АНГЛІЙСЬКА МОВА

Методичні вказівки

до вивчення лексикології

для студентів-референтів 3-го курсу ДДМА

Призначені для студентів-референтів 3-го курсу. Матеріал подано в трьох розділах: теоретичний матеріал, практичні завдання на закріплення теоретичного матеріалу, додатковий матеріал до самостійного опрацювання.

CONTENTS

1 FUNDAMENTALS

1.1 Introduction

Lexicology is composed of two Greek morphemes: lexis – word, phrase; logos – learning. It is a science of a word. Lexicology has its own aids and methods. The subject matter of lexicology is a word.

Science lexicology is the description of characteristic peculiarities in the vocabulary of a given language. We distinguish synchronic (descriptive) and diachronic (historic) lexicology.

Synchronic lexicology is the study of the vocabulary at given stage of its development.

Diachronic lexicology is the evolution of any vocabulary. We can distinguish such branches of lexicology:

1. Semasiology – is a branch of lexicology dealing with the meaning of words.

2. Onomasiology – is the study of means and ways of naming the elements of reality.

3. Etymology deals with the origin and history of words.

4. Lexicography – is the theory and practice compelling dictionaries.

Lexicology and Phonetics

e.g. affect – effect 'object – object Stresses also influence the meaning of the words: e.g. blue bottle; bluebottle – василек

Lexicology and Grammar

The meaning of the word is signaled by the grammar contest: e.g. to mean + Infinitive – to intend to mean + Gerund – to signify to go: to be going – Continuous Tense to be going (Participle I) to be gone (Participle II)

1.2 Aspects of the Word

Aspects of the Word:
1. Sound-form
2. Morphological structure.
3. Syntactic functions
4. Different meanings.
The Characteristic Features of the Word.
1. Indivisibility:
1) a baby 2) afraid
   a tree   asleep

In the first case we can insert other words between these elements, we can separate them. In the second we can't insert other words. This prefix isn't free.

2) Positional mobility and uninterruptability: e.g. The agents sent Roger.

It's a sequence of nine morphemes which occur in order to explain one another. Some groups behave like blocks. We can't say: s-agent – the .

3) Semantic integrity.

4) Reproducibility.

5) Words may be used as a sentence.

6) We may regard words to the definite part of speech.

Each notion is characterized by its scope and content. The scope of the notion is determined by the objects it refers to. The content of the notion is made up of all the features that distinguish it from other notions.

e.g. tree: scope – wider than willow, content – willow is richer than tree. Notion is not the same as word. The words may be motivated and not motivated.

Three types of motivation:

- phonetic: when there is a certain similarity between the sounds that make up the word and those referred to by the sense:

e.g. cuckoo, to giggle, to gurgle.

- morphological: when the meaning of the words is motivated by affix: e.g. ex-wife, ex-president.

- semantic: it's based on the coexistence of direct and figurative meaning of the same word: e.g. foot of a mountain.

Non motivated words:

When the connection between the meaning of the word and its form is conventional, there is no reason for word to have particular phonetic and morphological composition: e.g. to earn in O.E. (to harvest), awake – I – am – awaken – by – my friend.

1.3 Morpheme Structure. Word-formation

Morpheme is the smallest meaningful language unit. The particular features of morpheme are:

1. Morpheme is a double-sided language unit. It has external (sound) and internal (meaning) sides: e.g. house – будинок

teacher – doer of the action.

2. Morpheme is indivisible into smaller meaning units.

The Distinctions between Morphemes and Words

Unlike words morpheme is not autonomous. Morphemes occur in speech only as constitutional part of the word, but word may consist of a single morpheme. Word is a minimum free form. Morpheme may be bound or free. Morpheme does not possess the syntactical independence and lexical-grammatical reference. Morpheme can't be a part of speech. According to the form of expression morphemes may be:

- positive;

- zero.

Positive morpheme has a positive explicit form of expression: e.g. books – plural form of the noun, changed – Past Indefinite form. Zero morpheme conveys a certain grammatical meaning but has no positive explicit form of expression. We can single out zero morpheme only in impositions: book – books.

Morpheme may be free, semi-bound, bound.

Free morpheme can be used separately without other morphemes. It has lexical meaning. Free morpheme can be found among roots: e.g. boy, house. Bound morpheme doesn't coincide with separate word-forms: e.g. kindness.

Semi-bound morpheme is a root morpheme functioning as a derivational morpheme and may be used as a separate word: e.g. well-, self-, ill-, half-. According to the position all morphemes are -root, -stem, -affixes (prefixes, suffixes, infixes).

According to their function and meaning morphemes may be:

- derivational;

- functional.

The *root* is a lexical nucleus of the word, it has general and abstract lexical meaning. Root is a common element of words without a word family, e.g. hand – handy, handball, handful, handsome, handbag.

The *stem* is defined as a part of the word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm: e.g. to ask – asks, asked, asking.

There are 3 structural types of the stems:

1. Single – is semantically non-motivated. It has one single root morpheme: e.g. horrible, motion.

2. Derived stems are built on stems of different structures through which they are motivated. Derived stems are understood on the basis of the derivative relations between their constituent parts and correlated stems: e.g. girlish – girl

3. Compounds – is made up of 2 constituent parts. Both of them are stems. e.g. pen-holder – der. S

Affixes are morphemes that are always used with a root and not separately.

Suffix is a derivational morpheme following the stem and forming a new derivative in different semantic groups: e.g. heart – heartless friend – friendship

Prefix is a derivative morpheme standing before the root and modifying meaning: e.g. kind — unkind

Infix is an affix placed within the word: e.g. stand

This type is non-productive.

Semi-affixes may be: semi-prefixes and semi-suffixes:

e.g. mini – mini-crises

    maxi – maxi-coat

    self – self-help

    man – countryman

    wise – otherwise

    like – lady-like

Allomorphemeis a variant of one and the same morpheme: e.g. **– s** boys; desks; benches.

Functional affixes serve to convey grammatical meaning. They build different forms of one and the same words: e.g. boy – boys – plural form; wanted – Past.

Derivational affixes build different types of words: e.g. black<u>ness</u>

According to the origin all derivational affixes are subdivided into native and foreign (borrowings).

Many of affixes of native origin were independent words. But in the course of time they lost their independence and turned into derivation affixes. Such suffixes as: -done, -hood, -ship ("sentence", "state", "ship" in Old English). Some suffixes have developed out of grammatical morphemes as a result of lexicolization of grammar forms.

Native derivation suffixes: -ing, -s, -ly, -some,-y, -th, -wise.

Native prefixes: -out, -under, -over, -miss, -un.

Among foreign affixes: -able, -ible, -al, -age, -ance, -ist, -ism, -ment.

Foreign prefixes: dis-, en-, inter-, re-, ex-, non-.

Among borrowed affixes we have international affixes: -ist, -ism; prefixes: inter-, anti-, past-, trans-, pre-: e.g. transatlantic

Word-format ion is the process of creating new words from the material available in the language after certain structure and semantic formulas and patterns. There are 2 types of word-formation:

- a word-derivation (словотворення)

- word-composition (словоскладання)

Words that are created by word-derivation have one root morpheme. And word-derivation may be of 2 types: affixation and suffixation.

Affixation is defined as a formation of words by adding derivative affixes to stems: e.g. hand + less = handless In Modem English suffixation is characteristic of noun and adjective formation.

While prefixation is difficult of verb formation, prefixes modify lexical meaning of stems to which they are added.

Prefixes are more independent semantically. Unlike suffixation which is usually bound up with the paradigm of the definite part of speech, prefixation is considered to be neutral in this respect. Prefixes are subdivided into several classes accordingly to their origin, meaning and function and never according to the part of speech formed.

Prefixes of negative meaning: -un, -in, -dis e.g. disadvantage, incorrect. Prefixes of reversal (repetition of action): un-, dis-, re-:

e.g. rewrite, disconnect. Prefixes may also be classified as productive and non-productive: re – productive, in – non-productive.

Within the scope of the part of speech classification of suffixes may be of the following groups:

1. Non-forming suffixes. They are: -er, -dom, -ness, -action e.g. teacher, freedom.

2. Adjective-forming suffixes: -able, -less, -full, -ic e.g. poetic, careless.

3. Word-forming suffixes: -en, -fy, -ize, -ish e.g. establish, satisfy.

4. Adverb-forming suffixes: -ly, -ward, -wise e.g. likewise

6. Numeral-forming suffixes: -teen, -th, -ty e.g. fourteen

Classification of suffixes may be based on the criteria of a sense expressed by the suffix. This classification is:

1. The agent of the verbal action: e.g. baker, dancer, actress, heroine.

2. Appurtenance: e.g. – Arabian.

3. Collectivity: peasantry.

4. Dixninutiveness: girlie, booklet, hillock kitchenette.

Like prefixes suffixes may also be classified as productive and non-productive. Productivity is characterized by the ability of a given suffix to make new words. Productive suffixes: -er, -ist, -ish, -ward, -er, e.g. teacher, reddish.

Non-productive suffixes: -ard, -cy, -ive, -en e.g. obstinacy, defensive.

Conversion_is the way of coining a new word in a different part of speech but within adding any derivative element: e.g. paper (noun) - to paper (verb) a catch (noun) – to catch (verb)

1.4 Combining Forms and Hybrids

Combining form is a bound form but it can be distinguished from the affix historically by the fact that it is always borrowed from another language (Greek or Latin) in which it existed as a free form:

e.g. autos – "self' – automatic; phone – "sound, noise" – telephone. Combining forms occur together with other combining forms and not with native roots. Almost all these examples are international words: e.g. automobile.

Hybrids are words that are made up of elements derived from 2 or more different languages:

e.g. readable – read –{English); able – (Latin); bicycles – bi – Latin; cycle – English.

Word Composition is word formation where the word is formed by combining two or more stems. It's one of the productive types of the word formation. The criteria for distinguishing between compounds and free combinations:

1. Phonetic: all compounds have one single stress:

e.g. green house. Exception: 2 stresses in nouns the first elements are: all–, self-: self-control. And in compound adjectives: grey-green.

2. Morphological: the compound green-house – the first element of which is grammatically unchanged. The plural form is added to the whole unit.

3. Syntactical: between the parts of a free word-group we can put another word: e.g. a 'mad-doctor, a 'mad 'doctor.

4. Graphic: compounds have 2 types of spelling: independent and with hyphen (дефіс).

5. Semantic.

e.g. bluebottle – волошка, blue bottle ; In most cases only several criteria can identify compounds. Different ways of compounding:

1. Compounds proper.

2. Derivational compounds.

Compounds proper formed by joining together stems of words:

e.g. looking – glass. Derivational may be:

a) compounds which are formed with a help of adjective-forming suffix – -ed: e.g. blue-eyed, long-legged.

b) compounds which are formed with the help of conversion: e.g. to hold up(verb); hold up (noun).

c) N stem + N stem + -er: e.g. honeymooner.

