3. *The food put on a table*; 4. *A thin flat piece of stone, metal, wood*; 5. *A slab of stone*; 6. *Plateau, extensive area of high land*; 7. *An orderly arrangement of facts, etc.*

Diachronically polysemy is understood as the growth and development (or change) in the semantic structure of the word.

The meaning the word *table* had in Old English is the meaning "a flat slab of stone or wood". It was its primary meaning, others were secondary and appeared later. They had been derived from the primary meaning.

Synchronically polysemy is understood as the coexistence of various meanings of the same word at a certain historical period of the development of the English language. In that case the problem of interrelation and interdependence of individual meanings making up the semantic structure of the word must be investigated from different points of view, that of main/ derived, central /peripheric meanings.

An objective criterion of determining the main or central meaning is the frequency of its occurrence in speech. Thus, the main meaning of the word *table* in Modern English is "a piece of furniture".

Polysemy is a phenomenon of language, not of speech. As a rule the contextual meaning represents only one of the possible lexico-semantic variants of the word. So polysemy does not interfere with the communicative function of the language because the situation and the context cancel all the unwanted meanings, as in the following sentences: *The steak is tough. This is a tough problem Prof. Holborn is a tough examiner.*

Context – the minimal stretch of speech determining each individual meaning of the word. The context individualises the meanings, brings them out. The two main types of linguistic contexts, which serve to determine individual meanings of words are **the lexical context and the grammatical context**. These types are differentiated depending on whether the lexical or the grammatical aspect is predominant in determining the meaning.

In **lexical context** of primary importance are lexical groups combined with the polysemantic words under consideration.

The adjective *heavy* in isolation possesses the meaning "of great weight, weighty". When combined with the lexical group of words denoting natural phenomena as *wind, storm*, etc. it means "striking, following with force, abundant", e.g. *heavy rain, wind, storm*, etc. In combination with the words *industry, arms, artillery* and the like, *heavy* has the meaning "the larger kind of something as *heavy industry, artillery*"

In **grammatical context** it is the grammatical (mainly the syntactic) structure of the context that serves to determine various individual meanings of a polysemantic word.

Extension (widening of meaning). The extension of semantic capacity of a word, i.e. the expansion of polysemy in the course of its historical development, e.g. *manuscript* originally "smth hand-written".

Narrowing of meaning. The restriction of the semantic capacity of a word in the historical development, e.g. *meat* in OE meant "food and drink".

Elevation (or amelioration). The semantic change in the word, which rises it from humble beginning to a position of greater importance, e.g. *minister* in earlier times meant merely "a servant".

Degradation - the semantic change, by which, for one reason or another, a word falls into disrepute, or acquires some derogatory emotive charge, e.g. *silly* originally meant "happy".

The change in the denotational component brings about the extension or the restriction of meaning. The change in the connotational component may result in the degradation - pejorative or ameliorative development of meaning.

Metaphor. The transfer of name based on the association of similarity. It is the application of a name or a descriptive term to an object to which it is not literally applicable, e.g. *head of an army*, *eye of a needle*.

Metonymy. The transfer of name based on the association of contiguity. It is a universal device in which the name of one thing is changed for that of another, to which it is related by association of ideas, as having close relationship to one another, e.g. *the chair* may mean "the chairman", *the bar* - "the lawyers".

English Vocabulary as a System

Synonymy is the coincidence in the essential meaning of words, which usually preserve their differences in connotations and stylistic characteristics.

Synonyms are two or more words belonging to the same part of speech and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical denotational meanings, interchangeable in some contexts. These words are distinguished by different shades of meaning, connotations and stylistic features.

The synonymic dominant is the most general term potentially containing the specific features rendered by all the other members of the group. The words *face*, *visage*, *countenance* have a common denotational meaning "the front of the head" which makes them close synonyms. *Face* is the dominant, the most general word; *countenance* is the same part of the head with the reference to the expression it bears; *visage* is a formal word, chiefly literary, for *face* or *countenance*.

In the series *leave*, *depart*, *quit*, *retire*, *clear out* the verb *leave*, being general and most neutral term can stand for each of the other four terms.

