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Методичні рекомендації
«Basic notions of Modern English Lexicology»
з теоретичного курсу лексикології англійської мови

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Методичні рекомендації до практичної частини лексикології англійської мови мають комплексний навчальний характер, містять головні поняття з основних складових теоретичної частини курсу.

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Вступ

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

Всі навчальні моделі поділені 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.

Методичні рекомендації розраховані на загальну кількість семінарських та самостійних занять.

Список рекомендованої літератури містить значну кількість новітніх вітчизняних та зарубіжних джерел.

ETYMOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF MODERN ENGLISH VOCABULARY

The modern English vocabulary falls into two main sets: native words and borrowings.

Native words belong to the original English word-stock and are known from the earliest Old English manuscripts. It is customary to subdivide native words into those of the Indo-European stock and those of the common Germanic origin. The former have cognates in the vocabularies of all or most Indo-European languages, whereas the latter have cognates only in Germanic languages, but not in Romance, Slavonic or other languages of the Indo-European family. Several linguists are inclined to the opinion that there exist specifically English words, which have no cognates in other languages and constitute the English proper element of the vocabulary.

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

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According to the degree of assimilation, borrowings can be classified into the following three groups:

1) completely assimilated borrowings (denizens) that follow English phonetical, grammatical and graphic standards and do not seem foreign in origin, e.g. call, face, husband, street, table, take, etc.;

2) partially assimilated borrowings (aliens) which fall into four subgroups;

a) not assimilated semantically (units of specific national lexicon), e.g. hrivna, rajah, sherbet, toreador, etc.;

b) not assimilated grammatically, e.g. nouns of Latin or Greek origin which retain their original plural forms: crisis - crises, index - indices, phenomenon - phenomena, etc.;

c) not assimilated phonetically, e.g. boulevard, foyer, memoir, restaurant, etc.;

d) not assimilated graphically, e.g. cliché, blitzkrieg, nazi, ragout, naïve, etc.;

3) unassimilated borrowed words and phrases (barbarisms) which preserve their original spelling and other characteristics, always have corresponding English equivalents, and, therefore, are not indispensable in English, e.g. ad hoc, a propos, ciao, coup d'etat, eureka, persona grata, etc.

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Translation-loans (calques) are borrowings (words or phrases), which do not retain their original form to a certain extent, but undergo the process of translating one part after another, e.g.

Masterpiece < Meisterstück (German) by heart < par coeur (French).

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The borrowing of meaning from a foreign word is called **semantic borrowing**. E.g. In OE the word **dwellan** (ME **dwell**) meant "lead astray". The modern meaning of the word, i.e. "abide, stay", was adopted from the Scandinavian **dvelja** ("live").

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A pair of (or several) words borrowed from the same source at different times and, therefore, having different forms and meaning are called **etymological doublets**, e.g.

dais "high table in a hall; raised platform for this". XIII.

< OF. deis < L. discus.

desk "rest for a book, writing-paper, etc." XIV. < L. discus. **dish** "broad shallow vessel". XV. < OE. disc < L. discus. **disc** "'flat' surface of the sun, etc." XVII. < F. discue < L. discus. **discus** "quoit used in ancient Greek and Roman games." XVII.

< L. discus < Gr. diskos.

/After The Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology, 1985 /.

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Words whose elements are derived from different languages are called **etymological hybrids**, e.g. eatable (native stem + Romanic suffix), distrust (native stem + Romanic prefix), beautiful (Romanic stem + native suffix), etc.

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Lexical units of identical origin comprising a stock common to several languages are called international words. In most cases they belong to various terminological systems, e.g. algorithm, cybernetics, telephone, entropy; aria, arioso, opera, etc.

International words should not be confused with pseudo-international word (false cognates, "translator's false friends"), which have the same origin but different semantic structures. The divergence in meaning can be partial (e.g. the English adjective **liberal** corresponds not only to the Ukrainian ліберальний, but also to щедрий, великодушний, багатий, пишний, гуманітарний, вільний (небуквальний)) or complete (e.g. the English **aspirant** does not mean аспірант, but претендент, кандидат).

MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH WORDS

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

The affixes, in their turn, fall into prefixes which precede the root (unhappy, rewrite, discover, decipher, impossible, misbehaviour, etc.) and suffixes which follow the root (friendship, peaceful, worker, teaching, realize, calmly, etc.).

The part of a word which remains unchanged in all the forms of its paradigm is called a stem, e.g. girl- in girls, girl's, girls'; darken in darkens, darkened, darkening.

Stems that coincide with roots are known as simple stems, e.g. boy's, trees, reads, etc.

Stems that contain one or more affixes are **derived stems**, e.g. teacher's, misfires, governments, undecipherable, etc.

Binary stems comprising two simple or derived stems are called **compound stems**, e.g. machine-gunner's, ex-film-star, gentlemanly, school-boyish, etc.

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

A **free morpheme** can stand alone as a word, e.g. friendly, friendship (cf. A friend).

Bound morphemes occur only as constituent parts of words, e.g. freedom, greatly, poetic; depart, adrift, enlarge, dishonest, misprint; conceive, deceive, receive; desist, resist, subsist, etc.

Semi-bound morphemes can function both as affixes and as free morphemes (i.e. words). Cf. after, half, man, well, self and after-thought, half-baked, chairman, well-known, himself.

In Modern English one can often meet morphemes of Greek and Latin origin which have a definite lexical meaning though are not used as autonomous words, e.g. tele-'far', -scope 'seeing, -graph, -'writing', etc. Such morphemes usually called **combining forms** or **bound root morphemes**.

Positional variants of a morpheme are known as **allomorphs**. Thus the prefix in- (intransitive, involuntary) can be represented by allomorph il- (illegal, illiteracy), im- (immortal, impatience) ir- (irregular, irresolute).

Several morphemes are polysemic i.e. a certain form, being a component of words which belong to the same part of speech, can express different meanings. Cf. Bluish (a.) :: Spanish (a.); baker (n.):: boiler (n.); sculptor (n.):: reactor (n.).

Homonymic morphemes have the same form and different meaning, being components of words that belong to different parts of speech, e.g. quickly (adv.):: lovely (a.); soften (v.) :: silken (a.). One should distinguish between the homonymy of derivational affixes, on the one hand, and the homonymy of such affixes and inflections, on the other, e.g. worker (n.) :: longer (comp. d. of a.); golden (a.):: taken (Past part.).

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English words fall into four main structural types:

- 1) **simple words** (root words) which have only a root morpheme in their structure, e.g. man, sky, go, look, bright, long, etc;
- 2) **derived words** (affixational derivatives) which consist of a root and one or more affixes, e.g. joyful, remake, undo, childhood, disagreement, reproductive, indifference, etc.;
- 3) **compound words** (compounds) in which two or more stems are combined into a lexical unit, e.g. classroom, whitewash, lip-read, salesgirl, snow-white, speedometer, forget-me-not, blacklist, etc.;
- 4) **derivational compounds** in which phrase components are joined together by means of compounding and affixation, e.g. long-legged, black-eyed, oval-shaped, bald-headed, strong-willed, etc.

