

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
ОДЕСЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ
імені І. І. МЕЧНИКОВА
ФАКУЛЬТЕТ РОМАНО-ГЕРМАНСЬКОЇ ФІЛОЛОГІЇ
КАФЕДРА ЛЕКСИКОЛОГІЇ ТА СТИЛІСТИКИ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ

LEXICOLOGY WORKSHOPS

МЕТОДИЧНІ ВКАЗІВКИ

*до практичних занять та самостійної роботи
з навчальної дисципліни «Лексикологія англійської мови»
для здобувачів першого (бакалаврського) рівня вищої освіти
спеціальності 035 Філологія
спеціалізації 035.041 Германські мови та літератури
(переклад включно), перша – англійська*

ОДЕСА
Букаєв Вадим Вікторович
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L63

Укладачі:

О. В. Ігіна, кандидат філологічних наук, доцент кафедри лексикології та стилістики англійської мови Одеського національного університету імені І. І. Мечникова

І. П. Савранчук, кандидат філологічних наук, доцент кафедри лексикології та стилістики англійської мови Одеського національного університету імені І. І. Мечникова

Рецензенти:

Н. О. Бігунова, доктор філологічних наук, професор, зав. кафедри теоретичної та прикладної фонетики англійської мови Одеського національного університету імені І. І. Мечникова;

О. О. Пожарицька, кандидат філологічних наук, доцент кафедри граматики англійської мови Одеського національного університету імені І. І. Мечникова

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L63 занять та самостійної роботи з навчальної дисципліни
«Лексикологія англійської мови» для здобувачів першого
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У методичних рекомендаціях представлена тематика практичних
занять, питання, що розглядаються, вправи та завдання для поглибленого ро-
зуміння та вивчення дисципліни “Лексикологія англійської мови” на третьо-
му курсі. Метою методичних вказівок є сформулювати та актуалізувати у
здобувачів вищої освіти теоретичні знання про лексикологічну диференціа-
цію мови загалом і англійської мови зокрема, про засоби словотвору
англійської мови, про типи лексичних значень слів, фразеологію та етимо-
логію англійських слів. Передбачається формування практичних вмінь
аналізувати та описувати лексичні засоби в англомовних текстах різних фу-
нкціональних стилів.

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ПЕРЕДМОВА

Представлені методичні рекомендації розроблені для забезпечення навчального процесу здобувачів першого (бакалаврського) рівня вищої освіти спеціальності 035 Філологія спеціалізації 035.041 «Германські мови та літератури» (переклад включно), перша – англійська.

Метою даної методичної розробки є формування та розвиток інтегральних, загальних та спеціальних компетентностей, які забезпечують готовність студентів факультету романо-германської філології до поглибленого розуміння та вивчення однієї з основних дисциплін освітньо-професійної програми “Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша – англійська”, а саме: обов’язкову дисципліну “Лексикологія основної іноземної мови” на третьому курсі.

Представлена методична розробка містить теми, вправи та завдання для вивчення та засвоєння таких ключових термінопонять дисципліни, як словотвір, метафора, метонімія, мотивація, звуження значення, розширення значення, полісемія, омонімія, синонімія, антонімія, запозичення, фразеологія, надан приклад комплексного лексикологічного аналізу англійськомовного тексту та глосарій базових термінів лексикології після кожної теми.

У результаті вивчення навчальної дисципліни здобувач вищої освіти повинен

знати: ключові поняття дисципліни “Лексикологія основної іноземної мови”;

вміти: вільно користуватися базовими термінами та поняттями в царині лексикології, вживати продуктивні моделі словотворення в англійській мові, визначати основні типи лексичних значень слів, знати класифікацію фразеологізмів та етимологію англійських слів, виконати комплексний лексикологічний аналіз тексту (200-300 лексичних одиниць), що демонструє практичні навички, які здобувачі вищої освіти засвоїли, вивчаючи курс дисципліни "Лексикологія англійської мови".

Лекції, практичні заняття та самостійна робота дозволять здобувачам освіти отримати уявлення про одну з основних теоретичних дисциплін лінгвістики, що стане базою для подальшого формування професійних спеціальних знань.

Освітній компонент «Лексикологія англійської мови» спрямований на формування глибоких системних знань здобувачів вищої освіти про методологічні підходи, теоретичні засади, інноваційний доробок аналітичного підходу до лексикологічного аналізу англійськомовного тексту в закладах вищої освіти.

ЗМІСТ НАВЧАЛЬНОЇ ДИСЦИПЛІНИ

Змістовий модуль 1. Word-building

Тема 1 General notes on Lexicology. General Characteristics of the Vocabulary of the English Language.

Тема 2 Word inner form. Word Motivation. Loss of Motivation. Acquisition of Motivation. Folk Etymology.

Тема 3 Word-Building System of the English language.

Тема 4 Productive Word-Building Patterns.

Тема 5 Compounding. Classification of Compounds.

Тема 6 Derivation. Morphological structure of a word. Derivational suffixes and prefixes.

Тема 7 Shortening. Types of Shortening.

Тема 8 Conversion. Substantivation. Partial Conversion. Reconversion.

Тема 9 Non-Productive Word-Building Patterns: Change of Stress, Sound Gradation, Sound Imitation, Blending, Back-Formation.

Змістовий модуль 2. Lexical meaning

Тема 1 Lexical Meaning of a Word. Approaches to the Study of Lexical Meaning. Classifications of Lexical Meaning.

Тема 2 Changes of Lexical Meaning: Extension, Specialization, Elevation, Degradation.

Тема 3 Transfer of Lexical Meaning: Metaphor, Metonymy.

Тема 4 Ambiguity of Lexical Meaning: Polysemy, Homonymy.

Тема 5 Nearness and Polarity of Lexical Meaning: Synonymy and Antonymy.

Тема 6 Phraseology in the Modern English. Classification of Phraseological Units.

Тема 7 Borrowing. Principles of Classification of Borrowings.

Тема 8 Lexicological analysis of a newspaper text.

LEXICOLOGY WORKSHOPS

Workshop № 1

The Word. Word Morphological Structure.

Word-Building System of the English Language.

Productive patterns: Derivation / Affixation. Conversion / Zero Derivation

Topics for discussion: Definitions of the word in Linguistics. Word form. Word meaning. Morphological structure of the word.

Word-Building as a means of extending word stock.

Productive patterns: Derivation/Affixation. Conversion / Zero Derivation.

Questions and Tasks

1. What are the distinctive features of the word? How is the word defined?
2. Distinguish among the components of the word morphological structure.
3. Comment on IC analysis of the word structure.
4. What are the ways of enriching word stock and what is the role of Word-Building system in the English Language?
5. What is meant by the term "productivity" of a Word-Building pattern?
6. Which productive patterns are most active in forming new coinages? Why?
7. Tell the difference between derivational and functional morphemes.
8. Can a word obtain the function of a derivational suffix or prefix? Can a derivational suffix turn into a word?
9. Be sure to learn major English prefixes and all part-of-speech-producing derivational suffixes.
10. Read the passages below and be ready to discuss the problem of productivity of a language unit:

The productivity of any pattern is the relative freedom with which speakers coin new words by it. The productivity of a pattern varies in time: some patterns were highly limited some hundred years ago and conversely. For example, 50 years ago, when the type of restaurant called a *cafeteria* was spreading across the country, there was a short explosion of similarly formed names for stores in which there was an element of self-service:

grocery, *bootery*, *bookery*, etc. Hence, the suffix *-teria* acquired productivity within 50 years.

Charles F. Hockett

The suffix *-dom* was at one time thought to be dead. In the 19th century it was possible to coin the word *newspaperdom*. British English readily accepted *gangsterdom* and *Nazidom*. In 1942 Jespersen noted that *filmdom* and *stardom* may be on the threshold of being accepted into Standard English and instanced such nonce-words as *butlerdom*, *snobdom*, *Christmasdom* and others.

Brian Foster

11. What is Conversion? What historical process in English grammar produced Conversion?
12. What are the patterns and types of Conversion?
13. Consider the pattern of morphological analysis of the words below:
 - ***Hymn* is a simple word, consisting of one free root morpheme.**
 - ***Memorise* is a derived word with the bound root *memor* of Latin origin and the verb-forming derivational suffix *-ise* of Greek origin. The word is of the 1st degree of derivation, it is a hybrid.**
 - **The verb *to salary* is converted from the noun *salary*. The productive pattern N → V is at work. Complete conversion takes place.**

Exercises

Exercise 1. Analyse the morphological structure of the words:

House, capable, academic, broad-minded, permanent, blogger, web-site, hypodermic, hype, thatcherism, historical.

Exercise 5. Analyse the Noun-forming suffixes in the words below. Point out synonymous suffixes among them:

Author, teller, writer, movement, addressee, happiness, starlet, escapee, coward, manhood, membership, bookdom, auntie, pianist, realism, student, examination, drainage, growth, beauty, cigarette, assistance, visage, booklet, waitress.

Exercise 6. From the list pick out Adjective-forming suffixes and analyse them:

-less, -wise, -ing, -ful, -ous, -ate, -red, -dom, -ling, -ent, -ing, -manship, -ment, -ish, -y, -al, -an, -ence, -en, -ed, -ive, -ic, -y.