One must bear in mind that the majority of frequent words are polysemantic and it is

precisely the frequent words that have many synonyms. The result is that a polysemantic word may belong in its various meanings to several different synonymic groups. Kharitonchic Z. gives the example of 9 synonymic groups the word *part* enters as the result of a very wide polysemy:

1) *piece, parcel, section, segment, fragment, etc*; 2) *member, organ, constituent, element, component, etc*; 3) *share, portion, lot*; 4) *concern, interest, participation*; 5) *allotment, lot, dividend, apportionment*; 6) *business, charge, duty, office, function, work*; 7) *side, party, interest, concern, faction*; 8) *character, role, cue, lines*; 9) *portion, passage, clause, paragraph*.

Recently there has been introduced into the definition of **synonymity** the criterion of interchangeability in linguistic contexts that is synonyms are supposed to be words which can replace each other in a given context without the slightest alteration either in the denotational or connotational meaning.

According to whether the difference is in denotational or connotational component synonyms are classified into **ideographic** and **stylistic**. **Ideographic synonyms** denote different shades of meaning or different degrees of a given quality. They are nearly identical in one or more denotational meanings and interchangeable at least in some contexts, e.g. *beautiful - fine - handsome - pretty* *Beautiful* conveys, for instance, the strongest meaning; it marks the possession of that quality in its fullest extent, while the other terms denote the possession of it in part only. Fineness, handsomeness and prettiness are to beauty as parts to a whole.

In the synonymic group *choose, select, opt, elect, pick* the word *choose* has the most general meaning, the others are characterised by differences clearly statable: *select* implies a wide choice of possibilities (*select* a Christmas present for a child), *opt* implies an alternative (either this, or that as in Fewer students are *opting* for science courses nowadays); *pick* often implies collecting and keeping for future use (*pick* new words), *elect* implies choosing by vote (*elect* a president; *elect* smb (to be) chairman).

Stylistic synonyms differ not so much in denotational as in emotive value or stylistic sphere of application.

Pictorial language often uses poetic words, archaisms as stylistic alternatives of neutral words, e.g. *maid* for *girl*, *bliss* for *happiness*, *steed* for *horse*, *quit* for *leave*.

Calling and *vocation* in the synonymic group *occupation, calling, vocation, business* are high-flown as compared to *occupation* and *business*.

In many cases a stylistic synonym has an element of elevation in its meaning, e.g. *face - visage, girl - maiden*.

Along with elevation of meaning there is the reverse process of degradation: *to begin - to fire away, to eat - to devour, to steal - to pinch, face - muzzle*. According to the criterion of interchangeability in context synonyms are classified into **total, relative** and **contextual**.

Total synonyms are those members of a synonymic group, which can replace each other in any given context, without the slightest alteration in denotative meaning or emotional meaning and connotations. They are very rare. Examples can be found mostly in special literature among technical terms and others, e.g. *fatherland - motherland, suslik - gopher, noun - substantive, functional affix -flection, inflection, scarlet fever - scarlatina*.

Relative Synonyms. Some authors class groups like *ask - beg - implore*, or *like - love - adore, gift -talent - genius, famous - celebrated- eminent* as relative synonyms, as they denote different degree of the same notion or different shades of meanings and can be substituted only in some contexts.

Contextual or context - dependent synonyms are similar in meaning only under some specific distributional conditions. It may happen that the difference between the meanings of two words is contextually neutralised , E.g. *buy* and *get* would not generally be taken as synonymous, but they are synonyms in the following examples: I'll go to the shop and *buy* some bread. I'll go to the shop and *get* some bread. The verbs *bear, suffer, stand* are semantically different and not interchangeable except when used in the negative form: I can't *stand* it, I can't *bear* it.

One of the **sources of synonymy** is borrowing. Synonymy has its characteristic patterns in each language. Its peculiar feature in English is the contrast between simple *native* words stylistically neutral, *literary* words borrowed from French and *learned* words of Greco-Latin origin.

It must be noted that synonyms may influence each other semantically in two diametrically opposite ways: one of them is **dissimilation** or **differentiation**, the other -

the reverse process, i.e. assimilation.

Many words now marked in the dictionaries as "archaic" or "obsolete" have dropped out of the language in the competition of synonyms, others survived with a meaning more or less different from the original one. This process is called **synonymic differentiation** and is so current that it is regarded as an inherent law of language development.

Homonyms are words, which have the same form but are different in meaning. "The same form" implies identity in sound form or spelling, i.e. all the three aspects are taken into account: sound-form, graphic form and meaning. Both meanings of the form "liver" are, for instance, intentionally present in the following play upon words; "*Is life worth living? - It depends upon the liver*",

The most widely accepted classification of homonyms is that recognising homonyms proper, homophones and homographs.