There exists a more complicated classification of the structural types of words. It takes into account the varieties of root morphemes, the positions of affixes as regards the root, and some other factors¹.

I. Simple words.

1. R - big, tank, atop, now.
2. R^{ft} - zoo (zoological), lab (laboratory), pop (popular).

II. Derived words.

3. R + S - baker, friendship, acceptable, realize.
4. R^{fr}+ S - combo (combination), psycho (psychic).
5. R^b+ S - theory, barbarism.
6. P + R - outdo, rewrite, mistrust.
7. P + R^b - receive, perceive, deceive.
8. P + R + S - disagreeable, discouragement, misinterpretation,

III. Compound words.

9. R + R - time-table, schoolgirl, jet-black.
10. R^{fr} + R^{fr} - smog (smoke + fog), brunch (breakfast + lunch).

11. $R^b + R^b$ - telescope, microphone, telegraph.
12. $R + I + R$ - handicraft, gasometer, statesman.
13. $(R+S) + R$ - safety-belt, wedding-finger, writing-table.
14. $R + (R + S)$ - sky-jumping, vote-catching, pen-holder.
15. $R + F + R$ - stay-at-home, fly-by-night, hide-and-peek.

IV. Derivational compounds.

16. $(R + R) + S$ - light-minded, snub-nosed, long-legged.

¹ *Conventional signs: R - root; R^{fr} - root fragment; R^b - bound root; S - suffix; P - prefix; I - interfix; F - function word*

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Morphological structure of words can be determined by the special synchronic method known as the analysis into immediate and ultimate constituents (IC's and UC's). This method is based on the binary principle. It means that the analysis proceeds in stages, and at each stage the word or a part of it is segmented into two immediate constituents. Such successive segmentation results in ultimate constituents that defy any former division, e.g.:

Denationalize

- 1) denationalize → de / nationalize;
- 2) nationalize → national / ize;
- 3) national → nation / al.

Hence, the UC's of the word **denationalize** are: de / nation / al / ize.

WORD-FORMATION

Word-formation is the process of creating new words from the material available in the word-stock according to certain structural and semantic patterns specific for the given language.

Various types of word-formation in Modern English possess different degrees of productivity. Some of them are highly-productive (affixation, conversion and similar phenomena (e.g. substantiation), compounding, shortening, forming phrasal

verbs); others are semi-productive (back-formation, blending, reduplication, lexicalization of the plural of nouns, sound-imitation), and non-productive (sound interchange, change of stress).

AFFIXATION

Affixation is a word-formative process in which words are created by adding word-building affixes to stems. Affixation includes **prefixation**, i.e. forming new words with the help of prefixes, and **suffixation**, i.e. forming new words with the help of suffixes.

From the etymological point of view affixes are classified according to their origin into native (e.g. -er, -ness, -ing, un-, mis-, etc.) and borrowed (Romanic, e.g. -tion, -ment, -ance, re-, sub-, etc.; Greek, e.g. -ist, -ism, anti-, etc.).

Affixes can also be classified into productive (e.g. -er, -ness, -able, -y, -ize, un-, re-, die-, etc.) and non-productive (-th, -hood, -en, -ous, etc.). Suffixes derive a certain part of speech, hence one should distinguish: noun-forming, adjective-forming, verb-forming and adverb-forming suffixes.

COMPOUNDING (COMPOSITION)

Compounds are words produced by combining two or more stems, which occur in the language as free forms. They may be classified proceeding from different criteria:

- according to the parts of speech to which they belong;
- according to the means of composition used to link their ICs together;
- according to the structure of their ICs;
- according to their semantic characteristics.

Most compounds in Modern English belong to nouns and adjectives. Compound verbs are less frequent; they are often made through conversion (N → V pattern). Compound adverbs, pronouns, conjunction and prepositions are rather rare.

The classification of compounds according to the means of joining their IC's together distinguishes between the following structural types;

- 1) juxtapositional (neutral) compounds whose ICs are merely placed one after

another: **classroom, timetable, heartache, whitewash, hunting-knife, weekend grey-green, deep-blue, H-bomb, U-turn. Etc.;**

2) morphological compounds whose ICs are joined together with a vowel or a consonant as a linking element, e.g.: **gasometer, handicraft, electromotive, Anglo-Saxon, sportsman, saleswoman, etc.;**

3) syntactic compounds (integrated phrases) which are the result of the process of semantic isolation and structural integration of free word-groups, e.g.: **blackboard** (<black board), **highway** (<high way), **forget-me-not, bull's-eye, up-to-date, son-in-law, go-between, know-all, etc.**

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The classification of compounds according to the structure of their ICs includes the following groups:

Group 1. Compounds consisting of simple stems: railway, key-board, snow-white, bookshelf, scarecrow, browbeat, etc.

Group 2. Compounds where at least one of the ICs is a derived stem: chain smoker, shoe-maker, pen-holder, snow-covered, moon-lit, price-reduction, etc.

Group 3. Compounds where at least one of the ICs is a clipped stem: photo-intelligence, baccho-box, maths-mistress, T-shirt, TV-set, X-mas, etc.

Group 4. Compounds where at least one of the ICs is a compound stem: wastepaper-basket, newspaper-ownership, etc.

Note: Compounds of Group 2 should not be mixed with **derivational compounds** (**Group 5**) in which the second component does not occur as a free form.

Derivational compounds are built by adding a suffix to phrases of the A + N, N + N, Num + N type.

Cf.: chain-smoker (n + (v + -er)) :: honeymooner ((n + n) + -er); snow-covered (n + (v + -ed)) :: slim-wasted ((a + n) + -ed).

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In many English words one can find unstressed stems approaching the status of derivational affixes. They have generalized meaning and their combining capacity is very great. Such morphemes are called **semi-affixes**.

Semi-affixes can be used in preposition (**semi-prefixes**, e.g. half-, ill-, mini midi-, maxi-, self-) and in postposition (**semi-suffixes**, e.g. -man, -land, -monger, -wright, -worthy, -proof, -like, -wise, -way(s)).

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Lexical units of N + N, A + N patterns are of three types:

- 1) Free nominal phrases with **characterizing** (non-inherent) attributes, e.g.: stone wall, brick wall, high wall, low wall, red pen, green pen, new pen, black bird, blue bird, Paris morning, Kyiv evening, etc.
- 2) Separable nominals with **classifying** attributes: silver fox, black fox, blue fox, gray fox, white fox; paper knife, fruit knife, bread knife, fish knife, trench knife; machine oil, aviation oil, boiler oil, diesel oil, engine oil, motor oil, wine press, garlic press, tomato press, etc.
- 3) Nominal compounds proper with **inherent** attributes forming a semantic whole with head-stems, e.g.: lipstick, roughneck, hothouse, steam-table, blackbird, cupboard, etc.

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The compounds in which the ICs are related as the determinant and the determinatum are called **endocentric** compounds, e.g.: hairbrush, bookcase, sunbeam paperknife, blackboard, ashtray, classroom, etc.