Shortening of words stands apart from above division. It consists of substitute a part for a whole:

1. Graphical abbreviations: a.m., p.m.

2. Lexical abbreviation may be of two types:

- with alphabetic reading: BBC, TV;

- clipping consists in the cutting off one or several syllables of the word:

- final clipping: advertisement – ad;

- initial clipping: telephone – phone;

- medial clipping: mathematics – math.

Non-productive way of blending. It's the formation that combines two words and includes letters or sounds they have in common as a connecting element:

- e.g. smoke + fog = smog.

- back-formation. It's the derivation of new words by subtracting a real or supposed affect from existing words through misinterpretation of their structure: e.g. teach + -r – teacher; paint + -er – painter; beggar – to beg; sculptor – to sculpt.

- sound-and-stress interchange may be of two types: vowel and consonant: e.g. full to fill; speak – speech;

-stress interchange: e.g. 'conduct (n) – поведінка, con'duct – вести. *Onomatopoeia.* It's a formation of words from sounds that resemble the object or actions which are named: e.g. cuckoo.

1.5 Semantic Structure of English Words

Semasiology is a branch of Linguistics that is devoted to the study of meaning of words and word equivalents. There are 2 approaches of definition to meaning. They are referential and functional.

Referential approach seeks to formulate the essence of meaning by establishing the interdependence between words and things or concepts they denote.

Functional approach studies the function of the word in speech. The essential feature of the referential approach is that it distinguishes between 3 components:

- the sound – form of the linguistic sign;

- the concept;

- the referent.

The sound-form is connected with a concept and through it with the referent. The common feature of any referential approach is the implication that meaning is connected with the referent. The sound form of the word is not identical with the meaning. Concept is the thought of the object that singles out it's essential features. Functional approach holds the view that the meaning of linguistic unit may be studied only through its relation to concept or referent:

e.g. move – movement.

In functional approach the meaning is understood as the function or use of linguistic science. These approaches are incomplete without each other.

Meaning of words is made up of different components, the combination and interrelation of which determine to a great extent of the word. These components are called as types of meaning. There are 4 most important types of semantic complexity:

- every word combines lexical and grammatical meaning. Grammatical meaning may be defined as a component of meaning received in identical sets of individual forms of different words. It is more abstract and more generalized than the lexical meaning: e.g. asked, thought – have one Grammatical meaning – Past Tense.

Lexical meaning may be defined as component of meaning recurrent in all the forms of this word and all possible distributions of these forms. It is the realization of concept or emotion by means of a definite language system. Lexical meaning is the semantic invariant of the grammatical variation of word:

e.g. go, goes, went, going – all of them have one lexical meaning – movement. By lexical meaning we define the meaning proper to the given linguistic unit in all its forms and distributions. By grammar unit we define the meaning proper to sets of word-forms common to all words of a certain class. Both grammatical and lexical meanings make up the word-meaning. They can't exist without each other. There are following types of lexical meaning: direct and figurative.

Direct meaning nominates the referent without the help of context (in isolation): e.g. friend.

The meaning is figurative when the object is named and at the same time is characterized through its similarity with other object: e.g. a foot of a mountain.

- concrete and abstract:

e.g. screen – 1. screen – ширма, екран (concrete meaning); 2. fire -screen – захист, прикриття (direct meaning); smoke-screen – (figurative meaning); screen – кино (abstract meaning).

Main(primary) and secondary meanings: Screen – ширма, екран – main meaning; кіно, екран – secondary meaning.

Word may be polysemantic (it may have several meanings all interconnected and forming its semantic structure) and monosemantic (have only one meaning). Monosemantic word – molecule. Polisemantic word – gossip.

Lexical context

e.g. black

1) colour: black gloves, black velvet

2) feelings or thoughts: black despair.

3) the context is called syntactic when the indicative power belongs to the syntactic patterns and to the words: e.g. make (cause) + Complex Object

I couldn't make him understand the word I said.

A pure syntactic context is rare. As a rule we have syntactic, lexical and morphological factors in the context: e.g. late – predicatively "to be late" – to be late for school.

1.6 Types of Semantic Changes

Change of meaning in the cause of qualitative and quantitative development of the vocabulary. We distinguish the following developments of the vocabulary:

1) transference of meaning (metaphor and metonymy);

2) narrowing of meaning (or specialization);

3) extension of meaning (generalization);

4) elevation of meaning (or anubioration);

5) degradation of meaning (pejoration).

Words are used in two ways:

- literary

- figurative.

When we use literary meaning they have their natural and usual meaning. When we use figurative meaning they have a suggestive meaning:

e.g. figures of speech.

Metaphor is a deep semantic transformation of the word going far beyond its primary semantic range. It's a semantic process of associating two references, one of which resembles the other.

1) poetic meaning: the key to a mystery;

2) linguistic meaning (dead meaning): leg of the table.

Zoosemy is nicknaming from animals used metaphorical: e.g. a bear.

Closely related with metaphor is simile. <u>Simile</u> is an indirect comparison using such words as *like*, *as* and other words link to objects and other words of the comparisons.

Metonymy is the semantic process of associating two references, one of which makes part of the other or is closely connected with it. The simplest case of metonymy is synecdoche.

Synecdoche means giving the part on the whole or wise versa: e.g. crown – for the whole monarchy.

a) the sign for the thing: from the crade to the grave;

b) instrument for the agent e.g. the best pens of the day;

c) the container for the thing: e.g. He drank a cup.

d) organs: e.g. to play by the ear;

e) material – thing: e.g. silver, gold.

Faded metonymy: e.g. sandwich, mauser, hooligan.

Hyperbole: It is exaggeration of the feature essential to the object.

Litotes is expressing the affirmative by the negative of its contrarily: e.g. Not bad for good. Not small for great.

Euphemism is a word or phrase used to replace an unpleasant word or expression by more acceptable one: e.g. to die – to pass away, to be no more, to join the majority, to be gone, to go west, to depart.

Irony is expression of one meaning by words of opposite sense.

Periphrases is use of longer phrase instead of possible shorter and plainer form of expression: e.g. my worst half – husband.

Antonomasia points out the characteristic feature of the person or event and pins the straight as a proper name or object.

Zeugma. It is the use of word in the same grammatical meaning but different semantic relations to two objects (words): e.g. She lost her heart and necklace at the ball.

Results of semantic change can be observed in the changes of denotational meaning. In this case we have restriction and extension of meaning. If we change conotentional components we are speaking about amilioration and pejoration. Changes of denotational meaning may result in the restriction of the types or range of reference denoted by the word: e.g. hound – гонча, (in Old English – hound – (будь-який собака).

If the word with a new meaning comes to be used in the specialized vocabulary we have specialization of meaning: e.g. to glide – restriction + specialization of meaning. Changes in denotational meaning may also result in the application of the word to a wider variety of reference:

e.g. target – малий щит, мішень, ціль: extensional meaning. If the word with the extended meaning passes from the special vocabulary into common use we have generalization of meaning: e.g. camp – стоянка, табір.

Changes depending on the social attitude to the objects connected with the social evaluation and emotional tone are called pejoration. Pejoration is acquisition by the word of derogatory emotive character: e.g. boor – сільський житель, невихована незграбна людина.

Amilioration is improvement of the conotentional components: e.g. minister – слуга, міністр.

Linguistic Factors that Act within the Language System:

1. *Ellipses*

OE to starve "to die" + hunger

"to die from hunger" – Modern English.

2. *Differentiations of synonyms:*

e.g. in Old English land – solid part of earth; country.

3. Fixed context:

e.g. token of love – respect, sign.

1.7 Etymological Survey of the English Word-Stock

The most characteristic feature of English is its mixed character. According to the origin all words are subdivided into 2 groups:

1. native words;

2. borrowings (loan words).

The native words are the words which belong to the original English stock as known from the earliest manuscripts of the old English period. Native are the words of Anglo-Saxon origin brought to the English Isles from the continent in the Vth century by the Germanic tribes. The native words are subdivided into:

- words of the Indo-European origin;

- words of Common Germanic origin.

Words of Indo-European origin formed the old layer and have their cognates in the vocabulary of different Indo-European languages. They fall into the following semantic groups:

- terms of kingship: son, father.

- words naming the most important objects and phenomena of nature: e.g. sea. moon, star;

- names of animals and birds: cat, goose, wolf;

- parts of human body: foot;

- the most frequent words are: to bear, to come, to sit, to stand;

- the most typical adjectives denoting concrete physical properties: red, white, hard, slow – they are most numerous – belong to this Stock

The second semantic group (words of common Germanic origin) are much bigger part. And these words have parallels in German, Norwegian, Dutch, Icelandic, but none in Russian or French.

Semantic groups – such nouns as: summer, hate, hope, love, score, life, rest. Such words as: to hear, to keep, to learn. Such modal words and auxiliaries as: shall, must, conjunctions, many adverbs and pronouns. There is the great

stability and semantic peculiarities of native words. They have their word building power.

Native affixes: er-, -ness, -ish, -ed, un-, mis-, -dom, -hood, -ty, ever-, out-, under-, im-.

A loan word is a word taken over from another language and modified in phonetic shape, spelling, paradigm or meaning according to the standards of the English language. The source, the scope and the semantic sphere of the loan words are all dependent upon historical factors. Up to 70 per cent of the English vocabulary consists of loan words. It is due to the introduction of Christianity and the Danish and Norman Conquest.

Borrowed affixes: -able, -ment, -ity, -man, -fill, -ation.

Some word-groups are borrowed in their foreign form: e.g. – vis-a-vis – візаві.

The source of borrowing should be applied to the language from which the borrowed word was taken into English: e.g. paper – papier (French).

The origin of borrowing refers to the language to which the word may be traced: e.g. paper – papier (French) – paperus (Latin) – paperos (Greek). Loan words may be classified into:

- loan- translation;

- semantic loans.

Loan-translation are the words and expressions formed from the material already existed in the British language. But according to borrowed patterns by way of morpheme-for-morpheme or word-for-word translation: e.g. self-criticism; wall newspaper.

Semantic loans denote the development in the English words of a new meaning due to the influence of a related word in another language: e.g. pioneer, competition.

1.8 Criteria for Determining Borrowings

1. Pronunciation of the words (strange sound), sound combinations, position of stress, spelling. The initial position of such sounds and letters as: x, z is a sign that these words are borrowings: e.g. vase (French), genre (French), zero (French), gesture (Latin). The consonant combinations: ps, ph, pt, pn, – Greek, kh – Indian.

2. Phono-morphological structure of borrowings is characterized by polysillabic words: e.g. condition, revolution. The morphological structure of borrowings and its grammatical forms are characterized by following affixes: ad-, ed-, con-, ex-, pre-, pro-, re-, trans-.