Homonyms proper (or perfect, absolute) are words identical in pronunciation and spelling but different in meaning, like *back* n. "part of the body" - *back* adv. "away from the front" - *back* v. "go back"; *bear* n. "animal" - *bear* v. "carry, tolerate".

Homophones are words of the same sound but of different spelling and meaning: *air* - *heir*, *buy* - *by*, *him* - *hymn*, *steel* - *steal*, *storey* - *story*.

Homographs are words different in sound and in meaning but accidentally identical in spelling: *bow* [bou] - *bow* [bau], *lead* [li:d] - *lead* [led].

Homoforms - words identical in some of their grammatical forms. *To bound* (jump, spring) - *bound* (past participle of the verb *bind*); *found* (establish) - *found* (past participle of the verb *find*).

Paronyms are words that are alike in form, but different in meaning and usage. They are liable to be mixed and sometimes mistakenly interchanged.

The term paronym comes from the Greek *para* "beside" and *onoma* "name". Examples are: *precede* - *proceed*, *preposition* - *proposition*, *popular* - *populous*.

Polysemy - as soon as a derived meaning is no longer felt to be connected with the primary meaning at all (as in *bar* - балка; *bar* - бар; *bar* - адвокатура) polysemy breaks up and separate words come into existence, quite different in meaning from the basic word but identical in spelling.

From the viewpoint of their origin homonyms are sometimes divided into **historical** and

etymological.

Historical homonyms are those which result from the breaking up of polysemy; then one polysemantic word will split up into two or more separate words, e.g. to bear /терпіти/ - to bear /народити/ pupil /учень/ - pupil /зіниця/ plant /рослина/ - plant /завод/

Etymological homonyms are words of different origin, which come to be alike in sound or in spelling (and may be both written and pronounced alike).

Borrowed and native words can coincide in form, thus producing homonyms (as in the above given examples).

In other cases homonyms are a result of borrowing when several different words become identical in sound or spelling. E.g. the Latin *vitim* - "wrong", "an immoral habit" has given the English *vice* - вада "evil conduct"; the Latin *vitis* - "spiral" has given the English "vice" - тиски "apparatus with strong jaws in which things can be hold tightly"; the Latin *vice* - "instead of", "in place of" will be found in *vice - president*.

neologism is a newly coined word or phrase or a new meaning for an existing word, or a word borrowed from another language.

Lexico-grammatical group - 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 parts of speech, several lexico-grammatical groups constitute one part of speech. Thus English nouns are subdivided approximately into the following lexico-grammatical groups: personal names, animal names, collective names (for people), collective names (for animals), abstract nouns, material nouns, object nouns, proper names for people, toponymic names.

Another traditional lexicological grouping is known as **word-families** in which the words are grouped according to the root-morpheme, for example: *dog, doggish, doglike, doggy, to dog, dogged, doggedly, doggedness, dog-days, dog-biscuit, dogcart, etc.*

Antonyms are words belonging to the same part of speech different in sound, and characterised by semantic polarity of their denotational meaning. According to the character of semantic opposition antonyms are subdivided into **antonyms proper**, **complet** and **conversitives**.

The semantic polarity in **antonyms proper** is relative, the opposition is gradual, it may embrace several elements characterised by different degrees of the same property. They always imply comparison. *Large* and *little* or *small* denote polar degrees of the same notion, i.e. size.

Complementaries are words characterised only by a binary opposition, which may have only two members; the denial of one member of the opposition implies the assertion of the other e.g. not *male* means *female*.

Conversives are words, which denote one and the same referent as viewed from different points of view, that of the subject and that of the object, e.g. buy-sell, give-receive.

Morphologically antonyms are subdivided into root (absolute) antonyms (*good* - *bad*) and derivational antonyms (*apper* - *disapper*).

Semantic field is a closely-knit sector of vocabulary characterised by a common concept (e.g. in the semantic field of space we find nouns (*expanse*, *extent*, *surface*); verbs (*extend*, *spread*, *span*); adjectives (***spacious***, ***roomy***, ***vast***, ***broad***). The members of the semantic fields are not synonymous but all of them are joined together by some common semantic component. **Thematic (or ideographic)** groups are groups of words joined together by common contextual associations within the framework of the sentence and reflect the interlinking of things and events in objective reality. Contextual associations are formed as a result of regular co-occurrence of words in similar repeatedly used contexts. Thematic or ideographic groups are independent of classification into parts of speech. Words and expressions are here classed not according to their lexico-grammatical meaning but strictly according to their signification, i.e. to the system of logical notions (e.g. *tree* - *grow* - *green*; *journey* - *train*, *taxi*, *bus* - *ticket*; *sunshine* - *brightly* - *blue* - *sky*).