The compounds in which the determinatum is implicit (i.e. not formally expressed) are called **exocentric** compounds, e.g.: scarecrow, cutthroat, dare-devil tell-tale, pickpocket, runabout, greenhorn, etc.

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There are two semantic types of compound words: **non-idiomatic** and **idiomatic**. The meaning of non-idiomatic compounds is easily understood from the meanings of their ICs, e.g.: dining-room, blood-pressure, plum-pudding, skiing suit, raincoat, bookshelf, etc. Idiomatic compounds are those in which the meaning of the unit cannot be understood from the meanings of its ICs, e.g.: buttercup, lady killer, wall-flower, fiddlesticks, bull's-eye, jelly-fish, forget-me-not, hole-in-the wall, etc.

REDUPLICATION

In reduplication compounds are made by doubling a stem (often a pseudo-morpheme). Reduplicative compounds fall into three main subgroups:

- 1) **Reduplicative compounds proper** whose ICs are identical in their form, e.g.: murmur, bye-bye, blah-blah, pooh-pooh, goody-goody, etc.
- 2) **Ablaut (gradational) compounds** whose ICs have different root-vowels, e.g.: riff-raff, dilly-dally, ping-pong, chit-chat, singsong, etc.
- 3) **Rhyme compounds** whose ICs are joined to rhyme, e.g.: willy-nilly, helter-skelter, hoity-toity, namby-pamby, walkie-talkie, etc.

PHRASAL VERBS

Phrasal verbs are combinations of a verb and adverb or a verb and preposition (or verb with both adverb and preposition).

Phrasal verbs may be either non-idiomatic or idiomatic. Non-idiomatic phrasal verbs retain their primary local meaning, e.g. come in, come out, come out of, take off, put down, etc. They may also have a kind of perfective colouring, e.g. add up, eat up, drink up, swallow up, rise up, etc,

In idiomatic compounds meanings cannot be derived from their ICs: bring up - виховувати, bear out - підтверджувати, give in - піддаватися, fall out - сваритися, take in- обманювати etc.

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In modern English fiction one can often come across verbs which denote an action and at the same time modify it in occasional colligations with prepositions or adverbs.

CONVERSION

Conversion is a special type of affixless derivation where a newly-formed word acquires a paradigm and syntactic functions different from those of the original word.

As a matter of fact, all parts of speech can be drawn into the wordbuilding process of conversion to a certain extent. Its derivational patterns are varied, the most widespread among them being $N \rightarrow V$, $V \rightarrow N$, $A \rightarrow V$.

SUBSTANTIVATION

Substantivation is the process in which adjectives (or participles) acquire the paradigm and syntactic functions of nouns. One should distinguish two main types of substantivation, - complete and partial.

Completely substantivized adjectives have the full paradigm of a noun, i.e. singular and plural case forms. They may be associated with various determiners (definite, indefinite and zero articles, demonstrative and possessive pronouns, etc.), e.g. **an official, the official, officials, the officials, official's, officials', this official, our officials**, etc. Complete substantivation is often regarded as a pattern of conversion ($A \rightarrow N$), though it may be argued, since, as a rule, it is the result of ellipsis in an attributive phrase: a conservative politician \rightarrow a conservative, a convertible oar \rightarrow a convertible.

In the case of partial substantivation adjectives do not acquire the full paradigm of a noun. They fall into several structural-semantic groups:

- a) partially substantivized adjectives (PSA) or participles which are singular form though plural in meaning. They are used with the definite article and denote a group or a class of people, e.g. **the rich, the accused, the English the blind, the living, etc.;**
- b) PSA used mostly in the plural and denoting a group or a class of people e-g. **reds, greens, buffs, blues, etc.;**
- c) PSA used mostly in the plural and denoting inanimate things, e.g. **sweets ancients, eatables, etc.;**
- d) PSA presenting properties as substantive abstract notions, e.g. **the good >e evil, the beautiful, the singular, etc.;**
- e) PSA denoting languages, e.g. **English, German, Ukrainian, Italian, etc.**

ADJECTIVIZATION

Premodification of nouns by nouns is highly frequent in Modern English. Noun-adjuncts should not be considered as adjectives produced by means of conversion. Nevertheless, some nouns may undergo the process of adjectivization and function as attributes with idiomatic meanings, e.g.:

coffee-table (n.) → coffee-table (adj.) - "Of a large size and richly illustrated.

PHRASAL NOUNS

Phrasal nouns are built from phrasal verbs as a result of a combined effect of compounding, conversion, and change of stress. They consist of ICs identical to those of the corresponding phrasal verbs, but obtain, as a rule, the single-stress pattern and either solid or hyphenated spelling, e.g.: to break down → a breakdown (a break-down).

SHORTENING

There exist two main ways of shortening: contraction (clipping) and abbreviation (initial shortening). **Contraction** One should distinguish between four types of contraction:

1) Final clipping (apocope), i.e. omission of the final part of the word, e.g.: doc (< doctor), lab (< laboratory), mag (< magazine), prefab (< prefabricated), vegs (< vegetables), Al (< Albert), Nick (< Nickolas), Phil (< Philip), etc.

2) Initial clipping (apheresis), i.e. omission of the fore part of the word, e.g.: phone (< telephone), plane (< aeroplane), story (< history), van (< caravan), drome (< airdrome), Dora (< Theodora), Fred (< Alfred), etc.

3) Medial clipping (syncope), i.e. omission of the middle part of the word, e.g. maths (< mathematics), fancy (< fantasy), specs (< spectacles), binocs (< binoculars), through (< thorough), etc,

4) Mixed clipping, where the fore and the final parts of the word are clipped, e.g.: tec (< detective), flu (< influenza), fridge (< refrigerator), stach (< moustache), Liz (< Elisabeth), etc.

Contraction may be combined with affixation, i.e. by adding the suffixes -y, -ie -o to clippings, e.g.: hanky (< handkerchief), comfy (< comfortable), unkie (< uncle), ammo (< ammunition), etc.

ABBREVIATION

Abbreviations (initial shortenings) are words produced by shortening the ICs of phrasal terms up to their initial letters. Abbreviations are subdivided into 5 groups:

1) **Acronyms** which are read in accordance with the rules of orthoepy as though they were ordinary words, e.g.: UNO /'ju:nou/ (< United Nations Organization), UNESCO /'ju:'neskou/ (< United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization), NATO /'neitou/ (< North Atlantic Treaty Organization), SALT /so:lt/ (< Strategic Arms Limitation Talks), STEM /stem/ (< scanning transmission electron microscope), radar /'reida/ (< radio detecting and ranging), etc.

2) **Alphabetic abbreviations** in which letters get their full alphabetic pronunciation and a full stress, e.g.: USA /'ju:es'ei/ (< the United States of America), B.B.C. /'bi:'bi:'si:/ (< the British Broadcasting Corporation), M.P. /'em'pi:/ (< Member of Parliament), G.I. /'dzi: 'ai/ (< Government Issue), FBI /'efbi:'ai/ (< Federal Bureau of Investigation), etc.