Exercise 7. Distinguish between Verb- and Adverb-forming suffixes. Recall words containing them and analyse the suffixes:

-ate, -ly, -ward, -ize, -fy, -wise, -en.

Exercise 8. Analyse the prefixes in the following words:

Unusual, inaccurate, irregular, illegal, immortal, non-productive, dismount, mistake, reproduce, undernourish, overfulfil, subway, international, cooperation, accept, arrive, adhere, appropriate, superman, immoral, impossible, overestimate, enlarge, bicycle, postwar forecast, outlook, unisex, ex-wife, antibiotic, semi-affix, counterproductive.

Exercise 9. Give morphological analysis of the words below:

Prefixation, coexistence, reconstructive, criticize, moneywise.

Exercise 10. Comment on the semi-affixes used in the words below:

Gentleman, fireman, newspaperman, soundproof, waterproof, foolproof, poofthing, snakething, cloakthing, ill-mannered, ill-educated, well-bred, well-educated.

Exercise 11. Read the following sentences. Find occasional coinages. Speak on the derivational pattern they follow. Analyse them.

Many who came to read it felt that this script was publishable as it stood. 2. All that I want is a little return of affection – not much, but sometimes a little! And one thing more: a little outspokenness too. 3. She looked kissable. 4. I'm better off living in Connecticut; but transportationwise and entertainmentwise I am a loser.

5. What a face for wrappers! Sort of Mona-Lisa-ish. 6. It all sounds very mountain-out-of-molehillish. 7. 18000 pairs of eyes were westernized in Japan. 8. She knew that the real reason was the feeling of sameness, the affair had begun to assume. 9. Prince William is being trained for kingship. 10. There is no hood, like Motherhood.

Exercise 13. Find converted words in the following sentences. What pattern of Conversion is at work?

1. I've waited months to face her. 2. Mrs. Venable, did your doctor okay this thing? 3. He always had a little entourage of the beautiful and the talented and the young. 4. Don't you me! 5. This sounds like a vanity, Doctor. 6. You said that it satisfies them, it quiets them down, it suddenly makes them peaceful. 7. Name it that – I don't care. The young doctor stares at Kate framed by the lace window curtains. 8. I'm sick being bossed

and bullied! 9. She has advanced toward the bay window. 10. You were the only witness to it, Cathie. 11. You didn't know you'd parade them (clothes) in front of me, George. 12. – I could curl hair in a beauty parlour. I could be a cashier. – You can't count change. 13. Professor Higgins boasted in "Pygmalion" that he could place any man in London within two miles. 14. He hoped to be well salaried. 15. She was hawking wares.

Exercise 14. Make up your own sentences with converted words given below:

To back; to dress; to face; to fish; to hand; to elbow; to name; to you (somebody); the rich; the quick and the dead (what is the meaning of the word-combination?); the now (President); the then (Prime-Minister); a look; a (long) run; a touch.

Definitions of principal concepts:

- **Lexicology (from Gr. *lexis* = word + *logos* = science)**, a branch of linguistics dealing with the vocabulary of a language and the properties of words as the basic units of a language.
- **Word**, the basic two-facet unit of a language, having form and meaning, characterized by structural and semantic integrity and by separability.
- **Lexical meaning**, the correlation between referent, concept and sign which reflects the main properties of the thing denoted.
- **Grammatical meaning**, the component of meaning revealing correlation between words in a phrase.
- **Morpheme (from Gr. *morphe*=form)**, the smallest meaningful unit in a language.
- **Root**, the common unchanged element of words within a word-family.
- **Derivational affix**, an affix that serves to form new words.
- **Functional affix (Inflectional affix)**, an affix that serves to convey grammatical meaning and thus to produce grammatic forms of a word.
- **Stem**, the form of a word before any inflectional affixes are added.
- **Word-Building (WB)**, the process of forming words according to certain patterns specific for a language.

- **Productivity**, the relative freedom to coin new words by using certain WB patterns.
- **Derivation (Affixation)**, a word-building pattern in which a word is produced by adding derivational affixes to a stem.
- **Conversion (Zero Derivation)**, a word-building pattern in which a word is produced by means of shift into another part of speech. The initial form is not altered, the semantic structure, the formal paradigm, the syntactic function and word valency are changed.
- **Substantivation**, the process or result of converting adjectives into nouns.
- **Paradigm**, the complete set of related word forms associated with a given lexeme (e.g. conjugations of verbs, declensions of nouns).
- **Word Valency**, the aptness of a word to appear in specific lexical/grammatical combinations.
- **Hybrid word**, a word that etymologically derives from different languages.

Workshop № 2

Productive Word-Building Patterns

Topics for discussion: Compounding/Word Composition. Compound words vs word-combinations. Structural types of compounds. Semantic classification of compounds. Shortening/Clipping. Classifications of shortened words.

Questions and Tasks

1. What are the distinctive features of a compound word?
2. What are the most recurrent patterns of compounds?
3. Tell the difference between a compound and a word-combination.
4. What are the criteria of classification of compounds?
5. How are compounds classified according to their structure?
6. What types of compounds are classified according to their semantics?
7. What can make a complete sentence become a compound word?
8. Read a passage and comment on it:

The main point to be noticed in a compound is that we have not only one word made up of 2 or more roots, but one conception, not the sum of 2 or

more conceptions, expressed by the elements of a compound. For example, the *highway* was originally a way raised above the surrounding countryside for better drainage and ease of travel; later it became *highway*, and now we use *highway* without any idea of the original sense.

J. A. Sheard

9. Consider the pattern of the morphological analysis of compound words:
 - ***Absent-mindedness* is a derivational compound with 2 free root morphemes *absent* and *mind* and 2 derivational suffixes - adjective forming *-ed* and noun-forming *-ness*. The compound is subordinative (- *mindedness* is semantically domineering), derivational (2nd degree of derivation), motivated, neutral.**
10. What explains the fact that Shortening is an extremely popular pattern in the English language?
11. Dwell on the 3 basic types of shortened words.
12. Where are graphical shortenings very recurrent?
13. Give classification of lexical shortenings.
14. What are abbreviations? Which are called acronyms?
15. Define semi-abbreviations and quazi-abbreviations.
16. Read the passage and convey its content:

There are today many words generally accepted in the standard language which are shortened forms of the words they have displaced. Few people would use *pianoforte* rather than *piano*, *an unmarried lady* is *miss*, not *mistress*, and one asks for *gin*, never for *Geneva*.

It is not easy to be certain when the shortened form is fully accepted in the standard language - possibly it is when only pedants use the full form: e.g. *exam.*, *lab.*, *maths.*, *pub.* are not yet standard, but hardly anyone talks of going to the *Zoological Gardens*, though why *zoo* should have been met with general approval, yet one always says *botanical gardens*, and *never bot.*, is not clear.

J. A. Sheard

- 17 Consider the pattern for morphological analysis of a shortened word:

- ***Fridge* is a mixed type of lexical shortening from the noun *re – fridge-rator*, apheresis + apocope.**
- ***Sqft* is graphical shortening from the word combination square foot.**
- ***GCSE* is initial abbreviation from the phrase General Certificate of Secondary Education.**
- ***PETA* is an acronym from the phrase People for the Ethical Treatment of Animals.**

Exercises

Exercise 1. Decide whether the pairs of words are compounds or word combinations:

Union Jack; Stars-and-Stripes; Downing street 10, White Hall, a white hall, White House, a white house, Wall Street, an air raid, a blue stocking.

Exercise 2. Distinguish between proper and derivational compounds:

Stars-and-stripes, walkie-talkie, scapegoat, sky-scraper, hide-and-seek, see-saw, heart-broken, hijack, black-jack, suicide-bomber, washing-machine.

Exercise 3. Discriminate among neutral, morphological and syntactic compounds:

Anglo-Saxon, jack-knife, speedometer, handi-craft, merry-go-round, give-and-take, jack-of-all-trades, salesgirl, do-it-yourself, head-and-shoulders, feed-back, cash-back, cash-desk.

Exercise 4. Distinguish between motivated and non-motivated compounds:

Blackbird, ladybird, big-foot, brain-drain, hot-dog, man-of-war, boot-legger, wall-paper, wall-flowers, waste-paper-basket, honey-moon, dog-house, swimming-pool, lily-of-the-valley, snow-drop, king-to-be, cash-machine, cash-back, lady-chair, mother-of-thousands, mother-in-law, face-book.

Exercise 5. Decide whether compounds are coordinative or subordinative:

Afro-American, cruel-hearted, world-famous, stay-at-home, bitter-sweet, boy-friend, lap-top, note-book, never-ending, insight, no-longer-young, wee-wee, ping-pong, blah-blah, knick-knacks, blow-by-blow, marble-cake-colored.

Exercise 6. Account for the structure of the words. Why are they called disguised compounds?

Woman, lady, Lord, fellow, husband, breakfast, Christmas, daisy, window, Monday, kidnap.

Exercise 7. Give complete analysis of the compounds:

Up-to-date, lockdown, sandwich-man, officer-in-charge, speedometer, man-of-war, mother of thousands, black-shirt, bigfoot, peace-keepers, suicide bomber.