Hyponymy is the semantic relationship of inclusion existing between elements of various levels. Thus, e.g. *vehicle* includes *car*, *bus*, *taxi*; *oak* implies *tree*, *horse* implies *animal*; *table* implies *furniture*.

The **hyponymic relationship** is the relationship between the meaning of the general and the individual terms.

A **hyperonym** is a generic term, which serves as the name of the general as

distinguished from the names of the species-hyponyms. In other words the more specific term is called the **hyponym**. For instance, *animal* is a generic term as compared to the specific names *wolf*, *dog* or *mouse* (these are called **equonyms**) *Dog*, in its turn, may serve as a generic term for different breeds such as *bull-dog*, *collie*, *poodle*, etc.

Free Word-Groups

Words combined to express ideas and thoughts make up word-groups.

The degree of structural and semantic cohesion of words within word-groups may vary. Some word-groups are functionally and semantically inseparable, e.g. *rough diamond*, *cooked goose*, *to stew in one's own juice*. Such word-groups are traditionally described as **set-phrases** or **phraseological units**. Characteristic features of phraseological units are non-motivation for idiomaticity and stability of context. They cannot be freely made up in speech but are reproduced as ready-made units.

The component members in other word-groups possess greater semantic and structural independence, e.g. *to cause misunderstanding*, *to shine brightly*, *linguistic phenomenon*, *red rose* Word-groups of this type are defined as **free word-groups for free phrases**. They are freely made up in speech by the speakers according to the needs of communication.

Set expressions are contrasted to free phrases and semi-fixed combinations. All these are but different stages of restrictions imposed upon co-occurrence of words, upon the lexical filling of structural patterns, which are specific for every language.

In free word-combination the linguistic factors are chiefly connected with grammatical properties of words.

Free word-groups of syntactically connected notional words within a sentence, which by itself is not a sentence. Or - any group of words connected semantically and grammatically which does not make up a sentence by itself.

Structurally word-groups may be approached in various ways. All word-groups may be analysed by the criterion of distribution into two big classes.

Distribution is understood as the whole complex of contexts in which the given lexical unit can be used. If the word-group has the same linguistic distribution as one of its

members.

It is described as **endocentric**, i.e. having one central member functionally equivalent to the whole word-group. The word-groups, e.g. *red flower*, *bravery of all kinds*, are distributionally identical with their central components *flower* and *bravery*: I saw a red flower - I saw a flower. I appreciate bravery of all kinds - I appreciate bravery.

If the distribution of the word-group is different from either of its members, it is regarded as **exocentric**, i.e. as having no such central member, for instance *side by side* or *grow smaller* and others where the component words are not syntactically substitutable for the whole word-group.

In endocentric word-groups the central component that has the same distribution as the whole group is clearly the dominant member or the head to which all other members of the group are subordinated. In the word-group *red flower* the head is the noun *flower* and in the word-group *kind of people* the head is the adjective *kind*

Word-groups are also classified according to their syntactic pattern into **predicative and non-predicative groups**. Such word-groups, e.g. *John works*, *he went* that have a syntactic structure similar to that of a sentence, are classified as **predicative**, and all others as non-predicative. **Non-predicative** word-groups may be subdivided according to the type of syntactic relation between the components into **subordinative** and **coordinative**. Such word-groups as *red flower*, *a man of wisdom and the like* are termed **subordinative** in which *flower* and *man* are head-words and *red*, *of wisdom* are subordinated to them respectively and function as their attributes. Such phrases as *woman and child*, *day and night*, *do or die* are classified as **coordinative**. Both members in these word-groups are functionally and semantically equal.

Subordinative word-groups may be classified according to their head-words into **nominal groups** (*red flower*), **adjectival groups** (*kind to people*), **verbal groups** (*to speak well*), **pronominal** (*all of them*), **stative** (*fast asleep*). The head is not necessarily the component that occurs first in the word-group. In such nominal word-groups as, e.g. *very great bravery*, *bravery in the struggle* the noun *bravery* is the head whether followed or preceded by other words.

The **meaning** of word-groups may be defined as the combined lexical meaning of the components.