Alphabetic abbreviations are sometimes used for famous persons' names, e.g.: F.D.R. (< Franklin Delano Roosevelt), G.B.S. (< George Bernard Shaw), B.B. (< Brigitte Bardot), etc.

3) **Compound abbreviations** in which the first IC is a letter (letters) and the second a complete word, e.g. A-bomb (< atomic bomb), V-day (< Victory day), Z-hour (< zero hour), L-driver (learner-driver), ACD solution (< acid citrate dextrose solution), etc.

One or both ICs of compound abbreviations may be clipped, e.g.: mid-August, Interpol (< International police), hi-fi (< high fidelity), sci-fic (< science fiction), etc.

4) **Graphic abbreviations** which are used in texts for economy of space. They are pronounced as the corresponding unabbreviated words, e.g.: Mr. (< Mister), m. (<

mile), ft. (< foot/feet), v. (< verb), ltd. (< limited), govt. (< government), usu. (< usually), pp. (< pages), Co (< Company), Capt. (< Captain), X-mas (< Christmas), etc.

5) Latin abbreviations which sometimes are not read as Latin words but as separate letters or are substituted by their English equivalents, e.g.: i.e. /ai 'i:/ - that is; a.m. /ei 'em'/ - before midday, in the morning, e.g. - for example, Id. - in the same place, cf. - compare, etc.

BACK-FORMATION (REVERSION)

Back-formation is the derivation of new words (mostly verbs) by means of subtracting a suffix or other element resembling it: butle < butler, combust < combustion, greed < greedy, lase < laser, luminisce < luminiscent, sculpt < sculptor, etc.

BLENDING

Blending is the formation of new lexical units by means of merging fragments of words into one new word, or combining the elements of one word with a notional word, e.g.: smog (smoke + fog), radiotrician (radio + electrician), drunch (drinks + lunch), cinemagnate (cinema + magnate), etc.

MINOR TYPES OF WORD-FORMATION CHANGE OF STRESS

Several nouns and verbs of Romanic origin have a distinctive stress pattern. Such nouns, as a rule, are forestressed, and verbs have a stress on the second syllable, e.g.: 'accent (n.) :: ac'cent (v.), :: 'contest (n.) :: con'test (v.), 'record (n.) :: re'cord (n.), 'attribute (n.):: at'tribute (v.), etc.

The same distinctive stress pattern is observed in some pairs of adjectives and verbs, e.g.: 'absent (a.):: ab'sent (v), 'abstract (a.):: ab'stract (v.), 'frequent (a.) :: fre'quent (v.), etc.

SOUND INTERCHANGE (GRADATION)

Words belonging to different parts of speech may be differentiated due to the sound interchange in the root, e.g.: food (n.) :: feed (v.), gold (n.):: gild (v.), strong (a.):: strength (n.), etc.

SOUND IMITATION (ONOMATOPOEIA)

Sound-imitative (onomatopoeia) words are made by imitating sounds produced by living beings and inanimate objects, e.g.: babble, bang, buzz, crash, giggle, hiss, moo, purr, rustle, etc.

LEXICALIZATION OF THE PLURAL OF NOUNS

There are cases when the grammatical form of the plural of nouns becomes isolated from the paradigm and acquires a new lexical meaning. This leads to the appearance of new lexical units, of.: look "погляд":: looks "зовнішність".

SEMASIOLOGY

LEXICAL MEANING AND SEMANTIC STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH WORDS

Semasiology is the branch of linguistics, which studies,; the meaning (semantics) of linguistic units, first of all, that of words and word equivalents.

Lexical meaning reflects the concept expressed by the given word.

The interrelation between the structural pattern of the word and its lexical meaning is called, motivation. There are three, main types of motivation: phonetical motivation, morphological motivation, and semantic motivation,

Phonetical motivation is observed, in words whose sound-clusters imitate the sounds they signify, e.g. boom, cuckoo, hiss, titter, whisper, murmur, etc.

Morphological motivation is apparent in derived words and nonidiomatic compounds due to their word-formation pattern, e.g. Worker (work + er) = "one who works"; rewrite (re + write) = "write again or anew"; shoemaker (shoe+ make + er) = "one who makes shoes"; bathroom (bath + room) + "room with a bath", etc.

Semantic motivation is "the relationship between the direct and the transferred meaning of the word, e.g. a mother tongue, a summit meeting, the mouth of a river, a green beginner, etc.

The mistaken motivation due to the fancied analogy of borrowings with well-known native words is called **folk (false) etymology**. For instance, a crayfish has nothing in common with fish. It originated from O.F. crevisse (cf. Креветка).

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One should distinguish three main types of the lexical meaning of words:

1. **Nominative meaning, which** is the direct meaning of the word, immediately referring to objects in extralinguistic reality. The nominative meaning includes denotational and connotational components. **Denotation** is the expression of the direct meaning proper of the word without any emotive evaluation or stylistic colouring, e.g. **father, friend, girl, dog, begin, great, love**. **Connotation** is the supplementary expressive meaning presented either by **emotive charge** (e.g. **girlie, doggy, tremendous, worship, sheepish**) or by **stylistic reference** (cf. girl (neutral denotation) :: **maiden** (poet.) :: **lass** (folk.) :: **chic** (slang); **father** (neutr.) :: **parent** (book.) :: **dad** (col.) :: **governor** (slang); **friend** (neutr.) :: **chum** (col.); **begin** (neutr.) :: **commence** (book.) :: **great** /pleasure/ (neutr.) :: **terrific** /pleasure/ (col.).

2. **Syntactically conditioned meaning** which manifests itself in different colligations. Cf. ask smth. :: ask smb. about (after, for) smth. :: ask for smb. :: ask for smth. :: ask smb. to smth.; **consist** in smth. :: **consist** of smth. :: consist with smth.

3. **Phraseologically bound meaning** which is idiomatic and manifests itself only in certain phraseological units, e.g. **tall** story, buy smth. for a **song**, **catch** a cold, a great gun etc.

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There are three main semantic structures of words: monosemy, polysemy, and semantic diffusion.

Monosemy is the existence within one word of only one meaning. Monosemantic words are comparatively few in number. They are mainly scientific terms, e.g. **biochemistry, cybernetics, molecule, radar, tungsten, etc.**

Polysemy is the existence within one word of several connected meanings. One of them is the main (central) meaning, whereas the rest are associated (marginal) meanings. Associated meanings of the word become evident in certain lexical and grammatical contexts. Polysemantic words constitute the bulk of the English vocabulary. E.g. **face** (n.) 1. the front of the head **/the main meaning/**. 2. the expression of the countenance. 3. the main or front surface. 4. the surface that is marked, as of a clock. 5. appearance; outward aspect. 6. Dignity; self-respect **/associated meanings/** //After Webster's New World Dictionary/.