Exercise 8. Analyse the structure of each condensed sentence and its syntactic function.

The dog looked at me with I-don't-understand-you look.

There was on every face a some-girls-just-don't-know-when-to-come-home look.

He stepped out into his same-old-but-somehow-not neighborhood.

Exercise 9. Restore full names of people. Decide upon the type of shortening:

Andy, Alex, Aggie, Bess - Beth - Betsy - Betty, Becky, Connie, Debby, Dan, Jan, Ed, Fred, Harry, Jon, Lenny, Maggie - Meg, Nan, Tina, Tom.

Exercise 10. Learn Latin shortenings:

a.m., p.m., ca, e.g., cf., ff., i.e., etc., NB, P.S., IT, lb, et.al., ibid., op.cit., AD, BC, vs.

Exercise 11. Arrange the following shortenings into 3 groups: apheresis, syncope, apocope:

Ad, lab, story, sprite, fence, pram, peal, comfy, captain, sport, auto, car, through, taxi, mend, perm, phone, bike, cop, demo, celebs, spy, pop, vac, fridge, movie, cinema, coke, flu, fan, teck, wig, bus, exam, prof, photo, mag, math, plane, vet, zoo.

Exercise 12. Analyse the shortenings (supply the full words, point the type of shortening):

GB, UK, IQ, A-level, O-level, sport, taxi, cab, flu, story, mend, Mr., Mrs., teck, fridge, hype, pram, sprite, through, 80 mph, N.Y., St., sub, bus, fence, cycle, mob, hanky, baccy, exam, prof, wig, Fred, Kate, perm, zoo, pub, Dr., RSVP., PTO, MM, BB, GG, rap, www, cute, MP, OPEC, MAGA, BLM, FEAR, YOLO.

Exercise 13. Define the type of shortening and supply the full words or word combinations:

JFK, UNO, UNESCO, CD, radar, laser, BA, CNN, FBI, NATO, BBC, VIP, PR, USA, GI, IOU, CIA, UFO, AIDS, POW, WOMAN, WHO, MP, PEN-club, AD, MI-5, MI-6, BC, V-day, D-day, A-bomb, U-boat, U-language, H-bag, TV-show, T-storm, T-shirt, U-turn, H-bomb, D-bomb, B-girl.

Exercise 14. Find shortened words in the following sentences and analyse them: If you ever hope to be a VIP, if your voice has a sweetness of a honey-bee, you're bound to make you ruler of a Ministry. 2. MPs and Left journalists are asking the Labour movement to join in five demands. 3. I'll leave you those mags. You ought to read them sometime. 4. After a good many years of pop music Stafford Nye felt an incredulous pleasure.

Definitions of principal concepts:

- **Compounding (Word Composition)**, a word-building pattern in which a word is formed by combining two or more stems.
- **Word-combination**, groups of words that often go together.
- **Disguised compounds**, etymological compounds that were turned into root words.
- **Shortening (Clipping)**, a word-building pattern in which a new word is produced by clipping a part of the source word.
- **Lexical shortening**, shortening of a word both in written and oral forms (*apheresis* = initial, *syncope* = middle, *apocope* = final).
- **Graphical shortening**, shortening of a word only in written form.
- **Abbreviation**, a short form of a word or a phrase, made by using only the first letter of each word (initial abbreviation).
- **Acronym**, a pronounceable name made up of a series of initial letters.
- **Semi-Abbreviation**, a type of abbreviation, where the first component is abbreviated, the second component is given in the full form.
- **Quasi-Abbreviation**, a type of abbreviation, where nothing is abbreviated, the first component serves as a symbol.

Workshop № 3

Semasiology. Approaches to the Study of Word Lexical Meaning.

Change of Word Lexical Meaning

Topics for discussion: Referential and Functional approaches to word lexical meaning. Semasiological triangle. Classifications of Lexical Meaning. Causes of semantic change, change of nominative meaning: Extension, Specialisation. Change of connotative meaning: Elevation, Degradation.

Questions and Tasks

1. Who are the fathers of Semasiology as a separate branch of Lexicology? When did it appear?
2. What is the basic problem of Semasiology?
3. Differentiate between 2 main approaches to the study of lexical meaning.
4. Define lexical meaning from the point of view of these approaches. Who fathered each approach?
5. What is symbolised by the 3 points of the semasiological triangle?
6. Tell the difference between classical typology of lexical meaning and modern ones.
7. Dwell on N. Amosova's classification. Explain the terms:
nominative :: connotative; significative :: denotative.
8. Tell the difference between the oppositions:
primary meaning :: secondary meaning;
direct meaning :: transferred meaning;
central meaning :: peripheric meaning;
concrete meaning :: abstract meaning.
9. What is the role of context in the realisation of word lexical meaning?
10. Read the following passage and decide what approach to meaning (Referential or Functional) E.A. Nida adheres to:

The tendency to think of the meaning of a word, e.g. *apple*, *boy*, *dog*, or *sun*, as apart from an actual communication event is fundamentally a mistake, for once we have isolated a word from its living context, we no longer possess the insight necessary to appreciate fully its real functions.

11. What are the extralinguistic causes of Semantic change?
12. What alterations in the concept, expressed by the word, bring forth change of nominative meaning?
13. Reveal the difference between Extension and Specialisation of word nominative meaning.
14. What results in extreme generalisation and extreme specialisation of word meaning?
15. What alterations in people's attitude to the referent, expressed by the word, bring forth revaluation of Emotive or Stylistic connotative meaning?

16. Tell the difference between Elevation and Degradation of word connotative meaning.

17. Read the extracts below and be ready to comment on the ideas expressed.:

A. M. Breal was probably the first to emphasize the fact that in passing from general usage into some special sphere of communication a word as a rule undergoes some sort of specialisation of its meaning... When the meaning is specialised the word can name fewer objects, i.e. have fewer referents. At the same time the content of the word is enriched, as it includes a greater number of relevant features by which the notion is characterized. Or, in other words, the word is now applicable to fewer things but tells us more about them.

I. Arnold

B. Context may play a vital role in fixing the meanings of words which are too vague or too ambiguous to make sense by themselves. To take an extreme case, the verb *do* has such a wide variety of uses that it is virtually meaningless itself and wholly depends on context.

Steven Ullmann

18. Consider the pattern of analysis of change of lexical meaning:

- **The noun *place* underwent extension of meaning from a *broad way* (Latin) to a *space or area*. It is part of an etymological triplet *place – plaice – plate*.**

Exercises

Exercise 1. Draw semasiological triangle and dwell on the correlation among its three points.

Exercise 2. Single out nominative and connotative meanings in the adjective *sweet* in different contexts.

1. The tea is too sweet for me. I got a sweet deal on the car. 2. The soprano voice sounded sweet. 3. They breathed in the sweet air of the countryside. 4. The sweet feeling of freedom made Adam's head go round. 5. A sweet little poodle was making circles in the garden. 6. It is sweet of you to have remembered us. 7. Do you like cake sweet?

Exercise 3. Consult Etymological dictionary for the primary meanings of the words below. In the Explanatory dictionary find the secondary meanings of these words. Decide which meaning is the central one.

Time, tide, spring, line, bar, hospital

Exercise 4. Trace the process of Extension of nominative meaning in the words below:

Arrive, ready, woman, lady, place, bribe, calculate, rule, clerk, journal, journey, season, salary, style, pipe.

Exercise 5. Trace the process of Specialisation of nominative meaning in the words below:

Bible, girl, wife, meat, room, poison, tide, garage, hangar, starve, hound, deer, fowl, worm, hospital, voyage.

Exercise 6. Trace the evolution of lexical meanings of the words *thing* and *do*. What makes them words of wide semantics? (Use Etymological dictionary)

Exercise 7. Trace the process of Elevation of connotative meaning in the words below:

Queen, Lady, Lord, marshal, admiral, Minister, Tory, comrade, smart, handsome, nice, noble, fame, heaven.

Exercise 8. Trace the process of Degradation of connotative meaning in the words below:

Villain, knave, vulgar, scoundrel, silly, poison, forge, mistress, clown, cunning.

Exercise 9. In the following sentences find words that underwent change of meaning, name the type of change. Prove your statement.

1. I crouched down and caught her a smart smack on the left cheekbone. 2. He seems to be quite smart on the head. 3. He spent a day in a smart place. 4. There's no room for doubt. 5. He was helped across the room. 6. See to it you don't get the flu. 7. He got what he deserved. 8. Can you get my meaning? 9. Tom got us sitting in armchairs. 10. Does it take you long to get to his place? 11. Nail Parkinson popped out of his depression. 12. Pop in and see me sometime. 13. It is difficult to see you as a Prime Minister, Dr. Audlin. 14. Were you his mistress, Betty? 15. The deer has just been killed.

Definitions of principal concepts:

Semasiology, a branch of linguistics which studies word meaning.

Lexical meaning, the correlation between referent, concept and sign which reflects the main properties of the thing denoted.

Primary : secondary meanings,

the earliest known meaning : meaning developing from primary.