In borrowings we have irregular plural forms: e.g. phenomenon – phenomena. Strange lexical meaning: e.g. ricksha, pagoda (Chinese).

The term *assimilation* is used to denote a partial or complete conformation to the phonetical, graphical, morphological standards of the receiving language and its semantic feature.

Oral borrowings due to personal contexts are assimilated more completely and more rapidly than literary borrowings. According to the degree of assimilation we can distinguish 3 groups of borrowings:

- completely assimilated borrowings are the words which have undergone all types of assimilation (phonetical, grammar, lexical): e.g. sombrero, sherbet, rouble; cheese, street (Latin); table, figure, face (French); husband, fellow, to die (Scandinavian)

- partially assimilated borrowings are the words which lack one of the types of assimilation. And they are subdivided into several groups:

1. words which assimilated semantically: sombrero, rouble.

2. grammatically: phenomena;

3. graphically: ballet.

Some words have a special mark: e.g. cafe.

- unassimilated (barbarisms) are words from other languages used by English people in conversation or writing and for which we have corresponding words (equivalents): e.g. ad libitum (Latin) – at pleasure; chao (Italian) – good-bye.

Etymological doublets are two or more words of the same language which were derived by different roots from the same basic words. They differ to a certain degree on form meaning and current usage: e.g. whole – hale (in Old English); healthy – helfet (in Old English); shirt – short (O.E.); share – scare (Scandinavian).

Another source of doublets may be due to the borrowing of different grammar form of the same word: e.g. super (Latin) – superior and supremus are etymological doublets.

Words of identical origin that occur in several languages as a result of borrowings are called *international words*: e.g. democracy, poem, mathematics, theatre – (Greek); terms, angina, advocate, constitution – (Latin); area, concert, piano, opera – (Italian).

Among international words we find a number of newly coined compounds made from Latin and Greek: e.g. kilometer, telephone. Certain modern coinages are hybrids of Latin and Greek. Hybrids are the words different elements of which are of etymologically different origin: e.g. autos (Greek) + mobiles (Latin) = automobile.

International words shouldn't be mixed with common Germanic origin and Indo-European words: e.g. *sport:* tennis, ball, time; *clothes*: nylon, tweed; cinema: film, club, jazz; Russian contribution: mammoth, tzar, cosmonaut.

1.9 Homonymy and Sources of Homonymcs

Homonyms are two or more words identical in sound form but different in meaning, distribution and origin. Homonyms have unrelated meaning. All cases of homonymy may be classified into full and partial homonymy.

Full homonymy may be observed in the words which are homonymous in all their form: e.g. seal – 1) sea animal; 2) a design printed on the paper. Seals (plural form) is identical for both nouns (grammar paradigm).

We can find the examples of full homonymy within the same parts of speech but some cases of full homonymy may be found in different parts of speech: e.g. for (preposition), for (conjuction), four (numeral).

Partial homonymy is a homonymy of individual word forms. Partial homonymy as a rule is observed in word-forms belonging to different parts of speech: e.g. seal (Noun), to seal (Verb) – grammar paradigm: seal — to seal seals — seals seal's — sealed seals' — sealing In these examples some individual forms are homonymous.

Partial homonymy may be observed within one part of speech: e.g. to lie – lies; to lie – lies. Homonymy may be classified by the type of meaning into lexical, grammatical and lexical-grammatical.

Lexical homonyms are the homonyms which differ in lexical meaning: e.g. seal (as sea animal) isn't the same as seal (as a design painted on the paper).

Grammatical-lexical homonymy (patterned). These are the homonyms which belonged to different parts of speech: e.g. seal (Noun), seal (Verb). Grammatical homonymy is the homonymy of different word-forms of one in the same word.

The classification of homonymy comprises 3 aspects: sound, graphic form, meaning.

Accordingly we may distinguish:
1) homonyms proper;
2) homographs;
3) homophones;
4) homoforms.

Homonyms proper are words identical in spelling and in sound form, but different in meaning: e.g. case – "something that has happened", case – "box".

Homographs are the words identical in spelling but different in sound-form and meaning: e.g. row – 1) ряд; 2) сварка; bow – 1) смичок, лук; 2) поклон.

Homophones are the words identical in sound-form but different in spelling and meaning: e.g. sea – see; sun-son.

Homoforms are words quite different in meaning but identical in some of their grammatical forms: e.g. 1) found – (Past from the verb to find), found – (Infinitive to found).

Sources of Homonymy:
1. Borrowings: e.g. arm – native "hand"; arm – "weapon" (French);
bank – native "a shore"; bank – "we keep money" (Italian).
2. Homonymy may be created by shortening: e.g. ad – from advertisement; to add;
3. Conversion: e.g. pale (adj.) – to pale (v.)
4. Sound – imitation: e.g. bang-bang.

All these cases have one common feature. In all these cases homonyms are developed from two or more different words and their similarity is accidental.

5. Diverging meaning development.

Converging sound development. Diverging meaning development of one polysemantic word. Converging sound meaning – of two or more different words. The process of diverging meaning development can be observed when different meanings of the same word move so far away from each other that they can be regarded as two separate units. This phenomenon is known as disintegration or split of polysemy: e.g. flower – "flos" (Latin: the flower, the finest part of it) flour

The difference in spelling underlines the fact that from the sinchronic point of view these words are too different words. But historically they have a common origin.

Converging sound development is the most important factor in the creation of homonyms. The great number of homonyms appeared as a result of converging sound development, which consists of coincidence of two or more words which were phonetically distinct: e.g. Old English – ic – i; eaze – eye.

Words borrowed from other languages may through phonetic converging become homonyms: e.g. ras (Old Norse) - race (French) – race (Modern English).

One of the most debatable problems in semasiology is the distinction between homonymy and polysemy. It means the distinction between different meanings of one word and the meanings of two homonimous words.

The synchronic treatment of English homonyms brings us to such problems as:

- the criterion distinguishing homonymy from polysemy;

- the formulation of rules for recognizing different meanings of the same homony in terms of distribution;

- the description of difference between patterned and non-patterned homonymy. These problems are closely connected with each other. It's difficult to separate them.

Sinchronically the differentiation between the homonymy and polysemy is based on semantic criterion. If a connection between the different meaning is apprehended by the speaker – it's polysemantic word. Otherwise it is the case of homonymy.

The semantic criterion implies that difference between polysemy and homonymy is reduced to the differentiation between related and unrelated meanings: e.g. case – homonymy, these words have two unrelated meanings; foot (of a man), foot (of the mountain) – polysemy, they have related meanings.

The criteria used in sinchronic analysis of homonymy are:

1) the semantic criterion of related and unrelated meanings;

2) the criterion of spelling;

3) the criterion of distribution;

4) the criterion of context.

In grammatical and lexical-grammatical homonymy the most preferable criterion is the criterion of distribution: e.g. 1). The hat fits his head. He will head the department (partial homonymy);   2) He is the head of the firm. Here is the head of the parade, (polysemy); 3) He bought a chair at the furniture store. He was condemned to the electric chair, (polysemy); 4) They had a case against him. He bought a case of fruit (full homonymy); 5) He fell in the water. Please, water the garden, (partial homonymy); 6)   Fare – fair *Homophones* plain – plane тsole – soul him-hymn night – knight peace – piece 7) Wind – wind – *Homographs* right – to write – ph. Bark (n.) – bark (v.) – homonymy proper; Bow – bow – grammar; Buy – by – ph.

1.10 Synonymy and Antonymy Relations in English Language

Synonyms can be defined as two or more words of the same language belonging to the same part of speech, possessing similar denotational meanings, interchangeable in some context but differing in morphemic composition, phonetic shape, shades of meaning constyle, valency, idiomatic use. The criterion of synonymity is semantic similarity of meaning: e.g. hope, expectation, anticipation. Hope has a neutral meaning, two others are literary words.

Each synonymic group comprises a synonymic dominant. *Synonymic dominant* is the most general term of its kind, potentially containing the specific features rendered by all the other members of the group.

Sources of Synonymity:

1. Synonymity has its characteristic patterns in each language. It's peculiar feature of English is the contrast between simple native words stylistically neutral, literary words, borrowings from French, loan-words of Greek or Latin origin:

e.g. Native English French Latin

to ask   to question to interrogate

to end   to finish to complete

But this pattern is not universal:

e.g. dale – walley, deed – act, fair – beautiful.

2. Words which came from dialects: e.g. girl – lass (Scot); liquor – whiskey(Irish).

3. Words which came from American English: e.g. seaside – beach (American), lift – elevator

4. Synonyms may also be created from word-forming process. The words already existing in the language develop new meanings: e.g. to continue – to go on to enter – to come in.

Synonyms may be created by shortening: e.g. popular song-pop; microphone – mike.

Euphemisms: e.g. naked - in one's birthday suit.

Antonyms may be defined as two or more words of the same language belonging to the same part of speech and to the same semantic group identical in style and nearly identical in distribution. But their denotational meanings are opposite: e.g. young – old; good – bad. These pairs are antonymic pairs.

Antonyms may be classified into: <u>Absolute</u>. These are root-words: e.g. right – wrong.

Derivational antonyms – presence of negative affixes: e.g. believe – unbelieve; pleasant – unpleasant.

Unlike synonyms antonyms don't differ in style, emotional colouring or distribution. They are interchangeable in some contexts. The result of this interchange may be of different type depending on the conditions of context. As antonyms do not differ stylistically an antonymic substitution never results in a change of a stylistic colouring. Antonyms form pairs not groups like synonyms.

Conversives denote one and the same referent or situation as viewed from different points of view with the reversal of the order of participants and their roles: e.g. to buy – to sell, to give – to receive, parent – child

1.11 Stylistic Classification of Vocabulary

The word-stock of English may be represented as a definite system in which different aspects of words may be singled out as independent. The word-stock of English language is divided into 3 main layers:

- the literary layer;
- the neutral layer;
- colloquial layer.

The literary and colloquial layers contain a number of subgroups. The common property which unites the different groups of words within the layer is its aspect. The aspect of the literary layer is its bookish character and it makes the layer more or less stabile. The aspect of the colloquial layer is its spoken character and it makes this layer unstable. The aspect of the neutral layer is its universal character. It means that it is unrestricted in its use. It can be employed in all styles of language and in all spheres of human activity. It makes the

neutral layer the most stable of all. The common literary, neutral and common colloquial words are grouped under the term *standard English vocabulary*. Other groups in the literary layer are regarded as *special literary vocabulary*. And those in the colloquial layer are regarded as *special colloquial vocabulary*.

Neutral words which form the bulk of the English vocabulary are used in both literary and colloquial languages. Neutral words are the main source of synonymity and polysemy. Literary words have no local or dialectal character. Colloquial words are always more emotionally coloured than literary words. Both literary and colloquial words have the upper and lower ranges:

Colloquial　　Neutral　　Literary
　　kid　　　　child　　　infant

Special literary vocabulary consists of the following groups:

1. Terms or scientific words;
2. Poetic words;
3. Archaic(archaisms) and historical words or historisms;
4. Barbarisms;
5. Literary coinages.