The **lexical meaning of the word-group** may be defined as the combined lexical meaning of the component words. Thus the lexical meaning of the word-group *red flower* may be described denotatively as the combined meaning of the words *red* and *flower*. Word-groups possess not only the lexical meaning, but also the meaning conveyed by the pattern of arrangement of their constituents. Such word-groups as *school grammar* and *grammar school* are semantically different because of the difference in the pattern of arrangement of the component words. It is assumed that the structural pattern of word-group is the carrier of a certain semantic component, which does not necessarily depend on the actual lexical meaning of its members. In the example discussed above *school grammar* **the structural meaning of the word-group** may be abstracted from the group and described as "quality-substance" meaning. This is the meaning expressed by the pattern of the word-group but not by either the word *school* or the word *grammar*. It follows that we have to distinguish between the structural meaning of a given type of word-group as such and the lexical meaning of its constituents.

The lexical and structural components of meaning in word-groups are interdependent and inseparable. The inseparability of these two semantic components in word-groups can be illustrated by the semantic analysis of individual word-groups in which the norms of conventional collocability of words seem to be deliberately overstepped. For instance, in the word-group *all the sun long* we observe a departure from the norm of lexical valency represented by such word-groups as *all the day long*, *all the night long*, *all the week long*, and a few others. The structural pattern of these word-groups in ordinary usage and the word-group *all the sun long* is identical. The **generalised meaning of the pattern** may be described as "a unit of time". Replacing *day*, *night*, *week* by another noun the *sun* we do not find any change in the structural meaning of the pattern.

Two basic linguistic factors which unite words into word-groups and which largely account for their combinability are lexical valency or collocability and grammatical valency.

Words are known to be used in lexical context, i.e. in combination with other words. The aptness of a word to appear in various combinations, with other words is qualified as its **lexical collocability or valency**.

The range of a potential lexical collocability of words is restricted by the inner structure of the language wordstock. This can be easily observed in the examples as follows: though the words *bend*, *curl* are registered by the dictionaries as synonyms their collocability is different, for they tend to combine with different words: e.g. *to bend a bar/ wire/pipe/ bow/ stick/ head/ knees to curl hair/ moustache/ a hat brim/waves/ lips*.

There is certain norm of lexical valency for each word and any intentional departure from this norm is qualified as a stylistic device, e.g.: *tons of words, a life ago, years of dust*.

Words in traditional combinations are combined according to the patterns of grammatical structure of the given language.

Grammatical combinability also tells upon the freedom of bringing words together. The aptness of a word to appear in specific grammatical (syntactic) structures is termed **grammatical valency**. The grammatical valency of words may be different. The range of it is delimited by the part of speech the word belongs to. This statement, though, does not entitle to say that grammatical valency of words belonging to the same part of speech is identical.

Word-groups may be also analyzed from the point of view of their motivation. Word groups may be described as **lexically motivated** if the combined lexical meaning of the group is deducible from the meaning of its components. The degrees of motivation may be different and range from complete motivation to lack of it. Free word - groups, however, are characterised by complete motivation, as their components carry their individual lexical meanings.

Phraseology

Phraseological unit is a non-motivated word-group that cannot be freely made up in speech but is reproduced as a ready made unit.

Reproducibility is regular use of phraseological units in speech as single unchangeable collocations.

Idiomacity is the quality of phraseological unit, when the meaning of the whole is not deducible from the sum of the meanings of the parts.

Stability of a phraseological unit implies that it exists as a ready-made linguistic unit, which does not allow of any variability of its lexical components of grammatical structure.

In lexicology there is great ambiguity of the terms **phraseology** and **idioms**. Opinions differ as to how phraseology should be defined, classified, described and analysed. The word "phraseology" has very different meanings in this country and in Great Britain or the United States. In linguistic literature the term is used for the expressions where the meaning of one element is dependent on the other, irrespective of the structure and properties of the unit (V.V. Vinogradov); with other authors it denotes only such set expressions which do not possess expressiveness or emotional colouring (A.I. Smirnitsky), and also vice versa: only those that are imaginative, expressive and emotional (I.V. Arnold). N.N. Amosova calls such expressions fixed context units, i.e. units in which it is impossible to substitute any of the components without changing the meaning not only of the whole unit but also of the elements that remain intact. O.S. Ahmanova insists on the semantic integrity of such phrases prevailing over the structural separateness of their elements. A.V. Koonin lays stress on the structural separateness of the elements in a phraseological unit, on the change of meaning in the whole as compared with its elements taken separately and on a certain minimum stability.