Central : peripheric, the most recurrent meaning , recognised apart from the context : any meaning of the semantic structure but the central one.

Direct : transferred, lexical meaning, realising the function of nomination : lexical meaning, realising two functions: that of nomination and that of characterisation of the referent through its similarity or contiguity with another referent.

Denotative meaning, lexical meaning revealing the correlation between sign and referent.

Significative meaning, lexical meaning revealing the correlation between sign and concept.

Connotation, idea or notion associated with a word, revealing the sphere of word's application or the speaker's attitude to the referent.

Extension of meaning, the process of widening of the scope of concept expressed by the word.

Specialization of meaning, the process of narrowing of the scope of concept expressed by the word.

Elevation of meaning, acquisition of better connotation by the word.

Degradation of meaning, acquisition of derogatory (perjorative) connotation by the word.

Workshop № 4

Transfer of Word Lexical Meaning. Metaphor. Metonymy.

Topics for discussion: Types of association, transfer of meaning is based on. Causes of transfer of meaning. Transfer, based on association of similarity between referents (Metaphor). Types of similarity. Types of metaphor.

Transfer of meaning, based on association of contiguity between referents (Metonymy). Types of contiguity. Types of metonymy. Survey of types of transfer of meaning.

Questions and Tasks

1. What is the difference between the types of association transfer of meaning is based on?
2. Distinguish between 2 types of transfer of meaning.
3. Define metaphor. Specify types of comparison recurrent in metaphor creation.
4. How are metaphors classified from the view point of their "freshness"?
5. Comment on zoosemy and personification.

6. Can a metaphor be defined apart from context?
7. Dwell on the basic characteristics of transfer of lexical meaning of the word.
8. Define metonymy. What types of association stipulate metonymy?
9. Classification of metonymy.
10. Explain the difference between metaphor and metonymy.
11. Read the extract and comment on it:

A necessary condition of semantic change... is some connection, some association between the old meaning and the new one. There are 2 kinds of association... namely: a) similarity of meanings, and b) contiguity of meanings. Similarity... may be described as a semantic process of associating 2 referents, one of which in some way resembles the other... Contiguity... may be described as the process of associating 2 referents one of which makes part of the other or is closely connected with it.

R. Ginzburg

12. Consider the pattern of analysis of metaphors:
 - **To drown one's sorrow. The verb to drown is used metaphorically. The metaphor is based on similarity of action, it is a trite metaphor.**
 - **The wings of the plane were fluttering in the wind. The sentence contains the metaphor wings. It is based on similarity of function, form and position. The metaphor is trite.**
 - **The door stood agape. The adjective agape in this sentence is used metaphorically. The transfer is based on similarity of state. It is a genuine metaphor.**
13. Consider the pattern of analysis of metonymy:
 - **The yellow time came. The adjective *yellow* represents a case of metonymic transfer of meaning. It is based on association of contiguity between the yellow colour of the leaves of the trees and the season when they turned yellow, i.e. autumn. The metonymy is genuine.**
 - **Hands are wanted. Metonymy *hands* is based on the contiguity between a part of human body (hand) and a human being (man=worker). A part implies the whole, which results in synecdoche.**

Exercises

Exercise 1. Point out the type of similarity a metaphor is based on:

A cake of soap, to wear tails, a train of a dress, a cold smile, a warm welcome, heated debates, hot temper, time flies, thoughts run, to wear a smile, to Hoover a pizza, to duck out of the room, a coughing microphone, a choker, wings of a phone, legs of a table, an elbow a river, batwing sleeve, the eye of the storm, teeth of a saw, an iron lady.

Exercise 2. Find a metaphor in every sentence and analyse it (speak about the basis and the type of metaphor).

1. Tax payers were hit by a new tax. 2. The car is caked with pale brown mud. 3. And what grounds may I ask have you for saying that? 4. My doctor friend is at the head of a very good hospital. 5. She thrust a small sealed packet into his hand. "Guard it with your life. It's the key to everything". 6. The door stood agape. 7. Jimmy slammed shut the steel door of his mind against any other thought. 8. He dropped his voice. 9. A pain of joy ran through him. 10. During a storm Jonah, who had been on deck drinking to drown his sorrows got washed overboard and nearly drowned himself instead. 11. With her good manners she accepted her congé in the same spirit, put on her hat and gloves and walked out of his life. 12. He tried to melt her heart with kindness, but it remained as hard as before; he feigned indifference, but she did not notice it. 13. He had laid at her feet all the treasures of his soul, and she cared nothing for them. 14. Diana was hounded by the press. 15. Her life was laced with problems. 16. Diana entered our lives with a shy smile and a soft demeanor. 17. Fuel was added to the fire of his stories. 18. She was dressed in a dream-coloured chiffon. 19. She couldn't stop the storm in her soul. 20. Ann's face remained locked.

Exercise 3. Distinguish between cases of zoosemy and personification and analyse them.

1. February is the cruellest month. 2. The sky was angry. 3. The train was moving at a turtle speed. 4. George was the lame duck of the family. 5. June was a mouse of a girl. 6. Don't be a parrot and make people mock at you. 7. Mrs. Strickland was a lion hunter. She collected celebrities. 8. Lighted houses at night announce catastrophe. 9. He barked sharply: "Shut up!" 10. Stop that, you little monkey! 11. She was hawking wares.

Exercise 4. Account for the implications of metaphors, based on colour. Green with envy, green years, green fingers, white feather, white with rage, black market, black sheep, black humour, black list.

Exercise 5. Distinguish between trite and genuine metaphors.

A burning problem; to answer to one's expectations, an autograph hunter; the Southern arm of the bay; to hold one's tongue; to break the silence; the rings of water; a rib cage.

1. The pines breathed and whispered. 2. Flowering shrubs curtained the steep cliff. 3. The woods were silent. 4. I am fairly good at reading people. 5. My terror slowly faded. 6. Winter arrived early that year. 7. The storm was gathering steam. 8. The boat was swallowed by the storm. 9. The rumours refused to go away. 10. The holiday collapsed.

Exercise 7. Consider metaphoric usage of the verb *fall* in the word combinations below.

To fall in love; to fall a victim; to fall into disgrace; to fall asleep; to fall ill; to fall silent; to fall into despair; to fall into debt; to fall into a trap.

1. She flushed and her eyes fell. 2. The temperature here never falls below 10 degrees. 3. Educational standards are falling. 4. The family is falling to pieces. 5. The government fell after only 6 months in office. 6. The city fell to the advancing army. 7. The health service is falling apart.

Exercise 8. Explain the metaphoric nature of the proverbs and sayings.

The last straw breaks the camel's back.

To cherish a viper in one's bosom.

A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.

Between two stools one goes to the ground.

Birds of a feather flock together.

The mountain has brought forth a mouse.

A storm in a teacup; a wolf in sheep's clothing; by hook or by crook; as the tree, so the fruit; to call a spade a spade.

Exercise 10. Point the type of contiguity a metonymy is based on:

Adidas, a Hoover, china, champagne, cognac, Downing Street 10, Wall street, an iron, a glass, head (for maths), a Labrador, (succeed to) the crown, (drink) a cup; (take to) the bottle, a cop.

Exercise 11. Find a metonymy in every sentence and analyse it (speak about the basis of metonymy, name the type of metonymy).

1. The pit loudly applauded. 2. Would you have another cup? 3. Face to the wall stood a Renoir. 4. The house was very quiet. 5. Are you having spleen today? 6. The exhibition of silhouette photos opens next Saturday. 7. Multicoloured umbrellas were popping along the beach. 8. The agencies were polite but evasive. 9. Big Ben started chiming. 10. Three more Faberges have been brought back home recently. 11. Downing Street 10 insisted on Brexit. 12. In the 30-ies radio and TV sequels, financed by

advertisers of detergents, were called soup operas. 13. The short story "The Cop and the Anthem" is written by O. Henry. 14. Astrakhan is used for making fur coats and hats. 15. The following afternoon he saw the familiar auburn head coming towards him along the promenade. 16. I had practised at the Bar. 17. Whenever the House votes on a motion before it, the duty of the MP is to vote with his party. 18. He asked to see our papers. 19. She and her husband were the only people on board. 20. Forestier gave the waiter a note and told him to keep the change, then stalked out of the bar. 21. Keep away from the champagnes, he warmly recommended.

Exercise 12. Trace the metonymic nature of the words below. What makes them "dead" metonymy?

Big Ben, Piccadilly, bobby, cop, month, dollar, sandwich, mauser, colt, kalashnikov, nicotine, gazette, teddy bear.

Exercise 13. What geographic names are the following cases of metonymy connected with?

A newfoundland; cardigan; china; a derby (hat); a jersey (dress); the (following) wimbledon.

Exercise 14. See the difference between cases of metaphor and metonymy:

1. Mr. Pickwick bottled his anger and corked it. 2. Martha gave her heart to the grocer. 3. London is the heart of England. 4. A black tie dinner is a formal event. 5. William snubbed Cambridge for a Scottish university. 6. Though the war is still on, we are opening a political avenue. 7. The nine-eleven terrorist attack was another Pearl Harbour for the US. 8. The people flocked plucked to look at the accident. 9. Kiss your money good-bye. 10. They just hemorrhaged money. 11. You are waltzing through life. 12. His patronizing tone was hard to swallow. 13. The bottle was an ideal home for the message.