Terms are used in special words dealing with the notions of some branch of science. *Poetic words* sustain the special atmosphere of poetry: e.g. welkin – sky; dale – valley. *Archaic words* are words that were once common but now are replaced by synonyms: e.g. damsel – a noble girl.

When the thing named is no longer used, its name becomes *historism:* e.g. phaeton, landau.

Barbarisms are words of the foreign origin which haven't been assimilated into English: e.g. bon mot. – гарне слово (Fr.)

Literary coinages or neologisms are new words or a new meaning for an established word: e.g. supermarket.

Special colloquial vocabulary falls into the following groups:

1) Slang;
2) Professional words;
3) Jargonisms;
4) Dialectical words;
5) Vulgar words;
6) Colloquial coinages.

Slang: these are the words which are often regarded as a violation of norms of standard English. It's a peculiar kind of vagabond language: e.g. a gag – joke; governor – father.

Professional words are words which are used in narrow group bound to some occupation: e.g. tin-fish – торпеда; submarine; lab.

Jargonisms are the words marked by their use within any particular social group and bearing a secret and cryptic character: e.g. loaf – head; grease – money.

Dialectical words are the words which are used in a definite locality: e.g. volk – folk; zinking – sinking; zee – see; vound – found.

Vulgarisms are coarse words that are not generally used in public: e.g. bloody – проклятий; hell – кубло.

Colloquial coinages are spontaneous and elusive, not all colloquial words are fixed in dictionaries or even in writing and most of them disappear from the language leaving no trace in it: e.g. to be the limit – to be unbearable.

Variants and Dialects in English. Standard English is the official language of Great Britain taught at schools and universities, used by the press and radio, television and spoken by educated people. *Local dialects* are varieties of English language peculiar to some districts and having no normal literary form. Regional varieties possessing a literary form are called variants. In Great Britain there are such variants: Scottish English, Irish English. There are 5 main groups of dialects:

1) Northern;

2) Midland;

3) Eastern;

4) Western;

5) Southern.

Every group contains up to 10 dialects. One of the best known southern dialect is Cockney. It's the original dialect of London.

2 EXERCISES

Lesson 1. The English Word-stock

Working Definitions of Principal Concepts

1. Language, a semiological system serving as the main and basic means of human communication.

2. Vocabulary, the totality of words in a language.

3. Diachrony, the historical development of the system of language as the object of linguistic investigation. Diachronic, historical.

4. Synchrony, a conventional isolation of a certain stage in the development of language as the object of linguistic investigation. Synchronic, representing one conventional historical stage in the development of language.

5. Semantic extension (widening of meaning), the extension of semantic capacity of a word, i. e. the expansion of polysemy, in the course of its historical development.

6. Narrowing of meaning, the restriction of the semantic capacity of a word in the course of its historical development.

7. Borrowing, resorting to the word-stock of other languages for words to express new concepts, to further differentiate the existing concepts and to name new objects, phenomena, etc.

8. Loan translations (calques), borrowing by means of literally translating words (usually one part after another) or word combinations, by modelling words after foreign patterns.

9. Hybrid, a word different elements of which are of etymologically different origin.

10. Etymological doublet, a pair of (or several) words more or less similar in meaning and phonation, appearing in language as the result of borrowing from the same source at different times.

11. Sociolinguistics, branch of linguistics studying causation between language and the life of the speaking community.

12. Neologism, a word or a word combination that appears or is specially coined to name a new object or express a new concept.

13. Occasional word, a word which cannot be considered a permanent member of the word-stock: although it is, as a rule, formed after existing patterns, it is not characterized by general currency but is an individual innovation introduced for a special occasion. Cf. nonce-word, ephemeral word.

Exercise 1. Read the following passages and render in your own words.

The gift of speech and a well-ordered language are characteristic of every known group of human beings. No tribe has ever been found which is without language and all statements to the contrary may be dismissed as mere folklore. There seems to be no warrant whatever for the statement which is sometimes made that there are certain peoples whose vocabulary is so limited that they cannot get on without the supplementary use of gesture, so that intelligible communication between members of such a group becomes impossible in the dark. The truth of the matter is that language is an essentially perfect means of expression and communication among every known people. Of all aspects of culture it is a fair guess that language was the first to receive a highly developed form and that its essential perfection is a prerequisite to the development of culture as a whole ...

Exercise 2. The word junk was originally a sailors' word meaning 'old rope', now it means 'rubbish, useless stuff — this is an example of extension of meaning. The word meat originally meant 'food', now it means one special type of food — this is an example of narrowing of meaning. Consult dictionaries and establish what kind of semantic change was involved In the development of the words.

1. to starve (original meaning 'to die'); 2. gambit (chess: an opening in which White offers a pawn-sacrifice'); 3. to discipline (originally 'provide discipline, train, control'); 4. to refute (originally 'disprove, confute'); 5. fowl (originally 'bird'); 6. bird (originally 'a young bird'); 7. deer (originally 'beast')

Exercise 3. Read the following extracts and discuss the changes in the meaning of the word 'nice'.

The Concise Oxford Dictionary:

nice – adv. 1**.** Fastidious, dainty, hard to please, of refined or critical tastes; precise, punctilious, scrupulous, particular (must not be too ~ about the means), 2. Requiring precisian care, tact, or discrimination (a ~ experiment, question, point, negotiation), 3. Minute, subtle (a ~ distinction, shade of meaning). 4. Attentive, close (a ~ inquiry, observer). 5. Delicately sensitive, discriminative, or deft (a ~ ear, judgement, hand', weighed in the ~ st scales, lit. or fig.) 6. (colloq.) Agreeable, attractive, delightful, well-flavoured, satisfactory, kind, friendly, considerate, generally commendable (often iron., s here is a ~ mess). /. (and satisfactorily, as the house stands ~ high, car is going ~ & fast, this is a – long one...

Exercise 4. George Mikes. How To Be an Alien, 1964:

If you live here long enough you will find out to your greatest amazement that the adjective nice is not the only adjective the language possesses, in spite of the fact that in the first three years you do not need to learn or use any other adjectives. You can say that the weather is nice, a restaurant is nice, Mr. Soandso is nice, Mrs. Soandso's clothes are nice, you had a nice time, and all this will be very nice.

Exercise 5. Explain the meaning of 'nice' in the following sentences:

1. We admired the cup for its nice workmanship. 2. He was sure that she was a nice girl. 3. He is always very nice in his dress. 4. He is not over nice in his dealings. 5. They embarked upon negotiations needing nice handling. 6. She has a nice smile. 7. This is a nice state of affairs. 8. He has a nice taste in literature. 9. What nice weather we're having! 10. It was nice of them to invite us for bridge tonight. 11. Here's a nice mess. 12. Did you have a nice time? 13. She has a nice ear for sounds. 14. She wears nice clothes. 15. He liked to discuss some nice points of law. 16. This silk is very nice to the touch. 17. In this case it is important to establish all the nice shades of meaning. 18. This medicine isn't nice to take, I know. 19. It's nice to be important but it's more important to be nice.

Exercise 6. Read the passage and answer the following questions.

It is interesting to take a pivotal word like stock, with the original sense of something sticking up, and study the extraordinary multitude of meanings that it has acquired, or to trace the gradual process by which a verb properly used of an upright position has reached the figurative sense of paying for another person's liquid refreshment. A stock example of vagueness of meaning and economy of vocabulary is the verb to get, that stumbling-block of the foreign student of English. It is quite possible, with a little ingenuity, to give an account of a day's happenings without employing any other verb.

(Ernest Weekley. The English Language, p. 13–14)

Questions

1. What meanings of the noun stock do you know? Look the word up in the dictionary and explain, when you can, the connection between the later meaning and its original meaning of 'stump, trunk', which is still the main meaning of the word.

2. What meanings of the verb stand do you know? Translate the following into Russian: 1) Will he stand us champagne? 2) She stood us a good dinner; 3) Who is going to stand treat? 4) I can't stand the man; 5) He couldnt stand the heat; 6) We stand a poor chance of winning; 7) Who stands to win? 8) What do we stand to gain by it? 9) I stand corrected; 10) What I said yesterday still stands.

3. What are the meanings of the verb get in the following sentences? 1) Where did you get this hat? 2) How did he get here? 3) He got the credit for it; 4) He got into his coat and left; 5) I can't get on this horse; 6) I got through half of the book only; 7) How many stations can you get on your radio set? 8) Ado afraid the child will get the measles; 9) I don't get you; 10) The books, are locked up and I can't get at them.

Exercise 7. Read the following statements.

On the question of admitting foreign words and phrases into one's national language two quite opposite views are held. Some maintain that the purity of the mother tongue should be protected against all intrusion, almost a comic formula when applied to such a composite language as English! Others favour the constant enrichment of the language by the adoption of expressive terms no matter from what source...

The English practice has always been to borrow words rather than coin them from native material...

The abundance of our Latin phraseology, an abundance which has no European parallel, is an inheritance from the latter Middle Ages, when every educated man could read and write Latin, the international language of the literate...

For almost three centuries after the Conquest two languages were spoken in England — French at the Court, among the nobility, in administrative circles; English by the common people. Hence we find that the early French element in our language is largely concerned with special aspects of the national life.

(Ernest Weekley. The English Language, p. 15–16, 64)

Exercise 8. Read and tell the following passage in your own words.

...each successive generation behaves linguistically in a slightly different manner from its predecessors. In his teens the young man is impatient of what he considers to be the unduly stilted vocabulary and pronunciation of his elders and he likes to show how up to date he is by the use of the latest slang, but as years go by some of his slang becomes standard usage and in any case he slowly grows less receptive to linguistic novelties, so that by the time he reaches his forties he will probably be lamenting the slipshod speech of the younger

generation, quite unaware that some of the expressions and pronunciations now being used in all seriousness in pulpit and law-court were frowned upon by his own parents. In this respect language is a little like fashion in men's dress. The informal clothes of the one generation become the everyday wear of the next, and just as young doctors and bank clerks nowadays go about their business in sports-jackets, so they allow into their normal vocabulary various expressions which were once confined to slang and familiar conversation.

Exercise 9. Below are listed some borrowings from English currently used in Russian. Do you know the original words? What do they look and sound like in English?

бізнесмен, бітник, бутси, бульдозер, кемпінг, круїз, мокасини, мотель, сервіс, стриптиз, хепенінг, хеппі-енд, хіппі, хіпстер, хобі.

Exercise 10. The following is an extract from Brian Foster's "The Changing English Language". List separately words of Germanic and Romanic origin in the text.