In English and American linguistics no special branch of study exists, and the term "phraseology" has a stylistic meaning, according to Webster's dictionary 'mode of expression, peculiarities of diction, i.e. choice and arrangement of words and phrases characteristic of some author or some literary work'.

Difference in terminology ("set-phrases", "idioms", "word-equivalents") reflects certain differences in the main criteria used to distinguish types of phraseological units and free word-groups. The term "set phrase" implies that the basic criterion of differentiation is stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure of word-groups.

The term "**idiom**" generally implies that the essential feature of the linguistic units is idiomaticity or lack of motivation.

The term "**word-equivalent**" stresses not only semantic but also functional inseparability of certain word groups, their aptness to function in speech as single words. The essential features of phraseological units are: a) lack of semantic motivation; b)

lexical and grammatical stability.

As far as semantic motivation is concerned phraseological units are extremely varied from motivated (by simple addition of denotational meaning) like a *sight for sore eyes* and *to know the ropes*, to partially motivated (when one of the words is used in a not direct meaning) or to demotivated (completely non-motivated) like *tit for tat*, *red-tape*.

Lexical and grammatical stability of phraseological units is displayed in the fact that no substitution of any elements whatever is possible in the following stereotyped (unchangeable) set expressions, which differ in many other respects; *all the world and his wife*, *red tape*, *calf love*, *heads or tails*, *first night*, *to gild the pill*, *to hope for the best*, *busy as a bee*, *fair and square*, *stuff and nonsense* *time and again*, *to and fro*.

The degree of motivation is correlated with the rigidity, indivisibility and semantic unity of the expression, i.e with the possibility of changing the form or the order of components, and of substituting the whole by a single word. According to the type of motivation three types of phraseological units are suggested, phraseological combinations, phraseological unities, and phraseological fusions.

The Phraseological Collocations (Combinations), are partially motivated, they contain one component used in its direct meaning while the other is used figuratively: *meet the demand*, *meet the necessity*, *meet the requirements*.

Phraseological unities are much more numerous. They are clearly motivated. The emotional quality is based upon the image created by the whole as in *to stick (to stand) to one's guns*, i.e. refuse to change one's statements or opinions in the face of opposition', implying courage and integrity. The example reveals another characteristic of the type, the possibility of synonymic substitution, which can be only very limited, e. g. *to know the way the wind is blowing*.

Phraseological fusions, completely non-motivated word-groups, (e.g. *tit for tat*), represent as their name suggests the highest stage of blending together. The meaning of components is completely absorbed by the meaning of the whole, by its expressiveness and emotional properties. Phraseological fusions are specific for every language and do not lend themselves to literal translation into other languages.

Semantic stylistic features contracting set expressions into units of fixed context are simile, contrast, metaphor and synonymy. For example: *as like as two peas*, *as old as the*

hills and older than the hills (simile); *from beginning to end, for love or money, more or less, sooner or later* (contrast); *a lame duck, a pack of lies, arms race, to swallow the pill, in a nutshell* (metaphor); *by leaps and bounds, proud and haughty* (synonymy).

Fixed context is defined as a context characterised by a specific and unchanging sequence of definite lexical components, and a peculiar semantic relationship between them.

Units of fixed context are subdivided into **phrasemes** and **idioms**. Phrasemes are always binary: one component has a phraseologically bound meaning, the other serves as the determining context (*small talk, small hours, small change*). In idioms the new meaning is created by the whole, though every element may have its original meaning weakened or even completely lost: *in the nick of time* 'at the exact moment'.

Idioms may be motivated or demotivated. A **motivated idiom** is homonymous to a free phrase, but this phrase is used figuratively: *take the bull by the horns* 'to face dangers without fear*'. *In the nick of time* is **demotivated**, because the word *nick* is obsolete. Both phrasemes and idioms may be movable (changeable) or immovable.

A.V. Koonin's classification is based on the functions the units fulfil in speech. They may be **nominating** (*a bull in a china shop*), **interjectinal** (*a pretty kettle of fish*), **communicative** (*familiarity breeds contempt*), or **nominating-communicative** (*pull somebody's leg*). Further classification into subclasses depends on whether the units are changeable or unchangeable, whether the meaning of the one element remains free, and, more generally, on the interdependence between the meaning of the elements and the meaning of the set expression.