Exercise 15. In the following word-combinations differentiate between a metaphor, a metonymy and the word's direct meaning:

1. The foot of a person; of a page; of a bed; of a mountain.
2. The tongue of a child; of a flame; Tina's sharp tongue; Lost your tongue?;
mother tongue. 3. The mouth of a person; of a river; of a cave. 4. The head of a person; of the department; of cattle; skin-heads. 5. The neck of a girl; of a dress; of a bottle.

Exercise 16. What semantic processes did the words below undergo?

A catwalk; a pipe; a paparazzi; to Hoover (a pizza).

Definitions of principal concepts:

Metaphor, a transfer of meaning based on association of similarity between referents.

Zoosemy, an animal metaphor.

Personification, a type of metaphor, when a personal nature or human characteristics are attributed to something non-human.

Metonymy, a transfer of meaning based on association of contiguity between referents.

Synechdochy, a type of metonymy, when a part of something is used to refer to the whole of it, or the whole of something is used to refer to a part.

Workshop 5

Ambiguity of lexical meaning.

Polysemy. Homonymy

Topics for discussion: Types of ambiguity of word lexical meaning. Polysemy. Its role in replenishing the word stock of a language. Linguistic sources of Polysemy. Word semantic structure. The role of context in eliminating polysemy of a word. The likeness and the difference between Polysemy and Homonymy. Classification of homonyms. The role of context in identifying homonymous words.

Questions and Tasks

1. Explain the word “ambiguity”. What are the 2 types of ambiguity differentiating between two semantic phenomena: Polysemy and Homonymy?
2. Give a definition of Polysemy.
3. What specific peculiarities of the structure of English words make Polysemy and Homonymy highly developed?
4. What semantic processes result in making words polysemantic?
5. Dwell on the semantic structure of a word.
6. Define the terms: the invariant meaning and the LSVs (lexico-semantic variants).
7. Show the difference between the two ways of enriching word semantic structure (radiation and concatenation).
8. Comment on the importance of context as a means of revealing the meaning of a polysemantic word.

10. Read the extracts below and be ready to discuss the problems touched:

A. Polysemy happens because one word sprouts a variety of meanings, but sometimes it is the other way round – similar but quite separate words evolve identical spellings.

Bill Bryson

B. The range of the term *context* has been widened in several directions. Even the strictly *verbal context* is no longer restricted to what immediately precedes and follows, but may cover the whole passage, and sometimes the whole book, in which the word occurs... In addition to the verbal context the linguist must also pay attention to the so-called *context of situation*. It means... the actual situation in which the utterance occurs, but leads on to an even broader view of context embracing the entire cultural background against which a speech-event has to be set.

Stephen Ullmann

11. Why can homonymous and polysemantic words be confused? What is common between them?
12. What is the striking difference between them?
13. What are the criteria of classification of homonyms?
14. Give a pattern of analysis of homonyms.
15. Can a polysemantic word produce homonyms?
16. Read the passage and be ready to discuss it:

The intense development of homonymy in the English language is obviously due not to one single factor but to several interrelated causes, such as the monosyllabic character of English and its analytic structure... Monosyllabic words are most frequent. As the most frequent words are highly polysemantic, it is only natural that they develop meanings which in the course of time may deviate very far from the central one. When the intermediate links fall out, some of these new meanings lose connections with the rest of the structure and start a separate existence. Homonymy results from it.

I. Arnold

17. Consider the pattern of analysis of homonyms:
- **school – school (of fish). The homonyms are absolute; lexical; etymological (school – of Greek origin, school (of fish) – of Scandinavian origin).**
 - **to hide – a hide. The homonyms are absolute; lexico-grammatical; semantic.**
 - **to break – a brake. The homonyms are partial, homophones; lexico-grammatical; etymological.**

Exercises

Exercise 1. Comment on the meanings of the noun *heart* and point out their linguistic sources (change, transfer). What is its invariant meaning?

1. Can you hear my heart beating? 2. He left the country with a heavy heart. 3. I'm glad I followed my heart rather than my head for once. 4. He put his hand on his heart. 5. She sang the songs straight from the heart. 6. They bought the house in the heart of London. 7. They visited the Smiths in the heart of summer. 8. Diana became our queen of hearts (cf. "the queen of hearts" in card games). 9. You almost gave me a heart attack! 10. Things can change in a heart-beat.

Exercise 2. Decide whether the polysemy of the words *club* and *hand* develop identically – by radiation or concatenation.

Club: 1. A heavy stick. 2. A metal stick used in golf to hit a ball. 3. An organization for men, playing golf. 4. An organization, traditionally for men only, which provides a comfortable place for its members to relax, eat, or stay the night. 5. A thick heavy stick used to hit people. 6. The ace of clubs (in card games).

Hand: 1. A part of human body at the end of the arm. 2. Help (to need a hand, to give a hand). 3. Control (a stronghand). 4. Handwriting (to read one's hand). 5. A set of cards in a card game. 6. A worker (hands are wanted). 7. Skill (your hand is in music).

Exercise 3. Consider the semantics of the noun *thing*. Can the word be called polysemantic?

1. It was a horrible thing to happen. 2. That's a terrible thing to see. 3. I was wondering if I was doing the right thing. 4. I know a thing or two. 5. It's no bad thing to be able to compromise. 6. A red thing was caught in the branches. 7. The shed was where we keep our tools and things. 8. How are things with you, Sarah? 9. There is no such thing as ghosts.

Exercise 4. Point out the invariant meaning of the verb *to move* and the LSVs of its semantic structure. Mind the role of context.

1. The plane moved slowly along the runway, then stopped. 2. Becca moved down the steps and into the yard. 3. We've moved seven times in the last five years. 4. He had to move his mother into a nursing home. 5. The two political parties moved closer to each other in recent months. 6. It doesn't matter what you say to her. She won't be moved. 7. Things moved quickly once the contract was signed. 8. You'll have to move fast if you want to get this job. 9. His speech moved the audience. 10. Could we move the meeting to Thursday? 11. We seem to be moving away from the main point of the discussion. 12. Seeing her there had moved him to think about the time they had together.

Exercise 5. Decide what two processes of semantic alteration take part in the formation of the meanings of the words. Consult Etymological dictionary.

Pipe (water pipe, gas pipe, waste pipe, pipe for smoking); restaurant; paparazzi; catwalk, Oscar.

Exercise 6. Decide what semantic process – change or transfer – produced the polysemy of the words in italics.

1. He *toyed* with the *amber* of her hair. 2. Don't try *to creep* into my favour. 3. Long *trains* were moving along the *catwalk*. 4. A *pipe* had *burst* in the kitchen and *flooded* the floor. 5. Diana's face remained *locked* but her *lips* smiled. 6. Using celebrities in advertising guarantees *to pull in big bucks*. 7. Leo DiCaprio got his *Oscar* at last. 8. James provided the *shoulder* Diana needed. 9. *The whole town* was welcoming the heroes. 10. *Skin-heads* unlike *punks* are dangerous in the streets.

Exercise 7. See the difference of meanings in the pairs of words. Analyse the homonyms from the view point of their structure. Decide whether they are absolute or partial (homophones or homographs).

Light – light; mine – mine; race – race; nail – nail; tail – tale; to lie – lie; piece – peace; cent – scent; sight – site; to row – row; to wind – wind; wound – wound; buy – by; boy – buoy; knot – not; air – heir.

Exercise 8. Analyse the homonyms from the view point of their lexical and grammatical status (lexical, lexico-grammatical).

Sale – sail; seal – seal; to bow – bow; to bear – bear; dew – due; eye – I; to steal – steel; to face – face; to wait – weight; fowl – foul.

Exercise 9. Find homonyms in the sentences and analyse them. He rose to his feet. The rose in the vase was fading. 2. Leave me my fair share or else all is over between us. The tips of Ann's fair hair brushed on the page. 3.

She had room for about a dozen pupils. In his eyes the pupils were large. 4. I thought there might be a scene. Charles had to admit that he had not seen his father. 5. Who won the game? Can you spare me half an hour one day this week?

Exercise 10. What are the jokes based on?

1. U R 2 good 4 me 2 4 get U.
2. What we can eat we eat, and what we cannot we can.
3. – What is the time by your watch?
– It is two to two. And what is the time by your watch?
– It is two to two too.
4. – What is the strangest animal in the world?
– A writer.
– Why?
– Because his tale comes out of his head.
5. – What is the difference between Noah's Ark and Joan of Arc?
– Noah's Ark was made of wood and Joan of Arc was maid of Orleans.

Definitions of principal concepts:

Polysemy, plurality of lexical meanings. It is a phenomenon of language, not a speech.

Radiation, the pattern of polysemy development where each of the derived meanings is directly connected to the primary one.

Concatenation, the pattern of polysemy development where each of the later meanings related only to the preceding one like chains.

Split polysemy, divergent semantic development. Different meanings of the same word move so far away from each other that they come to be regarded as two separate units. Split polysemy results in homonymy.