Throughout its history the English language has always been hospitable to words from other tongues and while it is doubtless true to say that all forms of human speech have to some extent borrowed from outside models there are grounds for thinking that English is more than usually open to foreign influence as compared with other great languages. The French, indeed, have set up an organization whereby they hope to stem or at all events regulate the influx of foreign words into their vocabulary, but this would probably seem a strange idea to most English speakers, who seem to believe in a species of linguistic free trade and argue that if a term of foreign origin is useful it should be put to work forthwith regardless of its parentage. In this we are helped by the nature of the language itself which very conveniently allows us to use a word as verb, noun or adjective without any change of form, unlike the other major European languages.

Exercise 11. Find in the following passage answers» to the questions given below.

So completely did the two languages [French and English] They become one that we are not conscious of mixture when we couple such a word as the native whole-sale with the Old French retail, and it is only after reflection that we realize that so John Bullish a dish as "the roast beef of Old England" bears a purely French name. Nor are we sensible of hybridism when we attach native suffixes to words of French origin, as in beautiful, artless, dukedom, courtship, falsehood, or vice versa, as in eatable, leakage, forbearance, oddity. The Franco-Latin dis – is freely used with English verbs, e. g. distrust, dislike, while the Teutonic un- is often prefixed to words of Latin or French origin, e. g. uncivil, unwarrantable, uninteresting.

(Ernest Weeklev. The English Language, p. 66–67)

What is the composition of the words: countless, faintness, joyful, relationship, unquestionable.

Why are they called hybrids?

Exercise 12. Comment on the passage given below and discuss the additions to the English word-stock in the spheres of food, clothing, art.

Fortunately for many millions of mothers there are some changes in the English language which mark a lightening of their daily burden. Gone are the days when Monday morning was marked off from all other mornings by the collective thumping and thudding proceeding from all the washtubs of the neighborhood, and perhaps the time will eventually come when even the word 'washtub' will be listed as obsolescent in the dictionaries, ousted by washing machine. The humble Kitchen Sink, the very badge of feminine servitude, has become the title of a theatrical movement, leaving a gap to be filled by sink unit, 'Unit' is in fact a hardworking little word at the present time, doing service in unit furniture, garbage disposal unit and accommodation unit. The spin drier, pressure cooker, immersion heater and deep freeze all cooperate to aid the housewife. Shopping is frequently done in a supermarket (the name comes from America) with its self-service.

(Brian Foster. The Changing English Language, p. 141)

Lesson 2. The Word

Working Definitions of Principal Concepts

1. Speech, the activity of man using language to communicate with other men, i. e. the use of different linguistic means to convey certain content.

2. Concept, a generalized reverberation in the human consciousness of the properties of the objective reality learned in the process of the letter's cognition. Concepts are formed linguistically, each having a name (a word) attached to it.

3. Word, the basic unit of language. It directly corresponds to the object of thought (referent) — which is a generalized reverberation of a certain 'slice', 'piece' of objective reality — and by immediately referring to it names the thing meant.

4. Lexical meaning, the material meaning of a word, i. e. the meaning of the main material part of the word (as distinct from its formal, or grammatical, part), which reflects the concept the given word expresses and the basic properties of the thing (phenomenon, quality, state, etc.) the word denotes.

5. Grammatical meaning, the meaning of the formal membership of a word expressed by the word's form, i. e. the meaning of relationship manifested not in the word itself but in the dependent element which is supplementary to its material part.

6. Paradigm, the system of the grammatical forms of a word.

7. Root, the semantic nucleus of a word with which no grammatical properties of the word are connected.

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

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

The relation of word to thing-meant may be defined in two ways: either the word expresses the class of the thing-meant or else it qualifies the thing-meant in the manner that a predicative adjective might quality it. Both descriptions amount to the same in reality, but it will be best to consider them separately. It belongs to the nature of a 'word', as that term is universally understood, to be utilizable over and over again in many different contexts and situations. This being the case, it is obvious that every word is susceptible of referring to many different particular things, to each of which it applies as a sort of common label. Hence every word without exception is a class-name; in uttering it the speaker is virtually saying. There is a class, and the thing I mean you to understand belongs to that class'. The class is known to the listener by his *previous* experiences, the word having been applied by others or by him to many other things falling under the same class. The thing *now* meant may or may not have been among the previous experiences associated with the word. If it has been, the listener identifies, it by sheer memory; if not, he recognizes it by its resemblance to some of those previous experiences. For example: *My uncle has bought a new horse.* The thing-meant is the actual horse recently bought by my uncle; this I have not seen, but I catch my first glimpse of it, so 'to speak, by comparing my previous experiences of what is meant by the word *horse* with my knowledge of my uncle's preferences in horseflesh. But the sentence might have been: *My uncle has sold his old horse.* Now I know that old horse, and have heard it often alluded to by my uncle as *my horse.* Here the thing-meant has for me been long included in the class horse, so that, aided by the context, I have no difficulty in identifying it once again...

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

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

Exercise 2. Feuerbach said: «Почуттєве сприйняття дає нам предмет, розум – назву для нього… Що ж таке назва? Відмітний знак, яка-небудь ознака, що кидається в очі, яку я роблю представником предмету, що його характеризує, щоб уявити його собі в його тотальності».

Find the characteristic feature(s) that underlie (s) the following names:

ant-lion, barrel-organ, blackberry, blacksmith, blueprint, buckwheat, bull's- eye, butter-fingered, to buzz, carpet-bag, to cat-nap, cocksure, Dalmatian, drawing- room, evensong, evergreen, fabulous, fly-by-night, guffaw, to hiss, jack-knife, kingfisher, makeshift, pansy, popcorn, rubberneck, ruby-tail, saddlebag, sleepyhead, snapshot, snowdrop, to spur on, twilight, water-melon.

Exercise 3. Read the following passage and tell its main idea resorting to terminology used in linguistics.

One thing we can be fairly sure about is that a word – a phonemic event – only exists at all because of some entity that has a prior existence in the non-linguistic world. This non-linguistic world may be seen as having two aspects: first, there are the things to which language ultimately refers – 'real' events or objects, which we assume have a life of their own; second, there is an area of mind where the speaker and hearer (or writer and reader) meet to agree on some interpretation of the real event or object. Thus, at one end we have the *word,* at the other we have the *referent,* in the middle we have the *sense.* The referent is perhaps a matter for the philosopher; the word is certainly the linguist's concern; the sense interests everybody, from the logician to the literary critic.'

Whether the referent of a word really (in the sense of 'demonstrably') exists is no concern of ours. We may talk about the attributes of God even though some would say that God's existence has not been satisfactorily proved. We may talk about the characters of a novel, knowing that these exist only in a very special sense – certainly not as the Albert Memorial or Red Square exists. A hypothesis may have a mental existence and the ginger-and-white cat that sits by me at this moment of writing may have a physical one: to the user of words, they inhabit the same area of reference...

A speaker speaks the word; a hearer hears it. If he understands the word he has stepped into the same area of sense as the speaker. The meaning of a word, then, may be thought of as this common area of meeting. But the sense, it goes without saying, depends on the referent, and the nature of the referent has to be defined by the context. ...

(Anthony Burgess. *Words)*

Exercise 4. Following is a well-known passage from Shakespeare in which the relationship word ↔ concept ↔ thing is clearly brought out. Can you explain it?

What's Montague? it is not hand, nor foot,
Nor arm, nor face, nor any other part
Belonging to a man. O, be some other name!

What's in a name? that which we call a rose
By any other name would smell as sweet:
So Romeo would, were he not Romeo call'd,
Retain that dear perfection which he owes
Without that title: Romeo, doff thy name;
And for that name, which is no part of thee,
Take all myself.

<div align="right">

(William Shakespeare. *Romeo and Juliet*)

</div>

Exercise 5. Discuss the meaning of the words in bold type in connection with the problem 'concept-meaning'.

1. A **house** in the country. A full **house.** Every word was heard in all parts of the **house.** White **House.** An ancient trading **house** in the city. A noisy cheerful **house.** To keep **house.** To bring down the **house.** To leave one's father's **house.** On the **house.**

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

3. Die of hunger. **Die** a violent death. **Die** in one's bed. The day is **dying. Die** to the world. I'm **dying** to know. His secret **died** with him. **Die** in harness**. Die** game. Never say **die.**

Exercise 6. Read the following passages. Discuss the difference in the approach to the definition of the word as exemplified by Charles F. Hockett and Ladislav Zgusta.

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

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

Determining Words through Pause and Isolabilitv.

As the first step in determining the words in an utterance, we ask speakers to repeat the utterance slowly and carefully. Suppose someone has just said *John treats his older sisters very nicely* in the normal rapid way, as a single macrosegment. If we ask for a slow repetit ion, he may break the sentence up into as many as seven successive macrosegments, each with its own intonation and with intervening pauses: *John, treats, his, older, sisters, very, nicely.* Or he may not pause quite so often: *his older,* or *very nicely,* might be kept as a single macrosegment. Thus we may have to elicit more than one slow careful delivery

before we can be sure we have obtained the maximum break-up. Only under very artificial conditions, however, would anyone pause at additional points, say between *old* and *er*.

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

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

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

(Ladislav Zgusta. *Manual of Lexicography*)

Exercise 7. Read the following passage and give other examples to illustrate the point.

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

(E. M. Mednikova. *Modern English Lexicology*)

Exercise 8. There are many relevant terms in the Mouton advertisement which follows. Make a list of them and see how many you can define and illustrate.

THE WORD AS A LINGUISTIC UNIT

by Jiri Kramsky

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

Having discussed the placement of the *word* in the system of language, the author tries to verify the existing criteria of the *word,* that is to say: the semantic criterion, the criteria of separability, replaceability and displaceability, the criterion of isolatedness and the phonetic criterion. A wry detailed discussion is devoted to the acoustic identity of the *word* which is regarded to be dependent on the functional relevance of particular phonemes of the *word* in their interrelations not only within the framework of the same word (but also within

the framework of the semantic relations between the particular words of the utterance). The book provides a thorough analysis of the functional theory of meaning and form, of the problem homonymy, of the question of the delimitation of *word units* in the written norm of various languages and of the relation between *word* and *sign.*

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

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

Lesson 3. The Vocabulary of a Language as a System

Working Definitions of Principal Concepts

1. Parts of speech, classes into which words of a language are divided by virtue of their having a) a certain general (abstract, categorial) meaning underlying their concrete lexical meaning; b) a system of grammatical categories characteristic of this class; c) specific syntactic functions; d) special types of form-building and word formation.

2. Context, a) the linguistic environment of a unit of language which reveals the conditions and the characteristic features of its usage in speech; b) the semantically complete passage of written speech sufficient to establish the meaning of a given word (phrase).

3. Synonymy, the coincidence in the essential meanings of linguistic elements which (at the same time) usually preserve their differences in connotations and stylistic characteristics.

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

5. Ideographic synonyms, such synonyms which differ in shades of meaning, i. e. between which a semantic difference is statable.