Formal classification distinguishes set expressions that are nominal phrases: *the root of the trouble*; verbal phrases: *put one's best foot forward*; adjectival phrases: *as good as gold; red as a cherry*; adverbial phrases: *from head to foot*; prepositional phrases: *in the course of*; conjunctive phrases: *as long as, on the other hand*, interjectional phrases: *Well, I never!*

A proverb is a short familiar epigrammatic saying expressing popular wisdom, a truth or a moral lesson in a concise and imaginative way. Proverbs have much in common with set expressions, because their lexical components are also constant, their meaning is traditional and mostly figurative, and they are introduced into speech ready-made.

Another reason why proverbs must be taken into consideration together with set expressions is that they often form the basis of set expressions. E. g. *the last straw breaks the camel's back*: *:the last . straw; a drowning man will clutch at a straw*: *:clutch at a straw; it is useless, to lock the stable door when the steed is stolen*: *:lock the stable door*.

Familiar quotations are different from proverbs in their origin. They come from literature but by and by they become part of the language, so that many people using them do not even know that they are quoting, and very few could accurately name the play or passage on which they are drawing even when they are aware of using a quotation from W. Shakespeare.

The Shakespearian quotations have become and remain extremely numerous – they have contributed enormously to the store of the language. Very many come from "Hamlet", for example: *Something is rotten in the state of Denmark*; *Brevity is the soul of wit*; *The rest is silence*; *Thus conscience does make cowards of us all*; *There are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio*

Some quotations are so often used that they come to be considered **cliches**. The term is used to denote such phrases as have become hackneyed and stale. Being constantly and mechanically repeated they have lost their original expressiveness. The following are perhaps the most generally recognised: *the acid test*, *ample opportunities*, *astronomical figures*, *the arms of Morpheus*, *to break the ice*, *the irony of fate*, etc.

Fundamentals of English Lexicography

Lexicography is an important branch of linguistics, which covers the theory, and practice of compiling dictionaries.

Types of dictionaries

The term **dictionary** is used to denote a book listing words of a language with their meanings and often with data regarding pronunciation, usage and/or origin. There are also dictionaries that concentrate their attention upon only one of these aspects: pronouncing (phonetical) dictionaries (by Daniel Jones) and etymological dictionaries (by Walter Skeat, by Erik Partridge, The Oxford English Dictionary).

For dictionaries in which the words and their definitions belong to the same language the term **unilingual** or **explanatory** is used, whereas **bilingual** or **translation** dictionaries are those that explain words by giving their equivalents in another language.

Unilingual dictionaries are further subdivided with regard to the time. **Diachronic dictionaries**, of which The Oxford English Dictionary is the main example, reflect the development of the English vocabulary by recording the history of form and meaning for every word registered. They may be contrasted to synchronic or descriptive dictionaries of current English concerned with present-day meaning and usage of words.

Both bilingual and unilingual dictionaries can be **general** and **special**.

General dictionaries represent the vocabulary as a whole. The group includes the thirteen volumes of The Oxford English Dictionary alongside with any miniature pocket dictionary. Some general dictionaries may have very specific aims and still be considered general due to their coverage. They include, for instance, frequency dictionaries, i.e. lists of words, each of which is followed by a record of its frequency of occurrence in one or several sets of reading matter. A rhyming dictionary is also a general dictionary, though arranged in inverse order, and so is a thesaurus in spite of its unusual arrangement. General dictionaries are contrasted to special dictionaries whose stated aim is to cover only a certain specific part of the vocabulary.

Special dictionaries may be further subdivided depending on whether the words are chosen according to the sphere of human activity in which they are used (technical dictionaries), the type of the units themselves (e. g. phraseological dictionaries) or the relationships existing between them (e.g. dictionaries of synonyms).

The first subgroup embraces specialised dictionaries which register and explain technical terms for various branches of knowledge, art and trade: linguistic, medical, technical, economical terms, etc. Unilingual books of this type giving definitions of terms are called **glossaries**.

The second subgroup deals with specific language units, i.e. with phraseology, abbreviations, neologisms, borrowings, surnames, toponyms, proverbs and sayings, etc.

The third subgroup contains synonymic dictionaries. Dictionaries recording the complete vocabulary of some author are called **poncordances**. They should be distinguished from those that deal only with difficult words, i.e. glossaries. To this group are also referred

dialect dictionaries and dictionaries of Americanisms.

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