Homonyms, two or more words identical in sound and spelling, but different in meaning.

Homophones, homonyms identical in sound but different in spelling.

Homographs, homonyms identical in spelling but different in sound.

Workshop № 6
Nearness and Polarity of Lexical Meanings.
Synonyms and Antonyms

Topics for discussion: Synonyms and Antonyms in the English language. Definitions. Classifications.

Questions and Tasks

1. The English language abounds in synonyms. How does this fact characterize the language?
2. Define the terms Synonymy and Antonymy.
3. Speak about the classification of synonyms.
4. What are the distinctive features of the synonymic dominant?
5. Speak about euphemisms, their specific characteristics, types and function. What are the etymological roots of euphemisms?
6. Dwell on antonyms, their types.
7. What is the role of context in the choice of synonyms and antonyms?
8. Read the messages and comment on them:

A. The more developed the language, the richer the diversity and therefore the greater the possibilities of lexical choice enhancing the effectiveness and precision of speech.

I. Arnold

B. English retains probably the richest vocabulary and most diverse shading of meanings of any language... For almost every word we have a multiplicity of synonyms.

Bill Bryson

Exercises

Exercise 1. See the difference between absolute and ideographic synonyms. Pick out the synonymic dominant.

Look – glance – glimpse – gaze – stare – glare – eye – scan – peep – peer – scrutinize – examine – view – observe. Foreword – preface. Wind-screen – wind-shield. Shine – glimmer – glitter – flash. Gift – present. Choose – select – pick out. Lavatory – WC. Ask – beg – plead – implore – entreat. Love – adore – worship. Dislike – hate – detest – loathe. Die – starve. Ring

– chime – toll. Blanket – quilt. Shake – tremble – shiver – shudder – flutter – quake. Shape – form. Aim – goal – purpose. Motherland – Fatherland.

Exercise 2. The following words represent small pieces of something. Put each in its correct place. Decide what type of synonyms they are.

Grain, crumb, fragment, blade, dot.

1. His views are dangerous and extreme, and yes etymological.

to row – a row. The homonyms are partial, homographs; lexicogrammatical there is a _____ of truth in what he says. 2. We

watched the ship as it sailed away until it was just a _____.

3. Archeologists are examining a _____ of a vase which they think is over 5000 years old. 4. The desert stretched for miles. Nothing green.

Not a single _____ of grass. 5. They were so hungry they ate the whole loaf of bread without letting a single

_____ fall to the ground.

Exercise 3. State the type of the synonyms.

Hand and glove; give and take; safe and sound; shame and disgrace; time and again; once and forever; one and all; kith and kin; hale and hearty; head and shoulders.

Exercise 4. Decide in what sphere of life the euphemisms can be used.

War – conflict; crisis – recession; famine – undernourishment; genocide – ethnic cleansing; garbage man – sanitation engineer; bomb – device; slums – inner city; negroes – colored people – Afro-Americans; killed people – casualties; war action – operation; drunk – intoxicated; vomit – bring up; pregnant – gone with child – an expectant mother; sweat – perspire – glow; lavatory – restroom – ladies’ room – the gents – men’s room – powder room – toilet – loo; die – pass away – join (the silent) majority – kick the bucket – turn one’s toes to daisies – go the way of all flesh – breathe once last; the government has a credibility problem.

Exercise 5. Consider the difference in the use of stylistic synonyms.

Event – happening; swift – quick; immense – big; valorous – bold; to woo – to court – to spoon; visage – face – mug; peruse – read; struggle – fight; partake – eat; parent – father – dad; infant – child – kid.

Exercise 6. Tell the difference (if any) between the meanings of the words and determine the type of synonyms.

To fit – to become – to match – to suit; liking – affection – love – worship – awe; to dislike – to hate – to loathe; a piece of bread – a slice of lemon – a lump of sugar – a cake of soap – a sheet of paper; to put out (light) – to extinguish; to die – to pass away – to kick the bucket; to throw – to toss; to perspire – to sweat; distinguished – famous – eminent – celebrated; cry –

sob – weep – wail – shed tears; single – lonely; cemetery – grave-yard – memorial park; lavatory – WC; horse – steed; girl – lass; woe – grief; begin – commence; hell – inferno; to do – to make.

Exercise 7. Find synonymous words in the sentences below and decide upon the type of synonyms.

1. Sebastian has left, has bequeathed! 2. I drifted back slowly into the pleasant void of sleep where there weren't any ashes of paints. 3. They were really furnished apartments but the lady always referred to them as a flat. 4. He was a gay, merry man. 5. She was not inconveniently handsome, but she was certainly a comely woman. 6. He went into his bedroom and looked around it. It was neat and tidy. 7. Her affairs were no business of mine. 8. The more you looked at the woman, the more enormous she seemed from the huge head, the great shoulders, thick as an ordinary body to the vast hips. 9. Every time you attempt it your vocal cords fail, fall short, are insufficient, wanting, deficient. 10. I am suffering from extreme fatigue, weariness, lassitude, exhaustion, prostration and languor. 11. Susan, I love you. Will you be my wife, married woman, matron, help-mate, partner or better half? 12. For purely personal and private reasons into which I need not enter, I must now leave you.

Exercise 8. Supply synonyms to the words given in italics.

1. No, the lady of the house is Mrs. Archie Lee Meighen, who is the daughter of my brother that *passed away*. 2. All we hear is his shouts in a foreign *tongue*. 3. He is too *delicate* for the job, though still too *lively* for his years. 4. Why are you so *gloomy* tonight? 5. The rules of the contest were extremely *severe*. 6. *Intelligent* animals let themselves be caught only by children. 7. She *begged* them to enter.

Exercise 9. Consider the difference between absolute and derivational antonyms.

known – unknown; clean – dirty; clear – vague; alive – dead; love – hate; prewar – postwar; logical – illogical; hopeful – hopeless; selfish – unselfish; pretty – ugly.

Exercise 10. See antonyms in the quotations below.

Crabbed age and youth cannot live together. (Shakespeare)

There is so much good in the worst of us and so much bad in the best of us. (Hock)

Nothing so difficult as a beginning in poetry, unless perhaps the end. (Byron)

Definitions of principal concepts:

Synonyms, words different in sound-form, but similar in denotative meaning and interchangeable at least in some contexts.

Euphemisms, words or phrases used to avoid saying unpleasant or offensive words.

Antonyms, words different in sound-form and characterised by semantic polarity.

Workshop № 7 *English Phraseology*

Topics for discussion: Free word groups and phraseologically bound ones. Sources and classifications of phraseological units. Proverbs and sayings.

Questions and Tasks

1. Tell the difference between a free word group and a phraseologically bound one.
2. Why are phraseological units called word equivalents?
3. Comment on existing classifications of phraseological units (V. Vinogradov's, L. Smith's, N. Amosova's).
4. What is common and what is different in the classifications? Which appeals to you most?
5. Explain the terms "semantic and structural cohesion".
6. What are the distinctive features of proverbs and sayings?
7. What are the sources of phraseological units?
8. Read the passage and comment on it:

Set expressions have sometimes been called "word equivalents" ... word equivalents are similar to words in so far as they are not created in speech but introduced into the act of communication ready-made... the integration of two or more words into a unit functioning as a whole with a characteristic unity of nomination (*bread and butter* ≠ *butter and bread*) is chosen for the fundamental property, because it seems to permit checking... by the substitution test.

I. Arnold

Exercises

Exercise 1. Distinguish between free word groups and phraseological units. Green finger; green apple; green man; green with envy; green back; green card; green leaves; green house; green eye; green eyes.

Exercise 2. State the difference between phraseological combinations and phraseological unities.

Do one's hair; do the room; make something clear; make a mistake; make friends; make allowances; make some sandwiches; make a cake; make a (good) husband; make a bed (for a kitten); go over to the offensive; open hostilities; meet somebody half way.

Exercise 3. State the difference between phraseological unities and phraseological fusions.

Smell a rat; snap one's finger; show the white feather; wear one's heart on one's sleeve; beat about the bush; open one's cards; play the first fiddle; break the ice; skeleton in the cupboard; turn over a new leaf; speak with one's tongue in one's cheek; take the bull by the horns; drop a curtsy; drop one's eyes; pay a visit; take care; take revenge; a pretty kettle of fish; to cut off with a shilling; dead as a doornail.

Exercise 4. Decide upon the source of the phraseological units.

1. It goes without saying. 2. The bed of Procrustes. 3. The horn of plenty. 4. The apple of discord. 5. The fifth column. 6. To cross the Rubicon. 7. Cakes and ale. 8. The Gordian knot. 9. Between Scylla and Charybdis. 10. The sword of Damocles. 11. The Golden Age.

Exercise 5. Memorise the phraseological units from the Bible.

A drop in the bucket; eye for eye, tooth for tooth; a thorn in the flesh; the apple of one's eye; forbidden fruit; a Judas' kiss; a prodigal son; a wolf in sheep's clothing.

Exercise 6. Memorise the individual creations.

Aesop: the lion's share; the last straw; the dog in the manger; to cherish a viper in one's bosom. Shakespeare: to one's heart's content; the green-eyed monster; cakes and ale; that's flat; beauty lies in lover's eyes.