6. Stylistic synonyms, such synonyms which, without explicitly displaying semantic difference, are distinguished stylistically, i. e. in all kinds of emotional, expressive and evaluative overtones.

7. Antonymy, semantic opposition, contrast.

8. Antonyms, a) words which have in their meaning a qualitative feature and can therefore be regarded as semantically opposite; b) words contrasted as correlated pairs

Exercise 1. Ascribe the following words to their lexical-grammatical classes characterizing each in accordance with the working definition for parts of speech.

already, behaviour, being, bring, cry, connotation, dream; draw, eager, fair, gloomy, go, hand, intensely, husky, quickly, set, synonym, train, useful

Exercise 2. Following is a list of nouns. Classify them into subgronps, proceeding from the assumption that this part of speech can be further subdivided into the name of an object, the name of an action (momentary single action, action viewed as a process, etc.), the name of the doer of an action, etc.

abbey, alteration, ace, back, blame, bureau, circus, confession, cream, cut, day, division, dive, docker, fortune, gipsy, giggling, hurry, jump, knocker, laughter, maker, monument, person, process, run, satisfaction, shape, table, writer

Exercise 3. The subdivision of verbs is not as elaborate as that of nouns. Dictionaries usually indicate whether the meaning of a verb is transitive or intransitive. Keeping in mind that the meaning of the verb is historically devoid of transitiveness or intransitiveness and that this is a secondary element superimposed upon the general meaning, divide the verbs given below into the two subgroups, giving examples of usage.

aim, answer, beat, bum, buy, cover, embroider, give, hate, plant, read, run, sell, throw, want

Exercise 4. We can outline groups of words which usually go together in speech and in this way reflect the objective relations of real life. *Which of the following words contextually combine with 'book', 'tree', 'girl'.*

approach, bark, big, boy, branch, cry, culmination, dress, dry, exciting, green, grow, interesting, laugh, leaves, little, long, mischief, naughty, plot, pretty, run, smart, soil, style, sulk, tall, thick, write

Exercise 5. Put the following words late groups according to their contextual associations.

air, challenger, championship, classification, dig, flower, garden, green, grow, juice, jump, language, luxuriant, match, meaning, outrun, overrun, participate, principles, race, sports, system, water, weed, word

Exercise 6. Read the passage from Stephen Ullmann's book "Language and Style" and answer the questions following it.

Attempts have also been made to identify and describe the various lexical structures into which our words are organized. These inquiries, which are still at a tentative stage, are being conducted at three superimposed levels: that of single words, that of conceptual spheres, and that of the vocabulary as a whole.

(a) At the level of single words, the most useful concept that has emerged so far is that of the *'associative field*. Every word is surrounded by a network of associations which connect it with other terms related to it in form, in meaning, or in both; as Saussure graphically put it, it is 'like the centre of a constellation, the point where an indefinite number of co-ordinated terms converge'. To take a very simple example, the verb *to write* stands at the point of intersection of three associative series: (1) derivatives formed from the same stem: *writing, writer, underwrite, writ,* etc.; (2) words of similar or related meaning: *scribble, scrabble, scrawl; letter, script, pen, print; read, say, speak,* etc.; (3) homonymous words: *wright, rite, right.* In (1) the association is based on both sounds and sense, in (2) on sense alone, and in (3) on a chance identity of sound.

The associative field of a word is an unstable and highly variable structure: it differs from one speaker to another, from one social group to another, and possibly as a 'halo which surrounds the sign and whose outer fringes merge into their environment[1]. In spite of its vagueness and its lack of sharp contours, it is a linguistic reality which can be studied by psychological as well as philological methods.

Questions

1. Why is the described organization of the vocabulary considered doubtful? 2. It is fundamentally wrong to consider words in isolation. Why? 3. How would you call the three types of groups discussed by the author?

Exercise 7. Arrange the following units into three lexical sets -feelings, parts of the body, education.

academy, affection, arm, back, belly, body, bone, book, brow, calf, calmness, cheek, chest, classes, classmate, coaching, college, contempt, contentment, correspondence, course, curriculum, day-student, delight, don, drill, ear, education, elbow, encyclopedia, enthusiasm, envy, erudition, excitement, exercise,

Questions

1. Why is the described organization of the vocabulary considered doubtful? 2. It is fundamentally wrong to consider words in isolation. Why? 3. How would you call the three types of groups discussed by the author?

Exercise 8. Arrange the following units into three lexical sets -feelings, parts of the body, education.

academy, affection, arm, back, belly, body, bone, book, brow, calf, calmness, cheek, chest, classes, classmate, coaching, college, contempt,

contentment, correspondence, course, curriculum, day-student, delight, don, drill, ear, education, elbow, encyclopedia, enthusiasm, envy, erudition, excitement, exercise, exhilaration, eye, face, faculty, finger, foot, forehead; frustration, grammar, hair, hand, happiness, hate, head, headmaster, heel, homework, ignorance, impatience, indifference, indignation, instruction, jealousy, joint, kindness, knee, knowledge, knuckle, learning, lecturer, leg, lesson, library, limb, love, malice, master, neck, nose, passion, pedagogy, primer, professor, rapture, reader, relief, restlessness, satisfaction, scholar, schoolboy, schooling, science, scientist, seminar, shock, smattering, student, sympathy, teacher, teaching, staff, temple, tenderness, textbook, thigh, thrill, thumb, toe, torso, training, tuition, tutor, undergraduate, university, unrest, waist, wrath

Exercise 9. Read the following passage.
How differently the raw material of experience is elaborated by various languages can be seen even in such a preeminently concrete field as the scale of *colours.* The spectrum is a continuous band, without any sharp boundaries; the number and nature of colour distinctions is therefore largely a matter of habit and convention. The Greeks and Romans had a poorer palette than our modem language; there was, for example, no generic term for 'brown' or 'grey' in Latin: modern Romance forms like French *brun* and *gris* are borrowings from Germanic. There is no single word for 'grey' in modem Lithuanian either; different words are used to denote the grey colour of wool, of horses, cows or human hair. Colour terms employed in other languages will often appear more differentiated, or less differentiated, than our own, although it would be more correct to say that the field is divided up on different principles. Thus Russian distinguishes between *sinij* 'dark blue' and *goluboj* 'sky blue'; conversely, the Greek has a wide range of applications, some with and some without a notion of colour: 'gleaming, silvery; blush-green, light blue, grey'. Oddly enough, there is a somewhat similar accumulation of meanings in a Japanese colour adjective, *awo,* which can mean 'green', 'blue' and 'dark'; it can be used when speaking of 'green vegetable' the 'blue sea', or 'dark clouds'. Elsewhere, the discrepancies are even more marked The Navaho Indians, for example, have two terms corresponding to 'black', one

Exercise 10. Find synonyms for the following words, arrange your material into synonymic series and pick out the dominant word. Explain your choice.
believe, firm, precipice, single, soon

Exercise 11. Find words synonymous with the following units and use them in sentences.
event, feast, fellowship, manage, mendacious, temporal, thorough, thrive, withdraw, zeal

Exercise 12. With the help of dictionaries explain the meaning of each member of the synonymic series given below.

bystander - spectator - looker-on; cry - weep - shed tears - sob - snivel - wail- whimper; distinguished - illustrious - famous- noted - eminent - celebrated

Exercise 13. In the following word combinations substitute the italicized word with a synonym.

1. brisk pace, *celebrated* painter, *changeable* weather, improper story, *inconstant* lover*, juicy* fruit, *succinct* answer; 2. *convene* the delegates, *decide* the question, *describe* the beauty of the scene, *mislead* the teacher, *muster* all the men, *hasten* them along; 3. too *delicate* for the job, *lively* for his years

Exercise 14. Using the synonyms given below make up word combinations after the model.

*the fragrance of flowers:*aroma, fume, odour, perfume, reek, scent, smell, stench, stink, tang

Exercise 15. Using the appropriate synonym from the list given below complete the following sentences.

His behaviour is ...; His clothes are...; The stories he tells are... . (inappropriate, improper, unseemly)

Exercise 16. From the words in brackets choose the correct one to go with each of the synonyms given below.

1. acute, keen, sharp (knife, mind, sight); 2. abysmal, deep, profound (ignorance, river, sleep); 3. unconditional, unqualified (success, surrender); 4. diminutive, miniature, petite, petty, small, tiny (camera, house, speck, spite, suffix, woman); 5) brisk, nimble, quick, swift (mind, revenge, train, walk)

Exercise 17. Each sentence below is followed by a list of synonyms for the italicized word in the sentence. Show how each synonym would shade the meaning of the sentence if it were substituted.

1. I was *lured* into joining the conspiracy (enticed, inveigled, seduced). 2. The new medicine *lightened* her suffering (relieved, assuaged, alleviated). 3. Our foremen will *examine* each automobile for defects (inspect, scan, scrutinize). 4. Don't the chaperones seem *gloomy* tonight? (sulky, glum, sullen, dour). 5. Sylvia's friends were *eager* to hear the results of the beauty contest (avid, anxious, agog). 6. The new manager's *masterful* ways with his subordinates soon changed their attitude toward the work (domineering, peremptory, imperious). 7. The coach's rules for his athletes were unquestionably *severe* (rigid, rigorous, strict).

(The exercise is borrowed from R. M. Eastman. *Style,* p. 133)

Exercise 18. In the following sentences we find emphasized the difference rather than similarity between words which are usually regarded as synonyms. Find more examples of the same kind in the books you arc reading.

1. A dull steady ache but no pain worth mentioning. 2. Slowly the sharpness of the pain eased, and left only a dull ache behind. 3. There was no pain any more, simply a muscular soreness. 4. More haste, less speed. Especially on the mountains. These papers are private and personal. 6. I lifted my brows. Arson was a felony for which prison not jail was the normal site of atonement. 7. People like that did not have friends; associates - yes

Exercise 19. Following are pairs of words which in certain contexts may be synonymous, in others not. Find examples for both cases in books that you are reading.

anxiety - care; broad - wide; celebrate - praise; compare - contrast; curious - inquisitive; delicate - weak; hungry - greedy.

Exercise 20. Find antonyms to the following words.

add, asleep, correct, despair, different, esteem, exclude, handsome, high, mount, profound, reject, scarce, truth, weak.

3 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

3.1 Phraseology: Word-groups with Transferred Meaning

Phraseological units, or *idioms*, as they are called by most western scholars, represent what can probably be described as the most picturesque, colourful and expressive part of the language's vocabulary.

If synonyms can be figuratively referred to as the tints and colours of the vocabulary, then phraseology is a kind of picture gallery in which are collected vivid and amusing sketches of the nation's customs, traditions and prejudices, recollections of its past history, scraps of folk songs and fairy-tales. Quotations from great poets are preserved here alongside the dubious pearls of philistine wisdom and crude slang witticisms, for phraseology is not only the most colourful but probably the most democratic area of vocabulary and draws its resources mostly from the very depths of popular speech.