Semantic diffusion is observed in words with a very wide conceptual volume. Such words denote, in fact, one concept, but can name an indefinitely large number of objects (referents). For instance, the word **thing** denotes "any object of our thought". Hence it can name various inanimate objects, living beings, facts, affairs, problems, possessions, pieces of writing, composition, etc.

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CHANGE OF MEANING

If the polysemantic structure of the word is subjected to a diachronic semantic analysis, it becomes clear that the word, as a rule, retains its original meaning, but at the same time acquires several new ones.

Hence one should distinguish the following meanings comprising the set treated diachronically:

I. The direct meaning, subdivided into:

- a) **the primary (etymological) meaning**, e.g. **wall** (n.) < L. vallum - rampart", "fortification";
- b) **the derived meaning: wall** - "upright structure, forming part of a room or building".

II. The secondary meaning, subdivided into:

- a) **the secondary denotative meaning: wall** - "inside surface of cavity or vessel", e.g. **walls** of the heart; reactor **wall**;
- b) **the figurative meaning**, e.g. **wall** of partition /between persons/; **wall** of fire; **wall** of hostility.

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Semantic changes in denotation may lead to:

1) the extension (generalization) of meaning, e.g. barn n. OE *bern* - "a place for storing barley" → "a covered building for storing grain, hay, etc."

2) the narrowing (specialization) of meaning, e.g. voyage n. OF *vay-age* - "any trip or journey" → "a journey by sea or water".

Semantic changes in connotation may result in:

1) the pejorative development of meaning (degradation), e.g. knave n. OE *cnafa* - "a boy", "a male servant" → "a tricky rascal," "a rogue".

2) the ameliorative development of meaning (elevation), e.g. fame n. OF *fame* - "common talk", "rumour" → "reputation, esp. for good".

TRANSFERENCE OF NAMES RESULTING FROM TROPES

The word may be transferred from one referent onto another thus acquiring a new meaning. This type of transference results from tropes: metaphor, simile, metonymy, and some others.

One should distinguish between linguistic tropes (vocabulary units studied in lexicology) and contextual poetic tropes used as stylistic devices and dealt with in stylistics.

Linguistic metaphor is associating two referents, which resemble each other. Metaphors may be based on various types of similarity, for example, similarity of shape, function, position, colour, temperature, etc. E.g. **the teeth of a saw, the key to a test, the foot of a mountain, cold reason, black ingratitude, to catch an idea, etc.**

Words denoting animals and their actions may be used metaphorically to denote human qualities. Such cases belong to **zoosemy**, e.g. **a fox** ("a crafty person), **an ass** ("a stupid person"), **to wolf** ("to eat greedily"), etc.

Metaphoric epithets, denoting human qualities, are often applied to inanimate objects: **cruel heat, a sorrowful bush, a sullen sky, etc.**

Smile, which is closely related to metaphor, is a comparison of two referents. Contextual poetic similes (comparative constructions) make up one of the subjects of stylistics. Lexicology deals with two main types of linguistic similes: 1) **stable idiomatic similes**, for instance, /as/ **merry as a cricket**, /as/ **thin as a pole, like a bolt from the blue**, and 2) **comparative nominals**. Collocations with comparative nominals, the latter functioning as **comparative epithets**, are easily transformed into comparative constructions: **the catlike creature** → the creature is like a cat; **the inky water** → the water is like ink; his Quixotish behaviour → his behaviour is like that of Quixot; **an apple-cheeked girl** → the girl with cheeks like apples, etc.

Linguistic metonymy is associating two referents, which are in some way, or other connected in reality. The simplest case of metonymy is **synecdoche**, -the name of a part is applied to the whole (L. pars pro toto) or vice versa, (L. totum pro parte), e.g. a fleet of twenty **sail**; to earn one's **bread**; I don't want to provoke the **police** (a single policeman is meant), etc.

Other examples of metonymy include: the symbol for the thing signified (from **the cradle** to **the grave**); the instrument for the agent (the pen is stronger than the sword); the container for the thing contained (**the kettle** is boiling); the material for the thing made (a **copper**, a glass); the name of a scientist (an author, an inventor, etc.) for physical units, inventions, etc. (**ohm**, **volt**, **watt**, **diesel**, a **mauser**, a **sandwich**); the geographical name for the things produced there (**astrakhan**, **china**, **champagne**, **madeira**, jeans) the proper name for a common one (**Don Juan**, a **Quixot**, a **hooligan**), and many other transfers.

In metonymic (transferred) epithets certain properties of the whole are ascribed to the part, e.g. **clever fingers** (i.e. the person is clever); **threatening** eyes (it is the person who is threatening), etc.

SEMANTIC GROUPS OF WORDS. SEMANTIC RELATIONS IN PARADIGMATICS. SYNONYMS

Synonyms are words belonging to the same part of speech, differing in sound form, and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical (**similar**) denotational meanings.

There are two main types of synonyms:

- 1) **ideographic synonyms** which differ in shades of meaning, e.g. shake - to tremble - to shiver - to shudder - to quiver - to quake; fast - rapid swift - quick, etc.
- 2) **stylistic synonyms** which differ in stylistic characteristics e.g. father -parent-dad (daddy) - papa - governor; to eat - to partake - to wolf - to lay in, j etc.

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

Absolute synonyms, quite alike in their meanings and stylistic colouring, j and, therefore, interchangeable in all contexts, are very rare, e.g. fatherland -motherland - homeland; word-building - word-formation; compounding -composition.

Each group of synonyms comprises a **synonymic dominant** - the unit possessing the most general meaning of the kind:

to shine :: to flash - to blaze - to gleam - to glisten - to sparkle - to glitter - to shimmer - to glimmer.

EUPHEMISMS

More "decent" synonymic substitutes used instead of indecent, impolite or too direct words are called **euphemisms**.

Euphemisms may have various causes: superstition (devil → **deuce, dickens**), social and moral taboos (to copulate → **to make love, make it**), the need to express something in a more delicate, softened way (to die → **to decease**, drunk - **mellow**, stupid - **unwise**, to lie → **to distort the facts**), etc.

ANTONYMS

Words that have directly opposite meanings are called **antonyms**. Antonyms fall into two main groups:

1) **Root antonyms** (those which are of different roots), e.g. long :: short, quickly :: slowly, up :: down, love :: hatred, to start:: to finish, etc.

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

Polysemantic words usually have antonyms for each of their lexico-semantic variants: a **dull** knife :: a **sharp** knife; a **dull boy** :: **bright** boy; a dull novel:: a **thrilling** novels, etc.

HOMONYMS

Words identical in form but quite different in their meaning and distribution are called **homonyms**.

The traditional formal classification of homonyms is as follows:

I. Absolute homonyms which are identical both in sound and spelling, e.g. **ball** (м'яч) :: **ball** (бал); **bore** (свердли́ти) :: **bore** (нудна людина); **hail** (град):: **hail** (окликати)

II. Partial homonyms subdivided into:

1) **Homographs** which are identical in spelling but different in sound, e.g. bow /bou/ (лук) :: bow /bau/ (ніс корабля); **lead** /led/ (свинець) :: **lead** /li:d/ (вести); **polish** /polif/ (глянсувати) :: **Polish** /'roulif/ (польський), etc.