Julius Caesar: I cross the Rubicon.

Exercise 7. Decide what spheres of life the phraseological units came from. To feather one's nest; birds of a feather flock together; to live like a fighting cock; to show the white feather; to be in clover; to have one's bread buttered on both sides; to be in low water; to touch bottom; to take somebody in tow; in full sail; to be taken aback; to lead a dog's life; to give somebody a long lead; to keep track; to lose track; to let sleeping dogs

lie; to prick one's ears; to get on one's hind legs; to keep pace with; to smell a rat; a red herring; to take the bull by the horns; a bull in a china shop; to kick the bucket; to buy a pig in a poke; to nip in the bud; to keep one's head; to lose one's head; at a hair's breadth; from head to toe; to make faces; in the twinkling of an eye; to make one's flesh creep; to set one's heart on something; to break one's neck; that's another pair of shoes; to know where the shoe pinches; a stitch in time.

Exercise 8. Point out the implication of the proverbs. Add more to the list.

1. Let us call a spade a spade. 2. When in Rome do as the Romans do. 3. A drowning man catches at a straw. 4. A stitch in time saves nine. 5. Let bygones be bygones. 6. Take care of the pence and the pounds will take care of themselves. 7. The game is not worth the candle. 8. A drowning man catches at a straw. 9. He that lies down with dogs must rise up with fleas. 10. It never rains but it pours. 11. Better an egg today than a hen tomorrow. 12. Better a lean peace than a fat victory. 13. A leopard doesn't change his spots. 14. Every cloud has a silver lining. 15. Still waters run deep. 16. Don't look a gift horse in the mouth. 17. Every family has a black sheep.

Exercise 9. Restore the correct version of the proverb, used in fiction in a changed way:

1. Soames didn't let the grass grow under his feet (J. Galsworthy). 2. The iron was hot and Richards was striking on it (Ch. Dickens). 3. Never do today what can be put off till tomorrow (Gr. Greene).

Exercise 10. Comment on the meanings of synonymous proverbs.

1. Make hay while the sun shines. Strike the iron while it is hot. 2. This is another pair of shoes. This is a horse of another colour. This is another cup of tea.

Definitions of principal concepts:

Phraseology, part of vocabulary comprising set expressions; a branch of linguistics studying these.

Workshop № 8

*The English Word Stock, its Etymological Characteristics.
Native and borrowed Elements in the English word stock.
Assimilation of Borrowed Elements in the English Language.
Types of Borrowings.*

Topics for discussion: Degrees of assimilation of borrowed words. International words. Ethnographisms. Translation Loans. Transliteration. Etymological doublets and triplets.

Questions and Tasks

1. What are the characteristics of Native English words?
2. Why are there so many borrowed elements in the English word stock?
3. What are the characteristics of borrowed words taken over from Greek, Latin, Arabic, French, Scandinavian languages?
4. Why should borrowed elements undergo several stages of assimilation?
5. What is the difference among denizens, aliens and barbarisms?
6. Tell the difference between international words and ethnographisms.
7. How did etymological doublets and triplets develop?
8. Read an extract from Bill Bryson's book "Mother Tongue" and comment on it:

This is of course one of the glories of English—its willingness to take in words from abroad. We take words from almost anywhere— *shampoo* from India, *chaparral* from the Basques, *caucus* from the Algonquin Indians, *ketchup* from China, *potato* from Haiti, *sofa* from Arabia, *slogan* from Gaelic. You can't get much more eclectic than that. And we have been doing it for centuries.

Sometimes the same word reaches us at different times, having undergone various degrees of filtering, and thus can exist in English in two or more related forms, as with *canal* and *channel*, *regard* and *reward*, *poor* and *pauper*, *catch* and *chase*, *cave* and *cage*, *amiable* and *amicable*. Often these words have been so modified in their travels that their kinship is all but invisible.

Exercises

Exercise 1. Distinguish between native and borrowed words. Find Latin and Greek borrowings:

Mother, child, angel, camp, cap, phenomenon, lexis, logos, Thames, school, street, friend, ox, day, phone, Leicester, time, butter, theory, euphoria, palm, plum, orchestra, biography, family, dish, language.

Exercise 2. Use etymological dictionary to decide upon the origin of the synonymous words:

Foe – enemy, time – period, holy – sacred, dale – valley, ask – interrogate.

Exercise 3. Identify Celtic borrowings among the following words:

Family, clan, book, crooner, tunnel, street, flannel, silk, plaid, shamrock, bin, bannock.

Exercise 4. Mind the origin of the following form words:

I, he, she, it, we, you, they, our, us, their, them; to be, am, is, are.

Exercise 5. Arrange French borrowings into 3 groups:

1. medical terms,
2. art terms,
3. law terms.

Admiral, art, accuse, battle, court, defend, genre, gout, judge, malady, music, pain, pulse, soldier, surgeon, talent, tragedy, war.

Exercise 6. Differentiate between Arabic and Scandinavian borrowings:

Amber, ask, arsenal, alcohol, assassin, get, give, algebra, coffee, fellow, husband, magazine, gloomy, ugly, mohair, sky, scrape, scare, dangle, ripple, rustle.

Exercise 7. Arrange the following words into 3 groups: denizens, aliens, barbarisms. Mention the origin of each word:

Cap, belt, take, cafe, bankrupt, traffic, minute, second, coup d'etat, comme-il-faut, comrade, alcohol, garage, eau-de-Cologne, apriori, de facto, Eurica!, school, phenomenon, animal, telephone, genius, philistine, kindergarten, enfant terrible.

Exercise 8. Distinguish between international words and ethnographisms. Arrange them into 2 groups:

Sputnik, parliament, idea, rickshaw, character, radio, sushi, object, carnival, sonata, corrida, evolution, revolution, music, algebra, pizza, covid 19, automobile, chemistry, linguistics, briefing, mass media, theatre, kangaroo, tennis, athletics, football, fitness, club, Charleston, rock-and-roll, banana, avocado, boomerang, blitzkrieg, samurai, kamikaze, philosophy, samovar, maidan.

Exercise 9. Decide upon the origin of the following translation loans. Give the source word or word combination:

Social worker, masterpiece, fall ill, chain smoker, thing-in-itself, self-criticism, concentration camp, world famous, it goes without saying, the sword of Damocles, Pandora's box, Procrustean bed, Sisyphean labour.

Exercise 10. Memorize the following etymological doublets and triplets. Comment on their origin and tell the difference in their meanings:

channel – canal, captain – chieftain, sir – senior, saloon – salon, shirt – skirt, liquor – liquid, disk – dish, dune – down, mayor – major, screw – shrew, cane – canyon, cavalry – chivalry, shade – shadow, camp – campus, bench – bank, naked – nude, hospital – hostel – hotel, plan – plane – piano, islam – moslem – salaam, catch – chase – capture, arise – rise – raise, straight – strait – strict, bear – birth – burden.

Definitions of principal concepts:

Etymology, a branch of linguistics that studies the history and origin of words and their meanings.

Borrowing, the process by which a word from one language is adapted for use in another; a borrowed word (a loan word).

Source of borrowing, a language from which the borrowing was taken.

Origin of borrowing, a language to which the word may be traced.

Denizens, completely assimilated words.

Aliens, partially assimilated words.

Barbarisms, non-assimilated words.

International words, words of identical origin that occur in several languages as the result of simultaneous or successive borrowings from one source, denote identical concepts and are similar in sound complex. They mostly express scientific, cultural, technical and political concepts.

Ethnographisms, words denoting specific notions, peculiar to particular ethnic communities. They have no equivalents in receiving languages.

Loan translation, a calque, a word-for-word translation from one language into another.

Transliteration, rendering a language from one writing system to another (e.g. Cyrillic symbols for Latin ones).

Etymological doublets/ triplets, two or more words originating from the same etymological source, but differing in phonemic shape and meaning.

Recommendations for complex lexicological analysis of the text.

Every authentic text offers a student vast opportunities to apply their knowledge of Lexicology because every word of the language manifests a variety of problems Lexicology is concerned with.

Lexicological analysis of a stretch of text (200-300 words) implies the analysis of its vocabulary from the view point of word-building, paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations, meaning, etymology.

In order to facilitate the process of analysis it is recommended that it should be done in stages. At the first stage the vocabulary of the text should be arranged into particular groups:

1. Words, representing different word-building patterns.
2. Words, revealing a) a variety of lexico-semantic variants (= polysemantic words); b) shifts of lexical meaning (change of meaning: generalisation, specialisation, elevation, degradation; transfer of meaning (metaphor, metonymy); c) identity of form and difference of lexical meanings (= homonyms); d) nearness of meanings (= synonyms); e) polarity of meanings (= antonyms); f) new coinages (= occasionalisms and neologisms).
3. Phraseologically bound units which function as word-equivalents.
4. Words, different in their etymology.

This being done lexicological analysis of each selected word or word group follows, which constitutes the ultimate stage of text analysis.