And what a variety of odd and grotesque images, figures and personalities one finds in this amazing picture gallery: dark horses, white elephants, bulls in china shops and green-eyed monsters, cats escaping from bags or looking at kings, dogs barking up the wrong tree and men either wearing their hearts on their sleeves or having them in their mouths or even in their boots. Sometimes this parade of funny animals and quaint human beings looks more like a hilarious fancy- dress bail than a peaceful picture gallery and it is really a pity that the only interest some scholars seem to take in it is whether the leading component of the idiom is expressed by a verb or a noun.

The metaphor *fancy-dress ball* may seem far-fetched to skeptical minds, and yet it aptly reflects a very important feature of the linguistic phenomenon under discussion: most participants of the carnival, if we accept the metaphor, wear masks, are disguised as something or somebody else, or, dropping metaphors, word-groups known as phraseological units or idioms are characterized by a double sense: the current meanings of constituent words build up a certain picture, but the actual meaning of the whole unit has little or nothing to do with that picture, in itself creating an entirely new image.

So, *a dark horse* mentioned above is actually not a horse but a person about whom no one knows anything definite, and so one is not sure what can be expected from him. The imagery of a *bull in a china shop* lies very much on the surface: the idiom describes a clumsy person (cf. with the Russian *слон в посудной лавке). A white elephant*, however, is not even a person but a valuable object which involves great expense or trouble for its owner, out of all proportion to its usefulness or value, and which is also difficult to dispose of. *The green-eyed monster* is jealousy, the image being drawn from *Othello. To let the cat out of the bag* has actually nothing to do with cats, but means simply "to let some secret become known". In *to bark up the wrong tree* (Amer.), the current meanings of the constituents create a vivid and amusing picture of a foolish dog sitting under a tree and barking at it while the cat or the squirrel has long since escaped. But the actual meaning of the idiom is "to follow a false scent; to look for somebody or something in a wrong place; to expect from somebody what he is unlikely to do". The idiom is not infrequently used in detective stories: *The police are barking up the wrong tree as usual* (i. e. they suspect somebody who has nothing to do with the crime).

The ambiguousness of these interesting word- groups may lead to an amusing misunderstanding, especially for children who are apt to accept words at their face value.

L i t t l e   J o h n n i e   *(crying):* Mummy, mummy, my auntie Jane is dead.

M o t h e r : Nonsense, child! She phoned me exactly five minutes ago.

J o h n n i e : But I heard Mrs. Brown say that her neighbours cut her dead.

(To cut somebody dead means "to rudely ignore somebody; to pretend not to know or recognize him".)

Puns are frequently based on the ambiguousness of idioms:

"Isn't our Kate a marvel! I wish you could have seen her at the Harrisons' party yesterday. If I'd collected the bricks she dropped all over the place, I could build a villa."

(To drop a brick means "to say unintentionally a quite indiscreet or tactless thing that shocks and offends people".)

So, together with synonymy and antonymy, phraseology represents expressive resources of vocabulary.

V. H. Collins writes in his *Book of English Idioms:* "In standard spoken and written English today idiom is an established and essential element that, used with care, ornaments and enriches the language."

Used with care is an important warning because speech overloaded with idioms loses its freshness and originality. Idioms, after all, are ready-made speech units, and their continual repetition sometimes wears them out: they lose their colours and become trite cliches. Such idioms can hardly be said to "ornament" or "enrich the language".

On the other hand, oral or written speech lacking idioms loses much in expressiveness, colour and emotional force.

In modern linguistics, there is considerable confusion about the terminology associated with these word-groups. Most Russian scholars use the term "phraseological unit" ("*фразеологічна одиниця")* which was first introduced by Academician V. V. Vinogradov whose contribution to the theory of Russian phraseology cannot be overestimated. The term "idiom" widely used by western scholars has comparatively recently found its way into Russian phraseology but is applied mostly to only a certain type of phraseological unit as it will be clear from further explanations.

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

The confusion in the terminology reflects insufficiency of positive or wholly reliable criteria by which phraseological units can be distinguished from "free" word-groups.

It should be pointed out at once that the "freedom" of free word-groups is relative and arbitrary. Nothing is entirely "free" in speech as its linear relationships are governed, restricted and regulated, on the one hand, by requirements of logic and common sense and, on the other, by the rules of grammar and combinability. One can speak of *a black-eyed girl* but not of *a*

black- eyed table (unless in a piece of modernistic poetry where anything is possible). Also, to say *the child was glad* is quite correct, but a *glad child* is wrong because in Modern English *glad* is attributively used only with a very limited number of nouns (e. g. *glad news),* and names of persons are not among them.

Free word-groups are so called not because of any absolute freedom in using them but simply because they are each time built up anew in the speech process where as idioms are used as ready-made units with fixed and constant structures.

Exercise 1. Consider your answers to the following.

1. What do we mean when we say that an idiom has a "double" meaning?

2. Why is it very important to use idioms with care? Should foreign-language students use them? Give reasons for your answer.

3. The term "phraseological unit" is used by most Russian scholars. What other terms are used to describe the same word-groups?

4. How can you show that the "freedom" of free word-groups is relative and arbitrary?

5. What are the two major criteria for distinguishing between phraseological units and free word- groups?

6. How would you explain the term "grammatical invariability" of phraseological units?

7. How do proverbs differ from phraseological units?

8. Can proverbs be regarded as a subdivision of phraseological units? Give reasons for your answer.

Exercise 2. What is the source of the following idioms? If in doubt consult your reference books.

The Trojan horse, Achilles heel, a labour of Hercules, an apple of discord, forbidden fruit, the serpent in the tree, an ugly duckling, the fifth column, to hide one's head in the sand.

Exercise 3. Substitute phraseological units with the noun "heart" for the italicized words. What is the difference between the two sentences?

1. He is not a man who *shows his feelings openly.* 2. She may seem cold but she *has true, kind feelings.* 3.1 learned that piece of poetry *by memory.* 4. When I think about my examination tomorrow I *feel in despair.* 5. When I heard that strange cry in the darkness I *was terribly afraid.* 6. It was the job I *liked very much.* 7.1 didn't win the prize but I'm *not discouraged.*

Exercise 4. Show that you understand the meaning of the following phraseological units by using each of them in a sentence.

1. Between the devil and the deep sea; 2. to have one's heart in one's boots; 3. to have one's heart in the right place; 4. to wear one's heart on one's sleeve; 5. in the blues; 6. once in a blue moon; 7. to swear black is white; 8. out of the blue; 9. to talk till all is blue; 10. to talk oneself blue in the face.

Exercise 5. Substitute phraseological units incorporating the names of colours for the italicized words.

1. I'm *feeling* rather *miserable* today. 2. He spends all his time on *bureaucratic routine.* 3. A thing like that happens very *rarely.* 4. You can *talk till you are tired of it* but I shan't believe you. 5. The news was a great shock to me. It came quite *unexpectedly.* 6.1 won't believe it unless I see it *in writing.* 7. You can never believe what he says, he will *swear anything* if it suits his purpose.

Exercise 6. Read the following jokes. Why do little children often misunderstand phraseological units? Explain how the misunderstanding arises in each case.

1. "Now, my little boys and girls," said the teacher. "I want you to be very still – so still that you can hear a pin drop." For a minute all was still, and then a little boy shrieked out: "Let her drop."

2. "You must be pretty strong," said Willie, aged six to the young widow who had come to call on his mother.

"Strong? What makes you think so?"

"Daddy said you can wrap any man in town around your little finger."

3. T o m: What would you do if you were in my shoes?

   T i m: Polish them!

4 . L i t t l e G i r l: O h , M r . S p r a w l e r , d o p u t o n y o u r s k a t e s a n d s h o w m e t h e f u n n y f i g u r e s y o u c a n m a k e .

M r. S p r a w l e r: My dear child, I'm only a beginner. I can't make any figures.

L i t t l e G i r l: But Mother said you were skating yesterday and cut a ridiculous figure.

Exercise 7. Read the following proverbs. Give their Russian equivalents or explain their meanings.

A bargain is a bargain. A cat in gloves catches no mice. Those who live in glass houses shouldn't throw stones. A good beginning is half the battle. A new broom sweeps clean. An hour in the morning is worth two in the evening. It never rains but it pours. Don't look a gift horse in the mouth. Make hay while the sun shines.

Exercise 8. Read the following joke. What proverb is paraphrased in it?

Dull and morose people, says a medical writer, seldom resist disease as easily as those with cheerful disposition. The surly bird catches the germ.

3.2 Vocabulary of American English

It is quite true that the vocabulary used by American speakers, has distinctive features of its own. More than that: there are whole groups of words which belong to American vocabulary exclusively and constitute its specific feature. These words are called Americanisms.

The first group of such words may be described as *historical Americanisms.*

At the beginning of the 17th c. the first English migrants began arriving in America in search of new and better living conditions. It was then that English was first spoken on American soil, and it is but natural that it was spoken in its 17th c. form. For instance, the noun *fall* was still used by the first migrants in its old meaning "autumn", the verb *to guess* in the old meaning "to think", the adjective *sick* in the meaning "ill, unwell". In American usage these words still retain their old meanings whereas in British English their meanings have changed.

These and similar words, though the Americans and the English use them in different meanings, are nevertheless found both in American and in British vocabularies.

The second group of Americanisms includes words which one is not likely to discover in British vocabulary. They are specifically American, and we shall therefore call them *proper Americanisms.* The oldest of these were formed by the first migrants to the American continent and reflected, to a great extent, their attempts to cope with their new environment.

It should be remembered that America was called "The New World" not only because the migrants severed all connections with their old life. America was for them a truly new world in which everything was strikingly and bewilderingly different from what it had been in the Old Country (as they called England): the landscape, climate, trees and plants, birds and animals.

Therefore, from the very first, they were faced with a serious lack of words in their vocabulary with which to describe all these new and strange things. Gradually such words were formed. Here are some of them.

Backwoods ("wooded, uninhabited districts"), *cold snap* ("a sudden frost"), *blue-grass* ("a sort of grass peculiar to North America"), *blue-jack* ("a small American oak"), *egg-plant* ("a plant with edible fruit"), *sweet potato* ("a

plant with sweet edible roots"), *redbud* ("an American tree having small budlike pink flowers, the state tree of Oklahoma"), *red cedar* ("an American coniferous tree with reddish fragrant wood"), *cat-bird* ("a small North-American bird whose call resembles the mewing of a cat"), *cat-fish* ("called so because of spines likened to a cat's claws"), *bull-frog* ("a huge frog producing sounds not unlike a bull's roar"), *sun-fish* ("a fish with a round flat golden body").

If we consider all these words from the point of view of the "building materials" of which they are made we shall see that these all familiarly English, even though the words themselves cannot be found in the vocabulary of British English. Yet, both the word-building pattern of composition (see Ch. 6) and the constituents of these compounds are easily recognized as essentially English.