2) **Homophones** which are identical in sound but different in spelling, e.g. key (ключ) :: **quay** (набережна); **fir** (ялина) :: fir (хутро); sow (сіяти) :: sew (шити), etc.

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

1) **Lexical homonyms** which belong to the same part of speech, e.g. **club** n. (клуб) :: **club** n. (кыйок); **bear** v. (нести) :: **bear** v. (терпіти); **plane** n. (літак):: **plain** n. (рівнина):: **light** a. (легкий):: **light** a. (світлий), etc.

2) **Grammatical homonyms** which belong to different parts of speech, e.g. **horse** n. (кінь) :: **hoarse** a. (хрипкий); **row** v. (гребти) :: **row** n. (ряд); **weather** n. (погода):: **whether** conj. (чи), etc.

3) **Homofoms** which are identical only in some of their paradigm constituents, e.g. **bore** n. :: **bore** (Past Ind. of bear); **scent** n. :: **sent** (Past Ind. And p.p. of send); **seize** v.:: /he/ **sees** (Pr. Ind., 3d p. sing, of see), etc.

From the viewpoint of their origin, homonyms are divided into etymological and historical.

Etymological homonyms are words of different origin. Their formal coincidence is the result of various factors: phonetical changes in native and borrowed words, changes in spelling, etc.

E.g. OF. *bas* > M.E. *base* I (підлий)

L. *basis* > OE. *base* > M.E. *base* II (основа, підвалина)

OE. *mal* > M.E. *mole* I (родимка)

OE *mol* > Mid.E. *molle* > M.E. *mole* II (кріт)

Historical homonyms are those, which result from **disintegration (split)** of **polysemy**. At present there is not any connection between their meanings, though they can be traced back to the same etymological source, e.g. **nail** (ніготь) :: **nail** (цвях) < OE **naeg(e)l**; **beam** (промінь) :: **beam** (балка, бантина) < OE **beam**.

PARONYMS

Paronyms are words resembling each other in form, but different in meaning and usage, e.g. **ingenious** ("clever") :: **ingenuous** ("frank", "artless"). Paronyms are often mistakenly interchanged.

SEMANTIC RELATIONS IN PARADIGMATICS.

SEMANTIC FIELDS. HYPONYMY

Lexical units may be classified according to the concepts underlying their meaning. Sectors of vocabulary which comprise words characterised by a common concept as the common denominator of their meaning are called **semantic (conceptual) fields**. For example, the words **enjoyment, gaiety, happiness, joy, passion, sorrow**, etc. belong to the semantic field of emotions. This field includes not only nouns, but also verbs (to **love, to hate, to enjoy**, etc.), such adjectives as **merry, sorrowful, passionate, etc.**

Another semantic classification of words is based on paradigmatic hyponymic relations. **Hyponymy** is a semantic relationship of inclusion: the meanings of the names of species (**hyponyms**). e.g. **bluebell, daisy, forget-me-not, rose, tulip**, etc. are included in the meaning of **flower** which functions as the generic term (**the hyperonym**).

FUNCTIONAL SEMANTIC CLASSES

Side by side with classifying words into lexico-grammatical classes known as parts of speech, modern scholars make attempts to work out the classification of words into functional semantic classes: substantives, predicatives, determiners, etc. The origin of words fulfilling the same function and constituting a certain functional semantic field can be traced back to different parts of speech. Very often such words change their primary direct meaning.

The classification of words into functional semantic classes is at the initial stage of elaboration. Therefore, in this manual it is limited to considering two functional semantic classes which can be clearly and easily distinguished: those of qualifiers and responsivenesses.

Qualifiers

The functional semantic class of qualifiers comprises words with the function of qualifying properties, states and actions as to the degree of their manifestation.

Qualifiers fall into 3 subclasses: **intensifiers** (denoting high degree, e.g. **very, too, highly, extremely**, etc.); **moderators** (denoting moderate degree, e.g. **almost, rather, enough, kind of**, etc.); **limiters** (denoting low degree, e.g. **a little, a bit, faintly, hardly**, etc.).

Responsives

The categorical features of responsives are as follows: their non-nominating character, the communicative function of response to the interlocutor's utterance or a certain situation, invariability and semantic intonational arrangement.

The bulk of the functional semantic class of responsives is constituted by interjections (ah!, oh!, alas! etc.). However, this class includes a lot of words which descended from other parts of speech (my!, boy!, hell!, swell!, come!, etc.).

ENGLISH PHRASEOLOGY

CLASSIFICATION OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS

Phraseological units are stable word-groups characterized by a completely or partially transferred meaning.

There exist several different classifications of phraseological units based on different principles.

According to the classification based on the semantic principle English phraseological units fall into the following classes:

1. Fusions - completely non-motivated idiomatic word-groups, e.g. **to show the white feather** ("to betray one's cowardice"), **to pull smb.'s leg** ("to deceive smb."), **to bell the cat** ("to take a risk for the good of others"), **red tape** ("bureaucratic delays"), **a white elephant** ("a present one can't get rid of"); **half seas over** ("drunk"), **once in a blue moon** ("hardly at all" or "hardly ever"), etc.

2. Half-fusions - stable word-groups in which the leading component is literal, while the rest of the group is idiomatically fused, e.g. **to rain cats and dogs** ("to rain heavily"), **to talk through one's hat** ("to talk foolishly"), **to work double**

tides ("to work very hard"), **to buy smth. for a song** ("to buy smth. very cheaply"), **to pay through the nose** ("to pay unreasonably much"), etc.

3. **Unities** - metaphorically motivated idioms, e.g. **to make a mountain out of a molehill** ("to become excited about trifles"), **to play second fiddle** ("to have a lower or less important position"), **to wash one's dirty linen in public** ("to tell people about one's hidden sins and faults"), **a snake in the grass** ("a person with harmful intentions"; "a hidden enemy"), etc.

4. **Half-unities** - binary word-groups in which one of the components is literal, while the other is phraseologically bound (the so-termed phrasemes), e.g. **black frost** ("frost without ice or snow"), **small talk** ("polite talk about unimportant things"), **a tall story** ("a lie"). **Dutch courage** ("courage of a drunk"), **husband's tea** ("very weak tea"), **to talk turkey** ("to talk plainly and honestly about practical matters"), etc.

5. **Phraseological collocations** (standardized phrases) - word-groups with the components whose combinative power (valency) is strictly limited, e.g. **to make friends** (but not * to do friends or * to make comrades), **to bear a grudge**, **to break silence**, **to make sure**, **to take into account**, **unconditional surrender**, **ways and means**, **now and then**, etc.