Sample of text analysis

Teach First highlights gender gap in maths and science and calls for higher pay for trainee teachers in Stem subjects

More than half of British girls do not feel confident learning maths while two-fifths feel insecure about science, according to a report which highlights an “alarming” gender confidence gap in schools.

Research by the education charity Teach First found that 54% of girls lacked confidence in maths, compared with 41% of boys, but the gap was even wider in science, where 43% of girls lacked confidence compared with 26% of boys.

The findings were based on the results of a YouGov poll of 1,000 young people aged 11 to 16 ahead of the International Day of Women and Girls in Science on Sunday.

Despite feeling less confident, girls often outperform boys in Stem (science, technology, engineering and mathematics) subjects at GCSE, with a higher percentage achieving top grades – though fewer girls then take these subjects at A-level and go on into Stem careers.

The results have prompted warnings that poor gender diversity will exacerbate the skills shortage currently facing the Stem sector, and Teach First is calling for more high-quality, specialist teachers to help inspire the next generation into these fields.

In 2020, women made up less than 30% of the UK Stem workforce, while the Institution of Engineering and Technology (IET) has warned of a shortfall of more than 173,000 workers – the equivalent of 10 unfilled roles per business, on average.

(from The Guardian, 8.02.2024)

Complex Lexicological Analysis of the Text

Stage One.

Word-Building Patterns

Derivation: confidence; trainee; education, generation, international

Compounding: highlight; high-quality; workforce; shortfall, Sunday; women

Conversion: (girls) lack (V); calls (for higher pay) (N); a pay (N); a report (N)

Shortening: maths; UK; Stem; GCSE; IET; A-level

Blending: YouGov (poll)

Change of Stress and Sound Gradation: `subject (N) – sub`ject (V)

Back-formation: exacerbation (N) → to exacerbate (V)

Semantics

Change of lexical meaning

Extension of lexical meaning: women

Specialisation of lexical meaning: girls, subject

Transfer of lexical meaning:

Metaphor: (gender) gap; (feel) insecure; alarming (gender confidence); top (grades); (scientific) field; poor (gender diversity); to prompt (warnings); to exacerbate (skills)

Metonymy: poll (finds), Teach First (highlights and calls for), role (per business)

Polysemy: subject; field; call; take; make; go;

Phraseology: to go on into (Stem careers); to make up (less than 30%); to call for (specialists).

Borrowing: confidence, gender, maths, science, report, alarming, education, research, school, charity, compare, result, people, international, technology, engineering, percentage, career, diversity, exacerbate, sector, generation, institution, equivalent, role, per.

Stage Two.

The text under analysis offers a variety of different word-building patterns. Among them:

Derivation: The noun *confidence* is produced from the Latin verb *-fidere-* (*to trust*) by means of adding a Latin prefix *con-*, productive, denoting “together with” and a Romanic noun-forming suffix *-ence*, non-productive, denoting state. The root morpheme of the noun is *-fid-*, which is bound, of Latin origin. The noun represents the second degree of derivation.

The adjective *international* is produced from the Latin noun *nation* by means of adding a Latin prefix *inter-*, productive, denoting “between”, a Romanic adjective-forming suffix *-al*, productive, denoting quality and a Romanic noun-forming suffix *-ion*, productive, denoting state. The root morpheme of the adjective is *-natus-*, which is bound, of Latin origin. The adjective represents the third degree of derivation.

Compounding: The verb *highlight* is a compound. It consists of two root morphemes *high* and *light*. The compound is subordinative (*light* being semantically domineering), motivated, proper, neutral.

The noun *Sunday* is a compound. It consists of two root morphemes *Sun* and *day*. The compound is subordinative (*day* being semantically domineering), non-motivated, proper, neutral.

The noun *women* is a disguised compound that originated from the compound noun *wifman* (OE).

Conversion: The verbs *to lack* is converted from the noun *lack*. The productive pattern N → V is at work. The nouns *calls*, *a pay*, *a report* are

converted from the verbs *to call*, *to pay*, *to report*. The productive pattern V→N is observed. In both cases complete conversion takes place.

Shortening: *UK* is produced from the word combination *United Kingdom*. *GCSE* is produced from the phrase *General Certificate of Secondary Education*.

IET is produced from the phrase *Institution of Engineering and Technology*.

All three cases represent the extreme type of shortening – initial abbreviations.

Stem is an acronym, which originates from the phrase *Science, technology, engineering and mathematics*. It represents a particular type of shortening, acronym, which is pronounced as a word.

Maths is a type of lexical shortening, syncope, that is produced from *mathematics*.

A-level is a semi-abbreviation, the first component *advanced* is abbreviated to *A*, the second component is given in its full form.

Blending: The blend *YouGov* is the produce of two English words – *You* and *Government*.

Change of Stress and Sound Gradation: *subject* (N) – *to sub`ject* (V); the noun *subject* is forestressed, therefore the vowel in the 2nd syllable is reduced. In the verb *to sub`ject* the second syllable is stressed, so the vowel in the 1st syllable is reduced. Change of stress always combines with sound gradation.

Back-formation: the verb *exacerbate* is produced from the noun *exacerbation* by means of back-formation.

Semantics

Actually all words occurring in everyday use are polysemantic. Polysemy results from 2 semantic processes – Change or Transfer of lexical meaning. Both occur in the text.

Change of meaning.

Extension: The noun *women* underwent extension of lexical meaning from *wifman* (OE), a *married female*, and developed to *any female*.

Specialisation: The noun *girl(s)* underwent specialisation of lexical meaning from *gyrle* (OE), a *child of either sex*, and developed to a *female child*.

Transfer of meaning.

Metaphor: All metaphors in this text are trite: (gender) *gap*, *alarming* (confidence), *top* (grades), *poor* (diversity). These metaphors are based on the association of similarity of quality. The trite metaphors (scientific)

field is based on the association of similarity of space. The trite metaphors *to prompt* (warnings), *to exacerbate* (skills) are based on association of similarity of action.

Metonymy: The noun *poll* (finds) and *Teach First* (highlights and calls for) represent metonymy, that is based on association of contiguity between the place and the people's activity.

The noun *role* originates from the French *role* “*part played by a person in life*” literally “*roll*” (*of paper*) *on which an actor's part is written*”. In this case metonymy is based on association of contiguity between the possessed and the possessor.

Polysemy: *Subject* is a polysemantic noun of Latin origin, whose central meaning is “*the thing that is being discussed, considered, or studied*”, in the above context it realizes the meaning of “*an area of knowledge that is studied in school, college, or university*”. The basis of polysemy is specialisation of lexical meaning.

The next lexico-semantic variant (LSV) of the noun *subject* is “*a person, thing, or situation that is written about in a book, article, etc, or shown in a picture*”. The new LSV develops due to the metaphoric transfer of meaning.

The highly polysemantic verbs “take”, “make” and “go” are considered to be closer to the verbs of wide semantics as they substitute verbs with similar semantics and can be used in many contexts.

Phraseological units are scarce in the analysed text. They mainly represent phraseological combinations, which are used on metaphoric basis and are motivated: *to go on into* (Stem careers); *to make up* (less than 30%); *to call for* (specialists).

Since 70% of English word stock are **borrowed words**, it is but natural that there is a great amount of borrowings in this text. The nouns *science, report, education, research, charity, roll* are Latin by origin, they are completely assimilated denizens. The noun *school* is of Greek origin, it came through Latin and is an alien. The analysed text abounds in international words, denoting science. They are all of Latin origin and can be found in many European languages: *confidence, gender, maths, compare, result, international, technology, engineering, percentage, career, diversity, sector, generation, institution, equivalent*.

Overall, the text under analysis offers a great variety of productive and non-productive Word-Building patterns as well multiple sematic phenomena such as Change of lexical meaning (Extension and Specialisation) and Transfer of lexical meaning (Metaphor and Metonymy). The ample amount of borrowings is employed in the text, especially international words, denoting science, whereas the phraseological units are scarcely used in the given extract.

Research themes for exam:

1. Productive WBP: Derivation. Conversion.
2. Productive WBP: Compounding. Non-productive WBP.
3. Productive WBP: Shortening. Conversion.
4. Semasiology. The Word. Lexical Meaning of a Word. Types of Lexical Meaning. Word Motivation.
5. Change of Lexical Meaning. Word Motivation.
6. Transfer of Lexical Meaning. Word Motivation.
7. Ambiguity of Lexical Meaning: Polysemy. Homonymy.
8. Nearness and Polarity of Lexical Meaning: Synonyms. Antonyms.
9. The English Phraseology.
10. The Etymology of the English Wordstock. Native and Borrowed Words. Assimilation of Borrowed Elements in the English Language. Types of Borrowings.

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Додаткова

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ДЛЯ НОТАТОК

ДЛЯ ПОТАТОК

Навчальне видання

LEXICOLOGY WORKSHOPS

МЕТОДИЧНІ РЕКОМЕНДАЦІЇ

до практичних занять та самостійної роботи
з навчальної дисципліни «Лексикологія англійської мови»
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Укладачі:

Ігіна Олена Володимирівна
Савранчук Ірина Петрівна

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Видавець Букаєв Вадим Вікторович

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Тел. 0949464393, e-mail: 7431393@gmail.com