Later proper Americanisms are represented by names of objects which are called differently in the United States and in England. E.g. the British *chemist's* is called *drug store or druggist's* the United States, the American word for *sweets* (Br.) is *candy, luggage* (Br.) is called *baggage* (Amer.), *underground* (Br.) is called *subway (Amer.), lift (Br.)* is called *elevator* (Amer.), *railway* (Br.) is called *railroad* (Amer.), *carriage* (Br.) is called *car* (Amer.), *car* (Br. is called *automobile* (Amer.).

If historical Americanisms have retained their 17th-c. meanings (e. g. *fall, n., mad,* adj., sick, adj.), there are also words which, though they can be found both in English and in American vocabulary, have developed meanings characteristic of American usage. The noun *date* is used both in British and American English in the meanings "the time of some event"; "the day of the week or month"; "the year". On the basis of these meanings, in American English only, another meaning developed: an appointment for a particular time (transference based on contiguity: the day and time of an appointment > appointment itself).

American vocabulary is rich in borrowings. The principal groups of borrowed words are the same as were pointed out for English vocabulary. Yet, there are groups of specifically American borrowings which reflect the historical contacts of the Americans with other nations on the American continent.

These are, for instance, Spanish borrowings (e. g. *ranch, sombrero, canyon, cinch),* Negro borrowings (e. g. *banjo)* and, especially, Indian borrowings. The latter are rather numerous and have a peculiar flavour of their own: *wigwam, squaw, canoe, moccasin, toboggan, caribou, tomahawk.* There are also some translation-loans of Indian origin: *pale-face (*the name of the Indians for all white people), *war path, war paint, pipe of peace, fire-water.*

These words are used metaphorically in both American and British modern communication. A woman who is too heavily made up may be said to wear *war paint,* and a person may be warned against an enemy by: *Take care: he is on the war path* (i. e. he has hostile intentions);

Many of the names of places, rivers, lakes, even of states, are of Indian origin, and hold, in their very sound, faint echoes of the distant past of the continent. Such names as, for instance, *Ohio*, *Michigan*, *Tennessee*, *Illinois*, *Kentucky* sound exotic and romantic. These names awake dim memories of those olden times when Indian tribes were free and the sole masters of the vast unspoiled beautiful lands. These words seem to have retained in their sound the free wind blowing over the prairie or across the great lakes, the smokes rising over wigwams, the soft speech of dark-skinned people. It seems that Longfellow's famous lines about Indian legends and tales could well be applied to words of Indian origin:

Should you ask me, whence the stories?
Whence these legends and traditions,
With the odour of the forest,
With the dew and damp of meadows,
With the curling smoke of wigwams,
With the rushing of great rivers ...

(From *Hiawatha Song)*

One more group of Americanisms is represented by *American shortenings.* It should be immediately pointed out that there is nothing specifically American about shortening as a way of word-building (see Ch. 6). It is a productive way of word-building typical of both British and American English. Yet, this type of word structure seems to be especially characteristic for American word-building. The following shortenings were produced on American soil, yet most of them are used both in American English and British English: *movies, talkies, auto, gym* (for *gymnasium), dorm* (for *dormitory), perm* (for *permanent wave,* "kind of hairdo"), *mo* (for *moment*, e. g. *Just a mo), circs* (for *circumstances,* e. g. *under the circs), cert* (for *certainty,* e. g. *That's a cert),* n. g. *(for no good), b. f.* (for *boyfriend), g. m.* (for *grandmother), okay.* (All these words represent informal stylistic strata of the vocabulary.)

More examples could be given in support of the statement that the vocabulary of American English includes certain groups of words that are specifically American and possesses certain distinctive characteristics. Yet, in all its essential features, it is the same vocabulary as that of British English, and, if in this chapter we made use of the terms "the vocabulary of American English" and "the vocabulary of British English", it was done only for the sake of argument. Actually, they are not two vocabularies but one. To begin with, the basic vocabulary, whose role in communication is of utmost importance, is the same in American and British English, with very few exceptions.

On the other hand, many Americanisms belong to colloquialisms and slang, that is to those shifting, changeable strata of the vocabulary which do not

represent its stable or permanent bulk, the latter being the same in American and British speech.

Against the general extensive background of English vocabulary, all the groups of Americanisms look, in comparison, insignificant enough, and are not sufficiently weighty to support the hypothesis that there is an "American language".

Many Americanisms easily penetrate into British speech, and, as a result, some of the distinctive characteristics of American English become erased, so that the differentiations seem to have a tendency of getting levelled rather than otherwise.

Exercise 1. Consider your answers to the following:

1. In what different ways might the language spoken in the USA be viewed linguistically?

2. What are the peculiarities of the vocabulary of English spoken in the USA?

3. Can we say that the vocabulary of the language spoken in the USA supports the hypothesis that there is an "American language"? Give a detailed answer.

Exercise 2. Read the following extract and give more examples illustrating the same group of Americanisms. What do we call this group?

M: - Well, now, *homely* is a very good word to illustrate Anglo-American misunderstanding. At any rate, many funny stories depend on it, like the one about the British lecturer visiting the United States; he faces his American audience and very innocently tells them how nice it is to see so many homely faces out in the audience.

Homely in Britain means, of course, something rather pleasant, but in American English 'not very good looking*. This older sense is preserved in some British dialects.

(From *A Common Language* by A. H. Marckwardt and R. Quirk)

Exercise 3. Read the following passage. Draw up a list of terms denoting the University teaching staff in Great Britain and in the USA. What are the corresponding Russian terms?

Q: But speaking of universities, we've also got a different set of labels for the teaching staff, haven't we?

M: Yes, in the United States, for example, our full time *faculty,* which we call *s t a f f* incidentally – is arranged in a series of steps which goes from *instructor* through ranks of *assistant professor, associate professor* to that of *professor.* But I wish you'd straighten me out on the English system. *Don* for

example, is a completely mysterious word and I'm never sure of the difference, say, between a *lecturer* and *a reader.*

Q: Well, readers say that lecturers should lecture and readers should read! But seriously, I think there's more similarity here than one would imagine. Let me say, first of all, that this word *don* is a very informal word and that it is common really only in Oxford and Cambridge. But corresponding to your instructor we've got the rank of *assistant lecturer*, usually a beginner's post. The assistant lecturer who is successful is promoted, like your instructor and he becomes a lecturer and this lecturer grade is the main teaching grade throughout the university world. Above lecturer a man may be promoted to *senior lecturer* or *reader*, and both of these – there's little difference between them – correspond closely to your associate professor. And then finally he may get a chair, as we say — that is a professorship, or, as you would say, a full professorship. It's pretty much a difference of labels rather than of organization, it seems to me.

(From *A Common Language* by A. H. Marckwardt and R. Quirk)

Exercise 4. Give the British equivalents for the following Americanism.

Apartment, store, baggage, street car, full, truck, elevator, candy, corn.

Exercise 5. Explain the differences in the meanings of the following words in American and British English.

Corn, apartment, homely, guess, lunch.

Exercise 6. Identify the etymology of the following words.

Ohio, ranch, squash, mosquito, banjo, toboggan, pickaninny, Mississippi, sombrero, prairie, wigwam.

Exercise 7. Comment on the formation of the following words.

Rattlesnake, foxberry, auto, Americanism, Colonist, addressee, ad, copperhead, pipe of peace, fire-water.

Exercise 8. Give the synonyms for the following American shortenings. Describe the words from the stylistic point of view.

Gym, mo, circs, auto, perm, cert, n. g., b. f., g. m., dorm.

3.3 The Grammar System of American English

Here we are likely to find even fewer divergencies than in the vocabulary system. The first distinctive feature is the use of the auxiliary verb *will* in the first person singular and plural of the Future Indefinite Tense, in contrast to the British normative *shall.* The American *I will go there* does not imply modality, as in the similar British utterance (where it will mean "I am willing to go there"), but pure futurity. The British-English Future Indefinite shows the same tendency of substituting *will* for *shall* in the first person singular and plural.

The second distinctive feature consists in a tendency to substitute the Past Indefinite Tense for the Present Perfect Tense, especially in oral communication. An American is likely to say *I saw this movie* where an Englishman will probably say *I've seen this film*, though, with the mutual penetration of both varieties, it is sometimes difficult to predict what Americanisms one is likely to hear on the British Isles. Even more so with the substitution of the Past Indefinite for the Present Perfect which is also rather typical of some English dialects.

Just as American usage has retained the old meanings of some English words *(fall, guess, sick),* it has also retained the old form of the Past Participle of the verb *to get: to get – got – gotten* (cf. the British *got).*

That is practically the whole story as far as divergencies in grammar of American English and British English are concerned.

The grammatical system, of tooth varieties, is actually the same, with very few exceptions.

American English is marked by certain phonetic peculiarities. Yet, these consist in the way some words are pronounced and in the intonation patterns. The system of phonemes is the same as in British English, with the exception of the American retroflexiv [r]-sound, and the labialized [h] in such words as *what, why, white, wheel,* etc.

All this brings us to the inevitable conclusion that the language spoken in the United States of America is, in all essential features, identical with that spoken in Great Britain. The grammar systems are fully identical. The American vocabulary is marked by certain peculiarities which are not sufficiently numerous or pronounced to justify the claims that there exists an independent American language. The language spoken in the United States can be regarded as a regional variety of English.

Canadian, Australian and Indian (that is, the English spoken in India) can also be considered regional varieties of English with their own peculiarities.

Exercise 1. Consider your answers to the following:

1. What are the grammatical peculiarities of the American variety of English?

2. Describe some of the phonetic divergencies in both varieties of English.

3. What other regional varieties of English do you know?

Exercise 2. Look through the following list of words and state what spelling norms are accepted in the USA and Great Britain so far as the given words are concerned.

1. favour – favor
   honour – honor
   colour – color
2. centre – center
   metre – meter
   fibre – fiber
3. to enfold – to infold
   to encrust – to incrust
   to empanel – to impanel
4. defence – defense
   practice – practice

   offence – offense
5. marvellous – marvelous
   woollen – woolen
   jewellery – jewelry
6. cheque – check
   catalogue-catalog
   programme – program
7. judgement – judgment
   abridgement – abridgment
acknowledgement – acknowledgment

Exercise 3. Write the following words according to the British norms of spelling.

Judgment, practise, instill, color, flavor, check, program, woolen, humor, theater.

Exercise 4. Write the following words according to the American norms of spelling.

Honour, labour, centre, metre, defence, offence, catalogue, abridgement, gramm, enfold, marvellous.

Навчальне видання

АНГЛІЙСЬКА МОВА

Методичні вказівки

до вивчення лексикології

для студентів-референтів 3-го курсу ДДМА

Укладач   ШЕВЧЕНКО Олена Петрівна

За авторським редагуванням

Комп'ютерне верстання   О. М. Болкова