6. **Phraseological expressions** - proverbs, sayings and aphoristic familiar quotations, e.g. **Birds of a feather flock together** (=Рибак рибака пізнає здалека); still water runs deep (= Тиха вода греблю рве); No **pains no gains** (= Без труда нема плода); **Something is rotten in the state of Denmark** (= Не все гаразд у Датському королівстві, тобто "щось не гаразд, справи йдуть не так, як треба"); **Brevity is the soul of wit** (Стислість - основа дотепності) (W. Shakespeare); **Fools rush in where angels fear to tread** (= Дурням закон не писаний) (A. Pope), etc.

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Phraseological units belonging to Classes 1-5 may be classified in accordance with their structure and their ability to perform the same syntactical functions as parts of

speech. The classification based on the structural principles distinguishes phraseological units into the following classes:

1. **Verbal**, e.g. to ride the high horse, to lose one's head, to drop a brick, to take the bull by the horns, to take a fancy, etc.
2. **Substantive**, e.g. a grass widow, a drop in the bucket, a bull in a china shop, the apple of discord, a maiden speech, etc.
3. **Adjectival**, e.g. high and mighty, high and dry; fair and square, as ; dead as a door nail, as busy as a bee, etc.
4. **Adverbial**, e.g. from head to foot, by hook or by crook, by a long chalk, as the crow flies, like a shot, in a trice, etc.
5. **Interjectional**, e.g. good heavens!, sakes alive!, by George!, my eye!, holy smoke!, goodness gracious!

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Among adjectival, adverbial and verbal phraseological units one can easily discern **stable idiomatic similes** of two semantic types: **figures of likeness and degree** (as alike as peas in a pod, sober as a judge, to grin like a Cheshire cat, as the crow flies, more praise than pudding, better than nothing, etc.) and **figures of intensification** (phraseological intensifiers, pseudo-similes), e.g. as I (like) anything, as (like) hell, as a basket of chips, like sixty, etc.

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Phraseological units differ in their functions in the acts of communication and therefore fall into four classes:

1. **Nominative** phraseological units of various patterns which correlate with words belonging to different parts of speech, e.g. **a dark horse, ships that pass in the night, quick on the trigger, to get a bee in one's bonnet, at the back of one's mind, when pigs fly, etc.**
2. **Communicative** phraseological units represented by proverbs and sayings, e.g. **the pot cannot call the kettle black; the race is got by running; no joy without alloy; all one's geese are swans, etc.**

3. Nominative-communicative phraseological units which include nominative verbal idioms that can be transformed into a sentence (communicative) structure when the verb is used in the Passive Voice, e.g. **to put the cart before the horse - the cart was put before the horse; to catch smb. with chaff - smb. was caught with chaff; to break the ice - the ice is broken, etc.**

4. Pragmatic phraseological units (interjectional idioms and response phrases; e.g. **My aunt!; Bless your heart!; By ginger!; Does your mother know you're out?; The answer's a lemon, etc.**

SEMANTIC RELATIONS IN PHRASEOLOGY

Many phraseological units are polysemantic. Their polysemantic structure develops mostly due to further metaphoric transference of their meaning.

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Like words phraseological units can be related as **synonyms**, e.g. **to back the wrong horse - to hunt the wrong hare - to get the boot on the wrong foot; before the ink is dry - in a twinkling of an eye - before one can say Jack Robinson; - like a shot - in half a trice**, etc. Phraseological synonyms often belong to different stylistic layers.

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

Occasional phraseological variants may be formed due to authors' actualizing the potential (literary) meanings of their components. Cf. **A skeleton in the family cupboard** :: We were peeping into the family cupboard and having a look at the good old skeleton (P.G. Wodehouse).

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Phraseological **antonyms** are of two main types: they may either differ in a single component (to do one's **best** - to do one's **worst; up to date** - **out of date**; to look

black - to look **bright**, etc.) or have different sets of components (**to draw the first breath** - **to breathe one's last**; **to take a circuit** - **to make a bee-line**; **to talk nineteen to the dozen** - **to keep mum**. etc.).

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Such phraseological units as **to hang by one's eyebrows** 1 "висіти, триматися на волосинці", "бути в критичному становищі" and **to hand by one's eyebrows** 2 "бути настирливим, упертим; лізти на рожен" can be regarded as **homonyms**. Phraseological homonyms are very rare and should not be confused with numerous homophrases, i.e. phrases identical in form but differing in meaning that belong to different classes (free word-groups, phrasal terms and phraseological units including phraseological professionalisms), e.g.:

To ring a bell 1 "дзвонити у дзвін" (free word-group) :: to ring a bell 2 "нагадувати", "наводити на думку" (phraseological unit); **peeping Tom** 1 "надмірно цікава людина" (phraseological unit) :: **peeping Tom** 2 а) "розвідувальний літак", б) "розвідувальна РЛС", с) "аерофотоапарат" (phraseological professionalisms); **blue bottle** 1 "синя пляшка" (free word-group) :: **blue bottle** 2 а) бот. "волошка синя"; б) ент. "муха синя"; в) зоол. "фізалія" (biological terms) :: **blue bottle** 3 "поліцай" (phraseological unit).

STYLISTIC DIFFERENTIATION OF ENGLISH WORDS

Linguostylistics discerns the following lexico-stylistic layers of the English vocabulary:

1. Stylistically neutral words
2. Literary-bookish words
3. Colloquial words

Stylistically neutral layer, which is the living core of the vocabulary, consists of words mostly of native origin though it also comprises fully assimilated borrowings. Such words are devoid of any emotive colouring and are used in their denotative meaning, e.g. man, sky, table, street, go, move, speak, easy, long, often,

never, etc. In groups of synonyms neutral words fulfill the function of the synonymic dominant.

LITERARY-BOOKISH WORDS

Literary-bookish words belong to the formal style. The so-termed **learned words** are used in descriptive passages of fiction, scientific texts, radio and television announcements, official talks and documents, business correspondence, etc. As a rule, these words are mostly of foreign origin and have poly-morphemic structure, e.g. **solitude, fascination, cordial, paternal, divergent, commence, assist, comprise, endeavour, exclude, heterogeneous, miscellaneous, hereby, thereby, herewith, wherein**, etc.

Terms are words or nominal groups which convey specialized concepts used in science, technology, art, etc., e.g. **gerontology, phoneme, radar, knee-joint, common denominator, periodic table, still life, choreography**, etc.

Barbarisms are words or expressions borrowed without (or almost without) any change in form and not accepted by native speakers as current in the language, e.g. **ad libitum, qui pro quo, entre nous, bon mot, table d'hote, coup d'Etat**, etc.

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

Archaisms are obsolete names for existing things, actions, phenomena, etc. All of them can be replaced by neutral synonyms, e.g. **hark** ("listen"), **deem** ("think"), **glee** ("joy"), **aught** ("anything"), **nigh** ("near"). **Grammatical archaisms** represent obsolete grammatical forms: **thou, thee, thy, thine; ye; he goeth, thou knowest**, etc. Among archaic words one should distinguish **historical words** that denote no longer existing objects, e.g. **yeoman, fletcher, gleeman, galleon, visor, arbalest**, etc. Historical words have no neutral synonyms in Modern English.

Neologisms are words and word-groups that denote new concepts, e.g. **teledish** n. ("a dish-shaped aerial for receiving satellite television transmissions"); **roam-a-**

phone n. ("a portable telephone"); **graviphoton** n. ("a hypothetical particle"); **Geiger counter** n. ("a device for detecting radioactivity"); **magalog** n. ("a large magazine-format catalogue advertising mailorder goods"), **NIC** n. ("newly-industrializing country"), etc.

Among neologisms one can find the so-termed **occasional words** (or **nonce-words**) coined for a particular situation or context and aimed at a certain stylistic effect, e.g.

"A what?" "**Moneyholic**. A word I've just made up to describe someone with an uncontrollable addiction to money" (D. Francis).

Several nonce-words coined by famous English authors have penetrated to the Standard English vocabulary and are registered in dictionaries, e.g. **Lilliputian** (J. Swift), **snob** (W.M. Thackeray), **to galumph**, **to chortle** (L. Carrol).

One should not confuse occasional words with **potential words** based on productive word-formation patterns and devoid of any stylistic colouring. Typical cases of potential word-formation are composite numerals (**thirty-five**, **four hundred and sixteen**), numerous adjectives with the semi-suffix -like (**moth-like**, **soldier-like**) and some other widely-distributed patterns. Being easily coined and understood, potential words are not registered in dictionaries.

COLLOQUIAL WORDS

Colloquial words are characteristic of the informal style of spoken English.

One should distinguish between literary (standard) colloquial words as units of Standard English and non-literary colloquialisms that belong to sub-standard English vocabulary.

Literary colloquial words are used in everyday conversations both by cultivated and uneducated people and are also met in written literary texts.

As for their etymology and syllabic structure, literary colloquial words are closer to neutral words than to literary-bookish units, but, as a rule, have stronger emotional colouring. They are formed on standard word-formative patterns, some of them (for instance, contraction, phrasal verbs and nouns, substantivation) being particularly

frequent: **granny, birdie, latish, touchy, perm, disco, baby-sit, chopper, put up, do away, turn in, let-down, make-up, hand-in-glove, daily (n.), constitutional (n.), etc.**

The informal style of spoken English is also characterized by extensive use of occasional and potential words (see Neologisms above), qualifiers, responses, pragmatic phraseological units, evaluative attributes and predicatives, e.g. **Reaganomics, Oscarish, awfully glad, terribly sweet, dead right, you bet, there you are, what next?, it's no go, smart kid, lousy weather, too New-York**, etc. Several classes of nomination are exclusively colloquial: semantically diffused words (**thing, stuff, affair**, etc.; see Part 4), the so-termed ersatz-words (**thingummy, whatsename, whatchamacallit**, etc.), syntagmatic doublets (**you boys, Bobby boy, darling dear**, etc.).

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

Slang comprises highly informal words not accepted for dignified use. Such words are expressive sub-standard substitutes for current words of standard vocabulary. As a rule, their meanings are based on metaphor and have a jocular or ironic colouring, e.g. **attic** ("head"), **beans** ("money"), **governor** ("father"), **saucers** ("eyes"), **soaked** ("drunk"), **to leg** /it/ ("to walk"), **to rag** ("to tease"), etc. Slang words are easily understood by all native speakers, because they are not specific for any social or professional group (cf. with Ukrainian просторіччя, e.g. баньки /"очі"/, макітра /"голова"/, поцупити /"вкрасти"/ etc.). Therefore, such terms as "army slang", "school slang", "football slang", "sea slang" and the like are rather inaccurate.

Informal words peculiar for a certain social or professional group should be considered as **jargonisms**. Such words are usually motivated and, like slang words, have metaphoric character, e.g. **bird** ("rocket", "spacecraft"), **garment** ("pressure space suit") /astronauts' jargon/; **to grab** ("to make an impression on smb.")

/newspaper jargon/; **Mae West** ("pneumatic vest") /military jargon/; **grass, tea, weed** ("narcotic") /drug addicts' jargon/, etc.

Among social jargons **cant or argot** (thieves' jargon) stands somewhat apart. Cant (argot) words are non-motivated and have special "agreed-upon", secretive meanings, e.g. **book** ("life sentence"), **spiv** ("black-marketeer"), **splosh** ("money"), **to rap** ('to kill"), etc.

Professionalisms are sub-standard colloquial words used by people of a definite trade or profession. Such words are informal substitutes for corresponding terms, e.g. **nuke** ("nuclear"), **identikit** ("photorobot"), **Hi-Fi** ("high fidelity"), **anchors** ("brakes"), **smash-up** ("accident"), **ack-ack gun** ("antiaircraft gun"), and the like.

Vulgarisms include: a/ expletives and swear words of abusive character, like **damn, goddam, bloody**, etc.; b/ obscene (or taboo, four-letter) words which are highly indecent.

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Phraseological units, like words, belong to stylistically neutral, literary-bookish and colloquial layers.

In most cases, phraseological collocations (standardized phrases) are **stylistically neutral: to make friends, to make haste; to render a service, to go to bed, all of a sudden, on no account, etc.**

Among literary-bookish phraseological units one can find **barbarisms** (**ab ovo** (Lat), **ad verbum** (Lat), **a la lettre** (Fr.), **a propos** (Fr.), etc.); **archaic and poetic units** (**forever and aye, a heart of oak, the apple of discord, at fortune's alms, to bring to mould, to fall from grace, etc.**); **neologisms** (**Abominable Snowman, a back seat driver, to put on the back burner, straight from central casting, etc.**).

A great number of phraseological units are **literary colloquial** e.g. **bag and baggage, alive and kicking, as the crow flies, like water off duck's back; to be at sixes and sevens; to be on the carpet, etc.**

Non-literary (sub-standard) colloquial phraseological units are subdivided into:

a) **slang units**, e.g. **to have a crush on smb.**, **to get (to go) bananas**, **to bat (to shoot) the breeze**, **to buy the farm**, **to get high**, **like the clappers**, etc.

b) **jargonisms**, e.g. **to put to bed** (jur.); **to break it up** (theatre), **to lay an egg (a bomb)** (theatr.); **to be on the blink** (eng.); **to sell one's back** (sport); **rough stuff** (sport.); **to pump iron** (sport); **to go into the drunk** (av.), etc.

c) **professionalisms**, e.g. **to hit the ground** (av.); **to ride the beam** (av.); **to fall into a caldron** (mil.); **to ride a desk** (mil.); **to hit the headlines** (journ.), etc.;

d) **vulgarisms**, e.g. **to hand smb. crap**; **to have a boob**, **to fress freebee**, etc.

DIALECTS AND VARIANTS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Linguists distinguish local dialects and variants of English. In the British Isles there exist five main groups of **local dialects**: Northern, Western, Midland, Eastern, and Southern. These dialects, used as means of oral communication, are peculiar to comparatively small localities. They are marked by some deviations mostly in pronunciation and vocabulary, but have no normalized literary form.

One of the best known Southern dialects is Cockney, the regional dialect of London.

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

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

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